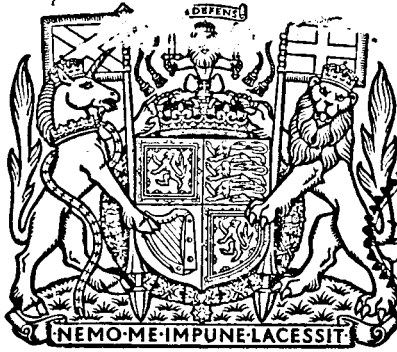


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SCOTTISH EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP

A REPORT OF THE
ADVISORY COUNCIL ON EDUCATION
IN SCOTLAND

*Presented by the Secretary of State for Scotland to Parliament
by Command of His Majesty*

EDINBURGH

PUBLISHED BY HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE

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1944

(Reprinted 1945)

Price 6d. net

Cmd. 6495

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PREFATORY NOTE

THIS Report of the Advisory Council on Education in Scotland deals with a subject to which the Secretary of State attaches the greatest importance. In the Foreword which he wrote in 1942 for the Department's memorandum on Training for Citizenship, he emphasised the vital necessity of inculcating generally in the schools of Scotland a high standard of public spirit and citizenship, and of securing that all who are concerned with education should do their utmost to assist. Mr. Johnston is confident that the Council's Report, with its fuller treatment of the subject, will be found to contain much that is helpful and inspiring, and he commends it to the earnest attention of school authorities and their staffs. He proposes to issue in due course a circular dealing with its several recommendations.

8th December, 1943.

REPORT

To the RT. HON. THOMAS JOHNSTON, M.P.,
Secretary of State for Scotland.

SIR,

I. THE REMIT AND THE PROCEDURE OF THE COUNCIL

1. On 11th February, 1943, you remitted to the Advisory Council—"To consider how the educational system of Scotland can most effectively contribute to training in the duties, rights and practice of citizenship, and to make recommendations." We have accepted as the basis of our deliberations the memorandum on Training for Citizenship issued in 1942 by the Scottish Education Department. We have also had the advantage of considering the evidence, both written and oral, submitted to us on this remit by the individuals and organizations whose names are given in Appendix I to this Report. We take this opportunity of thanking them for the valuable assistance they have given us in our consideration of this complex problem.

II. THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

2. Our conception of the purpose of training for Citizenship is the training of young people—

- (1) to become good husbands and wives and fathers and mothers ;
- (2) to develop the spirit of responsibility and of tolerant co-operation with their fellows in work or leisure activities ;
- (3) to take an intelligent and independent part in the affairs of the community, both local and national ;
- (4) to have a sense of membership of the world community.

3. The social and political importance of active Citizenship cannot be over-estimated. No single witness before the Council has challenged the truth of this. On an approach being made, however, to the discussion of plans by which the ideal might be applied in practice in the schools of Scotland there were signs of uncertainty. This is not surprising when we remember the vast economic and social changes which have been in process during the last twenty-five years and are now being accelerated by a World War.

4. Under the conditions of to-day the practical application of Citizenship training in many schools of the country is hindered by home and social conditions over which the schools have no control. But bad surroundings are not the only causes of faulty Citizenship, and schools attended by children who live in more comfortable surroundings are not always successful in producing good citizens. However, until slums are abolished and housing conditions greatly improved, the schools cannot be blamed if the training for Citizenship which they give does not produce the desired results. No school must be allowed to relax its efforts on the ground that the home conditions make training useless or to a great extent ineffective. These conditions must rather be regarded as a challenge, and the vision of better conditions in the post-war world as an

incentive, calling for increased effort. A concerted plan of training for Citizenship must be evolved in which the schools, the homes and all other agencies concerned with children play their part. But this work will be wasted unless the adult population as a whole is brought to realize the responsibilities, duties and privileges of membership of a free and democratic community, and we urge that the Central Government and the local authorities should do everything in their power to achieve this end.

5. Ever since the reform of the educational system of Scotland in 1872 it has been made clear in the Codes and other publications of the Scottish Education Department that the training of the future citizen is a basic function of our schools. In Appendix II we give quotations from these documents, which show that the development of public opinion, in so far as public opinion can be gauged from such pronouncements, has been gradual. The latest publication of the Department on the subject is the memorandum on Training for Citizenship already referred to, which contains a fine statement of the ideals which it is sought to realize. We feel no doubt that under this official guidance the schools have in the past achieved much; but enlightened public opinion, surveying the British Constitution, the condition of this country and the state of the world at large, now demands much more. The ideal, though difficult to define with precision, is sufficiently well understood: but too little is known of the methods whereby the schools can most effectively contribute to its realization.

III. A FIVE-YEAR EXPERIMENT

6. Our difficulty in constructing for ourselves or obtaining from our witnesses any specific plan by which the schools might seek to achieve the ideal seemed to be due to the lack of adequate experience. The time-honoured expedient of trial and error has not yet been sufficiently used to give an indication of the best methods of approach. We therefore recommend that the next five years be set apart as a period of experiment and of deliberate striving towards a theory and practice in training for Citizenship. At the outset each school should be asked to evolve and, as soon as possible, to submit plans of training. Every encouragement should be given to show enterprise and initiative in the formation of these plans and in their prosecution. In this His Majesty's Inspectors and the Directors of Education should have an important part to play. They would be in a position to inspire and guide the activities of the schools and to pass on information as to the progress of experiments. The influence and co-operation of the Education Authorities would also be of importance and should be secured.

7. In order that information on the initiation and progress of experiments may be widely available, it is suggested, as an integral part of our proposals, that soon after the end of the second year of the quinquennium of experiment the Scottish Education Department should publish a report entitled the "Scottish Book of Citizenship." This should indicate in such detail as may be possible at that stage the plans and experiences of the schools, whether successful or not. Thereafter, during the remaining term of the experiment, the "Scottish Book of Citizenship" should be published annually, and should outline the more active and successful features of the school programmes, as well as experiments which have not produced the hoped for results, thus enabling schools to make such changes in their own schemes as the experience of other schools may indicate. At the end of the period of experiment, the evidence of trial and error being then available, the Secretary of State should be in a position to decide by what methods training for Citizenship could most effectively be given in the schools, and in particular whether local autonomy and experiment might continue to serve a national plan of training for Citizenship, or whether the plan of training should be standardized throughout Scotland.

8. The new importance which must be attached to training for Citizenship will involve some change of emphasis in the work of the schools. While they will continue to impart knowledge and to prepare children for life and work, they will more than ever before become the training ground where the future citizens will learn to know what they are expected to become as members of a free and democratic community ; and from this point of view what they are and what they may become is more important than what they know. In our view it is not possible to adapt the present machinery of education effectively to these changed conditions without prior experiment. It would also be unwise to force this widened conception of their function upon the schools either under the conditions of war or during the re-adjustment of the early post-war period. There remains, therefore, the plan for a quinquennium of eager and stimulative experiment, a time for conference and consideration, for the old gradually to give place to the new.

9. The change in emphasis on many school subjects and the permeation of the Citizenship ideal will call for a revision or a re-writing of school books and the scrapping of many of those in use. Time will be required to consider and achieve the necessary changes.

IV. SUGGESTIONS FOR EXPERIMENT IN TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP

10. In the following paragraphs we refer to some of the subjects which we discussed with our witnesses and make some suggestions as to the nature of the experiments which might usefully be made by the schools.

1. The School as a Community

11. Almost all our witnesses regard it as essential that a school should be a small community within the larger local community ; that duties and responsibilities should be known and shared ; that the experience of living and working together in pursuit of a common task should be made more real ; that the older a child grows the more definite should training for Citizenship become, so that the scholar may be lost in the citizen and the citizen found in the scholar.

12. Many Scottish schools enjoy a great tradition which survives all changes of staff ; others have suffered by change. We received evidence that the control of a school by an independent governing body tends to foster the growth of such a tradition, and that in many schools a tradition and a distinctive atmosphere have been built up mainly by the personality and united efforts of successive headmasters and their staffs. This is a subject which should be further investigated. The character of the future citizen and his philosophy of life will at many points be built upon the tone of his school and upon the influence and personality of his teachers. This responsibility must be accepted in a very real way by the heads of the schools and must be willingly discharged by them and their colleagues. An equal responsibility will fall on Education Authorities and other governing bodies who in making appointments of heads of schools must secure men and women of the right personality and character. In appointing heads of departments and other teachers they should bear in mind the importance of harmonious relations between the headmaster and his staff, and should therefore on all occasions take the heads of schools into closest consultation and endeavour to make appointments acceptable to them. Training Colleges may require to introduce new considerations in the selection of candidates for training in any branch of the teaching profession and also to take steps at an early stage to reject any student in training who may be deemed from this new point of view unsuitable.

13. The problem of backward children calls for more study with a view to developing means of dealing with them other than by segregation. More

creative work, as distinct from book and memory work, may relieve many such children of a sense of failure and frustration. There may thus arise a fresh interest in some subject or subjects of study hitherto neglected. When segregation is found to be the only practicable method this should be applied at an earlier age than is at present customary. The provision of suitable equipment is important, and the problem of the qualities required in teachers of these children needs further investigation.

14. There is an urgent need to reduce the size of the class in the Primary School to a maximum of thirty. But even under present conditions, experiments should be made in handling the individual class as a small community within the larger community of the school, and the sense of family or community should be encouraged, the teacher accepting the additional function of community leader. Where little duties and responsibilities can be undertaken by pupils, this should be arranged. By methods of this kind the younger children gradually learn to appreciate the ideals of a Citizenship shared with all others.

15. We favour the acceptance by teachers in Junior and Senior Secondary Schools of the same order of responsibility. At present in these schools subjects are taught by specialist teachers who do not see their pupils often enough to gain an intimate knowledge of them as individuals. At least one of our witnesses maintained that the change from a single teacher in the Primary School to as many as six or seven specialists produces in some children mental perplexity and maladjustment at a time when the end of school life lies not far ahead. It is in our opinion most desirable that each class should have a class-master or class-mistress who would give the pupils sympathetic guidance as well as instruction. Religious teaching might be given by them. They should also take such periods as may be allotted to the preparation of work for the next day. The influence of these class-masters and class-mistresses would be in our opinion of great value in making the school a genuine community; and the more they learn of the conditions in which their pupils live at home, the more effective will their influence be. The ties between school and scholar which they may help to form should be strengthened by the development of Former Pupils' Associations.

16. The appointment of prefects or monitors in Senior Secondary Schools, and the organization of a house or nation system, have afforded opportunities for an excellent training in the responsibility of leadership. Experiments on these lines should be developed throughout Scotland in both Senior and Junior Secondary Schools and, where deemed practicable, in the two highest classes of the Primary Schools, girls having the same privileges as boys. The experiments should cover such questions as the best methods of electing or appointing the prefects or monitors or other group leaders, what powers should be entrusted to them and how they can most effectively be trained in the acceptance and discharge of their responsibilities. Experiment might be made with the "patrol" method of organization as used in the Scout and Guide movements, which might be adapted for school purposes by the division of a class for certain classroom or recreational activities into, say, four balanced groups of seven or eight pupils each with a leader and possibly a sub-leader.

17. In all Senior and Junior Secondary Schools and in all large Primary Schools where there is co-education of boys and girls the Headmaster should be aided in the discharge of his new responsibilities by the appointment of a Lady Superintendent, whose most important duties should be to share with the Headmaster a responsibility for the friendly care of the girls and to help to create and maintain among them a high tone of conduct and due respect for tradition. While both Headmaster and Lady Superintendent may undertake the whole or part of the duties of a class-master or class-mistress to a group of the oldest pupils, they should be relieved of any heavy burden of teaching, thus making both more readily available for the other duties of their office. In all such schools adequate clerical assistance to the Headmaster should be provided. Without such assistance the importunate clerical and administrative

duties which fall to the Headmaster are so onerous as to leave him too little time for teaching and for the inspiration and experiment to which we attach so much importance.

18. The advantages of boarding-school life—advantages enjoyed only by a very small percentage of the school population—have been brought to our notice. As a self-contained community the boarding-school provides an excellent training ground for Citizenship. But the boarding-school is a comparative rarity in Scotland. The larger Education Authorities, and in particular the City Authorities, might establish boarding-schools in country districts to which selected senior secondary pupils might be sent for their secondary course ; or all secondary pupils in rotation might attend these schools for as long a period as may be possible. Camp schools offer further possibilities.

19. A proper attitude towards work is an important element in Citizenship. Children should feel that any work faithfully performed, so far from being degrading, is a valuable contribution to the life and welfare of the community. The schools should experiment with methods of inducing the right attitude towards work.

20. Schools which have been able successfully to place their pupils in employment gain the esteem and confidence of parents. All schools do not enjoy the same success or even the same facilities, especially during periods of prolonged unemployment. We recommend that the Scottish Education Department should consult with the Ministry of Labour as to what alteration in or variation of the present arrangement for the placement of young people in employment may be necessary or advisable ; in particular, what new part the schools may fitly play within the arrangements for placement, and whether the appointment of teachers in Junior and Senior Secondary Schools as careers masters and mistresses would aid any rearrangement. We deem it important that all pupils should be carefully and timeously advised on the choice of a career, and that if careers masters or mistresses are appointed, they should have adequate training, should consult the parents in order, among other things, to discourage blind-alley occupations, and should keep in touch with pupils for several years after they have left school by personal contact or through the medium of a Former Pupils' Association. When compulsory part-time education is introduced, much of this work will pass to the staff of the Colleges for further education. These Colleges will be able to play a most important part in placing young people in suitable employment. This subject is discussed in our Report on Compulsory Day Continuation Classes.

21. Since material conditions may have moral effects, new school buildings should be functionally suitable for their purpose and should be well equipped with all possible accommodation for the business of teaching, and for those needs that may develop out of youth service and community movements of the future. Schools in towns and in some rural districts present the most urgent problems ; too many of them are ugly, uninviting and obsolete. The removal of schools from old buildings to new should be accelerated, and where old schools are to be retained in service a suitable hall or gymnasium should be provided, adequate arrangements for mid-day meals should be made, standards of internal decoration should be improved by the introduction of brighter colours, better lighting should be provided and the classrooms should be made as airy and attractive as circumstances permit.

2. Collaboration between Parent and Teacher

22. In our statement in paragraph 4 on the nature of the problem of training for Citizenship we said that a concerted plan of training must be evolved in which the schools, the homes, and all the other agencies concerned with children play their part. We feel it is most important that a new and strong link should be forged between the two great influences in the child's life, the home and the school. In some schools, contact between the school and the home is

already achieved by the Parent-Teacher Association. These associations have not been universally successful in Scotland. Where, in cities, they might be most useful, the parents whom it is most desired to attract are those who fail to respond. The Parent-Teacher Association works best in the small or self-contained community. An association might therefore be formed to serve each school or group of schools within a new housing, or other composite, area, and new consideration should be given by all schools and School Management Committees in Scotland to the possibilities of this method of contact. An alternative method of home and school association is to give parents an interest in their children's school by encouraging fathers and mothers, through invitations conveyed by the children themselves, to attend open days, exhibitions of work, concerts and other functions held from time to time. This has in practice worked well where the visits have led to friendly contact between parents and teachers and to goodwill on both sides. It may be that the solution lies in direct association by the class-master or class-mistress with the homes and parents of the children, and not in an association of the whole school with the general body of parents. By whatever method they are achieved, links of friendship should exist between every school and the homes of its children. Here, too, the Headmaster will find himself called to a new and special responsibility. He may get much useful help from co-operation with parents. Some of the questions discussed in subsequent paragraphs of this Report which particularly call for joint consideration are the health of the children, the prevention of accidents, lack of sleep, delinquency and careers.

3. Moral and Religious Training

(1) *Training in Behaviour*

23. If our ultimate ideal be to cherish the decencies of life, the schools must help to lay the foundations. There, good manners and good conduct may be taught as much by example as by precept, and pupils can learn from each other the difference between right and wrong, and the consequence of transgression. We were informed that in some schools where definite lessons on right and wrong are given—mainly by means of discussion—striking results have been achieved. The effect of such lessons should be tried in all schools. In some schools the idea of good form and bad form has a salutary influence, and experiments might be made as to how such an idea could be introduced into other schools. It is far from true that there has been in our schools complete neglect of this important question of behaviour. On the contrary, many teachers in many schools have done their best, often in very adverse circumstances, and we have already referred to the instructions and guidance given in the Codes and other publications of the Scottish Education Department.

24. We have received an interesting account of the method of teaching what is called "Human Relations" in the State of California. Every child is shown the results of his own and of other people's actions, good or bad. Conduct in the home and the school and on such occasions as interviews with employers is pictured, sometimes acted, but always discussed until it is understood, and the children learn how to comport themselves and how to form wise judgments on the problems which may at times confront every one of them. Thus they gradually develop the power of understanding themselves and the reactions of others, until they are able to take a full and balanced part in the adult life into which they have to fit themselves. The co-operation of the young people is developed naturally. We recommend that experiments be conducted along these lines in Scottish schools.

25. We have discussed the adoption of a Schools Code of Good Conduct, a code similar to Scout Law, and have heard witnesses on the subject. We recommend that an experimental code should be produced by the Scottish Education Department in co-operation with the schools and the Education Authorities of a few typical areas, and that the results should be carefully observed.

(2) Religious Teaching

26. In the course of his broadcast speech delivered on 21st March, 1943, the Prime Minister said :—" There is another element which should never be banished from our system of education. We have here freedom of thought as well as freedom of conscience. Here we have been the pioneers of religious toleration. But side by side with all this has been the fact that religion has been a rock in the life and character of the British people upon which they have built their hopes and cast their cares. This fundamental element must never be taken from our schools."

27. The provision made for religious instruction in our Scottish schools is fully described in the Memorandum on the subject which was recently presented to Parliament †; and we consider that no fundamental change is desirable in the respective spheres of responsibility of the Secretary of State and of the Education Authorities for religious instruction. We would emphasise how supremely important it is, if religious instruction is to contribute to training for Citizenship, that the true Christian spirit should pervade the school, and that nothing should be done which might create the impression of hypocrisy. Religion stands apart from the other subjects of the school curriculum, and also differs from them in this mundane respect that it is not inspected by His Majesty's Inspectors and is not normally a subject of external examination. Of this we wholly approve. But we have been told by many witnesses, and it is within our own knowledge, that the religious lesson is too often interrupted to make room for the details of school administration, the collection of milk money, and other incidentals. This interruption could be avoided if special provision of time for these purposes were made in the time-tables submitted for approval under Article 28 of the Day Schools (Scotland) Code, 1939 ‡, and we recommend that this should be done.

28. The practice of holding a morning service should be universal where a suitable hall is available; otherwise morning prayers should be held in each classroom. Attendance of teachers and children at a nearby church for special services should be encouraged. One period a day for religious instruction should be made universal in Primary Schools, and two periods a week of 40-45 minutes each should be set apart for the purpose in all Secondary Schools. The imminence of examinations must not be allowed to interfere with those periods. The Authorities should make adequate supplies of suitable books and equipment available in all schools for the religious lessons: the lessons often suffer from the lack of these articles. The restriction of the times at which religious instruction may be given seriously increases the difficulty of organizing the instruction and of making the best use of the teachers who are able and willing to take the religious lessons. We therefore recommend that the provisions of the Act of 1872 § and of the Code of 1939 † which prescribe that any religious instruction or religious observance must be held at the beginning or at the end of a meeting of the school should be repealed; but this, of course, must not be allowed to affect the right of parents, without forfeiting any of the other advantages of the school, to withdraw their children from religious instruction or religious observances.

29. We desire to acknowledge the valuable work that has already been done by the Joint Committee of the Church of Scotland and the Educational Institute of Scotland with which representatives of other Churches have recently been associated. The syllabuses of religious instruction issued by the Committee

* Paragraphs 28, 29 and 30 are not intended to apply in every detail to Roman Catholic Schools. These are safeguarded as to staff, and as to the time set apart for religious instruction and observance, by provisos (ii) and (iii) to subsection (3) of section 18 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1918 (8 & 9 Geo. 5. c. 48).

† Memorandum with regard to the provision made for Religious Instruction in the Schools in Scotland: Presented by the Secretary of State for Scotland to Parliament by Command of His Majesty, February, 1943. Cmd. 6426.

‡ S.R. & O., 1939, No. 422/S35.

§ 35 & 36 Vict. c. 62 s. 68.

are a valuable contribution to educational experiment; so also is the plan now accepted in many education areas of appointing clergymen to visit the schools. We look forward to close co-operation between the Churches and the Education Authorities in each area. Reports on this work should not, because of the limited function of the Secretary of State in regard to religious instruction, be excluded from the "Scottish Book of Citizenship."

30. The training of teachers to prepare them to give religious instruction is a subject which requires special study and experiment. We are aware of what is done at the Training Collèges, but we doubt whether this is sufficient. It is of course clear that only those who are believing Christians should be asked to take training in religious instruction or should be entrusted with the duty of giving it in the schools, and that other teachers must in no way be prejudiced because they do not undertake this work. But it does appear to us to be paradoxical that for those who are willing to teach the one subject which is acknowledged to be of fundamental importance an adequate training should not be insisted upon, while full qualifications are required for teaching the other and less important subjects. It has been suggested to us that a course on the Bible of the length and standard of a class for the ordinary M.A. degree should be instituted which could be attended by students during one of their years at the University or Training College. Another suggestion is that there should be a specialist qualification in the teaching of religion. We recommend that the whole question should be carefully studied, especially in view of the wide difference in the method of teaching which is needed for children of different ages and of the fact that the young people at the top of a Secondary School are often a more critical audience than any adult congregation. We propose to deal further with this problem in one of our later reports.

4. Aesthetic Training

31. The appeal of beauty plays an important part in the building up of the ideal citizen. No education can be regarded as complete unless an attempt is made to develop in the child some aesthetic appreciation of Art, Music and the beauties of Nature. Imagination ought to be stimulated. The training of the eye, the ear and the hand is necessary to attain this object, so that children can appreciate line, form, colour, tone and rhythm. Every child should be given the opportunity of drawing and painting. The handling of clay or other plastic material should also be encouraged in those who show aptitude. Training in accurate craftsmanship, like carving or model making, is also valuable. It is important that children with the necessary aptitude should learn to play in an orchestra or to sing in a choir: all who can should be taught how to appreciate good music. Opportunities of special value arise in small towns and villages for co-operation with the Council for the Encouragement of Music and the Arts (C.E.M.A.) and the British Institute of Adult Education (B.I.A.E.) in their presentation of good music, drama and art exhibits. It must not be forgotten that in normal times, and especially in later life, gainful labour does not occupy all the hours of the day. The proper use of leisure can make all the difference between utter boredom and intense happiness. The elementary aesthetic training in childhood may ultimately, for many, be the solution of the problem of leisure. We know that aesthetic training is by no means neglected in our Scottish schools, but we feel that it offers ample scope for fresh development.

5. The Rules of Health

32. A healthy mind requires a healthy body. Health and happiness are intimately related. In the integration of the personality bodily health is of prime importance. The child should be taught from its earliest years the simple facts of personal hygiene—the need for the cleanliness of the body, the teeth and the hair, for the graces of the table, for attendance to the calls of nature and so on. Apart from the good home there is no better starting point for this training than the nursery school. For this attainment of health the muscles of the

pupil's body require as much attention and training as his mind. Physical training should form part of the daily routine in all schools. Intermittent training cannot give the best results. Although an elaborate gymnastic outfit is no doubt a great asset in this training, it is not essential. Free standing exercises directed by a skilled instructor can be astonishingly effective. These exercises are best performed in the open air, and flat playgrounds should be provided for the purpose, but many exercises can be carried out even in the classroom when the weather is inclement. Adequate sleep is just as necessary as food. The necessity of ample sleep for the young should be impressed on the parents on every possible occasion.

6. The Prevention of Accidents

33. Just as it is the duty of the good citizen to maintain a sound body by observing the rules of health, so also is it his duty to maintain a whole body by observing the rules of safety. The country cannot afford the loss and disablement of its future citizens which is caused by preventable accidents, and especially by road accidents. The number of casualties which continues to occur among school children is a cause of serious anxiety. The rules of safety are not instinctive and must be taught. During recent years the schools have played an important and increasing part in the campaign to reduce the number of accidents. Many different methods of teaching and training have been tried with varying degrees of success. The subject remains one in which there is great scope for experiment and for the co-operation of schools with the home and with other agencies.

7. The Facts of Sex

34. We regard it as of first importance to the nation that all children should be instructed in the simple facts of sex, but we do not feel qualified to express an opinion upon the problems involved. We therefore strongly recommend that a Special Committee of the Advisory Council should be constituted to inquire into the subject.

8. The Contribution of the Individual School Subject

35. Some of our witnesses, and in particular the Association for Education in Citizenship, have represented to us that almost every subject of the school curriculum can be taught in such a way as to make a contribution towards training for Citizenship. We accept this view, which appears to us to apply with special force to English, Geography, History and Civics. We refer to the publications of the Association, where detailed consideration is given to the problem. We hope to deal in a later report with methods of teaching, and we invite all schools to conduct experiments, which should add a new realism and interest to their teaching.

36. Every good citizen should take a pride in the correct use of his native tongue; in a community where the conduct of affairs is determined by free and open discussion there should be no room for uncouth or slovenly speech. We feel that in many schools the pupils are given too little practice in the use of the spoken word, while the written word is often lacking in lucidity and idiom. Home surroundings often militate against the correct use of the language, with the result that some of the children are virtually bilingual, but this difficulty should be regarded by the schools as a challenge to find ways and means not only of teaching their pupils to speak and write clearly, but also of making them believe and understand that it is in their own interest and in the interest of the community that they should habitually do so. This work must not be left to the English specialist: all teachers must co-operate, since English is the medium through which every subject is taught. It is equally important that children should learn the inexhaustible pleasure of silent reading. It is the duty of a citizen to spend his leisure profitably, and it is likely that in coming

years the hours of leisure will increase. Admirable work is being done in some of the larger centres for the encouragement of reading, of the use of Public Libraries by children, and of teaching young people how to use reference books. This marks the way for advance in other centres.

37. A basic knowledge of geography is necessary for every citizen, and some kinds of employment may make further specialised knowledge essential. Those facts about a country and its people are important which British citizens ought to know as part of the equipment of a wider Citizenship; that is, their human relations with other peoples. The status of geography in the curriculum of the Scottish schools and in the Leaving Certificate Examination has varied, and we doubt whether it is yet satisfactory: too many pupils appear to give up the subject too soon and to leave school without a sound knowledge of it. It was suggested to us that the geography books in general use in the schools are unsatisfactory, and that the supply of maps and of terrestrial globes and other equipment in many schools is incomplete.

38. The teaching of history is effective for Citizenship only if the teacher keeps an eye on the conditions of the present time and of conduct under those conditions. Lord Acton said:—"Study problems, not periods," i.e. not unrelated "events," but processes which, begun in the past, leave traces and in a sense never come to an end. The past which history studies is not a dead past; it is in some sense still living in the present. History should therefore be studied to gain insight into situations in which we are called upon to act. Thus studied it has a definite bearing on the production of good citizens. "Significance to the world of to-day" is a sound test to apply to any programme of history lessons designed for the citizen of to-morrow. The education of a critical and selective judgment is worth more than the imparting of mere factual knowledge. We have heard evidence as to how these objects can best be achieved; as to the periods of history which supply the most effective lessons for pupils at various ages; as to the importance in history teaching of the last 100 years; as to the value of current affairs as a medium of history teaching; as to the place of newspapers and magazines in the history class; and as to the value of discussions. It is clear to us that there is here a very varied field of experiment.

39. When the adolescent possesses the educational background and has the requisite maturity of mind, the historical basis of Citizenship should receive special emphasis, in order that he may understand some of the principles upon which the State has been founded, how it has developed and why it has taken its present form; in order, too, that he may more readily learn to exercise dispassionate judgment in public affairs.

40. Knowledge of local history and traditions also has its place in the training of the good citizen. Patriotism must for the ordinary man be based on love for the countryside or town or village where he was born and brought up. In many parts of Scotland, both Highland and Lowland, his mind may be enriched by traditional stories, songs, ballads, and native music and dances. Our Scottish burghs, too, have honourable and interesting though little-known records of local self-government extending through many centuries; and in some of them there has grown up within recent years a renewed interest in, or a revival of, ancient ceremonies and festivals which make a special appeal to the younger generation. In all these interests the schools should concern themselves, not from an antiquarian motive, or to sentimentalize over the past, but to encourage the growth of the community spirit, and to awaken in the young people a desire to take part in the development of the place or district in which they live.

41. One of our witnesses aptly said that while Citizenship must be lived, Civics can be taught. We think, however, that formal teaching of Civics can usefully be given only to the older pupils. The purpose must be to offer to these pupils some coherent and practical idea of the organization of the community of which they are soon to become full members and to evoke a sense of civic pride and duty. In considering the nature of the instruction, the numerous claims

on the limited time of the school day cannot be lightly set aside. Nor must it be forgotten that education is a life-long affair, that when boys and girls move into the larger world their education in the real sense has only begun, and that even their formal instruction is incomplete. Nor can the problems of Citizenship be fully appreciated except in adult life. But in the later period of school life pupils should be given the essential background of social study.

42. At the earliest stage the pupil should be made gradually to sense that in school he is a member of a community which confers on him certain privileges and requires of him certain duties, and in which all must give and take. From the beginning his training should be directed to the formation of those qualities of character which are the basis of good Citizenship—cleanliness, honesty, self-control, discipline under legitimate authority and the courteous consideration of others. Later, the school medical services, the constabulary, transport and cleansing, the post office and other public activities within his personal observation may be used to give him a useful background of information, and gradually and still informally to suggest to him the responsibility which the local authority and the Government services are discharging for the health, convenience and security of the community in which he lives.

43. But informal references and suggestions, unsupported and uncoordinated by definite instruction, will leave the pupil hazily informed about many things that genuinely concern him and only vaguely conscious that he ought to think about them. At some point positive teaching must be begun. It has been suggested to us that the year immediately preceding the statutory leaving age is a suitable time, and that the teaching should concern itself in a broad, simple way with local administration and those public services which the pupil's experience touches at several points; that the subjects should be approached from the pupil's experience of them; that the teaching should be planned and progressive, not taught as a separate subject but as part of a history course with an appropriate addition of time; that instruction should be supplemented and made more vivid by visits to public undertakings and industrial establishments and by debates, cinema talks, etc.

9. The Contribution of the Several Parts of the Educational System

44. We have received evidence from various witnesses as to the contribution towards training for Citizenship which can be made by the several parts of the educational system. In the following paragraphs we comment on this aspect of our problem. It seems clear that in every part of the system there is a field for experiment directed to the discovery of ways whereby that part can be made to serve the needs of the future citizen.

45. We are fully convinced of the value of the Nursery School as a first introduction to the life and ways of a community, and we have stressed its value as a place where the foundations of good Citizenship can be laid. This type of school has also been found to serve the purpose of a post-graduate course in Citizenship for many parents. There are, however, wide differences of opinion as to the best age for admission, and as to the best age for transfer to a more formal type of education. All these are subjects about which more knowledge and experience are required. It is at least clear that the Nursery School has an important place to fill in the educational system and that it has a valuable contribution to make towards training for Citizenship. We call for a rapid extension of the provision of these schools.

46. As the first stage of formal education, the infant division has in the past borrowed much of the method and practice of the Primary School. Some witnesses have advocated a nursery-infant division or at least that Nursery School methods should permeate the work of the infant division. In view of the value of the Nursery School in training for Citizenship, we recommend that further trial should be made of both these methods.

47. It falls to the primary division to enlarge the horizon of the child and,

by taking into account his life, environment and ability, to give him a more real sense of membership of a community than has been possible in the infant division. The fabric of instruction may remain untouched, although a lightening of the present burden of individual subjects is necessary and a new emphasis is clearly required. Pupils should gradually be given some idea of the relation between their several studies, of the whole pattern of their school work, and of its purport. We would like to see more experiment along the lines of common effort; in methods of entrusting to children duties and responsibilities within their capacity, so as to give them a more understanding place in the classroom and as a change from mass classroom teaching; and in ways of promoting a mutual understanding between home and school. For all these developments the head teacher will be responsible, and they offer him or her an interesting field for the exercise of initiative. At this stage also special attention should be devoted to the education of the child of low mental equipment.

48. Children become increasingly aware of the approach of the end of their school life as they pass through the junior secondary division. There should at this stage be an increased effort to impart to the teaching a sense of realism and of relation to life. Boys and girls should be made to realize the part they will be called upon to play in their future homes. Ways and means should be sought of directing the life and work of the school towards fitting the young people to become good citizens. The instruction of every girl in the arts and crafts of home-making and house-keeping should be pursued in the most practical way. We suggest that the title of the Domestic Science Course be altered to Home-Making Course or to some other title more attractive than the present one. Experiment is needed to find new ways of encouraging the sense of responsibility and of fostering the feeling of community, and we refer to what we have already said in paragraphs 11 to 21 on this subject. We would especially stress the importance of finding the right method of dealing with mentally backward pupils, as otherwise there is a grave risk that they will leave school with a feeling of dissatisfaction and may become bad citizens. The institution of compulsory part-time education for young people will have a most beneficial effect upon their preparation for Citizenship. We have dealt with this aspect of the subject in our Report on Compulsory Day Continuation Classes and we do not refer further to it here.

49. In the Secondary School, Citizenship is best developed by the sense of living in a community. The best way in which the teachers assist its development is in the management of the school, by enabling and encouraging the pupils to take, as they grow older, a greater part in its government and organization, so far as this is compatible with the discipline proper to a community whose main objects are those of education and the acquisition of knowledge under competent guidance, the submission of the immature to the more mature intelligence, and the gradual growth of the mind and the intellectual interest. The more completely the activities of a school are developed along lines that involve a common effort, the better will be the training in Citizenship afforded by it. We would also stress the importance of training the young people to follow a chain of reasoning and test its validity, of teaching them the logical presentation of facts and arguments, of sharpening the critical faculty by the comparison of values, and of inculcating respect for free speech and for the opinions of others. We also feel that the schools would be helped in their task if the importance of the work they are doing received greater public recognition. Visits to the schools by legislators, members of local authorities, administrators, industrialists and other leaders might be of mutual benefit.

50. Until the advent of compulsory continued education the restricted time available for evening-class instruction will present the special problem of how the evening sessions can be adjusted to permit the continuance of the training in Citizenship provided in the day school. Most of the students are in employment and attend the continuation classes for some specific purpose. The sense of community is lacking and is difficult to induce. Two ways are practicable even in this type of school—a brief monthly discussion group in each classroom,

or a weekly association of the students in some form of club activity under competent leadership and guidance. We feel that the opportunities should not be lost and that those responsible for these classes should explore methods whereby they may make their contribution to training for Citizenship.

51. All Training Colleges should regard the preparation of the students to play an effective part in the training of their future pupils for Citizenship as one of their most important functions. The students must realise the vital importance to the nation of this matter. Their personality and powers of leadership must be developed to the full. The Colleges must become real communities, and the students should be given a measure of control and responsibility. Their training should include social work, and they should get to know something of the conditions under which their future pupils live. The curricula should include some consideration of the principles of a democratic community based upon the Christian philosophy of life. This is immensely important at the present time when Nazi, Fascist and Japanese ideologies are alternative competitors for world domination. Young people should not leave school without some realization of the limitations imposed on individual liberty by countries where such ideas prevail. Nor should they be left in ignorance of the disastrous and devastating consequences brought upon the world by such doctrines. We realize that much work is already being done in the Training Colleges along these lines, but we feel that there is room for a change of emphasis and for further development and experiment. We refer to what we have said at the end of paragraph 49 about visits to Secondary Schools. This applies with even greater force to the Training Colleges.

52. The studies pursued in Central Institutions relate to industry, art, commerce and other activities which have in the past required the full attention of students, as the range of technical training is very wide. Even when a five-year course is in operation, as in the Architecture and Art Colleges, there appears to be little spare time for activities outside the prescribed curriculum. In Engineering and similar courses, where works practice has to be combined with college training, the ground to be covered is so extensive that even with carefully arranged curricula not much more can be done. In these circumstances it is not easy to press for the inclusion of specific training for Citizenship, although it is at this period of their lives that young people should be most keenly receptive to the duties and responsibilities which are gradually being laid upon them. Contacts with the outside world are rapidly developing their personal characters, but unfortunately these contacts are sometimes limited to a range of persons specializing in work similar to their own. The engineer in training has neither time nor opportunity for many contacts outside engineering. Suggestions have been made to us that in full-time courses of study occasional meetings should be held for discussion groups on subjects of social, local and national importance, and that to such meetings outside speakers and leaders of discussions might be invited. Some tentative experiments have already been made in this direction, and the keenness of the students where the experiments have been properly organized gives evidence of their value. The field is uncharted and offers wide scope for further effort.

V. JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

53. In your letter of 17th May, 1943, you said:—"As I told the Council at their first meeting, I regard the remit on Citizenship as most urgent, as their recommendations on this subject should prove of great assistance in helping to solve the grave problem of juvenile delinquency. I hope that the Council will let me have a report, even if it is only an interim one, before the late autumn." We have therefore given careful consideration to the influence of training for Citizenship upon juvenile delinquency, and have sought to find by what means the schools might check the growing record of misbehaviour among school children; whether and in what direction the schools of Scotland have failed to appreciate the problems of delinquency; and, if there was evidence of failure,

where in the future the schools might help, independently or in association with other agencies. We find ourselves unable to suggest any sovereign remedy which would be likely to have an immediate and substantial effect, but we feel that many of the suggestions as to training for Citizenship which we have made earlier in this Report will have beneficial results in the fight against delinquency.

54. The major cause of juvenile delinquency often lies in the home. We believe that improvements in school education and the continuance of some educational control until the age of eighteen, together with the provision of better houses and healthier conditions of living, will in due course reduce the evil. But the evil has a character of its own which prevents us from relying wholly on these general and progressive remedies. Delinquency may occur in children reared in a good home environment, and it may manifest itself in children who are as strong in some points of good Citizenship as they are weak in others. The problem, therefore, of the school is to use all its resources to supplement the efforts of the good home and make good the deficiencies of the indifferent home, and to supply such special encouragement and help as each case seems to require. It follows that every available means must be used to bring about wherever possible a real copartnership of effort between the home and the school, a subject with which we deal in paragraph 22 of this Report. It is equally clear that the schools must satisfy themselves that they are doing everything in their power to alleviate any of the handicaps or maladjustments at the root of individual cases of delinquency.

55. Truancy, with the opportunity it affords for mischief, must be corrected by the adoption by Education Authorities of measures to check irregular attendance in its early stages. As truancy is often related to home or social conditions, we view with interest, and commend, a proposal that the attendance officer of the present might disappear and his place be taken by a school welfare officer with appropriate training. The special oversight of truant children might well be the care of a woman officer.

56. The present state of the law governing the enforcement of school attendance is unsatisfactory. It offers too many opportunities for delay. Throughout the period of delay the child is losing the efficient education which it is the duty of the parent to provide, and being unoccupied is a prey to mischief. We suggest that the procedure prescribed by sections 70 and 71 of the Act of 1872,* as amended, should be repealed, and that the procedure under section 8 of the Act of 1908 † and section 4 of the Act of 1893 ‡ as amended, should be re-enacted with the following modifications :—

- (1) The right of the parent to select the school to be named in the attendance order should be abolished ;
- (2) The right of appeal to the sheriff against an attendance order should lapse if it is not used within fourteen days of the date of the order ;
- (3) Simple procedure should be provided whereby the school named in the attendance order may be changed ;
- (4) The penalties for failure to comply with an attendance order should be substantially increased.

Education Authorities should not hesitate to initiate complaints against parents who fail to comply with attendance orders, and in particular they should not refrain from taking early proceedings in cases in which children attend irregularly at school.

57. One of the central problems of delinquency is that of the boy of limited intelligence and interest in his surroundings, probably also mentally or emotionally unstable, often, in his first offence, the victim of his condition in life or under the influence of bad companions. The juvenile offender is, more often than not, in association with others to do wrong. Another problem is the leadership for evil inherent in the gang spirit. The question, therefore, arises

* 35 & 36 Vict. c. 62.

† 8 Edw. 7. c. 63.

‡ 56 Vict. c. 12.

how far the school can properly attend to the individual pupil in need of care and guidance. We are of opinion that this responsibility must be accepted and undertaken; that the welfare and well-being of these backward pupils must become a new care of the teacher, to whom their condition of mind and often uneven view of life must be apparent. In paragraph 13 we refer to the importance of a suitable curriculum for backward children. Valuable work is being done by Child Guidance Clinics. The number of these should be increased, and effective machinery devised for sending children to them.

58. There are schools in Scotland where the influence of the headmaster alone has cleared his school of a bad record of delinquency. No school should be content year after year to allow a record of delinquency or of malicious mischief on the part of its pupils to stand against its name, without an endeavour by every member of its staff to have it expunged. Our earlier suggestions may serve, we hope, to assist such an endeavour.

59. Many city children are denied an annual holiday or change away from the humdrum of their daily lives. Effective work has been done by many agencies to improve this position. An extension of holiday facilities should be urgently considered as a preventive measure. We also most strongly recommend the provision of adequate playing fields. The lack of the opportunity for healthy exercise is a frequent cause of juvenile delinquency.

VI. CONCLUSION

60. Scottish education has for many years been served by a notable tradition. In framing our Report we have endeavoured within the limits of our remit to suggest certain definite lines of experiment which, if enthusiastically adopted in the schools of Scotland, may go far to achieve in the next generation the ideal of an educated democracy. All our evidence shows that Scottish teachers regard the realization of that ideal as vitally important to the future welfare of our country, and we are therefore confident that, although many of them have already made experiments such as we have suggested, they will accept our proposals of further experiment in a spirit of goodwill and of common purpose, and will apply them with the firm resolve that they shall be effective.

VII. SUMMARY OF THE REPORT

61. In this Part we give a summary of the Report.

I. THE REMIT AND THE PROCEDURE OF THE COUNCIL

(1) The memorandum on Training for Citizenship issued by the Scottish Education Department in 1942 has been the basis of our deliberations. (Paragraph 1.)

II. THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

(2) We give a definition of our conception of the purpose of training for Citizenship. (Paragraph 2.)

(3) While all our witnesses were agreed upon the importance of active Citizenship, few of them could suggest any definite plan of training. (Paragraph 3.)

(4) Although bad home and social conditions are not the only cause of faulty Citizenship, such conditions militate against the success of the training given in the schools. The training of the future citizen has long been a basic function of the schools: there must be no relaxation of effort, and a concerted plan must be evolved in which the school, the home and other agencies play their part. (Paragraphs 4 and 5.)

(5) Our principal recommendation is that the next five years should be set apart as a period of experiment and of deliberate striving towards a theory and practice in training for Citizenship. The Scottish Education Department should each year after the second publish a report on the experiment entitled the "Scottish Book of Citizenship." A change of emphasis in the work of the schools may involve the revision or re-writing of many school books. (Paragraphs 6-9.)

IV. SUGGESTIONS FOR EXPERIMENT IN TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP

(6) In this part of the Report we make suggestions as to the nature of the experiments which might be made in the schools. (Paragraph 10.)

I. THE SCHOOL AS A COMMUNITY

(7) Each school should be a small community within the larger local community. The older a child grows, the more definite should training for Citizenship become. (Paragraph 11.)

(8) The tone of the school and the personality of the teachers strongly influence the character of the future citizen. Only men and women of the right personality must be appointed heads of schools. No appointments of heads of departments or of other teachers should be made without taking the heads of schools into closest consultation: appointments should be acceptable to the heads. Training Colleges should reconsider methods of admitting students. (Paragraph 12.)

(9) The problem of backward children calls for special study. (Paragraph 13.)

(10) Classes in the primary school should be reduced to a maximum of thirty, but even under present conditions experiments should be made in handling each class as a small community within the larger community of the school. (Paragraph 14.)

(11) In the secondary division the experiment should be tried of appointing class-masters and class-mistresses who would give their pupils sympathetic guidance in and out of school; this may ameliorate some of the disadvantages inherent in the present system of specialist teachers as well as achieving other good results. (Paragraph 15.)

(12) School children should be given a share of responsibility in the affairs of the school, and experiments should cover methods of appointment and election of prefects, monitors or other group leaders. Classes might be divided for classroom or recreational activities into balanced groups each with a leader and possibly a sub-leader. (Paragraph 16.)

(13) In all secondary schools and large primary schools where there is co-education there should be a lady superintendent, and in all large schools the headmaster should be given adequate clerical assistance. (Paragraph 17.)

(14) The boarding school has advantages as a training ground for Citizenship, and experiments should be made in sending secondary pupils to such schools. (Paragraph 18.)

(15) Methods must be sought of inducing pupils to adopt the right attitude towards work after they have left school. (Paragraph 19.)

(16) The Scottish Education Department should consult the Ministry of Labour with a view to the improvement of the present arrangements for placement in employment. Experiments should be made in the training and appointment of careers masters and mistresses. (Paragraph 20.)

(17) New buildings should be functionally suitable for their purpose, and the internal improvement of existing buildings should be undertaken as soon as possible. (Paragraph 21.)

2. COLLABORATION BETWEEN PARENT AND TEACHER

(18) A new and strong link should be forged between the two great influences in the child's life, the home and the school. The parent-teacher association should be fostered, although it has not always proved successful; other methods should also be tried. (Paragraph 22.)

3. MORAL AND RELIGIOUS TRAINING

(1) *Training in Behaviour*

(19) Experiments should be tried in definite lessons in the principles of right and wrong conduct and also in developing the idea of good form and bad form as a salutary influence. The teaching of "human relations," in the course of which every child considers the results of his own and of other people's actions, good or bad, should be tried. As an experiment the Scottish Education Department in co-operation with the schools and Education Authorities of a few typical areas should produce a Schools' Code of Good Conduct, and the results of the issue of the Code should be carefully observed. (Paragraphs 23-25.)

(2) *Religious Teaching*

(20) No fundamental change is desirable in the respective spheres of responsibility of the Secretary of State and the Education Authorities for religious instruction, but the true Christian spirit must pervade the schools, and nothing should be done which might create the impression of hypocrisy. The practice of interrupting the religious lesson to make room for the details of school administration must be brought to an end. Time-tables submitted for approval under Article 28 of the Code should include special provision of time for administrative purposes. (Paragraphs 26 and 27.)

(21) The practice of holding a morning service should be universal and services in nearby churches on special occasions should be encouraged. One period a day in primary schools, and two a week in secondary schools, for religious instruction should also be universal. Adequate provision of books should be made. To enable the best use to be made of teachers able and willing to instruct, the Act of 1872 and the Code of 1939 should be amended so that religious instruction may be given at times other than the beginning or end of a meeting of the school. (Paragraph 28.)

(22) The arrangements already made to secure close co-operation between Churches and schools should be extended and developed. (Paragraph 29.)

(23) The training of teachers to prepare them to give religious instruction requires special study. Only those who are believing Christians should be asked to train to give religious instruction or should be entrusted with that duty in the schools. A course on the Bible of the length and standard of a class for the ordinary M.A. degree should be instituted which could be attended by the students during one of their years at the University or Training College. (Paragraph 30.)

4. AESTHETIC TRAINING

(24) The appeal of beauty plays an important part in the building up of the ideal citizen. There should be further experiment in methods of teaching children how to appreciate line, form, colour, tone and rhythm. Every child should be given the opportunity of drawing and painting. Those who show aptitude should be trained in accurate craftsmanship. Playing in orchestras and singing in choirs should be encouraged, and appreciation of good music

should be taught. Co-operation with C.E.M.A. and B.I.A.E. in their presentation of good music, drama and art is of special value. (Paragraph 31.)

5. THE RULES OF HEALTH

(25) Children should be taught from their earliest years the simple facts of personal hygiene. Physical training should form part of the daily routine of all schools, and it should if possible be carried out in the open air. Flat playgrounds should be provided for the purpose. Adequate sleep is just as important as adequate food : this should be impressed upon parents on every possible occasion. (Paragraph 32.)

6. THE PREVENTION OF ACCIDENTS

(26) The rules of safety are not instinctive and must be taught. There is scope for further experiment and for co-operation between school, home and other agencies. (Paragraph 33.)

7. THE FACTS OF SEX

(27) A Special Committee of the Advisory Council should be constituted to report upon sex education. (Paragraph 34.)

8. THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE INDIVIDUAL SCHOOL SUBJECT

(28) English, geography, history and civics have a special contribution to make towards training for Citizenship. The schools should experiment in ways not only of teaching their pupils how to speak and write clearly but also of making them understand that it is in their own interest and in the interest of the community that they should habitually do so. There is also room for experiment in means of introducing young people to great literature without producing dislike of it. (Paragraphs 35 and 36.)

(29) The status of geography in the schools and in the Leaving Certificate Examination, and the reasons for the tendency to give up the study of geography too soon, should be investigated. It should be considered whether the geography books at present in use are satisfactory. (Paragraph 37.)

(30) Significance for the world to-day is a sound test to apply to any programme of history lessons designed for the citizen of to-morrow. There is a wide field of experiment as to the most effective lessons for pupils at various ages ; as to the importance in history teaching of the last 100 years ; as to the value of current affairs as a medium of history teaching ; as to the place of newspapers and magazines in the history class ; and as to methods of stimulating discussion. For adolescents the historical basis of Citizenship should receive special emphasis. (Paragraphs 38 and 39.)

(31) Knowledge of local history and tradition has its place in the training of the good citizen. Schools should concern themselves in local interests and in the revival of ancient ceremonies and festivals, in order to encourage the growth of the community spirit and to awaken in the young people a desire to take part in the development of the place in which they live. (Paragraph 40.)

(32) Children should be gradually made aware through facts within their personal observation of the responsibility which local authority and Government services are discharging for the health, convenience and security of the community. Later, some positive teaching of civics must be begun. When and how this can best be done is a subject for experiment. (Paragraphs 41-43.)

9. THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE SEVERAL PARTS OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

(33) In every part of the system there is a field of experiment as to how the needs of the future citizen can be served. The nursery school is an excellent

first introduction to community life. The best age for admission and the best age for transfer to a more formal type of education are subjects for investigation. (Paragraphs 44 and 45.)

(34) Experiment is required as to whether nursery-infant divisions should be established, or whether nursery school methods should permeate the work of the infant division. (Paragraph 46.)

(35) In the primary division steps should be taken to give the child a genuine sense of membership of a community. There should be further experiment in giving to the children duties and responsibilities within their capacity. (Paragraph 47.)

(36) Junior secondary schools should experiment in finding new ways of inducing a sense of responsibility and of fostering the feeling of community. (Paragraph 48.)

(37) In the senior secondary school the pupils should be given a greater part in the government and organization of the school. Continuous experiment should be made in training pupils to follow a chain of reasoning and test its validity; to present facts and arguments logically; to develop the critical faculty by the comparison of values; and to respect free speech and the opinions of others. (Paragraph 49.)

(38) In voluntary continuation classes experiments in training for Citizenship by means of discussion groups or club activities should be tried. (Paragraph 50.)

(39) The Training Colleges have an important part to play. The students must be led to realize the vital importance of Citizenship, and their personality and powers of leadership must be developed to the full. Their training should include social work and some consideration of the principles of a democratic community based upon the Christian philosophy of life. (Paragraph 51.)

(40) The introduction of training for Citizenship to the Central Institutions is a problem of special difficulty, but it is one of particular importance, as the students are at a period of their lives when they should be most keenly receptive. This field offers wide scope for experiment. (Paragraph 52.)

V. JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

(41) The suggestions as to training for Citizenship made earlier in this Report should help in the fight against delinquency. In every school every available means must be used to bring about a real partnership between home and school to combat juvenile delinquency. (Paragraphs 53 and 54.)

(42) Truancy should be suppressed at its early stages. The substitution of appropriately trained school welfare officers for attendance officers should be considered. (Paragraph 55.)

(43) The procedure in the Acts of 1908 and 1893 for enforcing school attendance should be amended so as to eliminate much of the delay which occurs at present, and heavier penalties should be authorized. (Paragraph 56.)

(44) Limited intelligence and lack of interest are a cause of delinquency. The schools should pay special attention to the backward child. The number of child guidance clinics should be increased, and effective machinery should be devised for referring cases to them. (Paragraph 57.)

(45) No school should be content year after year to allow a record of delinquency to stand against its name without an endeavour on the part of every member of the staff to have it expunged. (Paragraph 58.)

(46) An extension of holiday facilities in the country for city children should be urgently considered, and more playing fields should be provided. (Paragraph 59.)

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The Council have been greatly assisted in the preparation of this Report by the work of Mr. Grainger Stewart, the Secretary of the Council, of Mr. Davidson, the Assistant Secretary, and of other members of the staff of the Department. The Council desire to express grateful appreciation of the skilful and unremitting service rendered by them.

We have the honour to be,

Sir,

Your obedient Servants,

(Signed) W. HAMILTON FYFE,
Chairman

GARNET WILSON,
Vice-Chairman

AGNES M. ALLISON

WILLIAM BARRY

E. P. CATHCART

JOHN B. CLARK

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GUY LLOYD

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BRIDGET McEWEN

PATRICK McGEE

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R. C. T. MAIR

ADAM M. MILLAR

AGNES B. MUIR

RONALD M. MUNRO

J. E. S. NISBET

W. D. RITCHIE

J. J. ROBERTSON

J. ROTHNIE

J. CAMERON SMAIL

W. CRAMPTON SMITH

J. HENDERSON STEWART

ETNA J. TAYLOR

ROBERT TAYLOR

T. GRAINGER STEWART, *Secretary*

A. DAVIDSON, *Assistant Secretary*

St. Andrew's House, Edinburgh 1.

30th November, 1943.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

LIST OF BODIES AND INDIVIDUALS WHO GAVE ORAL EVIDENCE OR SUBMITTED MEMORANDA OR OTHERWISE ASSISTED THE COUNCIL

Association of Councils of Counties of Cities in Scotland.
Association of County Councils in Scotland.
Banff County Council Education Committee.
Moray and Nairn Joint County Council.

University of St. Andrews.

Church of Scotland.
Church of Scotland Presbytery of Dundee.
Roman Catholic Hierarchy of Scotland.
Representative Church Council of the Episcopal Church in Scotland.
Synod of the Free Presbyterian Church of Scotland.

Governors of Dundee Institute of Art and Technology.
Council of Edinburgh College of Domestic Science.
Governors of Robert Gordon's Technical College, Aberdeen.
Governors of Heriot-Watt College, Edinburgh.

Directors of High School of Dundee.
Governors of Robert Gordon's College, Aberdeen.
Governors of George Heriot's Trust, Edinburgh.
Governors of Marr College, Troon.
Edinburgh Merchant Company Education Board.
Governors of Morrison's Academy, Crieff.

Scottish Council for School Broadcasting.
Child Guidance and Parent-Teacher Association of Glasgow.
Association of Directors of Education in Scotland.
Dollar Branch of The Parents' Association.
Association for Education in Citizenship.
Educational Institute of Scotland.
Institute of Handicraft Teachers.
Association of Headmasters of Senior Secondary Schools.
Association of Headmistresses (Scottish Branch).
Montessori Society (Edinburgh Branch).
Co-ordinating Committee of the Scottish Branches of the Nursery School Association
of Great Britain.
Primary Teachers' Association.
Scottish League for Physical Education (Women).
Scottish Schoolmasters' Association.

Faculty of Actuaries in Scotland.
Joint Committee of Councils of Chartered Accountants of Scotland.
National Farmers' Union and Chamber of Agriculture in Scotland.
Royal Scottish Geographical Society.

Historical Association of Scotland.
 Society of Medical Officers of Health (Scottish Branch).
 Central Committee of Scottish Chambers of Commerce.
 Glasgow Junior Chamber of Commerce.

Edinburgh Schools Citizenship Association.
 Aberdeen Fabian Society.
 Central Council of the Scottish Unionist Association.
 Scottish National Council of Y.M.C.A.s.
 Scottish Standing Conference of Voluntary Youth Organizations.
 City of Aberdeen Youth Council.
 Scottish Women's Rural Institutes.

W. F. Arbuckle, Esq., H.M. Inspector of Schools.
 J. Barrie, Esq., Probation Officer, Fife.
 R. Britton, Esq., Motherwell.
 W. Hewitson Brown, Esq., Scottish Juvenile Welfare and After-Care Office, Edinburgh.
 W. G. Buchanan, Esq., Chief Probation Officer, Glasgow.
 J. Downie Campbell, Esq., Aberdeen.
 Mrs. Dorothy Capewell, Glasgow.
 J. Carson, Esq., M.B.E., Brechin.
 J. W. Clarke, Esq., Ministry of Labour, Edinburgh.
 T. R. Collins, Esq., Glasgow.
 Sister Consuelo, Notre Dame Child Guidance Clinic, Glasgow.
 Joe Corrie, Esq., Mauchline.
 Miss Kate E. Cunningham, Edinburgh.
 Rev. Murray Donaldson, Musselburgh.
 Miss Isabelle Doull, Edinburgh.
 W. Elger, Esq., J.P., Secretary, Scottish Trades Union Congress.
 J. Ferguson, Esq., H.M. Inspector of Schools.
 Bailie Margaret Geddes, Edinburgh.
 Mrs. Ruth Hanbury, Lyndhurst, Hants.
 Mrs. I. Henderson and others, Inverness.
 F. J. Hume, Esq., Depute Clerk of Court, Edinburgh.
 S. G. Kermack, Esq., Sheriff-Substitute of Lanarkshire.
 A. Lang, Esq., H.M. Senior Chief Inspector of Schools.
 Brother Liguori, Dumfries.
 W. K. Lindsay, Esq., Edinburgh.
 A. M. M'Kay, Esq., Port Logan, Wigtownshire.
 Sister Marie Hilda, Notre Dame Child Guidance Clinic, Glasgow.
 J. Matheson, Esq., Wishaw.
 G. S. Maxton, Esq., Ph.D., F.R.Econ.S., Edinburgh.
 James Mill, Esq., City Prosecutor, Edinburgh.
 Miss Isabel M. Murray, Edinburgh.
 Miss Margaret M. Napier and others, Edinburgh.
 Mrs. F. Nash, Longniddry.
 Rev. Angus Nicolson, Ph.D., Edinburgh.
 Andrew W. Paterson, Esq., Glasgow.
 Rev. Brother Patrick, Kenmure St. Mary's Boys' School, Glasgow.
 Charles Reid, Esq., Lybster, Caithness.
 Miss Ada M. W. Renwick, Glasgow.
 A. G. Rodger, Esq., H.M. Inspector of Schools.
 J. A. Russell, Esq., Ph.D., Litt.D., Glasgow.
 Miss C. P. Snodgrass, Edinburgh.
 Mrs. Elsie N. Spalding, Glasgow.
 K. Stalker, Esq., M.D., M.R.C.P.E., D.Psych., Edinburgh.
 Provost A. A. Stewart, Gatehouse-of-Fleet.
 Miss B. Martin Stewart, Probation Officer, Edinburgh.
 F. W. D. Stewart, Esq., Edinburgh.
 Corporal J. R. Woollard, R.A.F.

APPENDIX II

REFERENCES TO TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP IN CODES AND OTHER PUBLICATIONS OF THE SCOTTISH EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

1. SCOTCH CODE OF 1875.

Footnote to Article 19A : The inspector will be instructed not to interfere with any method of organisation adopted in a training college under inspection if it is satisfactorily carried out in the school. To meet the requirements respecting discipline, the managers and teachers will be expected to satisfy the inspector that all reasonable care is taken, in the ordinary management of the school, to bring up the children in habits of punctuality, of good manners and language, of cleanliness and neatness, and also to impress upon the children the importance of cheerful obedience to duty, of consideration and respect for others, and of honour and truthfulness in word and act.

2. SCOTCH CODES OF 1876 TO 1898.

Article 19A : The inspector will bear in mind; in reporting on the organisation and discipline, the results of any visits without notice (Article 12) made in the course of the school year ; and will not interfere with any method of organisation adopted in a training college under inspection if it is satisfactorily carried out in the school. To meet the requirements respecting discipline, the managers and teachers will be expected to satisfy the inspector that all reasonable care is taken, in the ordinary management of the school, to bring up the children in habits of punctuality, of good manners and language, of cleanliness and neatness, and also to impress upon the children the importance of cheerful obedience to duty, of consideration and respect for others, and of honour and truthfulness in word and act.

3. SCOTCH CODES OF 1899 TO 1914, AND OF 1915 WHICH REMAINED IN FORCE UNTIL 1923.

Article 19A : That all reasonable care is taken, in the ordinary management of the school, to bring up the children in habits of punctuality, of good manners and language, of cleanliness and neatness, and also to impress upon the children the importance of cheerful obedience to duty, of consideration and respect for others, and of honour and truthfulness in word and act.

4. MEMORANDUM AS TO CURRICULUM OF HIGHER GRADE SCHOOLS OR DEPARTMENTS, 1899.

In the third year a definite period of history may be studied with special reference to its literature and the general state of the civilisation in Europe at the time. Some representative book or books of the period should be studied in detail. At all stages the historical origin of present day institutions should be kept in view, a spirit of patriotism should be cultivated and some instruction should be given in the rights and duties of a citizen (controversial topics being avoided).

5. CODE OF REGULATIONS FOR DAY SCHOOLS IN SCOTLAND, 1923 (S.R. & O., 1923, No. 928/S58), WHICH REMAINED IN FORCE UNTIL 1939.

Article 9 (ii) : That all reasonable care is taken, in the ordinary management of the school, to bring up the children in habits of punctuality and thrift, of good manners and language, of cleanliness and neatness, and also to impress upon them the importance of cheerful obedience to duty, of consideration and respect for others, and of honour and truthfulness in word and act.

Appendix I : The Schedules that follow are intended as suggestions to assist Education Authorities in framing courses for Advanced Divisions. The first and principal aim must be the continuance and development of general education on the moral and physical, no less than on the intellectual, side. It is, therefore, essential that every course should provide for training in Morals and Citizenship, for Music and for Physical Exercises.

6. SECONDARY SCHOOLS (SCOTLAND) REGULATIONS, 1923 (S.R. & O., 1923, No. 929/S59).

Article 2 : Every course should provide throughout for training in Morals and Citizenship, for Music and for Physical Exercises.

7. DAY SCHOOLS (SCOTLAND) CODE, 1939 (S.R. & O., 1939, No. 422/S35).

Article 14 : In the conduct of the school from day to day all reasonable care should be taken to train the pupils in habits of punctuality, industry and thrift, of personal hygiene and cleanliness, of neatness, of good manners and of clear speech, and also to impress upon them the importance of cheerful obedience to duty, of consideration and respect for others, of kindness to animals, and of honour and truthfulness in word and act.

The Nursery School

21. The nursery school, while giving scope for initiative and independence, will at the same time seek to cultivate, through the performance of simple duties, those habits of unselfishness, friendliness and consideration for others that are essential in community life.

The Infant Division

23. The first aim of the teaching should be to secure the physical, mental and moral well-being of the children through the formation of desirable habits, and stress will naturally be laid on good manners, correct breathing and posture, personal cleanliness and exercises performed preferably in the open air and in the form of games involving free movement. Defects, whether physical, moral or temperamental, should be detected and reported as early as possible, so that, if necessary, expert advice may be obtained. The second aim of the teaching should be to initiate the children into more formal work by methods calculated to maintain the freshness and vigour of their minds.

The Primary Division

27. Throughout the course the physical and moral well-being of the children should remain a paramount consideration, and a careful watch should be kept for any defects.

The Secondary Division—The Three-Year Course

33. It is essential that every course, whatever its type, should provide for training in morals and citizenship. Good behaviour and good speech, attention to personal appearance and understanding of the need for co-operation with authority are as necessary in the future citizen as knowledge of the academic and practical subjects normally found in the curriculum. The growth of critical appreciation should be fostered through such instruments as literature, music and art, so that the adolescent may begin to form such standards of taste as will lead to the enjoyment of these pursuits in later life.

34. Instruction in personal and community hygiene should be an important feature in each course. Physical education should be provided throughout the course and should include not merely the exercises of the gymnasium but also field games and, where possible, swimming.

The Secondary Division—The Five-Year Course

44. The remarks made in paragraphs 33 and 34 regarding morals, citizenship, health and physical education apply equally to this course. Especially to be deprecated is neglect of bodily fitness, for, owing to increased intensity of study and to the greater prominence of examinations at this stage, the temptation to train the mind at the expense of the body is proportionately greater and more insidious.

45. The course should be suited to the capacities of the pupils and should be directed to the formation of interests of a permanent character. They should be so conducted as to provide the pupils with ample opportunities for self-expression, for the exercise of individual judgment, for the formation of a proper standard of moral and intellectual values, and for the development of some power of initiative and leadership and ability to co-operate with their fellows. The organisation should, therefore, be sufficiently flexible to permit of a combination of individual and class activities.



MINISTRY OF EDUCATION



COMMUNITY CENTRES

370.1

LONDON

HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE: 1944

NINEPENCE NET

PREFATORY NOTE

H.M. Government has decided that the provision of Community Centres to promote the social and physical training and recreation of the community should be regarded as coming within the scope of the education service administered by local education authorities, such provision being covered by the terms of Section 53 of the Education Act, 1944, without prejudice to the power of other local authorities, under Section 4 of the Physical Training and Recreation Act, 1937, to provide centres for athletic, social or educational objects.

In pursuance of this decision a report dealing with the organisation of Community Centres and considerations affecting their planning and management has been prepared at the Minister's direction, by officers of this Department. This report is now circulated as likely to be of general interest and of assistance to all concerned in planning local provision for further education in the widest sense of that term.

It will be understood that, while the Minister is in general agreement with the main conclusions and recommendations of the report, he must not be held as necessarily committed to every point of detail.

December, 1944.

M. S. Holmes

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

COMMUNITY CENTRES.

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HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE: 1944

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CHAPTER I.

The Needs and Uses of Leisure.

1. During the present century, the day-to-day life of the British people has been profoundly affected by two parallel and closely related developments—the mechanisation of industry and a progressive reduction in working hours. The reduction in working hours may have been largely due to the growing demand for more leisure, but it was mechanisation which made it possible to meet the demand. If, as seems certain, the future is to see an extension of mechanisation, a further reduction of working hours is likely to follow when present pressures are relaxed. But it is one thing to have spare time and another to know how to use it wisely. Already it is clear that there is little tradition of leisure amongst large classes of those to whom it has come, and the increase of leisure confronts us with a new social problem.

2. Experience has shown that men and women do not as a rule make the best of their leisure if the only facilities available outside the home are those provided by commercial enterprise; and although praiseworthy efforts, financed mainly from voluntary sources, have been made here and there to provide for other social and recreative activities, it is generally agreed that at present such provision is wholly inadequate and that voluntary effort unaided is quite incapable of meeting the need. It is this need which it has been our task to consider: we have approached it by examining the available evidence concerning the pre-war leisure needs of adults, particularly those living on new housing estates and in villages, and by assessing the value of the attempts so far made to satisfy them. We have also taken into account the probable long-term effect of extended education in increasing the desire and capacity to use leisure wisely and constructively.

3. Two striking facts have emerged. The first is the acute shortage that so frequently exists, of suitable premises where people can come together to carry on social, educational and recreative activities. There are few forms of leisure activity which do not benefit from the association of those interested in them, and many of the most satisfying cannot be carried on at all without halls, stages, lecture rooms and the necessary ancillary accommodation. The second fact is the difficulty experienced in making the existing centres self-supporting. Many fail through lack of funds while others are constrained to devote too much of their time and energy to promoting dances, whist drives and raffles in order to produce revenue. Such centres do little towards solving the fundamental problem which, as we see it, is to provide for the needs of those who find themselves with spare time but without training in its use.

4. In using the term educational activities, we are not thinking of the education of the classroom—though for some this will have an appeal, and it is important that it should—but of education in the sense of putting people in the way of making their own entertainment and bringing out their latent abilities for the better use of life outside working hours.

5. To-day hosts of men and women earn their living by doing monotonous repetitive work which demands relatively little skill and contributes hardly at all to the worker's all-round development as a human personality. If this is to be achieved, it must be in leisure time, and we are of opinion that the provision of communal facilities for the rational and enjoyable use of leisure, wherever they may be needed, is a necessary part of the country's educational system.

6. The use of leisure impinges upon another large social problem, which also arises from the developments of the last 30 years. There have been

large movements of population—migrations of workers following industry, and a movement from the centres of cities outwards towards the suburbs in search of improved housing conditions. Four million houses have been built since the last war, many of them on Housing Estates, round new industrial centres, where one may find Tynesiders, Scots, Welshmen, Yorkshiremen and others, all settled in the same new road. Here the adjustment of the residents to their new environment has often proved difficult. Uprooted from their native soil, they have little confidence in neighbours whose ways are different from their own. They greatly miss the life and comradeship of their old homes, finding nothing to take its place in the hygienic desert to which they have been translated. Some means must be found to fill this social vacuum. We believe that the establishment, both in town and country, of conveniently situated centres, to which all can afford to belong, would do much to weld such neighbourhoods into communities. Neighbourhood does not, of itself, necessarily constitute a social bond; but if, by grouping its leisure activities round a recreative and educational centre, a neighbourhood can develop into a socially conscious community, learning, through managing the affairs of the centre, to participate intelligently in the work of local and national government, then education for democracy will have made a real advance.

7. Although the community centre we have in mind exists at present only at the experimental stage, it has many prototypes resembling it to a greater or less degree, but differing somewhat in purpose. Throughout its history, the Christian Church has fostered the idea of community life on a basis of human fellowship; it has provided and continues to provide premises and other facilities to enable men and women to meet for recreation and social enjoyment. Springing from this root, we find the Y.M.C.As. and Y.W.C.As. which have been with us for many years. University and other settlements in the poorer parts of the big towns also have a long history behind them. More recent have been the Women's Institutes, the Miners' Welfare institutes and halls, the centres for the unemployed (mainly men) and for the evacuated (mainly women). Finally we come to a number of community centres under that name—many of which we owe to the enterprise and initiative of local housing authorities and local education authorities—the village halls and the village colleges of Cambridgeshire. Apart from the Miners' Welfare institutes and halls and the Ministry of Labour War-time centres, provision has been mainly sporadic, depending upon local initiative and financial resources.

8. We have seen several witnesses familiar with each of these several types of centre and their evidence has greatly assisted us in formulating our views about the varying needs of town and country populations. The centres which are called community centres fall into two groups; one consists primarily of a number of buildings which provide meeting places for unrelated societies and organisations of various kinds; the other, a more numerous group, stresses the need for a community association to run the centre, which, in practice, tends to be used chiefly as a club. In our opinion the function of the community centre is to make provision for both needs, that is to say for sectional interests, such as the gardening society, the bowls club, the sewing party and the discussion group, and also for the general social life of the neighbourhood. We think it unlikely that the scope of the centre as a club can be so extended as to embrace the whole of the community; at the same time we think it essential that neighbours should be able to meet on a social footing, when participating in one of the sectional activities. It should also be possible for people with no special interest to come freely to the concerts, dances and other social gatherings and, for a small payment, to use the club canteen, reading room and other accommodation.

9. Altogether we are satisfied that there is ample evidence proving the value of well-governed community centres, where they exist to meet a demand. Particular credit is due to the National Council of Social Service for appreciating the potentialities of the well-run community centre and for bringing the matter to the public notice. Valuable work has also been done by the Development Commission, the British Association of Residential Settlements, the Educational Settlements' Association, the Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A., the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust and the Miners' Welfare Commission in their respective and rather different spheres. Some account of the work of the bodies mainly responsible for the provision of pre-war Community Centres will be found in Appendix I to this Report.

10. To a great extent the centres already in existence owe their origin to unhealthy social conditions. Many settlements and social centres, and especially those in Durham and South Wales, were designed to ameliorate the tragic social conditions which obtained there during the industrial depression of the early 1930's. The early settlements established in the poorer quarter of towns were in some measure a social palliative. But the result of our enquiry has been to convince us that a community centre should be regarded as an essential amenity of a normal community living in normal circumstances. We have reached the conclusion that what may have been no more than desirable in the past will become urgently necessary after the war. In the words of one of our witnesses—"The great need . . . is for ample and congenial premises where men and women, especially of the lower income groups, can afford to spend their leisure, create their own social life, and develop their own potentialities. These potentialities already exist widely, but at present they are largely undeveloped because there is a dearth of meeting places which are, *in practice*, equally available to all".

11. We believe that the years immediately after the war may be peculiarly favourable for a bold experiment in this direction. Since September, 1939, a large and growing concourse of men and women, of all ages and from every level of society, have been drawn into various forms of community life, in the armed and civil defence forces, in war-workers' hostels and in the wide variety of organisations fostered by the youth service. We think that many of them will be able, and even eager, to apply the technique of social living which they have acquired in war to the enrichment of their own and their neighbours' lives in peace. The young above all, who have taken to community life in their clubs and centres at an age when the habits of a life-time are formed and who, in the years to come, are likely to receive organised training for leisure, will seek anew in adult life the satisfactions they found in the organisations which they have outgrown.

12. If provision to meet such demands is to be made, the approach and method are of the first importance and this must be our justification for dealing with them at some length in the chapters which follow. The community centre, which was born in the slums and spent its infancy in the dark valley of the dole must be brought out into the sunlight of healthy social life. Above all it should become the possession of the community. Once it is their possession, it will presently be their pride.

CHAPTER II.

AIMS, FUNCTIONS AND ACTIVITIES.

1. Aims and functions.

13. Community centres, in the sense in which the term is used in this Report, exist, as we have said, so that neighbours can come together on an

equal footing to enjoy social, recreative and educational activities, either as members of groups following particular hobbies and pursuits, or on the basis of their common needs and interests as human beings living in the same locality. They should, therefore, be so conducted as to be open to all members of the community even though in practice, all may not actually use them.

14. The immediate aim should be to foster a sense of community through the service of the social and cultural needs of a neighbourhood. Everything possible should be done to dispel that institutional atmosphere which tends to repel young and old alike, but more especially the older folk for whom social amenities are increasingly required and whose needs are not so much for "uplift" as for cheerful society and activities which will help them to retain their interest in life. Once a sense of community has begun to develop, the centre can move forward to what we have already stated as its ultimate purpose—the stimulation of interest in, and the provision of facilities for, the wise and enjoyable use of leisure.

15. It should not be assumed that everyone desires or can enjoy community centre life. A neighbourhood does not completely circumscribe the lives of those who dwell there. The more lively, active and developed inhabitants will have interests which require contact with the outside world for their fulfilment; and by no means all those of more restricted outlook will naturally gravitate to a community centre. Human beings have more than a common social nature. As individuals they are in greater or less degree differentiated and whether they do or do not gravitate to the community centre will depend on what takes place there; and that in its turn depends partly on policy, partly on the easy compatibility of different interests within the same institution, and partly on the degree to which social mixing is in fact possible.

16. The community centre is not intended to serve as a substitute for home, church and other traditional rallying-points of social life, nor is it intended to supersede cinemas, theatres and concert halls; but if it is so organised as to fit in with and supplement the facilities already available, it should be a potent factor in building up a live democratic community. Even where educational provision is good and abundant and other public buildings exist, there may still be not only room, but need, for a centre, which can supply an absolutely neutral meeting place in which people of varying shades of creed and political opinion can foregather for social and recreative purposes. "Nearly all other social agencies," wrote one of our witnesses, "tend to draw people together on a corporative basis. In the community centre . . . they should meet as individuals and not as members of a church, a trades union or a political party. The centre must therefore be freely open to all who desire to join it, without any restriction on religious or other grounds."

2. Activities.

(a) *General.*

17. In speaking of the activities of a community centre under three main heads, social, recreative and educational, we have followed prevailing custom; but these are not clear-cut categories in the sense that they enable any and every activity to be neatly pigeon-holed in one or other of the three. At many community centres it will be found that the social and recreative activities merge by fine gradations into the educational, and that some, of which music and drama are perhaps the best examples, may be all three at once. The most that can be said with certainty is that at one end of the scale

we find such social events as dances, whist-drives and "social evenings", and, at the other, formal education, in the shape of classes in economics, international relations, psychology and the rest, carried on with the aid of grant under the Adult Education Regulations.

18. Between these extremes lies a vast variety of interests for which the community centre can and should cater. Music, drama and choral societies can rehearse and produce there: the allotments association, the rabbit club, the savings group, the film society and the British Legion can hold business meetings and social functions. There, too, will be the common room, the games room, and the canteen to which members can resort to read, to play games or chat over a meal; and here we would emphasise our conviction that those who are responsible for planning the activities of a community centre should not forget the needs of the less gregarious person who, though temperamentally indisposed to join clubs and societies, will be glad to drop in to read, chat or even "just sit".

(b) *The canteen.*

19. The canteen is vitally important. Our witnesses agree that the service of light meals in agreeable surroundings is not only an attraction in itself, but also encourages and makes easier attendance at the Centre for other purposes. An atmosphere of sociability and friendly talk makes the canteen the natural centre of life where community of interest can most easily be discovered and promoted. Too often, however, a sloppy cup of weak coffee and a currant bun are the canteen's main offering to the members. If the Community Centre canteen is to attract the public, and in particular the younger folk, its standards of catering, cleanliness and general competence should be the highest attainable. It must conform to the best modern standards of quality and range in the food and drink it supplies. In normal conditions milk shakes and icecream products are both attractive and nourishing and a well balanced meal of appetising sandwiches can always be provided. As a rule the canteen is largely dependent upon the voluntary service of members, mainly the women and girls. It is therefore vital that in the canteen service as elsewhere there should be opportunity for enterprise. Altogether the canteen is an important factor in the social education of members.

(c) *Social activities.*

20. Almost all the evidence we have heard goes to show that of the diverse activities we have mentioned, the purely social must come first both in time and importance, for they are the foundations upon which the work of the centre will be built; the evidence also suggests that in launching them the first approaches must be made to the women. On new housing estates especially, the women are often lonely and without social resources, and it has been found comparatively easy to bring them together in a social way for a cup of tea and a chat in the afternoon. After a time they may be ready to take a more active interest in the doings at the centre and so reach the point at which they will be prepared to form a women's committee and take a hand in planning and managing a part of the centre's programme. In any event it is wise to begin in a modest way so that development may conform to demand.

(d) *Educational activities.*

21. The justification for spending public money on a community centre must be that it performs a public service. Without some educational purpose a community centre is unlikely to make a permanent contribution to the needs of the community. The question to be decided is how best to

provide facilities of an appropriate kind. Once the members of the local community have formed the habit of dropping into their centre, it will be time to find out which educational activities are of interest to them. There may be spontaneous demands from a local music society, a local dramatic society, an allotment holders' association all seeking facilities for holding their meetings. There may also be demands for lectures, discussion groups and the like. In their absence, it will be desirable for the warden or some interested person to stimulate demand by arranging for talks, demonstrations, and lectures. A talk by an enthusiastic expert seldom fails to produce a response and it will be for the local education authority to see that suitably qualified persons are available to give help and guidance to those whose interest has been aroused. In short the general trend of development should be through the creation of interests followed by encouragement to pursue those interests further.

22. It must, however, be made clear that the deciding voice in regard to any particular activity is with the members; and the members' interest will take time to develop. Any idea that those using a normal community centre can be converted wholesale into a band of culture-seeking enthusiasts will, in our view, lead to early disillusionment. A few will be interested in drama, another few in music, some in "keep-fit", some in discussion groups and lectures and others in the allotment association or the poultry club. What is important is that every member should be encouraged to take an interest in some form of recreation calling for a personal effort, and that members themselves should, as far as possible, organise the various activities undertaken.

23. It is most important that help and encouragement should be given with the object of steadily raising the members' standard of performance. But it is not essential, and indeed often undesirable, that any special prestige should attach to classwork such as is aided under the Adult Education Regulations. This form of study, which is continuously progressive and may extend over a number of years, is for the studiously minded. It demands hard thought and cultivated habits of work and flourishes best in the quiet atmosphere of the lecture room. For these reasons it may not fit in very well with the easier and more social atmosphere of the community centre. None the less there is every reason for providing courses of this type at the centre, if the demand arises.

24. It must be recognised that the members of a centre will often tend in the first instance to favour those forms of activity which afford some immediate material return. The first educational appeal to the women will be through the provision of facilities for dressmaking, mending, use of domestic appliances, first aid and nursing; the men will be attracted by allotment associations with co-operative buying, boot-repairing facilities, rabbit clubs and the like. Anything which savours of the academic will at this stage do more harm than good. Later on it may be possible to develop interest in a wider range of activities.

25. Although informal education may make a wider appeal than more formal organised courses, it would be a mistake to assume that the standards must necessarily be inferior. The activities of such bodies as C.E.M.A., and the Regional Councils for Education in the Forces have brought to light a growing desire amongst ordinary folk for good music, drama, art and craft work and for expert talks on current affairs, local and central government, history, science and for physical training. Education poorly presented can be as powerful a deterrent to attendance as education which is beyond the capacity of the community to enjoy or understand. It is

essential, therefore, that the centres should be linked up closely with other educational institutions so that the services of specialist teachers and lecturers may be readily available.

26. For small groups particularly, informal education sometimes lends itself more easily to tutorial and other more intimate methods of instruction. The experience gained with units of the Services may be helpful. Here, by means of travelling exhibitions and occasional visits from experts, a tremendous demand for leisure occupations of a craft nature has been satisfied. Students launched on craft work and helped on by means of development charts have been able to carry on with remarkable results. It is noteworthy that many units in the Services have found expert tutors in their own ranks. Generally speaking, educational activities in community centres should aim at stimulating an interest in study; at leading many to the cultivation of hobbies, and ultimately, it is hoped, at arousing the desire for a more thorough training through the medium of formal courses.

27. Although we have more particularly advocated the fostering of those forms of activity which are more strictly educational, the purely social activities of the community centre are also in their own way educational. Where there is no community feeling, there is likely to be little sense of community responsibility. Gatherings which enable people to meet their neighbours, help newcomers to the district, obtain advice on their own difficulties and which make it possible for overworked mothers to gain an occasional respite from the cares of home and children and enjoy two or three hours of recreation, all help to produce good feeling in the locality and to promote good citizenship.

(e) *Outdoor activities.*

28. Encouragement should be given to outdoor activities, and the site of a community centre should be laid out attractively. If a bowling-green and tennis courts can be added, so much the better. Lacking outdoor amenities, the centre will be used mainly in the winter and, to that extent, will fail to fulfil its functions as a focus of community life throughout the year. But if during the summer there are facilities for games, both for the young and the not-so-young, and if, in addition, there is a verandah upon which refreshments can be served out-of-doors, the centre can work, and is likely to work, to capacity, winter and summer alike.

29. We realise that it may not always be possible, especially in towns, to secure a site large enough to do more than provide a comely setting for the building, since the first need in siting a community centre is to place it as near as may be to the heart of the neighbourhood it is to serve. But even in towns, the centre may sometimes be near playing-fields and in newly developed urban areas, and in villages the siting of the community centre or the village hall should, wherever possible, be considered in relation to the position of the local playing fields.

(f) *The need for variety.*

30. Before leaving the subject of activities, we wish to emphasise our view that the programmes of community centres will, and indeed should, vary widely according to the type of neighbourhood they serve and the needs and desires of those who use them. It would have been labour lost had we attempted to distil from the programmes we have seen some quint-essential model programme of universal application. The centre is made for the community, not the community for the centre, and broadly speaking it is the centre's business to satisfy such of the community's reasonable needs as fall within its scope.

CHAPTER III. ORGANISATION.

31. The aims and arrangements of a community centre also will vary widely according to the type of district and the nature of the population which it is intended to serve. This variation will greatly affect the size and type of premises, the equipment, the staffing and the relationship of the centre to other educational establishments in the area. Three main types of area call for separate consideration, (a) rural, (b) newly developed urban or suburban, (c) established urban.

(a) *Rural areas.*

32. In rural areas population is dispersed for the most part in small village groups and here we have to consider whether community centre facilities should be provided locally, either in village halls or as an annexe to the village school, or for the district as a whole by means of centres of the village college type—or whether both are necessary.

33. Those of our witnesses who knew the countryside well were united in emphasising the importance of improving the amenities of village life. There was, however, some divergence of opinion as to how this should be done. It becomes necessary to balance the homely attractions of a village hall just down the road with the wider range of activities which become possible in a centralized building of a larger and more elaborate kind such as the village colleges of Cambridgeshire.

34. There were diverse views as to the merits of the village college—which, we were told, should be regarded not as a senior school to which community facilities are attached, but as a community centre which houses a senior school in the day-time. Some witnesses objected to the incorporation of adult facilities in school buildings on the familiar ground that adults dislike “going back to school.” Others thought that the village college tended to divide the local population into two groups of which the first, having some intellectual proclivities, would centre its social life around the village college, while the second sought fellowship in the village inn. The village college, it was argued, could provide many opportunities for those who had already some common intellectual basis on which to work, but did not begin to provide what was really needed for an ordinary village social centre. It could not take the place of the village hall because it afforded no opportunity for the development of corporate village life; nor, it was said, was the work of a village college so related to village life as to train people to be “good villagers”.

35. The difficulty of travel was also mentioned. We were told that the distances which many of those using a village college would have to travel would be a grave disadvantage and that the amenities provided did not offer a sufficient incentive to village people to travel 4 or 5 miles on a cold wet night.

36. In favour of the village colleges it has been said that they offer better accommodation, better leadership and better equipment for both work and play than any village hall and that it would be desirable to concentrate on a centralized provision of recreative facilities.

37. We have come to the conclusion that the first need of the villages is for village halls, though they may well look to a village college to supplement the village halls for selective activities which the resources of a single village cannot maintain. The village college would, of course, serve as the community centre for its own village or small town and would be linked

with the surrounding village life by containing the Secondary School attended by the older children.

38. It is not essential to separate the village hall from the village school. Indeed, where new village schools are proposed or where there is room on the existing school sites, there is everything to be said for linking the hall with the school, for in this way all sections of the community can enjoy full use of the whole of the buildings available.

(b) *Newly-developed urban and suburban areas.*

39. The case for providing community centres in newly developed housing areas no longer requires to be argued. It is now generally recognised that the benefit of the improved environment on new housing estates was often offset by the lack of adequate social and recreative facilities. In this connection two passages from the evidence we received are perhaps worth quoting:—

“ The difficulties imposed on certain sections of the population since the last war have been due to bad experiments in housing which interpreted human need solely in terms of cubic space.”

“ The desolation experienced by slum dwellers suddenly transferred to a new estate, with no made roads, with church, school, shops and public houses, anything from 1½-2 miles distant, with neighbours whom they do not know and hot-water systems which they do not understand, and which terrify them, is something which has to be lived with to be understood.”

40. In newly developed areas it is commonly necessary to start from zero. The problem is not so much one of provision as of initial organisation—of how to arouse interest in the community idea and so stimulate the growth of a community spirit. Reduced to practical terms, the question is largely whether it is better to begin with premises or a person. It is a question on which our witnesses were sharply divided. Some held that the first step should be to introduce into the community, as soon as a reasonable number of people had taken up residence, a full-time paid social worker employed either by a local authority or a national voluntary organisation, aided as might be necessary, by direct grant from the Ministry of Education. This person—destined ultimately, it might be to become the warden of the centre—should, it was suggested, live on the estate, get to know the people, and foster the sense of community with a view to promoting the formation of a community association to focus the demand for a centre to meet the needs of the community as a whole. Directly an interest in any particular activity, for example, drama, manifested itself, he or she should work for the formation of a group. When this point had been reached it would be time enough to tackle the problem of premises. It was generally agreed that a site for a community centre should be reserved when a housing estate is planned.

41. Another group of witnesses thought it wiser to begin by securing premises of some kind, even though they were nothing more than a hired hall or a temporary hut, in which the warden-elect could work from the first. But both groups, with very few exceptions, were against running ahead of demand by providing a large and elaborate building before the nature and extent of the needs of the locality were established. It was felt that the response would be less good if a fully equipped centre were provided without any effort or interest on the part of the local people. The scheme most commonly favoured was one of building by instalments in accordance with a complete plan drawn up in the early days—commencing with a

nucleus in the shape of say, a small hall, a kitchen and canteen-commonroom, and completing the building by stages as the population and the demand for facilities grew.

42. Considering the evidence as a whole, we have reached the conclusion that in an established community which already possesses some corporate consciousness the first need is for premises; in a new community coming together for the first time (as on a new housing estate) and with no corporate consciousness, there is also need for an individual whose work it should be to arouse that consciousness and stimulate interest in the idea of communal activities in a community centre. We have already indicated our belief that a community centre should be regarded as a normal part of the educational provision in any developing area. As soon as the time has arrived for building new schools, it will also be time to provide accommodation for a community centre. This does not make it less desirable that the person selected to become a warden should take up residence on the estate at an early stage and at once begin to get to know the people, to form a community association and generally to prepare for the new building; nor does it imply that it is necessary to start with more than a limited amount of accommodation. As suggested later in Chapter IX it should be possible to have a reserve of accommodation for community centre use by taking advantage of premises provided for other educational purposes at times when they are not required for their primary purpose.

(c) *Established urban areas.*

43. It was the conditions prevailing in the poorer and more congested areas of our cities which moved Samuel Barnett in 1883 to read at St. John's, Cambridge, the paper entitled "Settlements of University Men in Great Towns" from which the Settlement movement sprang. The need for community centres in crowded cities remains great and is not confined to the slum areas with which Samuel Barnett was chiefly concerned; but the conditions of urban life will tend to impress a characteristic pattern upon community centres in cities. That pattern will be dictated by certain circumstances common to most urban areas—density of population, commercially-provided facilities for recreation and enjoyment, the educational provision made locally in evening institutes and technical colleges, and the presence of other public buildings which may be available for work of a community centre type.

44. Where population is thick on the ground, a large centre may be needed. At the same time it must not be so large that the individual feels lost in it—for it is our hope that men and women will go to community centres not to lose, but to find themselves. Nevertheless we believe that where it is a question of serving a population of say, 15,000 to 20,000, the need is for a building capable of accommodating about 500 people so that a number of activities may be carried on simultaneously. Townspeople are at home in crowds and they find a well-filled centre cheerful. Once a large centre is established, work on a comparatively ambitious scale may be attempted—an orchestra, a choral society and good dramatic work—for which specialist instructors will normally be available locally. The centre will often be assisted in the initial stage of its work by the existence of at least the beginnings of community consciousness such as often exists in the poorer quarters of cities, where a spirit of friendliness and co-operation is found more frequently than amongst members of the artisan class who have prospered and migrated to new housing estates; its work may be reinforced by the setting up of subsidiary branch centres of a more intimate type.

45. For community centres in the poorer districts of large towns there is likely at first to be some shortage of potential leaders and it will usually be found convenient to arrange residential quarters for persons who will be prepared to give part of their spare time to the work of the centres. Many young people training for social work and others would both gain and contribute something of value by mixing with the members of the centre, and helping the warden to run it.

(d) *Youth work in Community centres.*

46. Bound up with the question of the organisation of community centres generally is that of the relation of their work to that of the Youth Service. Should centres cater for the social and recreative needs of the 14/18 age-group and, if so, in what manner and to what extent? The point arises in relation to every type of community centre from the village hall onwards and the elements of the problem are the same throughout. On the one hand it is said that a community centre is essentially,—and some would say exclusively—an adult institution; and if the comfort and convenience of adults is to be the first consideration, there is a good deal to be said for excluding the under 18s. Young people tend to enjoy themselves boisterously, older people more quietly, and both cannot enjoy themselves at the same time and in the same place. It is said, too, that young people “knock the place about”, and are careless and untidy with equipment. On the other hand we have the authority of the Youth Advisory Council for saying that the Youth Service is a bridge by which young people pass from one form of living to another—from childhood to adult life; and since there is little inducement to traverse a bridge projected into a void, those who hold with the Youth Advisory Council maintain that, so far as young people are concerned, the community centre might well be the bridgehead which gives access to adult ground.

47. We feel that both views have truth, but neither the whole truth. Between the two there is room for compromise: we believe that insulation and not isolation is the answer to the problem. By this we mean that while Youth activities proper should find a place in community centres, they should in general be kept separate from the adult activities either in time or place. If the building is large enough, a separate wing should be allotted to the young people; or failing that, separate rooms at one end of the premises. If accommodation is restricted, a room or rooms might be set aside at certain times of the day or week for youth work. Circumstances will dictate the devices by which this policy of insulation can best be implemented; but we believe that indiscriminate mixing of youth and adult activities is likely to prejudice both. As the younger members of the centre approach the age of 18 they will, quite naturally, begin to take part in its major social activities and so obtain their first footing in the adult community.

(e) *Local consultation.*

48. Another general point in connection with organisation which may conveniently be noticed here, relates to the necessity for consulting any organisations concerned with social and recreative activities which already exist where it is proposed to set up a community centre. Difficulties have arisen through failure in this respect and we are convinced that it is only when there has been the fullest consultation with local interests, followed by careful and co-operative planning in relation to existing provision, that community centres can be so organised as to make their optimum contribution to the well-being of the populations they serve. Nor should consultation and co-operation cease after the initial stages have been passed. No centre

which does not continuously adapt itself to the life of the neighbourhood can ever be entirely successful.

CHAPTER IV.

CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES.

(a) Bars.

49. We have discussed at length, both with our witnesses and in committee, the advisability of including a licensed bar amongst the amenities of a community centre. We were impressed by the success of the Slough Social Centre, which has a bar on the premises and caters for some 12,000 members; we knew also that a bar is a feature of a number of Miners' Welfare Schemes; and we felt that if, as one of our witnesses put it—"The public house is the only community centre patronised by a section of the people", we could not lightly dismiss the possibility of licensed community centres.

50. Our witnesses put forward a variety of views of which the following are a fair sample. We give first some in favour:—

"Either a community centre should incorporate a bar or public-houses should be more than drinking places".

"There should be a bar and it should be housed in the canteen so that food and drink can be served together. It would be good policy for beer to be sold freely and spirits reluctantly. It is better that drink should be taken on the community centre premises and under the control of the warden, than that members should slip out to a nearby pub".

"If the colleges of a university can have beer, why not community centres?"

"Ideally community centres should be licensed, but it will be necessary to introduce the experiment slowly".

"The refreshment side of a village hall is very important, and I should see no objection to a bar there; indeed, an institution which would combine the village hall with the village pub might be ideal".

These quotations are taken from the evidence of three women and two men. It was, on the whole, the women who were most strongly in favour of bars.

51. The quotations which follow are from the evidence of witnesses, all men, who took the opposite view:—

"A bar on the premises would tempt people to drink more and would attract a number who would come in merely for a drink."

"The provision of alcoholic drinks might let down the tone of the place."

"There are sufficient facilities elsewhere in the neighbourhood. Too many people would come in merely to drink. A bar would detract from the tone of the centre."

"It is not necessary to have a bar in a centre. Many people would object to it."

Some witnesses held no strong view one way or the other and one had no views at all.

52. Here clearly is a subject for controversy, and one which is quite capable of splitting a community. We have to consider the effect of a bar not only on the centre itself but also on the centre's good name in the neighbourhood. As we write, the public mind is gravely disturbed by a marked increase of drinking amongst young people, and amongst the measures

suggested to deal with this problem which have gained official support is the opening at night of cafes and British Restaurants serving food and soft drinks in cheerful surroundings. The inclusion of bars in community centres provided out of public funds—centres in which, it is hoped young people will continue the training in citizenship begun under the auspices of the Youth Service—might attract considerable criticism.

53. On the other hand it may be argued that the provision to be made in community centres must not be governed by considerations which relate only to young people; and earlier in this Report we have suggested that the youth work of a centre should, to some extent, be kept separate from the adult work. A community centre is first and foremost an adult institution to be viewed primarily from the adult's point of view, and in the case of any given community centre it should, we suggest, be for the community concerned to decide whether they want a bar or not.

(b) *Political activities.*

54. We have given special consideration to the question whether political organisations should be admitted to membership of community centres, a matter on which we have had the benefit of the considerable experience of the National Council of Social Service. It has been suggested that when political passions become heated they tend to split communities and that; therefore, the presence of political, i.e. party, organisations in a community centre is little likely to assist in welding a neighbourhood into a community. These are real dangers and we have no desire to minimise them. But political interests are not only legitimate, but important, and, as one of our witnesses pointed out, no community centre which excluded political organisations could be said truly to reflect the life of the neighbourhood. We feel, therefore, that there should be no *a priori* ban on them so far as community centres are concerned. Nevertheless, there is need for special care in this matter. We recommend that the conveners of political meetings on community centre premises should be asked to pay a reasonable economic charge for the use of the accommodation since if it were given free there would be a danger of public funds finding their way indirectly into the pockets of party political organisations.

CHAPTER V.

STAFF.

55. A community centre must be run in an efficient and businesslike manner and one which serves the needs of not less than 2,000 families will require a full-time paid warden. Larger centres may require in addition full-time staff for the canteen and to relieve the warden of a certain amount of routine work. All centres will normally require the services of a caretaker. At three large centres of which we have knowledge, the following staffs are employed:—

(a) Full-time paid secretary, stewardess, shorthand-typist, buffet attendant, cleaner.

(b) Warden, full-time business manager and licensee (this centre has a bar), canteen manager, fireman and caretaker, two cleaners, billiards room attendant.

(c) Warden, assistant warden, secretary, shorthand-typist, housekeeper, cleaner.

I. The Warden.

(a) *Qualifications.*

56. The warden in charge of a community centre must inspire confidence and respect in the community he serves, and in choosing a warden it should never be forgotten that he will have to deal with men and women and not with theoretical abstractions. There was very general agreement amongst our witnesses that it was more important to get the right type of person than to insist on any specific academic qualifications. Everything, it was said, depended on personality and initiative, and only by careful hand-picking could the right men and women be obtained—men and women having the qualities of democratic leadership, with informed minds, resources within themselves and the gift of friendliness, possessed of personality and character and having a real love of the work. One witness thought that a successful warden should combine the qualities of a parson, teacher, salesman and administrator; another went even farther and asserted that the task called for a superman. We were, however, warned more than once against what one witness described as “the splendid warden”—the brilliant, dominating figure who directed and overshadowed all the doings of his centre. It was far better, we were told, to have “a patient fellow, not too anxious to lead, but willing to allow local interests to develop”. It was also suggested that there was much to be said for a local person with local contacts—or, if this were not practicable, that the person appointed should set out to “become local”.

57. Throughout the evidence, the emphasis was, as we have said, almost invariably on personality and character; paper qualifications were usually regarded as of secondary importance. At the same time it was agreed that a warden should possess a sound educational background, even though most witnesses did not think a degree essential. There was, however, one who, in stressing the importance of not employing as wardens persons who had failed in other walks of life, expressed the view that graduates should be preferred because they would be more likely to have made a success elsewhere and to possess a quality of mind which the community could respect. But it was obvious that, in practice, men and women with widely diverse backgrounds, ranging from graduates and trained social workers to a coal-miner, a railway clerk and a clerk in an ironmongery store, had in fact succeeded as wardens—largely, it seemed, by virtue of their personalities, experience of life and capacity for getting on with their fellow men.

(b) *Training.*

58. The general picture which has emerged from the various suggestions offered in regard to training is that it should be based on the study of social science, if possible up to university diploma standard, with some attention to economics, including economic history, industrial law and the framework of statutory and voluntary social service. Our witnesses contemplated, in addition, training in practical psychology and some study of the problems of group organisations. Some thought that experience with housing authorities and local education authorities would be valuable. A system by which intending wardens should for a time be “apprenticed” to full-time wardens actually at work in large centres was also advocated.

59. We regard the broad ideas implicit in the type of training suggested above as substantially sound and agree that wardens of community centres should, as far as possible, be persons who have received a liberal education. It may be necessary, especially in the years immediately after the war, to recruit wardens from a diversity of sources and it should always be possible to select an exceptional man or woman to qualify after a short course of

practical training. We think it advisable that a young warden's first appointment should normally be as an assistant in a large centre or some comparable social or educational institution. We think it a mistake to throw a man into a responsible position immediately he has completed his training.

(c) *Age.*

60. To be completely successful as a warden, a man or woman needs an experience of the world, hardly to be gained before reaching the age of 30. We think it generally inadvisable, therefore, to appoint persons much below that age as full-time wardens; and for this reason we have recommended that newly-trained wardens should in the first place be employed as assistants. Generally speaking, our witnesses thought the years between 40 and 55 those in which a warden was likely to do his best work; and one of them suggested that headmasters or headmistresses of a suitable type might be encouraged, in middle life, to transfer to community centre work. We see difficulties in this suggestion but it is consonant with that trend in current thought which condemns the doctrine of "Once a cobbler always a cobbler" and favours a freer transfer from one walk of life to another. Men and women choose their callings early, often before they have discovered their special talents, and both they and society will be the losers if there is to be no escape from the choice made in youth. Social work in particular would often benefit greatly by taking in recruits of mature years who have had experience elsewhere.

61. With this idea in mind, we asked our witnesses whether, in their view, a man or woman could successfully turn over from youth to community centre work at about 35 years of age. They told us that some youth leaders would be likely in middle life to make successful community centre wardens; they thought, however, that each case would need individual consideration; one or two suggested that an intensive course of specialised training would be needed by youth leaders and organisers before they entered employment as wardens.

(d) *Salaries.*

62. Age and training are two important factors in assessing rates of salary. If wardens in charge of community centres are to be trained on the lines we have suggested, and if, moreover, they cannot look to obtain a post as warden-in-charge until they are round about 30 years old, they should be paid a starting salary sufficient to enable them to marry and raise a family.

2. Other staff.

63. Apart from the warden, a community centre will need a caretaker and cleaner, somebody to run the canteen and voluntary helpers. The warden may also need some clerical assistance. While the personal qualifications of the assistant staff do not call for the same anxious scrutiny as those of wardens and assistant wardens, it is essential that each should be competent in his or her domain. We are told that the success of one large centre was mainly due to—"a really good paid staff who are interested in the place and the people and who have created a personal and friendly atmosphere"—and obviously it is desirable that all who work in community centres, from the warden downwards, should be pleasant and socially-minded people.

64. There is particular need for the kind of assistance which can be given by the enthusiastic voluntary worker who is willing to take responsibility for some particular activity in which he or she is interested: and here a revival, or rather an extension, of the old Settlement practice of using

resident helpers might prove fruitful. We consider that young single men and women of professional status should be encouraged to live at community centres and give voluntary help. They would be particularly useful in centres catering for communities that do not too readily throw up individuals capable of taking the lead in community life. We do not, however, consider students sufficiently mature to form by themselves a satisfactory nucleus of voluntary workers.

65. On large new housing estates one of the ordinary houses might be set aside as a hotel for resident workers. Such an arrangement would involve little or no extra expenditure and would have the advantage that if the hostel should at any time be discontinued, the house could revert to its original purpose. We believe that local authorities might be prepared to take up this suggestion. It would also be desirable to obtain the co-operation of local universities, since the inclusion of students amongst the resident helpers would be valuable. A house on a municipal housing estate normally comprises three bedrooms, a living room and a kitchen and could readily be adapted for four people with a communal kitchen. Many meals could no doubt be taken at the community centre.

CHAPTER VI.

PROVISION AND MAINTENANCE.

1. Provision.

66. Some account of the origins of some of the existing community centres and kindred organisations will be found in Appendix I to this Report, from which it will be seen that there is a measure of co-operation between bodies already at work. Nevertheless it is generally agreed that the present shortage of premises suitable for community activities cannot be made good under the existing system of provision. Finance is the prime limiting factor and we are satisfied that the cost of building and equipping the new community centres needed cannot be met from voluntary sources. It will seldom be possible for even the warden's salary to be met by the members of a centre without detriment to its activities—for they would then have to be shaped largely with the object of producing revenue. The aims to which we attach importance in fostering the establishment of community centres would be almost entirely frustrated if they were to be compelled by poverty to concentrate their efforts on whist-drives and similar expedients for raising money to the practical exclusion of all other developments.

67. We have considered the possibility of financing the erection of community centres by means of grant from the Ministry of Education, paid either directly to the bodies responsible for individual schemes or through a national voluntary organisation. But this arrangement would have the effect of divorcing the community centre service from such services as adult education and the Youth Service in which the local education authorities play a leading part. It would also much reduce opportunities for economising on capital expenditure by planning for the joint use of buildings. At the same time we think it possible that there may be a case for making direct grant from the Ministry available to suitable national bodies for specific non-local purposes.

68. The community centre itself should be an essential part of the educational services of the locality, linked up with the more formal provision for adult education and frequently sharing a building with the Youth Service. It should, therefore, be the responsibility of the local education authority.

whose duty it will be to ascertain what is required and to see that the necessary provision is then made. As a first step, local education authorities should survey the needs of their respective areas with a view to including proposals for the provision of community centres in the schemes of further education provided for in the Education Act.

69. While it follows that the local education authority as the responsible authority will normally provide the new buildings needed, we are appreciative of the enterprise shown by individual housing authorities in promoting community centres in the past and we consider that they should remain at liberty to exercise their existing powers in relation to new housing schemes. It is, however, essential that where the housing and local education authorities are not the same, the housing authority should consult the local education authority before proceeding with any proposal to erect a community centre. Where housing and education are the responsibility of different bodies, co-operation between the two is vital and should be secured by means of suitable administrative arrangements on a basis to be settled between the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Education.

70. The suggestions made above relate primarily to the provision by local education authorities of new centres in districts where none exists. Where there is already a centre provided through or by a voluntary organisation wholly or partly out of voluntary funds, the authority, in surveying the needs of their area, will wish to consider whether the centre meets all the needs, whether it can do so with some extension of its premises or whether it cannot be made to do so. In each case discussion will be necessary with the governing body of the centre and it should be possible to agree upon a satisfactory working solution.

2. Maintenance.

71. The accounts of community centres show that their incomes are derived very largely from lettings, canteen profits, members' subscriptions and profits on dances, whist drives and other social functions. Where the local education authority have provided, or helped to provide, the building, they commonly contribute towards maintenance; their expenditure attracts 50 per cent. grant from the Ministry of Education.

72. On the question of maintenance as distinct from provision, most of our witnesses took the view that a well-run centre should find no difficulty in becoming self-supporting, provided the local education authority were prepared to assist (a) temporarily, if necessary, with general maintenance costs during the first two or three years while the centre was finding its feet, and (b) permanently with the warden's salary and the cost of the structural maintenance of the fabric. Some thought that the local education authority should not necessarily limit their contribution in this way, saying that, apart from the wages paid to workers in the canteen (which should be not merely self-supporting but a source of revenue), there was a case for meeting from public funds also the salaries of assistant wardens, cleaning and care-taking staff and the cost of any necessary clerical assistance. It was argued that if the management committee of a centre were left to shoulder the whole burden of maintenance, they would be bound to plan their activities too largely with a view to raising income and thus crowd out more valuable work.

73. We considered a suggestion that a local education authority should make to each community centre within their area a block grant for maintenance on a basis of proved need, as demonstrated by the submission of an annual budget and statement of accounts; but while we think it desir-

able that local education authorities should be ready to extend their aid in respect of maintenance where the circumstances justify them in so doing, there is an obvious risk that once it is known that a community centre can turn to the authority for relief whenever it is in low water, the incentive to raise income by voluntary efforts will be greatly weakened.

74. The conclusion we have reached is that while the local education authority might well meet the cost of the warden's salary and of the structural maintenance of the fabric, it should be laid down as a principle that members of the centre should make the maximum contribution *compatible with the general standard of their incomes* towards meeting the cost of maintaining it. It appears to us that the words in italics are the crux of the matter. It is essential that neither the amount nor the form of the payment required should be such as to exclude the poorer members of the community. It will sometimes be difficult to decide what payment will be generally within the capacity of members; allowance has to be made for the different economic levels to be found in some communities and the strain on family budgets where there are several small children must also be taken into account. On the other hand we have been reminded that even the poorest are usually prepared to pay their weekly ninepence or more to go to the cinema and that only in very exceptional cases will it be impossible to afford some small payment to join a centre. And there can be no doubt that services which are paid for are valued more highly than those which are not.

75. We think it will generally be found that members of community centres will prefer to make their contributions by way of a small enrolment fee, together with specific daily or weekly payments for the use of the several facilities provided rather than by comprehensive long period subscriptions.

CHAPTER VII.

OWNERSHIP, CONTROL AND MANAGEMENT.

76. In practice, it has been found advisable to set up separate bodies for control and management. The National Council of Social Service favour the appointment of a community association to deal with day-to-day management, and a holding committee, constituted under a trust deed, to take ultimate responsibility. This form of machinery has been used in the one or two cases in which a local authority has provided, or assisted in the provision of a community centre.

77. Under this arrangement, the holding committee, which would normally consist of representatives of the local authority, the community association and the voluntary social service organisations operating in the area, see to it that the centre is properly used and that any call made on the authority for maintenance costs is reasonable. While retaining ultimate responsibility for the management and maintenance of the centre, the holding committee delegate day-to-day management to the community association, upon the understanding that the association present reports and financial statements and neither make structural alterations, nor incur expenditure involving a payment from the funds of the local authority, except on the authorisation of the holding committee.

78. It is usual for a community association to appoint a council of management which is charged with the business of laying down the general policy of the association: the carrying out of that policy is delegated to an executive committee appointed from amongst the members of the council.

79. It is interesting to note that the National Council of Social Service do not favour the election of entire councils of management by vote at the annual general meetings of community associations; they suggest that such a council is best formed by appointing representatives from each of the constituent bodies using the centre, together with a proportion of the individual members and representatives of specialised sections—such as the Youth section. They do not think it advisable to relate group representation to the size of individual groups; in their view a large musical society and a small W.E.A. class should each elect one member.

80. The residential and educational settlements are as a rule controlled by the groups which have inaugurated and financed them; but here again it appears to be customary to delegate the day-to-day management to a body upon which the membership is represented.

81. Implicit in all the schemes devised by voluntary organisations for the government of community centres we find two fundamental principles. The first is the principle of local control of day-to-day management; the second that of stability and continuity in the body bearing the ultimate financial responsibility. We are convinced that both are sound; indeed we would go so far as to say that only upon this foundation will it be possible to erect any system of government for community centres which would be generally acceptable in this country. We agree with the witness who, speaking on this matter of government, said—"The success of a democracy depends upon the active participation of the largest possible proportion of its citizens"; and with another witness who said "It might be possible to run a highly efficient community centre from a local education authority's office, but it would not be of the same value to the community as a centre run democratically."

82. Some of our witnesses doubted whether the provision and ultimate control of community centres by local education authorities could ever be wholly compatible with the two principles stated above. They appeared to think that voluntary organisations are democratic and that statutory authorities are not, and were eager to combat any suggestion that local education authorities should "take over" community centre activities, which, they held, should spring from the needs and desires of the local people. But no witness dissented from the view that a widespread provision of community centres would be impossible without recourse to public funds.

83. We believe that democracy, acting (as it does) through local authorities, can be made to work, and we see no point in adding an extra wheel to the social coach by setting up *ad hoc* bodies for purposes which fall within the scope of existing authorities. We recommend, therefore, that a local authority providing a community centre, should take the ultimate financial responsibility for its maintenance. Control might conveniently be exercised through a community centre sub-committee of the education committee specially appointed to deal with all the community centres in the authority's area.

84. Nevertheless, apart from such major issues as the extension of the building or the appointment of a warden—on which members of a centre should be given an opportunity of expressing an opinion, but not the deciding voice—the government of a community centre should be left largely to those who use it. Some representation of the local education authority is, of course, necessary, but it should be limited and should not give the impression of external control by public authority. It should be a recognised principle that the community centre is largely run by voluntary service drawn from the community; and this principle will only become effective in action if

members who are prepared to work in the interest of the centre are given the opportunity to accept real responsibility for its government. We therefore recommend the establishment of a local management committee for each centre.

85. As the correct relationship between the local education authority and the management committee is of vital importance, any officials appointed to exercise that minimum of control which is essential should be very carefully selected. They should know the locality and its needs; they should be wise enough to exercise their powers with tact and to remain unobtrusively in the background, merely putting in a word in season as and when it is needed. It will be all to the good if they have been trained in social work.

86. In relation to this question of control and management, the arrangements for the government of the Cambridgeshire village colleges are of interest. A governing body has been appointed for each village college, on which students and parents appoint members. The Warden himself is a member and the Cambridge University Board of Extra-mural Studies is also represented. The students have a further voice in the running of the college through a students' council. The local education authority think it essential for the community centre to have a separate and effective governing body, although they reserve to themselves the final word in finance and administration. At the village colleges, the governing body appoint all the staff except the warden who is appointed by the local education authority. The chairman of the governing body attends the meetings of the local education authority at which the warden is appointed.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE IMMEDIATE FUTURE.

I. The need for surveys.

87. The urgency of the need for community facilities will, as we have tried to show, be much greater in some types of neighbourhood than in others and we have said that new housing estates and villages should head the priority lists. These apart, the best order of priority as between types of areas cannot, we consider, be determined without investigation of local conditions; and even when the neighbourhoods in an area have been grouped in classes, and arranged in a provisional order of class priority, it will still be necessary to determine the priorities of cases within classes. In any one area, a number of housing estates may need community centres; but some will need them sooner than others. Here and there voluntary organisations will have made some provision which may be more or less adequate; elsewhere there will be nothing at all. Until the responsible authorities have formed some general idea of the local needs in their areas as a whole, and of their relative urgency, they can neither measure their probable commitments nor shape orderly and comprehensive plans for development.

88. It appears to us, therefore, that as a preliminary step, local education authorities should make a careful survey of their areas with a view to identifying the districts in which community facilities are needed and listing those districts in an order of priority. In making their surveys, the authorities should, of course, consider methods by which the provision already made by voluntary bodies—and by the Miners' Welfare Commission—can be integrated with any further provision which may still be needed and for which the local education authority propose to make themselves responsible.

2. The use of organisers.

89. Long experience of launching new developments of the education service has gone to show that unless there is somebody on the ground particularly concerned to promote and stimulate a new service, progress tends to be slow and sporadic. Enthusiasm has to be engendered, and a belief that the new thing may have merit implanted in the minds of those concerned. We feel, therefore, that if the provision of community facilities is not to lag far behind the need, local education authorities should be encouraged to appoint area organisers of social and recreative centres, whose first duty it will be to conduct surveys of the areas for which they are responsible on the lines we have suggested. In the first instance it is probable that only the larger authorities will feel able to consider making such appointments; but on a basis of regional co-operation the smaller authorities may be able to move earlier than otherwise they might. Regional co-operation between authorities should also be encouraged in relation to the appointment of organisers of specialist activities in community centres.

90. As we have already indicated, nothing will be done in certain types of neighbourhoods, and notably slum-clearance housing estates, unless there is somebody on the spot to prepare the ground and to help to start new centres. In some areas assistance with pioneer work of this kind would be amongst the more important initial duties of area organisers of social centres.

CHAPTER IX.

Planning and Accommodation.

91. There are several ways of approaching the problem of providing the necessary accommodation. For example, the centre may be for the sole use of adults or it may serve the needs of both adults and youths, or it may be attached to other educational buildings of one kind or another. We have examined all these methods, bearing in mind the objections to the dual use of buildings and at the same time taking into account the urgent need for community centres and the heavy demand for building labour which will be experienced for some years after the war.

92. Requirements will vary according to circumstances, but the following example indicates the extent of the accommodation needed to make full provision for a neighbourhood population of from 5,000 to 10,000:—

A large hall, with stage and dressing rooms, a gymnasium, a small all-purpose hall, a large common room, kitchen, two large craft rooms with stores, games room, three quiet rooms, a library and reading room, accommodation for the warden, entrance hall, lavatories, cloakrooms, passages, heating chamber, stores, cycle accommodation, etc.

It is clear that this accommodation would involve a local education authority in a large and costly building at a time when, as the result of the new Education Act, it will be their duty to make extensive provision for other educational purposes. Moreover, it is unlikely that it will be possible to find an existing building capable of being readily adapted to give even an approximation to this accommodation. It follows, therefore, that unless there are grave objections to linking up community centre provision with that for other purposes the method of dual provision should be fully explored.

93. The most obvious form of dual provision is a combined community centre and youth centre for there are educational reasons for a close link between the two and much of the accommodation mentioned in paragraph

92 can be made to serve both purposes. The buildings should, of course, be planned so that part of the accommodation can be reserved exclusively for adults and part for young people.

94. The question of joint use with school buildings presents more difficulty. We have already referred to the prejudice against "going back to school" for recreational activities, and we have some sympathy with it. But we have found on investigation that the objections are not due to feelings of amour propre but because the school premises often do not offer the amenities required for adults. We consider that if the community centre provides the members with comfortable social and reading rooms *of their own* and pleasantly served light refreshments, and if the members can sit down to their lectures without having to squash themselves into seats several sizes too small for them, it will be found that they will raise no objection to using school premises for those activities which can most conveniently be taken in them. There is also much to be said for linking up school, youth work and community centre activities, particularly on a new housing estate where the welding of communities is always an urgent need. A youth wing could in effect be the old scholars' club as the great majority of the children of the locality would pass through the school, and the community centres' members would include the parents of the pupils. This linking up of the school with the general life of the community offers many attractions.

95. For the meetings of clubs, societies and associations it may be possible for the community centre to draw its members from some distance. But if it is to exert its full influence on the recreational activities of the inhabitants of any particular district, the building must be near enough to the homes of those who use it for them to be able to drop in frequently. The population to be served will vary according to the extent to which provision has already been made or has grown up for the purposes of community life and will be affected by the configuration of the land and the housing density. Usually, however, in urban areas, it will be between 10,000 and 20,000. If, therefore, use is to be made of school buildings, the premises most readily available will generally be the primary and modern schools.

96. Schools for children under 12 years of age are generally not suitable for adult use. The chairs and desks are too small and the teachers in a good school take great pains to make the rooms attractive to the children with flowers, ornaments, etc. Moreover group activity projects have frequently to be left lying about in a partially completed form. It is therefore difficult to adapt the rooms for adult use without disturbing and interfering with the day school work; and in any event, the attempt to do so would throw a serious strain on the caretaking resources. The only part of the primary school which can be used at all conveniently is the hall and that only where special arrangements are made for removing the children's chairs and replacing them by larger ones—which of course involves the restoration of the hall to its former condition in time for morning school.

97. The objections to the use of primary schools do not apply with quite the same force to the post-primary school, but the use of the classrooms should, as far as possible, be avoided. The use of the apparatus and equipment of the practical rooms and laboratories except under the supervision of the day school teacher, would also be likely to give rise to trouble and we are of opinion that in general it will not be desirable to use these rooms except where the teacher in charge will be in control of the arrangements. This in practice is likely to restrict their use very considerably. Reasons of economy, however, will probably make it essential to use the hall and gymnasium where the school is conveniently near to the centre.

98. If a local education authority decides to plan the provision of community centres on new housing estates in combination with post-primary schools and provision for youth there are certain points to be borne in mind. Where the population amounts to 20,000 it is likely that the planning scheme for the area will provide for separate post-primary schools for boys and girls on one site, and then the community centre building may be placed between them. Particulars of the accommodation required upon the assumption that the halls and gymnasium and, to a limited extent, the accommodation of the schools, will also be used, is given in Appendix II which also contains a sketch plan (Plan 3) to illustrate a possible lay-out.

99. An arrangement which has much to recommend it is the inclusion of a large hall, dining room and kitchen as part of the community centre block to be used by the schools during the day-time. Halls would be needed in the schools in addition, but these could then be made simpler and cheaper as a stage would not be required. Dramatic work requiring a stage would be taken in the large community centre hall. The dining room and kitchen would be of great service to the community centre in the evenings. Particulars of the accommodation required, together with a suggested plan (Plan 2) will be found in Appendix II.

100. In rural areas, where communications are not too difficult, collective activities on a district basis could be provided for by a community centre block attached to the area post-primary school on the model of the village colleges in Cambridgeshire. This accommodation would be supplemented by village halls in the larger villages of 400 and over. A village with premises capable of adaptation at a small cost would, of course, benefit in priority at a time when the building resources of the community were being strained. Wherever practicable, village halls should be linked up with village schools, so as to give additional free space to the children and provide overflow accommodation for the hall. Detailed suggestions are given in Appendix II.

101. In small towns of from 10,000 to 20,000, it might usually be found desirable to make use of the county college for community centre and youth centre purposes.

102. In built up and settled areas the need for community centres will normally not be so pressing, as there will no doubt already be various public buildings and other amenities to serve their needs, but we are of opinion that whenever a new secondary school or college for further education is to be built, consideration should be given to adding provision for a joint community centre and Youth Centre. Where no new school or college is to be built, but extensions or alterations are being made, the likelihood of demand for additional community centre facilities should be considered and experiments for this purpose should be encouraged. Opportunities are also likely to arise, from time to time, for the conversion of large houses, factory buildings, etc., to form community centres.

CHAPTER X.

SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS.

1. The provision of premises and facilities for the use of leisure should be regarded as a necessary and important part of the educational system. (Paragraphs 5, 69.)

2. A large scale development of Community Centres, particularly on new housing estates, should be undertaken after the war. (Paragraphs 10, 11.)

3. Provision for a village hall should be made in all villages with a population exceeding 400. (Paragraphs 37, 100.)

4. Village Colleges should be established wherever conditions are favourable in order to increase the scope of the provision for leisure activities in rural areas. (Paragraph 37.)

5. Youth Centres may be closely linked with Community Centres and may conveniently share parts of the same building, but the independence of both should be preserved. (Paragraphs 47, 94.)

6. When any proposals for new Community Centres are under consideration there should be local consultation with interested voluntary bodies. (Paragraph 48.)

7. Local Education Authorities should undertake a survey of their areas. (Paragraphs 68, 88.)

8. Local Education Authorities, when providing Community Centres, should explore the possibility of making use of (1) existing or new Secondary School buildings and (2) colleges of further education, including county colleges. (Paragraphs 92, 94, 101.)

9. Housing Authorities should retain their powers of providing Community Centres, but these should be exercised in consultation with the Local Education Authorities concerned. (Paragraph 70.)

10. Local Education Authorities should be generally responsible for meeting the cost of the buildings and their structural maintenance and the Warden's salary. The members should make the maximum contribution compatible with the general standard of their incomes. The arrangement of payments should include alternatives likely to be convenient. (Paragraph 84.)

11. The day-to-day management of Community Centres should be carried on by the users. (Paragraph 84.)

12. The Community Centre should serve both as a club and as a means of providing accommodation for the various recreational and educational societies of the community. (Paragraphs 8, 13, 14.)

13. The establishment of social activities, and particularly of a good canteen, should normally be regarded as the essential preliminaries to any development of the work of the Centre in other directions. (Paragraphs 17, 18, 19, 20.)

14. The provision, or otherwise, of alcoholic refreshment should be left to the community to decide. (Paragraph 53.)

16. A full-time paid Warden should be appointed to a Community Centre intended to serve 2,000 or more families. He or she should be well qualified, properly trained and adequately paid. The appointment of the Warden should be made some time before the buildings are ready to be used so that he or she may get to know local conditions and the local people. (Paragraphs 42, 56, 57, 58, 59, 62.)

17. Other paid staff should be employed as required, due regard being paid to the importance of encouraging voluntary leaders and workers in all departments of the Centre. (Paragraphs 64, 65, 66.)

18. Local Education Authorities should appoint organisers of Community Centres. (Paragraph 89.)

19. Grant-aid should be made available to appropriate voluntary bodies for non-local purposes. (Paragraph 67.)

APPENDIX I.

NOTE ON THE BODIES MAINLY RESPONSIBLE FOR THE PRE-WAR PROVISION OF
COMMUNITY CENTRES.

(a) GENERAL

1. The great majority of the community centres and kindred organisations already in being owe their existence to the efforts of certain voluntary organisations and of statutory bodies. The voluntary organisations mainly concerned are:—

- (i) The National Council of Social Service.
- (ii) The British Association of Residential Settlements.
- (iii) The Educational Settlements Association.

The statutory bodies are:—

- (i) Local Education Authorities.
- (ii) Housing Authorities.

Centres have also been provided in many coal-mining communities by the Miners Welfare Commission which partakes of the nature both of a statutory body and a voluntary organisation.

It may be of interest if we give some account of these agencies, indicating briefly how they work and the scope of their operations.

(b) THE VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS

(i) *The National Council of Social Service*

2. The National Council of Social Service was set up in 1919 and one of its main objects was to promote community activity in both town and country. The Council define a community centre as a building which:—

- serves a community organised in an Association which is responsible for the management of the building;
- provides facilities for the development of the recreational, cultural and personal welfare of the members of that community; and
- constitutes a meeting place for voluntary organisations or other groups in the community which need accommodation.

3. To begin with, the Council made more progress in villages than in towns, partly because the problem was simpler and also because funds were made available towards capital grants and loans through the Development Commission and The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. About one thousand village halls were affiliated to the National Council before the war and approximately 500 local committees had been helped financially with building projects. On approved schemes the Council were prepared to meet one-sixth of the cost of a village hall by grant and a further one-third by loan. For small villages the grant might be as much as one-third. We are told that in no case has there been any default in the repayment of loans.

4. By 1925 the Council had become aware of the needs for community centres on large new housing estates and attempted to organise a National Conference at which this question could be considered; but the attempt proved abortive. In 1928 another attempt was made which resulted in the formation in 1929 of a Joint Committee of the National Council, the British Association of Residential Settlements and the Educational Settlements Association. The Joint Committee was formed under the title of the New Estates Community Committee, and the National Council provided the secretariat.

5. On the basis of the work of this Committee the National Council's work for new estates developed, and by 1939 had reached large proportions. Its policy was to encourage people to come together in some form of community association through which the needs of the estate could be served and plans drawn up for meeting them. It advocated the building of community centres and the appointment of full-time secretaries of community associations. Application was made to the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust for financial help and an amount of £10,000 was allocated by the Trust for individual grants on a decreasing scale over a period of five years, towards salaries of secretaries.

6. In 1939 the membership of the New Estates Community Committee was extended to include representatives of Local Councils of Community Associations, of local authorities and of the Board of Education and Ministry of Health. From this time onwards the Committee functioned as a committee of the National Council of Social Service.

7. The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust continued their financial support by offering grant in aid towards five centres on condition that the local authorities would bear the larger share of the cost. The trustees also enabled the National Council to employ a full-time travelling officer for new estates work. In 1937 the Physical Training and

Recreation Act was passed and gave an impetus to the movement and to the inception of new schemes. Very few of the schemes submitted actually reached a sufficiently advanced stage to qualify for the payment of grant before the outbreak of the present war.

8. In October, 1937, the New Estates Community Committee changed its title to "The Community Centres and Associations Committee" and in 1938 the Consultative Council of Community Associations was set up; this Council appointed a Standing Committee, all the members of which subsequently became members of the Community Centres and Associations Committee. Grants from the National Fitness Council and the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust enabled the National Council to appoint four travelling officers, stationed in Glasgow, Birmingham, Leeds and London, to undertake development work. Contacts were made with all important new housing estates in the country and many new local associations were formed. Much time was spent in negotiations with Local Authorities and with the Area Fitness Committees. There was close consultation centrally with the National Fitness Council on applications for the equipment and building of community centres.

9. By August, 1939, 92 Centre premises had been provided, either by private enterprise or by local authorities or by a combination of both. Plans had been prepared by local committees for a further 81 Centres and the Council was in touch with several hundred other schemes which were being considered locally, of which it is understood about 100 had been considered by the National Fitness Grants Committee for grant-aid from Government funds. Progress on all these schemes, except two, was held up by the war.

10. On the outbreak of war, the grant from the National Fitness Council terminated, and the Community Centres and Associations Committee decided to suspend its meetings for the period of the war. The Council has, however, maintained contact with existing associations. Those with buildings have managed to maintain their activities so far as war-time conditions will allow. Meetings of the Consultative Council of Community Associations have been held from time to time and a temporary arrangement has been made whereby its Standing Committee acts as a sub-Committee of the National Council itself on Community Associations matters.

11. In September, 1943, the Council organised a National Conference on Community Centres which was attended by 650 delegates of whom half came from Local Authorities. The Council is now considering how it can strengthen its staff to deal with its advisory and promotional work.

12. Statistics compiled by the National Council in October, 1942, showed that, apart from Village Halls, they were interested in 88 Community Centres, of which 49 had been provided by Local Authorities and 39 by voluntary bodies. The total population of all the districts served by these Centres was then about 797,500, and of this population it was estimated that some 65,650 were directly affected by the activities of the Centres. These figures do not include active Community Associations which had no premises, of which there are nearly 100 in touch with the National Council.

13. Much literature has been published by the National Council on the subject, including a series of leaflets on the establishment, finance, maintenance, planning, etc., of Community Centres, and the report of a special Survey Group published in 1943 under the title "The Size and Social Structure of a Town". The Council also joined with the Royal Institute of British Architects and the Housing Centre in the formation of the Community Centres Joint Research Committee which was responsible for the survey entitled "Community Centres" by Flora and Gordon Stephenson published in 1942.

(ii) *The British Association of Residential Settlements*

14. The British Association of Residential Settlements was formed in 1920 by the federation of a number of existing settlements. These were, for the most part, settlements of the older type, which owed their origin to the paper, already mentioned, entitled "Settlement of University Men in Great Towns" which was read by Samuel Barnett in St. John's College, Cambridge, in November, 1883. The first result of Barnett's paper was the foundation of Toynbee Hall early in 1885. Later in the same year Oxford House was opened in Bethnal Green to be followed in two years' time by the Women's University Settlement in Southwark. By 1890, 8 other settlements had been founded and at the end of the century 33 were in existence. To-day 55 settlements including three in Scotland are affiliated to the Association.

15. These fall roughly into three groups: the University Settlements such as Bristol, Toynbee Hall and Oxford House; the older non-University Settlements, a group which includes the majority of the London Settlements; and the post-1918 Settlements which are to be found chiefly in the provinces and which we understand are developing

increasingly on Community Centre lines. Since 1918 a number of branches have been opened, chiefly in new housing estates on the outskirts of older towns. Most of the Settlements own their own buildings.

16. All these Settlements are inspired by the fundamental idea of service to a neighbourhood rather than to individuals, of service achieved through the family unit and of a friendly personal relationship built up through the close association of the settlement workers with the local residents as neighbours.

17. Of the Settlements affiliated to the Association, three are also affiliated to the Educational Settlements Association, and the University Settlements, at least, maintain a tradition of adult education. In recent years the older non-University Settlements have laid less emphasis on the provision of facilities for recreation and education for adults and have given more attention to club work among children and adolescents. A good deal of pioneer work was done by these settlements in the provision of Baby Clinics and Schools for Mothers in which much of the earliest infant welfare work was done.

18. The Association maintain that in many areas, particularly newly developed estates with a preponderantly one-class population, there is still a great need for bringing in from the outside men and women who can awaken in the local residents "interests wider and more valuable than they have found either in their monotonous work or their standardised amusements". "Until", they say, "we have an adult population trained in the constructive use of leisure, it is too much to hope that successful community centres can be run without continuous help, both financial and personal".

(iii) *The Educational Settlements Association*

19. The Educational Settlement idea first appeared in 1909. The Association was formed in 1920, to promote and develop Adult Education through permanent Centres in the form of Educational Settlements for leisure-time study and Residential Colleges for full-time study. In 1924, the Association was recognised by the Board of Education as a responsible body under the Adult Education Regulations.

20. The primary function of Educational Settlements as conceived by the Association is the progressive development of the individual through mental training, self-effort, and the exercise of personal responsibility. For this development it is considered that more than mere attendance at a class, is needed; also necessary are:—

(i) a house and home for all the various kinds of instruction and students, thereby providing the means of bringing together students of different subjects;

(ii) a resident warden or director of studies;

(iii) a library, common room, canteen, etc., facilities;

(iv) opportunities for students to share in the management of the Settlement and its educational and social facilities and to meet leaders of different stand-points, lecturers and tutors;

(v) a common hearth and home, not only for the students, but also for others engaged in social and educational activities in the neighbourhood.

21. The idea of the Educational Settlement, we are informed, is to do for the adult what the good school can do for the young; provide the kind of environment which is best suited to individual and social development; stimulate and guide healthy growth in that environment; encourage the acquisition of habits, knowledge, interests and skill of mind necessary for living a full and useful life; set standards of conduct, effort and attainment by which behaviour could be measured.

22. At the outbreak of war, there were 28 Educational Settlements in Great Britain, including 8 in South Wales. The Welsh Settlements differ from the others in that they are not restricted to the immediate townships, and still less to the actual premises, in which they are situated; they cover a considerable number of separate clubs, groups and classes. Each Educational Settlement is voluntary and self-governing. Universities and other educational bodies, including in some cases local Education Authorities and also the students themselves, are represented on the governing councils. The income is derived from students' fees, proceeds of students' efforts, private subscriptions and donations, grants from educational and other trusts, and in some cases grants from Local Education Authorities. In Wales these funds have been supplemented out of the Special Areas Fund.

From these sources are paid:—

- (1) the Wardens and other full-time teaching and administrative staff;
- (2) the deficiency on the tutors' fees for classes grant-aided under the Adult Education Regulations;
- (3) the total fees of those tutors whose classes are not recognised under any regulations;
- (4) the running and administrative expenses of the Settlement itself.

23. The following is a picture of Educational Settlements. In 1941 sixteen of them provided 883 courses for over 18,000 men, women and young people classified as follows:—

	<i>Number of courses.</i>
University Extension	3
University Sessional	14
Three-Year Tutorial	10
One-Year	38
Terminal and Short Terminal	122
Local Education Authority (Junior)	9
Local Education Authority (Senior)	123
Non-Grant Earning	564
	883

Something between 700 and 800 students is thought to be the optimum number for the majority of Educational Settlements.

24. In addition to courses of the academic adult educational type, there were courses in practical subjects (e.g. allotment cultivation, cookery, dressmaking, first aid, woodwork, photography, radio), linguistic subjects (e.g. French, German, Russian, Esperanto), artistic subjects (e.g. painting and drawing, drama), musical subjects (e.g. singing choir, piano, violin, orchestra and operatic), and physical recreational subjects (e.g. dancing, fencing, keep fit). There were also dramatic, musical, literary and debating societies, camp and travel clubs and other social facilities. A large proportion of the Educational Settlements provide facilities for adolescents and are thus workers in the Youth Service.

(c) THE STATUTORY BODIES

(i) *Local Education Authorities*

25. The powers of Local Education Authorities for Higher Education to provide Community Centres derive from Section 86 of the Education Act, 1921, as amended by Section 6 of the Physical Training and Recreation Act, 1937. Any expenditure so incurred would be chargeable to the Higher Education Account and rank for grant at the rate of 50 per cent. from the Board of Education. No official statistics are available but figures given by the National Council of Social Service which relate to the position in October, 1942, indicate that at that time not less than 49 Community Centres of one kind and another had been provided by Local Education Authorities.

(ii) *Housing Authorities*

26. Section 80 of the Housing Act, 1936, confers a general power on Local Authorities providing housing accommodation to provide and maintain, with the consent of the Minister of Health and, if desired, jointly with any other person in connection with any such housing accommodation, any building or recreation ground which in the opinion of the Minister will serve a beneficial purpose in connection with the requirements of the persons for whom the housing accommodation is provided, that is to say, the Local Authorities' own tenants.

27. The cost of a Community Centre so provided would be met in the following manner. Assuming that a loan were raised to meet the capital cost of the building, the annual charges in respect both of the repayment of the loan and the maintenance of the centre (except in so far as it might be agreed that the cost of running the centre should be borne by some body other than the Housing Committee) would fall on the Council's Housing Revenue Account set up under Section 128 of the Act. The income in this account is made up of:—

(a) The Exchequer subsidies payable in respect of houses built by the Council.

(b) The statutory rate contributions which the Council are required to contribute in respect of houses built by them as a condition of receiving the Exchequer subsidy.

(c) The rents paid by the tenants.

28. The expenditure which has to be met from the account includes the loan charges in respect of all loans raised by the authority for the provision of council houses as well as expenditure on supervision, management and repairs.

29. If the income exceeds the outgoings, the extra cost of a community centre may not result in any further direct charge either on the local authority or the tenants. If, however, the surplus on the account is insufficient to meet this cost, the deficit could only be made good by increasing either the rents paid by the tenants or the amount contributed from the rates by the local authority or both.

30. At the moment there is a surplus on the Housing Revenue Accounts of most local authorities. If the rents of existing council houses continue to be raised, following general increases in wages, this will tend to increase the surplus. On the other hand the capital cost of building after the war is likely to be considerably higher than pre-war

building costs and the growing surplus may have to be used to off-set the rents of houses built by the Councils after the war.

31. Under this power, a number of Local Authorities made provision for Community Centres in connection with their housing schemes before the war. The matter received special attention in connection with slum clearance re-housing, it being realised that some such provision was very desirable for persons being transplanted from slum conditions to new estates. The Housing Management Sub-Committee of the Central Housing Advisory Committee set up by the Minister of Health recommended in their report in October, 1938, that every Local Authority whose proposals involved the building of a large number of houses on one site should leave space for a Community Centre and also expressed the view that County and Rural District Councils could, by co-operation and advice, assist in the provision of Village Halls, the real counterpart of Urban Community Centres.

32. Twenty-four Centres of varying types have been provided by 19 Housing Authorities, the largest being at Bristol, Leeds, Welwyn Garden City and West Bromwich. Generally speaking, the Centres appear to be controlled by the Housing Authorities themselves, but in some cases control is in the hands of voluntary committees and associations.

33. A number of the proposals under consideration at the outbreak of war related to substantial buildings. In addition, we are given to understand that about 50 smaller Centres were in contemplation.

(iii) *Joint provision by Housing Authority and Local Education Authority*

34. In some places Centres have been provided jointly by the Housing and Local Education Authorities. The Filwood Social Centre at Bristol, for example, was provided by a joint effort of the Housing and Education Committees; it has since been transferred to the care of the Education Committee, who pay the Warden's salary. The Townhill Community Centre at Swansea is another example of joint provision.

(d) **THE MINERS' WELFARE COMMISSION**

35. The general aim of the Miners' Welfare Commission is to provide the physical amenities necessary for the Social Welfare of the mining community, using wherever possible existing Miners' Welfare Schemes to achieve this end. A scheme may provide anything from a comprehensive community centre in a modern building of architectural merit, comprising rooms for library, reading, billiards, table games, meetings, gymnasium, hall for dances, concerts, drama, and even cinema, to a hut which serves for all social purposes in common. A typical scheme comprises a Welfare Institute, consisting of a building containing a main room equipped with a bar and other rooms available for games, reading and small meetings, together with a separate hall nearby, suitable for concerts, dramatics and dancing and including one or two smaller rooms and a kitchen. The Institutes are used solely by men, the Halls by women and girls also. The bar-room is a main feature of the Institutes.

36. Other types of scheme provide only a children's playground, a recreation ground, or a Boys' or Girls' Club. These features may also be incorporated in one of the larger schemes. Some of the schemes are vested in local authorities, but the great majority are vested in Miners' Welfare Trustees.

37. The money used to finance the schemes is derived from the Miners' Welfare Fund, established by the Mining Industry Act of 1920, which provided for an output levy on all coal raised in Great Britain the proceeds of which were to be applied for " purposes connected with the social well-being, recreation and conditions of living of workers in and about coal mines, and with mining education and research ". The output levy has been sometimes 1d. and sometimes ½d. a ton. It has been fixed at ½d. for the period 1944-51.

38. On 31st December, 1942, there were in existence 1,493 Miners' Welfare Schemes of all kinds which had cost in the aggregate £5,819,669. Of these 282 were in Scotland and 316 in South Wales. The Institute Schemes totalled 716, of which 178 were in Scotland and 154 in South Wales.

APPENDIX II.

Accommodation required for a neighbourhood unit of 5,000-10,000 people.

1. The details of the provision for a neighbourhood population of 5,000-10,000 on a new housing estate proposed in Chapter IX would be as follows:—

Large Hall (say) 70' x 45' = 3,150 sq. ft.

With gallery, stage dressing rooms, cloakrooms, sanitary provision, etc., as set out below in paragraph 5.

Gymnasium 70' x 40'.

With changing rooms, showers, etc., as for schools.

	<i>Sq. ft.</i>
Small all purpose Hall	1,000
Large Common Room	800-1,000
Kitchen	250
Games Room	800
Three General purpose Rooms	400, 500, 600
Library and Reading Room	800
Accommodation for Warden	400
Entrance Hall	400
Separate cloakrooms and lavatories for men and women each with 4 basins— the space allowed somewhat larger for women and with a good provision of mirrors—4 W.Cs. for women, 2 W.Cs. and 4 urinal stalls for men.	
Accommodation for cloaks, a boiler room and coke store in the basement, cycle and pram sheds outside and a car park.	

Accommodation for a neighbourhood unit of 5,000-10,000 people where school premises are available.

2. Where the Centre is able to make use in the evenings of school premises, including a hall with stage and gymnasium, these requirements can be greatly reduced. The following accommodation would also include a youth wing.

<i>Rooms primarily intended for Community Centre Use.</i>	<i>Area in sq. ft.</i>
All purpose Hall (suitable for lectures and with seating accommodation for about 100)	1,000
Common Room	800
Kitchen (to be situated between the Common Room and the Hall) ...	250
Games Room	800
Two rooms for the Warden—for the two	400
Entrance Hall	400
<i>Rooms primarily intended for Youth Centre use.</i>	<i>Area in sq. ft.</i>
Games Room (boys)	800
Games Room (girls)	600
Joint Common Room	600
Kitchen*	200
Group Room	250
Two Leaders' Rooms at 120	240
Office	150
<i>Rooms and other accommodation mainly for joint use.</i>	<i>Area in sq. ft.</i>
Heavy Craft Room	1,000
Storage	300
Light Craft Room†	850
Storage	250
Reading Rooms two at 400 connected by door	800
Two Group Rooms 400 ft. 600 ft.	1,000
Storage, cleaners and caretaker	800
	11,490
Add for lavatories, cloakrooms, corridors	2,500
	13,990
<i>Total, say</i>	14,000

The lavatories, cloakrooms and sanitary provision proposed above will need to be supplemented by a corresponding provision for the boys and girls in the Youth wing except that the number of basins, etc., for the Youth wing may be reduced from 4 to 3.

In addition there will be boiler room and coke store in the basement and cycle and pram sheds outside and a car park.

* Although a single kitchen seems at first sight to save space it would lead to inconvenience in planning in view of the number of rooms in which it is desirable to be able to serve refreshments; increased corridor space has also to be considered.

† It is suggested that this should be a room of 750 sq. ft. plus an alcove of 100 sq. ft. to contain equipment for cookery demonstrations.

The outline drawing in Plan 1 of a possible layout has been given so as to illustrate more clearly what is intended though the actual layout should of course depend on local conditions and requirements and individual taste.*

3. The accommodation in Paragraph 2 would require a building site of not less than three-quarters of an acre. It is, however, important that space should be available for extensions and for say, a bowling green and a couple of tennis courts. It is therefore desirable that the site should be not less than from 2 to 3 acres. Wherever possible part of the open space of the neighbourhood units should adjoin the Centre and playing fields and sports grounds should be provided for the members' use.

Furnishings and Finishes.

4. The furnishing, internal finishes and decorations of Community and Youth Centres are matters of importance. In the past most Centres have been poorly finished and inadequately equipped because of lack of funds, and too often painted in drab institutional colours. Poor finishes lead either to high maintenance costs or a squalid appearance which is only emphasised by dull, unimaginative colour schemes.

Problems of wall and floor finishes generally are similar to those which arise in school buildings and the solutions would often be similar. Both walls and floors should be finished in a way which ensures that they are very durable and easily cleaned. The functions of the various parts of the building would determine differences in finish; for example, the floors in heavily travelled passages and hallways might be in wood blocks or tiles and the common room floor hard-wearing carpet on boards, the floor finish in an assembly hall preferably to be in hardwood strips while in club rooms it might be heavy lino on boards. In multi-purpose rooms particular attention will have to be paid to wall finishes as these would be knocked by moveable chairs and furniture.

A Community or Youth Centre should be more "domestic" in character than a school. Architecturally, this would be expressed largely by the furnishings, including curtains and other textiles, and the colour schemes which should be cheerful. Furniture should be simple in design yet robust and easily cleaned. Good textiles and furnishing have an educational as well as practical and aesthetic value.

Particulars of a large hall forming part of a Community Centre.

5 Where a large hall, dining room and kitchen are included as part of an educational block containing also Secondary Schools for boys and girls to be used by the schools during the daytime (paragraph 99), the following detailed arrangements are suggested:—

A convenient size for the hall would be 70 ft. by 45 ft. = 3,150 sq. ft., which would seat about 500 persons. To this might be added a gallery 20 ft. deep which would take about another 125, making 625 in all. The height from the stage to the proscenium arch would be 20 ft. and from the proscenium arch to the ceiling of the stage should be not less than 10 ft. so as to allow sufficient height to enable pieces of scenery to be hoisted above the stage. The hall from floor to ceiling should be not less than 26 ft. or such height as may be required by the local bye-laws. The stage should be 20 ft. deep and extend for the whole width of the building so as to give the additional space in the wings to make it possible to do a certain amount of ballet. The proscenium opening should be about 27 ft. The curtain must be fireproofed. The minimum requirements for lighting would be a line of floats; 3 battens in the space above the proscenium arch which could be raised or lowered at will; at least 2 portable standard flood lamps.

The stage manager would require a small room of about 50 sq. ft. and a door at the side of the stage to enable him to pass to and from the auditorium. There should be 3 dressing rooms, each of about 200 sq. ft., equipped with mirrors and wash basins and good lighting. There should be separate w.c.'s for men and women, one of each, and storage for properties, conveniently accessible from the outside through an opening of about 12 ft. by 8 ft.

At the other end of the building or at the side should be a crush hall, cloakroom for men and women and a small (possibly movable) box office and staircases leading to the gallery. At the back of the gallery there should be a cinema projection room with provision for the emergency exit of the operator in accordance with the local bye-laws. Lavatories, w.c.'s, etc., should be provided separately for men and women on each floor. Arrangements for a buffet should also be provided. Plan 2 shows, for purposes of illustration, particulars of the large hall, kitchen and dining room. Plan 3 similarly gives a possible arrangement of the layout to two secondary schools and a Community Centre with a Youth Wing including the large hall, etc.

This applies equally to the other plans.

Village Halls.

6. Plans 4A, B and C give suggestions for village halls. Particulars are as follows:—

Plan 4A. For villages of from 300-500. A hall to seat 100-120 people costing on a pre-war basis £1,800 or by some cutting down of supplementary accommodation about £1,500. The body of the hall measures 28 ft. by 25 ft. The end of the hall is raised 12 in. and, by the use of two sets of folding screens, the stage portion may be converted into either a stage 16 ft. by 9 ft. with a dressing room behind 15 ft. by 8 ft. or a club room 16 ft. by 17 ft. shut off from the hall. A small kitchen, store rooms and lavatories are on the same level at the sides. Two small cloakrooms are at the other end of the hall.

Plan 4B. For villages of say 800-1,000. To seat 150-160, costing on a pre-war basis £2,350. This plan is similar to Plan 4A except that the body of the hall measures 38 ft. by 25 ft. and the rooms adjoining the stage are somewhat larger and arranged slightly differently. The end of the hall is again raised 12 in. and folding screens are used as in Plan 4A.

Plan C. For the larger villages of 1,300-1,500 which do not have a Village College. To seat 200-220, at a pre-war cost of £4,000. The body of the hall measures 45 ft. by 30 ft. The stage (22 ft. by 15 ft.) is 2 ft. high and the rooms at the back of the hall consist of two dressing rooms each 11 ft. 6 in. by 10 ft., less the space for a w.c. and a store 10 ft. by 6 ft. At the sides of the lower level and outside the lines of the hall are on one side a club room 14 ft. by 23 ft. 6 in., on the other a committee room 14 ft. square and a kitchen 14 ft. by 9 ft. 6 in., together with, on each side, a small store, lavatory and w.c. The cloakrooms as before are at the other end of the hall but somewhat larger.

The figures of cost are pre-war figures based on building in brick. The Scott Report, however, is particular to emphasise that the future of architecture does not lie in the easy direction of mere preservation and narrow conservatism. It lies in the imaginative use of new opportunities such as are afforded by the new materials and new methods of construction now available and that the desirable course is to require buildings to be in good material which is sympathetic in colour with the traditional colourings of the landscapes. They consider that wood if properly handled may be very successful in almost any landscape. If wood were to become readily available it would have the great advantage of reducing the cost of the building. Where halls are used for school purposes the designs will have to be adapted to fit in with other school buildings and it is important that the arrangements should, so far as possible, permit of the use by adults of a club-room, kitchen and storage in the afternoons. For the smallest villages it may be necessary to reach a solution by sharing the use of the hall between adults and children.

Useful information about the construction of village halls is given in the booklet published by the National Council of Social Service, fourth edition, published in 1938 entitled "Village Halls, their construction and management."

The Small Town.

7. The minimum accommodation required as an addition to the Secondary School serving an area with a population of from 5,000-8,000 would be

	Sq. ft.
Community Centre common room	800
Youth Centre common room	1,000
Women's craft room (if supplemented by some use of the School	720
Domestic Subjects' room) with store	200
Library and reading room	400

Unless the School Kitchen is conveniently placed to serve these rooms it will be necessary to add a small Kitchen for Community Centre use.

As the population rises towards 10,000 the women's craft room may require to be increased to 1,000 sq. ft. with 300 sq. ft. of storage. The library and reading room would require to be 500 sq. ft. and the addition of games rooms both for adults and young people would have to be considered.

8. With a district population of 10,000 it becomes possible to have a County College and if it is decided to do so it may be desirable to link the Community Centre with the College. The country town serving this population will probably require a mixed Secondary School of about 480 pupils (leaving age 15) which will not yet have been built. It may therefore be desirable to plan a block of buildings including a County College of three or four classes a day. Considering the needs of the College and the school together it should be possible to have two halls and separate gymnasia for both sexes. The main hall should be planned as a separate unit. The County College hall need not be more than 1,000 sq. ft.

Joint Community Centre and County College.

Upon the understanding that sufficient part-time use of the school halls and gymnasia will be possible, the minimum accommodation of the Joint Community Centre and County College then becomes:—

	<i>Sq. ft.</i>
Assembly Hall (including small stage)	1,000
Library	800
Staff Room	300
Principal	200
Warden	200
Office	400
D. S. and Light Crafts	1,000 + 2 stores of 175 sq. ft.
Heavy Crafts	1,000 + 2 stores of 175 sq. ft.
Classroom	520
Small Committee Room	300
Social Room, Community Centre	800
Social Room, County College—Youth Centre ...	800
Games Room, Community Centre	800
Games Room, County College—Youth Centre ...	800
Youth Leader's Room	120
Kitchen	250
Storage, cleaners, caretaker	800
Lavatories, cloakrooms, corridors	2,500
	<hr/>
	13,790

The cloakrooms, lavatories and sanitary offices will need to be planned on the understanding that provision for the County College (according to the Ministry's Building Regulations) will also be used for the Youth Service and that separate provision will be made for adults. In addition there will be boiler room and coke store in the basement (unless the College can be heated from the Secondary School) and pram and cycle sheds outside.

9. For districts where the population is above 10,000 each case will have to be considered in the light of local circumstances, on the general lines of the suggestions made above.

Urgent Provision using Huts.

10. Urgent provision to meet the needs of transferred workers or persons returning home from factories in other districts will, have normally to take the form of hutting.

The following building is suggested, consisting of two 18 ft. 6 in. Standard huts 6 ft. apart of lengths respectively 144 ft. and 120 ft. and one 24 ft. hut of length 66 ft. entering the shorter hut at right angles. The corridor separating the huts would be roofed over (see Plan 5). The 24 ft. hut would be 10 ft. to the springing of the roof instead of the normal 7 ft. 6 in. in order to allow reasonable head room over the platform.

The accommodation which includes a Youth Wing would include:—

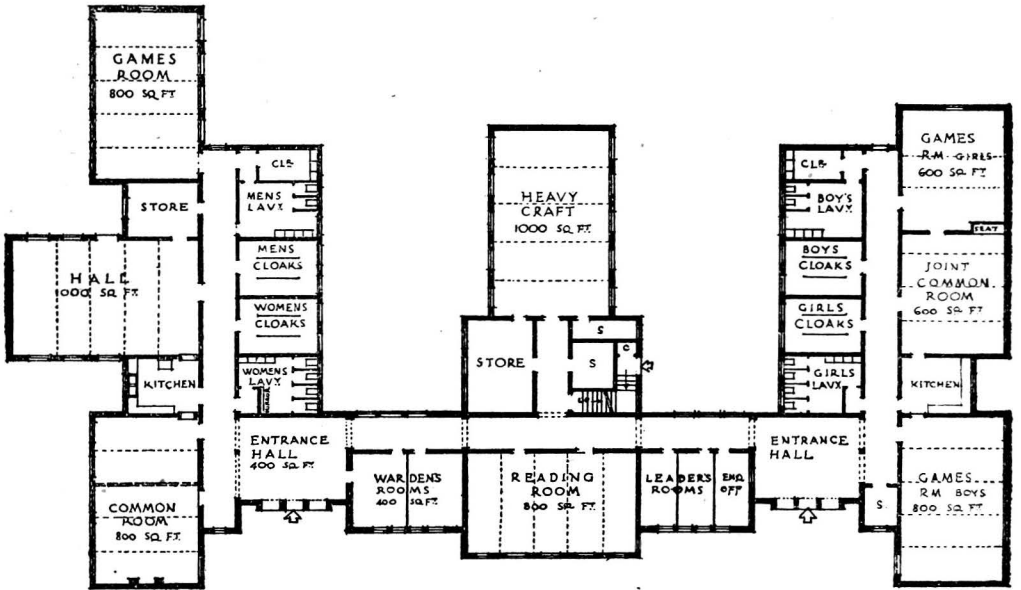
<i>Community Centre.</i>		<i>Common to C.C. and Y.C.</i>	
Men's Room	666 sq. ft.	Hall	1,152 sq. ft.
Women's Room	666 "	Platform	288 "
Quiet Room	222 "	Cloaks and Lobby	144 "
Kitchen	222 "	Entrance Hall	333 "
	<hr/>	Office	144 "
	1,776	Group or Dressing Rooms	444 "
	<hr/>	Cloaks or lavatories	444 "
		Stores and Cleaner	222 "
		Corridors	864 "
			<hr/>
			4,935
			<hr/>
			1,421

Total for Building 7,232 square feet.

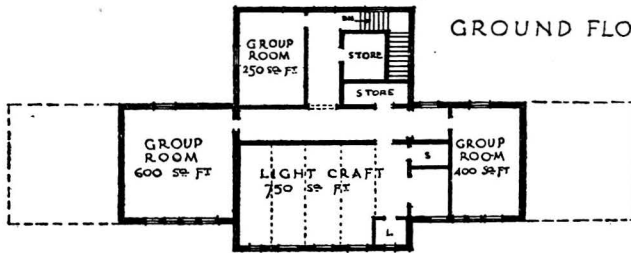
With a small increase in expenditure the hall could be made 30 ft. wide instead of 24 ft. It may also be desirable to include one or two baths.

The building would require to be heated either by low-pressure hot water system or by thermostatically controlled electric tubular or panel heating.

It will be seen that the plan proposed follows the suggested arrangement of combining the Youth Centre and the Community Centre in one building. If provision already exists for the Youth Centre, the Community Centre could either be simplified somewhat so as to be able to be built at a less cost, or could be left substantially as planned subject to minor changes, such as the omission of a second kitchen.



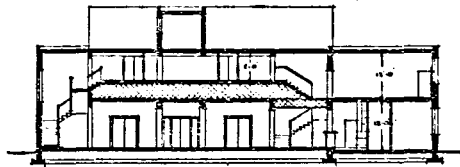
GROUND FLOOR PLAN



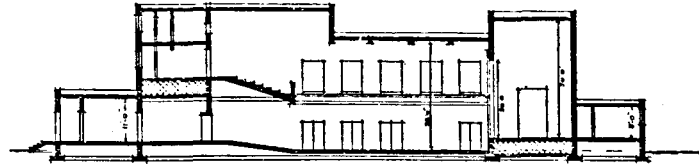
FIRST FLOOR

SCALE of METERS 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 FEET

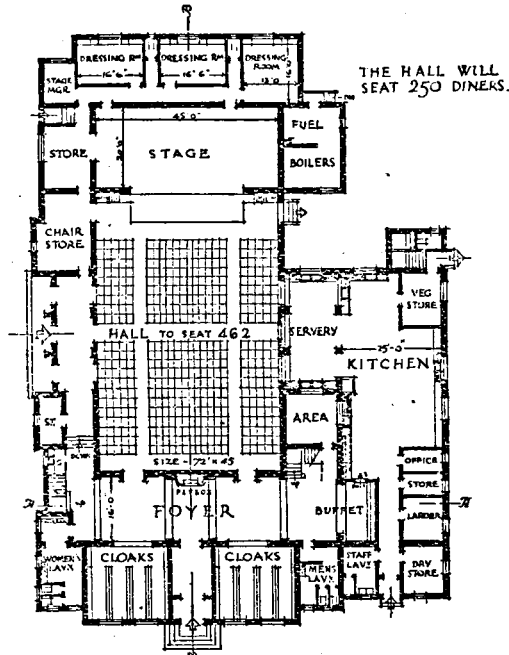
COMMUNITY AND YOUTH CENTRE
FIG. I.



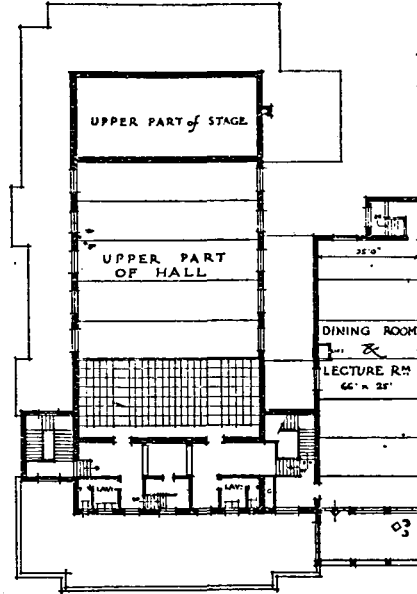
SECTION A-A



SECTION B-B



GROUND FLOOR



FIRST FLOOR

HALL AND DINING ROOM *f* COMMUNITY CENTRE AND SCHOOLS.

SCALE of 10 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 150 FEET

FIG. 2.

- | | |
|----|------------------|
| S | SCHOOL |
| SH | SCHOOL HALL |
| G | GYMNASIUM |
| CH | CONCERT HALL |
| K | KITCHEN |
| CC | COMMUNITY CENTRE |
| YC | YOUTH CENTRE |
| PG | PLAY GROUND |

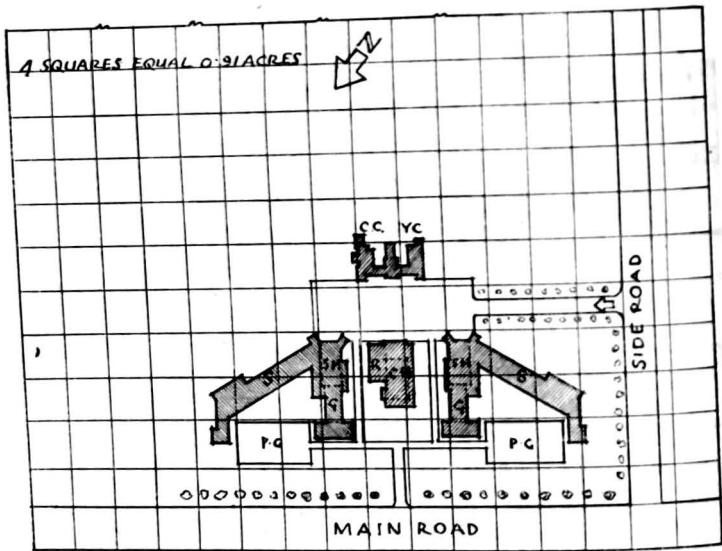
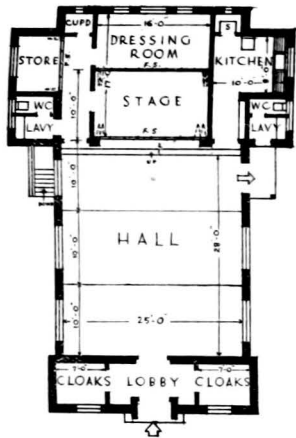
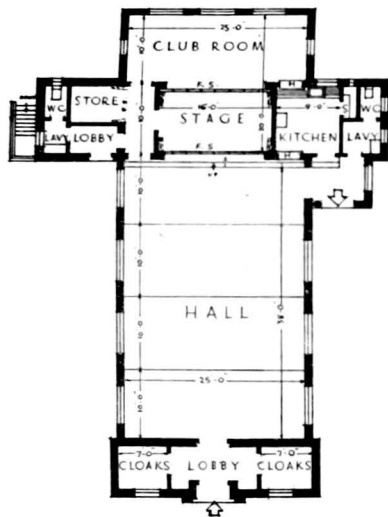


FIG. 3.

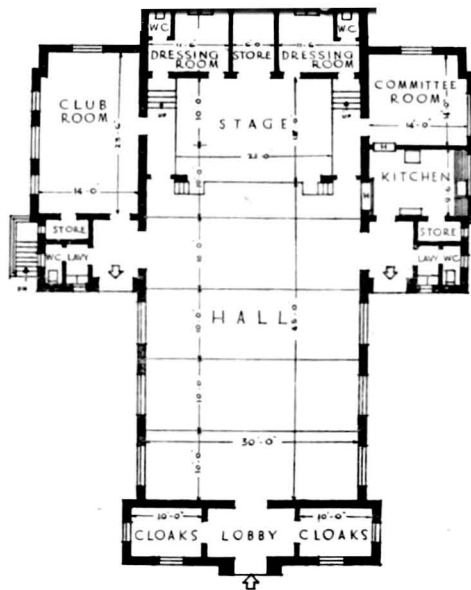
F.S. FOLDING SCREEN
 H. HATCH
 S. STORE



PLAN 'A'



PLAN 'B'



PLAN 'C'

SCALE of 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 120 FEET.

VILLAGE HALLS' THREE TYPES

FIG. 4.

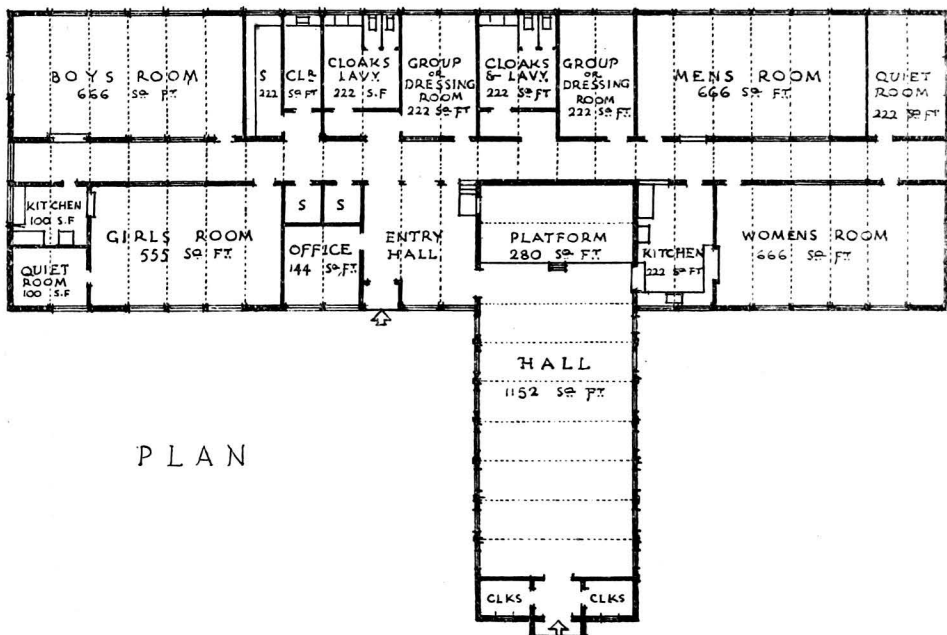
STANDARD, HUTTING
18'-6" WIDE BAYS 6'-0"
EXCEPT HALL WHICH IS 24'-0"



SIDE ELEVATION



FRONT ELEVATION



PLAN



COMMUNITY AND YOUTH CENTRE
IN HUTS.

FIG. 5.

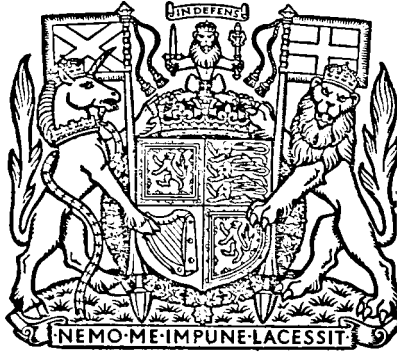
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PREFATORY NOTE

THIS publication contains two separate reports submitted to the Secretary of State by the Advisory Council on Education in Scotland. The first deals with the Extent of the Problem of Supply of Teachers ; the second deals with the Recruitment and Training of Teachers in the Period immediately following the War, and includes, as an Appendix, an interim report submitted at an earlier stage of the Council's deliberations, recommending a substantial increase in teachers' salaries with a view to the attraction of more recruits to the teaching profession.

The first of these two reports will be seen to consist mainly of facts and estimates ; it is only in the second, with its Appendix, that recommendations will be found. The Secretary of State, while agreeing with the Council that the matters covered by their remit constitute a problem of great urgency, considers it essential that there should be prior consultation with the several interests concerned before any decisions on the recommendations are taken.

5th January, 1944.

PREVIOUS REPORTS

THE following reports of the Advisory Council on Education in Scotland, as reconstituted on 5th November, 1942, have also been published :

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REPORT

ON THE

EXTENT OF THE PROBLEM OF SUPPLY OF TEACHERS

*To the RT. HON. THOMAS JOHNSTON, M.P.,
Secretary of State for Scotland.*

SIR,

I have the honour to submit the following Report on behalf of the Advisory Council, by whom it has been unanimously approved.

I. INTRODUCTION

1. In our Interim Report, dated 14th June, 1943*, we recommended a substantial increase in the salaries of teachers, as we are convinced that without such an improvement it will be impossible to obtain an adequate supply of teachers to meet the demands which will be made upon the schools after the war. We undertook to submit to you our appreciation of the extent of the problem of supply, which was one of the important considerations upon which our recommendation was based, and it is with this subject that the present Report is concerned. We hope to complete the investigations arising out of the remit on the recruitment and supply of teachers in sufficient time to comply with the request in your letter of 17th May, 1943, for a report by the autumn of this year. We hope in that report to make our final recommendations as to the various means whereby the teaching profession may be made more attractive to the best types of men and women and its status improved, and also as to additional sources from which the supply of teachers may be drawn.

2. We have included in an Appendix to this Report the more important of the statistical tables and graphs upon which our Report is based, and we are indebted to the National Committee for the Training of Teachers for much of the statistical material. These tables and graphs may be of assistance to the authorities throughout Scotland who are concerned with the problems of the supply of suitably qualified teachers.

II. COMPARISON WITH LAST WAR

3. The problems to be solved are more serious than those that had to be faced after the last war. Whereas in 1914 the supply of teachers was ample, in 1939 it was already becoming inadequate. At the end of the last war the output from the Training Colleges of teachers with the Teacher's General Certificate, who had qualified under Chapter IV of the Regulations †, was 962 : in 1941 it was only 572. If the present war lasts longer than the last, it will leave us with a heavier accumulation of arrears to be made good. On the other hand, the school population will be much smaller.

* This Report will be found on page 44.

† The footnote on page 22 describes the type of teaching which holders of the various certificates are qualified to undertake and explains the technical terms used in this Report.

III. THE PRESENT POSITION

4. There is already an appreciable, though not yet serious, scarcity of teachers, due (1) to the fact that the number of temporary substitutes appointed is not sufficient to compensate for the teachers absent on war service, and (2) to the effects of under-supply from the Training Colleges. We estimate that, if the war should last until the end of 1944, the total deficit would be about 4,240, of which under-supply would account for about 1,760 and teachers absent on war service for about 2,480. But we anticipate that it would be possible to meet it, in large part, by the employment of married women and retired teachers. To illustrate this we may explain that 2,700 of these teachers were employed on 1st November, 1942, to make good the smaller deficit that existed at that time, but it must be borne in mind that this is not an inexhaustible source of supply. If the supply of available substitutes should be less than the number required, the residual deficit would have to be met by the expedient, the necessity of which we unanimously deplore, of a temporary increase in the size of classes and also by other emergency measures.*

IV. POST-WAR SUPPLY AND DEMAND

5. After the war it will be necessary to find teachers—

- (1) to meet the normal annual needs of the schools ;
- (2) to make up the arrears resulting from under-supply during the war ;
- (3) to fill the vacancies caused by casualties among teachers on war service ;
- (4) to cope with the post-war rise in the school population ; and
- (5) for such developments as—
 - (a) the raising of the school leaving age,
 - (b) the institution of compulsory day continuation classes,
 - (c) a reduction in the size of classes,
 - (d) an extension of the provision of nursery schools,
 - (e) an extension of the provision for backward and handicapped children, and
 - (f) the institution of new types of secondary school and an increase in the demand for the longer secondary courses.

To meet these needs we shall have the following sources of supply :—

- (1) the normal output of the Training Colleges ;
- (2) teachers and students returning from war service ;
- (3) married women and retired teachers ; and
- (4) new sources such as—
 - (a) men and women, other than those included in (2) above, released from war service, and
 - (b) men and women drawn from industry and commerce.

There are also certain measures by which a temporary scarcity could be met. We believe that it will not be necessary to have recourse to such drastic methods as half-time education or a raising of the entrance age, but there are certain expedients which will have to be considered, such as—

- (1) a temporary increase in the size of classes,
- (2) centralization for instruction in special subjects,
- (3) the temporary adaptation of the school curriculum to the proportions of teachers with the General Certificate (Chapter IV) and the Technical Certificate (Chapter VI) who may be available, and
- (4) the use of the more mature students-in-training to relieve the pressure in the cities.

6. In the period immediately following the war the supply of teachers will be increased by the return of teachers and students from war service, but there will probably be many married women and retired teachers who desire to give up their war-time appointments. A factor which will tend to relieve the strain will be the size of the school population. The number of children in the schools between 4 and 14 years of age will be unusually low: it will, indeed, be lower than it has been for well over twenty years, and lower than it is likely to be for another ten years. By 1945 we estimate that the under-14 school population will be nearly 168,000 less than it was in 1919-20, and about 60,000 less than in 1937-38.*

7. As reliance cannot be placed on general impressions in dealing with post-war problems of supply, we have made careful estimates of the separate needs and of the various sources of supply, and then assembled the estimates so as to provide as complete a statistical appreciation of the situation as we could make. We based our calculations on the following assumptions—

- (1) that the present rates of increase in the demand for teachers with the Special Certificate (Chapter V) and teachers with the Technical Certificate (Chapter VI) would, as a matter of policy, have to be suspended until the period of pressure is past †;
- (2) that the post-war rise in the 4-14 population will be largely met by a temporary increase in the size of classes and that only 240 teachers will be required*;
- (3) that a substantial increase in teachers' salaries will be announced before the end of the war, a condition which, as we have already indicated in our Interim Report of 14th June, 1943, we regard as essential.

We did not, however, make any allowance for the additional teachers who would be required if any of the developments mentioned in paragraph 5 (5) (c), (d), (e) and (f) were started. For this reason our estimates should be regarded as conservative.

V. POST-WAR SUPPLY IF NO NEW DEVELOPMENTS TOOK PLACE

8. Assuming that the war will be over by the end of 1944, we estimate the deficit at that date as 4,240 †. If there are no new developments in the educational system this will be reduced in the first post-war year to about 2,500, mainly on account of the return of teachers and students from war service. This deficit could, we believe, be met by the employment of married women and retired teachers, many of whom will have been employed in teaching during the war. Supply would soon overtake demand; and the arrears would be made up at times varying from 1 to 13 years according to the category of teacher §. The position is most serious in the case of teachers with the Special Certificate (Chapter V). At the end of the war the arrears in that category will be as high as 680. While it may be possible to fill the vacancies by employing married women it is unlikely that many of these would have the requisite qualifications under Chapter V. A somewhat alarming situation is thus disclosed so far as the education of our most gifted pupils is concerned.

VI. RAISING OF THE AGE FOR COMPULSORY FULL-TIME EDUCATION TO FIFTEEN

9. We estimate that the total number of additional teachers required assuming that no exemptions are granted, will be in the neighbourhood of 2,270||. To ascertain the extent of the supply problem created by this addition

* Figure II. † Figure I. ‡ Tables 8 and 10. § Table 9. || Table 11

to the demand, the detailed figures were combined with our other data in such a way as to yield estimates of the deficits to be expected in teaching staffs as a whole if the change were made in certain of the early post-war years. Since part of the deficits would no doubt be met by the employment of married women and retired teachers, we felt that our presentation of the estimates would be clearer if we made a definite allowance for this. The residual deficits would then be capable of ready interpretation: they would show the blanks to be filled by the training of ex-Service men and women who had not previously contemplated entering the teaching profession, and by such means as are suggested at the end of paragraph 5. But it must be remembered that the residual deficits will certainly be larger if there is no substantial increase in salaries.

10. It may be hoped that 2,500 married women and retired teachers will accept employment until supply overtakes demand; but we would emphasize that if less than this number should come forward the deficits given below would have to be correspondingly increased. We estimate* that if the age is raised in the post-war year mentioned in the first column of the following table the deficits will be those shown in the corresponding position in the second column.

<i>Year</i>	<i>Deficit</i>
1st	2,300
2nd	1,810
3rd	1,430
4th	1,580
5th	1,450
6th	1,160

11. We may illustrate the interpretation of the above figures by considering the supply problem as it would be if the age were raised in the first year after the war. After allowing for all such factors as the return of students and teachers from war service and the normal output of the Training Colleges, the deficit would be 4,800, and assuming that a maximum of 2,500 married women and retired teachers would accept employment, we find that 2,300 blanks would remain to be filled. In view of the length of training required and of possible delays in demobilization, no relief could yet be expected from the training of ex-Service men and women and others who had not previously contemplated entering the teaching profession. Even if the average size of all classes in primary and secondary divisions were increased by one, the total number of blanks remaining to be filled would be 1,300. Moreover, the dislocation caused by the increase would be much more severe than if the increase were brought about by a general rise in the school population spread over all the age groups. In the latter case the additional children can be absorbed into existing classes: in the former it is necessary to carry out a substantial reorganization in order to release teachers to take the newly-formed classes for the 14-15 age group.

12. If the age were raised in the second post-war year the situation would be eased only to the extent of 490 teachers; there would still be 1,810 blanks to fill.

13. From the purely staffing point of view, the third would be the most favourable of the early post-war years. The dislocation caused by the replacement of temporary substitutes by returning teachers and students would be past. A considerable number of the ex-Service and other men and women exceptionally admitted would by then have completed their training and would be ready for service. The school population would be nearly at the minimum, and the effects of the post-war rise would not be significant for a further three years. The deficit to be met by exceptional means would have fallen to 1,430, whereas it rises in the fourth and fifth years.

* Table 12.

VII. THE INSTITUTION OF COMPULSORY DAY CONTINUATION CLASSES

40

14. On the assumption that the age for compulsory education will already have been raised to 15 and that no exemptions will be granted, our estimate* of the numbers of additional teachers required to conduct compulsory day continuation classes is as follows—during the first year, when the 15-16 age group only will be affected, 770; during the second year, when two age groups—15 to 17—will be affected, 1,720; and during the third year when the scheme will be in full operation, 2,680. So far as the number of students is concerned the most favourable period for starting the scheme would be between 1947 and 1955 †.

VIII. RAISING OF THE AGE FOR COMPULSORY FULL-TIME EDUCATION TO SIXTEEN

15. We have considered it premature at this stage to make any estimate of the additional demand for teachers which would be created by the raising of the age for compulsory full-time education to 16.

IX. SUMMARY

16. We have combined our estimates to give a general view of the extent of the supply problem that would be created by the raising of the age for compulsory full-time education to 15 and the bringing into full operation of compulsory day continuation classes, both without exemptions, within the decade following the war. The results cannot be reduced to a single figure for the following reason. We anticipate that if there is an improvement in teachers' salaries and in the attractiveness of the profession, the supply will be considerably increased in the later years of the decade; the deficits would therefore be smaller if the developments were introduced in the later years than if they were introduced in the earlier years. We estimate that the maximum deficit which would have to be made good by exceptional means, would be 4,090 teachers, and that this would occur if the age were raised to 15 in the first post-war year and if compulsory day continuation classes were instituted in the second year and brought into full operation in the fourth year. On the other hand the deficit would be at its minimum of 1,220 if the developments were not introduced until the seventh and eighth years respectively. If the age were raised in the third post-war year, which from the purely staffing point of view is the most favourable of the early post-war years, and if compulsory day continuation classes were introduced in the fourth year and brought into full operation in the sixth year the deficit would be 3,280 teachers. It must be borne in mind that we are assuming that some 2,500 married women and retired teachers will be employed throughout the decade; if less than this number should be available, the deficits would have to be correspondingly increased.

I have the honour to be,

Sir,

Your obedient Servant,

(Signed) W. H. FYFE, *Chairman.*

9th July, 1943.

Table 13.

† Figure III.

APPENDIX

SUMMARY OF THE DATA AND ESTIMATES UPON WHICH THE REPORT IS BASED

PART I

SIZE AND COMPOSITION OF SCHOOL STAFFS AND TENDENCIES TOWARDS A RISE OR FALL IN THE NUMBERS EMPLOYED

TABLE 1
COMPOSITION OF SCHOOL STAFFS IN 1938

	Number	Percentage
Teachers holding the Teacher's General Certificate (Chapter IV)	21,293	73.4
Teachers holding the Teacher's Special Certificate (Chapter V)	4,386	15.1
Teachers holding the Teacher's Technical Certificate (Chapter VI)	3,335	11.5
Total	29,014	100

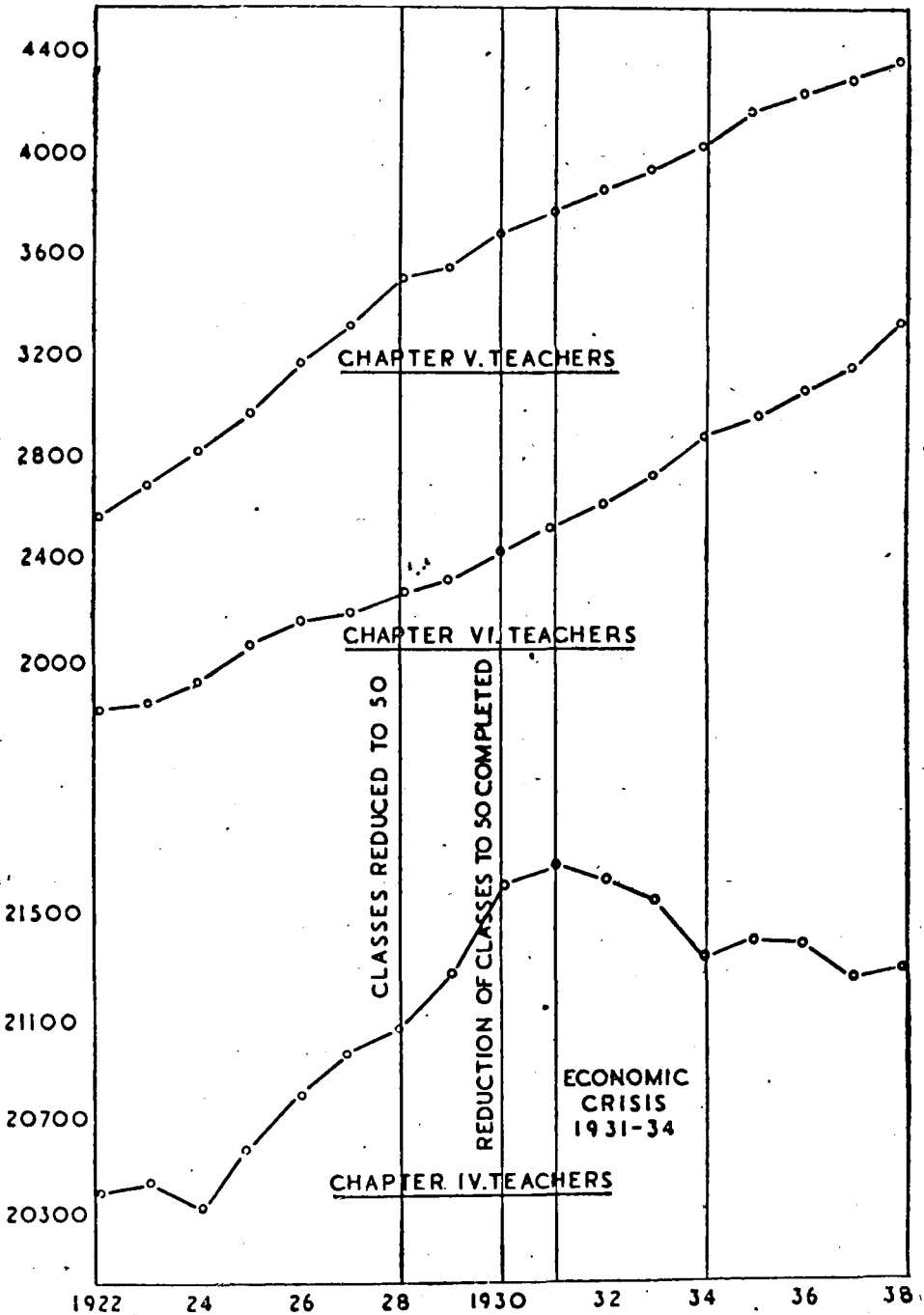
During the years 1935-38 the total number of teachers was rising at the rate of 1.45, or .5 per cent., a year. Analysis of this total increase shows that while the number of teachers holding the General Certificate was falling, the numbers of those holding the Special Certificate and the Technical Certificate were rising rapidly.

The tendencies towards a rise or fall are shown in Figure I.

TABLE 2
CHANGE IN THE PROPORTIONS OF GRADUATE AND NON-GRADUATE ENTRANTS
UNDER CHAPTER IV. (GRANT-EARNING STUDENTS ONLY)

Year	Non-graduate Women entering 1st year of non-graduating Chapter IV Courses (in Training Centres or in Schools)	Graduate entrants to Chapter IV Courses: Men and Women
1928-29	383	800
1929-30	371	855
1930-31	301	870
1931-32	289	804
1932-33	233	606
1933-34	230	628
1934-35	239	649
1935-36	243	579
1936-37	264	498
1937-38	305	437
1938-39	337	401
1939-40	322	380
1940-41	404	285
1941-42	336	314

FIGURE 1
GRAPHS SHOWING CHANGES IN NUMBERS OF CHAPTER IV, CHAPTER V, AND CHAPTER VI. TEACHERS FROM 1922 TO 1938.



PART II

NUMBER OF TEACHERS REQUIRED ANNUALLY TO MEET THE NEEDS OF THE SCOTTISH SCHOOLS

The estimates given in Table 3 are based upon the appointments obtained by outgoing students of the Scottish Training Colleges, and were checked from statistics of the annual "wastage" and of the increase or decrease in the number of teachers employed.

TABLE 3
ANNUAL DEMAND FOR TEACHERS AT 1939

Category	No. required annually
Chapter IV	820
Chapter V	180
Chapter VI Domestic Science	70
" Handwork	28
" Art	43
" Physical Education	95
" Commercial Subjects	20
" Music	22
Miscellaneous	7
Total	1285

During the years 1935-38 the annual "wastage" of teachers was:—

Men	2.6 per cent.
Women	4.5 per cent.
Men and Women	3.9 per cent.

PART III

DECLINE IN ENTRANTS TO THE TEACHING PROFESSION

The decline has been most serious in the Chapter IV and Chapter V categories.

TABLE 4
SUMMARY TABLE OF ENTRANTS TO ALL COURSES

Year	IV*	V*	VI								Blind	Deaf	
			Dom. Science			Hand-work	Art	Phys. Educ.	Com. Subs.	Music			Agri.
			Dip. I	Dip. II	Dip. III								
1928-29	1183	262	126	21	0	37	40	32	16	19	7	1	1
1929-30	1226	256	85	18	0	50	51	41	12	33	7	0	1
1930-31	1171	257	144	25	0	69	82	44	25	37	7	0	2
1931-32	1093	274	147	21	0	52	83	56	25	17	2	0	0
1932-33	839	280	169	20	0	48	79	49	37	24	3	0	0
1933-34	858	273	174	13	0	37	52	51	26	25	6	1	4
1934-35	888	255	152	29	19	55	58	50	18	37	1	0	2
1935-36	822	220	159	35	11	58	57	47	20	20	6	0	2
1936-37	762	215	152	39	21	54	42	102	22	28	3	0	3
1937-38	742	178	146	27	28	48	63	97	23	32	6	0	4
1938-39	738	147	152	36	38	44	52	91	25	32	3	1	4
1939-40	702	147	144	23	39	31	69	78	14	30	3	0	4
1940-41	689	56	118	6	24	9	36	69	13	24	3	0	1
1941-42	650	56	104	15	41	8	29	64	16	18	0	0	0

* Grant-earning students only.

From Table 3 it is found that the number of Chapter IV and Chapter V teachers required annually to meet the needs of the Scottish schools is 1,000. The supply in these two categories has therefore been less than the annual demand since 1936-37. The absence of clear evidence of a scarcity just before the war is, of course, due to the fact that the surplus from previous years was still being absorbed.

TABLE 5
ENTRANTS IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Year	Three (or Two) Year Course			One Year Course			All Courses		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
1928-29	10	20	30	2	0	2	12	20	32
1929-30	15	23	38	3	0	3	18	23	41
1930-31	14	26	40	4	0	4	18	26	44
1931-32	24	25	49	7	0	7	31	25	56
1932-33	22	27	49	0	0	0	22	27	49
1933-34	22	27	49	2	0	2	24	27	51
1934-35	25	25	50	0	0	0	25	25	50
1935-36	22	25	47	0	0	0	22	25	47
1936-37	24	30	54	23	25	48	47	55	102
1937-38	31	35	66	16	15	31	47	50	97
1938-39	28	40	68	18	5	23	46	45	91
1939-40	26	38	64	10	4	14	36	42	78
1940-41	32	37	69	0	0	0	32	37	69
1941-42	21	43	64	0	0	0	21	43	64

PART IV

SUPPLY OF MEN TEACHERS

The following Table indicates the extent to which teaching has become a women's profession. Omitting the war years, the average percentage of men Chapter IV entrants is 24.0. It shows signs of falling, the percentages for the successive periods of four years being 25.1, 24.5 and 22.4. The average percentage of men entrants under Chapter V is 61.4 and has remained fairly steady throughout the period.

TABLE 6
SUPPLY OF MEN TEACHERS UNDER CHAPTERS IV AND V
(GRANT-EARNING STUDENTS ONLY)

Year	Grad. Entrants Chapter IV			All Chapter IV Entrants			Chapter V Entrants		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
1928-29	264	536	800	264	919	1183	149	113	262
1929-30	345	510	855	345	881	1226	155	101	256
1930-31	269	601	870	269	902	1171	153	104	257
1931-32	308	496	804	308	785	1093	164	110	274
1932-33	200	406	606	200	639	839	187	93	280
1933-34	175	453	628	175	683	858	161	112	273
1934-35	224	425	649	224	664	888	167	88	255
1935-36	233	346	579	233	589	822	130	90	220
1936-37	181	317	498	181	581	762	140	75	215
1937-38	178	259	437	178	564	742	110	68	178
1938-39	159	242	401	159	579	738	93	54	147
1939-40	141	239	380	141	561	702	87	60	147
1940-41	29	256	285	29	660	689	12	44	56
1941-42	17	297	314	17	633	650	11	45	56

PART V

CHANGES IN SCHOOL POPULATION

In estimating the post-war demand for teachers, account has to be taken of probable changes in the size of the school population, particularly of the rise caused by the post-war increase in birth-rate.

The number of pupils of 4-14 gives a measure of the number of Chapter IV teachers required: the roll of the secondary divisions is reflected in the demand for Chapter V and Chapter VI teachers.

Figure II shows in graphical form the probable changes in the 4-14 school population. The numbers for the years up to 1938 were taken from the statistics published annually by the Scottish Education Department; those for the later years have been calculated from the relative birth-rates. It has been assumed that the post-war increase in the number of births will take place in 1945-46; but if the war should finish earlier or later, the rise on the graph would simply be brought backward or forward, while if the war should finish earlier in one theatre of war than in another, the rise would probably be less steep.

After the last war the number of births rose from 95,600 in 1918-19 to 133,900 in 1919-20, and then fell steadily to 96,800 in 1927-28. We have been advised by the Registrar-General for Scotland that, owing to various factors into which it is unnecessary to enter here, the experience after the last war does not give a sound basis upon which to make a forecast of the number of births likely to occur in the years immediately following the present war. We have proceeded on the assumption, which he considers not unreasonable, that the average number of births will be about 100,000 in the five years immediately following the present war.

A study of the graph reveals the following points of interest in relation to the supply of teachers:—

- (1) In the period 1944-49 the 4-14 school population will be at the bottom of the trough of a long-range wave; it will be lower than it has been for well over twenty years, and lower than it is likely to be for at least another ten. During that period it will be nearly 168,000 less than it was in 1919-20, and about 60,000 less than in 1937-38.
- (2) The post-war rise will begin to be significant in the sixth year after the termination of the war: by the eleventh year the 4-14 population may be increased by about 60,000.

NUMBER OF ADDITIONAL CHAPTER IV TEACHERS REQUIRED TO COPE WITH THE RISE IN SCHOOL POPULATION

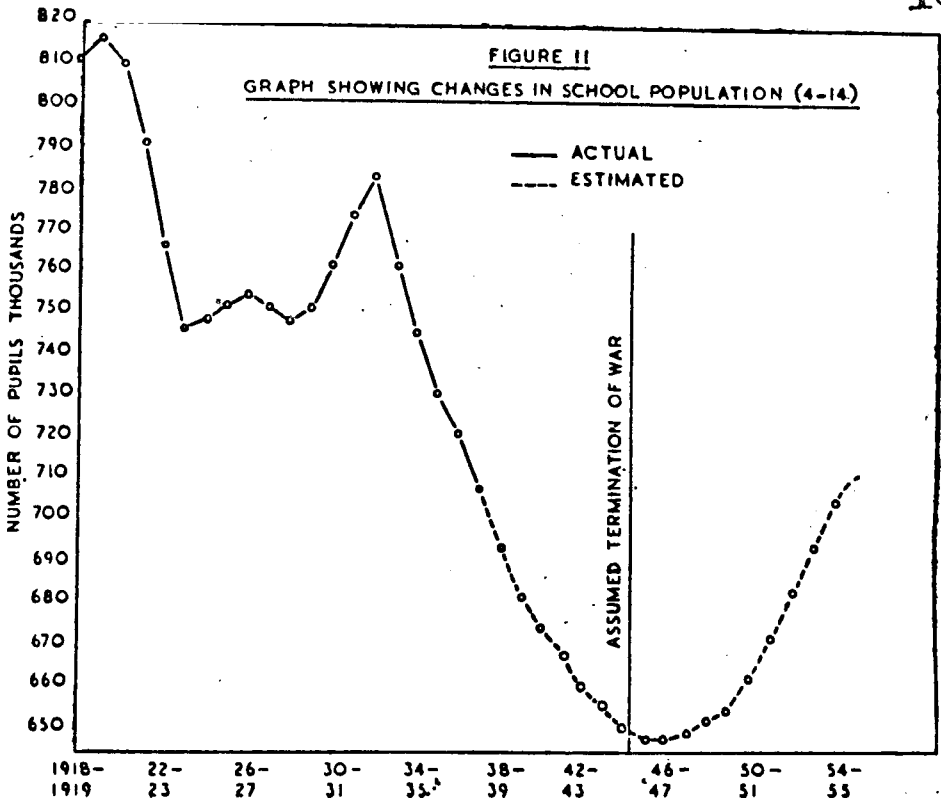
If the average size of classes were not changed the number of additional Chapter IV teachers required to cope with the rise would be about 2,100—nearly as many as would be needed for the raising of the leaving age. But since the increase in school population would be evenly spread over the whole age range, there would be an almost automatic rise in the size of classes, and it is estimated that 240 additional teachers would be sufficient.

EFFECT OF THE COMING CHANGES IN SCHOOL POPULATION ON THE DEMAND FOR CHAPTER V AND CHAPTER VI TEACHERS

A similar curve for the population of the secondary divisions shows a probable decrease until the period 1941-47, after which there will be a steady rise.

The post-war rise would not begin to be significant until the thirteenth year after the termination of the war. It need therefore be taken into account only in consideration of the *long-range* problem of supply.

Apart from the effects of the war and of coming educational changes, the annual demand for Chapter V teachers would fall from 180 to 160 and then begin to rise. Similarly, the annual demand for Chapter VI teachers would fall from 278 to about 250 in 1945: it would reach the pre-war figure again soon after 1950.



PART VI

ARREARS OF TRAINED TEACHERS ACCUMULATED DURING THE WAR

(A) ARREARS DUE TO UNDER-SUPPLY

When the surplus from over-supply in previous years has been fully absorbed the arrears for any given year are found by subtracting the output of the Training Colleges from the number of teachers required to supply the needs of the schools in that year.

TABLE 7

ACCUMULATED ARREARS AT END OF 1944 DUE TO UNDER-SUPPLY IN WAR YEARS
(ASSUMING SUSPENSION OF THE RATE OF INCREASE OF CHAPTER V AND CHAPTER VI
TEACHERS)

Type of Teacher	Number
Chapter IV	1,140
Chapter V	460
Chapter VI Domestic Science	0
" Handwork	65
" Art	15
" Physical Education	75
" Commercial Subjects	5
" Music	0
Total	1,760

(B) ARREARS DUE TO CASUALTIES AMONG TEACHERS ON WAR SERVICE

It is estimated, on a review of all the data available, that the number of teachers who will not return from war service will be about 740, or 30 per cent. of those who have gone on war service.

(C) TOTAL ARREARS

The total arrears accumulated during the war (assuming that hostilities cease at the end of 1944) will therefore be 2,500, distributed as shown in Table 8.

TABLE 8
DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL ARREARS ACCUMULATED DURING THE WAR

Category	Arrears
Chapter IV	1,480
Chapter V	680
Chapter VI Domestic Science	0
" Handwork	110
" Art	50
" Physical Education	140
" Commercial Subjects	20
" Music	20
Total	2,500

TABLE 9
NUMBER OF YEARS NECESSARY TO MAKE UP THE ARREARS ACCUMULATED DURING THE WAR IF NO NEW DEVELOPMENTS TOOK PLACE

Category	Year after end of war by which arrears would be made up
Chapter IV	9th
Chapter V	13th
Chapter VI Domestic Science	1st
" Handwork	3rd
" Art	2nd
" Physical Education	7th
" Commercial Subjects	2nd
" Music	2nd

PART VII

STAFFING POSITION DURING THE WAR

The number of teachers on war service at 31st March, 1942, was 2,480, and in view of the scarcity of teachers it is unlikely that there will be a significant increase by the end of 1944. When the arrears of 1,760 due to under-supply are added, it is found that the deficit by the end of 1944 would be 4,240.

These blanks will be largely filled by the appointment of married women and retired teachers, of whom there were about 2,700 in employment on 1st November, 1942.

PART VIII

ADDITIONS TO NORMAL SUPPLY IN THE PERIOD IMMEDIATELY FOLLOWING THE WAR

The normal output of the Training Colleges in the post-war years has been estimated for each category of teacher. To this have to be added the numbers of students and teachers returning from war service.

The students returning from war service fall into three classes—

- (1) those who proceeded to war service on completion of their training,
- (2) those who discontinued training to proceed to war service,
- (3) those who discontinued preparation for teaching before entrance upon training.

In arriving at the final estimates, of which a summary is given in Table 10, it was assumed that 70 per cent. of those in classes (1) and (2) and 50 per cent. of those in class (3) will return to teaching.

TABLE 10
TEACHERS AND STUDENTS RETURNING FROM WAR SERVICE

Category	Number who will probably return to teaching	
	Students	Teachers
Chapter IV	630	790
Chapter V	460	520
Chapter VI Domestic Science	210	10
" Handwork	90	110
" Art	130	80
" Physical Education	100	160
" Commercial Subjects	40	30
Miscellaneous	40	40
Total	1,700	1,740

These additions will be available at different times after demobilization, and they were allocated to the various post-war years in accordance with the estimated length of the periods of further training required.

PART IX
RAISING OF THE AGE FOR COMPULSORY FULL-TIME
EDUCATION TO FIFTEEN

The estimated total increase in the school rolls, assuming that no exemptions are granted, falls from 52,800 in 1945 to 49,300 in 1948, after which it remains fairly steady for a number of years. The average for the years 1948-52 (49,400) has been used as the basis for estimating the number of additional teachers to be provided.

The estimates are made on the assumption that the present standards of staffing will be maintained. They were arrived at by direct estimate and checked by figures supplied to the Scottish Education Department by Education Authorities when it was last proposed to raise the leaving age.

TABLE 11
ESTIMATE OF THE NUMBER AND DISTRIBUTION OF THE ADDITIONAL TEACHERS REQUIRED WHEN THE AGE FOR COMPULSORY FULL-TIME EDUCATION IS RAISED TO FIFTEEN

Type of School	Number of additional pupils	Number of additional Teachers			
		Chapter IV	Chapter V	Chapter VI	Total
Primary Divisions	4,440	130	130
Junior Secondary Schools	36,720	990	..	740	1,730
Senior Secondary Schools	8,240	270	30	110	410
Total	49,400	1,390	30	850	2,270

DETAILS OF ADDITIONAL CHAPTER VI TEACHERS REQUIRED

Domestic Science	270
Handwork	290
Art	110
Commercial Subjects	90
Physical Education	60
Music	10
Agriculture	20
	<hr/>
	850

It is important to remember that practically all the additional Chapter IV teachers will be needed in Secondary Schools and that they should therefore be graduates with qualifications under Article 39.

TABLE 12

NUMBERS OF ADDITIONAL TEACHERS TO BE PROVIDED BY EXCEPTIONAL MEANS IF THE AGE FOR COMPULSORY FULL-TIME EDUCATION WERE RAISED IN VARIOUS POST-WAR YEARS

Category	Post-war Year								
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th
Chapters IV and V .	1,610	1,400	1,200	1,390	1,330	1,080	720	230	..
Chapter VI :—									
Domestic Science . .	160	40
Handwork	260	250	140	100	60	20
Art	100	20
Physical Education .	70	30	30	20
Commercial Subjects	90	70	60	70	60	60	50	30	10
Music	10
Total	2,300	1,810	1,430	1,580	1,450	1,160	770	260	10

The numbers in this Table are residual deficits calculated on the assumption that 2,500 married women and retired teachers will be employed after the war.

PART X

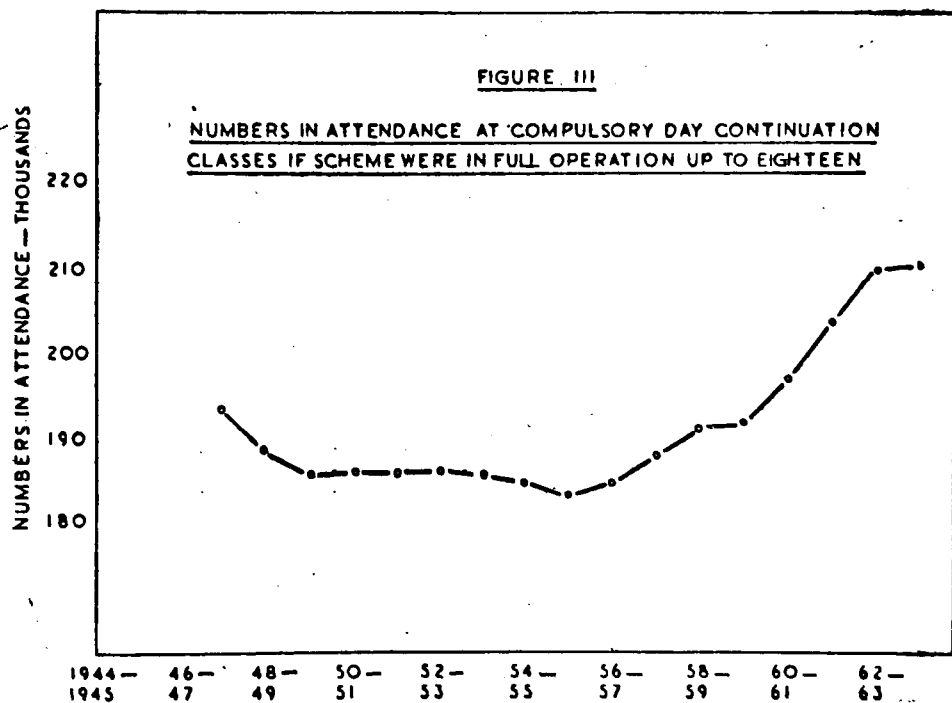
INSTITUTION OF COMPULSORY DAY CONTINUATION CLASSES

The numbers of pupils to be provided for are shown graphically in Figure III, the estimates being made on the assumption that no exemptions will be granted.

The following is a summary of the results :—

- (1) From the point of view of staffing, the most favourable period for starting the scheme would be between 1947 and 1955.
- (2) During this period the numbers to be provided for would be—

(a) If the scheme were in operation up to 16 only	53,000
(b) If the scheme were in operation up to 17 only	119,000
(c) If the scheme were in full operation	186,000



NUMBER OF ADDITIONAL TEACHERS REQUIRED

45

The estimates are based upon the scheme outlined in the 1918 Act, allowing a 25-hour teaching week for each teacher.

TABLE 13

NUMBER OF ADDITIONAL TEACHERS REQUIRED TO STAFF COMPULSORY DAY CONTINUATION CLASSES DURING THE PERIOD 1947-55

Type of Teacher	Number of Teachers required when scheme is in operation to—		
	16	17	18
General Subjects	350	780	1,220
Vocational Subjects	350	780	1,220
Physical Education	70	160	240
Total	770	1,720	2,680

TABLE 14

NUMBER OF ADDITIONAL TEACHERS TO BE PROVIDED BY EXCEPTIONAL MEANS IF THE AGE FOR COMPULSORY FULL-TIME EDUCATION WERE RAISED IN THE THIRD POST-WAR YEAR AND DAY CONTINUATION CLASSES INSTITUTED IN THE FOURTH YEAR

Category	Post-war Year			
	3rd	4th	5th	6th
Chapters IV and V	1,200	530	370	70
Chapter VI Domestic Science	0	0	0	0
" Handwork	140	100	120	120
" Art	0	10	50	20
" Physical Education	30	60	70	50
" Commercial Subjects	60	70	70	70
" Music	0	10	30	30
Total	1,430	780	710	360

TABLE 15

NUMBER OF ADDITIONAL TEACHERS TO BE PROVIDED BY EXCEPTIONAL MEANS IF THE AGE FOR COMPULSORY FULL-TIME EDUCATION WERE RAISED IN THE THIRD POST-WAR YEAR AND DAY CONTINUATION CLASSES INSTITUTED IN THE FIFTH YEAR

Category	Post-war Year				
	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th
Chapters IV and V	1,200	..	470	190	0
Chapter VI Domestic Science	0	..	0	0	0
" Handwork	140	..	60	120	110
" Art	0	..	20	20	10
" Physical Education	30	..	30	60	40
" Commercial Subjects	60	..	70	70	70
" Music	0	..	10	20	20
Total	1,430	..	660	480	250

TABLE 16

NUMBER OF ADDITIONAL TEACHERS TO BE PROVIDED BY EXCEPTIONAL MEANS IF THE AGE FOR COMPULSORY FULL-TIME EDUCATION WERE RAISED IN THE THIRD POST-WAR YEAR AND DAY CONTINUATION CLASSES INSTITUTED IN THE SIXTH YEAR

Category	Post-war Year					
	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th
Chapters IV and V	1,200	230	60	0
Chapter VI Domestic Science	0	0	0	0
Handwork	140	20	110	110
Art	0	10	10	10
Physical Education	30	0	40	40
Commercial Subjects	60	60	70	60
Music	0	0	10	10
Total	1,430	320	300	230

TABLE 17

NUMBER OF ADDITIONAL TEACHERS TO BE PROVIDED BY EXCEPTIONAL MEANS IF THE AGE FOR COMPULSORY FULL-TIME EDUCATION WERE RAISED IN THE THIRD POST-WAR YEAR AND DAY CONTINUATION CLASSES INSTITUTED IN THE SEVENTH YEAR

Category	Post-war Year						
	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th
Chapters IV and V	1,200	0	0	0
Chapter VI Domestic Science	0	0	0	0
Handwork	140	0	70	110
Art	0	0	0	0
Physical Education	30	0	0	30
Commercial Subjects	60	50	60	60
Music	0	0	0	10
Total	1,430	50	130	210

The numbers in Tables 14-17 are residual deficits calculated on the assumption that 2,500 married women and retired teachers will be in service after the war.

REPORT

ON THE

RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN THE PERIOD IMMEDIATELY FOLLOWING THE WAR

*To the Rt. HON. THOMAS JOHNSTON, M.P.,
Secretary of State for Scotland.*

SIR,

I. INTRODUCTORY

1. On 11th February, 1943, you remitted to the Council, "To consider whether the existing arrangements for the recruitment and supply of teachers in Scotland are adequate, and to make recommendations;" and in your letter of 13th July, 1943, you agreed to our proposal that the remit should be widened to include consideration of the question of the training which should be given to men and women who may desire to enter the teaching profession on demobilization from the Forces or other forms of national service. In our Interim Report, dated 14th June, 1943, which we give in Appendix I for convenience of reference, we recommended a substantial increase in the salaries of teachers, as we are convinced that without such an improvement it will be impossible to meet the staffing demands of the schools after the war. Our Report dated 9th July, 1943, gave our appreciation of the extent of the problem of supply.

2. The statistics given in our Report of 9th July, 1943, show that a large number of teachers over and above the normal output of the Training Centres and Colleges will have to be provided if the schools are to be adequately staffed in the period immediately following the war. The actual number will depend upon the dates fixed for the raising of the age for compulsory full-time education and the institution of compulsory day continuation classes; for example, if these developments were brought into operation within the period from the third to the sixth post-war year it would be in the neighbourhood of 5,780. We expressed the hope that, until supply overtakes demand, this deficit might be partly met by the employment of about 2,500 married women and retired teachers; on the fulfilment of this hope the whole problem hinges.

3. The present Report deals mainly with the exceptional measures by which these additional teachers may be provided: that is to say, with the short-range aspect of the problem of recruitment and supply. The long-range policy would, in our view, be best considered under a wider remit on the training system as a whole.

4. A list of the bodies and individuals who gave oral evidence or submitted memoranda or otherwise assisted the Council on the subject of our remit is given in Appendix II. We place on record our appreciation of the valuable assistance we received from these sources.

II. IMPROVEMENT IN THE STATUS AND ATTRACTIVENESS OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION

5. In our Report of 9th July, 1943, we gave tables which show the serious decline that has taken place during the last twelve years in the number of entrants to the Training Centres and Colleges, and we pointed out that the supply of teachers with the Teacher's General Certificate and the Teacher's Special Certificate * has been insufficient to meet the annual demands of the schools since 1936. From these facts and from evidence submitted by many of our witnesses we have come to the conclusion that the conditions of service in the schools of Scotland must be improved if the profession is to attract a sufficient number of recruits of the right quality. Teaching should satisfy the test of a great profession in that it attracts men and women of varied types from every section of the community, including its share of the best brains in the country. In our opinion the following improvements are necessary not merely to meet the exceptional demands of the post-war years but also to ensure a sufficient supply of teachers after conditions have returned to normal.

1. Increase in Teachers' Salaries

(1) Comparison with Salaries in Other Professions

6. We indicated in our First Report that we regard an increase in the salaries of teachers as the most important and the most urgent of the methods of improving the attractiveness of the profession, and we referred to the fact that the salaries paid to teachers are often lower than those paid in other professions which require a comparable training. We have included in this Report some evidence bearing upon the point.

7. There will be found in Appendix III a valuable memorandum submitted to us by Mr T. A. Joynt, Appointments Secretary, University of Edinburgh, who has had a long experience in this field. Mr. Joynt reviews the prospects for Arts, Science and Commerce graduates. In the case of men he deals separately with honours graduates and ordinary graduates, and reaches the general conclusion that salaries and prospects for men in teaching compare unfavourably with those in most other professions, even when allowance is made for a greater element of risk (for example, in business), or for a longer and more costly training (for example, in Accountancy, Law and Medicine). He is also inclined to the view that, allowing for the cost of training, salaries are low when compared with the earnings of young men who enter employment on leaving school with the Senior Leaving Certificate. Mr. Joynt finds it almost impossible to generalize in regard to the salaries and prospects of women, but he inclines to the opinion that for women without much drive teaching offers a

* The three principal Certificates which are granted by the Secretary of State under the Regulations for the Training of Teachers are the *Teacher's General Certificate*, a holder of which is recognised as qualified to teach primary school subjects; the *Teacher's Special Certificate*, which is granted to graduates with first or second-class honours and recognizes them as qualified to teach any of the following subjects in which they have taken honours—English, History, Classics, a Modern Language other than English, Mathematics, Science, Geography or Economics; the *Teacher's Technical Certificate*, a holder of which is recognized as qualified to teach a branch of Applied Science or Technical Industry, Agriculture, Horticulture, a branch of Rural Economy, a Commercial Subject, a branch of Domestic Economy, Physical Education, Educational Handwork, a recognised Craft, or Music. Chapters III and IV of the Regulations deal with the *Teacher's General Certificate*, and teachers who hold that certificate are often referred to as "*Chapter III teachers*" or "*Chapter IV teachers*." For similar reasons teachers who hold the *Teacher's Special Certificate* and the *Teacher's Technical Certificate* are often referred to as "*Chapter V teachers*" and "*Chapter VI teachers*" respectively. A teacher who is a graduate, or who holds a diploma of a Central Institution, or who has followed a four-year non-graduating course, or who, after qualifying, has taken a course of further instruction, may receive an entry upon his certificate recognizing him as qualified to teach in a junior secondary division one or more of the subjects covered by his degree, diploma or course. As this entry is made under *Article 39* of the Regulations it is often referred to as an "*Article 39 qualification*."

safer career and probably better prospects than other professions. For a woman with drive there are prospects elsewhere of reaching at an earlier age a salary above the top of the scale for primary school teachers, but with the risk that, if unlucky, she might be less well off than in teaching.

8. In Appendix IV we have given tables of salaries relating to a number of professions and occupations. The collection of these figures has not been easy, as no comprehensive statistics appear to have been compiled. It may be thought that some professions have been included in Appendix IV which are not strictly comparable, while others which should have been included have been omitted. Our endeavour has been to obtain particulars of professions and occupations demanding a comparable length of training from their entrants. We have omitted those professions and occupations where the numbers employed are so small as to be valueless for purposes of comparison. In comparing the tables in Appendix IV one general point should be kept in view. Members of some of the professions cited receive in addition to their salaries free board and lodging. Such emoluments are not as a rule enjoyed by the teaching profession, and are of special value as they are not subject to income tax.

9. It will be observed that we have not included any figures relating to the legal profession. The omission is due to the impossibility of obtaining sufficient data upon which a comparison could be made. The absence also of figures relating to the Church may give rise to comment. This omission is deliberate, as we feel that the Church holds a special position in the minds of many people, and not least in the minds of those who enter the Ministry, as being a calling rather than a profession. It may, however, be noted that the minimum stipend in the Church of Scotland was raised to £330 and a manse in 1942, and that the statistics published in the Church of Scotland Year Book show that there are very many charges where a considerably larger stipend is paid, amounting in some cases to more than £1,000.

10. We realise that the inclusion of the figures for the Administrative Grade of the Civil Service may be criticized on the ground that entry is secured only after success in a highly competitive examination. We feel, however, that teaching is a service which should be made financially attractive to the best brains in the country, and for this reason we draw attention to the serious counter-attraction of the financial prospects in the Higher Civil Service.

11. In considering the figures given in Appendix IV, Tables 3 and 4, for Medical Officers of Local Authorities and for the Public Dental Service, it must of course be remembered that a very large proportion of doctors and dentists engage in private practice; the number of students who enter the medical faculties with the intention of becoming officers of local authorities is relatively small. However, we regard the figures as relevant to our inquiry since such official salaries do not appear to attract medical and dental graduates from private practice to any considerable extent. We draw special attention to the difference between the salary scales for teachers holding the Teacher's Special Certificate * and for Medical Officers employed in Departments. Although the respective appointments may be regarded as generally comparable, the Minimum National Scale for male teachers is £250 rising by an annual increment of £10 to £310, and by an annual increment of £15 to £400, and for female teachers is £200 rising by an annual increment of £10 to £350, while the scale for medical officers of both sexes is £500 rising by an annual increment of £25 to £700. Another striking feature is the scale for Assistant Dental Officers, which is £450 per annum rising to £650 within a period of not more than eight years.

12. The scales for nurses have, of course, only recently been recommended by the Taylor Committee, and their effect upon the recruitment of women for the teaching profession has still to be seen. One factor which is likely to have a substantial effect is that Student Nurses in General Hospitals are given a small annual payment rising from £40 in the first year to £70 in the fifth year together

* See footnote to paragraph 5.

with free board, lodging and laundry valued at £75 per annum. No doubt this is in respect of the heavy work they have to do in hospital. Student teachers on the other hand receive no payment : they have to be maintained and to pay tuition fees with such help as they may obtain from the Education Authorities or from endowments. This will certainly be a factor in the choice between the two professions.

13. The detailed figures which are furnished by the Royal Institute of Chemistry and given in Appendix IV, Table 8, are perhaps the most significant. They show that although science graduates engaged in teaching may have commencing salaries-comparable to those offered in industry, their prospects are not equally good. Some 14 per cent. of the members of the Institute were receiving £1,000 a year or more and 15·4 per cent. were receiving between £700 and £1,000. The corresponding percentages for teachers holding the Teacher's Special Certificate * are 0·47 and 6·40.

(2) *Modifications in the Character of Salary Scales*

14. In our examination of the effects of the present salary scales upon the supply of teachers of different types, we came to the conclusion that it would not be sufficient to make an all-round increase : certain modifications in the character of the scales are desirable.

15. We mentioned certain of these modifications in our Interim Report, in which we made the suggestions that opportunity be taken to consider the substitution of Standard National Scales (one set of salary scales applicable to the teachers employed by the Education Authorities throughout Scotland, to which the Authorities would be required to conform) for Minimum National Scales, and that there should be a reconsideration of the basis upon which responsibility payments are calculated. We also recommended that the number of years which elapses before a teacher reaches the maximum of his salary scale should be materially reduced. To these we add two further recommendations :—

- (1) That, in the case of teachers qualified under Chapter IV †, non-graduate women who have had a four-year course of training in a Training Centre or College be paid on the same salary scale as graduate women, and that a proportionate increase be made in the scales for non-graduate women who have had courses of training of less than four years.
- (2) That opportunity be taken to review the whole question of the salary scales for teachers qualified under Chapter VI.*

2. Other Improvements in Conditions of Service

16. The decline in the attractiveness of the teaching profession relative to other professions is due, in part, to the fact that the conditions under which teachers work are often unsatisfactory and discouraging. There is also too great variation in these conditions from area to area and from one type of school to another. We believe that improvements on the following lines would have a material effect upon supply :—

- (1) The maximum size of classes should be substantially reduced as soon as the necessary teachers become available. As some time must necessarily elapse before this can be done, it should be made clear that it is one of the definite aims of the Government's educational policy.
- (2) The quality and amenities of premises and equipment should be improved where necessary and as soon as practicable.
- (3) In order that the headmaster and his staff may devote adequate time to the educational duties for which they were primarily appointed, clerical assistants should be provided to relieve them of some of their non-teaching duties.

* See footnote to paragraph 5.

† See footnote to paragraph 5, and Appendix IV, Table 1.

- (4) The teaching staff should be given more opportunities than at present of influencing the general educational policy of the school. It should be the duty of head teachers to do all that can be done in this direction without detracting from their own ultimate responsibility.
- (5) As soon as circumstances permit, periods of "sabbatical leave" for all teachers should become a regular feature of the educational system. The teacher should spend the period in such a way as to improve his quality and should continue to be paid his salary. Adequate allowances should be granted towards necessary expenses to enable full advantage to be taken of the period of leave.

17. We are strongly of opinion that the method of appointing and promoting teachers in many education areas is a most serious obstacle to recruiting. Appointments and promotions should be determined solely by merit and by suitability for the post. The teachers should be chosen by people who appreciate and are prepared to uphold the dignity of a learned profession. The degrading practice of canvassing members of local authorities should be abolished. The undue influence of considerations entirely irrelevant to teaching ability should be eradicated. We include in this category personal and party considerations as well as the reservation of teaching posts for teachers belonging to the area. As full examination of this question is beyond the scope of our remit, we invite the special consideration of the Secretary of State and of the local authorities to this most urgent problem.

3. Increased Opportunities within the Profession for both Men and Women

18. We are in agreement with the view expressed by several of our witnesses that the teaching profession should offer more opportunities likely to appeal to the enterprising, and that this is particularly important in the case of women. It was pointed out that in Scotland co-education has restricted the number of posts of responsibility open to women teachers, and that, as a result, many of the best of our women students have sought careers in England.

19. Reduction in the size of schools, a reform which is very desirable on educational grounds, would create a greater demand for head teachers, lady superintendents, heads of departments and infant mistresses. We recommend that promotion to these more responsible appointments should be determined more by the teacher's development during professional service and less by initial qualifications.

20. Attractive opportunities could be provided through the establishment of experimental schools, in the planning and conduct of which progressive teachers would find scope for initiative and might, in many cases, make notable contributions to educational advance. Extension of the facilities for interchange of teachers within the Empire and with other English-speaking countries would also strengthen the appeal of the profession.

4. Development of Educational Research and Experiment

21. Scotland has played a leading part in the scientific study of educational problems, and the Scottish Council for Research in Education * has acted as a model for similar organizations in a number of other countries. This is a

* The Scottish Council for Research in Education was instituted in 1928 and was incorporated under the Companies Acts in 1932. It is composed of representatives of the Association of County Councils in Scotland, the Association of Councils of Counties of Cities in Scotland, the Educational Institute of Scotland, the Association of Directors of Education in Scotland, the National Committee for the Training of Teachers, the Training Centres and Colleges, the Scottish Universities, the Scottish Branch of the British Psychological Society and the Association of School Medical Officers of Scotland. The principal sources of revenue are a grant from the Educational Institute of Scotland and a contribution from each of the Education Authorities.

development to which we attach great importance, and we hope that it will be continued with the ever-increasing co-operation of the teachers in the schools. The extension of educational research would have two effects which are relevant to our present remit : it would enhance the prestige of the profession, and it would add an enriching interest to the life of the teacher.

5. Encouragement of Teachers to take part in Community Activities

22. The public service rendered by teachers before and during the war has resulted in an increase in the esteem in which the teaching profession is held, and we believe that their efforts in this direction should receive every encouragement. There is much to be said for teachers joining public bodies : often in small towns the headmaster of the school is one of the few men qualified by education and detachment to assume the role of leader in the community. It is desirable that all teachers with the necessary gifts and inclination should associate themselves, as many are already doing, with the day-to-day life of the community in which they are serving—with its games clubs, literary, debating and musical societies, Women's Rural Institutes, and so on—and they should be prepared to take their share of office and responsibility in such organizations. Special preparation for work of this kind is an advantage, and we are glad to know that all the Scottish Training Centres and Colleges are now taking steps to provide this as part of the ordinary course of training.

23. Teaching may be exhilarating or exhausting, but it is essentially exacting. Some teachers may have ample spirit and inclination to participate in the activities of the Auxiliary Forces of the Crown, or Boys' Brigade, Girl Guides or other forms of Youth Service ; some may be interested in Adult Education ; some may find in social service an outlet for their energies ; others may seek to widen their background by study or research. Every encouragement should be given to participate in such activities, provided there is no diminution of teaching efficiency. Community service of whatever type seriously undertaken will be a powerful factor in raising the status of the profession, and the opportunity for social service available particularly to teachers by reason of their special knowledge and experience will provide an attraction to public-spirited men and women.

6. Administrative Changes

24. The suggestion was made by certain of our witnesses that the status and attractiveness of the teaching profession is dependent upon the nature of the bodies entrusted with the administration of education. The view was expressed that the profession will lack attraction so long as the teacher is the servant of the Council of a County or a County of a City, and that improvement might be expected if the administration of education were entrusted to a national authority or to regional or *ad hoc* county authorities.

25. While we felt debarred from discussing these wider issues under the present remit, we decided to make the following recommendations to which effect could be given within the present administrative structure :—

- (1) That there should be increased representation of the teaching profession on the bodies controlling the training of teachers.*
- (2) That Head Teachers should be invited to attend meetings of the Education Committee when the appointment of staff or other major matters closely affecting their own schools are being discussed.

* The Educational Institute of Scotland elects four active teachers to serve on each of the four Provincial Committees for the Training of Teachers. The size of the Provincial Committees is as follows : St. Andrews, 18 ; Glasgow, 34 ; Aberdeen, 26 ; Edinburgh, 26. The teacher representatives on the Provincial Committees appoint two of their own number to serve upon the Central Executive Committee of the National Committee for the Training of Teachers. The Central Executive Committee has 21 members.

III. IMPROVEMENTS IN THE NORMAL TRAINING ARRANGEMENTS

26. The supply of teachers is affected by the status of the training institutions and the nature of the training facilities, and we recommend the following improvements as likely to have an effect both upon the normal entry to the Training Centres and Colleges and upon the number of recruits from the new sources of supply mentioned in Part V.

1. Improvement in the Status of the Training Institutions

27. As the general question of the reconstruction of the training system is beyond the scope of our present remit, we did not undertake a full study of this problem, but we suggest that early improvements could be made by continued efforts to strengthen the staffs, by the development of a research department in each Centre or College, and by an increase in the number of non-graduating women who take certain classes at the University.

2. More Liberal Bursaries for all forms of Higher Education

28. Generally speaking, bursaries awarded to teacher students in Scotland are smaller than those paid to similar students in England, and they compare unfavourably with the grants now being made under the scheme for State Bursaries. We do not go into detail here, as we hope to submit a report on the whole bursary question in due course. If a sufficient supply of teachers is to be forthcoming, bursaries must be on a more liberal scale: but there should be no attempt to induce students to enter the teaching service by offering them higher bursaries than those paid to students aiming at other professions. The only differentiation should be dependent upon the length and cost of the course of preparation.

29. No suitable candidate should be debarred, by reason of the cost, from the type of higher education best suited to his gifts and professional aspirations; the grants should be sufficiently liberal to enable students to take full advantage of all residential, social and athletic facilities. There should also be greater uniformity in the grants paid by the different Education Authorities.

3. Extension of the Residential System

30. We realize that it may not be possible to build new hostels in the immediate post-war years, but we urge that, as soon as conditions permit, residential facilities be so extended that all students will have an opportunity to share in their benefits. The value of hostel life, particularly for students with a narrow social background, is now generally recognized, and we confine ourselves to making one suggestion as to the form which the new provision should take. It is most undesirable that students preparing for the different professions should be trained in isolation. They should have opportunities of mixing together, of exchanging views and experiences, and of arriving at a friendly, sympathetic understanding with each other. Such opportunities are already available when different types of students are in attendance at the same institution, though even then they are often somewhat limited; but there is at present little association between students who take their training at different institutions. We believe that the opportunities we have in mind could be best provided by means of common residences for students of Universities, Central Institutions and Training Centres and Colleges, and we recommend that the institutions of higher education in a city should combine to provide hostels of this kind.

4. Control of the Number of Students admitted annually to the Training Colleges

31. The sudden and temporary limitation of the number of entrants to the Training Centres and Colleges that took place a little over ten years ago resulted

in the rejection of many applicants who had taken a full secondary or University education with a view to entering the teaching service and then found themselves unable to obtain other employment. This undoubtedly had a persisting adverse effect upon the supply of teachers, and we recommend that the number of entrants to the Training Centres and Colleges should be constantly kept in adjustment with the annual requirements of the Scottish schools. We understand that the National Committee for the Training of Teachers have already compiled data which will form the foundation of such a long-range control of supply.

IV. RECRUITMENT OF CANDIDATES FOR TRAINING FROM NEW SOURCES OF SUPPLY

32. The steps which we have already suggested would not by themselves ensure a supply of teachers sufficient to meet the demands of the schools if the age for compulsory full-time education is raised and day continuation classes are instituted shortly after the war. To meet these additional demands and to make up the arrears accumulated during the war years, it will be necessary to have a policy of recruitment and training that breaks away from accepted practice. New sources must be tapped, conditions of admission must be widened and courses of training modified, if the number and variety of teachers that will be needed in the schools and continuation classes of the future are to be secured. Men and women of unusual gifts will be needed for day continuation classes; this is an aspect of the problem which we have discussed fully in our Report on these classes. The possibility that compulsory continued education may not be established during the demobilization period must not prevent the recruitment of men and women with these special qualifications: otherwise they may be lost to education. They should be recruited and trained, and employed in day schools or in voluntary continuation classes until such time as the compulsory classes are instituted.

1. New Sources of Supply

33. The most fruitful source will be the young men and women at present in the Forces, who would bring to the profession a wide and varied experience. This experience should be accepted as compensating to some extent for any deficiency in their academic preparation. Many will have risen to positions of responsibility through the possession of capacities for leadership and organization and of qualities of personality which should ensure their success as teachers. Many will have had courses of study under the various training schemes in the Forces or useful practical experience of a scientific or technical character. Many will have proved their capacity as successful and inspiring instructors in military subjects and in connection with the education service in the Forces. While candidates of these types should be specially suitable, we recommend that no ex-Service man or woman who has a good general education and the necessary personal qualities should be excluded from consideration.

34. An intensive effort should also be made to select for special training men and women with experience in war or peace of industry, commerce or youth welfare work, and also teachers of vocational subjects who have had experience in evening continuation classes or in day schools but have no qualification under the Regulations for the Training of Teachers. These people, like the men and women from the Forces, would bring to the work of teaching a wide and varied experience which should be accepted to some extent as a substitute for academic preparation.

2. Administrative Arrangements for dealing with Recruits from the New Sources

35. The admission and training of applicants from these new sources will present many problems, and cases will have to be dealt with to a large extent

individually. The education of most of the candidates will have been seriously interrupted by war service ; after some years in the Forces or war industries many will find difficulty in re-adjustment to academic study and examination requirements ; some desirable applicants will not belong to the bookish type from which, in the past, the teaching profession has been largely recruited. The requirements for entrance upon training must therefore be made more flexible, less emphasis being placed upon examination results and more upon personal records and personal interview. The Regulations for the Training of Teachers should be amended so as to allow the training authorities to admit applicants from new sources to training for the Teacher's General Certificate or the Teacher's Technical Certificate *, although they do not hold the usual entrance qualification. The length and character of the courses of training must be determined in the light of the special circumstances of each case. In making these individual adjustments it is essential that there should be uniformity of standards throughout Scotland in regard to entrance requirements and shortening of courses, and we recommend that special administrative machinery be set up for dealing with the varied cases that will have to be considered.

36. We are of opinion that the following system of Selection Boards would provide the most effective machinery for dealing with these special applications. There should be four Provincial Selection Boards, one for each of the Provinces into which Scotland is divided for the purposes of the training of teachers, and their standards and procedure should be co-ordinated by a Central Board. The Selection Boards should be set up by the Central Executive Committee of the National Committee, and by the Provincial Committees and the Committees of Management, to carry out the functions detailed in paragraphs 40 and 41 below.

37. The Central Selection Board should be constituted by the Central Executive Committee of the National Committee for the Training of Teachers, and should consist of—

- (1) Five persons appointed by the Central Executive Committee from their own number, including one Catholic representative and at least one teachers' representative ;
- (2) One person appointed by the Association of Directors of Education from the members of the Association ;
- (3) The Executive Officer of the National Committee *ex officio* ;
- (4) The Directors of Studies of the four Training Centres *ex officio*.

The officers nominated by the Secretary of State to act as assessors upon the Central Executive Committee should act as assessors to the Central Selection Board.

38. The Selection Boards for the St. Andrews and the Aberdeen Provinces should be constituted by the respective Provincial Committees, and should consist of—

- (1) Five persons appointed by the Provincial Committee from their own number, including at least one teachers' representative ;
- (2) One person appointed by the Association of Directors of Education from the members of the Association holding appointments in the Province ;
- (3) The Director of Studies of the Training Centre *ex officio*.

The officers nominated by the Secretary of State to act as assessors upon the Provincial Committee should act as assessors to the Provincial Selection Board. When applications from women for courses of training leading to the Teacher's Technical Certificate in Physical Education * are being considered, one member of the Committee of Management of the Dunfermline College of Hygiene and Physical Education and the Principal of the College should be added to the appropriate Provincial Selection Board.

* See footnote to paragraph 5.

39. The Selection Boards for the Glasgow and the Edinburgh Provinces should be constituted by the respective Provincial Committees and Committees of Management acting jointly and should consist of—

- (1) Five persons appointed by the Provincial Committee from their own number, including at least one teachers' representative ;
- (2) Two persons appointed by the Committee of Management of the Catholic Training College in the Province from their own number, at least one of whom should be a teachers' representative ;
- (3) One person appointed by the Association of Directors of Education from the members of the Association holding appointments in the Province ;
- (4) The Director of Studies of the Training Centre *ex officio* ;
- (5) The Principal of the Catholic Training College *ex officio*.

The officers nominated by the Secretary of State to act as assessors upon the Provincial Committee and Committee of Management should act as assessors to the Provincial Selection Board.

40. All applications for admission to training should be made to a Training Centre or Training College. Applications from candidates who do not possess the certificates normally required for entrance, or who have more than the minimum qualifications for entrance, should be referred to the appropriate Provincial Selection Board. The main functions of the Provincial Selection Boards would be :—

- (1) To make recommendations to the Central Selection Board for admission to training ;
- (2) In appropriate cases to advise the candidates to take tutorial courses before their applications for admission to training are further considered ;
- (3) To make recommendations to the Central Selection Board as to the reduced length of courses for candidates who have more than the minimum qualifications for entrance ;
- (4) To furnish to any body to which he has applied for a grant, a report as to the applicant's suitability for the course of training desired ;
- (5) To advise intending teachers now in the Forces or in other forms of war service as to courses of study which they could undertake during the war or in the demobilization period.

41. The principal function of the Central Selection Board will be to secure uniformity of standards throughout the country in regard to entrance requirements and shortening of courses. Difficult or doubtful cases, appeals and any questions of general policy should be referred to the Board. The Board will also deal with the routine recommendations of the Provincial Selection Boards.

42. In view of the last of the functions mentioned in paragraph 40 and of the need to apply the special conditions of admission and length of course to the growing number of men and women now being released from war service on grounds of disability or for other reasons, we recommend that the Selection Boards should be constituted immediately.

3. Conditions of Admission to Training for Recruits from the New Sources

43. We recommend that applications for admission to training be dealt with in accordance with the following rules :—

- (1) The normal qualification for admission to a Chapter IV * course should be the Senior Leaving Certificate or equivalent ; and the

* See footnote to paragraph 5.

normal qualifications for admission to Chapter VI * courses should be those indicated in Article 47 (b) of the Regulations for the Training of Teachers †.

- (2) With a view to assessing personality and aptitude for teaching, all applicants who do not possess the certificates normally required, and all applicants who might be recommended for a special reduction of length of course in respect of qualifications in excess of the minimum required for entrance, should be interviewed by the appropriate Provincial Selection Board. In the case of courses leading to the Teachers' Technical Certificate in Physical Education *, the authorities of the appropriate College should, before the interview by the Provincial Selection Board, report to the Selection Board upon the physical fitness and the general suitability of such applicants, and submit recommendations as to admission and length of course.
- (3) Applicants who do not possess the necessary certificates may be required to sit a special entrance examination, but the Selection Boards should have power to recommend such candidates for admission without examination.
- (4) The general standard of the entrance examination should be determined by the Central Selection Board, but the Provincial Selection Boards should make the arrangements for the preparation of question papers and for the correction of scripts.
- (5) Tutorial courses of one term should be instituted at some or all of the Training Centres or Colleges to assist suitable candidates to reach the standard of general education required for admission to training.
- (6) All candidates admitted to training should be on probation for one term.

44. Modification of the entrance requirements may be necessary for skilled craftsmen required for instruction in day schools or day continuation classes.

45. Candidates who desire to take a University degree, or a diploma of a Central Institution, will also have to satisfy the matriculation requirements of a University or Central Institution, and the authorities of these institutions should be invited to make concessions similar to those recommended above for admission to the Training Centres or Colleges.

4. Courses of Training for Recruits from the New Sources

46. Since 1926, men who desire to train for the Teacher's General Certificate * have been required to possess a University degree or the diploma of a

* See footnote to paragraph 5.

† The qualifications referred to are the holding of a degree or diploma relative to the subject in which the teaching qualification is desired, provided that the holder of the diploma has in each case reached a standard of general education satisfactory to the Secretary of State. In the case of candidates born before 1st August, 1906, the Intermediate Certificate or its equivalent is normally required. Candidates born after 31st July, 1906, must, after satisfactorily completing a course of study approved for the purpose of the Leaving Certificate or the Senior Leaving Certificate, have been presented for one or other of these certificates; but failure to obtain the Certificate does not necessarily involve the rejection of the candidate. In the case of candidates who have had no opportunity of following an approved course for the Leaving Certificate or the Senior Leaving Certificate, evidence of the successful completion of an equivalent course of education is considered. Candidates for recognition as Teachers of Educational Handwork or of Needlework and Dressmaking receive special consideration if they have previously completed an approved apprenticeship. Generally speaking, a candidate who has completed an approved apprenticeship would be admitted to a course of training in Educational Handwork if he had reached a standard of general education equivalent to the standard of the Junior Leaving Certificate.

Central Institution.* Teaching has, indeed, virtually become a graduate profession as far as men are concerned, and this fact has had an important influence in determining our proposals in regard to the length of the emergency courses of training. We anticipate that a large proportion of the ex-Service men will desire to graduate in order to safeguard their prospects of promotion. If so, their courses of preparation will include a University course leading to a degree. In Appendix V we give a summary of the Regulations made by the Universities for conferring, during the present emergency, upon students with war service or the equivalent, "war degrees" or degrees after shortened courses of study. We think it important that both now and for a period after the war students who have had at least one year of approved war service should have the opportunity of obtaining a degree in Arts or Science after a shortened course of two years. We therefore recommend that the Secretary of State should make an early approach to the Universities on this subject. The Central Institutions also should consider the shortening of their diploma courses. Normally, the degree course is followed by a course of professional training of four terms. If the candidate has had the necessary war service, we recommend that this be reduced to two terms. The total length of preparation required from men with the necessary war service who wish to graduate in Arts or Science would thus be two years and two terms, of which two years would be devoted to University study.

47. As we have already pointed out, the general education of many ex-Service men and women who would make good teachers will have been seriously dislocated, and many of them will find difficulty in re-adjusting themselves to examination requirements. Many may also, we hope, be men and women of maturer years. Some may, therefore, hesitate to embark upon a University degree course, and some who enrol in such courses may fail to reach the standards set by the Universities for the award of a degree. Further, there will, in all probability, be a number of ex-Service men whose experience and specialized training in the Forces could be regarded as the equivalent of part at least of a University degree course. For these reasons we recommend that graduation should not be insisted upon in the case of ex-Service men, and that a non-graduating course should be offered. The relative provisions of Article 25 (a) of the Regulations for the Training of Teachers should be suspended. Education Authorities should not allow the subsequent promotion of these men to be prejudiced because they are not graduates. Equality of treatment would, however, be difficult to secure if the non-graduating course were of shorter duration than the course undergone by graduates. We therefore recommend that the non-graduating course for ex-Service men aiming at qualification under Chapter IV † should, like the course for those graduating in Arts or Science, extend to two years and two terms, but that the length of the course may be reduced by not more than two years in respect of qualifications in excess of the minimum required for entrance. We also recommend that the Regulations for the Training of Teachers should be amended to allow men who take a non-graduating course to obtain qualifications under Article 39 † in subjects in which they have fulfilled the academic requirements.

48. We regard it as important that facilities should be provided to enable ex-Service men who do not take a degree to graduate later if they so desire. For this purpose we recommend—(1) that, within a limited period after the war, Education Authorities should release them to take the necessary University classes, (2) that the Universities be asked to regard teachers so released as eligible for the award of a degree under Emergency Regulations if they have the necessary war service, and (3) that arrangements be made whereby they would receive grants under the "Further Education and Training

* The number of men who present the diploma of a Central Institution as a qualification to train for the Teacher's General Certificate is small. In this and subsequent paragraphs we refer only to graduates in this connection, but the references should be understood to cover holders of diplomas of Central Institutions.

† See footnote to paragraph 6.

Scheme" for any unexpired portion of the normal period of two years and two terms.

49. We recommend that the general arrangements for taking account of war service should be those laid down in the Training of Teachers (Scotland) (No. 1) Order, 1943, and particularly in Article 3 (b).*

50. The following are our detailed recommendations as to the length and nature of the emergency courses of training for the various categories of entrants. In making each recommendation we have assumed that the candidates will have had a period of war service sufficient to entitle them to a course of the duration stated:—

- (1) The normal Chapter IV † course for men and women who desire to graduate in Arts or Science should extend to two years and two terms.
- (2) The Chapter IV † course for men and women who desire to graduate should be a combined course of University and Training Centre or Training College study, and all students should be enrolled in the Training Centre or College throughout the course. For Arts and Science students the first two years should be devoted almost wholly to work for the University degree, and the final two terms to professional training.
- (3) Men and women who embark on the above graduating course and fail to obtain the degree should nevertheless receive Teacher's Certificates if, in the opinion of the Training Authority, the course as a whole has been satisfactorily completed.
- (4) For men who do not desire to graduate, Chapter IV † courses of two years and two terms should be instituted at Training Centres. These will normally include some University classes, and, in certain cases, classes at Central Institutions. The Regulations should be amended to enable Article 39 qualifications † to be granted to men who do not graduate.
- (5) In the case of men who do not desire to graduate, the length of the Chapter IV † course may be reduced by not more than two years in respect of qualifications possessed by the candidate in excess of the minimum qualifications for entrance.
- (6) For women who do not desire to graduate, the normal Chapter IV † course should extend to two years, but the length of the course may be reduced by the Selection Board in respect of qualifications possessed by the candidate in excess of the minimum qualifications for entrance. †
- (7) Candidates who desire qualification under Chapter V † should normally take a course of University study of one of the types indicated in

Article 3 of the Training of Teachers (Scotland) (No. 1) Order, 1943, provides:—

3. Notwithstanding the terms of Article 25—

- (a)
- (b) A course usually extending over two years or more may, at the discretion of the Training Authority, be shortened by not more than one year in respect of a corresponding period of war service, and a course usually extending to less than two years may similarly be shortened, by not more than one-half of its normal length, to not less than two terms.

† See footnote to paragraph 5.

‡ The difference between the length of the courses recommended for non-graduate men in sub-paragraph (4) and for non-graduate women in sub-paragraph (6) arises out of a difference in the normal length of the courses for the two sexes. For men the course was graduation (three years) plus four terms at the Training Centre: for women it was three years at the Training Centre or College. Under Article 3 (b) of the Training of Teachers (Scotland) (No. 1) Order, 1943, quoted in the footnote to paragraph 49, the training part of the men's course may be reduced to two terms, making, with a reduced period at the University, two years and two terms; the training course, for women may be reduced to two years. Reductions to two years have already been granted to women, thus making it impossible to grant less favourable terms to women who do not leave the Forces until after the war.

Article 4 (a) of the Training of Teachers (Scotland) (No. 1) Order, 1943*, followed by a course of professional training of two terms.

- (8) The normal Chapter VI † course in Educational Handwork for candidates who have completed an approved apprenticeship or who have equivalent qualifications should extend to one year. For students who have satisfactorily completed a course of study approved for the purpose of the Leaving Certificate or the Senior Leaving Certificate but have not completed an approved apprenticeship, the course should extend to two years, unless the Selection Board makes a reduction in respect of special experience obtained in the Forces or elsewhere.
- (9) In the case of Chapter VI † courses in other subjects the duration of the course of professional training should be determined as indicated in Article 3 (b) of the Training of Teachers (Scotland) (No. 1) Order, 1943 ‡. Post-diploma courses will normally extend to two terms.
- (10) Ex-Service students should be admitted to training at the beginning of the term following their demobilization.
- (11) For applicants from new sources of supply who have had no war service, Selection Boards should have power to reduce the ordinary (unshortened) courses of training for qualification under Chapter IV or Chapter VI † in respect of special qualifications, e.g. previous experience as an unqualified teacher in schools or continuation classes, experience in industry, commerce, youth welfare work, etc. Graduation or the possession of a diploma of a Central Institution should not be insisted upon in the case of men admitted to Chapter IV † courses reduced in respect of such special qualifications. This clause should be operative in the first instance only for a period of five years after the end of the war.

51. It is to be expected that a considerable number of the recruits from the new sources will be allowed to qualify after periods of training shorter in duration than the normal courses we have proposed: many of the Chapter IV † men teachers, for example, should be eligible for courses of less than two years and two terms. Yet we realize that the exigencies of the post-war situation, particularly if there should be delays in demobilization and if the age for compulsory education should be raised in the first or second post-war year, may be such that the additional teachers would not be ready for service at a sufficiently early date. We therefore recommend that if there should be an acute shortage, students from the new sources of supply should be released for service in the schools after completing only part of the courses indicated above. They would receive provisional certificates and would complete their courses after the period of pressure is past. If necessary, this arrangement could be extended to the normal entrants to the Training Centres and Colleges.

* Article 4 of the Training of Teachers (Scotland) (No. 1) Order, 1943, provides:—

4. Notwithstanding the terms of Article 43—

(a) An applicant may be admitted to training for the Teacher's Special Certificate if,

(i) he has followed a course of University study for more than two years and holds, or is deemed eligible to obtain after approved war service, an "unclassified" Honours Degree under emergency (war) degree regulations, or

(ii) in the case of a University which does not confer such a Degree, he has completed the appropriate period of honours study and is deemed eligible to obtain a Degree after approved war service,

provided in either case that he is certified by the University as one who would have been likely in normal circumstances to obtain at least Second Class Honours.

† See footnote to paragraph 5.

‡ See footnote to paragraph 49.

5. Conditions of Service for Recruits from the New Sources 53

52. Since most of the teachers who pass through these emergency doors will enter the profession at a higher age than that at which the normal student leaves the Training College, the delay in most cases being due to war service, steps must be taken to safeguard their position in regard to seniority, salary and pension.

53. We recommend that both age and length of war service should be taken into account in placing on the salary scales teachers who enter the profession at an age above the normal. This should also be done in cases where seniority is a factor in determining promotion.

54. The position as regards pension is regulated by the Education (Scotland) (War Service Superannuation) Act, 1939, which, although its purpose is "to enable war service to be treated as service," has created an unfortunate anomaly in its application to certain teachers who do not qualify until after a period of war service. Briefly stated, the effect of the Act is that those who were accepted for admission to training before proceeding on war service are allowed to include the period whereby the completion of training was delayed as service for the purpose of calculating the amount of their retiring allowances. The others who had not been accepted for admission to training are allowed only to reckon their war service as part of the thirty years prescribed as a condition of benefit under the Superannuation Scheme: it cannot affect the amount of their retiring allowances. This may well have a deterrent effect upon some ex-Service men and women who would be good teachers, and whose enrolment in the teaching profession will be urgently required. The category into which those who had not actually begun training will fall, will often depend upon a mere accident—whether or not a particular form had been brought to their notice. We do not think that a distinction based upon so slight a difference should be maintained in the circumstances of acute shortage of teachers which we foresee, and we recommend that the Act be amended to remove the anomaly.

6. Appeal to Possible Recruits from the New Sources

55. If a sufficient number of teachers is to be obtained, a widespread appeal must be made to possible recruits from the new sources. We recommend that the Secretary of State should make full use of the expert advice available to him in deciding upon the most effective methods of bringing the claims of the teaching profession to their notice. We offer the following suggestions:—

- (1) A general leaflet and leaflets addressed to particular categories of potential recruits should be issued at an early date to men and women in the various war services and to prisoners of war. Further leaflets should be issued from time to time as new information becomes available. The co-operation of the Service Departments should be obtained.
- (2) The assistance of the Appointments Department of the Ministry of Labour and National Service should be enlisted in bringing the claims of the teaching profession to the notice of suitable candidates.
- (3) The possibilities of broadcasts and of films should be fully explored, and the goodwill and help of the Press should be secured.
- (4) The Secretary of State should keep the Education Authorities fully informed as to the emergency conditions of admission and regulations as to the length of courses. The Education Authorities should be invited to nominate, as candidates for training, selected teachers who have been employed in day schools or evening continuation classes but do not possess a qualification under the Regulations.

7. Courses which should be offered before the End of the War and during the Demobilization Period

56. In order to ensure that candidates from the new sources will be available for service at the earliest possible moment, we recommend the following arrangements to enable them to make a certain amount of progress in their studies before demobilization :—

- (1) Correspondence courses should be arranged to assist prisoners of war who desire to train as teachers to satisfy the emergency entrance requirements, and to enable those who have already reached the necessary standard to undertake courses of study which form part of the training.
- (2) For intending teachers who are on war service, the educational services of the Forces should, where practicable, be used for the same purposes ; and special courses and correspondence courses should be instituted both before and during the demobilization period.
- (3) Vacation or evening courses should be offered by the Provincial Committee for the training, on the nomination of Education Authorities, of teachers who do not hold a qualification under the Regulations.

57. Another reason for the immediate constitution of the Selection Boards which we recommend in paragraph 43 is the furthering of the arrangements referred to in the preceding paragraph. We suggest that, in the various appeals for recruits from new sources, those who are interested should be invited to communicate with the appropriate Selection Board giving details of their present qualifications and of any educational facilities available to them. The Selection Boards would then guide them as to their studies.

V. RELEASE OF TEACHERS AND INTENDING TEACHERS FROM WAR SERVICE

58. Teaching staffs have been so seriously depleted by the calling up of male teachers for service in the Armed Forces of the Crown that we regard it as of great importance to education that they should be enabled to return to the schools soon after the termination of hostilities. Similarly the call-up of young men who intend to become teachers has caused the output of the Training Centres and Colleges to fall far below the numbers necessary to supply the demands of the schools. We understand that the Services may consider it necessary to retain a large number of teachers in the Forces during the demobilization period. The urgent needs of the schools must not, however, be disregarded, and we accordingly recommend that a high priority should be given to the demobilization of teachers and intending teachers.

VI. EMPLOYMENT OF MARRIED WOMEN TEACHERS

59. The re-employment of married women teachers has provided an emergency teaching service that must by all possible means be extended into the early post-war period, or even beyond. If the staffing needs of the schools are to be met, it will be necessary for Education Authorities to make every effort to secure the services of as many married women teachers as possible. We recommend that, until the period of pressure is past, all obstacles in the way of the employment of such teachers should be removed ; in particular, that in placing them on salary scales not only their previous teaching service but also the scale on which they were previously paid should be taken into consideration.

60. Certain of the provisions of the Superannuation Scheme have deterred married women teachers from returning to service or have caused them, or at least strongly inclined them, to return to retirement. Two factors are taken into account in calculating the amount of a teacher's retiring allowance—pensionable salary and completed years of service. Pensionable salary is the average amount of the salary in the last five years of service, whether continuous or not. Accordingly, when, as sometimes happens, a married woman, in order to help the educational service in an emergency, accepts a teaching post at a smaller salary than the salary she was drawing at any time during the last five years of her service, her pensionable salary may be reduced. Although the other factor in the calculation of the retiring allowance, the number of completed years of service, may be increased, the teacher has what we regard as a legitimate grievance; her retiring allowance may be reduced as a result of her public spirit in returning to service in an emergency. We recommend that this grievance should be removed by the payment of a bonus in appropriate cases when the teacher discontinues service.

61. We realize that the recommendations we have made for removing the obstacles and grievances which adversely affect the recruitment of married women may appear to be of minor importance. We would, however, emphasize the very great need which there will be for securing the services of married women teachers during the ten years immediately following the war. Indeed the success of the arrangements for raising the compulsory school age and for instituting compulsory part-time education, and the avoidance of the deplorable device of increasing the size of classes, will depend upon the extent to which the authorities succeed in recruiting married women teachers. Our estimates of the number of teachers that will have to be obtained from new sources of supply are based on the assumption that 2,500 married women and retired teachers will make themselves available. It must also be remembered that the patriotic urge which has influenced so many married women to return to teaching during the war is unlikely to be as strong in the early post-war years, when their services will be just as badly needed. We make no apology, therefore, for recommending the removal of obstacles and grievances, however small, which may impede the recruiting of married women.

VII. EMPLOYMENT OF TEACHERS BEYOND THE RETIRING AGE

62. For a number of years it will also be necessary to make an appeal to teachers to remain in service beyond the retiring age, and we believe that the relief which would be obtained from this source would be considerably increased if the two changes suggested in the following paragraphs, were made in the conditions of their continued employment.

63. Under the Superannuation Scheme, when a retired teacher is re-employed the Secretary of State is bound to reduce the retiring allowance by such amount as he may determine, provided that the reduction will not cause the allowance and the salary taken together to fall below the amount of the teacher's salary on retirement. This in itself discourages teachers who have retired from returning to teaching. But as they can take up some other form of employment without their pension being affected, this provision of the Scheme is likely to act as a double deterrent. We recommend, therefore, that it should be suspended until the shortage of teachers is made good, and that Education Authorities should pay the normal salary attached to the post.

64. Provision is made in the Teachers (Superannuation) Act, 1937, and in the amending scheme and the rules framed thereunder, whereby a teacher is allowed, as from the date of commencement of an annual retiring allowance, to

surrender part of the allowance in return for certain benefits to the teacher, to his or her spouse, or to a dependant. To secure this advantage the teacher must give proof of good health. Under the rules the medical examination takes place shortly before the teacher retires, and this causes some teachers to retire on attaining the age of 60 while still in good health; they fear that their health may deteriorate if they postpone retirement and that they may fail to pass the medical examination. We recommend that teachers should be allowed to undergo the medical examination at the age of 60, irrespective of whether they propose to retire immediately thereafter or to remain in service for a further period, and that if they pass the examination subsequent deterioration in their health should not prevent them from enjoying the benefits of the Act. We are satisfied that this step would be instrumental in postponing the retirement of many teachers whose services will be urgently required in the years immediately following the war.

VIII. SUMMARY OF THE REPORT

65. In this Part we give a summary of the Report.

I. Introductory

(1) In our Interim Report, which is given in Appendix F, we recommend a substantial increase in teachers' salaries, and also that teachers should reach the maximum of their scales more quickly. In our Report of 9th July, 1943, we gave our estimate of the extent of the problem of supply. A large number of teachers from new sources of supply will be required in the immediate post-war period. (Paragraphs 1, 2, 3 and 4.)

II. Improvement in the Status and Attractiveness of the Teaching Profession

(2) The conditions of service in the schools of Scotland must be improved if sufficient recruits are to be obtained. (Paragraph 5.)

1. INCREASE IN TEACHERS' SALARIES

(i) *Comparison with Salaries in Other Professions*

(3) Salaries paid to teachers are often lower than those paid in other professions which require a comparable training. Appendix III contains a memorandum on this subject by the Appointments Secretary, University of Edinburgh. Appendix IV contains Tables of Salaries in a number of comparable professions. For special reasons no figures are given for the legal profession or for the Ministry. (Paragraphs 6, 7, 8 and 9.)

(4) Comments are made on a number of points arising out of a comparison of salaries given in the Tables in Appendix IV. (Paragraphs 10, 11, 12 and 13.)

(ii) *Modifications in the Character of Salary Scales*

(5) The desirability of modifying the salary scales in the following respects should be examined: that Standard National Scales should be substituted for Minimum National Scales; that the basis upon which responsibility payments are calculated should be revised; and that non-graduate women trained for four years under Chapter III should be paid on the same scale as graduate women, with proportionate increases for women with a shorter training. The salaries of Chapter VI teachers should also be reviewed. (Paragraphs 14 and 15.)

2. OTHER IMPROVEMENTS IN CONDITIONS OF SERVICE

(6) Improvements in conditions of service on the following lines would help to increase supply: a substantial reduction in the size of classes; an improvement in the general amenities of schools; the provision of clerical assistance; more opportunities for the school staff to influence the general educational policy of the school; and the institution of regular periods of "sabbatical leave." (Paragraph 16.)

(7) In many areas the method of selecting teachers for appointment and promotion is urgently in need of reform. (Paragraph 17.)

3. INCREASED OPPORTUNITIES WITHIN THE PROFESSION FOR BOTH MEN AND WOMEN

(8) The teaching profession should offer more opportunities likely to appeal to the enterprising, and particularly to enterprising women. Reduction in the size of schools would create more responsible posts for men and women. In making promotions more weight should be given to a teacher's development and less to his initial qualifications. (Paragraphs 18 and 19.)

(9) Experimental schools and an extension of the facilities for the interchange of teachers within the Empire and with English-speaking countries would strengthen the appeal of the profession. (Paragraph 20.)

4. DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND EXPERIMENT

(10) The extension of educational research would enhance the prestige of the profession and would add an enriching interest to the life of the teacher. (Paragraph 21.)

5. ENCOURAGEMENT OF TEACHERS TO TAKE PART IN COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES

(11) Teachers should associate themselves with the day-to-day life of the community in which they are serving and should participate in the activities of the Auxiliary Forces, the Youth Service, Adult Education, etc. Community service seriously undertaken will be a powerful factor in raising the status of the profession, and the opportunity for social service available particularly to teachers by reason of their special knowledge and experience will be an attraction to public-spirited men and women. (Paragraphs 22 and 23.)

6. ADMINISTRATIVE CHANGES

(12) Although debarred by the terms of their remit from discussing the suggestion that the status and attractiveness of the teaching profession are dependent upon the nature of the bodies entrusted with the administration of education, the Council recommend the following changes within the present administrative structure: increased representation of teachers on the Committees for the Training of Teachers; and attendance of head teachers at Education Committee meetings where major matters affecting their schools are discussed. (Paragraphs 24 and 25.)

III. Improvements in the Normal Training Arrangements

(13) The supply of teachers is affected by the status of the training institutions and by the nature of the training facilities. (Paragraph 26.)

1. IMPROVEMENT IN THE STATUS OF THE TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

(14) Strengthening of staffs, development of research departments, and an increase in the number of non-graduate women who take certain classes at the

University are improvements which would enhance the status of the Training Centres and Colleges and should be made at an early date. (Paragraph 27.)

2. MORE LIBERAL BURSARIES FOR ALL FORMS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

(15) More liberal bursaries should be awarded to students at Training Centres and Colleges, as well as to other students, so that full advantage may be taken of the residential, social and athletic opportunities offered. (Paragraphs 28 and 29.)

3. EXTENSION OF THE RESIDENTIAL SYSTEM

(16) Residential facilities should be so extended that all students will have an opportunity to share in their benefits. Common residences should be provided for students attending Universities, Central Institutions and Training Centres and Colleges. (Paragraph 30.)

4. CONTROL OF THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS ADMITTED ANNUALLY TO THE TRAINING CENTRES AND COLLEGES

(17) The number of entrants to the Training Centres and Colleges should be constantly kept in adjustment with the annual requirements of the schools. (Paragraph 31.)

IV. Recruitment of Candidates for Training from New Sources of Supply

(18) It will be necessary to have a policy of recruitment and training that breaks away from accepted practice. Delay in the institution of compulsory day continuation classes must not prevent the recruitment of men and women with the unusual gifts which will be required for these classes. (Paragraph 32.)

1. NEW SOURCES OF SUPPLY

(19) The most fruitful source will be the young men and women who have been in the Forces. Their wide and varied experiences should be accepted as compensating to some extent for any deficiency in their academic preparation. (Paragraph 33.)

(20) Intensive efforts should be made to recruit men and women with experience in war or peace of industry or commerce. These people, together with youth welfare workers and unqualified teachers, should be given special courses of training. (Paragraph 34.)

2. ADMINISTRATIVE ARRANGEMENTS FOR DEALING WITH RECRUITS FROM THE NEW SOURCES

(21) The requirements for entrance upon training must be more flexible than for ordinary entrants, and the length and character of courses must be determined in the light of the special circumstances of each case. Special administrative machinery will be necessary. (Paragraph 35.)

(22) A Central Selection Board, and a Provincial Selection Board for each of the four provinces into which Scotland is divided for the purposes of the training of teachers, should be set up. Recommendations as to their composition are made. (Paragraphs 36, 37, 38 and 39.)

(23) The suggested functions of the Provincial Selection Boards and of the Central Selection Board are described. (Paragraphs 40 and 41.)

(24) The Selection Boards should be constituted immediately to deal with applications from men and women now being released from war service. (Paragraph 42.)

3. CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION TO TRAINING FOR RECRUITS FROM THE NEW SOURCES

(25) The following rules should apply to applications for admission to training :—

- (a) The normal qualifications for admission to Chapter IV and Chapter VI courses should be those prescribed in the Regulations ;
- (b) Applicants without these qualifications and those with additional qualifications should be interviewed by a Provincial Selection Board ; a report should be made to the Provincial Selection Board by the authorities of a Physical Training College upon candidates for a qualification to teach Physical Education ;
- (c) Applicants without the necessary qualifications should be required to sit a special examination, but the Board may recommend admission without examination ;
- (d) The general standard of the examination should be determined by the Central Selection Board, but the work of setting and correcting examinations should be performed by the Provincial Selection Boards ;
- (e) Arrangements should be made for preparatory tutorial courses ;
- (f) Candidates admitted to training should be on probation for one term.

(Paragraph 43.)

(26) Modifications of entrance requirements may be necessary for skilled craftsmen required for day schools and day continuation classes. (Paragraph 44.)

(27) Universities and Central Institutions should be invited to make appropriate concessions in their matriculation requirements. (Paragraph 45.)

4. COURSES OF TRAINING FOR RECRUITS FROM THE NEW SOURCES

(28) For men who hold the Teacher's General Certificate teaching is virtually a graduate profession. A large proportion of ex-Service men will probably desire to graduate. An early approach should be made to the Universities with regard to the conferment during and after the emergency of degrees in Arts and Science after shortened courses upon students with war service. For these the professional training should be reduced to two terms. If the Universities provide shortened degree courses the total length of preparation will normally be two years and two terms. (Paragraph 46.)

(29) Graduation should not be insisted upon for all ex-Service men. A non-graduate course should be offered, and, in order to safeguard the prospects of the men concerned, the total duration of the course should not be shorter than that for men who graduate, *i.e.*, two years and two terms. Non-graduate men should be enabled to obtain qualifications under Article 39 of the Regulations. (Paragraph 47.)

(30) Facilities should be provided by the Education Authorities and the Universities to enable non-graduate men teachers to graduate later if they so desire. They should be eligible for grants under the "Further Education and Training Scheme." (Paragraph 48.)

(31) The general arrangements for taking account of war service should be that a course of two years or more may be shortened by not more than a year, and a course of less than two years by half of its length to not less than two terms. (Paragraph 49.)

(32) Detailed recommendations are made as to the length and nature of emergency courses of training for the various categories of entrants. (Paragraph 50.)

(33) If an acute shortage of teachers develops, students should be released for service in the schools after completing only part of their courses, and should finish their courses after the pressure is past. (Paragraph 51.)

5. CONDITIONS OF SERVICE FOR RECRUITS FROM NEW SOURCES

(34) Age and length of war service should be taken into account in placing on the salary scales teachers who enter the profession at an age above the normal, and also where seniority affects promotion. Their position as regards pension should be safeguarded. (Paragraphs 52 and 53.)

(35) Teachers who were not accepted for admission to training before proceeding on war service should be put in as good a position as regards the reckoning of war service for pension purposes as those who were so accepted. (Paragraph 54.)

6. APPEAL TO POSSIBLE RECRUITS FROM THE NEW SOURCES

(36) A widespread appeal for recruits for the teaching profession will be necessary, and expert advice should be sought as to the best methods of bringing the claims of the profession to the notice of potential recruits. Some suggestions are made as to the methods of appeal. (Paragraph 55.)

7. COURSES WHICH SHOULD BE OFFERED BEFORE THE END OF THE WAR AND DURING THE DEMOBILIZATION PERIOD

(37) Correspondence courses should be arranged for prisoners of war. Special courses and correspondence courses for men and women in the Forces should be instituted before and during the demobilization period through the educational services of the Forces. Provincial Committees should provide vacation and evening courses for unqualified teachers recommended by Education Authorities. To facilitate these arrangements, Selection Boards should be constituted at once. (Paragraphs 56 and 57.)

V. Release of Teachers and Intending Teachers from War Service

(38) High priority should be given to the demobilization of teachers and intending teachers. (Paragraph 58.)

VI. Employment of Married Women Teachers

(39) Education Authorities will have to employ as many married women teachers as possible in the early post-war period. In placing on the salary scales women returning to service, regard should be had to the scale on which they were previously paid. Grievances arising under the Superannuation Scheme in cases where re-employed married women receive smaller salaries than at the time of their former retirement should be removed by the payment of appropriate bonuses. The success of the post-war advances in education will be jeopardized if an adequate number of married women are not employed. (Paragraphs 59, 60 and 61.)

VII. Employment of Teachers beyond the Retiring Age

(40) It will be necessary to obtain the services of teachers beyond the retiring age. The provision for the reduction of the pensions of teachers who return to teaching after retirement should be suspended until the shortage of teachers is past. Teachers who desire to make an allocation of pension should be allowed to undergo the medical examination at 60 irrespective of whether they propose to retire at once or to remain in service for a further period. (Paragraphs 62, 63 and 64.)

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The members of the Council unanimously record their debt of gratitude to Mr. Grainger Stewart, their Secretary, and to the Assistant Secretary, Mr. Davidson, for their unflagging industry and skilful assistance in the preparation of this Report.

We have the honour to be, Sir,

Your obedient Servants,

(Signed) W. HAMILTON FYFE,

Chairman

GARNET WILSON,

Vice-Chairman

AGNES M. ALLISON

WILLIAM BARRY

E. P. CATHCART

JOHN B. CLARK

ERNEST GREENHILL

GUY LLOYD

WILLIAM McCLELLAND

BRIDGET McEWEN

PATRICK McGEE

NEIL MACLEAN

R. C. T. MAIR

ADAM M. MILLAR

AGNES B. MUIR

RONALD M. MUNRO.

J. E. S. NISBET

W. D. RITCHIE

J. J. ROBERTSON

J. ROTHNIE

J. CAMERON SMAIL

W. CRAMPTON SMITH

J. HENDERSON STEWART

ETNA J. TAYLOR

ROBERT TAYLOR

T. GRAINGER STEWART, *Secretary*

A. DAVIDSON, *Assistant Secretary*

St. Andrew's House, Edinburgh, 1.

30th November, 1943.

APPENDIX I
INTERIM REPORT
ON THE
RECRUITMENT AND SUPPLY OF TEACHERS

To the RT. HON. THOMAS JOHNSTON, M.P.,
Secretary of State for Scotland.

SIR,

I have the honour to submit the following Interim Report on behalf of the Advisory Council, by whom it has been unanimously approved :—

1. On 11th February, 1943, you remitted to the Council—" To consider whether the existing arrangements for the recruitment and supply of teachers in Scotland are adequate, and to make recommendations."

2. We hope in the near future to present a report giving our estimate of the extent of the problem of the future supply of teachers, and later to give you a report on the various means whereby the teaching profession may be made more attractive to the best types of men and women and its status improved and on additional sources from which the supply of teachers may be drawn. But our investigations have already convinced us that we should submit immediately a recommendation for the improvement of teachers' salaries without which, we have assured ourselves, our recommendations in other directions would inevitably fail.

We accordingly recommend that for all categories of teachers there should be a substantial increase in salary, and that the number of years which elapses before a teacher reaches the maximum of his salary scale should be materially reduced.

We make this recommendation with the object of obtaining a permanent improvement in the supply of teachers both in quantity and in quality. The number of persons entering the teaching profession before the war was steadily declining: the salaries payable to teachers are often lower than those paid in other professions which require a comparable training for entry. The Council are convinced that without a substantial increase in supply the schools will be unable satisfactorily to meet the demands which will be made upon them after the war, demands which would be increased by the raising of the school leaving age or by the institution of compulsory day continued education, or by both of these measures; and that the supply cannot be increased without improvement of the salary scales.

3. We consider it of first importance that the improved salary scales should be prepared at the earliest possible date, so as to be ready to be brought into operation immediately on the conclusion of hostilities. Otherwise, when men and women in His Majesty's Forces and in other forms of war work begin to think seriously of what to do after the war, the teaching profession will have little chance of securing suitable candidates in competition with other occupations. Moreover, so far as young women at present permitted by the Minister of Labour and National Service to begin training are concerned, three or four years must elapse before any improvement in the number of entrants can make itself felt in the schools.

4. We realize that it may be difficult to reach agreement on questions of detail, and that the tendency will be for the necessary negotiations to be prolonged. We regard the need for an early improvement in salaries as being so pressing that the purpose of our recommendation would be defeated by unduly prolonged negotiations.

5. We recommend that the opportunity should be taken to reconsider the basis upon which responsibility payments are calculated and to examine the question of the substitution of Standard National Scales for Minimum National Scales. We understand that the present arrangements are not satisfactory in either respect.

6. We appreciate that expenditure upon teachers' salaries is by far the heaviest item which Education Authorities are obliged to meet, and we are conscious that our recommendation will make a still heavier call on the public purse. There is, however, no room for doubt that an adequate staff of teachers is a basic and indispensable condition of the maintenance and improvement of the standard of education in the schools of Scotland. It is our considered opinion that the supply of teachers cannot be increased or even maintained unless an early and substantial improvement is made in the remuneration of the teaching profession.

I have the honour to be, Sir,

Your obedient servant,

(Signed) W. HAMILTON FYFE,
Chairman.

14th June, 1943.

APPENDIX II

LIST OF BODIES AND INDIVIDUALS WHO GAVE ORAL EVIDENCE OR
SUBMITTED MEMORANDA OR OTHERWISE ASSISTED THE COUNCIL

Association of Councils of Counties of Cities in Scotland.
 Association of County Councils in Scotland.
 Education Committee of Banff County Council.
 Education Committee of Moray and Nairn Joint County Council.
 National Committee for the Training of Teachers.

University of St. Andrews.
 University of Glasgow.
 University of Aberdeen.
 University of Edinburgh,

Governors of Dundee Institute of Art and Technology.
 Council of Edinburgh College of Domestic Science.
 Governors of Glasgow and West of Scotland College of Domestic Science.
 Governors of Robert Gordon's Colleges, Aberdeen.
 Governors of George Heriot's Trust, Edinburgh.
 Governors of Heriot-Watt College, Edinburgh.
 Governors of the Royal Technical College, Glasgow.

Staff of Aberdeen Training Centre.
 Classical Association of Scotland.
 Association of Directors of Education in Scotland.
 Educational Institute of Scotland.
 Institute of Handicraft Teachers.
 Association of Headmasters of Senior Secondary Schools.
 Association of Headmistresses (Scottish Branch).
 Scottish League for Physical Education (Women).
 Scottish Schoolmasters Association.
 Women's Educational Union.

Scottish Women's Group on Public Welfare.
 Student Christian Movement of Great Britain and Ireland.
 National Council of Women of Great Britain.
 British Association of Chemists.
 Royal Institute of Chemistry.

Scottish District of the Communist Party.
 Central Council of the Scottish Unionist Association.

J. Jardine, Esq., O.B.E.
 T. A. Joynt, Esq.
 A. Lang, Esq., H.M. Senior Chief Inspector of Schools.
 J. C. Smith, Esq., C.B.E., D.LITT.

APPENDIX III

MEMORANDUM

BY

T. A. JOYNT, Esq., M.A.,

APPOINTMENTS SECRETARY, UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH,

ON

SALARIES, ETC., OF PERSONS WHOSE TRAINING AND ACADEMICAL QUALIFICATIONS ARE COMPARABLE WITH THOSE OF TEACHERS

INTRODUCTION

1. I find it difficult to provide anything in the nature of a comparative statistical summary. The difficulty is that, apart from the Civil Service and Teaching, scale salaries are unusual; even in the larger business firms, for example, initial salaries vary from firm to firm, and even in the same firm each entrant does not necessarily receive the same salary. Increments, too, and promotion are seldom a matter of course and are usually dependent on personal qualities, which may bear little relationship to academic qualifications. The best I can do is to give a general picture of the position as I have found it in the course of my experience of appointments work during the inter-war period.

2. I have in mind, in the first place, Arts, Science and Commerce graduates, and it will be convenient to distinguish between men and women graduates and also between honours and ordinary graduates.

MEN GRADUATES (HONOURS)

3. Apart from teaching, the more usual careers which have been followed have been in the Civil Service and in Commerce and Industry.

4. The Civil Service entrants have generally entered (a) the Home Civil Service in the Administrative Grade* and in the Departmental Grades of Third-Class Officer in the Ministry of Labour and Assistant Inspector of Taxes in the Inland Revenue Department, and (b) the Indian Civil Service and the Colonial Administrative Service.

5. In regard to appointments in Commerce and Industry, a distinction should be drawn between administrative appointments and scientific and technical appointments.

6. During recent years an increasing number of the larger business firms operating at home and overseas have recruited from the Universities essentially the same type of man as is recruited for the Civil Service. (Not all of those actually recruited from Edinburgh have been honours graduates, but the ordinary graduates taken have been of honours type.) The initial salaries paid have been normally not less than £250 per annum, and in most cases the men have been eligible for bonuses from the end of their first year. As to prospects, these depend largely on the man, but generally speaking firms are only interested in men whom they expect to be able to hold a post of at least £1,000 per annum within a very few years.

7. The greater number of our scientists, e.g. chemists, have entered industry in recent years. Here initial salaries vary considerably; they are seldom below £250 and may be as high as £300, but the higher figure has usually only been paid to the man holding a Ph.D. Degree. Prospects also vary considerably, but in most cases £500 can usually be earned within a few years.

8. I may remark incidentally that, although the risk in Commerce and Industry is greater than, for example, in the Civil Service and in teaching, with the larger concerns it is not appreciably so; in these concerns, also, there are usually adequate superannuation provisions.

MEN GRADUATES (ORDINARY)

9. It is more difficult to generalize in regard to ordinary graduates in Arts, as the majority have in fact entered teaching, apart from those who have taken the degree as a preliminary to, for example, Divinity or Law and the few mentioned above who entered the Civil Service or business.

10. In the inter-war period an increasing number of men were attracted to the Degree of Bachelor of Commerce. Many of these entered commercial employment, usually in smaller firms and at rather lower salaries than those mentioned above—£180-£200 would

* Scales are given in Appendix IV, Table 2-

be a fair average initial salary—and, although there have been a number of failures, most have made good and were holding posts of £500 or £600 and over within, say, ten years of graduation. (The figures may in fact be much higher, as it is not always easy to learn a man's income after the first year or two.) Many of the remainder have entered on the profession of Accountancy. After apprenticeship, they have usually taken posts in London at approximately £200–£250 for experience. Some have then gone into business firms as accountants, and others have continued in the profession to become partners. I cannot attempt any generalization regarding their later income.

11. I have made no attempt above to compare initial salaries and prospects in the careers, other than teaching, normally entered by men taking degrees in Arts, Science and Commerce with those of men who qualify as lawyers or doctors or with those who take the Higher Leaving Certificate at school and go straight into Banking, Insurance, etc.

SUMMING UP AS REGARDS MEN

12. If I were to attempt to generalize at all, my view would be that on the whole salaries and prospects for men in teaching compare unfavourably with those in most other directions, even when allowance is made for the greater element of risk, *e.g.* in business, or for the longer and more costly training, *e.g.* in Accountancy, Law and Medicine. Allowing for the cost of training, they are probably also low when compared with earnings of successful candidates for the Higher Leaving Certificate who enter employment immediately on leaving school, but on this I feel more doubtful.

WOMEN GRADUATES

13. I need not distinguish between honours and ordinary graduates, as, with the exception of a relatively few honours graduates who entered the Civil Service, most of them as Third-Class Officers in the Ministry of Labour, Honours and Ordinary graduates have in the main followed the same careers apart from teaching.

14. During the inter-war years there was a very considerable development of opportunities for the educated woman, mainly in what may generally be described as secretarial and business appointments and in social work, and both lines were attracting an increasing percentage of women students.

15. It is almost impossible to generalize in regard to salaries and prospects. Broadly speaking, the normal initial figure which could be expected, *e.g.* in London, by the graduate, following a secretarial training, was £150–£180, but there were opportunities of advancement for the woman of drive, who was on the look-out for the main chance. As a good private secretary she could get £250–£300 within a relatively short time. Many of the best people, too, after a few years' experience moved into general organizing secretarial work with salaries from £300 to £400. In general executive appointments in business, which were normally entered by the Commerce graduates, the initial salary was somewhat similar and the prospects dependent on the individual. Without suggesting that they are typical, I know of several women who have reached £300–£400 and even £500 within six to ten years after graduation.

16. The salaries paid in social work were on the whole low. An initial salary of £200 was exceptional and could only be expected in Hospital Almoning and House Property Management, in Labour Management and in some lines, *e.g.* Girls' Club work, salaries of £100–£120 were not unknown. Prospects, also, were not very good, as the number of appointments carrying a salary of £250–£350 was very small. During the years immediately preceding the war, however, a very definite upward tendency was evident and has been continued since the war. For example, just before the war salaries of £150 were becoming not uncommon in Girls' Club work, which was one of the least well-paid forms of social work, with corresponding improvement in other directions. The number of senior posts carrying salaries of £400–£600 per annum was increasing steadily, more particularly in Labour Management, and quite a few of our graduates had obtained these posts within a few years after completing their training.

17. I ought to add that most women who sought employment outside of teaching found their opportunities in England, where salaries have always been higher than for similar appointments in Scotland.

SUMMING UP AS REGARDS WOMEN

18. If I were to attempt a comparison between salaries and prospects for women in teaching and in other directions, I should be inclined to say that for the woman without much drive teaching offered a safer career and probably better prospects. For the woman with drive there were prospects of reaching a salary above the top, for example, of the normal scale for primary school teachers at an earlier age, but with the risk that, if she were unlucky, she might be less well off than in teaching.

CONCLUSION

19. The fact that women were prepared to face that risk suggests—and this is equally true of men, perhaps more so—that an increase in salary scales alone will not serve to stimulate recruitment to the teaching profession.

20. I would add that in all that I have written above I have had in mind salaries in force before the war. As I have mentioned, however, there has been an upward tendency in the salaries paid to women in directions normally entered by graduates other than teaching, irrespective of war bonuses. Some account should also be taken of the new scales, *e.g.* in nursing, which may serve to attract those who take the Senior Leaving Certificate and who might otherwise proceed to the University.

APPENDIX IV

PARTICULARS OF SALARIES PAID IN THE TEACHING AND IN SOME COMPARABLE PROFESSIONS

TABLE 1
TEACHING.

The following table is extracted from the Minimum National Scales (Scotland) Regulations, 1939, and gives the basic scales of salaries for certificated teachers. Some Education Authorities pay larger salaries than are prescribed in the scales.

	Men	Women
1. Certificated teachers.	£150 by £10 to £250.	£130 by £5 to £150, and by £10 to £200.
2. Certificated teachers recognised as trained for three years.	£160 by £10 to £280.	£140 by £5 to £150, and by £10 to £210.
3. Certificated teachers recognised as trained for four years.	£180 by £10 to £300.	£160 by £10 to £230.
4. Certificated teachers who are graduates or who obtained the L.L.A. Diploma of St. Andrews University in or before 1895.	£200 by £10 to £300, and by £15 to £360.	£180 by £10 to £300.
5. Holders, and persons deemed by the Department to be holders, of the Teacher's Special Certificate other than the Special Certificate awarded under Chapter VI of the Regulations for the Training of Teachers, 1906 to 1920, if employed in teaching their special subjects in secondary divisions, or if employed as head teachers. If not so employed, Scale 4 shall apply.	£250 by £10 to £310, and by £15 to £400.	£200 by £10 to £350.

In addition to basic salaries, responsibility payments are made to head teachers, to heads of departments of schools and, in schools with not less than six teachers, to infant mistresses. The number of head teachers of Education Authority or non-Education Authority grant-aided schools in receipt of inclusive salaries of £1,000 a year or more is twenty-one. The highest salary is £1,500, and the next highest is £1,286. The highest salary paid to the head teacher of an Education Authority school is £1,150. The range of responsibility payments to heads of departments as shown in the approved schemes of salaries of the various Education Authorities is £20 to £150. There are, however, cases of individual posts with inclusive salaries which may be regarded as including responsibility payments in excess of £150.

TABLE 2
ADMINISTRATIVE GRADE OF THE CIVIL SERVICE

	Men	Women
1. Assistant Principals.	£265, £290, £310, and by £30 to £610.	£265, £290, £310, and by £25 to £495.
2. Principals.	£775 by £30 to £1,060.	£680 by £30 to £910.
3. Assistant Secretaries.	£1,100 by £50 to £1,450.	£950 by £50 to £1,275.
4. Principal Assistant Secretaries.	£1,650.	£1,475.

The scales given are those applicable to Edinburgh and Glasgow.

TABLE 3
MEDICAL OFFICERS OF LOCAL AUTHORITIES

SCALE OF MINIMUM COMMENCING SALARIES RECOMMENDED BY THE BRITISH
MEDICAL ASSOCIATION FOR APPLICATION TO SCOTTISH APPOINTMENTS

RESIDENT MEDICAL OFFICERS.

Definition.—These are Medical Officers employed in Hospitals, Sanatoria, or other Institutions, without the responsibility for the work of other Medical Officers.

Note.—Where the Appointing Authority limits the appointment to a term not exceeding one year and not renewable, this salary shall not apply, nor shall it apply to officers without previous professional experience.

£250 to £400 plus emoluments (board, lodging and laundry).

MEDICAL OFFICERS EMPLOYED IN DEPARTMENTS. (Working directly under a Senior Medical Officer.)

Definition.—These are Medical Officers without responsibility for the work of other Medical Officers, but who shall have had at least three years' experience in the practice of their profession subsequent to obtaining a registrable qualification.

£500, rising by annual increments of £25 to a maximum of £700.

SENIOR MEDICAL OFFICERS (not being Medical Officers of Health) in charge of Services or Departments (for example, Port Sanitation, School Medical Service, Tuberculosis, Mental Deficiency, Maternity and Child Welfare, Venereal Disease, or any other similar service or Department or combination thereof), and Medical Superintendents of Hospitals, Sanatoria, or other Institutions.

£750 to £1,100, according to responsibility and scope of Department, regard being had to the relation of the officer's salary to that of the Medical Officer of Health.

DEPUTY OR CHIEF ASSISTANT MEDICAL OFFICER (Hospitals, Sanatoria, or other Institutions or Departments).

A salary equal to 60 per cent. of salary of Medical Superintendent or Senior Medical Officer in charge, but not less than the salary of a Medical Officer employed in a Department.

CHIEF MEDICAL OFFICERS OF HEALTH.

Population:—

Not exceeding 50,000.

Not exceeding 100,000.

Not exceeding 250,000.

Exceeding 250,000.

Note.—A minimum commencing salary of not less than £700 may be recognized in county areas with a population not exceeding 25,000 where co-ordination with an adjoining area is not possible.

£800—£900.
£900—£1,100.
£1,100—£1,400.
£1,400—£1,600.

TABLE 4
PUBLIC DENTAL SERVICE

SALARIES RECOMMENDED BY THE NATIONAL DENTAL SERVICE COMMITTEE OF THE
BRITISH DENTAL ASSOCIATION FOR FULL-TIME PUBLIC DENTAL SERVICE

Assistant Dental Officer.	£450, rising to £650 within a period of not more than eight years.
Single-handed Officer.	£500, rising to £700 within a period of not more than eight years.
Chief Dental Officer with one or two Assistant Officers.	£600, rising to £800 within a period of not more than eight years.
Chief Dental Officer with from three to seven Assistant Officers.	£700, rising to £900 within a period of not more than eight years.
Chief Dental Officer with eight or more Assistant Officers.	£800, rising to £1,000 within a period of not more than eight years.

TABLE 5
NURSING

SOME OF THE STANDARD NATIONAL SCALES RECOMMENDED BY
THE SCOTTISH NURSES' SALARIES COMMITTEE

	Salary	Value of Emoluments *
Student Nurses in General Hospitals— 1st Year. 2nd Year. 3rd Year. 4th Year until State Registered. 4th Year after State Registered.	£40 £45 £50 £60 £70	£75.
Staff Nurses in General Hospitals.	£100 by £10 to £120.	£90.
Theatre Sisters in General Hospitals.	£125 by £10 to £155.	£100.
Ward Sisters in General Hospitals.	£130 by £10 to £160 with £170 (7th Year) and £180 (10th Year), plus long-service increment of £20 (16th Year).	£100.
Qualified Assistant Sister-Tutors in General Hospitals.	£200 by £10 to £250.	£120.
Qualified Sister-Tutors in sole charge of General Hospitals.	£230 by £10 to £280.	£120.
Qualified Senior Sister-Tutors in charge of two or more Sister-Tutors in General Hospitals.	£250 by £10 to £350.	£120.
Assistant Matrons in General Hospitals. (Approved Training Schools.)	From— 10-199 beds, £200 by £15 to £245, To— 500-999 beds, range of £275 to £375 with four annual increments of £15 within the range.	Up to 499 beds, £120. 500 beds and over, £150.

* Emoluments mean board, lodging and laundry. The customary uniforms are to be supplied free of charge for the use of all classes of nurses.

TABLE 5
NURSING (continued)

	Salary	Value of Emoluments
Matrons in General Hospitals. (Approved Training Schools.)	From— Under 100 beds, £250 by £15 to £325, To— 1,000 beds and over, range of £500 to £700 with five annual increments of £30 within the range.	Up to 499 beds, £150. 500 beds and over, £200.
Health Visitors, School Nurses and Tuberculosis Domiciliary Nurses.	£250 by £10 to £280 with £290 (7th year) and £300 (10th year) plus long-service in- crement of £20 (16th year).	

TABLE 6
ARCHITECTURE

SCALE OF ANNUAL SALARIES APPROVED BY THE COUNCIL OF THE
ROYAL INSTITUTE OF BRITISH ARCHITECTS

Architectural Assistants— Scale applicable to staffs of Public and Municipal Offices and of Commercial Undertakings, and to Private Practice. (a) Architectural Assistants. (b) Senior Architectural Assistants. (c) Managing Architectural Assistants.	£210 to £325. £325 to £450. £450 to £600.
Architects—who function in an executive capacity— (a) Assistant Architects. (b) Deputy Architects. (c) Chief Architects.	£500 to £1,250 £750 to £1,800. £1,000 to £2,500.

TABLE 7
BRITISH ASSOCIATION OF CHEMISTS

MINIMUM SALARIES RECOMMENDED BY COUNCIL OF ASSOCIATION

Graduates without industrial experience.	£300.
Graduates with two years' experience in chemical industry and with equivalent industrial experience.	£400.
Research Chemists.	£500 to £750.
Works Managers.	£600 to £850.

TABLE 8.

ROYAL INSTITUTE OF CHEMISTRY

In the summer of 1942 the Institute issued cards to 6,884 members. The following statistical table is compiled from 5,364 cards which were returned in time to be included in the analysis.

Age	Under £250	£250 to £299	£300 to £349	£350 to £399	£400 to £449	£450, to £499.	£500 to £549	£550 to £599	£600 to £699	£700 to £799	£800 to £899	£900 to £999	£1,000 to £1,200	£1,200 to £1,400	£1,400 to £1,600	Over £1,600	Total	Average remunera- tion £
21-25	29	88	83	39	15	4	2	3	1	264	323
25-30	14	100	223	212	171	101	60	25	22	12	..	1	941	397
30-35	5	24	78	131	128	107	88	56	87	46	15	9	9	5	3	1	792	506
35-40	2	9	23	64	114	87	108	78	124	60	52	22	43	12	5	7	810	615
40-45	3	4	18	28	69	81	83	58	131	96	61	58	65	24	15	42	836	741
45-50	1	3	8	8	28	27	52	37	61	53	41	34	56	19	10	40	478	820
50-60	2	2	5	11	16	35	41	38	74	65	50	40	75	46	24	94	618	936
Over 60	1	3	2	4	5	6	11	8	21	20	23	7	22	20	13	43	209	1,014
Total	57	233	440	497	546	448	445	303	520	352	242	171	271	126	70	227	4,948	

Serving in Forces, 109. Retired, 239.
Employer, or in Private Practice, 27 (with no sum indicated).
Unemployed, 33. Unclassifiable, 8.

APPENDIX V

EMERGENCY WAR DEGREES AND SHORTENED
UNIVERSITY COURSES

A. General

1. The Chartered and Other Bodies (Temporary Provisions) Act, 1939 *, empowers His Majesty, on the application of any University, by Order in Council, to make provision for enabling emergency ordinances for the University to be made, varied and revoked by the University, in such manner and for such purposes as may appear to His Majesty to be necessary or expedient, having regard to circumstances arising out of war conditions. The Act is to remain in force until such date as His Majesty may by Order in Council declare to be the date on which the emergency that was the occasion of the passing of the Act came to an end. Any Order in Council made under the Act may enable emergency ordinances to continue in operation notwithstanding the expiry of the Act until any date not later than one year after that expiry.

2. The Scottish Universities made an application under the Act, and the Scottish Universities (Temporary Provisions) Order, 1940†, was made. This Order enabled the University Court of any of the Scottish Universities to make emergency ordinances applicable to that University for a number of purposes. These included—

- (1) the waiver or suspension of any provisions as to the period of residence or study or attendance at courses required to qualify any person to proceed to any degree, diploma, or certificate, or the recognition for the purpose of the requirements of the University of any period of residence or study or attendance at courses elsewhere :
- (2) the waiver or suspension of any provisions, the operation of which would place any person at a disadvantage through undertaking or having undertaken war service :
- (3) the recognition of war service by allowances and exemptions in the matter of -terms, examinations, remittance of fees and otherwise :
- (4) such provisions of a similar nature to any of the foregoing as may seem to be required to prevent any loss or injustice, and to meet exigencies due to circumstances attributable directly or indirectly to the existence of a state of war.

The expression " war service " means service during the period of the present emergency in any of the naval, military or air forces of the Crown, or any service during that period which in the opinion of the Treasury may properly be treated for the purposes of the Order in the same manner as service in those forces.

B. University of St. Andrews

3. On 26th July, 1940, the University Court of the University of St. Andrews made an Emergency Ordinance ‡ which empowered the Senatus, with the approval of the Court, in the case of candidates for Degrees, Diplomas or Certificates where courses have been interrupted by war service, to waive the requirements of the existing Ordinances in so far as such Ordinances prescribe courses of study, periods of attendance, and examinations.

4. In the exercise of these powers the University have instituted the following Degrees in the Faculty of Arts :—

- (1) A Degree for women students who are not allowed by the Ministry of Labour and National Service to attend for more than two years, consisting of three approved General Subjects and two approved Special Subjects.
- (2) A Degree after passes in six subjects, one of which must be on the Special Standard. This Degree is conferred only after one year's approved National Service.

5. So far as the Faculty of Science is concerned the University have instituted a Degree which is conferred after the candidate has passed five subjects, one of which must be on the Second Science Standard. This Degree is conferred after one year's approved National Service.

6. The University does not grant unclassified Honours Degrees, but arrangements are in hand for awarding an Honours Degree after a shortened Course to women students who are not able to complete the usual Honours Degree.

C. University of Glasgow

7. On 29th July, 1940, the University Court of the University of Glasgow made an Emergency Ordinance § which provided that notwithstanding the provisions of the existing

* 2 & 3 Geo. 6. c. 119.

† S.R. & O., 1940, No. 319/S16.

‡ Emergency Ordinance of the University Court of the University of St. Andrews, No. 2.

§ Emergency Ordinance of the University Court of the University of Glasgow, No. 2.

Ordinances the Senatus should have power, in the case of candidates who have undertaken war service, to determine with the approval of the University Court the curricula, periods of study and examinations which shall qualify for Degrees in the several Faculties.

8. The arrangements made by the Senatus under this Emergency Ordinance for the conferring of emergency war Degrees in Arts and Science on those who are already members of the University are as follows :—

- (1) A War Ordinary Degree is conferred on a student who (a) has completed two years of residence, (b) has completed one year of war service, and (c) has passed the Degree examinations in six approved subjects.
- (2) A War Honours Degree may be conferred on a student who (a) has completed more than two years of an honours course, (b) has completed one year of war service, and (c) has, by his performance, given the Senate clear ground for assuming that he would have obtained at least second-class honours by examination.
- (3) Regulation (1) above has been exceptionally extended to women Arts entrants of 1943 who, being over 18 years of age, are allowed only a two-year course under the Ministry of Labour's regulations; in their case a year of training for teaching or social service, followed by appointment to a post, will be recognized as equivalent to the war service required under (b).
- (4) Regulation (2) above has similarly been exceptionally extended to women Arts entrants of 1943 aiming at honours who, being over 17 years of age, are allowed only a three-year course.

D. University of Aberdeen

9. On 9th July, 1940, the University Court of the University of Aberdeen made an Emergency Ordinance * which empowered the Court from time to time after consultation with the Senatus Academicus to modify or suspend the application to graduates, students or intending students who are or have been engaged on war service, of the specified sections of certain Ordinances cited in Schedule I to the Emergency Ordinance. Among the Ordinances cited were those relating to Degrees in Arts and Science. The sections relevant to this Report which might be modified or suspended were those relating to the length of courses and subjects to be included in the curriculum.

10. On 13th July, 1943, a further Emergency Ordinance † was made which provided that during the present emergency the University Court after consultation with the Senatus Academicus should have power to reduce the period of residence and study for the Degrees of M.A. and B.Sc. to not less than two academical years.

11. Briefly stated, the Regulations for War Degrees in Arts made under these Ordinances are as follows :—

- (1) The candidate must have attended six courses and passed the Degree examinations therein, provided that three of the compulsions of the Aberdeen Degree are included in the six courses.
- (2) He must have attended at least two years at the University.
- (3) He must have attended at the University and in war service as defined by the Scottish Universities (Temporary Provisions) Order, 1940, for a total period of at least three years.

12. A Pass Degree in Arts may also be given to a student who has completed one year in war service and has attended for two years at the University with a view to taking an Honours Degree, provided he has passed the Degree examinations in six courses inclusive of two advanced courses in the Honours group.

13. Women students entering the University in October, 1943, over 18 years of age may take the War Degree under the conditions mentioned above exclusive of one year's war service, but with a supplementary paper in each of three of the subjects of the six courses included in their curriculum, the work for the supplementary papers to be done in the summer vacation, and the supplementary papers to be each in a subject of a course already attended.

14. A student returning from war service and taking an honours examination who fails to reach the standard required for a Third-Class may be awarded a Pass Degree.

15. A Pass Degree may be granted in Pure Science to a student who has passed the first Science examination and two subsidiary examinations and has satisfied the following conditions :—

- (1) That he has attended six courses and passed the Degree examinations therein.
- (2) That he has attended at least two years at the University.
- (3) That he has spent at the University and in war service a total period of at least three years.

* Emergency Ordinance of the University Court of the University of Aberdeen, No. 2.

† Emergency Ordinance of the University Court of the University of Aberdeen, No. 4.

16. A student returning from war service will be permitted to take an Honours Degree in Pure Science in three years.

17. A Pass Degree in Pure Science may be awarded to a student where performance does not seem to justify the granting of an Honours Degree.

18. In Applied Science (including Agriculture, Forestry and Engineering), a student may be exempted from the last term of study, *i.e.* a total attendance in the University of eight terms.

19. Students entering the Faculty of Science in 1943 who are permitted to remain at the University until December, 1945, will take the ordinary course of nine terms in Pure Science or Applied Science as the case may be, and will attend two of these terms in the Summer vacations of 1944 and 1945. To qualify for a Degree they must pass the Degree examinations in all subjects.

E. University of Edinburgh

20. On 1st July, 1940, the University Court of the University of Edinburgh made an Emergency Ordinance * which empowered the Senatus, with the approval of the Court, in the case of candidates for Degrees whose courses of study have been interrupted by war service, to waive the requirements of the existing Ordinances in so far as such Ordinances prescribe courses of study, periods of attendance and examinations.

21. Under this Ordinance the Senatus have made Regulations for Emergency (War) Degrees in the Faculties of Arts and Science. The principal points with which this Report is concerned are as follows:—

- (1) *Period of War Service.*—Candidates for the award of Emergency (War) Degrees must have spent not less than twelve months in approved war service †.
- (2) *Periods of Attendance.*—The requirements of attendances and examinations may be fulfilled before going on war service, or after completion of war service, or may be begun before war service and completed on return to the University.
- (3) *Proceeding to a normal Degree.*—A candidate who qualified for a Degree under these Regulations may proceed subsequently to the same Degree, Ordinary or Honours, under the normal Regulations.
- (4) Graduating students in the Faculty of Arts who have satisfied the requirements of war service will be eligible for the award of Degrees subject to the following conditions:—
 - (a) Ordinary Degree of M.A.—A candidate must *either* (i) have attended qualifying classes at the University during two years, and have completed a normal course of study for that period, including at least five courses, with the corresponding Degree examinations, as approved by the Dean of the Faculty; *or* (ii) have given qualifying attendance and completed the Degree examinations in at least six courses, as approved by the Dean of the Faculty.
 - (b) Honours Degree of M.A.—A candidate for an unclassified Honours Degree without a final Honours examination must have (i) attended qualifying classes at the University during not less than three years; (ii) passed an Intermediate Honours examination or reached an equivalent standard at the end of the second year; (iii) subsequently attended Honours courses during not less than one year, which may, for this purpose, be interpreted as two terms. He must (iv) obtain from the heads of the departments concerned a statement that, had he taken a normal Honours examination at the end of a fourth year, he would have been likely to obtain at least Second-Class Honours.
- (5) The Ordinary Degree of M.A. may be awarded to a candidate otherwise eligible for an unclassified Honours Degree under the foregoing provision whose performance does not satisfy the requirements stated in sub-paragraph (4) (b) (iv).

* Emergency Ordinance of the University Court of the University of Edinburgh, No. 2.

† The phrase "approved war service" is generally taken to mean service in the Forces, but the following extensions have been approved. Early in the war it was agreed that service in the Colonial Administrative Service would be regarded as approved war service. In the course of session 1942–43 the Senatus approved that in the case of women candidates for the award of Emergency (War) Degrees the term "War Service" should be interpreted to include not only service in the Women's Auxiliary Services, but also any employment to which women may be directed under the National Service Acts, the Registration for Employment Order (Women) or other Orders issued by the Ministry of Labour and National Service. Later in the session, the Senatus also approved that appointment to a teaching post following a year of professional training would be accepted as approved war service in the case of those prospective women teachers who were entering the University in October, 1943.

(6) Graduating students in the Faculty of Science who have satisfied the requirements of war service will be eligible for the award of degrees subject to the following conditions:—

- (a) Ordinary Degree of B.Sc. in Pure Science.—A candidate must have completed a normal curriculum of two full years' attendances with the corresponding Degree examinations.
- (b) Ordinary Degree of B.Sc. in Applied Science.—No Degree in Applied Science can be awarded to a student who has not completed the normal curriculum.* But an Ordinary Degree of B.Sc. in Pure Science may be awarded to a student who has completed the first and second year of the normal curriculum with the corresponding Degree examinations, in Agriculture, Forestry, Engineering, Technical Chemistry, or Mining. In such a case, the Degree diploma will be endorsed with the Pure Science subjects included, together with the words "and other subjects not included in the curriculum in Pure Science."
- (c) Honours Degree of B.Sc. in Pure Science.—A candidate for an unclassified Honours Degree without a final Honours examination must (i) have completed the first, second and third years of the normal curriculum, with the corresponding Degree examinations, and (ii) obtain from the head of the department concerned a statement that, if he had taken a normal Honours examination at the end of a fourth year, he was likely to obtain at least Second-Class Honours. A candidate otherwise eligible for an unclassified Honours Degree whose performance does not satisfy the requirement stated in (ii) may receive the award of an Ordinary Degree of B.Sc. in Pure Science.

* Arrangements similar to those described in paragraph 19 are being made for men of the 1925 age class who entered the University in October, 1943.



COLONIAL OFFICE

Report of the Commission on Higher Education in the Colonies

*Presented by the Secretary of State for the Colonies to Parliament
by Command of His Majesty
June 1945*

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Mr. D. W. MALCOLM was Secretary until May, 1944, when he was succeeded by Mr. S. ROBINSON.

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The estimated cost of this report (including the expenses of the Commission) is £895 iis. od., of which £148 iis. od. represents the cost of printing and publication.

**REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON HIGHER EDUCATION
IN THE COLONIES**

PART I

CHAPTER I

1. Introduction

We were appointed in August, 1943, as a Commission to conduct an enquiry and make recommendations under the following terms of reference:—

“ To consider the principles which should guide the promotion of higher education, learning and research and the development of universities in the Colonies; and to explore means whereby universities and other appropriate bodies in the United Kingdom may be able to co-operate with institutions of higher education in the Colonies in order to give effect to these principles.”

In pursuance of this charge, the Commission has met 31 times; its meetings occurring, as a rule, once or twice a fortnight and occupying in each case the best part of a day. It has taken oral evidence from 21 witnesses, and received and considered written memoranda of interest and value from a great variety of sources. We have also received the utmost assistance from the deliberations of the Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies bearing on this subject. In this introductory chapter of our report our object is threefold:—

- (i) To record the construction which we place on our terms of reference.
- (ii) To indicate the method of approach which we have adopted to the problems which those terms of reference (as we read them) present.
- (iii) To foreshadow the structure of this report.

2. The terms of reference

And first, therefore, as to our terms of reference and the interpretation which we place on them.

(a) By “ higher education ” we understand post-secondary education; the type of education which in the United Kingdom and elsewhere is provided by universities, university colleges and certain other institutions discharging similar functions, and which is the successor to that afforded by secondary schools.

(b) We read the term “ Colonies ” in a liberal sense. We think for many reasons that we should construe our charge too narrowly if we confined our outlook to what used to be called “ Crown Colonies ” in the strict acceptance of that term. We apprehend that in employing the term “ Colonies ” it was intended to include in our purview the higher educational needs of persons normally resident in

- (1) the “ Colonies ”, *stricto sensu*;
- (2) British Protectorates and Protected States;
- (3) the territories over which His Majesty exercises a Mandate;
- (4) the High Commission Territories in South Africa, namely, Swaziland, Bechuanaland, and Basutoland.

And to those we would add

- (5) the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, which being subject to the “ Condominium ” falls within none of the above categories; the Government of which, through the Foreign Office, has invited us to extend our recommendations to it.

Under this head we would add that among "Colonies" we have included Malaya and Hong Kong, making assumption that these important territories will be restored to the Crown in time for our recommendations to be of more than academic interest to them. Where, therefore, in this report, the terms "Colony" or "Colonial" are used, they should be construed in the comprehensive sense above indicated.

(c) Adopting this terminology, we have next to consider the meaning to be attributed to the expression "higher education in the Colonies." We do not consider that this expression was designed to limit our purview to higher education available, or to be made available, to Colonial subjects within the territorial ambit of the respective Colonies in question.

At present higher education, so far as Colonial subjects enjoy it, is provided in point of locality in the Colonies themselves; in the United Kingdom; and to some extent in the Dominions and in India. We conceive that we should in this connection construe "higher education in the Colonies" as comprising facilities for higher education available for Colonial subjects without any strict limitation as to locality: and we have framed our report on that assumption.

3. The general method of approach to the problems posed in the terms of reference

We have been invited primarily to deal with "principles".

(a) We take this invitation, on the one hand, as exhorting us to abstain from the (virtually impossible) task of enumerating, and dealing specifically and in detail with the particular and infinitely various needs in respect of higher education of individual Colonies. Such an enquiry, even if possible, would, we feel, be foreign to the intention with which our Commission was constituted. It would "exhaust Time, and trench upon Eternity".

(b) On the other hand, we think we should equally defeat that intention if we confined ourselves to a bare recital of generalities and ignored the special application which any general principles must bear to certain large areas, the problems of which are individual and peculiar. If we relegated ourselves to so jejune a task, our recommendations would be brief, perfunctory, and infructuous. In this matter, as in so many others, a balance must be struck between the universal and the particular.

(c) In the attempt to achieve such a balance, we have been afforded some guidance by the appointment, together with this Commission, of a linked Commission charged to investigate the general problem with special reference to the needs of higher education in West Africa. Our more general enquiry has indeed been co-ordinated with that more specific one in a practical way by the appointment of two of our members, Dr. H. J. Channon and Dr. J. F. Duff, as members also of the West Africa Commission. We feel that this liaison has been valuable not only intrinsically, but also as affording a pointer to the degree of particularity to which it was intended that we should push our own enquiries, and the point at which it was intended that they should stop.

Early in our own sessions we felt that the considerations which had prompted the decision to direct a special enquiry in respect of West Africa, applied with equal force to the West Indies, or to be more accurate, to the Caribbean area. If any general principles we could formulate called for a special application in the one area, then equally, in our view, they called for a special application in the other. We accordingly obtained sanction to send, to what we will call for short the "West Indies", the strongest delegation we could muster from among our own members—Sir James Irvine and Miss Perham—together with Dr. Priestley, the Vice-Chancellor of Birmingham University,

whose accession to the Commission at this time was most opportune. Along with certain representatives of the West Indies, from whom they received invaluable assistance, our delegates have conducted this special investigation, parallel to that conducted in West Africa by the West Africa Commission. The fruits of this delegation's arduous labours have, we believe, more than justified the decision to take this course.

4. The scope of specific proposals

We may attempt then to crystallise our method of approach to our task in the following short propositions:—

(a) Our main objective was to formulate, as we were enjoined to do, principles applicable generally to the Colonies; not to elaborate in detail higher educational programmes for particular Colonies.

(b) But in respect of certain large areas of the Colonial Empire which presented individual and complex problems an attempt at some such elaboration appeared to us ineluctable.

5. Dual character of our task

We must make clear at this early stage of our report that the institutions of higher education in the Colonies fall into two clearly defined classes. On the one side are the Universities of Malta, Jerusalem, Ceylon and Hong Kong, the last temporarily under Japanese control. These institutions have, of course, the attributes of all universities, and are fully autonomous. The Universities of Malta, Jerusalem and Hong Kong are members of the Universities Bureau of the British Empire. The second category contains those institutions in the Colonies, which are below the status of universities, and for the most part even that of university colleges. In one region, construction from the foundation must be recommended. Clearly it is the second category which will need the fullest possible assistance and guidance from this country, though the University of Hong Kong may stand in need of special services during the phase of restoration after the defeat of Japan. It will therefore be understood that by far the greater part of our report will refer to the institutions below university status.

Nevertheless, we hope that some of the suggestions we put forward may be of interest even to the Colonial universities. This observation refers above all to the Inter-University Council which we propose in chapter VII, since this is not planned only as an agency through which help from home universities may be drawn by Colonial colleges, but also as a centre for academic contact and mutual service. Moreover we anticipate that the colleges will go forward rapidly and join the group of Colonial universities, and we hope that the close relationship established between them and the universities of this country during their minority will extend into their maturity even though it will change in character. In this connection we would add that we have not found it convenient to indicate the degree to which each section of our report is applicable to differing institutions, and we hope that its readers, and especially those in the Colonial universities, will study it with this governing direction in their minds.

This leads us to a further question affecting the scope of our recommendations. Our terms of reference make no mention of the Dominions or India: it would, however, show little appreciation of the political and geographical character of the Commonwealth and Empire if we were to make our recommendations without regard to the part which their universities can play in the developments envisaged in this report. It is not for us to prescribe in what measure or by what machinery this association may come into being. But here again we wish to emphasise at the outset of our report, the earnest hope which has accompanied all our deliberations, that the universities of the

Dominions and India will join with those in this country in entering into close and effective relationships with the institutions of higher education in the Colonies. We are aware that the Universities Bureau of the British Empire already offers facilities for co-operation in this sphere and we intend that our own proposals shall reinforce and extend those facilities.

There is another reason why we should emphasize our desire to see this relationship established. Political status is no more static than academic status and, as Colonial colleges will become universities, so may Colonies attain a greater measure of political autonomy. We hope by that time that as a result, at least in part, of our recommendations, such close and mutually beneficial relationships will have been promoted between institutions of higher education in Britain, the Dominions and the Colonies, that a change of political status will not loosen the ties of academic fraternity.

6. The general structure of the report

We have framed our report in four parts. The first deals with the general principles which should determine an adequate provision of higher education, and refers at the same time to some of the special problems to which the application of these principles must give rise in the circumstances at present prevailing in the Colonies. We have thought it advisable to give as chapter II of Part I of our report a brief survey of the facilities for higher education now available to students in the Colonial Empire generally. A bare recital of the facts in regard to certain areas, and notably Africa and the West Indies, is sufficient to show the inadequacy in their case of the existing facilities for this purpose. In the succeeding chapters of Part I we present the case for the establishment of university colleges so constituted as to be capable of development, at as early a date as possible, into Colonial universities with a full degree giving status. We have in the course of making these recommendations paid special attention also to that part of our terms of reference which invites us to explore the means "whereby the universities and other appropriate bodies of the United Kingdom may be able to co-operate with institutions of higher education in the Colonies."

We proceed in Part II to deal with the special problems involved in the provision of professional and vocational courses in the universities and university colleges. The urgency of the need for professional men of all kinds in the Colonies, and the importance of the rôle which can be played by the universities in supplying them have seemed to us to justify a more detailed treatment of these aspects of university activity.

In Part III we give a summary of the report of our West Indies Committee and certain observations which have resulted from our consideration of it. We summarize in Part IV the principal recommendations of our own report.

In concluding this introduction to our report, we take the opportunity of acknowledging our obligation to the services rendered the Commission by Mr. Donald Malcolm, who acted as its Secretary from August, 1943, to May, 1944, and to Mr. S. Robinson who acted in that capacity up to the termination of its proceedings.

CHAPTER II

EXISTING FACILITIES FOR HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE COLONIES

There are at present in the Colonial Empire only four institutions of higher education which have the status of universities. We give here a short reference to their history, the number of students and the Faculties comprised. Some further particulars relating to finance will be found in chapter XIII.

1. The four existing Colonial Universities

The Royal University of Malta is unique among these institutions in the length of its history. It was constituted in 1769 by the Grand Master of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem in buildings which had formed the College of the Society of Jesus in Valetta, itself founded in 1592. There are six Faculties—Theology, Law, Medicine and Surgery, Engineering and Architecture, Literature, and Science, in which degrees are taken, the medical degree being recognised by the General Medical Council. Courses are also provided for the diplomas of Notary Public, Legal Procurator, Pharmacist, Dental Surgeon and Midwife. The addition of Faculties of Economics and Education is under consideration, and we also understand that there is in contemplation a considerable programme of development which would embrace the institution of postgraduate courses in certain subjects. The number of regular students at the present time is 233, of whom a small number are women.

The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, which took shape after the last war in the course of the development of the Jewish national movement, seeks to serve the country of Palestine as a whole, but aims also at providing a centre from which the Jewish contribution to world culture may radiate. The original design of the University was as a centre of research, since those responsible for its creation hesitated to found an institution of academic teaching which without adequate preparation might be inferior to that of a good European university. The opportunities afforded for research attracted a number of distinguished scholars from the continent of Europe and elsewhere. Of late years, however, the University has extended its activity to academic teaching. There are now Faculties of the Humanities and of Science, each providing a four years' course leading to the award of degrees. There is not at present a full Faculty of Medicine and a full Faculty with an undergraduate school forms the largest item in the plans for post-war development. There is a School of Agriculture attached to the University. A School of Engineering at Haifa, separately administered, serves the purpose of an Engineering Faculty and grants a diploma after a four years' course. Teachers are trained in a Department of Education. The students in recent years have numbered between 500 and 600 drawn from all the countries of Europe and from many in Asia and America. The University has been constituted without formal charter or instrument of the Legislature.

The University of Hong Kong was established in 1911. The College of Medicine, which had been established at Hong Kong in 1887, was then absorbed. One of the objects of the University is stated to be the maintenance of good understanding with China. The higher education of the inhabitants of the Colony itself might not alone have justified the establishment of a university, but efforts were made to maintain and develop it, in co-operation with the Universities of China, as a common focal point of British and Chinese cultures. Many of the students came from China and Malaya. The University comprised Faculties of Arts, Science, Engineering and Medicine. The Faculty of Arts included a Department of Education and a Department of Chinese Studies. The Faculty of Engineering offered a course in Civil Engineering and in Mechanical and Electrical Engineering. The Medical degree is recognised by the General Medical Council. During 1939 there were 538 students on the roll of whom 118 were women.

In Ceylon a Medical College was founded at Colombo in 1870. It provided courses leading to a licence in Medicine and Surgery which was recognised by the General Medical Council as early as 1888. Ceylon University College was founded in 1921 and offered courses in English, Sinhalese, Tamil, Classics, Sanskrit, Pali, History, Economics, Philosophy, Geography, Mathematics,

Physics, Chemistry, Botany and Zoology. The University of Ceylon, which was established in 1942, incorporated these two Colleges. On the medical side it gives courses for the degrees of M.B. and B.S. and a Dental School has been set up. In 1944 there were 313 medical and dental students of whom 26 were women. The University has also Faculties of Arts and Science and Oriental Studies. In 1943 there were 646 students in these Faculties, 72 of them being women. In 1943 87 degrees were conferred by the University, and there were 34 postgraduate students, including seven in the Faculty of Medicine. The funds of the University and its preceding institutions have been wholly provided by the Government of Ceylon. The students are drawn almost entirely from the island.

2. Institutions not possessing university status

Full university facilities are thus available in only a very small part of the Colonial Empire. The Colonies, with the Sudan, comprise in all a population of more than 66 million and an area of more than three million square miles. Of this population more than one-third is in West Africa and one-third is in East Africa. The area of East Africa, including the Sudan, is more than two million square miles; that of West Africa nearly half a million square miles. Some approach has however been made in these and other regions to the provision of education aiming at university standards and in more than one institution greater progress would have been made but for the circumstances of the war. We refer here to the more important of these institutions.

(a) *West Indies*

The Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture, Trinidad, occupies a special position, undertaking training and research in agricultural sciences for the Colonial Empire as a whole. There are courses for the associateship and for the diploma in Agriculture and also for the associateship and for the diploma in Sugar Technology, the diploma courses being designed primarily for students from the Caribbean area. The majority of students taking the course of the associateship of agriculture are scholars selected under the scheme of training for the Colonial Agricultural Service. The number of diploma students in 1945 is 35. There are 26 other students.

Codrington College, Barbados, was founded in 1710, and has been affiliated with the University of Durham since 1875. It is directed mainly to preparing students for service as ministers of religion. Students have taken the B.A. degree of Durham University, the honours degree in Classical and General Literature and the honours degree in Theology as well as the licence in Theology. The number of students in 1944 was 16.

(b) *West Africa*

Fourah Bay College in Sierra Leone, founded by the Church Missionary Society in 1827 to train ministers and lay-workers, is also affiliated with the University of Durham; its students have been prepared for the B.A. degree and the diplomas in Theology and in Education. In 1944 the number of students was 16.

At Achimota in the Gold Coast is the Prince of Wales' College. Its aim has been described as the production of the type of student who is western in his intellectual attitude towards life but who remains African in sympathy, and it seeks to preserve and develop what is deserving of respect in African life. The College provided at the outset a complete course of education from kindergarten to the post secondary stage, but the kindergarten and primary schools have recently been disbanded and as soon as opportunity offers it is proposed to separate the secondary and post secondary teaching. Students are accepted in the College for

the courses leading to the following examinations of the University of London:—Intermediate Arts, Intermediate Science, Intermediate Engineering, B.Sc. (Engineering), Intermediate Science (Economics). A department for the training of primary teachers provides a four-years' course for students who have completed primary education. In 1943 there were 98 post secondary students (including two women), some of whom came from Nigeria, Sierra Leone and the Gambia. The College is provided with ample buildings, well laid out on high ground.

The Higher College at Yaba in Nigeria, formally opened in 1934, provides science courses for students seeking to become Assistant Agricultural, Forestry, Medical, Survey, and Veterinary officers. It makes provision for engineering students, and for secondary school teachers, the course in this latter case following the pattern in universities in this country. The engineering course lasts four years, with practical work in the vacations. The other courses are also approximately of the length of those given in the same subjects in this country, the professional part of the courses being given at the appropriate government department after training in fundamental science at the College. Diplomas are granted on successful completion of the full course. The number of students at the College is about 100. A few students come from the Gold Coast, Dahomey and Sierra Leone; there have been two women students.

(c) *East Africa and the Sudan.*

In East Africa the leading institution is Makerere College, which has developed from a trade school, and has since 1937 prepared itself to become a university through the stage of a university college. Whilst the building programme has not been carried through on account of the war, those buildings which are completed are on a scale commensurate with the final objective. The College provides courses for vocational training for teachers and for Medical, Agricultural and Veterinary Assistants; they are completed at schools affiliated to the College but not yet under its control. Diplomas are awarded in all the courses given. In 1943 there were 114 students resident in the College and 24 in the associated departmental schools. They were drawn from Uganda, Tanganyika, Kenya and Zanzibar, and a small number also from Nyasaland, Northern Rhodesia and the Southern Sudan.

Gordon Memorial College, Khartoum, was founded in 1899 on the initiative of Lord Kitchener of Khartoum. At first an institution of primary education and later of secondary school standard, it is now about to become the centre of activities hitherto carried on at certain vocational schools which have been financed and administered by the Sudan Government, namely the School of Arts, the School of Science, the School of Engineering, the Veterinary School, the School of Agriculture and the School of Administration and Police. These Schools granted their own diplomas. It is the intention that the College shall be raised to the status of a university college as soon as may be practicable. It is hoped that at a later date the Kitchener School of Medicine, which was founded in 1924 and which also grants diplomas, will associate itself with Gordon College.

We should mention also the South African Native College at Fort Hare in the Union of South Africa, since it draws students from the High Commission Territories and to a small extent from the Colonies further north. The students sit for examinations of the University of South Africa. In 1943 the number of students following full-time courses was 220.

(d) *Malaya*

In Malaya there is King Edward VII Medical College, Singapore, founded in 1904 to train local practitioners. The College held a high place among Medical Schools of the Far East; the six-years' course was similar to that given in this country and the diploma is recognised by the General Medical Council. Its Dental School conducted a five-years' course and awarded a diploma. There were annual postgraduate courses in malaria sponsored by the Health Organisation of the League of Nations.

Raffles College, Singapore, opened in 1928, was founded to meet the urgent need for qualified teachers for secondary schools and to offer facilities for training in scientific subjects. There were courses of three years in Arts and in Science leading to diplomas. A limited number of students has taken the degree examinations of the University of London.

Arrangements for higher education in Malaya were examined in 1939 by a Commission,* which recommended that the two colleges should be fused into a university college and that it should develop in time to a full university.

(e) *Pacific area*

In the Pacific area there are no comparable institutions of higher education, but it may be mentioned that the Central Medical School at Suva in Fiji provides instruction for native practitioners for Fiji and a number of islands in this region.

CHAPTER III

PLACE OF UNIVERSITIES AND UNIVERSITY COLLEGES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

1. The case for the establishment of universities in areas not now provided with them

As we have indicated the four Colonial universities now in existence serve only a small proportion of those who live in the Colonies. Early in our deliberations we decided to urge the early creation of universities so situated that, as far as is compatible with geography, the remaining areas of the Colonial Empire shall be served by one of them. The time will come when the development of the numerous peoples of the Colonial Empire will be such as to require more universities; we can at this stage consider only the next few decades.

The main consideration in our minds in making this decision is that His Majesty's Government has entered upon a programme of social and economic development for the Colonies which is not merely the outcome of a desire to fulfil our moral obligations as trustees of the welfare of Colonial peoples, but is also designed to lead to the exercise of self government by them. In the stage preparatory to self government universities have an important part to play; indeed they may be said to be indispensable. To them we must look for the production of men and women with the standards of public service and capacity for leadership which self rule requires. It is the university which should offer the best means of counteracting the influence of racial differences and sectional rivalries which impede the formation of political institutions on a national basis. Moreover, universities serve the double purpose of refining and maintaining all that is best in local traditions and cultures and at the same time of providing a means whereby those

* Colonial No. 173.

brought up under the influence of these traditions and cultures may enter on a footing of equality into the world-wide community of intellect. In short, we look on the establishment of universities as an inescapable corollary of any policy which aims at the achievement of Colonial self-government. We believe that there can be no more welcome proof of the sincerity of this policy than the provision at an early date of facilities for university education in the Colonies themselves.

This programme of development will require an increasing number of men with professional qualifications: doctors, agriculturists, veterinarians, engineers, surveyors, geologists, and persons qualified to contribute to the improvement of systems of law and land tenure or to assist in the framing and administration of regulations concerning the employment of labour. The need for professional men and specialists of these types, both to fill the superior appointments and to train the large body of assistants required in these services, is everywhere apparent, and development will be impeded until the deficiency is made good. Considerations of policy and finance alike make it essential that as large a proportion as possible shall be locally recruited and trained. The cost of training elsewhere would be prohibitive, and in the light of the conditions to which we shall refer more fully in chapter XII, it is undesirable that the training of the entire professional class should be conducted remote from local conditions and out of the range of local influences. The recognition of this urgent need is a second consideration, almost equal in weight to the first, which leads us to recommend the establishment of universities.

Since we recommend the institution of new universities largely in order to provide this much needed professional training and at the same time believe that those who pass through universities should be liberally educated, it is evident that in our view there is no fundamental antithesis between liberal and vocational education. We hold that this distinction can be transcended. It is true that this has not yet been fully achieved in our universities, but this only means that any new universities will find themselves, in company with those which exist, at grips with this problem. It is a difficulty which must be faced and not an objection to our proposal. There is an objection of another kind which may be raised; it is held in some quarters that the needs of vocational education are better met by specialised training institutions than by universities. It is urged that the former are advantageous because under Colonial conditions great distances and poor communications make centralised institutions inconvenient. The chief point made, however, relates to economy in finance and staff; the students for whom a specialised institution caters will be restricted to those who have definitely decided on a professional career; the authorities responsible for the institutions will be less ambitious in the matter of buildings and equipment, and they will be able in many cases to avail themselves of the services of departmental or technical officers as instructors.

2. The relation of universities to professional education and to development of education at the secondary or primary stage

Waiving the fact that the validity of some of these arguments may be questioned, we hold that such relevance as they possess is overridden by the importance, in the interests of higher education, of the provision of universities which shall be centres, as far as possible, of all professional education in the regions which they serve. A university is in a far better position than a specialised institution to provide the courses, whether in arts or science, which are the necessary preliminary to professional studies. Its academic standing enables it to enlist the services of a staff of superior qualifications,

and the fact that it can offer to the student the prospect of a degree should make it possible to prescribe higher standards both of initial entry and of subsequent study. There is a further consideration which is of equal importance in our view. It is not enough that a professional man should attain competence in his own subject; association with the life of a university will give him a larger range of interest and enhance his value both in pursuit of his profession and as a member of society. Our aim should be to produce not only doctors, but educated doctors; not only agriculturists, but educated agriculturists; and to this end universities minister far more effectively than specialised institutions.

To the list of professions given above that of the teacher must be added and given a high place. Mention of this profession was postponed, not because education for it is not an appropriate task for universities, but because the training of teachers raises a question which demands special consideration. Our duty is to discuss the problems arising in the field of higher education, and it would be beyond our province to deal in detail with instruction at lower levels; but the situation in primary and secondary schools has a direct bearing on our problem. On the one hand the facilities for instruction at the secondary stage determine the number of students fitted for entry into institutions of a higher category; on the other, the efficiency of higher education must govern the scope of instruction and determine the supply of qualified teachers in secondary schools. The position in regard to instruction at the lower level has a further bearing, though of a somewhat different order, on the development of higher education. The inadequacy of facilities for popular instruction and the backwardness of large sections of the Colonial population have created in some quarters the feeling that at the present stage the education of the masses must have the primary claim to consideration. Institutions of higher education are relatively expensive; their immediate benefit is confined to small sections of the population; and it has been urged that we ought not to divert to them the resources which are urgently needed for extending facilities for primary and secondary instruction.

While admitting that the development of popular instruction is most urgent, we cannot agree with the inference that the development of university education should be postponed. On the contrary, we hold that the latter is all the more imperative on this account. For the situation does not present a simple issue between the claims of higher and lower education; progress at any level of education is dependent upon progress at other levels, and institutions of higher education are essential if we are to secure teachers in sufficient numbers and of a quality adequate to establish proper standards of teaching in secondary schools and if we are to be able efficiently to staff the departments of public instruction. Just as the efficiency of the secondary school depends largely on the university, so in turn that of the primary depends on the secondary school. Indeed, the lesson to be drawn from history is quite clear even if at first sight paradoxical; it is that where education as a whole is backward, effort is most rewarding when it is directed to the higher levels. It may be remembered that the development of universities in Europe preceded the systematic organisation of popular education.

3. The establishment of university colleges as the first step in the development of universities

In the opening paragraph of this chapter we urged the establishment of universities as soon as practicable. We regard as practicable, and indeed as urgent, the immediate setting up of university colleges. By a university college we mean an institution of higher education at a university level

which is not empowered to grant degrees. We believe that there should be no undue delay in converting these colleges into universities. But here we desire to issue a warning; we hold strongly that no step could be taken which would more gravely prejudice the interests of these institutions than the premature grant of degree giving powers. An institution with the status of a university which does not command the respect of other universities brings no credit to the community which it serves. We cannot say how long the university college stage will last, because the length of this period depends upon much that cannot be foreseen. We shall recommend later the institution of an Inter-University Council, one duty of which will be to assist and watch the development of the colleges; this body will be in a position to advise when a university college can be raised to the status of a university. There will therefore be a period of unknown length during which the colleges will not grant degrees. We have given careful consideration to the problems which will arise during this phase and make recommendations to meet them in chapter IX.

4. The appropriate areas to be served by universities

We also recommend in the first paragraph of this chapter that the proposed universities should serve appropriate areas. Our own report contains specific recommendations for the West Indies, and we understand that the West Africa Commission will outline a scheme for West Africa. As regards Malaya, we desire to support the recommendation of the Commission of 1939* for the establishment of a university at an early stage. Similarly we desire to support the like proposal which has been made to develop Makerere College in East Africa to full university status. We hope that every encouragement will be given to the scheme contemplated for the development of Gordon Memorial College, Khartoum. There remain other areas, such as Central Africa and the Pacific, in regard to which we are not in a position to make specific proposals at the present time; it is our expectation that the Inter-University Council will be able to advise on their detailed problems.

There remain, however, certain general problems which arise when the area to be served by a university is under consideration. The area must be of sufficient extent; the test is neither size nor population, but capacity to supply an adequate flow of students able to profit from higher education. In the delimitation of the area difficulties and even conflict will inevitably arise; it may, for example, appear desirable, when the above-mentioned test is applied, that one university should serve two or more territories each of which on account of legitimate local patriotism or proper educational ambition would prefer to have its own university. These territories may not be satisfied unless each has its college now and presently its university; or each may be willing to see a university serving all the territories provided that the university is not located in one of the others. In either case there is a deadlock.

If a solution is sought by way of conceding colleges to areas which are too small as judged by our test, the colleges will be financially wasteful and educationally of less benefit than larger institutions; moreover, the date when they can hope to qualify for the status of a university will be postponed long after that when a college serving the whole area could hope for promotion. Federation may be proposed as a way of escape from the latter difficulty. It is hardly necessary to say that we do not favour federation in principle; where it prevails it is due to the nature of historical development or to special local conditions rather than to a specific decision in its favour. The special disadvantages of a federal arrangement under Colonial conditions are clear;

the great distances between the constituent colleges would mean that the university would not be a society but a machine for conducting examinations and granting degrees. The university would lack personality, and the colleges, not the university, would influence the character and outlook of the students. Moreover, to the degree to which the colleges specialised in various directions, to that extent the students would lose the benefit of association with an institution of wide interests. It would therefore be a matter for regret if a departure from the unitary arrangement was made inevitable by local conditions.

CHAPTER IV

ACADEMIC LIFE AND RANGE OF STUDIES

We consider it no part of our duty to prescribe in detail the courses which should be established at Colonial universities or colleges. Each of them will, it is hoped, develop its particular traditions and special lines of study. We are conscious, moreover, that the areas with which we are dealing differ widely from one another, and that the variations in conditions which bring about the individual characteristics of universities in Great Britain are immensely greater in the Colonial Empire. We shall therefore confine ourselves in this section of the report to suggesting certain general guiding principles, and to stating some of the problems which will face the academic authorities in the Colonial institutions.

1. Relation between professional and other studies

In the first place, it is of the greatest importance that a balance should be maintained between two extremes of purpose. The education provided must be neither rigidly directed to the training of recruits to the professions nor so disdainful of practical needs that its products are unequipped for useful service to the community. As we have already observed, there is pressing need for men and women trained to undertake work in social administration, in medicine, in the teaching profession, or in one of the other several fields of service. If the choice lay between the two extreme objectives to which we have referred, there are some who might be inclined to regard this need as paramount; for the production of an educated or semi-educated class divorced from the community as a whole and unlikely to secure employment in it, would be disastrous. We are convinced nevertheless that concentration on professional training would be almost equally regrettable. It would fail to achieve one of the main objects set before us, the preparation of Colonial peoples for self-government; it would not meet the genuine desire of these peoples for easier access to education at a university level, and it would defeat its own purpose, for it would lead rather to the production of technicians than to that of educated men and women proficient in professional subjects.

The task of keeping the balance will be impossible unless certain general principles are followed. In the first place the universities should include teaching in a fairly wide range of subjects. The presence in the same institution of medical, engineering or veterinary students with those taking courses in subjects normally included in Faculties of arts and science, provides for both groups of students an opportunity for exchange of ideas, and this is an important part of the education of all undergraduates.

It may be useful if we suggest what is the minimum range of subjects for the study and teaching of which provision should in our opinion be made. They fall into three categories: (a) some subjects in the Faculty of arts,

(b) some in the recommended list, (c) one or more of those subjects which have been classed for convenience as professional. Considerable variety is possible under each of these heads, particularly under (a) and (c), but this variety does not affect the general principle which we have laid down. This fairly wide range could, indeed, be justified readily enough on the single basis of the provision of training for the various forms of service of which the Colonial communities are in need. It can, however, be justified also as necessary for the provision of what we should regard as the essentials of a general education. Every student, whatever subject or subjects he is studying in his regular course, should be given an opportunity to become aware of certain great conceptions. He should know something of the place of science in modern civilization and the use of scientific method ; he should have learnt something of what is meant by sociology, so that he is aware of the other elements and forms of civilization. He should be enabled to gain some apprehension of what is involved in philosophy in its widest meaning, and some sense of the past as expressed in great literature and in the record of history. If his time at the university does not open his eyes to the existence of these great forces in modern life, the student, however expert in his own work, will have missed one of the great advantages which the university can offer him.

In achieving the balance to which we have referred above, the provision of adequate facilities for research is also in our opinion of great significance. We refer to this matter in chapter VI of our report, and it is enough to say here that research in subjects of diverse character is as important from the point of view we are now considering as is the provision of teaching.

2. Other essential characteristics

A second principle is closely associated with the first. The universities should be residential. Several considerations lead us to this conclusion: the widely scattered areas from which students will come, the nature of their home background and of the secondary schools where they will have obtained their earlier education, the unsuitability of the accommodation available to students outside the university itself. There is further the important point that a residential college affords greater opportunity for adequate supervision of the student's health. It is also true that no other single condition can serve so well to give the students a broader outlook or a higher general level of education. Nothing could minister more effectively to a spirit of unity where communities are divided by racial or sectional differences. Our third principle needs no elaboration. The universities should be open to all classes, without distinction of wealth, and without discrimination on the ground of race, sex or creed. The criteria of entrance should be one of academic achievement and of personal suitability to profit by the courses offered. We deal in chapters X and XI with entrance tests and with scholarships, and our recommendations on both those questions are directed to secure the general principle which we have stated here. Lastly, the staff responsible for teaching the students and for the tutorial duties essential in a residential institution must be adequate in numbers and of high quality. We deal more fully with this subject in chapter V. We only wish to emphasise here that, if the quality is not high neither expert training nor general education will be possible. Adequacy in numbers is almost equally important. An overburdened academic staff cannot find time for the multifarious activities which contribute to the provision of a university education in the broader sense. These activities range from the provision of general courses of lectures open to all students, irrespective of their particular Faculty or subject, to informal discussions and debates, and the equally important maintenance of individual contacts

In Part II of this report we deal in some detail with certain professional subjects, medicine, agriculture, veterinary science, law, engineering and the training of teachers. We are therefore confining our comments here to problems associated with subjects other than these, that is to say to those commonly covered by Faculties of arts and science, including among them the social sciences.

3. The Faculty of arts

Considerable variation is possible in the selection of subjects which might be included in a Faculty of arts, and we do not propose to comment upon all those from which the choice might be made. Some, however, seem to us essential, and among them one must have a special place, English language and literature. This special place arises from the fact that in many areas English will be the medium of instruction while at the same time it is not the inherited language of common speech. Where these conditions prevail departments of English should be specially strengthened. The teaching of this subject will involve the detailed instruction normal in departments of foreign languages in this country, and it is important for this purpose that additional members should be appointed to the staff. We refer in chapter XX to the advisability of a special study of phonetics. The subject of English will be for many students the readiest means of access to the study of literature, and it is essential therefore that its teaching should be maintained at a level comparable to that of university courses in this country. While therefore we consider that the appointment of a professor of English language and literature is essential in every university institution, we should also maintain that he should be given an adequate staff qualified in various branches of the work of the department.

It would be convenient to assume that the special need for the teaching of English could be met by the neglect of other languages. This however would be inadmissible for several reasons. In certain areas the linguistic background makes it desirable that the study of those classical and modern languages which are appropriate to the region should have a prominent place in the curriculum. Wherever these conditions prevail we should recommend strongly that full provision for the teaching of these languages should be made. In others there may be a place for the study of linguistics. In our view this is a subject better suited for research than for undergraduate teaching, and we should urge that facilities for research should be provided wherever it is appropriate. Further, we would consider it essential that provision should be made for the study of at least one European language other than English. The close inter-relation of European literatures would be a sufficient justification in itself for this recommendation, but we may add the further consideration that the students would otherwise be deprived of access to the background of much of the conditions of modern life. Where the conditions of the area do not indicate the need for the study of non-European languages we should recommend that provision be made for two European languages, classical or modern, other than English. At the same time we should urge that in the teaching of languages it is particularly important to maintain the principle that it is better to provide adequate facilities for a smaller number of subjects than inadequate provision for many.

History, geography and the social sciences would naturally be included in every scheme for courses in the Faculty of arts, and all three have their special appropriateness in Colonial regions. They form an essential background to much of the work that students will be undertaking later and an essential part of the educational framework. There is one general point which in our view is applicable to all three. It is important to secure, wherever possible, that due attention is paid to local conditions. Our West Indies

Committee has recommended that a special lecturer should be appointed to deal with the history of the West Indies, and we are much attracted by this recommendation. We hope, too, that in all subjects adjustments of syllabus may make it possible to direct the more specialised part of the students' work to aspects particularly relevant to their regions. But here we must make one qualification. The study of any particular region must be carried out against a much wider background, and the exclusive study of a Colonial region is as undesirable as would be its neglect. In relation to many local aspects of history, geography and the social sciences much research and publication are still necessary before the literature available for their study is adequate in amount and quality for undergraduate training. We therefore regard as most important the institution at the outset of posts wholly or mainly devoted to research in these fields. We considered a suggestion that there should be an institute entirely devoted to research in the social sciences which, while linked with the university, would possess a large degree of autonomy. This plan has the advantage that the claims of teaching could not encroach upon the time for investigation, but for more than one reason we do not favour it. If a semi-independent institute were responsible for this important field of research, the authority and prestige of the university would be diminished; furthermore the result would almost certainly be to create an inappropriate distinction between teachers and research workers in the social sciences. Therefore we favour the institution of a strong department or school of the social sciences within the university, so amply staffed that the proper claim of teaching would not impede investigation. There might be posts in which teaching duties are relatively light; but in any case, all members of the staff of the department should be encouraged to pursue their lines of enquiry and should have sufficient opportunities of so doing.

It follows from what we have said that in our opinion well-staffed departments are needed for English, at least one or two other languages, history, geography and the social sciences. There is one other subject for the inclusion of which we should press. We should like to see in every Colonial university a senior lecturer or professor of philosophy. Even if his work were in some cases confined to the provision of courses and discussions open to all students, we should consider that his presence for this purpose would be of great importance. Moreover he will have a place also in the courses provided for students of the social sciences together with the teachers of economics and sociology who will be responsible for the main part of the work of this department.

4. The Faculty of science

The subjects included in the Faculty of science call for less comment, because the possibility of variations of choice is less marked. Fully staffed departments are obviously necessary in mathematics, physics, chemistry, botany, and zoology. In some cases a department of geology will also be needed. In many of the institutions these departments will fulfil a double purpose. Their work will be essential as the basis for the study of medicine or engineering or agriculture. At the same time the pursuit of these subjects is essential to the provision of a scientific training, and in some of them opportunities clearly exist for the building up of active schools of research in the universities. In all these subjects the general principle applies that where there is a professor there should also be one or more lecturers, and in the experimental sciences adequate provision of laboratory technicians is essential.

We cannot leave this brief discussion regarding the teaching of the physical and biological sciences without some reference to a peculiarly important function which graduates, well trained in science, may have to perform in certain Colonial areas, notably in Africa. Where there are large sections of the population still living under primitive conditions the impact upon them of

modern scientific ideas and methods may have an effect at once stimulating and disturbing, stimulating in the possibility it holds out for improved methods of production, disturbing in the demand it may impose for sweeping changes not only in habits but even in fundamental beliefs. Interwoven as such beliefs are in so many ways with social relationships, accepted obligations and even domestic and agricultural processes, they require skilful and sympathetic handling when the need arises for adjustment to modes of life governed by scientific ideas.

5. The provision of libraries and laboratories

The development of the universities will depend to a large extent upon the provision of fully equipped libraries and laboratories. Considerable capital grants will be needed in the first instance, and again whenever the addition of new departments involves the establishment of a new laboratory or a new section of the library or when the development of new lines of research requires expensive new equipment. Annual maintenance grants are also necessary on a substantial scale. In both cases the aim should be to provide both for the efficient conduct of undergraduate courses and for the development of research. We note elsewhere that the possibility of fundamental research is greater in some subjects than in others, and in the provision made for both libraries and laboratories this fact will no doubt lead to greater demands in some directions. It must be remembered, however, that in all subjects the members of the staff will depend upon the library provision made in the university to a far greater extent than is the case in this country. It will be impossible for them to keep in touch with research undertaken in other countries if its published results are not available for their use. We cannot emphasise too strongly the paramount importance of the equipment of laboratories on a scale comparable to that of the universities in this country, and of the building up of a university library worthy to rank with university libraries elsewhere. The library will need a fully qualified librarian with an assistant staff. We appreciate the great difficulty which may be experienced by the new institutions in building up an adequate library from the beginning and we hope that they may be able to look for assistance in this task to the Inter-University Council whose creation we recommend in chapter VII.

6. Buildings

In connection with both the library and the laboratories some considerable importance is to be attached to the size and character of the buildings and their location in the general plan of the university. The possibility of expansion is an important consideration, as is also the close proximity to one another of departments whose work is nearly associated. It is no part of our task to plan an ideal assembly of buildings, but we would suggest that in the consideration of their planning the advice of experts in university buildings should be obtained. Second only in importance to laboratories and libraries we should place the provision of union premises and of halls of residence for students. We should emphasise also the importance of securing that members of the staff have adequate rooms in which they can themselves work and receive students to advise them upon their studies.

7. Extra-mural activities

We have thought of the university so far as a centre of research and of the teaching of undergraduates. We hope that it will also take a leading part in the development of adult education in the region. The measures we propose must be limited in their immediate influence; they will affect those who are now children, but, without adult education, they will not touch anyone older. Something should therefore be done for those who would have profited by university education, but have passed the age for it. Otherwise general progress and fresh educational advance will be gravely hindered by mass

ignorance in the older generation. They too should be helped to lead their lives and do their work with more knowledge and intelligence. The fostering of extra-mural studies would in particular do much to guard against a danger, of which we are fully conscious, that the university graduates might become a separate community within a Colony, divorced from the concerns and aspirations of their fellow-citizens. The development of a self-contained group of this kind is certainly no part of our purpose. The universities as we conceive them have on the contrary a vital contribution to make to the development of the community as a whole. We should therefore urge that from the earliest stage in their evolution, the university colleges should maintain direct contacts with those members of the population whose studies must necessarily be restricted to the leisure left from their other work. There is, further, another reason for the special importance which we attach to extra-mural courses. The university institutions must in the early years be few in number. The areas they serve will be extensive, and will stretch in many cases far beyond the boundaries of the Colony in which they are situated. The proportion of the Colonial populations which can come into direct contact with them must perforce be small. Local centres for extra-mural work will extend the influence of the university to the outlying parts of the region. We consider, therefore, that in every Colony served by a university, there should certainly be one centre for extra-mural studies, and that there should be similar centres wherever large urban or industrialised localities provide opportunity for part-time study. We have been impressed by the evidence given to us of the activities of the Hebrew University of Jerusalem in this direction, and we consider that a strong and fully staffed department of extra-mural studies should be regarded as one of the normal features of a Colonial university. We hope too that opportunity may be given, through refresher courses and "summer schools" to persons engaged in administrative work, teaching, the health services, agriculture and other activities, to refresh, extend and bring up-to-date their knowledge, and to think, learn and study anew.

CHAPTER V

THE STAFFING OF UNIVERSITIES

I. The factors of environment

As we have already observed, the provision of an adequate staff is one of the major problems which have to be faced in the development of the new Colonial colleges. No matter how liberal the provision of material facilities and finance may be, the key to successful development lies in the building up of academic staffs adequate in number, quality and experience.

We feel it necessary to preface our recommendations on this subject by a brief reference to the particular needs and difficulties which may be encountered by the teaching staff in the early years of the development of a college in the Colonies. In the first place, in areas where the numbers receiving English education are as yet few, even though the student possesses the same formal entrance qualification as the corresponding student in Great Britain, he is in certain respects less well prepared to embark on university courses. This is inevitable, for his secondary education has been in English, which to him is a foreign language; he may rarely hear English spoken save during his hours of schooling. The environmental factors which are associated with the English background and which contribute subconsciously yet so materially to education in this country are largely absent. His study of English thus tends to be an isolated and, so to say, exotic episode, rather than an intensification of his education which merges into his life as a whole.

There is the further difficulty that he will often have received instruction from teachers to whom English is also a foreign language. Teachers have frequently suffered from the limitation of having been insufficiently trained for their work. Their teaching must inevitably lack breadth, and too much emphasis is laid on success in examinations. We do not criticise either the teacher or the pupil; indeed we admire the measure of the success which has been achieved in spite of all the handicaps. It is consideration of these particular difficulties that have influenced us in making our subsequent recommendations in regard to the adequacy of the academic staff in the new colleges.

Colonial colleges themselves have had to face other limitations. The Governments have been handicapped in the development of the colleges by the limited revenues at their disposal. In Great Britain the expenditure on education from central and local authority funds amounted in 1938 to £113,205,000. In the same year, the total net revenues available to the Governments of all the Colonies and the Sudan to meet expenditure on administrative charges, material development and the full range of social services amounted only to £79,552,000.* In many cases, therefore, the staffs of existing institutions have inevitably been insufficient in number.

There are special obstacles which may be encountered by the men and women who have been recruited for the staffs of the colleges from Great Britain. There must be more tutorial teaching than is common in this country, owing to the relative immaturity of the students, and this fact adds to the burden on the teacher, while the general work of building up the life of the college also consumes much time. There is consequently little or no time available for original work or research.

Perhaps most important of all, is the fact that the colleges normally suffer from lack of contact with academic life in Great Britain or elsewhere, and have none of the advantages of frequent interchange of thought which are largely the driving force in the life of our home universities. The young men and women who have devoted themselves to the development of the Colonial colleges have in fact largely cut themselves off from the main stream of thought when they have taken posts in institutions which are too little known in Great Britain; their contact with the home universities has been limited to their visits to this country during their biennial or triennial leave. Whatever may be the effect of climatic conditions on physical vigour, it is clear that intellectual vigour can be maintained only by avoidance of the isolation which service in the Colonies may often involve.

2. The position of part-time teachers

Usually members of the staffs in arts and science subjects and in the pre-clinical subjects of medicine, have been directly recruited for the purpose; in other cases the teaching has been given by men seconded to the college from the appropriate government departments. Such men may have had no experience of teaching, or little experience of teaching at university level. These seconded teachers may be full-time or part-time; if they are full-time, they may look forward to their return to their original posts. If part-time, they teach with the consciousness that their primary duty and perhaps their major interests lie elsewhere. Nor with staff limited in some subjects to a single member, can the essential continuity of teaching be maintained. During the absence of a member of the staff on leave, a new temporary teacher must be introduced, with all the disadvantages which this entails.

We recommend a departure from the practice under which the teaching in certain professional subjects has been given by officers of the different government services seconded for part-time or full-time duty. Higher

* This figure excludes surpluses and deficits on self balancing departments.

education in the Colonies owes much to the work of the men who have acted in this capacity and we do not underestimate their services. We feel, however, that the growth of the future universities must depend on their having in the principal subjects of study a nucleus of full-time members of staff with appropriate training and experience of university life.

The departure we advocate is not, however, to be interpreted as meaning that the work of the colleges should be divorced from that of the different government services. Indeed, the help of the members of the staffs of these departments will be as necessary as ever in the provision of much of the part-time teaching in special aspects of medicine, agriculture and similar subjects; equally the facilities for practical instruction in government hospitals, in agriculture and forestry and the like will be not less essential. We would hope also to see members of the staff of the colleges collaborating with the officers of the government departments in many of their research problems.

3. Recruitment and the conditions of service

In order to obtain staffs of appropriate standing and experience the majority of the posts in the new colleges must for some time be filled by recruitment overseas. Success in filling them will come only if a number of conditions are satisfied. In the first place, we regard it as of high importance that the universities of Great Britain should take an active interest in the staffing of the Colonial colleges and in the other important directions which we discuss subsequently in chapter VII.

There is a second point of no less importance. In the past, the salaries attached to appointments in the colleges of the Colonies have followed the general pattern of those of the different government departments. In our view this practice should be modified. The conditions of service in the colleges of the Colonies should be related to those in the home universities. Many of the senior posts in the different subjects should carry the title of professor, and all the posts should be given an appropriate academic grading. Further, only if the salaries are comparable with those in Great Britain will staff of the appropriate quality and experience be attracted from overseas.

Thirdly, we consider it is of great importance that the other conditions of service should not be such as to hinder the subsequent appointment of members of the staffs to universities in Great Britain, nor the appointment of members of home university staffs to serve in the Colonies. At the present time, the practice regarding pension schemes varies in different Colonies, and the fact that the colleges, with the exception of the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture in Trinidad, do not participate in the Federated Superannuation Scheme of the Universities of Great Britain may be an obstacle to mobility. We recommend therefore that the Colonial institutions should seek admission to this scheme for staff recruited from overseas. We recognise that its application to institutions in the Colonies which are largely tropical may present some special problems, but the provision of similar and transferable superannuation rights is important.

Our fourth point concerns the question of leave. In the past, members of the staffs of the colleges have followed the practice obtaining in the local government services. In West Africa, leave of three months is taken after each eighteen months of service; in Malaya, of six months after each three years of service. Such long absence from contact with university life in Great Britain is undesirable. There is no doubt that it limits the number of those coming forward for appointment; equally it has undesirable effects on the vigour and enthusiasm of those working in tropical conditions. It is essential that the members of staffs should be refreshed by frequent visits to Great Britain in order that they may keep abreast of developments not only in their own subjects, but in general university thought and life. We

therefore recommend that there should be a liberal provision of free passages for the use of members of the staff during vacations. Air travel will make this provision advantageous even from the Far East. The good effects of a system of annual leave are to be seen from its working in Khartoum and at the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture, Trinidad. In addition, men appointed to the permanent staffs should have the opportunity of extended study leave of six months to a year perhaps every fifth year.

4. Rates of pay for overseas and local staff

The question of salaries raises a difficult problem which has caused some concern to our West Indies Committee, and will undoubtedly arise in other parts of the Empire. It is the problem of differential salaries for staff recruited overseas and for those appointed locally.

The argument in favour of differential pay is based upon three propositions which should first be briefly stated and will then be discussed:—

- (1) It will be essential to recruit the great majority of the staff from overseas during the first period of university development in the Colonies.
- (2) It will be necessary to pay high salaries to attract staff of the required quality.
- (3) It will be unnecessary and inequitable to the taxpayers and restrictive to the growth of the university to pay salaries at the same rate to locally recruited staff.

The first two points may be discussed together. The whole future of the university may well depend upon the intellectual standards, the wisdom and experience in academic administration of those who mould the college into a university, and carry the university through its first years. It will not be easy in the period after the war, when there will be a shortage of academic teachers at the very time when universities in this country and in the Dominions will be expanding, to obtain sufficient men and women of the right quality to take up positions in the Colonies. We have referred already to some of the professional difficulties which may stand in the way of possible candidates. There are others of a personal nature that may make it necessary for them to consider the financial conditions carefully, such as the need to make a new temporary home while, it may be, some members of the family remain behind for reasons of health and education. It is thus clear that, to put the matter in its plainest financial aspect, the Colonies will have to make their bid in a highly competitive market at a time, too, when British salaries are likely to rise. It will thus be necessary to pay at least the salaries which will be paid in this country.

Turning to our third proposition, we look forward to the time, which we hope will be very soon, when men and women of the Colonies will begin to replace the overseas staff. There would be no necessity to grade the new appointments at the same rate, since there would be no question here of the teachers uprooting themselves from their own regions and climate and interrupting their careers. The market, moreover, instead of being open and highly competitive, would tend to be closed and sheltered.

The argument that, for reasons of prestige and equality, it would be desirable to continue to pay all salaries at a level considerably above the rate justifiable on economic grounds, is based upon the immediate interests of the very few people involved. As the overseas staff began to diminish, it is very possible that the university would have reached a stage demanding expansion; reduced rates of salary would allow of more new appointments being made than might be possible in many Colonies with restricted resources. To maintain a uniform salary scale for all appointees irrespective of whether they are recruited locally or come from overseas would restrict the whole development of the university.

There are, however, even wider considerations bearing upon this question. It would not be equitable to ask the British taxpayer to subsidise the payment of salaries at a level that could be justified only for the special purpose and limited period which has been defined above. Equally it would be unjustifiable to ask the Colonial taxpayer to shoulder the same unnecessary burden, all the more since an inflated level of salary for one group tends to re-act upon that of other groups in the same region. It would be socially as well as economically improper to support one small group at the level fixed by British standards of life. As Colonial standards of living rise, the disproportion between local and overseas rates will be progressively adjusted.

It would be a complete misreading of the financial factors involved to regard the proposed distinction as being in any sense a racial discrimination. Two considerations alone should dispel this idea. One is that the same problem presents itself, and has to be met in the same way; wherever a country with a shortage of persons with special expert qualifications is obliged to attract candidates from a distant country overseas. This happens where European countries employ people of other nationalities, especially where the conditions of living are very different or in any way less congenial than in the home country of the imported expert. Even within the Commonwealth it has often happened that when a Dominion university has wished to engage a teacher of repute from this country a special salary has been paid for the overseas appointment. The other consideration that should make it clear that an overseas salary rate has no inherent relation to race, is that a local rate would apply equally to those Europeans who are domiciled in the Colony. This would obviously be true, for example, of the West Indies.

We are aware that the problem thus created is to some extent of a general character, and that more than one suggestion for its solution has come under consideration. We confine ourselves to considering the method which appears most appropriate and practicable in the particular field with which we have to deal. It is one that has been discussed in the report of the West Indies Committee. Under this scheme there would be a basic rate of salary paid by the university to all members of staff, and any supplements necessary for the recruitment of teachers from overseas would be provided by the United Kingdom, under special arrangements made for their administration. There are several ways in which this could be carried out, but in order to show the practicability of this proposal we will briefly indicate one method. Part of the money which the United Kingdom Government may be prepared to devote to Colonial higher education should be paid into a special fund under the control of the Inter-University Council whose creation is recommended in chapter VII. The proper authority of each university or college would make its own appointments, but where an overseas teacher was appointed he or she would then apply to the Council for payment of the supplement, which would be made upon a settled scale, though adjustment to meet special cases might be made by the Council in consultation with the appointing authority. A slight modification of this scheme might allow the authorities of the Colonial institution to pay a regular expatriation overseas allowance at a modest rate which would cause it no financial or other embarrassment, the sum payable from the fund at the disposal of the Council being adjusted accordingly. The payment of the expatriation allowance would have the value of reminding the Colonial authorities of the financial advantage of resorting to local recruitment as soon as this should prove possible.

The establishment of such a fund would allow of further proof that the overseas allowance had no racial significance. As the Colonial universities

advance towards maturity we hope that they will produce, from among their own members, scholars with a reputation which will make them desired acquisitions at other universities of the Empire and Commonwealth, though from the historical background of the situation this reverse movement is not likely for a long period to be so large in volume as the other. Anyone thus appointed to a home or another Colonial university from a Colony would be eligible to claim an overseas supplement designed to compensate him for the disturbance of his life and career. The home Government and those operating the scheme centrally would thus have the satisfaction of promoting at its most influential level the intellectual solidarity of the Empire.

5. Secondment of staff

While the institution of new salary scales and conditions of service will remove some of the existing barriers to recruitment, these proposals alone will not provide a complete solution of the staffing problem in the immediate years ahead. It is essential in our view that the colleges and universities of the Colonies should be brought into the intellectual stream of university life in Great Britain. Only by such means can the isolation from which Colonial institutions have tended to suffer in the past be overcome.

We shall discuss in chapter VII the many directions in which the home universities could further the policy of Colonial university development. Here we confine our remarks to the problem of staffing. It is not unnatural that young men should be unwilling to leave the resources available to them in the home universities in order to take posts in Colonial institutions of which they have little or no knowledge and from which the chances of return to an appointment at home have hitherto been remote. In our view, the solution lies in the institution of a scheme under which men and women of varying seniority in teaching and research may be seconded from the home universities to the staffs of the colleges with a reasonable prospect of return to their home university at the end of their period of service, without loss of seniority. We make this proposal in the light of much evidence both from Great Britain and from the Colonies. It would be facilitated if arrangements were made as previously suggested for the continuance of policies under the Federated Superannuation Scheme for Universities. As we subsequently show, the adoption of such a secondment scheme would make some contribution to a solution of the problem of recruitment of the permanent staffs. We recognise, however, that the seconded staff could not, without some loss to the institutions of the corporate spirit necessary to their development, contribute more than perhaps a quarter of the total staff.

It is unnecessary to define in detail the conditions of secondment, which will need discussion in each particular case. Here we need only say that we have in mind periods from one to three years, and that the scheme should be open to members of staffs of all grades of seniority. It would apply most readily perhaps to junior lecturers of some teaching experience; less frequently, though with great profit to the Colonies, to the men who had reached the status of senior lecturer or professor. We intend that all seconded members of the staff should be considered as full members of it. Besides taking the part assigned to them in teaching, they should share like other members of the staff in the administration of the college.

It is clear that the ease of application of such a scheme would vary greatly from subject to subject. But in our judgment there is no doubt of the great impetus to the development of the future colleges which this scheme, which has been described as "intellectual lease lend," would provide. On the

one hand, the sense of intellectual isolation felt by members of the staff would be greatly lessened. On the other, some of those seconded would find the conditions of life or the opportunities presented sufficiently attractive to make them desire to join the permanent staff, and as a result the building up of a permanent staff of suitable quality would be facilitated. Lastly, after a period of secondment and return to their home universities, some of the younger men might wish later to apply for appointment to a post as professor or principal at the college in which they had served or at some similar institution in the Colonies.

The institution of a secondment scheme would entail certain sacrifices on the part of the home universities in agreeing to some of their best men being temporarily released for work in the Colonies, and in making arrangements which would ensure that these men could return to posts without loss of seniority. But the great service which they would so render would not be without recompense. Anything which provides new academic experiences for the members of a university staff is an advantage to the academic body as a whole. From this point of view our own universities would benefit in a different degree but in much the same way as would the colleges which they would be endeavouring to help. It is not for us to suggest methods whereby the home universities should ensure the carrying on of the work of members of the staff who may be seconded. Serious practical difficulties will have to be faced; but we hope that in view of the high importance of the measure we propose, every effort will be made to overcome them, and we are encouraged in this hope by the sympathetic attitude shown by representatives of various home universities with whom we have discussed this problem.

Any such scheme which brought the universities of the Colonies into intimate relationship with those of Great Britain would also have not less important results of a wider nature. Some of the regrettable ignorance which exists in this country regarding the Colonies might in the course of time be dispelled. Knowledge of the Colonies would first permeate the universities through the return to them of men who had seen Colonial service. Inevitably this knowledge would be reflected in the teaching in different subjects and the students' interests would be widened. Later, through the teachers trained in the universities, it would reach a wider circle in the schools. Further, the opportunity for students to discuss the question of service in the Colonies with teachers who have had personal experience themselves, might help to remove the doubts which often deter men from entering the Colonial services.

6. Local recruitment

As regards the appointment of local members to the academic staffs, the staffs of the institutions already contain a varying number of members drawn from the Colonies, mostly holding junior posts, and appointed usually after study in the universities of Great Britain. It is clearly desirable that their numbers should be increased as soon as men of quality become available. We suggest that graduates of promise should be appointed for a period of one or two years to posts such as that of demonstrator and research assistant, and that they should then be given the opportunity of a period of postgraduate study in Great Britain. We do not think that they should be appointed to any post of responsibility unless they have successfully completed a course of postgraduate study. With the passage of time, suitable local graduates will establish reputations which will justify their appointment to the more senior posts, until ultimately the universities will be staffed mainly by members of the communities whose territories they serve.

7. General

We give below in chapter VII some indication of the range of the problem of staffing in respect of the numbers likely to be required. The plans we have framed can fairly be described as ambitious and far-reaching, and we realise the difficulty of recruitment on the scale which they indicate. We are mindful that this difficulty will be increased by the expansion of the home universities and other institutions of higher or specialized education which may follow as a result of the greatly increased grants recently made for the purpose, or which is likely to form part of a post-war programme. But while we fully realise these difficulties, we remain convinced of the paramount necessity of promoting a healthy and effective development of the Colonial universities and university colleges, and are equally convinced that this cannot be achieved save by measures on the scale we have indicated.

CHAPTER VI

THE PLACE OF RESEARCH

In the course of outlining in chapter IV the character which in our view the new Colonial colleges and universities should possess, we indicated that we attached great significance to their recognition not only as agencies for instruction but as centres of research. We have again, in chapter V, when dealing with the measures necessary to mitigate the effect of the intellectual isolation and of absorption in a continuous routine of instruction from which members of the teaching staff of a Colonial institution are liable to suffer, emphasized the value of affording them the opportunity to undertake original study in their own special field of knowledge. It is not to be expected that all teachers can devote themselves to research of a fundamental type, but all must have opportunities for such reading and enquiries as will broaden their own knowledge, and enable them not only to have greater competence as teachers, but also to gain greater intellectual authority vis à vis the student. But apart from this, the subject of research seems to us of such general importance as to justify a more extended examination of the position which it should occupy in the life of the Colonial colleges and universities.

1. The university as a seat of learning

The original impulse which led to the founding of universities some eight centuries ago was search after knowledge; for that purpose scholars banded themselves together and round them gathered young people who sat at their feet; these young people followed the discussions of their seniors in the hope that one day they would gain for themselves recognition as scholars. Thus originated the familiar distinction between staff and students. Search after knowledge is the continuing inspiration of universities, and if conditions in institutions of higher education are such that this inspiration is baulked or stifled, these institutions whatever they are named, will be continuation schools and not universities. This is a statement of an ideal, and in what follows in this chapter, we are concerned with its implications. We are aware that in no university is the ideal attained; but the closer any university approaches it, the more nearly does it fulfil the true purpose of a university.

The first point to secure in the organization of an institution of university rank is recognition of an obligation upon those appointed to the staff to forward the study of their special field of knowledge. Such furtherance of knowledge in a special field rests upon individual work which varies in kind in different disciplines and different circumstances. It includes the essential duties of keeping constantly in touch with the results of research and of

preserving a continual readiness to consider new ideas and to make the adjustments of outlook that follow from the acceptance of new data. It includes much that furthers appreciation as well as investigation, and may lead as naturally to attempted synthesis as to the extension of factual knowledge. The pursuit of such independent intellectual activities is a paramount need if university departments are to retain their vigour and to discharge their proper obligations in a university society.

This obligation resting on the staff involves a complementary obligation resting upon those who control universities, whether directly as members of the governing body or indirectly as providing the finance, to ensure for the staff sufficient time and adequate facilities to pursue investigations of their choice. But this will only be achieved if two conditions are fulfilled. In the first place, those who control universities must understand what search after knowledge as undertaken in a university implies. It means that the knowledge sought is desired for its own intrinsic value ; the motive proper to a research worker is to extend the boundaries of chartered knowledge in his own field wherever extension is intellectually most satisfying. Research of this kind is called fundamental research, and it is fundamental research which is proper to a university. It follows that utilitarian results must not be demanded from the research activities of members of the staff of a university and that their work must not be judged by its immediate bearing upon practical problems.

In the second place, those who control universities must believe wholeheartedly that fundamental research is an essential feature of university life and that in the long run universities will be judged by the contributions which they make to fundamental knowledge. Unless the importance of providing facilities for research, in the shape both of time and of material requisites, is kept steadily in mind, it is inevitable that under the pressure of circumstances the duties connected with teaching and organization will grow and eat into the time which is required for research. The universities have to comply with demands from many new classes of students, and in a world of increasing complexity are bound to make their own internal organization more elaborate ; the easy but dangerous—indeed ultimately fatal—solution is to allow new duties to be placed upon the staff at the expense of reducing facilities for research. As the duties placed upon universities multiply, the staff must be strengthened.

Even if reasonable opportunities for research are secured, all has not been achieved. There is a subtle danger which threatens all universities, and will be especially formidable in the Colonies. A university is not a continuation school in which the staff have time for research ; it is an organ of higher learning inspired throughout by devotion to search after knowledge. Outwardly the daily ordering of life at a university may be similar to that found at a school, as seen for example in required attendance at lectures and classes and in the preparation for examinations ; but inwardly the situation is of quite another character. The school pupil is inevitably in large measure a passive recipient as he acquires the necessary elementary techniques and the indispensable basic facts ; the university student should be an active participant in the studies of the place, and in so far as it is possible for him at his particular stage of academic progress, he must be a fellow seeker. Indeed a university may be said to be a society embracing students as well as staff which is devoted to search after knowledge.

The parts played vary ; the professor is initiating important research ; the young teacher is learning to assume similar tasks ; the graduate is assisting ; the senior student is following with considerable understanding ; while the

new entrant is becoming aware for the first time what investigation means. If university teachers, for any reason such as the type of student sent to them or the nature of the work they are called upon to do, have to adopt the attitude of instructors rather than of guides to junior, very junior it may be, seekers after learning, they are subjected to a strain that they should not be required to bear. Moreover, if the university teacher cannot appear before his students in his true guise as a searcher, he is precluded from exerting through them a particular form of influence upon society that he is especially qualified to spread and which it is most desirable for society to experience.

2. The field open for research

It was suggested above that those who engage in fundamental research seek to extend knowledge for its own intrinsic interest, and it may appear that to research workers in Colonial universities opportunities for investigation are unduly limited. But it must not be forgotten that the choice of subjects for research is nowhere unconstrained by circumstances which may make some desirable projects difficult or impossible to attempt. In the Colonies certain constraints will be very obvious, at least for some considerable time to come. It will be long before libraries can be built up to a point at which there will be a possibility to undertake many forms of historical and literary research; the same applies, though with less force, to some kinds of economic and sociological research. It will not be possible at the outset to equip laboratories with expensive apparatus which is more especially needed for research in the physical sciences. Indeed, for some time to come, difficulties of obtaining laboratory equipment will tend to impede research in all the natural sciences, while the inevitable poverty of library resources will be an obstacle to all forms of research in the social sciences and the humanities.

On the other hand, tempting and little explored fields lie to hand for the students of social data, anthropologists, archaeologists, students of political science and applied economics, educationists; students of languages and others. It would be difficult to exaggerate the wealth of opportunity available in the Colonies to those engaged in social study; the variety of cultures, the impact of western ideas, the swift changes, all offer chances for observation and investigation which it would be hard to equal in this country. Much the same might be said of the opportunities awaiting the zoologists, botanists, ecologists, parasitologists, geologists, meteorologists, and many specialists in branches of natural science. As regards students of medical science generally we invite reference to what we say subsequently in chapter XIV. The novelty and attractiveness of the problems which await enquiry in such fields may well outweigh the difficulties arising from paucity of laboratory and library resources. Moreover, it is likely that improvements in ease of travel and communication will soon be such as to lessen these difficulties. While it would be obviously misleading to imply that opportunities for research in the Colonies will be at all similar to those at home, or that adjustment of interests and methods will not be necessary on the part of those who join Colonial universities, it is nevertheless true to say that fundamental research can be successfully pursued in many subjects under conditions presented by the Colonies. It is indeed possible that the necessary adjustment to new problems and new conditions may in itself form a welcome and valuable stimulus.

3. The function of a university in respect of the applied sciences

The course of historical development has been such that the territories of Colonial status are even more in need of the application of scientific knowledge

to their problems than are those of most of the more advanced sovereign countries; the urgent need of using science to improve health, agriculture, or industry in the Colonies is so obvious as to require no emphasis here. But it is not the function of universities directly to provide this kind of help; to require universities to do so would be to divert them from their proper purpose; to expect them to do so would indicate a fundamental misapprehension of the place of research in universities. This does not mean that the universities have no part to play in the fostering of applied science in the Colonies. It will be at the Colonial universities that scientists will be trained, many of whom, it is hoped and expected, will find a career in applying their scientific knowledge to practical problems. They will be trained in institutions where fundamental research is pursued, and it is important to understand that training in that atmosphere is as essential for one who aspires to be an applied scientist as for one whose aim is to pursue fundamental research. In short, it is an important duty of the university to train students to become applied scientists.

Again, it is customary in this country to associate with a university persons working on specific or practical problems. So situated, the research worker, while not a member of the university staff, has the great benefit of the advice of the staff, who may be expected to take a friendly interest in his problems. It is hoped that this practice will be widely followed in the Colonial universities. It may also be deduced from what has been said as to the abundance and attractiveness of local material that the university research worker, though untrammelled by the need to produce utilitarian results, will in fact not infrequently devote himself to enquiries which will have considerable practical significance. Thus the indirect contributions of the Colonial universities to the furtherance of applied science will not be small.

4. The relations between institutes of applied science and the universities

Nevertheless provision for most of the work in applied science must be made outside the Colonial universities in institutions or other organisations specially set up for that purpose. Many organisations of this kind exist and others will no doubt be created. Just as benefit is derived by an individual research worker engaged on a practical problem who is associated with a university, so benefit would be similarly experienced by workers employed by one of these organisations if it were located near a university. They too could obtain help and advice; further, the benefit would be mutual, for it is stimulating to a member of a university staff to be directly aware of the problems and difficulties of applied science. Moreover, scientific workers tend to suffer from the effects of isolation, and derive stimulation from contact with a group or society of persons sharing their general interests, outlook and way of life. When the site of a research organisation is considered, it may be found that there is little freedom of choice; a marine biological station must be on the coast. But there is generally considerable freedom, and it is to be hoped that when this is so, the advantages of a site near the university will be carefully borne in mind. The advantages so derived may well outweigh in the long run the reasons, administrative or other, which at first sight would seem to suggest another location. When research organisations cannot for good reasons be near universities, it may prove possible and beneficial for some link to be formed between them and the university; the opportunities offered to students of biology in this country to study in marine and fresh water biological stations has been of great benefit to them and has not been without some corresponding advantages to the stations.

CHAPTER VII

AN INTER-UNIVERSITY COUNCIL FOR HIGHER EDUCATION
IN THE COLONIES**1. The general role of the home universities in the development of higher education in the Colonies**

As we have already observed, the success of any scheme for the development of higher education in the Colonies depends on the active interest and co-operation of the home universities. The universities of Great Britain have as a whole made their contribution to Colonial development through the training of graduates who have entered the various Colonial services. Some of them have rendered a more particular service by concerning themselves with the training of Colonial students in Great Britain; others with research into special Colonial problems such as education, medicine, social science or political administration. We desire here to pay tribute to the special interest in Colonial education shown by Durham University through its long standing and intimate connection with Codrington College in the West Indies and Fourah Bay College in Sierra Leone. But as we see it, the policy under which large sums are now being made available for the development of the Colonies offers a new and effective field for a close partnership in the realm of university education. We would recall that in spite of the widely varying conditions in the Colonies the diversity in their economic, social and religious backgrounds and in their mother-tongues, higher education in almost all the territories is conducted through the medium of English. It is then in the development of institutions of higher education that peculiar opportunity exists for the forging of the permanent intellectual links which are so desirable in the world to-day. The recommendations which we now make are directed to the immediate problems of university development, but we have no doubt of the importance of their bearing on this wider objective.

2. The creation of an Inter-University Council

We recommend the creation of a new body, the "Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies". The Council would be a co-operative organisation of the universities of Great Britain and the Colonies charged in general terms with the two distinct tasks of co-operating with existing Colonial universities and of fostering the development of Colonial colleges in their advance to university status. In recommending that this new body should be constituted, we do not overlook the valuable work that is being done in a more general field by the Universities Bureau of the British Empire. We believe, however, that a new body such as we now suggest may be more appropriate for the discharge of the special function to which we shall refer below and which will have considerable bearing on the development of the new universities and university colleges in the Colonies at the earlier stage of their existence.

As regards the composition of the new Council, each of the home universities should be invited to nominate a member. We might venture to hope that a tradition would be established that representatives so nominated would not only be of weight in their own universities, but would have a special interest in Colonial affairs. Provision might also be made by co-optation for the representation of university colleges and institutions of comparable status which have a special interest in Colonial students or in Colonial subjects of study. Each Colonial university and university college should also be invited to nominate a member. Such members might be able to attend meetings only as occasion served, but they would provide a valuable channel for communication and for making known in the Colonies the opportunities provided

by the work of the Council. In order that the Council should be kept in close contact with developments in school and other forms of education in the Colonies, it is desirable that the Adviser on Education to the Secretary of State should also be a member. The Council would appoint its own Chairman who might or might not be chosen from among the members of the Council.

The Council would doubtless carry out much of its work through an Executive Committee which might find it necessary to form standing or *ad hoc* committees. The members of these committees, all of whom would not necessarily be members of the Council, would be chosen by regard to the subjects of which they possessed special knowledge rather than by regard to their representative capacity. The Council would require a permanent secretariat, with a full time secretary of suitable distinction and appropriate experience and adequate office accommodation. We suggest that the appointment of members to the Council should be for a period not normally exceeding five years, but that the appointments should be so balanced that no undue proportion of the members retire in any year.

3. The chief functions of the Inter-University Council

The first task of the Council would be to acquaint itself with the present position and needs of the Colonial university institutions. We attach great importance to its acquiring first hand experience of the Colonies by short visits of some of its members. Evidence from the Colonies has shown that such visits are greatly valued by the Colonial institutions. Some of us who have had the privilege of visiting the colleges and universities at various times will always remember the welcome we have received and the interesting discussions and exchange of information and ideas which took place. Visits of this type will have a special value since they will provide the staffs of the colleges with an opportunity of discussing not only general policy but problems of teaching and research encountered in their own subjects and in mitigating their sense of isolation. We shall subsequently refer to the benefits which have been derived by the Kitchener School of Medicine, Khartoum, from the regular annual visits of men of high distinction in medicine.

As has already been indicated in chapter V, the Council would have a specially important part to play in connection with the staffing of the institutions. Here it is desirable to give some indication of the range of the problem of staffing. While we are unable to make any precise estimate of what may be the requirements in regard to staff, we anticipate that in the West Indies and West Africa alone some 90 posts of status not less than that of senior lecturer would be created within the next few years. To these must be added the needs of East Africa, where under our proposals the requirements for medicine, agriculture and veterinary science will not be less than those of West Africa. Later there will come the similar needs of Malaya, at least in the subjects of arts, science and medicine; and of Hong Kong. These estimates take no account of men who may be required for special research appointments either within the colleges or in institutions elsewhere.

In the normal course, appointments to the staffs of the institutions will be made by the institutions themselves and we would not wish to suggest that their responsibility for their own staffs should be lessened in any way by the work of the Council. But by virtue of its composition, the Council will be in close touch with all the home universities and it would no doubt be ready to make its services available to any Colonial institution which desires to consult it regarding the recruitment of staff whether for teaching or for research. The services which it may be able to render in this respect will

be considerable; especially so when it is desired to fill appointments, as we recommend in chapter V, by the secondment of members of the staffs of home universities and colleges.

By following the progress of members of the staffs of the colleges the Council would gather experience as to the type of men who prove most successful. Where a member of the staff of a Colonial institution desired a change, the Council might use its good offices to assist him. Above all it would foster the feeling that for those who go to the Colonies there exists at home an authoritative academic body interested in their careers.

A further function of the Council should be to facilitate arrangements by which institutions in the Colonies can receive visitors annually, the number of whom would no doubt vary from year to year, concerned with one or other of the subjects or branches of study of which they have special knowledge. These visits would be arranged by the Council in consultation with the authorities of the institutions to be visited. Correlation with the visits of examiners sent out by the University of London in connection with the scheme of examination to which reference is made in chapter IX will be ensured through the member of the Council representing that University. In certain subjects such as agriculture and medicine there would be an additional advantage if these visitors could learn something of the problems of the particular government departments by visits to research and similar institutions.

We should not wish to see such visits limited to the Colonial colleges. If the existing Colonial universities so wish, we suggest that visits should from time to time be made to them also, and that a similar arrangement should be made to enable visits to be paid to the universities in Great Britain by members of their academic staff.

The question of the financial provision to be made for the work of the Council will be discussed in chapter XIII, but here we would say that the cost of visits arranged by the Council seem, in our opinion, to be a proper charge on United Kingdom funds. If grants for capital or recurrent expenditure are to be made from these funds, the visits might help to ensure that the grants have been wisely spent and assist in the assessment of future needs. In chapter VIII we recommend that one or two seats on the governing bodies of a Colonial college and future Colonial university should be filled by the Inter-University Council.

The Council would advise the Colonial institutions on any matter of academic policy or research on which they sought its help. Arising from the special relationship with London University which we outline in chapter IX, there will be many points on which collaboration with that University may be of great value. In subjects such as medicine, agriculture, or veterinary science, the Council would interest itself in the question of the recognition of the local diplomas by bodies such as the General Medical Council, or of their acceptance by the home universities as conferring a qualification for entering upon postgraduate study in this country or obtaining exemption from the earlier stages of undergraduate courses.

4. Its functions in connection with Colonial students in the home universities.

The Council would we hope take an active interest in the placing of Colonial students in the home universities. Full information could be obtained by the visitors through personal interview and discussion with the teachers concerning any student who was hoping to come to this country. In the light of this information, the Council would be able to advise the intending student which university would be best fitted for his proposed studies. Such a method would help to overcome the difficulties which have been experienced in the placing of students in the past and provide the home universities with more

reliable information than has hitherto been available as a basis for dealing with applications for admission from students. The Council would thus ensure that the places available in the home universities, which may at least in some subjects be limited in the next few years, will be allocated to the best advantage, while the students themselves will come to Great Britain knowing that a personal interest had already been taken in them.

We have given considerable thought to the question whether the Council should be responsible for the welfare of Colonial students coming to Great Britain for study, a matter which is at present in the hands of the Director of Colonial Studies, an official of the Colonial Office. The question is complicated by the fact that many students come to Great Britain for a variety of training purposes in institutions other than universities, and for this as well as other reasons we feel that the problem of their welfare is not one appropriate to the Council.

The problem of welfare of students and their proper guidance is not easy of solution. We hope, however, that one of the results of the more active interest and co-operation of the home universities will be the development within each university of special provision for their welfare and advice.

5. The relation of the Council to schemes for financing higher education from United Kingdom funds

We have also given some thought to the question whether the Council should be asked to render advice on the allocation to Colonial universities and colleges of grants from United Kingdom funds. We have decided not to recommend a function of this character, apart from the suggestion which we have made in chapter V in regard to the administration of the funds provided for supplementing the pay of overseas staff. We consider that the Council would have greater influence with the Colonial institutions if its function were in the main confined to consultation and advice on the academic aspect of any projects of development put forward. We have therefore decided to recommend the establishment of a separate body, the Colonial University Grants Advisory Committee, to the composition of which we shall refer subsequently in chapter XIII. The Inter-University Council should however be represented on the Grants Committee, and we assume that it will be consulted, as a matter of course, on the desirability from the academic point of view of the projects for which financial aid is sought. In the knowledge obtained through the work of its visitors, the Council will be able to advise the Grants Committee not only on general principles but on the needs of particular institutions. Indeed it will be able to anticipate needs which are likely to develop in the near or more distant future, and any views put forward would no doubt be of assistance to the Secretary of State and to Colonial Governments. We anticipate that occasions may arise when it will be desirable for the Council to arrange special visits to the Colonies to discuss problems of this character.

6. The functions of the Council in regard to the promotion of Colonial studies in home universities

We feel that the Council may also have an important function to perform in regard to the encouragement of Colonial studies in the home universities. A number of the universities have chairs, readerships and lectureships in subjects which have a particular reference to the Colonies, and we hope to see the number of these posts extended. Their holders will be able to make a valuable contribution to the literature on Colonial problems, and to stimulate among their students an increasing interest in Colonial affairs. It will be for each university to decide how far it would

wish to bring the further study of Colonial problems within the scope of its activities. But we hope that as the work of the Council makes these problems better known, there will be an increased desire on the part of the universities to take a part in assisting in their solution.

7. Relations between the universities of the United Kingdom, the Dominions, India and the Colonies

Although the immediate objective of our proposals is the promotion of institutions of higher education in the Colonies, the machinery which we have recommended would be available for the development of co-operation with the Dominions or India, and if other schemes are forthcoming (as we believe they may be) for closer co-operation in certain aspects of higher education, for example, postgraduate work, there would be nothing to hinder the Inter-University Council from taking a part in them.

CHAPTER VIII

THE GOVERNING AUTHORITY OF COLONIAL UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES

1. The importance of autonomy

In our view it is essential that Colonial universities should be autonomous in the sense in which the universities of Great Britain are autonomous. This does not mean that they should not be under certain obligations. They should be required, for example, to publish an annual report accompanied by a financial statement, and wherever grants are sought either from the United Kingdom or from Colonial funds it is reasonable that periodical visitations should take place by a properly constituted authority. We have in mind the analogous visitations of the University Grants Committee in this country. The Colonial universities should, in effect, have full freedom to manage their own affairs, though placed under the obligation to present an account of their stewardship. Only if autonomy so understood is allowed, can that degree of freedom of teaching and research be secured which is fundamental to a university; only in these conditions can the highly expert task of maintaining proper academic standards be carried out.

2. Practice in this country

The newer universities of this country have constitutions which, while varying in detail, follow the same general plan. This plan has been found to work with success, and we recommend that it should be followed in the Colonies. In this scheme we find two chief offices, those of Chancellor and Vice-Chancellor, and two chief organs of government; the names given to these organs vary, but there is always a supreme organ of government which we shall call the Council and a body of purely academic composition which we shall call the Senate.

This scheme of government is also applicable to university colleges though they do not have a Chancellor. The officer corresponding to the Vice-Chancellor is the Principal, and the body corresponding to the Senate is usually known as the Academic Board. It may be observed that if it were found desirable to have an officer at a university college with the status and powers of a Chancellor, other than the power of granting degrees which is not possessed by a university college, he might be called the Visitor.

In order to secure the required degree of autonomy it is not enough to have these officers and these organs of government. Two further conditions are indispensable. The Senate must possess full authority in purely academic matters; otherwise, however independent the university may be, academic issues, which should be the sole responsibility of the academic staff, will be subject to determination by the Council, a body in which the representatives of the academic staff will be in a minority. In other words, a proper measure of autonomy for the academic staff within the university is necessary. It is of equal importance that the members of the Council nominated or elected by any one outside organisation or institution shall not be in a majority; otherwise the university may become a mere creature of that organisation. The composition of the Council should therefore be well balanced; moreover, the method whereby outside organisations appoint members to the Council should be such as to secure as far as possible that these members are not so much representatives of outside interests as persons well qualified for the task of forwarding the true aims of a university.

3. Outline of constitution for Colonial universities

We now offer a sketch of the broad outlines of a constitution suitable for Colonial universities; while retaining the main constitutional principles found in our newer universities, we have attempted to take account of the special situation which will face universities in the Colonies. The Council is the supreme governing body; it is the trustee of the property of the university, and it authorises all expenditure. It appoints the Vice-Chancellor and fills all non-academic posts. We consider that the power to appoint the Chancellor should rest with the Crown. To the Senate are assigned all academic matters relating to curricula and examinations; it is responsible for the control and discipline of students; it is empowered to make regulations. In certain spheres the two bodies co-operate; the Council promotes statutes and frames ordinances after consulting the Senate, and it makes all academic appointments on the recommendation of the Senate. There is an appeal to the Council on matters in dispute in the Senate, and to the Chancellor on matters in dispute in the Council. The Chancellor is the final arbiter in all matters which may be referred to him.

4. Composition of the Council

As already indicated, the composition of the Council is a matter of great importance. It should not be too large a body; it would be well if its numbers did not greatly exceed twenty. For the members other than the representatives of the Senate will be drawn from different walks of life and sometimes from different Colonies and will not normally be known personally to one another. If they are to form a body between the members of which there can grow up a certain degree of intimacy, as is most desirable, they must not be too numerous. The methods of attaining seats on the Council will be various, some will hold seats *ex-officio*, others will be elected, nominated or co-opted.

The two chief officers of the university will be members of the Council *ex-officio*. When present the Chancellor will preside, but he would not normally be expected to attend. It might be laid down that the Vice-Chancellor should be chairman of the Council in the absence of the Chancellor, thus exercising the power of the Chancellor in this as in other spheres when the Chancellor is not present, or it might be thought best for the Council to elect its chairman. The Vice-Chancellor should be chairman of the Senate *ex-officio*, and since much business comes forward from the Senate to the Council it may be easier for the Vice-Chancellor to present this business to the Council if he is not also its chairman.

Not less than one third of the seats on the Council should be held by members of the academic staff. It is a great convenience if the deans of the principal Faculties are members of the Council; they should therefore be members *ex-officio*. But a majority of these seats should be filled by election by the Senate, and the restriction on total numbers which we have suggested may mean that not more than three of the deans could be members *ex-officio*. Provision is sometimes made for one or more of these seats to be filled by members of the non-professorial staff; but in the absence of such a provision the non-professorial staff would not be excluded from membership if our subsequent recommendation that the non-professorial staff should have seats on the Senate is adopted.

We now approach the question of the presence on the Council of persons who are not members of the university. We would assign up to one third of all seats to persons nominated or elected by the Legislatures and by the Executive Governments in the area served by the university, but it is to be desired that the majority of these seats should be filled by representatives of the Legislatures. The filling of seats by the Legislatures would be a method of enabling the people in the areas served by the university to take a share in the direction of university policy, and it is appropriate that they should be in a position to do so. While we hold that the university should neither be directly controlled nor appear to be controlled by the government we consider that on many grounds it is advisable that the executive Government should have some representation on the Council.

As regards the remaining seats we should like to see provision made for the nomination by the Chancellor to a certain number of seats to provide for those who may be qualified by experience or who possess personal qualities which might be of assistance to the Council. We would hold that for this purpose members of the government services should not necessarily be excluded, but they would be nominated on their personal qualities, not as representatives of Government. We would like to see formed an organisation of the graduates of the university, which might be called either the Guild of Graduates or Convocation; this body should be represented by at least two members on the Council. In our opinion such a body might be of much assistance to the university, and not only by electing members of Council; while it would have no other formal powers, it would enable graduates to keep in touch with developments and to offer advice; in short it would focus the loyalty of graduates to their university.

Finally, we propose that one or two seats should be filled by the Inter-University Council. We realise that these members will seldom be able to attend, though we hope that they would visit the university once a year and be present for at least one meeting of the Council. But we think that the provision of these seats would be useful because those holding them would receive all the papers of the Council of the university and would be able to keep the Inter-University Council fully informed of the current business of the university. They would also, no doubt, convey their views on current business in writing to the Vice-Chancellor for communication to his Council.

We realise that it may be difficult to secure the regular attendance of a majority of the members of the Council so constituted and it may be necessary for it to arrange that its business may be transacted either through an executive committee with sufficient powers to avoid the delay of current business or by a suitably balanced quorum of its members.

5. Composition of the Senate

The composition of the Senate is a less difficult problem. It would consist of the Vice-Chancellor, who would be ex-officio chairman, all professors, all deans of Faculties, heads of departments who are not professors, and certain officers, as for example, the librarian. In addition there would be representatives of the non-professorial staff elected by the members of that section of the staff; these representatives should not form more than a sixth of the total number composing the Senate. Under the Senate there would be Faculties to whom power to determine certain matters would be assigned.

6. The Chancellor and the Vice-Chancellor

Some indication has been given of the mode of appointment and of the powers of the Chancellor and the Vice-Chancellor. The former office is honorary and the holder should be a man of distinction and experience. It is hoped that he would preside on ceremonial occasions. He would be available for advice but would not intervene in the affairs of the university unless invited to do so, as for instance, by arbitrating in a matter of dispute. In the absence of the Chancellor all his powers would be exercised by the Vice-Chancellor who should be a man of good academic standing and administrative experience.

7. Initial stages

In order to bring a constitution of this kind into being, special arrangements would have to be made; moreover the body first to be set up would be a university college and not a university. The first Principal might be appointed by the Crown and the initial appointments to the academic staff will no doubt be made after consultation with the Inter-University Council. It would only be after the university has been in operation for some years that there could be a Guild of Graduates of the new university; it might be arranged that graduates of any United Kingdom or Dominion university resident in the area concerned should be members of the Guild until a certain number of years after the grant of a charter to the university. Since these are matters of detail rather than of principle, we have not thought it incumbent upon us to consider further the necessary transitional arrangements.

CHAPTER IX

THE PERIOD OF TRANSITION FROM COLLEGE TO FULL UNIVERSITY STATUS

1. The significance attaching to the standard and character of degrees

There may be more than one test of the value of the contribution which a university makes to the life of the society which it serves. But as a centre of instruction and learning the test which must be applied is the extent of the recognition accorded to its degrees in the academic world. The problem of the standard and character of the degree to be awarded at the end of the normal undergraduate course is one which every university rightly regards as of the first importance. There is no simple formula for its solution. The degrees awarded by universities in this country vary among themselves in many important respects. Different universities establish individual traditions which become recognised as peculiar characteristics of their own, and it would be idle to deny that there are variations in standard in the work demanded in specific subjects. At the same time a rough equality of standard is maintained sufficient to permit a general recognition of the value of a degree; the differences are one aspect of the

freedom of university institutions on which great store has long been set in this country. The new Colonial universities will, it is hoped, in course of time build for themselves similar traditions and individual characteristics. At the same time it is most important that the general standard maintained in this country should prevail also in them.

Developments of this nature must of necessity take time. It is inevitable that in the initial stages of the growth of Colonial institutions attention will be concentrated on securing for the Colonial graduate a qualification whose significance is clear. The degrees obtained by students must represent both academic attainments of the standard associated with success at a degree examination in this country, and an intellectual training comparable to that obtainable in a home university; for the qualification must be acceptable to Colonial Governments and other appointing bodies as the equivalent of degrees granted by universities at home; and it must, at the same time, be acceptable by universities in this country as an adequate preparation for postgraduate work. These are the two tests which will commonly be applied in the Colonies themselves as the criteria by which the value of their university institutions is measured. There is ample evidence that Colonial opinion is already crystallised on this point.

These considerations apply with equal force to all the branches of study in which degrees may be granted. The problems involved in finding the solution differ indeed in detail. In medicine, for example, the General Medical Council by its system of "recognition" of qualifications to practise provides a valuable test of the standard of achievement. The special problems relating to this and other professional subjects may call for individual solution, and where this is the case they are considered in Part II of our report. The discussion that follows here is particularly applicable to degrees in the Faculties of arts and science, although it may be found in many cases to have wider application.

2. Possible alternative methods of awarding degrees in the initial period

We have examined in detail three possible methods for the awarding of degrees in the initial period of the growth of Colonial institutions:—

(a) that students should enter for the London external degrees in continuance of the practice followed hitherto in several of the Colonial colleges,

(b) that the Inter-University Council should be empowered to grant degrees,

(c) that degree giving powers should be conferred at once upon the authorities of the Colonial institutions themselves.

(a) The external degree system of London University

The external degree system of the University of London offers opportunity to persons who are not students of any of the colleges of that University to follow the same curricula and to be examined by the same standards as the internal students of the University itself; examiners are appointed to examine both internal and external students and they are specially charged to maintain equivalence of standards. This system allows persons who, for one reason or another, cannot attend courses at a degree-giving university to acquire a degree of deservedly high prestige. It has been of great service to isolated students in this country and in many parts of the Empire, and it has encouraged the spread of higher education among large numbers of persons whose desire or opportunity for learning has come at a comparatively late period in their lives. It has further contributed substantially to the growth of the newer universities in this country. As these institutions developed they became universities with the power of conferring their own degrees; in several cases,

however, there was an earlier period when their students obtained their degrees through the London external examinations. At the present time students of the University Colleges of Nottingham, Exeter, Southampton, Leicester and Hull sit for London external degrees. A similar evolution has already taken place in Ceylon, which was until recently a university college most of whose students worked for London degrees and is now a degree-granting University. The value of the London external degree in the development of higher education in different parts of the Empire is indeed well-recognised, and London examinations have been taken widely both by the "private" student working in isolation and by students of the various colleges not yet of university rank.

The system has, however, disadvantages from the Colonial standpoint, and we have examined carefully the points of criticism which have been raised with us from various sources. Differing conditions in the Colonies involve problems wholly distinct from those experienced in providing common examinations for students in various parts of Great Britain. The differences are partly geographical, with the accompanying variations in the materials available for the study of the biological sciences; they are partly the result of the broad distinction between communities at different stages of social and economic development, distinctions of great importance in relation to the study of the social sciences. There is further the problem of the approach to the study of language in those large areas of the Colonial Empire where the English tongue is not the inherited language of the people, and the linguistic background of their speech differs fundamentally from that of Europe. The authorities of London University have recognised many of the implications of these differences. Special provision is made for the substitution of an oriental classical language for Latin or Greek in the case of students born in Asia and Africa. Variations have been permitted in syllabuses in the biological sciences, in history and in geography. But these special provisions, helpful though they have been, do not wholly meet the needs of Colonial students. The differing background and educational needs of the peoples of the Colonial Empire demand a greater measure of variety in courses and curricula than has hitherto characterised the London external degree.

There is another important point. The judgment of students in an examination designed and controlled by an authority some thousands of miles away is, indeed, a system admirably devised to secure impartiality of treatment and the maintenance of sound standards of academic achievement. Still more does this become apparent when it is remembered that the examination, with a few minor variations, is the same as that taken by students working in Great Britain itself. But these advantages, which have benefited alike the "private" student and the students of the Colonial colleges, have carried with them some drawbacks for the latter. The system, as we have been informed, has led in practice to over-emphasis on the importance of examinations in comparison with that of the training received during the students' course. It is easy to see that teaching in these circumstances may become too rigidly directed to the examination. Again, in practice, the minimum requirements laid down in university regulations may come to be regarded as upper rather than lower limits; regulations may indeed obtain an importance which should be reserved for the more nebulous objective of sound learning, and the letter of the law may be exalted to the detriment of the spirit.

We realise fully that for the "private" student the external system as it exists at present provides opportunities which otherwise would be wholly lacking, and we have learned with interest of the further methods for helping such students with their work afforded by the development of an Advisory Service for external students as part of the activities of London University.

We are, however, concerned primarily with the system of examination for the students of the Colonial colleges, and for these colleges we should desire a relationship with the degree granting authority of a different character, one above all which permits direct contact between examiners and teachers and a full adjustment of examination requirements to the geographical, linguistic and economic characteristics of the Colonial areas.

(b) Possibility of recognising the Inter-University Council as a degree-giving body

With these considerations in mind we have examined the possibility that we should seek for the Inter-University Council the power of conducting degree examinations and conferring degrees. This solution to our problem would have one outstanding advantage. It would give to all the participating universities in this country a direct concern in the determination of the character and standard of the degrees. It would put the awarding of degrees into the hands of that organisation which, if our recommendations are accepted, will have an interest in the other aspects of the work of the colleges. It would facilitate the adjustment which we desire to secure between degree examinations and Colonial conditions.

The proposal appeared to us at first sight to be an attractive one, but on careful consideration we have reached the conclusion that there are decisive objections to it. In the first place, it would involve the setting up in this country of new and elaborate machinery for dealing with curricula and examinations. In the second place, it would mean that the degrees obtained by the students were those of an authority not only newly created, but also having no precedent in the university world, an authority moreover brought into being to deal only with students of Colonial colleges. For this reason the plan might well fail to fulfil the aspirations of Colonial students, who, it is reasonable to suppose, would value a degree either of an established university or of their own college when it had risen to university status, but not a degree emanating from so novel a source. In short, when it is examined, the proposal is seen to involve a cumbrous innovation for which those whom it is designed to benefit would probably feel no enthusiasm.

(c) The possibility of the immediate grant of degree-giving powers to Colonial colleges

The ultimate desideratum is not a Colonial degree system, but a degree of each of the various Colonial universities, each with its own diversities and traditions comparable to those existing in universities at home. This fact led us to consider with great care the third of our possible solutions, the immediate grant of degree-giving powers to the Colonial colleges themselves. We were agreed from the outset that the early grant of these powers was desirable, and that this was essential to the free development of higher education. We have learned with interest of the system for the grant of college diplomas at certain of the existing Colonial institutions, as, for example, at Makerere College and at Gordon College, Khartoum. This system gives opportunity for the free planning of courses and the conduct of examinations by the staffs of the Colleges. It permits valuable experiments in the adjustment of academic curricula to local needs. It provides a qualification for students the value of which we fully appreciate. We desire in every way to encourage experiments on these lines, and regard them indeed as an important part of the ground work upon which later a degree system can be based. We are of opinion that the practice by which these courses terminate in a college diploma should be maintained for the present. The colleges must be given time to develop so that their degrees when they are granted will have immediate recognition. No greater disaster

could befall a university than that it should start its history with a system for the grant of degrees which failed to secure ready acceptance as proof of a high standard of achievement and a sound course of training. If our recommendations were to lead to this result, we should have done harm rather than good to the cause of education in the Colonies. A period of probation is in our view essential, and in this interval the interest of the students requires that some means should be open to them for proving their capacity for academic achievement. It has been our concern to find a way by which these means can be provided without what we have described as the disadvantages of the external system as it works at present.

3. Recommendations in favour of the grant of degrees by London University

The solution of this problem has been made possible by the successful termination of negotiations into which we entered with the University of London. The University has set up a special committee of the Senate in accordance with a scheme, the object of which will be to establish a new relationship between the Colonial colleges and the University. The University has stipulated, and we recognise not only the justice of the stipulation but its advantages from our standpoint, that the Colonial colleges which participate in the scheme must have reached a certain stage in development. In order to participate, a college must, for example, have an adequate staff, whose control of academic work is constitutionally established; it must be adequately equipped and must have satisfactory standards of entrance requirements. It will be noted that these conditions will in fact be fulfilled if our recommendations are carried into effect. The degrees awarded to the students of the participating colleges will be those of London, and will therefore carry with them the reputation which those degrees possess.

We fully realise that in these circumstances the final word in the determination of the standards of the examination and the syllabuses prescribed for them, and in the appointment of examiners, must lie with the London Senate. The decisions taken by the Senate, however, aim at the removal of the special disadvantages of external system when it is applied to Colonial areas. In particular it may be noted that the new committee of the Senate will have the following aims prominently in mind:

(i) the establishment of direct and easy co-operation between the Academic Boards of the Colonial colleges and the Senate of the University,

(ii) the institution of a regular system of consultation between the authorities of the University and the staffs of the colleges upon questions of syllabus and examination requirements,

(iii) the promotion of personal contact between the external examiners appointed by the University and the teachers in the colleges, in part by visits of the examiners to the colleges,

(iv) the participation of members of the staffs of the colleges in the actual work of examining their own students.

It is clear from our communications with the University of London that it is the intention of the Senate that the new system of co-operation should have wide implications, and in particular that the consultation on questions of syllabus and examination requirements should result, where it is found desirable, in substantial adjustments to local conditions. It will be open to the academic authorities of the colleges to make their own proposals direct to the University, and these proposals will clearly be welcomed. This practice will give to the teachers in the colleges full opportunity for making their views effective by direct communication with the University. The visits to the colleges of examiners from this country will make possible a far

closer co-ordination than has been the case hitherto between the examination requirements and the work of the colleges themselves, and the gradual introduction of members of the staff of the colleges as assistant examiners will make this co-ordination still more secure. The University has moreover expressed its readiness to participate in giving help and advice to the colleges in relation to their diploma courses, and in doing so has recognised the importance of these courses as the foundation of the later degree system. Further the University has indicated its willingness to receive suggestions made by the proposed Inter-University Council, whose direct contacts with the colleges will, it is intended, be frequent. In our opinion this scheme is admirably designed to remove the difficulties and misapprehensions inherent in the normal system for the award of external degrees, and we therefore recommend that the Colonial colleges should be invited to avail themselves of it.

We are aware that the scheme of examinations which we recommend will be of necessity an expensive one. Special syllabuses involve separate examination papers, and the visits of examiners to the colleges will require special provision. We are of opinion, however, that the results which we seek to achieve are of great importance, and have included in the financial statement in chapter XIII a recommendation that special grants should be made to the University of London to cover the costs which the new system involves.

4. The stage at which Colonial universities will grant degrees

This scheme has been devised by the University of London and is recommended by the Commission as an interim arrangement pending the grant of degree-giving powers to the Colonial institutions themselves. We regard it as part of our duty to indicate in broad outline the conditions which should prevail before the interim period is ended. The colleges which enter upon the new relationship with the University of London will be, if our recommendations are put into effect, already on their way towards university status; for in them will be found the control of academic matters by an Academic Board or Council, the achievement of substantial progress in the equipment of laboratories and libraries, the possession of an academic staff adequate in numbers as well as in quality, and the insistence on satisfactory standards of entrance requirements. The process of development to full university status under the scheme recommended will begin as soon as our recommendations become operative, but the interval before it is complete will no doubt vary with different institutions. There are three conditions whose fulfilment is essential. The staff must have had a few years' experience of university work in the Colonial institutions; their conditions of work must be of a nature to permit the active prosecution of research; and there must have been already a substantial number of students who have completed satisfactorily courses for degrees. These students, moreover, should show some variety in academic training, some taking a course in one subject or group of subjects and some in others, some in the Faculty of arts, for example, and some in the Faculty of science. A reasonably well-balanced academic background is, in our view, essential in a university. When these conditions have been met by any of the Colonial colleges—a matter concerning which the proposed Inter-University Council will be able to express a view—the transfer to full university status will be sought by making an application for an appropriate charter.

The transformation of the Colonial college into a Colonial university may involve certain minor changes of nomenclature. The Principal would become a Vice-Chancellor, the Academic Board a Senate. The university will have

unquestioned control over its entrance requirements, its curricula and its degree examinations. It will appoint its own external examiners. We may here express a hope that under these new conditions the universities may continue to seek the help of external examiners from this country, as well as from universities elsewhere, so that the close links that will have been established will not be broken. The universal practice in the universities of Great Britain of inviting examiners from other universities to take part in their degree examinations is one which we hope will become equally the practice in the Colonies. It does much to achieve the general acceptance of a rough equality of standard in the degrees of different universities, despite the many variations between them. The change will involve too a new relationship with the Inter-University Council; but we have already indicated our hope that the Council may continue to be of use to the Colonial universities in maintaining close links with this country and in giving help when it is needed in matters such as staffing and equipment on which the friendly assistance of universities at home may be of value.

CHAPTER X

ENTRANCE QUALIFICATIONS

The problem of the selection of students for admission to the Colonial colleges (and later to the universities which will develop from them) is one of vital importance to the institutions themselves. The standard adopted for the minimum entrance qualifications will have a direct influence on the standards of work in the college, and unless a reasonable level is maintained its evolution to university status will be undesirably postponed. At the same time there is another danger against which it is necessary to guard. The qualifications required for entrance to the college will have repercussions on the work of secondary schools, and care is needed to secure that this influence is favourable to the development of sound teaching at this stage.

We fully recognise that the conditions prevailing in the Colonies demand special consideration and that they vary greatly in different areas. The University of Ceylon imposes a standard of admission closely similar to that which we recommend here. Our West Indies Committee found that conditions in the West Indies made this standard equally applicable to that region. In Africa on the other hand different circumstances require separate treatment. Secondary school education is not nearly so fully developed; the pupils have, moreover, the additional disadvantage that their education is conducted in a language which is not their mother-tongue. In some areas English is not even the pupils' second language but their third. Such pupils cannot be expected to pass school examinations at the age normal in this country and attempts to make them do so would result in undesirable cramming and overwork. This difficulty cannot be wholly overcome by the improvements for which we hope in the secondary schools. We have given full and sympathetic consideration to the problems raised by these conditions, and make special recommendations for their solution. One or two of us, indeed, feel that these problems are so vital that our recommendation as a whole should be directed primarily to meet them. Most of us, however, are of opinion that we ought to state in the first place the principles which we think should be maintained wherever circumstances permit, and follow this statement by a separate discussion of the possible ways of meeting special difficulties.

1. General Principles

There is a large measure of agreement among university teachers in this country as to the general level which it is desirable that students should reach before they are admitted to courses in the Faculties of arts and science lead-

ing, in the normal period of three years, to a degree. This level may be defined as that achieved as a result of two years' work in a sixth form, two years, that is to say, after the successful entry for a School Certificate examination. In English schools these two years are frequently given to preparation for a Higher School Certificate examination. While, however, there is agreement as to the value of work in the sixth form, there is some diversity of opinion about the suitability of the particular form of test now associated with the Higher School Certificate examination. We are moreover aware that the whole system of school examinations is at present under review, and we do not therefore wish to express an opinion as to the desirability of encouraging pupils in Colonial secondary schools to enter for this examination as at present constituted. We should prefer to emphasise our view that these pupils should wherever possible, like their contemporaries in this country, have the opportunity to spend two years in a sixth form.

This recommendation involves certain consequences. In the first place, the normal age for transfer from school to college would be not less than 18. In the second place, the preliminary studies necessary before a student starts a university course would be carried out at school, and time at the university college would not be wasted in making good the deficiencies of earlier education. This second point is an important one. We should strongly deprecate a practice by which students are admitted to classes for which they are not properly fitted. In the Faculties of arts and science for example the normal first year course terminates in an Intermediate examination. No student should be admitted to this course who does not satisfy two conditions; he must have already completed the requirements for matriculation and he must have attained a sufficiently high standard to make it probable that he can reach the level of the Intermediate examination in one session. The crowding of the first year courses by students who are manifestly ill-equipped is wasteful and academically unsound. The conditions of entry to the degree courses must be framed in such a way as to secure that this danger is avoided.

In those colleges where the students will take the degrees of the University of London, in accordance with the system which we have described in the preceding chapter, the minimum entrance qualifications for the degree course will be determined in the first place by the requirements for matriculating at London. There are several methods of meeting these requirements. The usual method for students of the normal undergraduate age (i.e., about 18) is the entry at school, at the age of about 16, for the School Certificate examination conducted by one of the eight schools' examining authorities in this country. Success at this examination with the requisite number and distribution of "credits" qualifies the student for exemption from any special matriculation examination. It is to be noted that the obligation to obtain "credits" is a matter of some importance. In 1939, for example, at the midsummer examination 14,575 candidates "passed" the London School Certificate examination, while the number obtaining the "credits" necessary for matriculation was 7,634.

Representations have been made to us that the restrictions at present in force as to the choice of subjects necessary in order to fulfil the requirements of matriculation weigh unduly on Colonial students, and the question is one of those to which the Senate of the University of London has agreed to give sympathetic consideration. We attach considerable importance to the adapting of syllabuses and restrictions as to subjects to meet conditions in the Colonies at this stage as well as for higher examinations, and we have learned with interest of the substantial progress already made in this direction by schools' examining authorities, and in particular of the modifications of syllabuses made by the Cambridge Schools Examination Syndicate. It is,

however, a general principle which we cordially endorse, that such modifications are subject to the limitation that they must not imply any lowering of standard. Moreover, the proposals at present under discussion for changing the basis and character of schools' examinations are likely to lead in the direction of raising rather than lowering the present minimum requirements for matriculation in this country. The minimum statutory requirements must therefore be taken as a bare minimum below which no admission should be made.

There is a further point. The minimum qualifications do not in this country constitute any claim of entry to universities or colleges. This is a point of some importance in considering the applicability of the normal practice to the Colonies. Grants and scholarships to enable pupils at secondary schools to proceed to a university are given at a stage in their education which may generally be described as two years after the securing of minimum qualifications by successful entry for a School Certificate examination. The figures given above for the numbers successful at the London School Certificate examination are significant from this point of view, particularly if it is remembered that this is only one of the eight schools' examinations conducted regularly in this country. Only a small proportion of the students qualified for matriculation in fact proceed to a university in Great Britain. The normal entrant to a university has substantially higher qualifications than those prescribed as the statutory minimum. Each college in the University of London, for example, settles its own standard of admission provided that this does not fall below the minimum statutory requirements, and we recommend that from the beginning the same practice should be applied in Colonial colleges. The normal method of testing qualifications is by an entrance examination. In using the term "entrance examination" we do not intend to imply a written examination only; interviews (or *viva voce* examinations) form an important part of entrance tests, and the scrutiny of school records is also valuable.

2. Entrance requirements for degree courses

We recommend therefore that direct entrance to courses leading to a degree should be limited to students who fulfil the following conditions:—

(i) the securing of the necessary number of "credits" at a School Certificate examination (or at whatever schools' examination may later be substituted for this);

(ii) the passing of a special college entrance examination, designed to test the results of work at the level commonly associated with a sixth form in a secondary school (in connection with this, students should be interviewed and their school records scrutinised).

Our recommendations in favour of a college entrance examination instead of the acceptance of results of a public examination are based upon the belief that a special examination can more readily be directed to the specific end of testing the capacity of candidates to profit fully from a degree course. It can also be designed with a full knowledge of the type of work which can reasonably be expected from the secondary schools in the region.

3. Special conditions for entrance in certain areas

We have stated already that we are aware that the conditions which we have recommended are not possible of fulfilment in all Colonial regions. In some areas, it is hoped, the development of secondary schools will make them possible in the future. One of the objects, indeed, to which our recommendations are designed to lead is the encouragement of the growth of secondary schools. In these regions as elsewhere it is essential to our purpose that the university colleges should frame their policy and state their requirements in ways which give full weight to the circumstances of the region which they serve.

There are several ways in which adaptation to these circumstances could be made. One obvious policy is for the university colleges to institute preliminary courses designed to enable the student to reach at college, at the end of one or two years, the standard of attainment which we have indicated in the preceding paragraph. In connection with it we would, however, suggest one warning. The time spent on these preliminary courses must be added to the normal period of the degree course. We should, moreover, recommend strongly that the preliminary course should be conducted separately from the normal first year's course designed to lead to the Intermediate examination. This method of dealing with the problem has an obvious drawback. It would prolong the courses of students at the college and thus postpone the time when the effects of our recommendations can be felt in the teaching and other services for which trained men and women are urgently needed.

A different policy is already in operation in some of the Colonial colleges, and we hope that it may be further developed. This policy is that of providing alternative courses terminating in a diploma given by the Colonial college itself. The development of these courses would make it possible for students who can spend only three years in all at a university college to follow a course planned as a coherent whole, a point to which we attach considerable importance, and framed on a system which takes fully into account the entrance qualifications which it is reasonable to impose. The urgent need of the Colonies for trained men and women leads us to the view that a qualification resulting from a course of this kind may be invaluable in the immediate future. It might be possible in some cases to combine the two policies, by permitting students admitted to the diploma course to transfer to a degree course at a specified stage should the record of their work justify it.

It is at the same time of vital importance that the entrance requirements to the college for students of whatever category, should not be set too low. If a three-years' course for a diploma is provided it may well be that students taking it will have a large part to play in the task of bringing secondary school education to a satisfactory level. We recommend therefore that the conditions imposed should be as stringent as the circumstances of the Colony permit. In no case should students be admitted to the college below the age of 17, and wherever possible the normal age of 18 should be maintained. The students should in all cases be required to have passed before entry to the college a School Certificate examination with a "credit" in English and a prescribed number of other subjects. They should moreover be tested by the college by a special entrance examination designed to show their suitability to profit from a university course.

4. Provision for over-age students

There is one other class of student for whom special provisions may need to be made; the students who seek to enter the college at an age substantially above the minimum age after a period spent in employment since they left school. Some of these students may not have the necessary School Certificate qualifications.

CHAPTER XI

SCHOLARSHIPS AND FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE

1. Scholarships as a mark of academic distinction

The difference between scholarships as a mark of academic distinction and grants of financial assistance to supplement the means of students has been developed very clearly in Britain during the last twenty-five years. This

distinction is of special importance in the Colonies, where it is probable that in most areas an unusually large proportion of the students will be unable, without considerable help, to undertake higher education.

Little need be said here of entrance scholarships as rewards for academic ability. Those who win them should receive the status of scholar or of exhibitor, and, as frequently in this country, they should have the first claim upon financial assistance in proportion to their needs. Some might argue that the time has come when the practice of recognising intellectual distinction through scholarships should be allowed to lapse, but it is probable that the Colonies will wish, in this matter, to follow the practice in this country, and there is no doubt these awards stimulate energy and rivalry among the schools. That this rivalry may in certain conditions have unhealthy effects has been shown in the report of the West Indies Committee; the solution must be found in arrangements made to regulate the standards for entrance, to which reference has been made in chapter X.

2. Assistance to meet the financial needs of students

The question of assistance given to meet the financial needs of students may arise at more than one stage.

The first is that at which the student is entering a university or university college. We have recommended in chapter X that the colleges should conduct a special entrance examination. A selection having been made of students of the required standard, appropriate grants, as far as funds are available should be allocated after such confidential inquiry as may be practicable into their financial position. An adequate fund for this purpose is an essential part of the provision for Colonial universities, since without it there will be no possibility of filling the available places with the best candidates, or, perhaps, of filling those places at all. It is probable that grants of money will be forthcoming from other sources than the university. As in the West Indies and in Africa, Colonial Governments may vote funds for students from their own territories and Native Administrations may wish to do the same.

It would be most undesirable to discourage provision of this nature which may be voted readily under the impulse of local patriotism, but it would obviously be necessary for the conditions under which assistance is given to be worked out in consultation with the academic authorities. We may say here, and we elaborate this point in the succeeding chapter, that we hope that, except where special conditions warrant, the present practice of giving scholarships for undergraduate education overseas will be brought to an end, and that scholarships available for postgraduate work will be extended.

We attach much importance to this latter point. Although it is desirable that in future the great majority of Colonial students should receive higher education at institutions in the Colonies, we hope that policy will be directed to securing that an increasing number of these will be able to take in Britain or the Dominions postgraduate studies or special courses of training which are not available in the Colonies. Financial provision will be required for this purpose, and the question arises how these funds should be administered. The Colonial Governments will wish to play their part, since in many and perhaps in most cases, they will be in the best position to know in what directions trained staff is most needed and will also themselves be employers. On the other hand, the university authorities will best be able to judge of the qualifications of the students and probably of the most suitable overseas institutions in which to place them. As we have suggested in chapter VII, the Inter-University Council may also be able to give assistance in this respect.

It is not for us to prescribe in detail how this situation should be met, but we anticipate that both the university and the Government will have funds from which to finance this further training and will set up joint machinery for the selection of those students who are to be assisted directly by the Government. It is possible that Colonial men and women might be selected for studies abroad at a further stage when they have shown their qualities through some years of work in their professions. In these instances the balance of the decision will clearly be with those who are directing their work, but even here their record as undergraduates might usefully be taken into consideration.

Experience in the home universities has shown that there may be need for additional help at a third stage in special cases. After they have entered upon their courses, students sometimes meet with unforeseen difficulties which make it hard or impossible for them to continue their education. There should in each institution be arrangements for meeting these special cases where the performance of the student justifies such assistance, either by special grants or by instituting funds from which loans without interest can be made and which therefore operate as a revolving credit. It is important that no student should be allowed to contract the obligation of a loan until he has shown himself in all respects capable of bearing it. It is therefore desirable that loans should not be given, before the calibre of the student has been shown and in no case before he has entered upon his undergraduate career.

3. The indenture system

The further question arises whether those to whom the Governments award grants in order that they may obtain undergraduate or graduate training to fit them for the Colonial Services, should be under any legal obligation to enter these services and remain in them for some specific period. It is clear that they are under the strongest moral obligation to the tax-paying community to act in this way, but experience in Britain with regard to the obligations imposed upon teachers whose training has been subsidised from public funds has shown the difficulties of this method. The McNair Committee* in its report has indeed recommended that the system whereby young students in this country are required to sign a declaration committing them to take up work as teachers in return for the grants received by them should be abandoned as soon as possible. Here again, we cannot dictate to Colonial Governments how they should meet the problem, but we must express our doubt as to the efficacy of the legal contract in this sphere. In the Colonies many of the government services are so attractive in point of prestige and in the prospect of security that the question is seldom likely to arise.

CHAPTER XII

COLONIAL STUDENTS IN THIS COUNTRY

I. The number of Colonial students studying in Great Britain

There will be found in the Appendix figures of the number of Colonial students studying in various institutions in this country at the end of January, 1945. We are informed that the figures may not be complete, since the Colonial Office does not necessarily come into contact with all students, and we are also informed that since that date nearly a hundred students have arrived in this country. To some extent these figures may be abnormal and reflect the result of war conditions. But the numbers are in any case

* Report of the Committee appointed by the President of the Board of Education on Teachers and Youth Leaders, published by the Stationery Office (April 1944) 27-260.

considerable, and it is likely that with the progress of post war development in the Colonies the numbers of students seeking university education will show a substantial increase.

2. Considerations regarding resort to this country for undergraduate studies

The whole tenour of our report has pointed to the conclusion that the undergraduate education of Colonial students should wherever practicable be carried on in Colonial universities. This opinion is not dictated merely by the negative factor that universities in this country will be faced in the post war period by unparalleled numbers of applicants for admission and will find it increasingly difficult to make room for undergraduate students from overseas, but by conviction that the development of Colonial universities has great positive advantages. We note that our West Indies Committee, as the result of evidence taken in that region, are strongly of the same opinion.

As we have already suggested in general terms, we believe that the development of a university is the educational concomitant of political, and, indeed, of economic advance. A university should become a focus for the intellectual self-expression of the people. By receiving their higher education together in their own country, Colonial students will be encouraged to direct their new knowledge and ideas to the understanding of the character and problems of the country in which they are working. Moreover, they will be able to make a substantial contribution to the development of unity in regions where its attainment is made difficult by geographical, racial and cultural barriers.

In comparison with the positive gains to the Colonies which should come with the development of their own universities, the loss appears very small. We do not deny that many young students who happen to have been well fitted in intellect and character to make the best of higher education overseas have greatly profited from their courses, especially where they have been able to share in the life of residential colleges or halls of residence. But there has been another side to this picture, one of failure of adjustment to new conditions overseas, or of re-adjustment to old conditions upon return home.

A further advantage will be that a local university will give those responsible for filling posts a better opportunity to assess the capabilities and special characteristics of candidates than would be possible if they had been studying abroad. It will also be much easier to make a proper selection of students to pursue postgraduate studies overseas and to advise them as to the courses they should study.

3. The pursuit of postgraduate studies overseas

We hope, therefore, that undergraduate study for Colonial students in this country will, as their own colleges develop, be confined mainly to those few who wish to study exceptional subjects for which there is no local provision. We may quote here from the report of the Inter-departmental Committee on Medical Schools (1944)* which, after stating that it is preferable in most cases that Colonial students should qualify in their own country, goes on to say, "Future policy should be in the direction of . . . making good provision in this country for suitable Colonial practitioners to obtain the postgraduate training and experience they desire". Many of the doubts about the advantages of sending Colonial students to overseas universities will not apply to mature students seeking postgraduate education. It should be borne in mind that it is amongst them that staff may be found for the Colonial colleges. The experience of sending locally qualified doctors who have served for a period in government service to take a special diploma in this country suggests that

* Report of the Inter-Departmental Committee on Medical Schools issued by the Ministry of Health and Dept. of Health for Scotland.

in some other studies also the postgraduate course can with advantage be deferred until the Colonial student has gained some experience after taking his degree.

We have emphasized, particularly in chapter IX, the desirability that degrees awarded as the result of study at Colonial universities should be of a standard which has the recognition of the home universities, so that a Colonial graduate may be qualified to take up postgraduate work in this country. The academic bodies of the home universities have necessarily been conservative in their recognition, particularly for the purpose of postgraduate study, of courses for degrees and diplomas substantially different from their own courses. It should be remembered that the university authorities in this country expect those entering for higher degrees involving research to have shown a high standard of ability; in some subjects, a first class or, at the least, a good second class honours degree is essential.

We conclude with the hope that wherever possible Colonial postgraduate students may be accommodated in colleges or halls of residence and given every opportunity to enter the corporate life of the university in order that they may derive the fullest benefit from their visit.

CHAPTER XIII

FINANCE

1. Difficulty of preparing estimates of expenditure

It is unfortunately not possible for us to give a reliable estimate of the cost likely to be involved in our proposals for the development of institutions of higher education in the Colonies. Exact estimates for each region would demand a local investigation, such as that which has been carried out in the West Indies by our West Indies Committee. Further, two of the regions with which we are concerned, Malaya and Hong Kong, are still in enemy hands. Nevertheless we believe that we can provide on the basis of the estimates prepared by the West Indies Committee, some indication of the range of expenditure which may have to be contemplated in particular directions.

2. The finances of existing universities or university colleges.

The Royal University of Malta now provides courses for degrees in a number of Faculties with a wide range of subjects. Owing to a variety of factors such as the method of its evolution, the limited number of students except in medicine, and its lack of financial resources, the greater part of the teaching of the University has to be carried out by part-time teachers. Its total income is no more than some £16,000 of which rather more than £11,000 is provided in the annual estimates of the Government of Malta. Lack of resources has also prevented the modernisation and extension of its buildings.

The University of Hong Kong received £265,000 from the Boxer Indemnity Fund and more recently a grant of £46,000 from the Rockefeller Foundation for the establishment of chairs in its Medical School. The Hong Kong Government made considerable contributions to its endowment fund and provided it with an annual grant of about £22,000. The University has always suffered from lack of adequate buildings and equipment, and its financial position deteriorated rapidly in the years preceding the present war owing to the fall in revenue from investments in China.

The estimated expenditure of the Hebrew University of Jerusalem for 1943-44 was £175,000, part of which was met from interest on its endowment fund of £500,000. This fund, as well as the remainder of its recurrent expenditure and the cost of its extensive lands, buildings and equipment have

been provided from contributions from Jewish organisations and individual donors; the University has hitherto received no financial assistance from the Government of Palestine. Its expenditure will increase substantially if the plans which it has recently put forward for further development are carried out.

The University of Ceylon does not possess endowment funds and derives the larger part of its income from a grant voted annually by the Ceylon Government. In 1942-43 its total income was £97,263 the major items in this sum were the grant from that Government of £73,909 and income from tuition and examination fees which amounted to £22,164. In 1924, the Government of Ceylon established a building fund by a vote of £225,000. From this fund the cost of the new University site near Kandy and the initial stages of development of the site have been met. At the end of 1942, the building fund stood at £352,705.

As regards institutions which have not yet attained university status, the Government of Uganda has provided Makerere College both with its site and with funds for capital expenditure. £105,000 has been expended in buildings and equipment. Income, which in 1943 amounted to £30,900, is derived from three sources:—

(a) interest on invested funds which in 1943 amounted to £18,750. (These funds consist of an endowment of £500,000, not available for capital expenditure, comprising £100,000 contributed by the United Kingdom, £250,000 by the Uganda Government, £100,000 by the Tanganyika Government and £50,000 by the Kenya Government; the balance of the original grant from the Uganda Government for capital expenditure £65,000, which has remained temporarily unexpended because of war conditions; and £8,278 provided by the Native Administrations for the building of a hall of residence for women students).

(b) an income of £5,460 derived from a system under which the East African Governments reserve places at the College in proportion to their original contribution to the endowment fund, by annual contributions of £30 for each place.

(c) revenue from fees, £6,690.

It is difficult to present any comparable account of the finances of Gordon College, Khartoum, in view of the changes which are being made in the character of the institution. We understand, however, that the Sudan Government has in the current year made a grant in aid of £73,896 to the College and the schools now being associated with it, and that the College received £2,500 from the Gordon College Executive Committee in this country.

The relevant figures regarding West Africa will be found in the report of the West Africa Commission. The Prince of Wales' College at Achimota has been financed by the Gold Coast Government. Capital expenditure has amounted to £617,000. The Government makes an annual grant of £54,000; about one-sixth of this sum is spent on post secondary education. The income of Fourah Bay College in Sierra Leone in 1942-43 was £3,755, derived from various sources. The expenditure of the Higher College, Yaba, Nigeria, for the year 1944 was estimated at £17,444. The provision for the Medical School at Yaba in 1943-44 was £12,855.

For Malaya, we can do no more than record the position described in the report of the Commission on Higher Education in Malaya which visited that country in 1938. The buildings of Raffles College, Singapore, cost £192,150, the expenditure was met from a fund of £268,000 subscribed by the Governments of the Straits Settlements (£116,667) and of the Federated Malay States (£23,333) and by private persons and commercial firms (£128,333). The income of the College in 1937 was £36,167. It was made up of (a) annual

grants from different Malayan Governments of £18,083; (b) income derived from investment of the balance of the capital fund mentioned above, and from other invested funds, and (c) income from fees, £8,167.

The cost of the buildings of the Medical College, Singapore, cannot be stated, but could be taken as similar to that of the buildings of Raffles College. Its income was derived partly from the investment of endowments for specific purposes, such as the grant of £14,000 from the King Edward VII Memorial Foundation for a Chair of Physiology, and the gift of £40,833 by the Rockefeller Foundation for Chairs of Bacteriology and Biochemistry. The main part of the income was provided from Government funds, since the Medical College was part of the Government Medical Department, and the staff consisted largely of medical officers carrying out part-time teaching duties. The total income was £33,717.

The two Singapore Colleges may thus be regarded as having possessed buildings which cost some £380,000 and a joint income of £69,884 together with an invested capital, largely of endowment nature, of £296,916. The proposals made in the report on Higher Education in Malaya recommended the fusion of these two Colleges as the first step towards the creation of a University of Malaya. These proposals contemplated heavy capital expenditure and a substantial increase in recurrent expenditure for the provision of further buildings and increases in the numbers of the academic staff.

3. Estimates of further expenditure

The West Indies Committee has recommended that the University College shall comprise Faculties of arts (including education), science and medicine and has estimated that the capital expenditure for buildings and equipment will be £1,130,000 and the recurrent expenditure £139,690. These estimates should prove, for two reasons, a useful guide in calculations which may be made in respect of other regions. They represent the estimated cost of a college containing Faculties of arts, science and medicine only, Faculties which must be found in any university in the Colonies. Secondly, while capital expenditure for similar provision elsewhere may differ on account of variations in building costs, the recurrent expenditure is unlikely to do so, for the greater part of it is attributable to the salaries of the academic staff, and the cost of this is not likely to vary substantially in different areas.

It may at the same time be helpful to make a number of other observations regarding this estimate. In the first place the figure for capital expenditure does not include the cost of the site, which the West Indies Committee hope will be the gift of the Government of Jamaica, and while allowance has been made for the cost of a medical school, financial provision has not been made for a teaching hospital. Secondly, while the scheme contemplates the teaching of the basic sciences to students of agriculture, the instruction in agriculture will be given at the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture at Trinidad, and its cost will not be a charge on the funds of the University. We note however that if the Imperial College undertakes the functions proposed for it in the report of the West Indies Committee, additional funds will be required by it. Thirdly, no provision is made for the teaching of veterinary science and animal health, which may well be required in other regions; the teaching of physiology, anatomy and pathology to such students could, however, be readily given by an extension of the work of a medical school without considerable increase in capital cost or recurrent expenditure. Lastly, we suggest in a later chapter that the economic development of many areas of the Colonial Empire may demand the provision at an early stage of schools of engineering, which must involve considerable expenditure on equipment.

As regards West Africa, we may refer to the recommendations of the West Africa Commission.

We are unable to give any estimate of the ultimate requirements of Makerere College. We are informed however that the Council of the College has in the last few months made application for a grant from the United Kingdom of a capital sum of £167,500 to meet the cost of further academic buildings and residential facilities for staff and students; and for a sum of £85,000 to meet the aggregate of new recurrent expenditure which will result up to the end of the College financial year in 1950, if the increases in the number of its academic staff which it considers desirable are authorised. Comparison with the estimates made in the West Indies report suggest that this forecast of recurrent expenditure is of a moderate nature.

We understand that the University of Jerusalem has put forward a scheme of development which will involve fresh capital expenditure of about £500,000 and will require about £150,000 a year new recurrent expenditure.

We have not before us specific figures as to the cost of the developments which are now contemplated in Malta, but we have reason to believe that the University will require substantial financial assistance.

We are unable to make any estimate of the needs of Malaya and Hong Kong.

We anticipate that demands for expenditure may arise as a result of proposals which may later be formulated for higher education in the Western Pacific, the East Mediterranean and Mauritius.

4. Expenditure on scholarships for study in Great Britain.

There is another source of expenditure to which we direct attention. As an interim measure before local facilities for professional training up to degree standards are available, it will be desirable and in some subjects essential that Colonial Governments should provide a certain number of scholarships for students to come to Great Britain for undergraduate study. Further we have suggested that there should be a substantial increase in the number of scholarships available for postgraduate study by Colonial students in Great Britain. The scale of scholarships now provided for students to come to this country varies widely, from £175 to £500 a year with free passages and an allowance for medical expenses. The cost varies according to the course taken but on the average a sum of £350 to £400 a year may be required. The provision to be made for the total number of students sent annually from all the Colonies will therefore amount to a considerable sum. The financial provision for overseas undergraduate scholarships will, we hope, largely disappear as the Colonial universities develop, but scholarships for postgraduate work will be a permanent charge.

5. Expenditure by the Inter-University Council and the University of London.

There remains the recurrent expenditure which will result from our proposals regarding the Inter-University Council and the special part which the University of London will play in the conduct of examinations in the colleges of the Colonies. As suggested in chapter VII, the Inter-University Council will require a permanent secretariat with a secretary of appropriate standing and experience. Funds will be required to enable the Council to send out visitors to the Colonial institutions; and for the supplements to salary which we have suggested in chapter V. The University of London will need reimbursement of expenses which will result from the conduct of examinations under the scheme described in chapter IX; and from time to time, it will wish to send its examiners to the Colonies.

6. The source from which finance should come

In approaching this subject, it is of some interest to note the sources from which the universities and university colleges of Great Britain have derived their support. The following figures are taken from the returns from universities and university colleges in receipt of Treasury grants for the academic year 1938-39 issued by the University Grants Committee* :—

Total Income	Endowments	Donations	Local Authorities	Parliamentary Grant	Fees†	Other Services
	per cent.	per cent.	per cent.	per cent.	per cent.	per cent.
£6,712,067	15.4	2.6	9.0	35.8	29.8	7.4

These figures illustrate the very considerable percentage of the income which is derived from public funds and the relatively small percentage derived from endowments. We may observe too that a considerable proportion of the fees included in the above schedule represents the results of grants to scholarship holders and other students from the State or by local authorities.

It has not perhaps been generally appreciated how largely the home universities depend on Government or local authority funds for their income. In the Colonies it is clear that at the present stage of development the greater part of the recurrent expenditure of university institutions can be met only by direct grants from Colonial Governments or from United Kingdom funds. This statement applies with equal force to capital expenditure. The buildings and much of the equipment of the universities of Great Britain have come into being as a result of large benefactions made over long periods of time by public spirited individuals and private bodies ; they do not owe their existence in any considerable measure to funds provided by the State. On the other hand, while we recognize that private benefactors have already helped to promote the development of university institutions in some parts of the Colonial Empire, such as Palestine, Hong Kong and Malaya, it seems to us inevitable that capital expenditure, particularly in the less prosperous regions, must largely come from Government funds.

It is not for us to attempt to assess what proportion of the required funds should be contributed by the Governments of the different Colonies or by His Majesty's Government. We are, however, convinced that the policy which we recommend can only be carried out if very substantial financial assistance is made available from Great Britain. We note, for instance, that our West Indies Committee recommends that the whole of the capital expenditure involved in its proposals, £1,130,000, should come from United Kingdom funds, although it hopes that the recurrent expenditure of £139,690 in so far as it is not met by fees or other sources of income, will be met by votes from the different West Indies Governments.

7. Creation of a special body to advise on allocation of funds

In view of our conviction that the development of higher education in the Colonies must depend on the grant of substantial financial aid from Great Britain, we have considered the question of the nature of the body which should advise on the allocation of such funds. As already stated in chapter VII, we do not advise that the Inter-University Council should act in this capacity, and we recommend the creation of a new committee, which would act as an advisory committee to the Secretary of State, and which would be known as the Colonial University Grants Advisory Committee.

* Returns from Universities and University Colleges in receipt of Treasury grants for academic year 1938-39, Stationery Office Publication (70-152-0-39).

† It is understood that these comprised tuition, examination, graduation, matriculation and registration fees, and included the Board of Education grant for teachers in training.

The considerations which prevailed with us when discussing in chapter VII the position of the Inter-University Council in this relation would, we consider, apply also to the case of a committee largely composed of members of the Council, even though reinforced by additional members with special experience of finance and Colonial administration. On the other hand, it is clear that no financial body could adequately advise on the allocation of grants from United Kingdom funds, unless it had at its disposal expert opinion as to the merits of the proposals for academic development on which the application for those grants were based. This expert opinion will be at hand in the Inter-University Council.

As regards the composition of the Colonial University Grants Advisory Committee, we should hope that it would include a representative of the Committee of the Vice-Chancellors of the home universities; the Chairman of the University Grants Committee and one other person chosen for his wide knowledge of home university matters; two members with special knowledge of the Colonies, the one with administrative experience, the other with personal experience of higher education in the Colonies; two representatives of the Inter-University Council, together with the Adviser on Education to the Secretary of State. The Inter-University Council and the Grants Advisory Committee might with advantage be served by one secretary. In considering applications for grants the Committee would normally seek the advice of the Inter-University Council; it would also seek the assistance of any other persons who had special knowledge of the problems which came before it.

We hope that the Inter-University Council and the Colonial University Grants Advisory Committee will be created at the earliest possible moment, as schemes involving substantial financial help from the United Kingdom are already coming forward and others will doubtless follow in quick succession. We may perhaps add that in our recommendation for the institution of a Grants Committee we have been largely influenced by recognition of the part played in Great Britain by the University Grants Committee in the development of the home universities. In our opinion, it would be unwise not to profit by the experience which has been gained from its working.

8. The provision of a separate fund for higher education in the Colonies

Since the development of higher education must entail the provision of substantial financial help from Great Britain over a considerable period, we suggest that it may be justifiable to set aside for this purpose an appropriate part of the funds to be made available under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act. The number of schemes of different types for which grants are sought under that Act will inevitably increase, and the position is likely to arise when these schemes are in competition for the available funds. If a special provision is assigned to university development, the expenditure to be met from it should include both recurrent grants and capital sums.

9. The need for continuity in university finance

This brings us to comment on two general aspects of university finance. It will be agreed in the first place that the orderly conduct of any university institution is dependent upon the stability of its income. This stability has been largely assured in Great Britain by the system under which each university receives, on the advice of the University Grants Committee, an annual Treasury grant which is fixed for five years and which is reviewed at the end of that period in the light of the amount of the funds then made available to the University Grants Committee.

The provision of an assured income which is not subject to reduction even in times of emergency is one of particular importance in the Colonies. In times of economic depression the financial position of a Colony deteriorates

more rapidly than does that of a highly industrialised country, and it is perhaps natural that at such times education should appear to offer a ready field for temporary economy. We feel it desirable therefore to emphasize that a decision to reduce the grants to university institutions at such times is to be deplored.

Our observations on this general aspect of university finance bear on the question as to the form which grants from United Kingdom funds to university institutions in the Colonies should take. Any recurrent grant must be made with the realisation that it must continue until such time as the sum involved can be borne from the revenues of the Colony or Colonies concerned. Until the Colonies concerned reach the stage of full economic development, grants of this nature may remain a charge on United Kingdom funds and further may need to be increased from time to time as the institutions grow.

In our opinion, it is desirable that endowments should be built up by the Colonial colleges as soon as possible. Endowment for specific purposes is particularly valuable to a university. It enables it to develop special activities and to foster interests which may have no immediate wide appeal. It acts as an insurance against the retrenchment of such activities at a period of stress. We should hope that as time goes on the Colonial institutions will be the recipients of private benefactions for these purposes. But we realise that to provide these institutions at the outset with adequate endowment funds would involve a large addition to the initial provision required for their establishment. It is for others to decide whether sufficient grants could be made with this object. We confine ourselves to suggesting that the total income of each institution, whether drawn from local or United Kingdom sources, should be such that a sum of perhaps £10,000 a year should be allocated specifically for endowment purposes, thus providing the necessary basis of an endowment fund. In this way, the desirable objective of gradually building up an endowment fund would be achieved.

10. The case for expenditure

We are fully aware that the recommendations which we are making contemplate the expenditure of very substantial sums both from United Kingdom and from Colonial funds. University education is necessarily expensive, it involves large initial capital grants for buildings and equipment and requires a considerable recurrent grant for upkeep, for the payment of salaries and for the provision of scholarships. Our proposals, indeed, are not lavish; they presuppose, on the contrary, the same kind of prudent and watchful economy that is practised in university institutions in this country. We are aware that questions may arise in some minds as to whether we are justified in recommending the creation of universities in the West Indies, in East and West Africa, when this recommendation of necessity involves the grant of large capital sums from the Exchequer. Even the figures for annual expenditure may seem high. The average cost of educating each student in the Colonial universities will be, indeed, little more than half the average cost of sending a student from one of these distant territories to a university in Great Britain, but it will be, at the same time, substantially higher than the cost of the education of an English student in most English universities. There are several reasons for this. The university unit in the Colonies will, at least in the early stages, be small. The universities will be residential; we state in an earlier chapter our reasons why this should be so. They will contain a high proportion of students working in the relatively more expensive subjects, such as medicine, for the study of which expensive equipment is essential. The universities must, moreover, in the nature of their situation, be self-sufficing from the standpoint of libraries and equipment to a greater extent

than would be necessary here, for both staff and students will be compelled to rely wholly on the provision made for them in the university itself. Again those of our recommendations which are directed to the breaking down of intellectual isolation contemplate special expenses which add to the total cost.

All these things we freely admit. But we do so without any sense that our attitude needs excuse. The university education which we seek to provide for the Colonial citizens of the Empire must be fitted for the purpose for which it is designed. Its aim is to give to these Colonial citizens an opportunity for self-development which will enable them to fit themselves for the management of their own concerns; to train themselves for their future responsibilities by gaining the expert knowledge necessary for the service of their own communities; and finally to take their place among those who are contributing to the intellectual life and scientific progress of man.

PART II

SPECIAL PROBLEMS INVOLVED IN THE PROVISION OF PROFESSIONAL AND VOCATIONAL COURSES IN THE UNIVERSITIES AND UNIVERSITY COLLEGES

CHAPTER XIV

MEDICINE

1. The expansion of the Health Services in the Colonies

In considering the special needs of the Colonies in respect of the provision of facilities for professional and vocational instruction, it is not unnatural that we should give priority to education in medicine. The standard of health of a people goes far to determine its ability not only to make the fullest use of its available resources, but to create new resources. More than one factor makes for improvement in the health of a community—better nutrition, progress in sanitation, the influence of the spread of education on antisocial custom and unhygienic habits. But clearly one of the most important factors, especially in Colonial conditions, is the adequate provision of men qualified for employment in the field of curative and preventive medicine and in medical research.

In the Colonies, the deficiency in this respect is so generally recognized as to need no comment from us. In Great Britain, we note that the ratio of doctors to inhabitants is approaching one to 1,000, and the number of doctors is likely to be increased as a result of the programme of social reform on which the country is now engaged. We cannot hope to see a similar standard attained in the Colonies, but some of the figures of the provision made there are of interest. In Malaya the ratio was one doctor to every 10,000 people. At the other extreme is Nigeria, where the ratio is one doctor for every 100,000, and in certain districts one doctor for an area containing 1,000,000 people. It is enough to say that there is, in the great majority of Colonies, an urgent need for the expansion of the existing medical staff, and of the ancillary health services for whose training and supervision the medical staff must be responsible.

2. The creation of medical schools in the Colonies

There is a general agreement that the need for expansion of the medical and health services of the Colonies can be met only by the provision of centres of medical education with material facilities and standards of teaching comparable ultimately with those available in the medical schools of Great

Britain. In the first place, there is the outstanding consideration that the medical schools of Great Britain are able to accept for training only an insignificant proportion of the Colonial students whom it will be desirable to train. Even before the war there was difficulty in the way of the admission of all approved prospective students of British origin and this difficulty will clearly be greatly increased in the immediate post-war years. We accept in full the considerable body of evidence which we have received in this regard, and recognise that, in spite of their sympathetic attitude to the requirements of the Colonies, the medical schools of Great Britain will be unable for some years to contribute appreciably to the solution of the problem of providing undergraduate medical training for students from the Colonies. Provided that facilities of adequate standard are made available in Colonial medical schools, and if, as we suggest below, particular emphasis is laid on clinical training in diseases peculiar to the tropics, doctors trained in these schools should actually have a better equipment for their future work than if they were trained in Great Britain. Even the acquisition of a postgraduate diploma such as the D.T.M. and H. acquired in Great Britain, following an initial medical qualification obtained in home medical schools, cannot in our opinion confer on the holder that background of knowledge which clinical training and experience under tropical conditions can supply. It is to be expected that Colonial medical schools, associated as they will be with universities and medical colleges in this country, will in time establish their own traditions of professional conduct.

3. Recognition by the General Medical Council

The present provisions for medical education in the Colonies may be classified in accordance with the qualifications available, into three groups:—

(a) The Universities of Malta, Hong Kong and Ceylon, the medical degrees of which are recognised by the General Medical Council.

(b) King Edward VII Medical College, Singapore, which was not as yet part of a university conferring its own degrees, but awarded a local medical diploma receiving recognition by the General Medical Council.

(c) Medical schools in which education has not yet reached the standards necessary to obtain recognition by the General Medical Council and the diplomas of which entitle to local practice only. Of such are the Medical School of Makerere College, Uganda, the Yaba Medical College in Nigeria and the Kitchener School of Medicine, Khartoum. There is also the Native Medical Practitioners' School in Fiji, which is, for a number of reasons, in a special class and is not included in our subsequent recommendations.

We consider it important that steps should be taken at the earliest possible date so to improve the quality of the teaching provided in medical schools which have not yet received recognition by the General Medical Council that such recognition shall be accorded. Recognition by the Council is important from several points of view. There is everywhere evidence of the desire of the Colonial peoples to demonstrate their capacity to reach the same standards of academic performance as those achieved by the European. This desire is shown nowhere more keenly than in medicine. The desire that a local diploma should receive recognition from the Medical Council has its roots more deeply in the opportunity for demonstrating intellectual equality than in the privileges of practice which registration confers. The progress of medical education is retarded in those areas where the schools have yet to receive recognition. In its absence pressure is brought to bear on Colonial Governments to provide scholarships to medical schools in the United Kingdom. Not only is the prestige of the local diploma thus lowered, but the best students, whose presence would contribute greatly to the general elevation of standards

are not retained where their presence is most needed. Moreover, recognition by the Council is important in that the diploma thereby becomes acceptable to the universities and medical schools of Great Britain for the purpose of direct entry into postgraduate courses without the necessity of further undergraduate study. Again, the more able students who owing to the absence of Council recognition would tend to seek their training in Great Britain, may be driven by the growing pressure on accommodation in the home schools to resort to other countries. Difficulties then might arise in connection with the question of the local registration of foreign degrees. Finally, the difficulties of admission of Colonial students to medical schools in the United Kingdom might mistakenly be attributed to discrimination.

In passing, we wish to pay tribute to the service rendered to medical education in the Colonies by the General Medical Council, which through its visitors has done much to foster development of the right kind. The task of these visitors is to assure themselves that the required standards have been achieved, and the constructive suggestions which they have offered have proved of the greatest value. We accordingly hope that the Council will feel able to continue to send its visitors to inspect the medical schools of the Colonies. In the past the Council has doubtless been faced with difficult decisions in respect of the conferring of recognition; but if the proposals made in this report are carried into effect these difficulties should be appreciably diminished.

4. Studies in medical schools in the Colonies

The recent reports of the Inter-Departmental Committee on Medical Schools (1944) and the Planning Committee on Medical Education of the Royal College of Physicians (1944) stress the need for certain changes in emphasis in undergraduate teaching. In concurrence with these recommendations we suggest that greater prominence should be given in the pre-clinical period to the study of the co-ordination of function in the human and animal body and to nutritional physiology. Early instruction in some of the vocational applications of anatomical and physiological knowledge is also desirable and should increase the interest of these subjects without detracting from their value as scientific disciplines. We also suggest that in the clinical period social and preventive medicine should receive increasing emphasis. If the need for such changes in medical education is becoming apparent in Great Britain, an even greater need exists in countries in which tropical and nutritional diseases are rife and the standards of general education, hygiene and sanitation are at present low. To perpetuate in these conditions a system of medical training in which, as we see it, too great a stress is already laid on the pathological and technological aspects of medicine at the expense of a sound clinical discipline and socio-medical teaching would be unfortunate.

The views which we have expressed may give the impression that we feel that a special curriculum should be adopted for Colonial medical colleges. Such a departure, which would doubtless present great difficulties to the General Medical Council, is not in our minds, for we believe that what we consider desirable can be accomplished by re-arrangements in the teaching without alterations in the curriculum. The changes proposed need not be such as to raise doubts as to the suitability of the training as a qualification for that right to practice in Great Britain which recognition by the General Medical Council confers.

The opinion is sometimes held that, for teaching purposes in Colonial hospitals, there is an insufficiency of those types of disease which are prevalent in England. This question is, however, related in part to the existing

lack of hospital accommodation. At present there is an unavoidable preponderance of acute cases in the wards of hospitals in the tropics, with the result that the chronic cases, which are also necessary for teaching, are excluded. If large hospitals specially adapted for teaching purposes are created, as we recommend elsewhere, the clinical teaching material available in Colonial medical schools should become both varied and plentiful. A main emphasis should however be maintained on those diseases which are locally predominant.

We recognise the multiplicity of problems presented by conditions obtaining in the several Colonial regions and we consider that elasticity should be allowed in arranging particular teaching and the forms of final examinations for diplomas or degrees. A too "British" emphasis in pathological or clinical teaching would be inappropriate in a Colony where tropical, nutritional and florid venereal diseases loom much more largely, and gastric ulcer and the psycho-neuroses of city life are less in evidence. On the other hand diseases consequent upon the impact of European civilisation and industry on less advanced peoples may come to provide a fruitful field of study and furnish the indications for enlightened preventive action. Increased emphasis on the social and preventive aspects of medicine need not, in our view, imply any neglect of basic pathological and clinical studies, which can in fact be rendered more valuable and realistic in the broader setting.

5. Staffing and institutional facilities

Medical education in the Colonies will make substantial progress only if at each centre there are up-to-date laboratory facilities for the pre-clinical subjects and a hospital specially designed or carefully adapted to meet the needs of a teaching hospital. The staffs both of the medical school and of its teaching hospital must be adequate in numbers and quality. Facilities and time for research must also be at their disposal.

As regards staffing, the practice adopted hitherto has been based on the general pattern of the medical schools in Great Britain, necessarily modified in the light of Colonial conditions. In Great Britain the pre-clinical subjects are taught by full-time members of staff; in the clinical subjects (except where whole-time clinical units have been established) the teachers are usually honorary members of the staff of the teaching hospitals. In the Colonies the teachers of the first year science subjects (biology, chemistry and physics) have, as a rule, been full-time teachers; often, though not invariably, the teachers of anatomy and physiology and its related subjects are also full-time teachers; the teachers of the clinical subjects are sometimes appointed on the model of the medical schools of Great Britain, but more usually they are officers of the Government Medical Service seconded to the schools for part-time teaching duties.

If the development of medical education in the Colonies to the standard which we have indicated is to be achieved, a change in this system will be necessary. A government medical officer is often at a disadvantage in carrying out part-time academic work; his real interests often lie elsewhere; he is called upon to undertake teaching under conditions requiring a type of experience which he may lack. In making these comments we do not underestimate the debt which Colonial medical education owes to the men and women who have contributed so much to its progress, usually under conditions of great difficulty. We believe, however, that the new sense of urgency in the field of medical education demands that a proportion of the clinical teachers should be full-time members of staff. It will be recalled that the report on Higher Education in Malaya recommended that there should be created in the Singapore School full-time chairs in the three clinical subjects,

medicine, surgery and obstetrics with gynæcology, and a chair in preventive medicine and tropical hygiene. The Inter-Departmental Committee on Medical Schools (1944) has recommended that in the medical schools of Great Britain it is now desirable that there should be a proportion of full-time clinical teachers, a recommendation which involves a fundamental change in a long tried and highly cherished system. The case for their introduction into the medical schools of the less developed regions of the Colonial Empire appears to us overwhelming.

We now record more precisely our views on the staffing of a Colonial medical school with an annual intake of 40-50 students. For the subjects which follow the first or pre-medical examination there should be senior posts in anatomy, physiology, pathology, medicine, surgery, obstetrics with gynæcology, and in tropical medicine and hygiene. The title of these posts would vary with the particular stage of development of the school; they might be professorships or lectureships; but for ease of description they may be referred to as professorships. A department of physiology should include a lecturer in pharmacology and should work in close consultation with a department of biochemistry. A department of pathology should include a lecturer in bacteriology. The professor of every subject mentioned should be assisted as soon as possible by at least one senior and one junior assistant. In the earlier stages the teaching of such subjects as anæsthetics, orthopædics, pædiatrics, mental diseases, forensic medicine and toxicology, would need to be given by such whole-time or part-time staff as were available. In many of these subjects, however, highly specialised teaching is better deferred until the postgraduate period, and in the undergraduate period the teaching might well be given by the senior full-time assistants in the clinical departments.

With a possible reservation in favour of strictly limited consultant practice (in which case a major proportion of the fees received might suitably be contributed to the research fund of the department) clinical chairs should be whole-time appointments. All other chairs and senior lectureships, including those in the subjects of pathology and bacteriology, and all junior and research posts which may be created, should in our opinion be whole-time without reservation.

In order to obtain staffs of adequate calibre the posts should be filled in the first instance by recruitment from home and Dominion universities. As soon as possible, appointments to the junior posts should be filled by graduates of the developing Colonial medical schools who have also carried out post-graduate training or research in Great Britain or the Dominions. Ultimately senior posts would be similarly filled.

The appointment of heads of departments should be on a long-term basis. Appointments to junior posts should be for three years in the first instance, with adequate allowances in respect of special study leave. Ample provision should be made for leave and in the case of senior posts for sabbatical years. In the case of junior appointments the fullest use should be made of opportunities which may present themselves for exchange with home and Dominion universities. We recommend in particular the filling of these posts so far as practicable by the secondment system to which we have referred in chapter V.

6. The provision of hospital facilities

The provision of material facilities should not fall below standards which are considered appropriate elsewhere. Our West Indies Committee has recommended the creation of a new medical school in the West Indies; we understand that the West Africa Commission will recommend that the Medical School at Yaba should be replaced by a new school at Ibadan; a new medical

school to replace the existing arrangements at Makerere College is also contemplated. A new hospital for teaching purposes will be required at Ibadan, while that adjacent to Makerere College ought to be replaced by a modern building. The provision of suitable hospital facilities for the new medical school in Jamaica will likewise call for early discussion.

The location of the medical school and hospital in each existing or proposed university centre will need to be considered in full discussion with representatives of all special interests in the region. But even more important is the desirability that any new medical school or teaching hospital should be planned only after full consultation with expert opinion in Great Britain and elsewhere, and with careful provision in respect of future expansion. We attach the greatest importance to this recommendation. Each new medical school should be planned in regard to its future annual intake of students, and in our opinion that normal intake should not exceed 80 students a year. On the standards recommended by the Inter-Departmental Committee already mentioned in this chapter, a teaching hospital of about 1,000 beds would be required. The hospital must be designed with special attention to its use for teaching purposes.

We recognise that these recommendations will prove costly. None the less we feel that more modest proposals would not meet the urgency of the situation; nor would they prove less expensive in the long run. It is to be remembered that the medical schools which we have in contemplation are few in number and are to serve large areas and populations—the West Indies (3 million), East Africa (16 million), West Africa (26 million), Malaya (5 million)—and we believe that it is more fruitful to concentrate on the provision of a few first-class centres of medical education and research than to disperse effort and money in smaller centres serving more restricted areas. We recognise also that our recommendations for staff may seem excessive in those areas where the number of students coming forward for medicine is for some time likely to be limited. That position will however change with the extension in secondary education which is likely to occur in the post-war period. The provision of at least two members of staff in addition to a professor for each of the principal subjects, is in our opinion justified from the start. The building up of a medical centre must be the result of a process of steady growth, and this is only feasible if there is a sufficiency of full-time members of staff who are devoting themselves to the problem.

But apart from this, the subject of medicine presents in the Colonies particularly fruitful opportunities for research. There are many research problems which can be pursued without elaborate provision of material facilities, provided time is available. Research material is at hand in the teaching hospitals, and in much of the work the teachers of the pre-clinical subjects can co-operate with the clinical teachers. If the time of the teachers in the first few years is not occupied with teaching to the extent which may occur in teaching centres elsewhere—although in this connection the principle that teaching must become more personal and tutorial is to be remembered—we believe that this would be advantageous because it would enable the building up of traditions of research at the most crucial time in the development of a school. We recognise that in all stages teaching and its sound organisation must, nevertheless, be the first consideration and that applications for research funds must be judged in the light of this consideration.

7. The provision of hospital assistants

For many years to come, and this particularly applies to the African Colonies, there will be a need for large numbers of a grade of medical staff with training inferior to that of a qualified medical practitioner but more extensive than that of a nurse. Such staff might be known under the name of "medical

aid" or hospital assistant. By the term "medical aid" we mean a person who has been given a full course of training as a nurse, a sound knowledge of elementary hygiene, sanitation and pharmacy, and instruction, particularly on the practical side, in the diagnosis and treatment of the commoner diseases of the country. He will have been taught to give intravenous and intramuscular injections and to carry out minor surgical operations under supervision. It is of importance that a clear distinction should be kept between the qualified medical practitioner and the medical aid. For this reason the latter should be trained in a school distinct from that used for medical students; his course of training should not approach the medical curriculum either in content or length; and he should be given no title which would imply claims for consideration as a qualified doctor.

8. The transition to the stage at which the university grants a medical degree

The first step to be taken is to raise the standards of teaching so that the local medical diploma obtains recognition by the General Medical Council. The final stage would be reached when the centre of which the medical school is part becomes a university awarding its own degrees. Between the first and final stages there will be a period in which we hope that the more able of the students would be afforded opportunities for taking the degree of a home or Dominion university; we would in particular support the proposal that arrangements should be made available for such students to become candidates for degrees of the University of London.

In this connection we are aware of the concession which has been made by the Royal Colleges under which students who have obtained the diploma of the Kitchener School of Medicine, Khartoum, are permitted to sit for the final Conjoint Board examination, provided they carry out a further year of clinical study in Great Britain. We appreciate the motive which lies behind this concession. We feel, however, that the immediate need is that students shall be able to obtain in their own Colony a diploma or degree acceptable in Great Britain, so that the best of them may later be selected for a period of post-graduate study in Great Britain or one of the Dominions.

Very considerable benefits have resulted from the annual visits to the Kitchener School of Medicine of eminent medical men, and we recommend that each of the medical schools should be visited annually under arrangements made by the Inter-University Council and that these visitors should assist the staff of the medical schools in the conduct of examinations.

The selection of students for admission to a medical school should be on a basis of promise and aptitude and not in respect of scholastic achievement alone. The schools should be open to students of both sexes and of all nationalities. They should be entirely residential, and in no case should students be allowed to live in lodgings. As the universities come into being it is also desirable that there should be no segregation of students of medicine from those of other subjects. An exception might be made during certain appointments in the clinical period when residence in or near the hospital carries special advantages.

If the medical courses in the schools are to be equivalent to those in Great Britain they must be of at least the same length. We are in favour of a post-qualification but pre-registration year to be devoted to house appointments or other forms of supervised training.

9. Postgraduate education

While it is desirable that facilities for certain types of postgraduate work should ultimately be provided in the Colonial medical colleges, we recognise that in the earlier years suitable provision will not be possible. It is therefore

necessary that scholarships should be made available to enable carefully selected graduates to proceed to a home or Dominion school or research institute for periods of not less than two years and with a view, not so much to acquiring a higher degree or special diploma, but rather to obtaining experience in research or teaching methods. Such scholarships should for the most part be for the purpose of study in approved home or Dominion universities or research institutes but in special circumstances a foreign university should not be excluded. It would be an important function of the Inter-University Council to supervise the proper placing of postgraduate students and to obtain for them such advantages and amenities as should be open to all full members of a university centre, including the holding of full time appointments in teaching hospitals and special clinical units.

10. The medical school as part of the university

We are in full agreement with the view of the Inter-Departmental Committee on Medical Schools (1944), that medical schools should be integral parts of universities, and that full participation in the life of universities and close association with those following other branches of learning, will provide the greatest stimulus to teachers and will encourage medical students to develop those qualities of mind and character which go to the making of a good doctor. We would particularly emphasise the importance of drawing attention throughout the student period, both by direct precept and example, to the need for ethical observances and the maintenance of high standards of professional conduct. The Committee has pointed out that a university medical school presents the most favourable conditions for maintaining educational standards; for securing a consistent selection of students; for attracting teachers of the highest calibre; and for keeping alive their enthusiasm. It should also be borne in mind that the teaching of the preliminary sciences necessary for the study of medicine requires the services of a scientific staff not exclusively devoted to the interests of the medical student. Nor do we need to emphasise that advances in medicine depend increasingly on the application of chemical, physical and biological methods to research problems, and that without intimate collaboration between those who work in other fields of science the progress of medical research will inevitably be hampered.

11. The Colonial Governments and the medical schools

In the less developed territories the administration of medical schools has inevitably been largely the concern of the government medical departments. We fully recognise that the development of these schools can proceed only if there is the closest collaboration between their staffs and the medical departments. This is necessary both in hospital administration for the provision of clinical facilities and, as we have pointed out elsewhere, for the teaching of the special subjects by members of the Colonial Medical Service. Nevertheless these schools, destined as they must be, to become an integral part of a future university should as far as possible be free from Government control. Each medical school will, as a constituent part of a university or university college, have its Faculty or Board of Study which will be responsible to the Senate or Academic Board of the university or university college. The membership will be drawn from the full-time teachers, both preclinical and clinical, whose appointment we have recommended. It will include also a senior teacher in one of the preliminary scientific subjects together with a suitable proportion of the part-time clinical teachers who will at first be usually members of the Colonial Medical Service or locally qualified doctors who are members of the teaching staff.

12. The teaching of dentistry

Whereas in medicine a start has already been made in the provision of medical schools, there are at present no facilities for the training of dentists in some of the less developed areas of the Colonial Empire, and facilities for dental treatment, whether in government hospitals or in private practice, are virtually non-existent. While we fully recognise the urgent need for the provision of dental treatment in large areas of the Colonial Empire, the health of the people as a whole will be best served if in the earlier years the students available should be trained as doctors and not encouraged to elect for specialisation in orodental disease. Further the building up of a medical school of high standard is, under Colonial conditions, a task of considerable difficulty, and it is in our opinion desirable that the medical schools should become firmly established before dental schools are created. Once medical schools are established, the provision of professional courses in dentistry, the first two or three years of which are largely common with medicine, will be accomplished with ease. The available students will in the meantime have increased in number.

Nevertheless a beginning should be made to provide opportunity for dental treatment in the hospitals of the larger towns. We suggest that scholarships available in this country might be awarded to a number of selected students each year so that on return to their Colonies, they may provide the nucleus of a future government dental service. The provision of hospital dental departments and later of dental schools, facilities for the training of dental mechanics and hygienists and the establishment of dental clinics would need to be considered simultaneously. Since we understand that the whole future of dental education and research in Great Britain is now under review, it might be premature to make specific recommendations in regard to the type of dental education which should be available in the Colonies. We urge that the early co-operation of leading members of the dental profession should be sought in deciding the best policy to be adopted as each new Colonial medical school comes into being or existing schools become firmly established. This could be effected through the Inter-University Council.

13. General recommendations

The above recommendations relating to medical education are to be considered as applicable in the main to the Colonial regions which are the subject of our more immediate concern. Special considerations will arise in the case of individual Colonies or groups of Colonies, and our West Indies Committee has given an indication of the importance of paying regard to local needs and interests and of viewing territorial and other requirements in their proper perspective. The relationship of existing medical research institutes to medical schools or colleges and projected universities will clearly call for careful consideration in certain Colonies; we have already suggested in chapter VI that, wherever geographical and other circumstances permit, the closest association is desirable.

We would hope that both the research activities and the diploma courses of the London and Liverpool Schools of Tropical Medicine may become more closely linked with the work of the Colonial medical schools and research institutions. The award of a British D.T.M. and H. might, for instance, become contingent eventually upon a final period of training in a Colonial centre. The interchange of ideas and personnel thus brought about would assist the advancement of tropical medicine and bring benefits to medical education alike in Great Britain and the Colonies.

CHAPTER XV

AGRICULTURE

i. The importance of agriculture as a subject of instruction.

If instruction in medicine can provide one of the most practical contributions which the new university institutions can make to social progress in the Colonies, education in agriculture would seem to afford an opportunity for a contribution of great significance to progress in the economic field. Eighty out of every hundred of the world's two thousand million inhabitants are engaged in primary production, and the proportion is possibly even higher in the Colonies. The overwhelming importance which attaches to adequate preparation for such an industry or mode of life needs no stressing.

In many of the Colonies, the cultivation of marketable crops has already superseded purely subsistence production; but there are at the same time large areas where a self-sufficing economy is still the prevailing feature in rural life. The improvement of traditional practices in subsistence production by the application of scientific methods is of the highest importance, for this is the most direct means of ensuring better nutrition and a more balanced diet for large numbers of people. Adam Smith's dictum that "subsistence is in the nature of things prior to luxury" remains fundamentally unassailable. As populations are increasing in most Colonies, pressure on land steadily grows. To meet the demand for more and better food improved methods of peasant farming and especially modifications or avoidance of shifting cultivation will become essential. It is, however, mainly to the expansion of marketable production that we must look for an improvement in the general standards of living. That development is likely to gain impetus in the post-war years; and like the improvement of subsistence cultivation, it will call for the most careful guidance by experts of high technical and scientific ability and possessing full knowledge of local conditions.

It may assist in the consideration of this matter if we explain the extent of the existing provision of specialists engaged in the various problems connected with the development of agriculture, and the manner in which they are recruited. The Colonial Agricultural Service, members of which occupy the great majority of posts of higher responsibility in the agricultural departments of the Colonial Governments, comprised in 1944 some 440 officers. Out of these, 28 held the post of Chemist or Soil Chemist, 27 the post of Entomologist, 43 the posts of Botanist or Plant Pathologist, and 3 that of Agricultural Economist; the remainder were designated as Agriculturists. These numbers do not include officers attached to the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture, the tea, rubber and cocoanut research schemes in Ceylon or the Rubber Research Institute in Malaya. The Colonial agricultural departments were also served by a very large number of officers, mainly locally recruited and trained, who held posts of lower standing, ranging from that of Agricultural Assistant to that of Farm Supervisor or Crop Demonstrator.

As the figures given above will show, recruits for the Colonial Agricultural Service are of two types: (a) the agricultural officer and (b) the specialist officer. In regard to (a), recruits destined to become agricultural officers may either have obtained a degree in agriculture or a degree in pure science. Those having a degree in agriculture are given one year's postgraduate training in Cambridge and one year's postgraduate training at the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture in Trinidad. Those who have a degree in pure science also have a year's training at each of these centres, but their courses in the Cambridge year are naturally different. The object is to bring

them both to the same level at the end of the two years' graduate training, the agricultural graduate having been strengthened on the scientific side and the science graduate having been taught to a competent level in agriculture and in the agricultural sciences. The id *arme* is flexible, and one of the postgraduate years may, in certain circumstances, be dispensed with or spent at a special centre.

Recruits for (b), the posts of specialist officer are, save exceptionally, not taken from among graduates in agriculture but only from those having a degree in pure science. They also spend one year in Cambridge followed by one year in Trinidad, the object of this year's postgraduate course being to give them a knowledge of agriculture suited to specialist work in some branch of agricultural science, and also to give them special knowledge of the agricultural science to which they will particularly devote themselves, with a more general knowledge of the agricultural sciences closely cognate to it. This scheme is also flexible, admitting of suitable variations.

At the present time, a diploma in agriculture (other than a postgraduate diploma), i.e., a qualification below degree level, is not ordinarily accepted for any branch of the Colonial Agricultural Service. We understand that the Colonial Advisory Council of Agriculture, Animal Health, and Forestry has recently submitted proposals for the raising of the qualifications required of recruits who are to become specialist officers. It lays special stress on the advantage of a term in a research institution concerned with research in their own special subject, in addition to formal postgraduate training. Proposals have also been made for important changes in the organisation of agricultural research in the Colonies, the most important of which contemplates the constitution of a separate cadre of research officers.

Apart from the officers employed in the government agricultural departments, there is a considerable number of trained agriculturists employed by private enterprises, such as the sugar, rubber and tea plantations, or the Empire Cotton Growing Corporation or (in the Sudan) the Sudan Plantations Syndicate. The Empire Cotton Growing Corporation has adopted a system similar to that of the Colonial Office, and insists on the same standards in its agricultural and specialist officers; the Rubber Research Institute in Malaya observed standards of the same nature in recruitment. In the majority of cases, the agriculturists employed by private enterprises connected with the production of cotton, tea, rubber, or coconuts, are specialists working in well equipped laboratories, and their work in investigation and research can in many cases compare with what is done in fields of a like character almost anywhere else in the world.

2. Existing institutions for agricultural education in the Colonies

The provision made for agricultural education in the Colonies was surveyed in a report issued by the Colonial Office in 1938*. In a number of the territories, instruction has been confined to practical training given by departmental officers at government farms and the like; others have provided agricultural schools in which a certain amount of theoretical instruction is combined with practical training. The courses at these schools usually run for two or three years, but in many cases it has been found that the development of the schools has been impeded by the fact that pupils come to them with an insufficient school training, particularly in science, to enable them to benefit by the theoretical instruction given. In only a few of the Colonies has provision been made for instruction at a higher level. Some account of the institutions offering such instruction may be of interest, as it has a bearing on the inclusion of education in agriculture among the activities of the universities or university colleges which we hope to see established.

* A Survey of Vocational Agricultural Education in the Colonial Empire; Colonial No. 124.

In West Africa courses for the training of agricultural assistants are given at Samaru and Ibadan in Nigeria, at Achimota in the Gold Coast, and at Njala in Sierra Leone. A more advanced course leading to a diploma in agriculture is given at Ibadan. This course, which is attended by Nigerians only, takes the form of a two-year course in the basic sciences at Yaba Higher College, followed by three years' training in agricultural subjects at Ibadan. In East Africa, Kenya and Tanganyika give instruction in agricultural schools with three years' courses, the pupils being normally of primary or middle school status, but it is intended that Makerere College shall constitute the centre for more advanced agricultural education in this region. For some time it has had a five years' course in agriculture, the first two years being devoted to pre-vocational studies (mathematics, English, chemistry, physics, botany and zoology), the third to a theoretical course in agriculture, and the last two years to practical training under Government agricultural officers at Bukalasa and Serere in Uganda.

In the Mediterranean region Palestine has made a notable development in agricultural education, largely as a means of meeting the demand created by the influx of Jewish immigrants who seek to make their living on the land but have no previous knowledge of rural life. The two Government and eight independent schools, which in 1936 had 896 pupils on their rolls, give a two or three years' course, but the circumstances are somewhat exceptional, in that a considerable number of the pupils have a higher background of education than is usual in many of the Colonies. There is a School of Agriculture attached to the Hebrew University of Jerusalem. The University of Malta does not include agriculture among its Faculties, but the Government of Malta proposes to give short vocational courses at its experimental and live-stock farm.

In the East Ceylon has provided instruction at the School of Agriculture at Peradeniya; the course, which is given in English, is of two years, and pupils must have passed the Junior School or Cambridge Junior Local examination. The syllabus includes agriculture, horticulture, animal husbandry, agricultural botany, chemistry and entomology, and agricultural mathematics and engineering; practical training is given at the Experimental station at Anuradhapura. The University of Ceylon contemplates taking over the School at Peradeniya, and proposes thereafter to set up a Board of agricultural studies. In Malaya provision was made at the School of Agriculture adjoining the Central Experimental Station at Serdang; the two year's course, given in English, embraced among other subjects estate sanitation and hygiene, book-keeping, agricultural economics and surveying. Agricultural Assistants and candidates for the Rubber Research Institute undergo a further training of about nine months duration. The School has accommodation for 80 students. Mauritius has a College of Agriculture at Réduit which is operated as part of the department of agriculture. Pupils must have passed the Senior Cambridge Local Examination or its equivalent; the three years' course leading to the diploma is mainly directed to meeting the needs of the sugar estates, and includes a course on the technology of sugar manufacture. Scholarships for further study in Europe are given periodically to selected diploma students.

The West Indies are distinguished by the possession of the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture at Trinidad. Since 1927 it has been the centre for the postgraduate courses in tropical agriculture given to cadets holding scholarships in the Colonial Agricultural Service, but we are concerned here rather with its function as a centre for the agricultural training of students from the Caribbean area. Its diploma course is of three years, and includes both theoretical and practical instruction. The number of diploma students has varied from 19 to 37. Jamaica has a school at Hope Estate which is probably

the oldest institution of the kind in the Colonies, having been founded in 1910. Candidates must possess the equivalent of a Junior Cambridge certificate; the diploma course is three years, and among other subjects the syllabus includes farm mechanics, book-keeping and surveying.

3. The functions of universities or university colleges in agricultural education

There can be no question of the need for both an extension and an improvement of the scope of agricultural education in the Colonies. We understand that the Colonial Advisory Council of Agriculture, Animal Health and Forestry, considers that every Colony should have a well thought out programme of agricultural education designed both to improve the efficiency of existing farmers and fit the coming generation of farmers for their way of life. Our own problem, however, is to determine the part which universities or university colleges can play in this process. Agriculture stands in a somewhat different position from some other subjects of professional instruction. To the great majority of people in the Colonies it is a way of life to which they are committed by circumstances rather than a field which offers the prospect of a career, and for which the necessary qualification must be sought by professional study. By far the greater proportion of those engaged in agriculture are of the peasant type, and the methods which they practise are the result of a process of trial and error, not of scientific study. Agricultural education—using that term in its widest sense—has therefore two aspects. The first consists in introducing the cultivator to such improved methods as his resources, or the prevailing social factors in the nature of land tenure and the like, allow him to adopt; its success depends on the practical demonstration of its benefits, rather than on theoretical instruction in the principles of better farming. Education of this type is the function of the agricultural school, with its school farm, or of the employees of the agricultural departments engaged as demonstrators or instructors. If the university has a part to play in education of this type, it would mainly be by the inclusion of the subject in its extra-mural activities.

The second aspect of education in agriculture consists in the training of men who are qualified to apply the principles of modern scientific agriculture to the special circumstances prevailing in the Colonies, or to conduct research, both of the fundamental and "applied" type, into the problems which Colonial agriculture presents. The demand for men so trained will come chiefly from the state departments or from some of the more highly organised Native Authorities; but it may also be foreseen that there will be an increasing demand from private enterprises requiring managers or research workers, or from larger land-owners seeking expert assistance in developing their estates.

It is natural that we should now look increasingly to the Colonies as a source of supply of specialists of this class; apart from other obvious considerations, many of them will have the advantage of the familiarity with local conditions which is so essential to those engaged in persuading a native population of the value of new methods of cultivation. It is natural also that we should look to the universities or university colleges as a means of supplying this need. But there is here one difficulty. Unless the training provided is practical as well as theoretical, the degree given will not carry a value which will ensure ready employment to those who hold it. There can be no question that the university or university college can provide a suitable agency for giving the preliminary courses in natural science and such parts of the syllabus of agricultural instruction as can be treated theoretically, and as in the case of medicine, the student will have everything to gain from association with the general life of a residential institution of academic standing. But the organisation of an adequate Faculty of agriculture will also involve the

possession by the institution of its own farm lands, with the staff and equipment necessary for practical instruction. Alternatively, it will be necessary that it should make such arrangements with a department of agriculture or a private organisation as will enable the student to complete his practical training under conditions recognised as justifying the grant of a degree. It is relevant to point out here that our West Indies Committee has suggested two avenues for the training of agriculturists at the university level: (a) a training in natural science in the proposed University of the West Indies followed by a diploma in agricultural science at a home university, or (b) a training consisting of two years in natural sciences in Jamaica followed by two years at the Imperial College at Trinidad in a course which would be developed from the present diploma course. The Committee is opposed to the establishment of a Faculty of agriculture as part of the original foundation of the University. It suggests that at a subsequent date the Imperial College might be associated with a Faculty of agriculture in the University, if a degree in agriculture rather than a diploma is considered to be desirable.

While therefore we hope that the Colonial universities will take their share in the development of agricultural education, any scheme for the establishment by them of a Faculty of agriculture should in our opinion be judged in the light of the consideration we have just expressed. This consideration also adds force to a recent recommendation made by the Colonial Agricultural Advisory Council that state institutions for the study of agricultural problems, both on the research and on the experimental side, should wherever possible be associated with local centres of higher education.

4. The character of university courses

In home universities there is considerable variety of practice in regard to the courses by which an agricultural student qualifies. In some cases, the student, after taking a science degree proceeds to the special course of studies prescribed for the diploma in agriculture. In other cases—and these seem to be the majority—students qualify through a different type of course, in which the science subjects and agricultural subjects are all studied concurrently. In Colonial conditions, there is, we consider, a certain disadvantage in the latter method, in view of the relative lack of grounding in science with which the student will normally come to the university. We should prefer to see the student take a two years' course in the necessary science subjects—physics, chemistry, geology, botany and zoology—followed by a three years' course for the agricultural degree, of which the first year would be devoted to studies of a more specialised character, such as crop husbandry, soil science, plant pathology and genetics, animal husbandry and agricultural engineering and economics, and the last two years to practical work based on the application of these studies. We attach particular importance to the study of agricultural economics during the third year. The association of the student in the science courses of the university, and his participation in its residential life, will have broadened his outlook. It is necessary also that he should be able to see the relation of agriculture to the secondary industries, and to other activities for the development of natural resources or the improvement of standards of living.

We have been interested to learn that Makerere College contemplates that all students "attempting higher studies" including that of agriculture, shall be required to take concurrently certain courses in the humanities. We have already made it clear that we are impressed by the undesirability of confining vocational training to an unduly narrow range of study, and should be glad to see agricultural courses so organised that they are part of a liberal education.

But the question of the best way of attaining this is a general one, not restricted to the needs of the student in agriculture, and we must limit ourselves here to referring to the general observations we have already made on this subject in chapter IV.

As already explained, the Colonial Office has hitherto required the cadets in the Colonial Agricultural Service to take a postgraduate or associateship course at the Imperial College at Trinidad. We do not consider it to be within our terms of reference to discuss whether a similar course will be desirable if Colonial universities should develop Faculties of agriculture on the lines we have suggested. Whether candidates who have received their training at one of the Colonial universities should also take a postgraduate course at Trinidad must, we suggest, depend on the character of the degree courses given at these institutions and the extent to which they can develop on the side of research. The facts which we have given in an earlier section of this chapter regarding the composition of the existing government services show the importance attached to the employment of officers with "specialist" training, and it is obvious that they can only obtain that training in well developed centres of research. The opportunities for investigation in the physical, biological, economic, and social fields of primary production are nowhere more numerous and nowhere likely to be productive of greater results than in the Colonies. We ourselves hope that time will see the growth of centres of research in the Colonial universities themselves or in close association with them; but we realise that, at the best, some time must elapse before they can attain a standing comparable with that of the more advanced centres of research in the United Kingdom or the Dominions. When, however, this stage has been reached, we should hope that the course of training given at a Colonial university would qualify the student for admission to the Colonial Agriculture Service.

CHAPTER XVI

VETERINARY TRAINING

I. The scope for veterinary services

Education in veterinary science embraces not only the preventive and curative treatment of animal disease, but the range of studies which find their application in animal husbandry. It is unnecessary to dilate on the essential part which the veterinarian everywhere plays in agricultural economy. But many of the Colonies present conditions which give unusual importance to his services. The introduction of systems of mixed farming upon the greatest possible scale is now an accepted policy, and the use of stock which this involves is an important factor in maintaining and increasing soil fertility. The improvement of the stock and their produce, and their freedom from disease, are all vital to the economic and social advancement of the agricultural peoples. There are, however, very large areas in which stock must continue upon a ranching system and here far reaching improvements are essential. Mal-distribution of stock in the past, because of the disinclination of owners to remove with their herds from established settlements, or the withholding of potential grazing from lack of water, the presence of tsetse fly or other causes, has been a contributory to soil erosion. Better distribution, extended watering facilities and improved pastures, will open out the way for that improvement of stock which will make smaller numbers of more economic value than the larger and heavier herds of to-day.

The contribution which the veterinarian can make is therefore far reaching; but his success depends on the possession of certain personal qualifications

The treatment of disease demands a full measure of scientific training, including the preparation and use on a large scale of serological products; but experience has shown also the special value of acquaintance with local social custom when dealing with questions affecting domestic animals and the use of animal products. There is in consequence an unusually strong case for obtaining a considerable part of the veterinary service by recruitment from local sources.

2. Existing facilities for veterinary training in the Colonies

(a) *Departmental training*

For years training has been given in practical work in those territories, more particularly in Africa, where large scale preventive inoculations have been carried out. Africans have been taught to organise camps, bring in stock and carry out inoculations under the supervision of European officers. The instructional work connected with the proper flaying and drying of hides and skins has been carried out by assistants locally born and trained. Similarly, the work in the small dairies, which have been erected in districts and in dairies which serve as depots, has been carried out under the immediate control of Africans. Some 15 to 20 years ago, classes were commenced either at the headquarters of the department in each territory or at the laboratories, at which selected Africans were given courses. There are now in the majority of the territories schools at which courses extending to three years are given.

The system in Malaya was somewhat similar to that in Africa; in other Colonies, such as the West Indies and Palestine where general education has reached a high level, technical non-professional workers in the veterinary departments have proved of great value.

(b) *Schools*

About 15 years ago a school for the education of African Assistant Veterinary Officers was opened at Makerere College. The course is of five years, the first three years being common with the medical course; the course is then continued at Entebbe near which is one of the government stock farms. It has recently been decided that students should go to Kabete, in Kenya, for the final stages of the course, but they will remain students of Makerere and will return there to obtain their qualifications.

Three years ago a similar school was opened in Nigeria to serve the whole of the West Coast of Africa. The course, designed for the training of Assistant Veterinary Officers, comprises two years' education in the basic sciences at Yaba Higher College, followed by five years training in the Veterinary School at Vom, which is the headquarters of the Nigerian department of animal health. The Veterinary Research laboratory, the substantial new buildings of the School, and the extensive experimental farm provide first class opportunities for both theoretical and practical instruction.

Animal husbandry is included in the syllabus of the School of Agriculture at Peradeniya, Ceylon. Some veterinary training is given at the College of Agriculture, Mauritius, which is operated as part of the agricultural department.

3. The part to be played by universities in veterinary education

Veterinary education in Great Britain has been the subject of recent enquiry by the Committee on Veterinary Education appointed by the Secretary of State for Scotland and the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries.* In a

* Committee on Veterinary Education in Great Britain (February, 1944) Cmd. 1944. 6517.

review of the existing facilities for veterinary education the Committee has pointed out that, with one exception, the veterinary schools in Great Britain are largely detached institutions providing complete courses of study and that their connection with universities is, in general, slight. It concludes that veterinary medicine will be able to play the important part which its place in the national economy demands only if veterinary education becomes the concern of the universities. It also expresses the view that veterinary teaching has been concerned far too much with animal sickness, and that it has lacked the necessary emphasis on animal health; the teaching has been too theoretical, and facilities for proper clinical instruction have not been available. The Committee therefore recommends that each school should be provided with a field station for the purposes of clinical teaching; that there should be substantial revision of the curriculum, not only in the pre-clinical subjects but particularly in animal husbandry and in clinical teaching.

The fact that veterinary education is in the early stages of development in the Colonies provides an opportunity for putting into practice the newer conceptions of its scope and the methods to be employed in teaching. We are agreed that higher education in veterinary science should as far as possible develop as an integral part of the activities of the future universities of the Colonies, rather than that it should be taught in separate institutions. Its teaching should be carried out on a general pattern similar to that given in medicine.

4. The curriculum in veterinary medicine

We agree with the Committee that the first three years should be devoted to the basic subjects on which the more professional teaching is founded. The Committee suggests that after the first year's study of the preliminary sciences, chemistry, physics and biology, the second and third years should be devoted to anatomy, histology and embryology, physiology and biochemistry, pathology, bacteriology, immunology and parasitology. Save for anatomy, much of the fundamental teaching in these subjects is common to medicine, and the veterinary student should take the same courses as the medical student; more applied courses for veterinary students can then follow on this fundamental teaching. It is clearly desirable that the student should make early contact with field work, and we suggest that he should spend two or three months of both the second and third years at the field station.

5. Field stations

Much of what we have said in chapter XIV regarding the facilities required for clinical teaching in medicine applies equally to veterinary medicine. Ideally each university or college providing instruction in veterinary science should thus possess its own field station from the start, situated near the university college at which the teaching of the pre-clinical subjects will be carried out. Only in this way will the veterinary student be able to share throughout his course the life of the student community as a whole; and only thus will his teachers be in daily contact with those working in allied subjects a matter of great importance since problems of research will increasingly demand the collaboration of workers in these and other fields.

But we recognise that this ideal cannot always be achieved immediately. In West Africa, for instance, environmental conditions make it inevitable that the field station should be situated in the northern areas far removed from any suitable location for a university college. As we have indicated in East Africa, it is proposed to give the clinical teaching of the students of Makerere College at the government station at Kabete in Kenya. Here we feel that even if such an arrangement is desirable in the immediate future, plans should be made for Makerere College to possess its own field station;

students from that station would doubtless profit from visits to Kabete during vacation. While separation of the veterinary students during their clinical years from the general body of the students is thus inevitable in East and West Africa at the present time, we hope that means will be found to overcome the disabilities presented by this position.

6. Staffing

For the reasons we have given in discussing medical education, we recommend that there should be two full-time members of staff in each of the subjects of veterinary anatomy, veterinary medicine, animal husbandry and the pathology group. These posts should be created even if, as at Kabete, the clinical instruction is for the time being given at a government station; their holders would thus be members of the staff of the College and their appointment, apart from other advantages, would pave the way for the later creation of the field station of the College itself. As in medicine, the co-operation of officers of the government departments will be essential not only for the imparting of specialised instruction, but also for collaboration on problems of research.

On the general question of the curriculum, we hope that the teaching in the different subjects will be given in the sequence recommended by the Committee on Veterinary Education already mentioned. Nevertheless it is clear that in tropical conditions particular aspects of subjects will demand special courses or fuller treatment than is required in Great Britain. As in the case of medicine, the desired modifications can be introduced without so altering the curriculum that it becomes too specialised for acceptance in Great Britain. This is important, since the aim of the veterinary schools should be, in the first place, to give courses leading to a diploma recognised for the purposes of post-graduate study, at home and in the Dominions. Later the Colonial universities will doubtless award degrees in veterinary science.

The length of the present M.R.C.V.S. course is four years from the completion of the preliminary science examination, and this is the period also recommended by the Committee referred to. The course given in the Colonial veterinary schools should be at least of this duration, and may need to be somewhat longer.

CHAPTER XVII

LAW

1. The need for qualified legal practitioners in the Colonies

We use the term "legal education" as denoting the machinery which provides the necessary educational qualifications for practising the law in the Colonies. Some of those so qualified may practise as advocates in the Courts, others as solicitors, or as both; they will provide the local source from which the magisterial and judicial establishments and the legal departments of the Governments must be recruited; and they may fill other posts, such as those connected with the registration of deeds or land titles for which a knowledge of the law is required.

It is clear that in many of the Colonies there will be an increasing need for persons so qualified, as the result of developments which can now be foreseen. With improving standards of life the more simple methods of administering justice through tribal courts or the like will call for change, in some cases by the introduction of presiding officers trained in the law, in others by the substitution of a qualified magistracy. The range of matters in which the public will require legal advice will be enlarged by the emergence of new

issues in commercial law or by the application of social legislation; land issues will become of increasing importance and complexity as land acquires a transferable value; industrialisation will create its own series of judicial problems. In the field of law and justice, as in other fields which we have surveyed, development will depend largely on the possibility of obtaining from local sources the requisite supply of persons with adequate training and qualifications.

It is relevant here to add a brief comment on the content of the law in which qualifications must be acquired, since this has a bearing on the recommendations we have subsequently to make. The diversity of conditions in the Colonies is reflected in a considerable variety of systems of law. While the concepts and practice of English law have largely determined the formation of Colonial law, the statute law is, with rare exceptions, that formulated in the ordinances of different Colonies, not the statute law of Great Britain. Criminal law and the law regulating judicial procedure have in most cases been embodied in codes, and there is not in this case any marked diversity between the law of different Colonies, nor does its acquisition present any difficulty to those who have been grounded in the principles and practice of English law. But there is a wide variety in those fields of civil law, such as that relating to succession, matrimony, testament or land tenure, which reflect local custom, the legal prescriptions of the Hindu, Muslim, or other religions, or the particular European legal systems such as Roman-Dutch or French law, which have from time to time been "received" in particular Colonies.

There is in Africa and some parts of the East an added complication due to the existence of a system of Native Tribunals, the jurisdiction of which is recognised by statute, but which mainly owe their form and composition to native custom. These tribunals administer the local customary law under their own traditional forms of procedure. The customary law is for the most part unwritten; it varies widely from place to place, and there is a great diversity also in the procedure adopted by the tribunals. In many of the African Colonies by far the greater proportion of civil issues, and most of the less serious criminal issues, are now dealt with by these tribunals. In some areas the system of Native Tribunals is not integrated in any way with the system of Colonial Courts which, under the judicial control of a Supreme or High Court, administer the statute or other law of the Colony; in other territories it is integrated only at the point at which an appeal is provided from the Native Tribunals to those Courts. It is important to note, that when such appeal is made, the appellate Court is required to give effect to the local customary law in so far as it is not repugnant to natural justice or equity or incompatible with the law of the Colony.

While in almost every case the ascertainment of customary law is a matter of proof, some general knowledge of the usual or frequent principles of that law, varying and difficult of ascertainment though they are, and an acquaintance with the social conditions which it reflects, are desirable as part of the equipment of the judges or officers presiding over Colonial Courts and of the advocates who plead in such Courts. It is even more desirable in law officers who advise on the course of legislation. It is to the combination of a knowledge of the general principles of English law and of the general principles of native customary law that we must look for the development of a body of Colonial law which, while adjusted to modern requirements, is at the same time adapted to the needs of different Colonial communities.

2. The conditions regulating the right to practise in the Colonial Courts

We may note that in some Colonies the two branches of the legal profession distinguished in England as barristers and solicitors are distinct; but in a

considerable number of others admission to practise qualifies the holder to act in both capacities. It may be noted that the latter is also the system prevailing throughout the greater part of British India; there are firms of solicitors in three Presidency towns; but elsewhere persons enrolled as advocates (a term which includes barristers) are entitled either to plead in Court or to render the services normally discharged by solicitors in England. In many of the Colonies developments have not yet been such as to create a wide need for the specialised service of the solicitor, much of which lies outside the strictly judicial field. At present, by far the greater number of the Colonial or Indian students who resort to this country for their legal education seek to be enrolled as barristers and comparatively few as solicitors.

In this section we deal only with the qualifications of persons admitted to plead in the Courts. We shall deal subsequently with the solicitors' branch of the legal profession. We shall do so very briefly, not because we in any way underrate its importance, but because some of the main problems raised by the legal education of baristers wishing to practise in the Colonies arise to a very much lesser extent in the case of solicitors. For instance a problem is created in the case of barristers, by the fact that in the majority of Colonies, freedom to practise in the local Courts is conditional on a call to the English, Scottish, or North Irish Bars: whereas in the majority of Colonies freedom to practise locally as a solicitor is not conditional on admission as a solicitor by the English Law Society, or by the corresponding bodies in Scotland and Northern Ireland.

Persons admitted to plead in the Courts are known locally under a variety of titles—"advocates", "legal practitioners", "pleaders", "solicitors" or "counsel" but it will be convenient here to refer to them under the general title of advocate. In the majority of Colonies, a member of a Bar of the United Kingdom is *ipso facto* entitled to admission to the local Bar, and in some a corresponding privilege is extended to a solicitor who has duly qualified as such in the United Kingdom. But to this rule there are some exceptions, and there is also a considerable diversity in the manner in which the rule is applied in practice. The details which we give below are not exhaustive, but will illustrate sufficiently the major differences which occur:

(a) In Malta no one can be admitted as an advocate unless he has obtained the degree of Doctor of Laws in the Faculty of Law of the University of Malta. His studies in law may have been conducted at the University of Malta or abroad, but in the latter case he must satisfy the examiners in the Faculty of Law that he has studied at an institution recognised by it and has a full knowledge of the language of the courts. After obtaining his degree he must attend the superior courts in Malta for a year.

(b) In Palestine advocates must (i) satisfy the Law Council that they have studied at the Jerusalem Law Class for five years and taken its diploma, or have the diploma of a university or law school recognised by the Law Council, and (ii) must have passed two years in the office of an advocate practising in Palestine. A partial exemption from (i) may be granted to barristers or solicitors of the United Kingdom, the Dominions or British India.

(c) In Ceylon (i) any person who has been called to a Bar in the United Kingdom may be admitted to the Ceylon Bar without examination; (ii) other persons must have qualified by completing the course of the Law College at Colombo, and they must also pass six months in the chambers of an advocate of ten years' standing in Ceylon.

(d) In Hong Kong, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Grenada, Dominica, the Leeward Islands, Cyprus, Jamaica, Mauritius, Barbados, British Guiana, North-

Borneo, and Trinidad, a call to a Bar in the United Kingdom constitutes the sole qualification to the local Bar. Nothing less will suffice and nothing more is required.

(e) In Bermuda and the Bahamas admission is granted (i) to persons called to a Bar in the United Kingdom and (ii) to persons who have qualified by serving for three years with a barrister in the Colony.

(f) In the four West African Colonies the qualification is a call to a Bar in the United Kingdom, but in addition it is necessary either (i) to have read for one year in chambers in the United Kingdom or two years in the Colony or (ii) to have practised for two years in the Courts in the United Kingdom or a British Colony.

(g) In Kenya, Tanganyika, Uganda, Northern Rhodesia and Zanzibar admission is granted (i) to persons who have been called to a Bar of the United Kingdom (ii) to persons entitled to practise before the Supreme Court in any Dominion or self-governing Colony or a High Court in British India; (iii) to solicitors of a Superior Court in a British possession to which section 35 of the Solicitors Act, 1932, applies. Nyasaland admits in addition any persons certified as duly qualified by the judge of the High Court.

(h) In Aden the qualifications required are those which regulate practice in a High Court in British India.

(i) In Fiji admission is granted to persons who have (i) been called to a Bar in the United Kingdom or (ii) are entitled to practise in Australia, Canada, New Zealand or any other Dominion or Colony named by the Governor in Council.

(j) British Honduras admits persons enrolled as advocates in other Colonies, or persons who have served for five years with a solicitor (the term applied locally to all legal practitioners) in British Honduras and passed an examination prescribed by the court.

(k) The Straits Settlements and Federated Malay States admit persons qualified as barristers or solicitors in the United Kingdom to practise locally as advocates or solicitors, and also persons who have acquired local qualifications. They require, however, that persons who have qualified in the United Kingdom shall also have received instruction in local law in the office of an advocate or solicitor practising in Malaya, the period varying according to the time during which the applicant has read in chambers in the United Kingdom.

3. The qualifications for acting as solicitor

It will be sufficient to refer here only to the conditions in those Colonies which distinguish between the position of an advocate and that of a solicitor. Thus in Malta, in order to be admitted as a legal procurator (the local term for a solicitor) a person must have taken the special course given by the Law Faculty of Malta University for the diploma of legal procurator. In Ceylon (i) any person who has qualified as a solicitor in the United Kingdom may be admitted as a "proctor" and (ii) any person may be admitted who has completed the three years' course for the proctorate prescribed by the Council of Legal Education and has served as a clerk to a "proctor" of approved standing. In Barbados, British Guiana, Hong Kong, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Grenada, Trinidad and Jamaica, solicitors of the United Kingdom can practise, but there is also a local qualification which can be acquired by serving a term of articles in the Colony and by passing an examination which in certain of these Colonies is conducted on behalf of the Colony by the Law Society of England. In the Leeward Islands and Dominica only solicitors who have qualified in England are admitted. In the Bahamas a person may

be admitted as "attorney" after serving a term of articles locally and passing a local examination. Mauritius admits as "attorneys" (i) persons qualified as solicitors in the United Kingdom, and (ii) persons who have served for six years under articles to an "attorney" in Mauritius. It may be noted, as a general rule, that where persons are admitted on the strength of qualifications obtained in the United Kingdom, the Colonies do not stipulate (as many have done in the case of barristers) for a further period of practical experience or of study in chambers, it being held that the five years spent in the United Kingdom as an articled clerk guarantee a sufficient acquaintance with the practice of law.

4. Procedure for obtaining legal qualifications in the United Kingdom

The preceding survey will have made it clear that in the majority of Colonies candidates for the legal profession, in particular those desiring to practise as barristers, depend for their qualifying legal education on institutions in the United Kingdom, and that only three Colonies—Malta, Palestine and Ceylon—have a fully developed system of legal education designed to provide an alternative means of admission to the higher branches of the profession.

In Malta, as already explained, the Law Faculty of the University provides the courses both for advocates and procurators, and is the authority which controls admission to the legal profession. In Palestine, legal education is controlled by a Law Council presided over by the attorney general, which prescribes the syllabus and supervises the examination of the Jerusalem Law Classes. Ceylon, however, is the only Colony which possesses a fully organised Law College. The Council of Legal Education in Ceylon is a statutory body, consisting mainly of judges of the Supreme Court and law officers; it supervises (through a Board of Studies) the studies at the Law College. The three years' course of the College comprises a preliminary, intermediate and final examination.

As we have observed, we must foresee that there will be an increasing need in the Colonies for persons with legal qualifications. Apart from this, it is necessary to realise that with progress in self-government, the Colonies may, like British India, be unwilling to continue to accept a position in which they are so largely dependent on the facilities for legal education provided by institutions overseas. We therefore feel called upon to contemplate a state of affairs in which universities and university colleges of the Colonies should eventually play a part in supplying these facilities, but before making more detailed recommendations on this point we desire to make some observations in particular on the conditions which have to be fulfilled by the student of law in the United Kingdom, to obtain a practising qualification.

Where a call to a Bar in the United Kingdom is a qualification for admission to a Colonial Bar, the call may have been to the Bar either of England, Scotland or Northern Ireland. For brevity and because it absorbs most of the students in question, we will consider the Bar of England only. The Colonial student like anyone else must, before he can be called to the English Bar, be admitted as a student to one of the four Inns of Court, and this, save in the exceptional circumstances to be afterwards explained, involves a considerable period of residence in the United Kingdom. Broadly speaking, anyone is eligible for admission to an Inn of Court who possesses the requisite educational qualifications, which may be indicated roughly as a School Certificate or its equivalent, with the proviso that one of the subjects of the examination must be Latin. He must make certain payments, which together with those payable on call to the Bar, amount to about £170 (of this sum no less than £75 goes in stamp duty). He must also tender a certificate of good character.

After admission to one of the Inns of Court, the student in order to qualify for a call to the Bar must pass both parts I and II of the examination for call to the Bar; subject to this, that roughly speaking if he has obtained an honours degree in Law at any university he may be exempted from part I. The student must further "eat dinners" for three years at his Inn of Court; each year consists of four terms, in each of which terms as a general rule six dinners must be eaten. A student who takes a first class in part II of the examination, may obtain a dispensation of two terms.

It will be seen therefore that a student once admitted to the Inns of Court can obtain a call to the Bar by passing the Bar examinations and "eating dinners." No proof is required that he has attended any prescribed course of lectures or law classes. After call to the Bar an English student almost invariably reads for a year, or a minimum of six months, in chambers as the pupil of an established junior. There is no compulsion on him to do this, but no one who failed to do so would have much prospect of acquiring a practice.

During the war the conditions qualifying for call to the Bar have in the case of Colonial students been greatly relaxed. They may be admitted as students of any Inn of Court *in absentia*. With the co-operation of the judiciary and the educational authorities in the Colonies, arrangements have been made for examining students overseas, and subject to a necessary period of residence and study in this country (the length of which remains hitherto undetermined) they can be called to the English Bar *in absentia*.

From the information supplied to us it appears that the number of admissions to the four Inns of Court from the Colonies in the years 1937 (taken as typical of the years immediately preceding the war) and 1943 (representing a year of returning normal conditions) was 43 and 82 respectively. The total number of admissions to the Inns of Court in 1937 was 466; in 1943 it was 358. The admissions from the Colonies during these years comprised:—

	1937	1943
Malaya	6	—
Ceylon	9	1
East Africa	2	13
West Africa	12	28
West Indies	14	40
	—	—
	43	82
	—	—

It will be seen that there have been no admissions from Malaya since the Japanese occupation and the number from Ceylon has also fallen off.

Though the extension of facilities for legal education in the Colonies may have its effect on the number of students resorting to the United Kingdom for call to the Bar, this development can only be gradual, and it is also possible that, as in the case of India, a number of students will still desire to be called to the English Bar, on account of the prestige which the status of barrister carries. We proceed, therefore, to consider whether the conditions which a Colonial student has to satisfy in order to be called to the Bar in England could not with advantage be modified: whether for instance he should be required, in addition to passing the Bar examinations to comply with some practical test—such as reading in chambers with a junior counsel in England or elsewhere or attending the Council of Legal Education's tutorial classes, which are designed to give practical training of the kind afforded to a pupil in chambers—before qualifying for practice at the Colonial Bar, is a question for the authorities of the respective Colonies involved. We have seen

that the West African and some other Colonies have answered this question in the affirmative. If we may express an opinion on the matter which is perhaps strictly outside our purview, it would be to the effect that such requirements are reasonable, though difficult to satisfy so far as they demand that a Colonial student must have read as a pupil in English chambers.

As regards other requirements we feel that the Inns of Court might reasonably be invited to consider certain suggestions. We recognise that the Inns may feel difficulty in offering, and perhaps Colonial opinion in accepting, any sectional exemption from requirements which are at present generally imposed. We realise also that Colonial students may derive real value from a fairly prolonged contact with the buildings, libraries and traditions of which the Inns of Court are the owners or repositories. In the case of a Colonial Bar in the making it is impossible to exaggerate the importance of a high standard of professional conduct and honour, and, as things are, we know of no better or surer way of acquiring this than by a careful observation of the conduct of cases in an English Court of Justice, though the value of such experience is more than doubled if the student can peruse the pleadings and the brief of one counsel (as a pupil can) before going into Court.

Nevertheless, we feel that the requirements of three years of "eating dinners" may be over-exacting. The Colonial student of exceptional talent may be able to pass his Bar examinations in 18 months or two years, and although the cases in which this occurs are rare, it may not be desirable that a Colonial student (possibly with limited means, subscribed with difficulty) should have to remain for another year or 18 months in London with nothing further to do in the way of Bar examinations. No doubt he may employ this time to advantage, e.g., as a postgraduate student in an English university, or in studying in the Inns of Court, but there is nothing to compel him to make this use of his leisure and he may indeed employ it to less advantage.

Again, we feel that the continued possibility of passing part I at least of the Bar examination *in absentia* would be a great boon to Colonial candidates. With less to do here in the way of examinations they would have more time to devote to their practical training, e.g., by attendance in Court, or at tutorial classes. The war experiment in this regard has, on the evidence given before us, proved a notable success.

We do not think it necessary to express any opinion on the standard of the English Bar examinations, and we appreciate the difficulty of imposing on Colonial students conditions either in respect of the standard for admission to the Inns of Court, or in respect of the Bar examination itself, which are different from those applicable to others. We feel at the same time that it would be to the general interest if, in order to obviate cramming and learning by rote, it were possible, to demand a higher standard of general education and in particular a better command of English as a condition applying to all entrants to an Inn of Court, and some viva voce test in examinations for call to the Bar. We note with interest that in Ceylon the qualifications for entrance to the Law School as an advocate student is the London Intermediate Arts examination.

It is, of course, a matter for the consideration of the Colonial authorities whether they should take advantage of the proposals we make above in respect of the eating of dinners by overseas students or the grant to them of permission to pass one part of the Bar examination *in absentia*, or whether they would prefer to continue under the present system without modification. We believe that the Secretary of State has been in communication with them on the question of possible modifications.

The position of the Colonial student seeking qualification as a solicitor is materially different in that before entering for the examination prescribed by the Incorporated Law Society he acquires practical experience of the law by

servicing his articles with a practising solicitor. The period for which he must so serve is normally five years. We do not consider that we can usefully suggest any modification of this system in favour of Colonial students.

5. Courses in the law schools of Colonial universities

In contemplating the possibility of the establishment of law schools at the Colonial universities, where they do not already exist, we have assumed that graduates would be admitted to practice in the Colonial Courts on the same terms as those who have been called to a Bar in the United Kingdom. We hope also that when the Colonial law schools have been developed, a dualism which until 1934 to some extent prevailed in this country may be avoided, a dualism which involved, in the case of persons who had obtained a law degree at a university, the superimposition of overlapping educational requirements by a Council of Legal Education. To-day this overlapping has largely been overcome; students who have obtained a good class in law at any of the well known universities are exempted from the whole of part I of the Bar examinations, and many of the main subjects covered by part II (the "final") e.g. criminal procedure, equity, company law, conveyancing, evidence and civil procedure find no place in the university B.A. (Law) examinations.

To ensure these results it would be necessary for the Colonial universities to secure the collaboration of the judicial authorities of the Colonies concerned when laying down the standard for entrance to the law school, the curriculum to be followed, and the form of final examination for candidates for the diploma or degree. This might most suitably be achieved through the institution by the different Colonies in the region served by a university of a Council of Legal Education on which such judicial authorities would be represented.

We hope that the standard of entrance will be adequately high, and certainly not lower than that of the Intermediate examination of the university itself. It would be for consideration whether (as we have suggested for entrance to the schools of medicine) there should be a special process of selection of candidates seeking admission to the law schools, for they will follow a profession in which character and outlook are certainly not less important than technical qualifications.

Moreover in view of what we have said in an earlier section of this chapter, when dealing with some of the characteristic features of Colonial law, we are impressed with the need that the curriculum should not be confined to the formal study of law, but should be so framed as to enable the student to appreciate the social and economic factors underlying the formation of law and the part which law and the administration of justice play in the evolution of society.

6. The prescription of additional requirements for graduates of law schools

It will be for the judicial authorities in the Colonies to determine what additional requirements, in the nature of practical experience and the like, the graduates of a Colonial law school must satisfy before they can be admitted to plead in the courts. We hope, however, that these requirements will be so framed as not to place Colonial graduates at a disadvantage as compared with those who have been called to the English Bar.

It will be for such authorities also to advise whether admission to the law school should be so regulated as to avoid producing a number of law graduates out of reasonable proportion to the needs of the community for legal aid. The existence of a legal profession of which the strength is greatly in excess of the public need for its services, so far from being of assistance to the administration of justice, may, as experience has shown, have the effect of fomenting litigation and of lowering the standards of professional conduct and incidentally

remuneration. The danger is all the greater in those Colonies where the public itself is uneducated and has still to adjust itself to a novel system of law or a judicial procedure differing widely from the methods prescribed by tradition for deciding contested issues.

It will also be for the authorities responsible for legal education to advise how far the courses given at a law school should be of a general nature, designed to prepare the student for the services usually discharged in this country by a solicitor as well as those associated with the position of barrister, or whether separate provision should be made for training those who desire to qualify themselves for this special class of work. It will no doubt be found that the requirements of Colonies will vary in this respect.

CHAPTER XVIII

ENGINEERING

1. The qualifications required of the civil engineer

As was remarked by the Commission on Higher Education in East Africa*, the term engineering is used in such a variety of ways that there is apt to be some confusion when engineering is discussed as a subject of education. There can be no question of the need felt in the Colonies for the skilled craftsmen, technicians or tradesmen who are employed in various types of engineering work; but their training is mainly of a practical kind, and is normally given in technical and trade schools, or, in certain cases, in institutions which form part of the system of post secondary vocational instruction. Our own task, however, is to consider the questions arising in regard to the professional education of civil engineers, the men, that is, who are responsible for designing, constructing and maintaining the works needed by the state or by private enterprise in exploiting the natural resources of the country, or by the activities of the economic, social and public utility services. It is from these men also that guidance must be sought in organising the instruction given to the technicians and craftsmen to whom we have referred above. We need not emphasize the fact that there will be a greatly increased demand for them as the result of the programme of Colonial development for which finance is now being provided. And the demand will not arise merely from the need for expanding the state service of engineers; it will be felt also by many types of private enterprise.

While entry into the profession of civil engineer requires certain basic qualifications, men so qualified may in practice devote themselves to a variety of specialised lines of work. This is best illustrated by the figures of the officers of this class now in the employ of the Colonial Governments. The total number of officers is 890. Of these the majority, 580, are classified as civil engineers, and within this term are included not only the considerable number who deal with roads and buildings, but those dealing with irrigation projects, waterworks and sanitary systems, and those in the Railway Administrations (other than as mechanical engineers). 130 are classed as mechanical engineers, the majority of whom are employed on the railways, and 180 as electrical engineers. The latter deal not only with installations for the generation of electric power, but with the telegraph, telephone and wireless systems. While it is not possible to give figures of the numbers of civil engineers employed by private enterprises, they are considerable, especially in the employment of mining, sugar and rubber companies.

* Colonial No. 142.

The normal qualification prescribed for employment as a civil engineer in the government service is the corporate membership of the Institution of Civil Engineers in the United Kingdom or an engineering degree or diploma recognised as granting exemption from sections A and B of the A.M.I.C.E. examination, and at least two years' practical experience of good civil engineering work. Candidates for employment as civil engineers on the railways are required to have special experience of railway construction or maintenance; and special experience is similarly required of candidates for employment as mechanical or electrical engineers.

The science of engineering differs in one respect from some of the sciences which we have previously considered. We may with propriety speak of tropical medicine or tropical agriculture, not indeed as separate branches of science, but as aspects of the general science of medicine or agriculture which require special knowledge and experience. But we could not with equal propriety speak of tropical engineering. The civil engineer in the Colonies does not need qualifications different from the civil engineer in Europe; if there is any difference between them it lies mainly in the fact that in the Colonies the engineer must learn to make use of different materials, or to adjust himself to the different methods of working dictated by the comparative lack of competent local contractors or foremen and trained artisans. In his case, it will be of no special advantage to have acquired his qualifications by study in the Colonies, and there is one potential disadvantage. Not only does the efficacy of the theoretical instruction given to him depend on the availability of suitable laboratories and workshops, but, as we have shown, great stress is also laid on his having a period of practical experience "of good engineering work." In many specialised lines of civil engineering, the opportunities of such experience are at present, and must continue for some time to be, far fewer than in the United Kingdom and some of the Dominions.

2. Facilities in the Colonies for education as civil engineer

It will be an advantage at this stage to survey shortly the facilities for education in engineering already provided in the Colonies. The Royal University of Malta has a combined Faculty of Engineering and Architecture. In Palestine, there is at Haifa a School of Engineering which gives a diploma after a four years' course and the School has been recognised by the Hebrew University of Jerusalem as serving the purpose of a Faculty of Engineering. The University of Hong Kong had a Faculty of Engineering which provided a four years' course in civil engineering and special courses in mechanical and electrical engineering. Attendance at English classes was compulsory for all students save those exempted by the attainment of a high standard in English in the matriculation examination. In Ceylon, the Technical College, which is an independent institution, gives teaching up to a degree standard and is recognised by London University for the B.Sc. (Engineering) examination.

In Malaya, teaching in engineering was given at the Technical School at Kuala Lumpur. The standard for entrance was the School Certificate, and the course lasted three years; a considerable variety of subjects was taken, in order to meet the needs of different government departments. The Commission of 1939 recommended that the School should be raised to the status of a technical college rather than that Raffles College, Singapore, should establish a Faculty of Engineering. The School would be extended in order to provide for some 300 pupils, and the Commission assumed that it would have a few advanced students who would sit for the B.Sc. (Engineering) external degree of London University. These students would subsequently

be given two or three years' pupilage in practical work under the direct supervision of a qualified civil engineer in the government service.

In the Gold Coast, the Prince of Wales College, Achimota, has been recognised by the University of London as a college teaching for the degree of B.Sc. (Engineering). Students who have passed the London matriculation or an equivalent test, receive a four years' degree course which has been successfully completed by eight students. Subsequent practical training may be acquired either by working for three years as probationer engineer under the Director of Public Works or for four years under the General Manager of the Railway. A larger number of students take the Intermediate course only; this course lasts two years and a proportion of the successful students have come to Great Britain to complete the degree course. At Yaba Higher College in Nigeria there is a four years' course for engineering students; it is designed to meet the needs of the various government departments and is given under the supervision of officers of those departments. As regards East Africa, the Commission on Higher Education in East Africa recommended that a school of civil engineering should be created in the College at Makerere, designed in the first instance to train students for the examination of the A.M.I.C.E.; but the Commission contemplated that at a later stage the College would work up to the full degree standard of the London external degree, until such time as it obtained power to grant its own degrees. The Commission considered that the course for professional training should occupy three years, with practical work in the vacations, and should be followed by three years pupilage in a government department, under a special officer appointed for the purpose. The development of this scheme has been interrupted by the war. In Khartoum the School of Engineering forms one of the series of institutions which, it is hoped, will be united in Gordon Memorial College. The Khartoum School of Science gives a preliminary course of one year to the students of the School of Engineering; the latter awards a diploma as the result of a four years' course.

3. The part to be taken by Colonial universities in the education of civil engineers

As will be seen, only in a few cases is provision made for more advanced education in civil engineering. For obvious reasons we desire to see the Colonial universities and university colleges take their part in equipping Colonial students for the important and expanding field of employment as engineers. Although, as we have pointed out, certain obstacles exist in regard to the supplementing of the theoretical courses by a period of practical training, we consider that instruction up to the stage of the B.Sc. (Engineering) degree can suitably be provided in the Colonies. Whether it will be possible to proceed to a further stage and provide the necessary facilities, in certain specialised lines such as mechanical and electrical engineering, must depend on circumstances.

The result must be that in the immediate future at all events Colonial students desiring to complete their education in those subjects must proceed overseas for the purpose.

It is unnecessary for us to add anything here as to a syllabus of instruction, since this will be of the standard form. We would suggest however that where students have not already attained a sufficient knowledge of English, special measures should be taken to complete their education in this respect.

4. Research in subjects connected with engineering

We are at some difficulty in foreseeing the extent to which the Colonial institutions can at any early date play a part in organising research in the subjects studied by the civil engineer. The equipment required for research in certain of the physical sciences, whether in the nature of libraries or of

apparatus, becomes with the passing of time more and more elaborate and specialised. Further, the fuller facilities offered elsewhere may tempt the outstanding students to go overseas for training in post-graduate research. At the same time, it is clear that there exist useful opportunities for investigation in the use of local materials, and in the effect of local conditions of climate, soil and the like in the special fields for which the civil engineer is responsible. Such investigations may be of the nature of "*ad hoc*" rather than of "fundamental" research, but to some extent they may supply the openings for original work which, as we have already remarked, are essential both to attract competent teachers and to maintain their value as instructors.

CHAPTER XIX

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

1. The function of a university in the training of teachers

We have in chapter III remarked on the reciprocal character of the relation which exists between a university and the school system. The relation could hardly be more close or more vital. For, as we there observed, while the university is dependent upon the schools for a continuous supply of well-prepared recruits, the schools are equally dependent upon the university for a continuous supply of well-qualified teachers. Further, in the course of years, the schools will themselves come to be profoundly influenced by the standards which the university sets, by the interpretation of the local culture to which it gives force and currency, and by the cultural relations with other lands which its activities must inevitably entail.

But while we may expect that the influence of the university will spread through the whole range of education in its area, its most direct effect will consist in the supply of suitably trained men and women to staff the secondary schools. The teachers whom we have in mind here are those who, because they are to teach in the secondary schools which prepare pupils both for university entrance and for various careers not requiring qualifications obtainable at a university, will particularly need that broadening of knowledge and of interest which a university training can give. The point we wish to emphasize is that the university has a peculiar responsibility for the education and training of secondary teachers quite apart from the fact that some proportion of secondary school pupils will in due course become undergraduates of the university. We are convinced that this is a duty to be laid upon any institution for higher education in Colonial areas and that it must be undertaken long before the institution has reached the stage of granting its own degrees.

2. Present provision for the training of teachers for secondary schools

The provision now made for the training of teachers for secondary schools cannot be regarded as adequate either in quantity or quality. We shall not attempt to survey the whole field, but will refer to the position in certain typical areas. The possibilities have been most fully developed in areas such as Ceylon which have universities of their own. In the West Indies, on the other hand, where there are well-established secondary schools in considerable numbers, qualifications appear to range all the way from an honours degree with a teacher's diploma to the matriculation certificate or even lower. There is as yet no recognized course of training for secondary school teachers in any part of the West Indies.

In Malaya a department of education designed to undertake postgraduate training was instituted at Raffles College shortly before the outbreak of war. There has been no opportunity to develop it or test its quality. But from the information before us it would appear not to have been very adequately staffed, being too dependent for its teaching upon officers in the service of the government department of education. We desire to re-affirm the opinion expressed in the report of the Commission of 1939 that although for a time it may be necessary at some colleges to draw upon the assistance of government officers in this way, it is essential that every university training department should have from the first a sufficient nucleus of its own staff to ensure continuity and the relation with the university as a whole which is so vital to its work.

In Africa, plans are taking shape at Makerere which should result in the production of what may be termed a "semi-specialist" teacher, qualified to take charge of a group of cognate subjects in the secondary school. Plans on somewhat similar lines are in contemplation at Achimota. At present the College undertakes the training of teachers for the education department of the Gold Coast, but would doubtless agree that it is not yet adequately equipped to undertake the training of secondary teachers at the level contemplated in this report. The Higher College at Yaba provides training for teachers which follows the general pattern in universities in Great Britain.

Provision in other parts of British Colonial Africa does not reach these standards, but a certain number of students sufficiently qualified for education, if not for training, to Fort Hare in the Union of South Africa.

3. The form which the training of teachers should take

In some of the areas with which we are concerned it will be impracticable for many years to require that all teachers in the secondary schools shall be university graduates. Indeed it is probable that there will always be justification for the employment of a certain number of teachers who need not be graduates. We take the view, however, that apart from these special cases, the training of all teachers who are to work in secondary schools should be undertaken in the university. It will be for the authorities of the university or university college, in consultation with those whose duty it is to staff the schools, to determine how the training course shall be organised. We wish, however, to offer certain suggestions in this respect.

Those whom the university institution undertakes to train as secondary teachers may be said to fall into three main groups:—

(a) Those capable of taking charge of the teaching of their respective subjects at the higher levels. Normally they will have taken a good honours degree. There may be for some time relatively few in this group, particularly where the schools are small and therefore compelled to make wide use of teachers belonging to the next group.

(b) Teachers capable of handling two or three subjects in the middle forms of the school. They should have taken a good general degree in suitably related subjects. For some time teachers of this type may be in the majority among students in training.

(c) Teachers either of junior forms in secondary schools or of certain special subjects for which the usual degree courses are not the best preparation.

The general considerations which make it desirable that secondary teachers should be trained at a university institution will be reinforced in some areas and notably in Africa by certain more special considerations. In those areas education at the secondary level, though it need not and should not loosen the roots in the life and traditions of his own people, does carry him into

a realm of ideas less richly illuminated and interpreted by the life around him than that in which he finds himself at the primary stage. He is passing, in fact, into the wider community of western culture and becoming the potential heir to a larger inheritance than the immediate resources of his native culture can afford. For him successful passage through this stage is of crucial importance, yet it is menaced by its own peculiar dangers. In a developed western country, the secondary school pupil is sustained by resources in the life around him which are akin to those of his school. There is a sense in which he is less dependent upon his school and his teachers than is, for example, his African brother.

It is because of this greater dependence of the pupil in many areas upon school and teachers that the teachers need to be specially equipped to take the extra strain. A fairly prolonged period of work in a well-developed university is the best means of providing this equipment and for many perhaps the only means. A certain degree of saturation in all that makes up the life of a university is perhaps of even greater importance than the course of training itself.

It is for such reasons that we suggest that the training of even the non-graduates referred to under (c) above should be provided in the university, for they may be in even greater need of what we have called saturation. It may well be that the concluding stage of the general education of these non-graduates will be carried through at the university college where they also take the subsequent professional course, as happens now at Makerere. There will probably be a stage of development where in the same college some intending teachers complete a degree course while others cannot aim so high. We believe, however, that the latter class who, in English terminology would be of the training college and not of the university training department level, should not attempt to carry on a training course *pari passu* with academic studies. That would seem to be a sure way of frustrating both purposes.

We should deprecate any special adjustment of ordinary degree courses to meet the needs of intending teachers. A degree structure wisely planned to provide for the needs of the community and for diversity of interest among students generally would provide also for the scope that the intending teacher could reasonably ask. The point is of some importance, since we may expect a considerable proportion of graduates in arts will pass into the teaching service.

5. The duration of the training course for teachers

For both graduates and non-graduates the training course should come after completion of their general education. We realise that this involves four years of preparation beyond the matriculation stage and so presupposes the prospect of such status and remuneration for secondary teachers as will justify this expenditure of time. While it is beyond our province to make recommendations in such matters we feel bound to reiterate that the very possibility of a university is contingent upon the operation of well-staffed secondary schools. Where conditions are such as to afford no guarantee of this being achieved the attempt to set up a university may be either premature or entirely vain.

5. The university department of education

We assume that the form in which provision will be made for this work will consist usually of a department of education under a professor, and suitably staffed for the varieties of work it is called upon to do. We must emphasize, however, that a department of education which confines itself strictly to the function of training teachers will find that it cannot discharge even that function

adequately. The work will fail in vitality unless two essential conditions are fulfilled.

(a) That the department should be a centre for active and systematic research in its own field.

(b) That it should establish intimate co-operative relations both with cognate departments within the university and with training-colleges and schools in its area.

The importance of research in education in many Colonial areas springs mainly from the fact that the actual work of education is permeated if not dominated by influences originating from outside the area. That this should be so is justifiable, at least in present circumstances, in the interests of the Colonial peoples themselves. But it does involve risks of misdirection of effort which are not so obviously incurred in countries more self-sufficing in cultural resources. The complex task of estimating the impact of current educational methods upon indigenous life, of determining from time to time what readjustments of method may be necessary, and of utilising all possible sources of educational inspiration in the common life itself, is a task that must be undertaken if disappointment is to be avoided. A university department of education should provide a central power-house for the discharge of this task. It should have resources of its own for the purpose and should also co-operate freely with other agencies working in the same field.

The above remarks apply more specifically to research in what may be called educational problems special to the Colonies. But it should not be overlooked that in the wider field of general research, the work in Colonial universities may provide valuable checks upon results arrived at elsewhere under very different conditions. Thus light may be shed upon problems in the teaching of English and of science, and we may learn something useful about the most effective means of drawing in the cultural resources of the community for the uses of the school. It is not fanciful to suggest, for example, that influences flowing from the Colonies might in time prove of benefit to schools in this country.

The co-operative relations into which the department of education would enter appear to fall into two main groups: (a) those within the university and (b) those beyond its borders.

(a) There is much experience to indicate that the work of the department is likely to lack inspiration if it is not in a position to draw freely upon the resources of cognate departments in its own university. Indeed to be effective, it must be in no sense a self-sufficing unit but must be an organ through which can be directed all those university influences serving to advance the general education of the people, and there is hardly any department in the university which has not some relevant contribution to offer.

(b) A department of education will also be more efficient if it maintains close relations not only with the schools and the government department of education, but also with the centres where the rank and file of the primary teachers are trained. Benefits here should be reciprocal, the training centres deriving guidance from the department and the department finding in the work of training centres valuable material and the necessary guarantees against excessive formalism and detachment.

Similarly in any extra-mural work which the university may undertake, particularly in respect of mass-education, the department should provide an effective instrument of action. The department can serve this purpose just because it is intimately concerned with agencies that touch the lives of the people at so many points.

CHAPTER XX

THE MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION AND LINGUISTIC PROBLEMS

1. The relation of these subjects to work in the schools

It will be convenient to discuss in the same chapter these two closely related topics. But it is impossible to appreciate their bearing on the work of the universities without raising important practical issues relating to the work of the schools.

There are at least two forms in which such issues arise. In the first place the fitness of a student to enter upon university courses is determined, *inter alia*, by his command of the language-medium in which the instruction is given. He must be able to receive intelligently what he hears in lectures or tutorials, and to employ the medium himself with ready facility and without injury to his own intellectual growth. We know from experience that these conditions are by no means always fulfilled even when the medium employed is the student's own mother-tongue. They will be even more difficult of fulfilment where the medium is to the student a foreign language, laboriously acquired and carrying thought-forms very different from those which are conveyed by his own vernacular. The effort not only to use the foreign language but also to learn to think in it is indeed formidable. But unless it achieves a satisfactory measure of success, the student is not only hampered in his studies but he may also be positively harmed by the mental confusion that will ensue. The capacity of the schools to bring pupils to the necessary standard of fitness in this respect becomes therefore a matter of the first importance.

In the second place, just as the university is dependent upon the schools in this matter, so conversely the schools are dependent upon the university. Work carried out by the university in linguistic studies and in the study of the problems which arise in the handling of language in the schools must inevitably react upon the schools in a way which cannot but be beneficial. We realise that it is for the appropriate authorities to take such action in the schools as may be found desirable. We wish only to insist that in the achievement of adequate university standards the part to be played by the schools is vital, and that the university can materially assist the schools by undertaking systematic studies in linguistic and in associated school problems.

So far as African education is concerned we understand that the Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies has approved a report dealing with language policy. We do not anticipate that any measures advocated in our present report will be in conflict with the principles suggested in that document. With this explanation we can proceed to the discussion of the specific problems which arise. They can be classified in general under two main heads:—

- (a) English as a medium of instruction.
- (b) The study of the vernacular and kindred languages.

2. The use of English as a medium of instruction

Our remarks here relate mainly to the position (which will indeed be the most common) where English, as the medium of university instruction, is an acquired language. We feel strongly that far too little has yet been done in Great Britain itself to explore the nature and range of the problems which arise in the teaching of English as a foreign language. The success of the

student who needs to acquire real command of English will depend largely upon the skill of those who teach him during his school years; but such skill in the teacher will be determined by the quality of those who train him and advise him on teaching-methods. It is here that a substantial contribution resulting from studies pursued in this country could be highly effective. In spite however of the work by a few isolated scholars, a contribution of the scope and authority that we now contemplate is still lacking. The study of these matters seems to be essentially one for the British universities to undertake; and we hope that the Inter-University Council will find it possible to encourage the investigation of a problem which baffling and complex as it may be, is of the first importance to the development of higher education in the Colonies.

In the Colonial areas themselves a main key to the situation will be found in the university teacher training departments and the training colleges. In staffing and equipment they will need to be exceptionally well supplied for the work both of teaching English itself and of training their students to teach others. One of our witnesses, speaking of the deficiencies of African teachers in this respect, stated:—

“ They learn their English from English people who are simply teachers and who themselves have never gone into the question as to how to teach English to someone whose native language is not English. Until something has been done about getting expert people for the training schools, people who know some of the principles of how to teach English to non-English speaking people, that situation will not be met.”

He had found that Africans who had been taught by English teachers were more proficient than those who had had African teachers. But we accept his conclusion that to speak English as a mother-tongue, even if one has taken the usual course of training as a teacher, is not in itself a sufficient qualification. Specific study of the problems and the underlying principles is necessary.

We urge that courses of training provided in this country for men and women intending to undertake educational work in the Colonies should include instruction in the methods suitable for the teaching of English as a foreign language.

3. Need for special courses in the method of teaching English

There is need also for more specialised courses for those who intend to take posts in training institutions, and for teachers in service in the Colonies who wish to improve their qualifications in this respect. We understand that the practice of sending experienced teachers from the Colonies to Great Britain for studies of this kind has already begun, and we hope it may be extended. Some facilities for such studies are already provided at the University of London Institute of Education. We hope that they will be further developed and that if necessary further provision will be made at other centres. In all such arrangements it is desirable that those who have charge of specifically pedagogic studies and training should maintain close contact with studies of the linguistic problems of the various areas such as are now proceeding at the School of Oriental and African Studies.

It will be impossible, however, and undesirable, to train in this country a sufficient number of teachers to meet all the needs of the Colonies. Provision must be made in training centres in the Colonies also. Here the university departments of education will have an important function to discharge and they will need to be staffed accordingly.

In estimating the extent of the need it is well to remember that the desire to learn English is keen and widespread, practically everywhere among Colonial peoples. Indeed it is so strong that there is a danger that the earlier stages of education, important as they are, may be impaired by a premature introduction of English. It will be for the proper authority of any particular area to determine the point in the school course when the teaching of English as a subject of instruction should begin. There is little doubt that in many areas this point will come well before the end of the primary school course. For this, if for no other reason, the provision of training courses in the teaching of English cannot be confined to secondary teachers only, though it is upon them that the heaviest responsibility will fall. The fact that primary teachers also will need competent training affords some index of the extent of the need to be met.

We may note that the foregoing considerations are not without some application to the teaching of English as a mother-tongue in areas where the current English is debased and corrupted. In such circumstances standard English will itself have something of the character of a foreign language.

4. The study of well established vernacular languages

In some of the areas with which we are concerned, the mother-tongue of students will be a well established language with a long history, assured standards and a wealth of literature. In some cases it may be the medium of at least part of the instruction. There should be no difficulty in such instances in planning suitable courses of university study leading, it may be, even to an honours degree. In such cases the institution of courses would not have to await the results of research and the production of literature. It will not for instance be so needed, as in the cases to which we subsequently refer, for settling questions of grammar and orthography. Nevertheless, research will have an important bearing on the course of instruction; it would in particular be valuable if it took the form of comparative study of the mother-tongue and English.

5. The study of other vernacular languages

There will, however, be other areas, such as most parts of Africa, in which the mother-tongue of students is not a well established language; often, indeed, the spoken language will not yet have taken, or will only just have begun to take a literary form. In such cases it is clear that the mother-tongue of the student cannot at present serve as the medium of any part of the instruction given in the university, nor can it suitably form any part of a course of university instruction leading to a degree. But we do not for this reason regard such vernacular languages as lying outside the range of matters in which the university should interest itself. Even though a vernacular, at its present stage of development, may not form a suitable subject for a degree course, the study of his mother-tongue may, nevertheless, be an important factor in the earlier education of the student. We have been impressed by the evidence of certain of our witnesses who gave reasons for believing that the study of English as a foreign language is much facilitated if the pupil also makes some study of the phonetic and linguistic forms of his own mother-tongue. Conversely the study of English may have the effect of stimulating interest in a study of the vernacular. The Advisory Committee's report already referred to states:—

“ The study of African languages has had the effect of increasing the African's appreciation of, and respect for, his own language. The introduction of African languages into the School Certificate syllabus has been a real incentive to the use and study of the vernacular the effect of which

must not be underestimated. It may seem fanciful but it may also be true that the appreciation of their own language has developed as a result of the increasing study of English. Africans, it may be, only discover the possibilities of their own language as literature when they have come to appreciate the richness of English."

It would appear that the possibility of comparison thus opened up between the language forms and also between the thought forms underlying them is calculated to illuminate the whole study. Comparative treatment thus assists the growth of a language consciousness, and it is desirable that such a consciousness should be developed so far as is possible from a study of the vernacular itself. For this reason we are glad to note that encouragement is given to such study by the provision made by certain of the Schools Examining Boards under which a vernacular language may be offered as a subject for School Certificate examinations. We understand that the list of languages which may thus be offered is now to be extended. Such a policy tends to increase respect for and interest in the native languages among those who speak them; but it will also facilitate the study of a second language in the way we have suggested.

6. The function of the university in regard to the study of vernacular languages

It has been necessary to make some reference to these considerations in order that we may indicate more clearly the functions of a Colonial university in this field of study. We are thinking particularly of cases where the mother-tongue is not the medium of instruction in the university. We take the function of the university to be threefold:—

(a) to co-operate in linguistic researches; this duty is of particular importance in African areas.

(b) To assist the work of the schools in the study of the vernacular, by providing material, by offering guidance in the organisation of courses, and directly or indirectly by training teachers in the use of sound methods.

(c) In cases where it is decided that study in the vernacular and allied languages should become part of the university curriculum suitable arrangements should be made for systematic courses.

7 Linguistic research in Colonial universities

The extent and nature of the provision which can be made for linguistic research will vary from one area to another. Where a university is already in existence the problem will be mainly one of defining the field of study and securing command of the necessary resources. Where the stage of full university status has not yet been reached, the urgency of the need is such, particularly in Africa, that specific provision should be made in some suitable form without delay.

In Africa, the very possibility of providing suitable undergraduate courses of study in the vernacular at some future stage of its development, and even indeed of providing courses in the schools, must still wait upon the results of research. The profusion of languages in Africa (as many as 700 we are told); the fact that many of them have not yet been systematically studied; the problems of orthography and phonetics which arise; all these conditions will have to be faced before satisfactory courses of teaching can be worked out. And even when that has been done there will still be for a long time a great deficiency of literature for use in the schools and colleges. We are encouraged by the knowledge that the School of Oriental and African Studies in London has long been working at these problems. It is endeavouring to work out standard courses of study for students and is at the same time

dealing with the problem of selecting or adapting a language which for literary purposes can be understood and used by all who speak languages to which it is closely akin.

But while everything possible should be done in this country to support major studies of this kind, they will fail of their effect unless they are supported by corresponding studies in the areas concerned. We urge, therefore, that in the organisation of the department of social science referred to in chapter IV there should be included a number of research posts in linguistic study, the holders of which should be free to devote their main energies to their immediate task. Their work might with advantage be put in hand during the earliest stages of the development of a Colonial university institution.

The governing consideration in this matter is that in the circumstances we are now contemplating it is highly important that linguistic researches should be pursued in close association with anthropological and sociological studies. In support of this view an opinion expressed by the witness previously referred to is worth quoting.

“ You are likely to have more trouble if you have people who are using as their medium of speech a language which does not lend itself to their thinking, and you will have arising in Africa a form of English which the African would call English, but when he used it he would mean something different from what we do when we use the same words . . . The African, because of his different thought-forms, even when he uses English, does not necessarily mean the same thing as we mean. The only way for him at present to overcome the difficulty is to be able to study his own language and become conscious of the fact that the thought-forms he is using are different. If I may give a purely technical illustration of what I mean: he has been taught now for some time that his language has adverbs and prepositions. Our recent studies of Bantu have shown that there are no adverbs or prepositions in Bantu languages. If the African realises that, then he will know that in the handling of English he has something completely different to manipulate and it will be easier for him to speak correctly in the English he does speak than it would be if he were introduced to it as the only language suitable for him to use and an attempt were made to correlate English with his own language without showing him that they are really quite different things.”

We appreciate the force of this contention, recognising that the difficulty to which it refers is all the greater by reason of the remoteness of African students from the forms of social experience of which the English language is the reflection. We note also that it carries important implications. It means that the scope of a department of linguistic research must be wide and that it will need to maintain close contact with those who are teaching or studying modern languages.

One of our colleagues, Sir Richard Livingstone, asks us to add, “ I dissent with regret from one item in this chapter—the proposal to encourage the survival of native languages of Africa. This seems to me to need thorough examination from the point of view not only of its immediate but its ultimate effect. There are grave objections to keeping these languages alive, especially as they have no literature to justify it. Their survival must be a dividing force between the different peoples of Africa and in the future an encouragement and support to various nationalisms. The world would not have gained if the pre-Roman languages of Spain and Gaul had survived instead of giving place to a great common tongue.”

PART III

CHAPTER XXI

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN THE WEST INDIES

1: The report of the West Indies Committee

In the foregoing chapters we have enunciated the principles which in our opinion are fundamental in the development of higher education in the Colonial Empire. But as we have already indicated, we have not assumed that these general principles will be capable of universal application. We recognise that modifications may be necessary in particular cases to accommodate the varying circumstances encountered in different sections of the Colonial field. It is possible for us now to test the application of these general principles to a definite Colonial area, and for this purpose we give in some detail a summary of the findings of the Committee which has reported on the provision of university education in the West Indies. We have already explained in chapter I of our report the circumstances in which this Committee was appointed, and have expressed our great appreciation of the manner in which it conducted its investigation.

At the date on which the Committee left this country our own deliberations as a Commission had not proceeded far enough to justify the formulation of comprehensive general principles and, in consequence, it was necessary for the Committee to exercise considerable latitude in the conduct of its enquiry. It was the primary duty of the Committee to examine the educational needs of a particular area, to recommend action appropriate to the geographical, social, racial and economic factors forming the background to the educational problems confronting it. Its approach to these problems was essentially practical and, in considerable measure, the educational survey of the West Indies was carried out as an independent investigation.

In these circumstances it is particularly gratifying to us to find that the detailed scheme recommended by the Committee for the establishment of a University of the West Indies is consistent with our own findings and contains no important element at variance with the fundamental principles we have formulated. We have no hesitation in giving support to the recommendations which the Committee has made. There is, however, one point, namely, the provision to be made for training in medicine, on which some members of the Commission who did not form part of the West Indies Committee find it necessary to reserve an opinion, in the circumstances to which we shall refer more fully in the concluding section of this chapter. As will appear there, our hesitation is not due to any difference on a question of principle, but to the fact that circumstances have subsequently arisen which seem to some of us to require further consideration before it is possible to arrive at a final recommendation.

2. A summary of the report of the Committee

(a) *Proposal for the early creation of a university*

The Committee considered that the evidence forthcoming justified a firm recommendation that a university should be provided in the West Indies at the earliest possible date. Indeed, throughout its report repeated emphasis is laid on the necessity for swift action. Good intellectual material is available in the West Indies, and the work of the secondary schools attains a high standard, but only a small proportion of the pupils from these schools can hope to obtain a university education. Under existing conditions, the opportunity for further study must be sought overseas and, in consequence, is limited to the selected few.

The Committee draws attention to the fact that in each of the Colonies of the West Indies there is a body of public opinion which holds enlightened views on the ultimate purpose of university education; despite years of discouragement, these small groups have not ceased to hope and even to plan for the realisation of schemes designed to promote access to advantages which are recognised as more than material. Attention is also directed to the expansion of the franchise and other legislative changes which have lately been carried out or are now in contemplation in the West Indies. The Committee emphasises the desirability of preparing for these advances by raising the general level of higher education and thereby adding to the intellectual equipment of those on whom the responsibility of leadership will increasingly rest. These factors, taken in conjunction with the need to educate a steady succession of West Indian students for professional life in the West Indies, combine to make the argument in favour of immediate university development exceptionally strong. There were not wanting some critics who, at first, opposed the idea that a university in the West Indies is necessary, but their objections were generally founded either on the fear that the special advantage of education overseas would thereby be lost to West Indians or that a university might fail to obtain recognition by other universities of the Empire through lack of staff and equipment of the necessary quality. For the most part, these objections were withdrawn when it was explained that the scheme envisaged by the Committee was based on the provision of teaching and administrative staff of the first rank, and that the opportunities for study overseas, in place of being curtailed, would in fact be increased.

(b) *A unitary university recommended*

It is of first importance to note that the Committee recommends the establishment of a unified university and rejects the alternative of federated colleges being set up in the different Colonies to function as constituents of a degree-granting university. This decision is emphatic. Bearing in mind the existence of a considerable measure of inter-island rivalry, the Committee took pains to discuss in each of the Colonies visited the advantages and disadvantages of the alternative schemes. This frank exchange of views had a considerable effect in modifying public opinion in favour of a unified university, it being recognised that only in this way could a university in the fullest sense and of the first rank be possible.

The Committee recommends that the University of the West Indies should not come into existence immediately as a fully-chartered autonomous institution. Time will be needed to establish the standards of teaching and the performance in research required to win recognition both locally and throughout the Empire; equally, time will be necessary for the governing bodies to gain experience in the complex problems of academic administration. For these reasons the Committee recommends that in the first instance the new institution should be given the status of a university college which will prepare its students for the degrees of London University. The hope is expressed that this formative period will not be prolonged beyond the minimum time necessary to establish the reputation of the University College as a centre of teaching and research.

(c) *The scheme of government proposed*

The scheme of government proposed for the University College has, in consequence, been framed on lines identical with those which apply to a chartered university. Two main governing bodies are recommended, namely:—

- (i) a *Council*, charged with the management of finance and with the trusteeship of funds and properties, and

(ii) a *Senate*, which would carry full responsibility in all academic matters, including teaching, research and discipline.

In addition, it is recommended that a Guild of Graduates be instituted on lines detailed in the report.

It is proposed that the Council, the supreme governing body, should consist of twenty-seven members, of whom seven would be nominated by the Governments of the contributing Colonies. The remaining members would hold office either *ex officio* (seven), or by election, the electing bodies being the Senate (seven) and the Guild of Graduates (four). The remaining two members would be provided by the Inter-University Council in Great Britain.

The proposed composition of the Council of the College provides for well-distributed territorial representation, and is designed to secure a suitable amalgamation of interests and experience, the proportion of academic and non-academic members having been adjusted with this end in view. In making these recommendations the Committee had in mind the necessity to avoid the creation of a university governed by the State or subject to political control.

The composition proposed for the Senate and for the Faculties follows normal lines, but deviates in some respects from the standard pattern. These variations, which take the form of broadening the representation on these bodies, are designed to have the effect of stimulating the interest of the entire staff in discharging the responsible duties devolved on the Senate. Particularly in a young university, it is important to create the feeling that each member of the staff plays some part in the development of the new institution of which he or she is a member.

With regard to the making of university appointments, the report prescribes special measures necessary to fill the first appointments, as these will have to be made before the Council comes into existence. Thereafter the responsibility will rest on the Council, with the proviso that the election to all teaching posts will be made only on the recommendation of the Senate. This procedure is regarded as specially desirable in founding a university in an area where academic standards have to be created.

(d) *Other characteristic features of the University*

The University should be open to women on precisely the same terms and conditions as are applicable to men. Similarly, no restriction should be imposed on grounds of race or creed; although the University would be undenominational, the Committee leaves the way open for local effort to take steps to supply the spiritual needs of the students.

It is recommended as essential that the University should be entirely residential and that the normal period of residence should be three years. In coming to this decision the Committee had in mind more than the comfort and physical well-being of the students. The halls of residence will not be merely dormitories in which students eat and sleep, but will carry features resembling those of residential colleges. The halls are designed to be centres of study where the work of the teaching departments will be consolidated and expanded. Under these conditions, the mingling of students, drawn from different Colonies and with widely different intellectual interests, should inevitably create a more fully educated type of young man and woman than the class-rooms alone can produce. It may also be expected that an indirect result of residential life will be the promotion of a spirit of co-operation between West Indians from different areas and that this will find its outlet in a desire to serve the West Indies when university days are done.

With regard to the size of the University, the Committee recommends that, initially, provision should be made for a student population of 400 to 500. In arriving at this figure it approached the problem from two opposite directions:—(i) the prospective annual number of pupils leaving school who hold the requisite entrance qualification and who would extend their studies on a university level if facilities were available in the West Indies at moderate cost; and (ii) an estimate of the annual absorption of graduates proceeding from the University who would seek employment within the Caribbean area. The totals provided by the two lines of enquiry were consistent and were confirmed from other sources. So far as can be predicted, therefore, a safe margin will exist between the opportunities for employment and the output of graduates, so that the possibility of “academic unemployment” can be ruled out. In all likelihood student numbers will increase considerably beyond the upper limit of 500 and the Committee’s proposals have accordingly been framed to facilitate the future expansion of the University.

(e) *The site of the University*

At the conclusion of its tour the Committee was faced with the difficult problem of recommending the locus of the University. The Committee decided that it should be situated in Jamaica. It recognised that the Colony selected as the locus of a centralised university derives certain direct and indirect advantages and that, conversely, the remaining Colonies are confronted with disadvantages in varying degree. Certain compensations are, however, recommended in the report. For example, it is urged that for members of the Council, for the staff and for students, the transportation costs incurred in travelling from their homes to the University should be a charge on the University General Fund to which Jamaica, in common with other Colonies, would be a contributor. Of even greater importance is the comprehensive scheme of extra-mural studies which, directed from the central University, will operate in each of the Colonies. In short, an endeavour has been made to overcome the handicaps imposed by geographical separation. The Committee has sought to produce a scheme not for a University of Jamaica but for a *University of the West Indies* serving the entire Caribbean area.

(f) *The course of studies to be provided*

In any attempt to fill educational lacunae there is a natural tendency to attenuate both means and effort by spreading activities over too wide a field. The Committee has sought to avoid this mistake, and the teaching curriculum proposed initially for the new University is limited to the Faculties of arts, science and medicine. Future developments, and, if necessary, the creation of additional Faculties, are left to the Council and Senate who can best judge what lines of expansion are desirable. The subjects to be taught in the University have been chosen with special reference to West Indian conditions and should offer a sufficient variety to meet widely varying needs.

In its endeavour to provide a broad cultural education the Committee has drawn on the experience of the older universities of Great Britain and many of the subjects of study prescribed are identical with those taught in this country. Nevertheless, the Committee recommends that the training should not lose contact with West Indian conditions and requirements. Its intention in this respect is illustrated by the introduction of a Lectureship in West Indian history, by the scheme for a degree in modern languages (including Spanish and Portuguese) and by the emphasis laid on what may be described as local research. In many other subjects, as, for example, economics, geography, geology and the biological sciences, ample opportunity will be available for supplementing these studies by special reference to the West Indies.

The Committee does not propose at this stage to establish schools of agriculture or of engineering; but provision is made for education leading to graduation in these important branches of applied science. The proposal is that students specialising in agriculture should take the previous degree of B.Sc. in the University of the West Indies and thereafter proceed to Great Britain or extend their studies at the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture in Trinidad. The Committee considers that the policy of utilising facilities already existing in the Colonies has much to commend it, particularly as it opens the way to a working association with the Imperial College without infringing the principle of a unified university.

In engineering the problem is similar, and the Committee did not feel justified in recommending the immediate creation of a fully-equipped school of engineering. In the absence of any engineering college in the West Indies comparable with the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture, the Committee felt that it had no option but to advise that students of engineering should complete their science degree in the West Indies and then proceed to Great Britain for two years of specialised study.

The Committee's proposal to institute a department of education in the University is of much importance. As already stated, secondary schools in the West Indies are generally efficient and their record is praiseworthy, but in the educational system of these Colonies there is at present no provision for organised training so far as teaching in secondary schools is concerned. The Committee considers that this situation can be rectified by instituting a University diploma in education to be taken at the postgraduate stage. The department of education would also be responsible for continuous research on the special educational problems encountered within the university province, a field of enquiry too often neglected.

The Committee found the problem of training in medicine at a University of the West Indies to be at once simple in its long-term achievement, but beset with difficulties as regards the immediate future. In conformity with the policy of a unified university, the Committee recommends the establishment of a complete Faculty of medicine to be located at the seat of the University in Jamaica and working in association with the Kingston General Hospital. Obviously this recommendation could become operative only when the complete university scheme came into existence. But the situation in the West Indies in respect of the supply of medical officers and private practitioners does not admit of any delay in providing trained medical graduates. The need is urgent. The opportunities for West Indians to obtain a medical education in Great Britain or in the Dominions are shrinking and are unlikely to improve; to ignore the seriousness of the situation is unwarrantable. Confronted with this emergency, the Committee investigated the possibility of providing a medical course in the West Indies which could be brought into existence at an early date and would function as an emergency measure until the University comes into full operation. The Committee found that this aspect of its problem had already been studied and proposals made for its solution by Sir Rupert Briercliffe, Medical Adviser to the Comptroller for Development and Welfare. The scheme put forward by him involves the establishment of a temporary medical school in Trinidad working in association with McGill University, Montreal. Subject to certain minor modifications the Committee recommends the adoption of Sir Rupert Briercliffe's scheme as an emergency measure, without infringement of the condition that, on a permanent basis, the teaching of medicine must be conducted within the unified University.

Reference has already been made to the scheme of extra-mural studies by which the Committee hopes to give practical effect to their desire "to carry the University to the people." It was not its intention to increase facilities for the taking of external degrees but rather to diffuse learning and to foster cultural studies throughout the whole of the Caribbean Colonies. The Committee is of opinion that in many respects the scheme of extra-mural studies is as important to the West Indies as the graduating courses to be provided within the University. It does not under-estimate the difficulties which will be encountered, but holds that this experiment in extra-mural education over a widely-dispersed area should certainly be tried.

In the course of its investigation the Committee was impressed with the need in the West Indies for improved facilities in technical training of all kinds. Plans are, however, under consideration by the Comptroller of Development and Welfare for supplying these needs and the Committee expresses the hope that the execution of these plans will not be delayed in consequence of the proposal now submitted for the establishment of a university. This support applies equally to other projects, also under consideration by the Comptroller and his advisers, for enlarging the experience and adding to the training of primary school teachers. In the opinion of the Committee, the creation of a university should not be regarded as in any sense competitive with or alternative to the plans being matured under the scheme of development and welfare

(g) *The staffing of the University*

It is emphasised repeatedly in the Committee's report that the University of the West Indies must be equipped and staffed in a way which would be recognised in Great Britain as conforming to a high standard. To attempt to economise in either of these respects would be fatal to the success of a great educational experiment. In the West Indies there is a small but responsible section of public opinion well aware of what is necessary to create a university capable of winning its way to a reputable place in the academies of the world, and to attempt anything less than the best is to court disaster. The Committee has drawn up approximate estimates of capital costs and recurring expenditure so that some idea may be given of the financial dimensions of the problem. In framing this tentative budget the Committee took into consideration the number of staff required and also the stipends which should be attached to the various offices if men and women of the first quality are to be attracted.

(h) *Research*

The Committee gives prominence to the position of research in the activities of the proposed University. The question of how far applied research should find a place is fully discussed; the Committee's hope is that fundamental, disinterested investigation should be the main feature of research activity. At the same time it is recommended that the University should not stand aloof from enquiries designed to benefit the West Indies, although applied research of this description should not be assigned to young graduates before they have undergone the discipline of training in pure research. In all branches of enquiry, humanistic and scientific, the Committee's intention is that, where possible, original work should focus on problems which can best be investigated in the West Indies or are of special importance to that region. The Committee also contemplates that not only will members of the University staff engage personally in original work but that in time they will be joined by some of their own students and graduates so that schools of research will come into existence.

The Committee has not ignored the fact that research costs money—in the provision and equipment of laboratories and libraries, in the purchase of books and periodicals, and in the employment of a larger staff than teaching requirements or the number of students would appear to justify. The financial estimates make adequate allowance for these factors.

(i) *Financial assistance to students*

The Committee, although engaged on a wide survey, has not overlooked the needs of the individual student. His work will be supervised: friendly guidance and advice will be at his disposal should he find himself in difficulties related to his studies or of a personal nature. It is also recognised that many, and possibly the majority of West Indian students will require financial assistance to attend the University. In attacking this problem, the Committee has evolved a scheme of scholarships and grants to be administered by the University from University funds, and advocates that the existing scholarships financed by the individual Governments for overseas study should be modified as to the conditions of tenure. It is urged that greater benefit to the student will result if his period of overseas study is delayed until after graduation in the University of the West Indies. The financial estimates prepared by the Committee would seem to show that a student could spend the necessary three years at the University of the West Indies and thereafter have the advantage of two further years abroad at a total cost no greater than the scholarship stipend now paid for overseas study alone. It may not be easy to persuade the various Governments to modify scholarship schemes which have admittedly been successful in the past. But the situation would be entirely altered by the foundation of a University of the West Indies.

The Committee also advocates reform of the methods adopted in making scholarship awards. It holds that the use of School Certificate results as a test of outstanding ability or of fitness to profit from University study is now largely discredited, and it advocates a more effective method of selection. This includes scrutiny of the complete school records of the candidates supplemented by an examination, including an interview, conducted by the University authorities.

(j) *Estimates of expenditure involved*

As already stated, the Committee has provided an approximate estimate of the capital and recurring costs necessary to establish and maintain a University on the scale and on the lines envisaged in its report. The estimates refer to the time when the University College is in full working operation and it is unlikely that they will require material alteration when the College is transformed into a University. Obviously, in the formative years, both income and expenditure will differ greatly from the figures quoted.

Capital Cost

It is recommended:—

(a) that if the University is located in Jamaica, the Government of Jamaica should meet the cost of the site, approximately 150 to 200 acres;

(b) that the cost of buildings and equipment necessary to establish the University on the lines indicated should be met by the home Government, future charges under this heading to be met by the Colonial Governments concerned;

(c) that the University should be provided with an endowment fund, the income from which would be applied to the support of specified professorships and to the promotion of research. Should the provision of a capital endowment be considered inadvisable, the income equivalent could be paid in the form of a grant from the home Government.

The estimated capital cost is £1,130,000, or including a provision of £500,000 for endowment, £1,630,000.

Recurring Expenditure

The income of the University, apart from that referred to in (c) above, would be derived from fees and from contributions from the Colonial Governments. It is estimated that £68,390 per annum will require to be met by the Colonial Governments in proportions to be determined by mutual agreement. It should be noted that this contribution from the Colonies concerned is less than 50 per cent. of the total annual expenditure. It is recommended that these Governments should pay their contributions into the University General Fund without ear-marking in favour of special purposes. Further, such grants should be guaranteed for a period of five years and should be revised only at quinquennial periods, following the precedent of the Treasury grants made through the University Grants Committee to the universities of the United Kingdom.

While the draft budget has been framed to provide a university of the first rank, the Committee has taken all steps in its power to avoid extravagance. All predictable items have been checked by reference to the cost of other institutions of similar size, with such modifications as seemed necessary in view of the level of costs in the West Indies. Moreover, the budget has been framed to minimise the cost to the student and to his parents. As already explained, travelling charges to and from the University will be met from University funds, while the remaining cost for tuition and maintenance will be of the order of £100 per annum. This figure was selected by the Committee in exercise of the principle that the benefits of the University should be spread as widely as possible.

In their present form, the estimates forecast an annual expenditure of £139,690, defrayed as under:—

	£	per cent.
(a) From tuition, examination and residence fees and from rentals	53,800	38.5 approx.
(b) From endowment income or equivalent grant	17,500	12.5
(c) From Colonial Governments	68,390	49
	£139,690	

The Committee considers that the only major item in which alteration may subsequently be found necessary relates to the salaries to be attached to the various teaching posts. To take an example, the total for eight professorships corresponds with an average salary of £1,500 per annum. It may reasonably be predicted that, initially, the great majority of these senior posts will be filled by men and women from Great Britain or the Dominions, and the stipend suggested is no more than sufficient to induce experienced university officers of recognised standing to proceed overseas. But the figures should not be regarded as stabilised or as applicable to all future appointments. The necessity to recruit staff from overseas will, however, continue in some measure for a considerable period, and this fact carries in its train the necessity to pay certain stipends at least at overseas rates. One method—and it is perhaps the simplest—of dealing with this situation would be to fix a basic salary for each grade of post and fall back on the system of supplementary overseas allowances. But any differentiation in total stipend in respect of migration from overseas would be unwelcome to the West Indian members of the Committee, as is shown by their foot-note to paragraph 182

of the report. - An alternative has been suggested by Miss Perham in her own footnote to that paragraph; under this scheme the home Government would set aside part of its endowment in such a way that the revenue from it could be applied as expatriation allowances upon settled scales to staff drawn from overseas.

(k) The procedure adopted by the Committee

In the course of its enquiries, the Committee took evidence from a considerable number of witnesses, both official and non-official. For the most part, the witnesses provided memoranda of value, but there remained other sections of public opinion to which access could be obtained only by personal approach on the part of the Committee. All evidence and interviews were regarded as confidential and neither the press nor the public were admitted to the hearings; but this does not mean that, within the limitations attending any official enquiry of the kind, the public was not taken into the Committee's confidence. At intervals, brief statements were issued to the press which outlined, in general terms and without disclosing the findings, the progress made in the investigation and corrected uninformed speculative criticisms. Throughout the enquiry the press gave much constructive help especially in leading articles marked by appreciation and understanding.

At the close of the tour, an outline of the prospective recommendations was submitted confidentially and informally to three of the Legislatures, with the object of inviting criticism and of providing an idea of the cost to the contributing Colonies. These meetings proved most helpful; they revealed a width of vision which justifies the expectation that the findings of the Committee will be acceptable in the West Indies and if put into operation without delay will receive loyal and generous support.

3. The view of the Commission regarding the proposals for medical training

It has been indicated in the first section of this chapter that while the Commission readily endorses all the other recommendations in the Committee's report, there is one point which, in the opinion of a number of us, will need some further examination. The Committee's proposals for the provision of medical education in the West Indies are outlined in part (f) of the summary above. They were designed to meet the very urgent need for the provision of doctors qualified to practise in the West Indies. The scheme for the institution of a complete Faculty of medicine in the University of the West Indies could not, it was clear, become effective for some years; the Committee found that certain buildings at Port of Spain, Trinidad, which had been erected by the United States Army authorities, might become available for the purpose of a medical school; and the offer made by McGill University, Montreal, to staff the school and prepare its students for the medical degree of that University was accordingly welcomed by the Committee not only as opportune, but also as presenting in other ways a very satisfactory solution of the problem. We desire here to express our own appreciation of the spirit in which the University offered to the Committee its ready co-operation in this matter.

This proposal came to our notice during the final stage of our discussion with London University regarding the scheme outlined in chapter IX of our report, under which London University would provide assistance to the Colonial colleges in solving some of the problems incidental to the earlier stage of their development. We are convinced of the great value of that association. In the circumstances we thought it our duty to enquire whether London University could extend its co-operation by providing assistance to the proposed medical school at Trinidad and thus make it possible to bring the system for the award of medical degrees into line with that recommended

for subjects in the faculties of arts and science. The reply received shows that the University is prepared to render this assistance and it has drawn attention to the connection already existing between the West Indies and the University particularly through the number of students who have come to London for training in the medical schools. There is however one difficulty which has not yet been fully investigated. It would appear that to associate the temporary medical school in Trinidad with London University would involve greater delay than would be the case if the attachment were to McGill University.

We are unwilling to delay the submission of our report until such information is forthcoming as would enable us to determine the period which might elapse before London University could, if it were decided to accept its offer, provide the necessary courses for the medical school at Trinidad. There are a number of considerations which must be taken into account in assessing the relative advantages of the association of McGill University or alternatively of London University with the temporary medical school. But such considerations must be weighed in the light of the fact that we are here dealing only with the needs of the interim period before the University of the West Indies can establish its own Faculty of medicine. The most important consideration is in our opinion time; the possibility in short, of a start being made in the course of this year, or at least not later than the summer of 1946. We regret that we are compelled to leave the matter at this stage; but it would be undesirable that the further exploration of this particular point should postpone consideration of the many important proposals, affecting not only the West Indies but also other areas, which we have to commend to the attention of the Government:

Those of our members who formed part of the West Indies Committee wish to record that having considered the preliminary proposals put forward by the University of London, they are strongly of the opinion that in view of the grave and urgent need of the West Indies for medical practitioners, the plan drawn up with McGill University and with Sir Rupert Briercliffe should be put into operation forthwith.

PART IV

SUMMARY OF THE RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMISSION

We preface this summary of our recommendations by referring to what has been said in section 5 of chapter I regarding the dual nature of the task undertaken by the Commission. There are in the Colonial Empire four institutions of full university status which as such are autonomous. The main body of the recommendations made by the Commission deals with the creation of universities or university colleges in areas not served by the existing universities. The Commission however expresses the hope that the detailed suggestions or recommendations put forward may in some cases be of interest also to the present Colonial universities.

In the same chapter the Commission, while not able to make specific recommendations regarding the association of the universities of the Dominions and India with the Colonial institutions, nevertheless expresses the hope that these universities will join with those in this country in entering into effective relationships with the institutions of higher education in the Colonies.

Chapter III.—Place of universities and university colleges in the development of higher education

SECTION 1

In the interests of higher education in the Colonies, it is essential that universities should be established at as early a date as possible in those areas which are not now served by an existing university. The immediate objective is to produce men and women who have the standards of public service and capacity for leadership which the progress of self-government demands, and to assist in satisfying the need for persons with the professional qualifications required for the economic and social development of the Colonies.

SECTION 2

Among the vocational subjects for which facilities should be provided by a university, the training of teachers for secondary schools must take a high place.

SECTION 3

The first step towards the establishment of universities is the creation of university colleges; this should be undertaken immediately.

SECTION 4

The specific enquiries made regarding the West Indies and West Africa indicate the need for the early establishment of university colleges in these regions. The Commission supports the proposals made in 1939 for the early establishment of a university in Malaya, and it also supports the proposal to develop Makerere College in East Africa to university status.

In determining the appropriate area which a university should serve, the test should not be the size of the population, but the capacity of the area to produce an adequate flow of students able to profit from higher education. The unitary type of university is to be preferred to that based on a system of federation.

Chapter IV.—Academic life and range of studies

SECTION 1

A university will not fulfil its purpose unless it makes provision for a fairly wide range of subjects; it should be at the same time a centre for the study of subjects in the Faculties of arts and science, and for instruction in professional subjects. There should be a balance between the two: while the production of an educated or semi-educated class divorced from the community as a whole and unlikely to secure employment in it would be disastrous, concentration on professional training would be almost equally regrettable. It is suggested that as a minimum, facilities should be provided for some subjects in the Faculty of arts, for some in the Faculty of science, and for one or more professional subjects.

It is of equal importance that facilities should exist for research.

SECTION 2

The universities should be entirely residential, and open to men and women of all classes.

SECTION 3

In the Faculty of arts, English language and literature must have a special place, and there should be provision for the teaching of at least one European language other than English; in some areas the study of languages appropriate to the region is desirable. History, geography and the social sciences should be included at all university institutions; in arranging the syllabuses for these courses attention must wherever possible be paid to local conditions. There should be provision for the teaching of philosophy.

SECTION 4

The Faculty of science should comprise departments of mathematics, physics, chemistry, botany and zoology; in some cases a department of geology may be needed.

SECTIONS 5, 6

The Faculties of arts and science should be fully staffed; where there is a professor there should be one or more lecturers. Fully equipped libraries and laboratories are essential.

Expert advice should be obtained in the siting and planning of buildings.

SECTION 7

Universities should take a part in adult education by the organisation of extra-mural activities. These activities would at the same time assist to extend the influence of the university, and make a contribution to the development of the community as a whole.

Chapter V.—The staffing of universities

SECTION 1

The successful building up of the Colonial institutions will depend firstly, on the provision of a staff adequate in numbers and experience, and secondly, on creating conditions in which its members can maintain contact with intellectual and academic life in the outside world.

SECTION 2

The practice should be discontinued under which instruction in certain professional subjects is given by officers of government departments seconded for part time or full time duty.

SECTION 3

It is essential that the home universities should take an active interest in the enlistment of staff from overseas. The salaries attached to appointments in the Colonial institutions should not be related to those of different government departments in the Colony but to those of the academic staff in home universities. Conditions regarding pensionary or similar rights should not be such as to present an obstacle to the subsequent appointment of members of the staffs of Colonial institutions to academic posts at home or the appointment of members of home university staffs to serve in the Colonies. There should be liberal provision of leave and of opportunities for study leave.

SECTION 4

- It is necessary to contemplate differential rates of remuneration for the staff recruited from overseas and that recruited locally. The difference between the two scales of remuneration might be met by the payment to the overseas staff of a supplement from a special fund provided by the Government of the United Kingdom.

SECTION 5

Part of the staff of the Colonial institutions should be provided by secondment to them of members of the academic staffs of home universities. These might be of varying seniority; but they should be guaranteed a reasonable prospect of return without loss of seniority to their home university.

SECTION 6

To facilitate the progressive recruitment of the academic staff from the Colonies themselves, local graduates of promise should be afforded experience as demonstrators or research assistants and should then be given the opportunity of postgraduate study in Great Britain.

Chapter VI.—The place of research

SECTION 1

Research is an essential part of the life of a university. This must be recognised not only in planning the strength of the staff required by the university, but by providing time and facilities for research or original study.

SECTION 2

The research proper to a university is of a fundamental type, and utilitarian results should not be demanded from the research activities of members of the university staff. The Colonies present many special problems, both in the natural and social sciences, in which research of a fundamental type can be suitably and profitably undertaken by members of the academic staff.

SECTION 3

As regards research in the applied sciences, the chief contribution of the universities should be the training of graduates who are fitted to become research workers and to find a career in applying their scientific knowledge to practical problems.

SECTION 4

At the same time, workers in the field of applied sciences can benefit from close association with an academic staff, and institutes or organisations for investigation or research in these sciences should wherever possible be situated near a university.

Chapter VII.—An Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies

SECTION 1

The development of the new Colonial institutions will depend largely on the active interest and co-operation of the home universities. This can best be secured through the creation of an Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies.

SECTION 2

The Council should be representative of all the home universities; it might co-opt representatives of certain university colleges and institutions of comparable status in Great Britain; each Colonial university or university college should be also invited to nominate a member.

SECTION 3

The Council would keep in touch with the development of the new Colonial institutions through regular visits of its members to them. Its services would be available in assisting them to engage staff from overseas; in helping to arrange for the secondment to them of members of home academic staffs; in approaching specialists in different branches of study or of knowledge, whom they might invite to visit them; and in rendering advice on any matter of academic policy on which its help was sought by a Colonial institution.

The services which the Inter-University Council can render to the new Colonial institutions should be equally available to such of the existing Colonial universities as may desire to avail themselves of them.

SECTION 4

It would be in a position to advise an intending student from the Colonies as to the institution in this country best fitted for his proposed studies and able to accommodate him.

SECTION 5

It would finally be available for rendering advice to the Secretary of State on the academic aspect of any scheme for which financial aid is sought from this country.

**Chapter VIII.—The governing authority of Colonial universities
and colleges**

SECTION 1

Colonial universities should be autonomous in the same sense as universities in this country.

SECTIONS 2 AND 3

Following the precedent of most of the newer universities in this country, a Colonial university should have a Senate, which would have authority in purely academic matters, and a Council, which would be the supreme governing body and the trustee of the property of the institution. There should be a Chancellor appointed by the Crown, and a Vice-Chancellor appointed by the Council.

SECTION 4

The members of the Council of the University should not greatly exceed twenty in number. One-third should be members of the academic staff; up to one-third should be representatives of the Legislatures or Executive Governments of the area served by the university; the remaining places should be divided between representatives of the Inter-University Council, the Guild of Graduates, and nominees of the Chancellor.

SECTION 5

The Senate should be composed of the professorial staff and heads of departments, together with representatives elected by the non-professorial staff. These should not be more than one-sixth of the total number.

SECTION 7

The constitution proposed above for a university must be suitably adjusted to the needs of the interim period before a university college arrives at full university status.

**Chapter IX.—The period of transition from college to full university
status**

SECTION 1

The test of a university as a centre of instruction and learning is the extent of the recognition accorded to its degrees in the academic world. But it will take time for the new Colonial institutions to reach a position in which their degrees can command general recognition, and in the initial stages of the growth of these institutions attention must be concentrated on securing for the Colonial graduate a qualification whose significance is clear.

SECTION 3

It is recommended therefore that for this interim period the Colonial colleges should enter into a special relationship with London University under which, subject to certain safeguards detailed in the report, their students may be awarded the degrees of that University. The University has agreed to consult with the colleges in order to secure that while the standard of the London degree is maintained, the syllabuses and examination requirements should be adjusted to meet local conditions.

SECTION 4

Degree giving powers should be conferred on the Colonial institutions only when the following conditions have been fulfilled. The staff must have had adequate experience of work of a university standard; its conditions of work must have permitted of the active prosecution of research or original work; and a substantial number of students must have completed satisfactorily the courses for degrees in a sufficient variety of academic subjects.

Chapter X.—Entrance qualifications**SECTION 1**

The problem of the selection of students for admission to the Colonial colleges (and later to the universities) is of vital importance.

SECTION 2

Before being admitted to courses in the Faculties of arts and science (leading in the normal period of three years to the degree) students should have had the opportunity to spend two years in a sixth form at school. It follows that the normal age for transfer from school to college should not be less than 18.

In those colleges where students will take the degrees of the University of London, the minimum entrance qualifications for the degree course will be determined in the first place by the requirements for matriculating at London. It is hoped that the syllabuses and restrictions as to subjects taken will be adjusted to meet conditions in the Colonies at this stage as well as for the higher examinations.

The possession of the minimum qualifications prescribed should not however constitute any claim of entry to universities or colleges. The latter should settle their own standards of admission, apart from the satisfaction of the minimum requirements; the capacity of students to enter a degree course can best be tested in a college entrance examination.

SECTION 3

In certain areas, where these conditions may not be capable of fulfilment, it may be necessary to institute preliminary courses at the university college, conducted separately from the normal first year's course, or alternatively courses may be provided terminating in a diploma given by the college. The conditions imposed for entry to diploma courses should be as stringent as circumstances permit.

SECTION 4

Special provision may have to be made for over-age students, especially those who have spent a period in employment after leaving school.

Chapter XI.—Scholarships and financial assistance**SECTION 1**

The Colonial institutions will doubtless desire to follow the system of granting entrance scholarships as rewards for academic ability. But these will affect only a selected few, and in most areas an unusually large proportion of the students will be unable to undertake higher education without financial assistance.

SECTION 2

It is essential, therefore, that an adequate fund should be provided from which universities or colleges can assist students seeking entry to them. Such assistance should be related to the financial position of the student. Assistance may also be required in particular cases by students who have already entered upon their courses.

Financial provision will also be needed to enable an increasing number of Colonial students to pursue their studies in Great Britain or the Dominions; but scholarships given for this purpose should be for postgraduate rather than for undergraduate studies.

SECTION 3

It is not desirable to encourage the practice under which recipients of scholarships or grants place themselves under a legal obligation to enter government or other service on completing their courses.

Chapter XII.—Colonial students in this country

The undergraduate education of Colonial students should wherever practicable be carried on in Colonial institutions. Undergraduate study overseas should, as the colleges develop, be confined mainly to those students who wish to study exceptional subjects for which there is no local provision. The facilities for undertaking postgraduate studies overseas should be extended.

Chapter XIII.—Finance

SECTION 3

On such estimates as can now be framed, the establishment of a university in the West Indies will involve capital expenditure of approximately £1,130,000 and recurrent expenditure of £139,690; some additional funds will also be required by the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture at Trinidad.

It is understood that even greater expenditure may be required in respect of West Africa.

Considerable additional funds will be needed by Makerere College in East Africa. Financial assistance in varying degrees may be required in Palestine; by the Royal University of Malta; and in Malaya and Hong Kong.

SECTION 4

In addition provision must be made for assisting Colonial students to study overseas; these will mainly be postgraduates, but in some subjects also, undergraduates.

SECTION 5

Funds will be required for the Inter-University Council, and London University must be reimbursed the expenditure incurred in the operation of the special relationship which it will establish with Colonial colleges.

SECTION 6

The development of higher education in the Colonies must depend on the grant of substantial financial aid from Great Britain.

SECTION 7

In order to tender advice on the allocation of funds from the home Government, a Colonial University Grants Advisory Committee should be created, on which the Inter-University Council would be represented.

SECTION 8

It may be desirable that an appropriate part of the funds available under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act should be specially assigned as provision for the establishment of universities in the Colonies.

SECTION 9

The orderly development of a university institution depends largely on the stability of its annual income. This can best be secured by a system similar to that followed in Great Britain by which Treasury grants are fixed for a period of five years.

It is also desirable that the Colonial institutions should build up endowment funds. Provision should be made for an annual grant to them which will serve as the basis for such funds.

Chapter XIV.—Medicine

SECTIONS 1 AND 2

To meet the urgent need for the expansion of the existing medical staff and of the ancillary health services in the Colonies, medical schools should be established to serve those Colonial regions which do not now possess them.

SECTION 3

Early steps should be taken to improve the quality of teaching in existing schools which have not yet received recognition from the General Medical Council in Great Britain.

SECTION 4

In the Colonial medical schools social and preventive medicine should receive increasing emphasis. While standards must be maintained which will secure recognition of diplomas by the General Medical Council, some elasticity should be allowed in arranging particular teaching and the forms of final examination; in view of the special conditions obtaining in different Colonial regions.

SECTION 5

Colonial medical schools should be staffed and equipped to a standard comparable ultimately with those in Great Britain; a number of detailed recommendations are made in this regard.

SECTION 6

The provision of material facilities, such as laboratories and teaching hospitals, should not fall below standards considered appropriate elsewhere. A number of detailed recommendations are made in this respect also.

It is also important that facilities should be provided for research, though teaching and its sound organisation must be the first consideration.

SECTION 7

The training of hospital assistants should be carried out in schools distinct from those used for medical students; the course should not approach the medical curriculum either in content or length.

SECTION 8

The first step to be taken is to secure that the standards of teaching are such that the local medical diploma obtains recognition by the General Medical Council; the final stage will be reached when the centre of which the medical school is a part becomes a university awarding its own degrees. Between the first and second stages arrangements should be made by which the more able students can take the degree of a home or Dominion university.

SECTION 9

Until facilities exist in the Colonies for postgraduate education in medicine, provision should be made for selected graduates to undertake postgraduate study at a home or Dominion university, in order to obtain experience in research or teaching methods.

SECTION 10

The medical school should become an integral part of a university, and students should participate fully in the university life. The school should be entirely residential.

SECTION 11

Though there should be the closest collaboration between the staffs of the medical schools and the government medical departments, the schools, like other constituent parts of a university or university college, should be as far as practicable free from direct Government control.

SECTION 12

It is desirable that medical schools should be firmly established before dental schools are created. In the meanwhile a beginning should be made in providing opportunities for dental treatment in the hospitals of the larger towns; for this purpose scholarships available in this country should be awarded to a number of selected students each year who on return to the Colony might form the nucleus of a government dental service.

Chapter XV.—Agriculture

SECTION 3

In regard to agriculture, the function which Colonial universities can discharge is to assist in producing men qualified to apply the principles of scientific agriculture to the circumstances prevailing in the Colonies or to conduct research into the special problems they present. But it is essential that their training should be practical as well as theoretical, and the organisation of a full Faculty of agriculture will not be practicable unless the university has its own farm lands.

SECTION 4

Where courses in agriculture are given by a university or university college, they should begin with a two years' course in the basic science subjects, followed by one year in agricultural studies of more specialised character, and by two years' practical work. The objective should be to attain a standard both in teaching and research which would, among other things, qualify the local student for admission to the Colonial Agricultural Service.

Chapter XVI.—Veterinary training

SECTION 1

The provision of men trained in veterinary science and animal husbandry is of exceptional importance to the Colonies.

SECTION 3

It is desirable that veterinary teaching should be associated with a university rather than that it should be conducted in a separate institution.

SECTION 4

The first three years of a veterinary course should be devoted to preliminary science subjects, some of which the veterinary student can share with medical students; but the veterinary student should in his second and third years make contact with field work.

SECTION 5

Wherever it is possible the university or university college should have its own field station; but where conditions make this impracticable arrangements must be made for clinical training under qualified instructors at a government or other station.

SECTION 6

Detailed recommendations are made regarding the staff; even if the clinical instruction is given in a government veterinary station, teaching should be given largely by full time members of the university or university college.

Chapter XVII.—Law

SECTION 4

In the majority of Colonies the qualification for practising in the Courts is a call to a Bar in the United Kingdom. Legal education may with advantage form one of the professional subjects for which Colonial universities should provide facilities. But since the present procedure for acquiring a practising qualification must continue for some time, certain recommendations are made regarding the conditions which Colonial students have normally to satisfy in order to be called to the Bar in England.

The requirement of "eating dinners" at an Inn of Court is over-exacting, and it would be a convenience if part I at least of the Bar examination could be passed *in absentia*, as has been possible during the war.

No recommendation is made regarding a modification of the procedure by which a qualification to practise as solicitor is obtained in Great Britain.

SECTION 5

When a Colonial university or university college establishes a law school, the collaboration of the judicial authorities should be sought in framing the curriculum and the form of final examination for the degree or diploma. This is necessary in order that the degree may be accepted as satisfying the educational requirements for admission to a local Bar, thus avoiding the imposition of any further educational test.

SECTION 6

It will be for the judicial authorities to decide what additional requirements, in the nature of practical experience, the Colonial student must satisfy before admission to practise. It is desirable that these should be so framed as not to place Colonial graduates at a disadvantage with persons who have been called to the English Bar.

It will also be for the judicial authorities to advise regarding the numbers to be admitted to the law school, with a view to avoiding the production of a number of graduates in law greatly in excess of the requirements of the community for legal advice.

Chapter XVIII.—Engineering

SECTION I

Subject to one qualification, civil engineering may form a suitable and valuable addition to the professional subjects studied at a Colonial university or university college. It is an accepted principle that the qualifications of the civil engineer must comprise two years' practical experience of good engineering work, and in most Colonies it may be difficult for some time to satisfy this condition.

SECTION 2

Instruction up to the stage of B.Sc. (Engineering) can be given in Colonial universities or colleges. For the present it would be necessary for the student desirous of completing his full training as engineer to proceed overseas for the purpose.

SECTION 4

Colonial universities are unlikely for some time to offer facilities for fundamental research in subjects with which the civil engineer is concerned. But the teaching staff will find in the Colonies opportunities for original work in investigating the use of local materials.

Chapter XIX.—The training of teachers**SECTION 1**

While a university is dependent on the secondary schools for a supply of well prepared recruits, the schools are dependent on the university for a continuous supply of well-qualified teachers. The university has, therefore, a double interest in the education of teachers.

SECTION 3

It may for many years be impracticable to require that all teachers in the secondary schools shall be university graduates, but teachers in the higher and middle forms should if possible be graduates and the university should concern itself primarily with the training of intending teachers who have already graduated, and with other teachers required for secondary schools; some recommendations are made as to the type of instruction to be given.

SECTION 5

Both for graduates and non-graduates the training recommended will involve four years of work beyond the matriculation stage.

SECTION 6

The provision made for training will usually consist of a department of education under a professor. The department should be a centre of research in the many special problems of school education in Colonial conditions. It should be in close touch with cognate departments in the university and should take a large part in its extra-mural activities.

Chapter XX.—Medium of instruction and linguistic training**SECTION 1**

In the Colonies one of the most difficult problems of university education arises from the fact that the medium of instruction is usually English, and that this is often not the mother tongue of the student.

SECTION 2

Further investigation is needed into the general problems connected with the teaching of English as a foreign language; this, however, is a subject which can most profitably be pursued in this country. In the Colonies, it is essential that members of the university staff concerned with the training of teachers should be exceptionally well equipped for teaching English and for training their students to teach English to others.

SECTION 3

Specialised courses in the teaching of English should be provided for those who are proceeding to the Colonies to take up posts in connection with the training of teachers. A similar provision should be made in training centres in the Colonies; the university departments of education can discharge an important function in this respect.

SECTION 4

In some cases the mother tongue of students is a well established language with its own literature, which can be adopted as a suitable subject for study as part of a degree course.

SECTION 5

There are many other cases, particularly in Africa, in which the mother tongue of students is not of this order and cannot form part of a university degree course. Its study may, however, have a definite value as part of school education.

SECTION 6

In regard to these languages the function of the university is mainly to co-operate in linguistic research, and to train teachers in the use of sound methods.

SECTION 7

In organising the department of social sciences in the Faculty of arts, the university should make provision for research posts in linguistic study. Research into linguistic problems should be pursued in close association with the departments of anthropological and sociological studies.

Chapter XXI.—University education in the West Indies

The Commission supports the recommendations of the West Indies Committee, summarised in Part III of this report, for the establishment of a University of the West Indies. Some of its members consider, however, that further examination is needed of the method by which it is proposed to provide for medical education during the period which must elapse before the University of the West Indies can develop its own Faculty of medicine.

(Signed) CYRIL ASQUITH.
DONALD CAMERON.
A. M. CARR-SAUNDERS.
H. J. CHANNON.
F. CLARKE.
J. F. DUFF.
HAILEY.
J. C. IRVINE.
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MARGERY PERHAM.
RAYMOND PRIESTLEY.
JOHN A. RYLE.
RICHARD V. SOUTHWELL.
J. A. VENN.

S. ROBINSON (*Secretary*).

3rd May, 1945.

UNIVERSITY AND NON-UNIVERSITY COLONIAL STUDENTS AND
COURSES AS AT 31st JANUARY, 1945

Non-University Students in other centres

	Law	Medicine	Engineering	Science	Arts	Veterinary Surgery	Teacher Training	Agriculture	Commerce	Social Science	Languages	Other Subjects
Cyprus	2	1
Gibraltar	1	2
Malaya	4	1
Hong Kong	3	10
Malta	4
Kenya
Palestine
Ceylon	4
Fiji
Uganda
Mauritius
Seychelles
Tanganyika	1
Zanzibar
Nyasaland
West Indies	2	2
Nigeria	1	12
Sierra Leone	3	7	3
Gold Coast	1	5
Gambia	1

LONDON

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COLONIAL OFFICE

Report of
The West Indies Committee
of the Commission on
Higher Education in the Colonies

*Presented by the Secretary of State for the Colonies
to Parliament by Command of His Majesty
June 1945*

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COMPOSITION OF THE COMMITTEE

Sir JAMES IRVINE, Sc.D., LL.D., D.C.L., F.R.S. (Chairman), Principal and Vice-Chancellor of the University of St. Andrews.

Miss MARGERY PERHAM, M.A., Fellow of Nuffield College and Reader in Colonial Administration in the University of Oxford.

R. E. PRIESTLEY, Esq., M.C., M.A., D.Sc., Principal and Vice-Chancellor of the University of Birmingham.

P. M. SHERLOCK, Esq., B.A., Secretary of the Institute of Jamaica.

H. W. SPRINGER, Esq., M.A., Member of the House of Assembly, Barbados.

T. R. ROWELL, Esq., B.Sc. (Secretary), Assistant Educational Adviser, Colonial Office.

W. D. INNIS, Esq., M.A., served as a member of the Committee during its deliberations in Trinidad ; and

J. A. LUKKHOO, Esq., K.C., Member of the Executive and Legislative Councils, British Guiana, served on the Committee during its visit to British Guiana.

APPOINTMENT AND TERMS OF REFERENCE

The West Indies Committee of the Commission on Higher Education in the Colonies was appointed by the Secretary of State for the Colonies (The Right Honourable Colonel Oliver Stanley, P.C., M.P., etc.) in January, 1944, with the following terms of reference :

“ To review existing facilities for higher education in the British Colonies in the Caribbean and to make recommendations regarding future university development for those colonies.”

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PREFACE

To the Right Honourable Colonel Oliver Stanley, P.C., M.P., etc., His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for the Colonies,

Sir,

We, the members of the West Indies Committee of the Commission on Higher Education in the Colonies, have the honour to submit the following report for your consideration.

2. We were appointed in January, 1944. Without any preliminary meetings the representatives from Britain left for the West Indies by air on the 17th of February. They arrived in Trinidad on the 19th of February, and were joined by their colleagues from Barbados and Jamaica. For the purposes of our enquiry it was necessary to include British Guiana, although this Colony is not usually considered as part of the West Indies.* The Committee spent three months in the Caribbean area visiting in turn Trinidad, British Guiana, Jamaica, and Barbados; on the invitation of the Governor of Puerto Rico, they were able to spend five days in acquiring valuable information as to the working and the educational programme of the University of that island. Our thanks are due to the Chancellor and staff of the University of Puerto Rico for their generous hospitality and kindness.

Subsequent to our visit to the Caribbean area we journeyed to Washington in order to enquire into the position of West Indian students now attending Howard University. Finally we visited Montreal with the object of discussing informally with the Principal and members of McGill University the possibility of obtaining their collaboration in temporary emergency measures designed to expedite the training of West Indian medical students. The consultations were extremely helpful and we have to record our appreciation of the friendly and co-operative spirit shown by the McGill University authorities. We were also given the opportunity of meeting a large number of the West Indian students at McGill University and of discussing frankly with them their academic and other problems. We were impressed by the spirit in which they were facing difficulties unavoidable in present conditions.

3. In addition to thirty formal meetings held during our stay in the West Indies, we have interviewed, informally, representatives of the Legislative Councils of Trinidad, Jamaica and Barbados, and also the members of the House of Assembly in Barbados. Unfortunately our deliberations were not sufficiently far advanced at the date of our visit to British Guiana to make possible a similar informal approach to the Legislative Council. We have, however, kept His Excellency the Governor of British Guiana and also Mr. Lukkhoo, the British Guiana representative on our Committee, in touch with developments, so that when this Report reaches them through official channels they will be in a position to explain all necessary detail to the Legislative Council. Meanwhile, we have received from His Excellency the Governor of British Guiana, a copy of the excellent report on our deliberations which was furnished by Mr. Lukkhoo to the Legislative Council. This report makes clear his approval of our proposals.

* Throughout the text of the Report, the term *West Indies* should be taken as including British Guiana and British Honduras.

In each of the Colonies visited we were given the opportunity of discussing our problems fully and unofficially with the Governor. We were also fortunate in obtaining the opinion and advice of Sir Frank Stockdale, Comptroller for Development and Welfare in the West Indies, and his staff, in particular, Sir Rupert Briercliffe, Mr. S. A. Hammond, Colonel Macdonald, Professor Simey and Mr. A. J. Wakefield.

4. We have taken evidence from individual witnesses and from bodies representing private, educational, professional and commercial interests. Numerous memoranda were submitted for our consideration by witnesses and by others who were unable to appear before us personally.

The value of these contributions to our deliberations cannot be too greatly emphasised, and we wish to express our appreciation of the careful thought and painstaking work which the production of these memoranda entailed. Equally, we are indebted to those who, often at personal inconvenience, attended for interview.

A list of witnesses and of persons and bodies who submitted memoranda will be found in Appendix I.

5. We should like to take this opportunity of thanking the Governors of the territories we visited for their interest and hospitality and the Colonial Secretaries and their staffs for the many ways in which they assisted us. In particular we were fortunate in having assigned to us, by the Governor of Trinidad, Miss M. L. de Verteuil, whose work for the Committee deserves the highest praise. We are specially indebted to the Directors of Education in the Colonies we visited for their very valuable assistance both in providing information and advice and in making most of the local arrangements necessary for the successful performance of our work.

6. The experience and local knowledge of Mr. Inniss and Mr. Lukkhoo, who joined us during our stay in Trinidad and British Guiana respectively, greatly contributed to the clarification of our problems as a whole, and especially where they affected these two colonies, and our particular thanks are due to them for their friendly co-operation.

7. Our Secretary, Mr. T. R. Rowell, gave us unfailing help in all that concerned the work and the comfort of the members of the Committee. Many exacting duties fell to him. These were despatched in the most businesslike manner and with a cheerfulness which added much to our efficiency during a lengthy and strenuous tour. His extensive educational experience in the Far East and his knowledge of educational conditions in the West Indies have been particularly valuable. His advice has been of great assistance in all aspects of our work.

8. The terms of reference within which we were required to conduct our investigations were "to review existing facilities for higher education in the British Colonies in the Caribbean and to make recommendations regarding future university development for those Colonies." From the outset we have had regard also to the terms of reference of the parent Commission. Our task has necessarily involved the application of general principles to West Indian conditions but we have exercised care in keeping our recommendations in line with the general principles that had emerged from the discussions in the Commission up to the date of our departure.

Throughout our tour we had good reason to be impressed with the importance of our mission and the effect which our findings would have on the whole educational structure of the area.

9. In this connection it may not be out of place to state that our survey would necessarily have been incomplete and our findings correspondingly inadequate had it not been for the valuable assistance of our West Indian colleagues, to whose services the representatives from Britain pay sincere tribute. We understand that this is the first time West Indians have been asked to serve on such a committee and we wish to emphasise the effect their presence has had in enabling us to get into rapid and sympathetic touch with witnesses, and the public generally.

10. We formed the opinion that a feeling of disappointment and frustration exists in the West Indies through hopes being deferred. We encountered this sentiment frequently in our deliberations, and it was trenchantly expressed by one witness who said " Too often these colonies have been inspected, dissected, probed, examined and reviewed with no result other than a voluminous report." It was, in consequence, natural that we should take steps to avoid being regarded as nothing more than " just another committee " and we therefore considered it expedient, throughout our enquiry, to keep the reading public in touch with the progress of our deliberations.

11. At all times during our visit we have kept in mind the necessity for examining the present facilities for higher education, and we have come to the conclusion that they are completely inadequate to provide a sufficient outlet for the products of the higher forms of the secondary schools.

12. We are firmly and unanimously convinced that the adoption of the recommendations contained in this Report is a matter of urgency and that if our proposals could be put into effect in the immediate future the result would extend far beyond the direct educational benefits.

J. C. IRVINE, *Chairman*

MARGERY PERHAM

P. M. SHERLOCK

HUGH W. SPRINGER

RAYMOND PRIESTLEY

THOMAS R. ROWELL, *Secretary*

August, 1944.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

INTRODUCTION

A. GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL AND RACIAL BACKGROUND OF OUR PROBLEM

13. Before proceeding further, we think it desirable to present in briefest outline the background of the educational problem in the territories under consideration. In view of the numerous reports on the West Indies which have appeared in recent years we have not thought it necessary to give a fuller account.

For the purposes of our enquiry these territories may be reckoned as coming under seven separate governments, some of them covering more than one island. Appendix 2 sets out their names, geographical area, population, racial composition, and revenues. The two final columns give approximate figures of the numbers of children of school age in regular attendance at the elementary schools and the actual numbers attending secondary schools. The territories are given in order, according to the size of population.

14. A study of the maps at the end of this report (Appendix 8) will reveal the transportation difficulties presented by this group of colonies, which lie in a great arc from British Honduras on the mainland of Central America to British Guiana on that of South America. While 54 per cent. of the population live in the relatively concentrated eastern group, Jamaica, the largest island in size, and carrying 45 per cent. of the total population, lies in isolation from the rest, 990 miles north westward of the eastern transport centre of Trinidad. British Honduras lies 660 miles farther west. Air communications are, however, already facilitating closer contacts between the Colonies, especially among the eastern group, and we may expect that these communications will be much improved after the war, when they may become less costly. Even during the brief period of our visit, several West Indian conferences were held which were remarked as signs of the increasing co-operation made possible by air communications. These were the first meetings of the Civil Service Associations and a training course for social workers, both held in Jamaica; the meeting in British Guiana of delegates from the Trade Unions and the first Anglo-American Caribbean Conference held in Barbados.

15. The racial composition of the West Indies is explained by the importation, during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, of African slaves into territories already settled by white colonists and by the introduction from the mid-nineteenth century of East Indian indentured labourers. Although the slaves were emancipated in 1833, the African population remained for many decades in a very poor and backward condition, while the abolition of the system of indenture at the end of the first world war found the East Indians, in some ways, at an even less advanced stage than that then reached by the people of African origin. Small but economically important minorities of Syrians, Portuguese, and Chinese add to the racial diversity in some colonies. The great need for social and educational services among the mass of the population has been increasingly realised in the last twenty-five years or so but this period has been one of great difficulty for sugar, as for other tropical crops, and most West Indian Governments have been financially unable to attempt more than very modest programmes in the face of very great needs. This situation, with the outbreaks of discontent which marked it during the late 'thirties, led to the appointment of the Royal Commission under Lord

Moyne in 1938. This in turn resulted in the appointment of a Comptroller for Development and Welfare in the West Indies, whose duty is to advise, with the help of a staff of experts, upon long-term projects for the betterment of social and economic conditions in the West Indies and to recommend expenditure upon them under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act.

THE PRESENT POSITION WITH REGARD TO HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE WEST INDIES

16. It will be obvious that the history, racial composition and geographical dispersion of the West Indies have been unfavourable to the development of higher education. During the greater part of their history, higher education of any kind has been almost the monopoly of the small, white, ruling minorities which, in so far as they sought it for their children, found it "at home," in Britain.

17. There are, however, two institutions of Higher Education in existence. About two centuries ago Christopher Codrington founded a College in Barbados. For many years Codrington College has been affiliated to Durham University, which has given it invaluable help in maintaining standards and has added much to its prestige by academic support and recognition. The College in recent years has had an average of twenty students, reading, for the most part, theology and classics, and it has a long history of service to the teaching profession, to the Anglican ministry and, indeed, to the West Indies in general. The future development of Codrington College is at present under consideration by the responsible authority. It appears to us that its best contribution will probably be made by concentrating on its traditional function as a Theological College.

18. In 1921, the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture was founded in Trinidad to provide instruction and conduct research in tropical agriculture. It offers a Diploma course and post-graduate Associateship courses in agriculture and sugar technology. It has a governing body in London and serves the whole Colonial Empire, including, of course, the West Indies, from which colonies the bulk of the Diploma students are recruited.

19. The possibility of providing higher education upon a wider basis has been raised from time to time. Some abortive attempts have, indeed, been made in Jamaica. In 1926, the West Indian Colonies established a Standing Conference to consider this among other subjects. In 1929, the first West Indian Conference urged further consideration of the establishment of a University and in 1930 Sir James Currie and Mr. Sedgwick reported in favour of the proposal.

In 1938, the Jamaica Government set up a Committee to reconsider the question, but this lapsed with the outbreak of war. In 1942, following a public meeting, an unofficial Provisional Committee was set up in Jamaica to make plans for a local University College. In 1943, the Legislative Council in Jamaica passed a resolution in favour of the formation of a University, and the same year a committee was formed in Barbados to consider the possibility of enlarging the curriculum of Codrington College. The University of London Association of British Guiana recently sent a Memorandum to the Colonial Office advocating provision for higher education in the West Indies.

20. Thus, after periods of British rule stretching back in some colonies to the first half of the 17th century, and while other and newer colonies have Universities and Colleges already in existence or in embryo, the West Indies have still only the most limited provision for higher education. Most of those seeking higher education seek it abroad, either at their own expense or with the help of scholarships. There is fierce competition for the very few

scholarships available. An increasing number of pupils work at school for the Higher School Certificate or the University of London Intermediate Examination. Others read alone, often while holding full-time appointments, for a London external degree. In 1943, there were thus some 109 West Indians in British Universities and 250 in those of North America. About 1,200 pupils were qualified in that year through Higher School Certificate and School Certificate examinations to proceed to higher education, while in the past ten years 610 students have sat for London external degrees. Details are given in Appendix 4.

B. FINDINGS OF THE COMMITTEE *

21. After a careful consideration of the evidence put before us and after enquiry into the needs and conditions of the West Indies, the number of potential candidates for higher education and the absorptive capacity of the colonies, we have come to a unanimous decision.

22. We recommend the establishment of a single University of the West Indies at the earliest possible date. The first step should be the foundation of a University College which, in order to establish its academic standards and win public confidence and esteem, should work for the most part for the external degrees of a University of repute. In this it will be following the example of the younger British and some Colonial Universities. We urge, however, that the period of apprenticeship shall be short and that the College shall, in a very few years, obtain a charter and begin its autonomous life under its own Council and Senate. We shall, therefore, in our report frequently look forward to this stage. The University should provide initially for some 400 to 500 students, both men and women, and it should be entirely residential. Three years should be the usual period of residence and study to qualify for a degree except in the case of a student who proceeds elsewhere to complete his course after spending the first two years in residence at the University of the West Indies. It should teach the basic subjects appropriate to degrees in Arts and Science and should include a Faculty of Medicine. Generous scholarship and maintenance provision will be needed and also a loan fund in the control of the University authorities to assist deserving students who are not in receipt of scholarship stipend. Provision should also be made to enable as many students as possible to pursue in Britain or elsewhere such further professional and post-graduate training as may not be available in the University. The University should be the headquarters of an important department of extra-mural studies through which its influence would be projected into all the West Indian Colonies.

23. Among these provisions there are two which, in our unanimous opinion, are so important that, without them, we are not prepared to recommend the foundation of a University. The first is that the University should be a single centralised institution. The second, with which there was almost universal agreement among witnesses, is that it should be entirely residential.

24. Financially the University will only be possible if the capital cost, together with some provision for recurring expenditure, preferably by means of endowment, is given to the people of the West Indies by the Imperial Government. Detailed financial proposals will be found in Chapter XIII, but we should state here that one main consideration in framing them was the appointment of a staff of the highest quality.

25. It is our confident expectation that if these conditions can be fulfilled a University of the first rank may be developed which will bring new and deep influences to bear directly and indirectly upon the whole life of the West Indies.

* For the purposes of this Report, the conclusions reached have been stated briefly in view of the amplification which follows. They are elaborated in the Annexure at the end of this Report, which is reproduced by permission of the Main Commission.

CHAPTER I

A CONSIDERATION OF THE MAIN ARGUMENTS FOR AND AGAINST OUR RECOMMENDATION

26. On the whole the evidence we received, which came largely from those most interested in education and most practically concerned with it, was in favour of the establishment of a University in the West Indies. Indeed, among our witnesses, we found some with a strong and urgent desire for it, springing from a full realisation of what it might achieve for the West Indian people.

27. But this is not the whole picture. We soon realised that the witnesses coming forward were not a complete cross-section of West Indian opinion. There was, inevitably, in the present state of education, a large proportion of the population which was indifferent to the issue. There were some people who entertained doubts or criticisms or who even definitely questioned the necessity to found a University at all. As might have been expected, few of these volunteered to give evidence and we therefore sought their opinion, as far as we could, through informal contacts. Much of the opposition, we found, sprang from misconceptions of the type of University we might recommend, and, as we developed our own views about this, we were able fully to reassure this section of opinion. There were others, however, whose difficulties were not so easily answered, and we must endeavour to meet their very genuine and reasonable doubts, which may also have their reflections in Britain, before we enter upon a detailed exposition of our proposals.

THE ARGUMENTS AGAINST OUR RECOMMENDATIONS

(a) The arguments against having a university

28. There were some, especially among those holding responsible positions, who immediately and, in view of the economic position of the West Indian colonies, very rightly, raised the problem of finance. We propose to go fully into this question at the end of our report but, to avoid misunderstanding upon this fundamental point, we must state that we have realised from the first that our recommendations must be so framed that too heavy a burden will not be thrown upon the colonial revenues. This means, as we have already stated, that the Imperial Government must be asked to provide the capital and some part of the recurrent cost; that further endowment must be raised from private benefactions and perhaps from public subscription, leaving only the remainder of the recurrent cost to be met in part by fees and in part by colonial contributions.

29. Some who doubt the wisdom of having a West Indian University do so, however, on grounds additional to those of finance. In every colony we visited there were those who told us that the small size and isolation of the West Indian colonies make it desirable that the present system of seeking higher education overseas should be continued.

30. This argument deserves very careful attention. The strength with which it is held is itself a proof that West Indian insularity is by no means complete. In the years just before the war there were at any one time some 250 West Indian students in universities abroad; to-day the figure is over 350. It is felt that if this traditional argosy in quest of knowledge and of the experience of a wider world should cease the colonies would be intellectually im-

poverished. The scholarships offered in open competition in most of the Colonies, enabling the winner to study in an overseas University, are prizes eagerly worked for and they exercise a dominant influence on the minds of school-children, their teachers and their parents. How, it is asked, can residence in the same or another West Indian colony, among fellow West Indians, possibly take the place of this intellectual adventure into the great world?

31. There is an answer to this question. It is our hope that a considerable number of West Indians, eventually larger than that which has just been mentioned, will still proceed abroad as graduates to complete their education with some special course of postgraduate training. Such special further courses have become increasingly necessary in Britain and elsewhere in order to equip the student fully for his profession. Our own experience and the evidence we have studied have convinced us that West Indian students, like others, would actually gain more from overseas Universities if they went to them at a more mature age and after they had proved their capacity to make the fullest use of their wider opportunities. We were glad, after our return, to find that similar evidence had led the parent Commission towards the same opinion. A relevant factor is that the universities of Britain and some of the best universities of North America are unlikely to be able to accommodate even the pre-war number of undergraduates from overseas, still less to meet the increased needs of the post-war period. This is especially true of Great Britain, in view of the large expansion planned for her educational and social services. In medicine, the Schools are already overcrowded as will be explained in greater detail later. Thus West Indians seeking higher education abroad may find it increasingly difficult to obtain the former number of places in the universities of their choice at the very time when post-war development in their own colonies will demand an increasing number of graduates.

(b) The argument for delay

32. The opinion was expressed by one or two authoritative witnesses who are deeply concerned with the future of West Indian education that the foundation of a university would be premature before certain other essential educational needs had been met. We wish to make it clear that although we cannot agree with this view, it is not because we do not recognise the urgency and importance of these other needs. We had, indeed, anticipated from our study of the reports of Mr. Hammond, the Educational Adviser to the Comptroller for Development and Welfare, that we should find that elementary education was deficient both in quality and quantity. In our many visits to secondary schools we soon learned of certain failings in an otherwise effective system. The most immediate problem here, and one which a university would go far towards solving, is the serious difficulty these schools are encountering, partly owing to their exiguous financial resources, in finding a sufficient number of qualified staff.

33. What struck us with unexpected force was the strong evidence of the deficiency of technical education, and the urgent need, especially in view of the coming period of many-sided construction, for skilled workers in nearly all branches of industry. We were also deeply impressed by the need for adult education at all stages down to the literacy campaign.

34. Most of these aspects of education are, of course, outside our terms of reference, but we agree strongly on the importance and urgency of meeting these needs, and we hope that the plans that have been put forward for this purpose, or are in active preparation, will receive immediate attention, both in Britain and the West Indies. We should deplore a lop-sided development of West Indian education. But we do not agree that these plans are alternative to our own or that their complete fulfilment is a pre-requisite to the foundation

of a University College. It will, even on the most optimistic reckoning, take a year or two after its foundation before the college enters fully upon its work, though we hope that, if our proposals are accepted, there will be the minimum of delay in their execution. We trust that even in this interval a start will be made with the other educational plans to which we have referred. We do not, however, share the view that all other stages of education should be perfected before the university is added as a coping-stone. Had this course been followed in the older countries their educational development would have been very different and very much slower. We regard an educational system not as a static structure built up in tiers like a pyramid, but as a dynamic system of circulation, in which the university is not simply enriching the fields of higher learning, but is deeply influencing the whole system of education by returning into its service, among others, secondary school and training college teachers, and in many intangible and indirect ways affecting the attitude of the community as a whole towards education and learning.

(c) *The argument against a single university*

35. The West Indian colonies are marked by very strong insular feeling and some of them have still only a limited sense of belonging to a larger community embracing the whole of the British West Indies. This is especially true outside the Lesser Antilles and Trinidad. It is not a fact to be mentioned in terms of surprise, still less of reproof. It is the inevitable result of geographical and historical conditions and of communications which, for obvious economic reasons, tended to run from each colony to Britain or America rather than from colony to colony, a position which persisted, until modified by the war. Each colony, moreover, has its own constitution, sometimes developed over three centuries, its own racial composition and its own pattern of inter-racial relationships. Although there was often readiness among witnesses to agree, in theory, with the idea of a single university, it was clear that in this matter head and heart were often at variance and, also, that in circles outside those we interviewed, this sense of separation might prove to be a real difficulty. It will be felt that the Colony which is chosen as the locus of the university will gain a substantial advantage over the others. The remaining colonies may not at first recognise fully the advantages which will be theirs and may be reluctant to send their students to what may be regarded as a remote, or even a rival, colony.

36. We have thought it right to face this difficulty squarely because we believe that a great effort will be needed if it is to be overcome. That it must be overcome we are absolutely certain. So strongly do we all feel upon this point that our recommendation is for one university or no university. Here are our main reasons.

37. The cost of a single university will be considerable, particularly if the opportunities provided for teaching and research are to attain the standards we consider to be essential. The alternative suggestion that in association with a central university the major faculties should be allocated to separate colleges situated in different islands is almost unworkable. Inevitably duplication of teaching would develop in the federated colleges and the necessity would always remain to provide a centralised organisation and an administrative and academic building. The scheme would defeat the first purpose of a university and its adoption would lead to costly failure.

38. Any attempt to make each one of several geographically separate institutions concentrate upon a single branch of learning and thereby function as a constituent part of a single university, would be most unsatisfactory. It would not solve even the transport problem unless all Jamaican students, for example, studied languages and literature and all British Guianese medicine.

Any such experiment would inevitably break down since each of the larger colonies would certainly endeavour to round out its own limited functions in an inadequate and expensive attempt to be comprehensive. This has been the common experience in other countries where this arrangement has been attempted.

39. Apart from financial considerations there are other important factors to which we must refer. It is our belief, one which has the support of world-wide tradition and experience, that the essence of a university is that it should be a community of men and women pursuing a wide range of studies, humane and scientific, so that a continuous process of mutual education and intellectual broadening goes on, outside as well as inside the lecture rooms and laboratories. The teachers, too, need the give-and-take of this intellectual communion in relationship with one another and with the students.

40. Our main objection to such decentralisation, then, is that it would mean three or four institutions of inferior standing rather than one of the first rank. It will be necessary to concentrate all the available financial and intellectual resources, Imperial and West Indian, at one centre in order that the building, the equipment, the staff and the student body shall all be of the quality to make a first-class university and we believe that that and no less is the real ambition of the people of the West Indies.

THE ARGUMENTS FOR OUR RECOMMENDATION

(a) *The development of a West Indian outlook*

41. These attempts to meet certain fears and doubts have led us to state our views in somewhat negative and limited terms. But our recommendation springs from our faith in the positive contribution that a university could make, not only to the British West Indies, but to all the Caribbean territories which are now for the first time being brought into a co-operative relationship. Some of the doubts we encountered seem to us to spring from too narrow a conception of the functions of a University, one that regards it primarily as a machine for turning undergraduates into graduates. We were, for example, confronted with two kinds of financial argument. One, from the standpoint of the students' parents, was that the cost to them of their son's acquisition of a degree at certain North American institutions would be little more than the probable cost at a West Indian university. Our own estimates do not support their calculations; a generous use of scholarships and bursaries at the new university would make this argument even more untenable. The second argument was based upon a comparison of the cost to the Colonial Governments under the present scholarship scheme whereby a West Indian obtains a degree at a British university, with the estimated cost at a new local university, especially during its initial period of restricted numbers. Those who make this calculation sometimes forget that the universities at which this apparently inexpensive education is obtained are endowed and maintained by another nation and one which, as we have seen, may not in future be able to hold its doors open to Colonial undergraduates. Nor is the calculation itself beyond challenge.

42. The true answer, however, is one which puts these financial calculations into their proper place. It is that a residential West Indian university could do something for West Indians that generations of individual students dispersing themselves amongst twenty or more separate universities in Britain and Northern America can never achieve. It is, indeed, relevant to record here that we heard regrets that a number of those who have returned from universities overseas have not fulfilled in their professional, and, still more, their public services, the high hopes that were concentrated upon them. The figures show, moreover, that too many of these students do not return at all to work in the

West Indies. While it appears that most West Indians are happy overseas and successful in their studies, there seem to be some who do not easily adjust themselves to the new conditions. It must not be assumed that a West Indian youth, living possibly upon very small means in lodgings in some large city and attending lectures, is necessarily laying up a rich store of culture or strengthening either his character or physique for his coming work in life. We believe that if West Indian students could work together in surroundings of dignity and beauty, living in close community with each other and with teachers of the highest intellectual quality, and enjoying all the cultural and athletic activities possible in such conditions, they would develop fully, not only as individuals, but as West Indians. Many of them might thus so strengthen their desire to serve their own people that it would not weaken when they went on to complete and broaden their experience overseas. This is, perhaps, the only means by which the present divisions and insularities can be broken down. It must be remembered that barriers exist not only as between the colonies but as between races within some of the colonies. These divisions are of the most obstinate kind and the most hindering to the development of a healthy polity. There is, perhaps no atmosphere in which inter-racial co-operation and friendship is more possible than that of a residential university, and the association thus formed might powerfully influence for good the future development of some of these composite societies.

(b) *The need for leadership*

43. The West Indies, perhaps even more than other parts of the world outside the actual impact of the war, are going through severe internal changes. During the period of our visit all the four major colonies were in the act of greatly extending the political franchise, and, as a result, large numbers of men and women, many of them still illiterate, will soon be voting for the first time. In Jamaica a new constitution has recently come into operation, which should prove an important stage in the advance towards self-government. In Trinidad and Jamaica new political parties are being formed, and the strongest hopes and fears expressed for the future. At the same time the working classes, for long in a largely static and non-vocal condition, are organising themselves in trade unions, entering upon strikes and suddenly learning their power, while, in the view of many, they have not yet always realised their responsibilities or faced the economic realities of the West Indies. Race relations are also undergoing rapid changes in some colonies. The influence of investigations from Britain and of declarations of British policy, the deep economic and other effects of the construction of the American bases, and the generally disturbing effects of the war, have contributed to produce an unsettled and potentially difficult situation. These colonies are in immediate need of responsible and well-informed leaders, and while it is neither likely nor desirable that all these leaders will be drawn from the ranks of the graduates, it is certain that both directly and indirectly this element of the population will have a wide influence for good or ill. The very promise of a university, if it was clear that it was to be of the right standard, would have an encouraging and inspiring effect especially amongst the educated youth, some of the best of whom are at present frustrated in their legitimate desire to carry their studies further.

44. It is, indeed, difficult to conceive of the West Indies advancing towards the greater political independence of self-government, while the present system of dependence on others for higher education continues.

(c) *The position of women*

45. In this context there is another important consideration. The women of the West Indies; though some of them are already showing their quality, do not yet make their full contribution to professional life or to public affairs.

There is a widespread lack of true family life in these territories. This throws too heavy a responsibility for the care of children upon the woman. While it is true that this may force the best of them to become practical, self-reliant and hard-working, their education at all grades is not yet adequate either to their present responsibilities or, more important, to enable them to play their part in bringing about a more healthy balance in their societies. With greater access to higher education, the influence of women, valuable in itself and perhaps especially requisite for the solution of the difficult social problems of the West Indies, would make itself felt. At present, as in other countries, the tendency is to concentrate the limited resources of the family upon the education of the sons. It is probable that if University education could be provided in the West Indies at a lesser cost than overseas and with residential accommodation, a gradually increasing number of daughters would be able to obtain higher education and play their part fully in the life of their communities.

(d) The university as the intellectual centre of the region

46. In our view a university should be something more than even the best possible institution for the production of graduates. It should be the intellectual centre of a region to which its own graduates may look for encouragement and refreshment, and which may also be a meeting ground for all pursuing knowledge at the higher levels. It should be the place where the character of a people finds its intellectual expression. It should also be a channel of communication with other universities, and should thus make possible a continuous circulation of men and ideas which would do much to break down that intellectual isolation to which so many witnesses referred. In these and other ways, it could, we repeat, achieve for the West Indian peoples as a whole something which is never likely to be achieved through the yearly export of a hundred or so individual students to a variety of universities abroad. Before the confusing impact of a number of different influences which are now striking the West Indies in their position between the continents, it is the more necessary that they should develop their own academic centre, and so their own intellectual character, confidence and self-respect.

(e) The university and research

47. Finally, we believe that the university should be a centre for research as well as for teaching. A university, if it is to maintain its intellectual energy, must aim at increasing as well as disseminating knowledge. If in those fields of study which are practicable in the West Indies, members of the staff are engaged in extending the frontiers of knowledge and are taking post-graduate and, at times, undergraduate students into partnership with them, the whole atmosphere of the university will be vitalised.

48. In this aspect also we are looking beyond the interests of the students in residence, and are envisaging the university as the main centre of research into the physical and social problems of the whole region. The West Indies are, indeed, rich in problems, and this has been emphasised anew by the report of the Anglo-American Caribbean Conference which met in March of this year. Hitherto, these colonies have, perhaps inevitably, been the passive subject of investigations by commissions and experts from outside. But the problems of the West Indies will never be fully solved unless they are understood and investigated, to a far greater extent than at present, in the West Indies by West Indians. Already the University of Puerto Rico, founded some 40 years ago through the initiative and generosity of the American Government, is making its contribution. If British West Indians are to join fully both in the study of their local problems and in the plans of action which await the end of the war, and if the social and scientific problems are not to be dealt with departmentally but seen in broad and humane relationship with each other, then a West Indian university as a headquarters for training, research, discussion and publication is absolutely essential.

CHAPTER II

THE LOCUS OF THE UNIVERSITY

49. We knew from the first that our most difficult and delicate task, should we decide to recommend a West Indian university, would be to choose the colony in which it was to be established. In the West Indian situation, a number of desiderata for the site had to be considered. The most important are :—

(a) *Convenience of transport*

50. The wide dispersion of the British colonies in the Caribbean, to which reference has already been made in paragraph 14, has the result that there is no really obvious and convenient centre from the point of view of geographical situation and ease of communications. Trinidad has important claims, but only for the 54 per cent. of the total population which lives in the eastern group of the islands. In order to meet the practical and other difficulties of this problem, we have devised a scheme whereby the cost of travel for all students to and from the university will be a charge on university funds and provision has been made for this in the budget.

(b) *Population*

51. This criterion, in view of the above situation, assumes a special importance since, if the university is placed in the colony where the numbers are greatest, a very considerable proportion of the students will not have to travel at all. Here, Jamaica, with its 1,125,000 people, 45 per cent. of the West Indian total, has a very substantial advantage.

(c) *Area*

52. While this is of somewhat lesser importance, it is obvious that if a large area and a large population are combined, the university is likely to have a wide human and physical setting; its staff and students will have greater freedom of movement during vacations spent in the colony and, probably, a larger variety of social and economic developments in which to interest themselves than would be available in one of the smaller colonies. Here again, Jamaica would seem to have the decided advantage, since the vast interior of British Guiana consists at present of undeveloped and largely inaccessible forest. It is desirable that the university should have ample space, from 150 to 200 acres, for buildings, sports fields and amenities, an area which would allow for future expansion. The site should be flat, or, better still, a combination of rising and level land, and should have natural beauty and a fine prospect. Jamaica offers the widest possibilities for the selection of a beautiful and appropriate site.

(d) *Healthiness of climate*

53. It is clearly of the highest importance that the place in which several hundred young people from all the colonies are to be collected for three full and strenuous years of their lives must be the coolest and healthiest than can be found. It would probably be easier to find a site which will satisfy this condition in Jamaica than in Trinidad, though this is a merit which, of course, Jamaica shares with Barbados and some of the smaller islands.

(e) *Financial resources.*

54. It would be a substantial advantage if the colony which is favoured by the presence of the University could make an especially large contribution towards its cost, both capital and recurrent. Trinidad is the only colony in the region which would, in the present financial situation, be able to do this.

(f) Attitude of the public towards higher education

55. The young university will be much affected by the attitude towards it which prevails in the colony in which it is founded. Its members should not live in an academic sanctuary, isolated from their human environment. A keen, receptive atmosphere in which many links can be formed between the staff and students on the one side, and the society in which they are working on the other, will encourage and enrich the social and cultural life of both. The people of Jamaica, or at least a large and influential section of them, have by years of interest and endeavour, shown their desire for higher education, and, indeed, their determination to obtain its benefits, if only on a modest scale, by their own efforts. We do not deny that even here there were some people who expressed doubts and criticisms upon the subject or, on the other hand, that a keen interest was shown by groups in other colonies. Yet, on balance, we are convinced that among both white and coloured elements, the enthusiasm and appreciation shown in Jamaica for this project will provide a more favourable and stimulating background than can be found in any other West Indian colony.

(g) Educational and cultural background.

56. This aspect is, of course, closely linked with that discussed in the last paragraph. It is a difficult and invidious task to assess the relative advantages between the colonies in this respect. There are, indeed, no great differences in their educational levels, and, to take the example most relevant to this context, they can all show secondary schools of which they may be proud. Each society, moreover, has developed social activities to meet its own needs and express its own character. But in Jamaica, as a result partly of its larger population, and partly owing to the more homogeneous and co-operative character of its racial structure, we were impressed by the relative wealth of the cultural and artistic life of the community. In the last few years, especially, there have been signs of an awakening capacity for individual self-expression in many sides of life, and side by side with this is a growing sense of social service. Institutions, groups and individuals are embarking upon cultural and social experiments which are full of promise for the future. We do not wish to exaggerate this; we realise that some of these movements are confined to small sections of the population, or are only in their beginnings. We recognise that in the political and economic spheres, Jamaica, like the other colonies, is entering upon a critical testing period. Yet, on the whole, we feel that West Indian students are likely to find in Jamaica the widest and most stimulating atmosphere in which to pass their undergraduate years, and which they and their teachers will themselves vitalize further by their presence.

(h) Racial relations.

57. Racial relations in the West Indies, especially in some colonies, are undergoing changes which, since this is a matter which affects human lives in the most fundamental ways, produce difficulties of adjustment and a certain resulting tension. We interpret British Imperial policy as aiming at equality of opportunity for all races, coupled with a constructive effort to raise the economic and cultural levels of the masses, and we see in the recent constitutional and social measures applied to the West Indies a practical expression of this policy. In the sphere of higher education a counterpart of this policy must be that the most promising young members of all the races which inhabit these colonies shall be enabled to join in the intellectual community of the new University. This association is likely to achieve the greatest success in a colony where the general attitude towards it is liberal and sympathetic. No one who knows the West Indies would deny that, here, too, Jamaica offers a favourable background.

SELECTION OF THE SITE

58. We recommend that the University be established in Jamaica. We believe that while Jamaica does not possess all the advantage for this purpose which we should have wished to find concentrated within one colony, it possesses, on balance, the greatest number of them. It may be interesting to record here that the question of the location was by agreement left to the very last moment in our deliberations and travels. It was not decided, nor even discussed, until we had visited the major colonies and had so far framed our report that all the desiderata were clear in our minds. We then found that we had all independently come to the same conclusion. After careful consideration of the relative advantages of urban and rural sites, we recommend that the University should be built not nearer than six, nor farther than twenty, miles from Kingston.

59. We realise that this decision must inevitably disappoint those colonies which have not been selected. We were much impressed, however, by the public spirit and realism of the majority of our witnesses when they raised this issue. We are convinced from our discussions with them that, realising there can be no university except upon this condition, and appreciating the many ways in which, in addition to the centralised training of undergraduates, our plan for a university is designed to serve all the West Indian colonies, and how much its success will depend upon their co-operation, they will accept this decision and act loyally upon it.

CHAPTER III

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNIVERSITY

60. The geographical and political separateness of the colonies in the Caribbean makes it necessary that, in the administration of the one University which is proposed for the whole area, all the colonies interested shall be actively associated. This is true both for the stage when it would operate as a University College and for the subsequent period in which it would frame its own curricula and award its own degrees. We have come to the opinion that this co-operative interest would be best attained by providing that the colonies should be represented on the supreme governing body of the University. Apart, however, from the need to provide for territorial representation in its counsels, we believe that the successful development of the university will depend to a great extent upon the form of Government that is framed for it. We, therefore, think it necessary to discuss this aspect of the subject in some detail.

61. We propose that the administrative governing bodies of the university be a Council and a Senate and that there be a Guild of Graduates.

The Council, as the supreme executive and legislative body, should act as trustees for all properties, endowments and other funds held by the University. It would be responsible for framing the annual budget, for authorising expenditure, and for the presentation of the audited accounts of the University. These accounts should be public documents available for inspection by the home Government and by the Governments of the contributing Colonies. The Council would be the body authorised to receive bequests and donations and, after consultation with the Senate, to promote statutes and ordinances. Subsequent to the first filling of the posts in the University, the Council, in accordance with the conditions in paragraph 66, would make all further appointments. All appointments to academic posts, however, should be made only on the recommendation of the Senate.

The Council should be empowered to set up standing committees for the regular execution of business, the findings to be ratified by the Council as a whole at their statutory meetings.

The Senate would be charged with the control of all academic matters, the adjustment of curricula leading to degrees, the making of regulations and the control of discipline. In matters of dispute in the Senate, or in respect of disciplinary action taken by the Senate, an appeal would lie to the Council and ultimately, if necessary, to the Chancellor.

62. Recognising that at the outset there would be no graduates of the University of the West Indies and that some time would elapse before they could play an effective part, we recommend that the Guild of Graduates be composed initially of graduates of recognised Universities resident in the West Indies. The recognition of such Universities would be determined by the Vice-Chancellor. We look forward to the time when, increasing numbers of graduates of the West Indian University being available, they will become the dominant force in the Guild. The function of the Guild would be purely advisory on any matters affecting the welfare of the University, or of interest to the Council and Senate, except that it would have the responsible duty of electing four members to the Council. These graduates should be among the persons most anxious to play a part in the foundation of a University, and we believe that it will be particularly valuable to mobilise this ready source of energy and good will. We anticipate that in each Colony branches of the Guild will be formed which will be centres of interest and sources of help, both material and spiritual, to the University.

63. The Council should consist of the following :

(a) the Chancellor, a person of eminence, appointed by the Crown. He would have the power of conferring degrees in the name of the Senate, and when present would preside over the meetings of the Council. He would not, however, be regarded as a working member of the Council and his office would be honorary ;

(b) the Vice-Chancellor would be the Resident Head of the University and would act as Chairman of the Council, with power to confer degrees in the absence of the Chancellor. He would be nominated in the first instance by the Inter-University Council to be set up in London,* their nomination being submitted to the Secretary of State for his approval. Subsequent appointments would be made by the Council ;

(c) the Pro Vice-Chancellor, who would take the place of the Vice-Chancellor in his absence, to be appointed by the Senate on the nomination of the Vice-Chancellor ;

(d) the Deans of the Faculties of Arts, Science and Medicine ;

(e) seven other members of the Senate, elected by the Senate, three of whom should be of non-professorial rank ;

(f) two representatives appointed from time to time by the Inter-University Council.

(g) four graduates, elected by the Guild of Graduates from among their own number ;

(h) the territorial representatives. We propose that each Colony should appoint one member of the Council by a method to be decided by the Legislature of the Colony concerned. For this purpose the Windward and the Leeward groups of islands are each regarded as one Colony ; and we envisage that initially there will be representatives from Jamaica, the Leeward Islands, the Windward Islands, Barbados, Trinidad, British Guiana and British Honduras.

* See Report of the Commission on Higher Education in the Colonies, Chapter VII.

(i) Should the Bahamas be interested in the University they would have similar representation on the Council.

(j) In all cases representation on the Council should be subject to a time limit with provision for re-election after a stated interval.

The travelling and maintenance expenses of these representatives for the purpose of attending meetings of the Council, two or three times a year, should be a charge on the University budget.

64. The Senate should consist of :—

The Vice-Chancellor, Chairman, *ex officio*;

The Pro Vice-Chancellor.

The Deans of Faculties.

All Professors.

The Director of Extra-Mural Studies.

The Librarian.

Readers who are Heads of Departments.

Representatives of the non-professorial staff, in number to be determined by the Senate as a whole.

(A diagram of the proposed form of Government is given in Appendix 3).

65. The Senate should be the supreme controlling body in academic matters, except so far as these would be affected by statutes and ordinances. Subordinate to the Senate in academic affairs should be the Faculties, to which would be elected teachers responsible for a group of studies, *e.g.*, Arts, Science, Medicine, etc.

66. Appointments to academic posts should normally be made by the Council on the recommendation of the Senate ; but special provision will have to be made for the first appointments. The case of the Vice-Chancellor has already been mentioned. As to the other posts, we recommend that, say, for the first two years, all other appointments be made by the Vice-Chancellor, in consultation with the Inter-University Council.

67. Our scheme of academic government is designed to give the University of the West Indies the same powers of management as are vested in British Universities. It will be noted that the composition of the Council affords a suitable proportion of academic and non-academic representation, and one safeguard thereby introduced would be that the University could not be regarded as a State institution. It would be academically free and would not be subject to political control. In short, its relationship to the governments and legislatures of the contributing Colonies would be similar to that which has existed for many years between British Universities, the local authorities and the University Grants Committee. Financial subventions would be made in the form of block grants without any restriction on the manner in which they are distributed, but subject to review at stated periods.

68. We realise that this is a bold departure from the practice hitherto followed for universities in the Colonies, but we believe that a study of their political and financial experience goes to strengthen our recommendations. It is true that the form of government we recommend represents a great act of faith, especially in the quality and experience of the Council and Senate.

We believe, however, that the large capital grants together with endowments, or their income equivalent, which we are asking from the Imperial Government should be accompanied by the requirement that at frequent intervals, the University should be visited by the Inter-University Council which, it is proposed, should be set up in London. Such an inspection would be in conformity with the tradition and existing practice of the British Universities which are visited

by the University Grants Committee at intervals of five years. The main purpose of such visitations would be to offer friendly advice on academic and financial policy to the young West Indian University and to bring it into close and cordial association with the older centres of learning with their accumulation of experience.

69. The form of government recommended, although appropriate to an autonomous University, may seem perhaps too elaborate for the administration of a University College; but we recommend no modification, except that the Vice-Chancellor would be called Principal of the College. The intricacies and pitfalls of University administration cannot be learnt in a day, and we regard it as important that the administrative and academic councils of the new University should begin from the outset to acquire the experience of working together which should prove invaluable at the second stage when complete autonomy shall have been achieved.

CHAPTER IV

THE FACULTIES OF ARTS AND SCIENCE

70. We now turn to a consideration of the subjects of study which should be provided in a new institution of University rank in the West Indies. It will be recalled that we recommend the creation in the first place of a University College which would be succeeded by a fully chartered, autonomous University. The reasons for this procedure have already been given and its adoption would go far to remove any fear that a University of the West Indies would fall short of the standards attained in established universities of repute. It is in our opinion a first necessity to remove this feeling of apprehension and to do so involves a temporary association of the University College with a degree-granting University. The proposal is not without objection and it is far from our desire to perpetuate the system under which students of the West Indies read for external degrees. So long as such association exists the programme of teaching conducted in the West Indies must conform to regulations imposed from without, but we see no alternative method of meeting a situation which we hope will be of short duration. The reasons which led us to this conclusion will be more fully discussed in Chapter VIII.

71. Although the proposed University College of the West Indies would not be empowered to grant its own degrees until it becomes fully chartered it would be in a position from the beginning to grant its own diplomas and certificates. We have in mind subjects for which certificates or post-graduate diplomas might suitably be awarded: such subjects would include Teacher Training, Social Studies and Public Administration.

72. In the course of our enquiry we were urged by witnesses, whose opinions merit careful consideration, to provide a large variety of subjects so as to fill obvious gaps in the educational system of the West Indies. When these subjects were grouped by us in terms of the Faculties to which they would be assigned it was evident that their inclusion would involve the creation of no fewer than seven Faculties, viz. Arts, Science, Medicine, Law, Technology, Education and Theology. We were originally of the opinion that in the formative years of the infant University it would be a mistake to make provisions for more than the fundamental Faculties of Arts and Science; but for reasons which will appear later and will be recognised as of primary importance in the public interest, we also recommend that a Faculty of Medicine be established forthwith. The creation of further faculties and the inclusion of additional subjects can best be decided by the Council and Senate in the light of experience. Only in this

way will the University expand by a process of natural growth. There are, indeed, already suggestions with regard to legal education which may make it necessary to add the subject of Law to the Faculty of Arts.

73. Consideration may now be given to the individual subjects of study leading to graduation which should be established when the University of the West Indies is passing through the initial phase of functioning as a University College in association with a parent University.

Faculty of Arts

74. We recommend the appointment of Professors or Readers in the following subjects:—English Language and Literature, Modern Languages (French, Spanish and Portuguese), Latin, History, Geography, Mathematics, Political Science, Economics, Philosophy, Psychology and Education. Some of these subjects are equally applicable to the Faculty of Science. We do not envisage any sharp line of demarcation between Faculties—we assume that a professor or reader may be a member of more than one faculty.

75. The above subjects have not been selected through mechanical application to the West Indies of the standard curricula of British Universities. We regard them as essential to the intellectual development of men and women who, for the most part, will find their life's work in the West Indies and our selection offers abundant opportunity to frame courses suitable for the needs of the individual student. It is admittedly beyond the scope of the Committee's reference to proceed to the further stage of defining the grouping of the above subjects which would qualify for the degree of B.A. on Pass and Honours standards. Initially the selection of subjects must be in conformity with the regulations of the parent University. Ultimately the duty of prescribing curricula will be discharged by the Senate of the University College and they should take action in advance so as to be in a position to institute without delay courses leading to the degrees of the University of the West Indies as soon as it is constituted. Meanwhile, without encroaching on the province of the Senate, it is expédient to give at least an indication of the courses which we believe to be most suitable.

76. In the first place we recommend that the Senate should consider the institution of a general course to be taken by all students, not as a degree subject tested by examination but as a means designed to open the minds of young students to "The Aim and End of True Learning"; to impress upon them the fact that knowledge cannot be divided into rigidly defined compartments but that each branch of learning is dependent on and ramifies into all other branches, ultimately affecting every phase of human relationships. Specialisation cannot be avoided to-day but the tendency of students to concentrate their effort on individual studies without giving due recognition to the co-relation of knowledge is not unknown to the British Universities and it may reasonably be predicted that the same tendency will operate, possibly to a greater extent, in the West Indies. With the object of remedying this defect some Universities, particularly in America, have instituted courses of the type we advocate. Within the limits of this report it would be inadvisable to develop the suggestion at greater length and in any event details can be planned only by the Senate which can best decide how this difficult duty can be adequately discharged. To place before a student of the Liberal Arts the fact that for good or ill he lives in a material universe governed by laws he cannot ignore or defy is no less important than to impress on his fellow-student in Science that he cannot know himself or his world through science alone.

77. The Arts subjects follow standard lines and require little explanation. We have attempted to provide for a general cultural education and the student

who ultimately hopes to enter teaching or to engage in administrative work or to take his place as an educated man in the community in which he lives can be given a course appropriate to his needs. Without any sacrifice of standards or thoroughness of training in such subjects as History, Economics, and Geography it may be presumed that the normal courses will be supplemented by the inclusion of instruction specially applicable to colonial problems and to the conditions existing in the Caribbean area. The three modern languages, each of which is of special importance in this region, should be adequately taught and it should be possible to take a degree in modern languages.

We recommend the establishment of a lectureship in West Indian History. This region has had an important and eventful history, and contains valuable records. The archives in Spanish Town, Jamaica, and the documents kept in the Jamaica Institute, for example, offer very promising material for research.

78. The position of Classics and the part which is to be played by the University Professor of Education are two aspects of the course in Arts which have given us much concern. After full consideration we do not regard it as expedient, at least during the formative years, to institute courses leading to a degree in Classics. Latin we have included as essential but the University will be confronted with a sufficiently difficult task without including at this stage subjects, such as Greek, remote from immediate and pressing needs, of which advantage can be taken only by a limited number of students.

It may safely be left to the judgment of the Senate how far classical studies should be developed.

79. The existing methods of recruitment and training of teachers in the West Indies are designed solely for the staffing of primary schools, and are the concern of the various Directors of Education and their Departments. Our proposal to establish a Chair of Education encountered some critical comment, but in the absence of any form of training for secondary school teachers we are convinced of the real need of this Department within the University. Apart from its function of giving professional training to graduates wishing to enter the teaching ranks of the secondary schools, we firmly believe that it would be an important factor in the development and expansion of the training of primary teachers, particularly through its research work. We attach so much importance to this aspect of our problem that we have ventured to express our views on the duties of the Department of Education in a separate section of this report (Chapter VII). The function of the University Department of Education would be instructional only in part, and the Department should be regarded as the natural centre where educational problems would be continuously under systematic investigation. Considering the breadth of the field to be covered by the Professor of Education it is evident that he ought not to be limited to membership of the Faculty of Arts, but should be associated as well with the Faculty of Science.

Faculty of Science

80. The composition of the Faculty of Science presented few difficulties and we recommend the appointment of Professors or Readers in the following subjects:—Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Geology, Botany and Zoology. We recommend also the creation of lectureships in supplement to the above appointments and for reasons given in para. 84 the appointment of a lecturer in the principles of Engineering and Engineering Drawing.

81. The above departments of study can be suitably grouped to provide adequately for systematic courses leading to the Degree of B.Sc. on Pass or Honours standards in either the descriptive or the exact Sciences. We are of the opinion that ultimately Anatomy and Physiology should be added as subjects common to the faculties of Science and Medicine. This would make provision for all the pre-clinical medical sciences so that, in the course of com-

pleting his B.Sc. at the University, the medical student could also include his second professional examination in medicine. The time is not ripe however for this desirable innovation as will be apparent from paragraphs 97 and 98 which refer in some detail to the medical situation in the West Indies.

82. We were disposed to include Pharmacology as a Science. This is, perhaps, unusual but throughout the West Indies training in Pharmacy is in need of drastic reform. The most appropriate training in pharmacy on modern lines can best be given in a University where research in the cognate sciences is actively pursued. It is clear however that the proper place for the development of this subject is in the school of medicine to which we refer in the next chapter.

83. The absence of facilities for training in Engineering and other forms of applied science was frequently forced on our attention ; but it was evident that most of the witnesses had in mind the training of technicians rather than education at a University level. We agree emphatically that there is real need in the West Indies for instruction in technical theory and practice of the type given in polytechnics and we were glad to learn that a scheme for the creation of such institutes is under consideration by the Educational Adviser to the Comptroller for Development and Welfare. We would welcome the creation of such technical institutes, but as their functions would be distinct from those of a University it is necessary to draw a fairly clear line of demarcation between the activities of the two bodies.

84. In the case of students wishing to obtain a degree in Engineering our recommendation is that they should in the first place complete the previous degree of B.Sc. at the University of the West Indies. They would naturally include Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry within their curriculum and, in addition, would take a course in the Principles of Engineering and Engineering Drawing as a supplementary subject together with practical work during vacations. Thereafter, students who from the beginning of their course have expressed their intention to qualify in engineering and have shown special ability in their studies should be given the opportunity, with full assistance, to proceed to a University School of Engineering in Britain. We are informed that no difficulty is likely to be experienced in securing the admission of West Indian students, and with the preliminary training outlined above they would be in a position to enter upon the second year of study leading to an Honours degree in Engineering. We advocate this policy rather than the establishment of a complete engineering school in the West Indies. The relatively small number of engineering students would not justify at present the very heavy capital and recurrent cost involved.

85. A similar method is readily adaptable to the needs of chemical engineers and technologists. These students would take much the same degree course at the University of the West Indies as other students of engineering ; similarly they would be expected to spend their vacations in some form of practical work and after graduation they would proceed to a school of chemical technology in Britain to complete their course.

CHAPTER V

THE FACULTY OF MEDICINE

(A) RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PERMANENT ESTABLISHMENT

86. Our survey of West Indian educational needs had not proceeded far before we came to the opinion that medical education leading to a registrable

qualification demanded high priority in our recommendations; it became our firm conviction that we would be failing in our duty if we did not urge the early establishment of a complete Faculty of Medicine in the University of the West Indies.

87. Our plans for medical training are based on two primary considerations. We believe that the best preparation for the medical student is a previous degree in Pure Science and although this preliminary training will add to the length of the course we recommend its adoption being convinced that in the West Indies the policy will be fully justified by results. The second consideration is that the clinical medical school should be situated in the closest possible proximity to the scientific centre of the University. Medical research has become dependent to a greater extent than is generally recognised on close collaboration between medical investigators and the physicist, the biologist, the chemist and the mathematician. To separate these experts by a few miles may be an unfortunate necessity; to separate them by hundreds of miles is to close the door to research activity of the modern type or to make necessary expensive duplication of staff and of laboratories.

88. For these reasons our recommendation is that the medical school of the University of the West Indies should be established in Jamaica. Of necessity this will involve close co-operation between the University and the Kingston General Hospital where the clinical training can be provided. We recognise that before the latter institution can be used effectively as a Teaching Hospital, substantial enlargement and adaptation will be necessary; but we have been given to understand that a building scheme for the improvement of the hospital is now in contemplation. If, in carrying out this scheme of renovation, due attention is given to the requirements of a clinical medical school we are satisfied that the number and variety of medical, surgical and accident cases available are well suited to the requirements of the medical student. No difficulty should be experienced in adjusting the hospital administration so as to reconcile the autonomy of the management with the requirements of clinical training of medical students. It is, however, impossible to bring the Faculty of Medicine into full operation as speedily as is necessary to fulfil the urgent medical needs of the Caribbean area. The adaptation or re-building of the Kingston hospital is only now being considered; the erection of the University buildings, the provision of equipment and the recruitment of teaching staff will take time and may have to be delayed until after the war. Nevertheless the building scheme for the University should from the first include provision for the Medical School, the erection of which ought not to be delayed. In the approximate budget of initial and recurring costs which is given in Appendix 7 we have accordingly included the full requirements of the Faculty of Medicine.

89. The Faculty of Medicine should consist of the Professors and Readers in the Faculty of Science responsible for Chemistry, Physics, Botany and Zoology together with Professors or Readers in the following subjects:—Anatomy, Physiology, Pathology, Bacteriology, Pharmacology and Therapeutics, Medicine Surgery and Obstetrics. The above should be full-time appointments but part-time Lecturers will be necessary to provide the specialised short courses which form a necessary part of medical education. It is expedient that these part-time lecturers should also be represented on the Faculty but we consider that their number and mode of selection should be left to the discretion of the Senate.

Provision should be made for courses leading to degrees in Medicine and Surgery, together with post-graduate diploma courses of special importance in the West Indies, e.g. Social Medicine, Nutrition and Dietetics, Public Health and Hygiene. It is of the utmost importance that, from the first, the University of the West Indies should aim at becoming a centre for study and research in Tropical Medicine. We refer to this in greater detail in para. 104.

90. It will be observed that our scheme follows standard lines and is readily capable of adaptation to meet such modifications in medical training as may be introduced by adoption of the findings of the Inter-Departmental Committee on Medical Schools (1944). It may be stated, however, that initially our proposals met with a certain amount of criticism from some witnesses, most of whom had received their medical education in Britain. It was suggested to us that, after completing the previous degree in Pure Science, the West Indian student should thereafter proceed overseas to receive his clinical training in the Medical Schools of Britain or North America.

91. We agree that the best preparation for the medical student is a previous degree in pure science, and we were at first inclined to recommend that in the case of the West Indian student he should thereafter proceed overseas to receive his clinical training in the Medical Schools of Britain or North America. Such a scheme has much to commend it. The student would enjoy a more systematic training in the fundamental sciences than is generally the case; he would be a member of a West Indian educational community for a sufficiently long time to develop more fully a West Indian consciousness; he would be sufficiently mature to derive the maximum advantage from travel and study abroad and he would gain much from attachment to a Medical School of established reputation. We quickly realised, however, that this simple scheme was not adaptable to conditions as they now exist. The capacity of the Medical Schools in Britain is at present strained to the uttermost and it must be remembered that the Teaching Hospital is the bottleneck of the student traffic. The strain on the Teaching Hospitals is due only in part to the impact of war conditions. Even prior to the present war it was no uncommon experience to find that the number of students seeking entry to medical courses was largely in excess of the available accommodation. The war has accelerated a movement which was already apparent and the situation will not be relieved to any great extent when hostilities cease, particularly in view of impending legislation affecting social reform and medical services. In short, for many years to come, the Teaching Hospitals of Britain, even if increased in number, will be unable to accommodate all the medical students seeking admission. The same conditions are likely to prevail in the medical schools throughout the British Commonwealth and there is little prospect that additional students from overseas will find places in hospitals where they can receive their clinical training.

92. When the situation was explained to our witnesses they for the most part withdrew their objections and expressed their readiness to lend support to the scheme we advocate. One reasonable condition was, however, laid down—that the medical qualification gained in the University of the West Indies must conform to standards acceptable to the General Medical Council as a registrable qualification. With this we are in entire agreement.

93. Any discussion of medical education in the West Indies cannot, however, be confined to long-dated schemes. Even under the most favourable circumstances, the University of the West Indies would not be in a position to produce annually a steady succession of medical graduates for at least ten years. Meanwhile, it is disconcerting to remember that the need for a speedy addition to the medical personnel of the West Indian colonies is urgent. Many vacancies should be filled forthwith and provision must be made for a steady annual recruitment of trained medical men and women. The Government Medical Services are understaffed, and despite zealous and willing effort there is bound to be a diminution in efficiency through the burden and strain of over-work under tropical conditions. Private practitioners are in no better position and the problem must be viewed against the background of an increasing population and a genuine desire to improve and extend the health services of the West Indies.

Our estimate is that the minimum medical needs of the West Indies area can be satisfied only by the immediate appointment of approximately 100 experienced medical practitioners supplemented annually by an output of from 30 to 35 medical graduates. We arrived at these figures independently, but they agree with an estimate provided by Sir Rupert Briercliffe, Medical Adviser to the Comptroller for Development and Welfare, regarding the immediate and ultimate requirements of the West Indies.

94. Our view of the situation is that two lines of policy should be followed :— (a) the provision, on a permanent basis, of medical training in the University, and (b) a temporary arrangement designed to meet the immediate emergency and to provide medical graduates with a minimum of delay.

We have explained our recommendations for the former and now turn to a consideration of the second aspect of the problem.

B. A TEMPORARY SCHEME

95. The problem to which we have drawn attention in the two preceding paragraphs has been given special consideration by Sir Rupert Briercliffe and we had the benefit of several discussions with him during which he explained his own proposals for relieving the situation.

These may now be summarised. It appears that certain temporary buildings erected by the United States Military authorities in Port of Spain will shortly become vacant, and negotiations are now pending under which the Trinidad Government may acquire the upper St. Clair cantonment building group. Should these negotiations mature His Excellency the Governor of Trinidad would be prepared to make the site and buildings available, on a rental basis, for the purposes of a Medical School. The temporary buildings consist of (a) blocks of officer's quarters which could serve as residences for about 120 students; (b) administrative buildings which it is proposed should be adapted to provide the lecture rooms and laboratories required for all the subjects taught in a medical school; and (c) a large hall now used for social purposes. The essence of the scheme is that all medical teaching, theoretical and practical, from the beginning of the second year of professional study, should be provided within these buildings, and that clinical instruction should be given in the Port of Spain Colonial Hospital and its ancillary institutions.

96. The scheme has been carefully thought out. We were provided with details of the staff required and of the financial commitments involved. It will, however, be exceedingly difficult to acquire the necessary laboratory equipment while the war is in progress; an even greater difficulty appeared to us to be the recruitment of the expert staff which would be necessary to carry out the work of the school on the high level demanded by University standards. It must be remembered that at the present moment certain medical Chairs in Britain are left unfilled owing to the fact that potential occupants of those responsible posts are now engaged on national service from which they cannot be released. Nevertheless, in spite of these difficulties, it is possible to operate this scheme more rapidly than the one we advocate as part of the permanent organisation of the University in the West Indies. The creation of a medical school in Trinidad will also remedy the present situation in which a number of West Indian medical students at McGill University, qualified to enter on their clinical work, are denied access to Teaching Hospitals.

97. So convinced were we that the creation of such a medical school was essential in the immediate public interest that we had further discussion with Sir Rupert in order to assess the bearing of his scheme on our own plans for a Faculty of Medicine in the University of the West Indies. As a result of those discussions we have no objection to the scheme being started forthwith, provided

that the following conditions are observed. The discussions with Sir Rupert in Barbados resulted in agreement on the following points :—

(1) the Trinidad Medical School is to be regarded as a temporary measure designed to meet an immediate need ;

(2) the School will not possess the independent status of a College. Initially it will be a school preparing students for the medical degree of a parent University. Subject to the condition in paragraph (5) below, it will form part of the University College of the West Indies and in due course become part of the autonomous University ;

(3) the recurring annual expenditure will be met through Colonial Development and Welfare assistance, during the period when the School is in academic association with a degree-granting University. Thereafter, the annual expenditure will be a charge on the budget of the University of the West Indies which will assume full financial and academic responsibility ;

(4) the qualification for entry to the Medical School will, in the first instance, be determined by the regulations of the degree-granting University. When the University of the West Indies institutes its own pre-medical science courses the qualification will be the possession of the degree of B.Sc. in pure science or a recognised equivalent ;

(5) the final determination of the use to be made of the Medical School in Trinidad will rest with the Council of the University of the West Indies, the decision to be made in the light of experience gained during the experimental years.

98. It will be noted that the Medical School will pass through three evolutionary stages :

(1) when the School is financed through Development and Welfare assistance, and is associated with a University to whose teaching programme it must conform ;

(2) when it forms part of a University College of the West Indies but continues to prepare its students for external medical degrees. During this period the School will come under the academic and disciplinary control of the University College of the West Indies ;

(3) when it forms part of the autonomous University of the West Indies.

99. The arrangement is workable and, subject to the modification described in para. 102, we recommend its adoption with a note that the scheme lends added force to our contention that swift action should be taken in founding the University College of the West Indies, and that the incubation period leading to the creation of a fully chartered University should be of minimum duration.

100. Having in mind the special arrangements which would be necessary to cover stage one and part of stage two in the above phases of development we made a visit to McGill University, Montreal. It has been represented to us that McGill University might be prepared to play the part of the degree-granting University which is a necessary feature of Sir Rupert Briercliffe's scheme. In Montreal we had the opportunity of discussing the situation with Dr. F. Cyril James, Principal and Vice-Chancellor of the University, and Dr. David Thompson, Dean of Medicine. Later we had a further informal consultation with the Chancellor, the Principal, and members of the Medical Faculty.

101. It is relevant to set out briefly the position of West Indian medical students at McGill University. There are at present 100 such students reading for a Science degree in preparation for Medicine. The University admits

about 100 medical students annually and of these some 20 are from the West Indies. Since the number applying annually for admission exceeds 1,000, it is difficult for the University to maintain the present quota of West Indian students. It should be noted that, of these 20 students, not more than five or six are admitted by the Teaching Hospitals in Montreal on completion of their pre-clinical studies. The urgent need for qualified medical practitioners in the West Indies makes these figures particularly disturbing and they emphasise the necessity to operate Sir Rupert Briercliffe's scheme with the least possible delay.

102. After our discussion with the Principal and the Medical Faculty a modification of the scheme was suggested by Dr. James and endorsed by us. Under this arrangement the teaching in the clinical Medical School in Trinidad would be confined to the preparation for the clinical examinations of McGill University and would include Pathology and Bacteriology, Surgery, Medicine and Midwifery. The customary specialist clinical subjects would also be taught in Trinidad. In this modified scheme, Anatomy, Physiology and part of Pathology would be taught at McGill University.

103. It was proposed by McGill University that if it were to become the degree-granting University the professorial appointments in Trinidad should be filled on a rotational basis by members of its Faculty of Medicine. The scheme involves sending to Trinidad, for a period of about three years, professors of each of the major clinical subjects. At the end of a three years' period the professor lent to Trinidad would return to McGill when his place would be taken by his immediate colleague. One advantage inherent in the scheme is that in each subject there would be two examiners; one whose teaching duties lay in Trinidad and the other in Montreal.

104. McGill University has instituted a Diploma in Tropical Medicine with the intention that the special clinical and laboratory work should be carried out in the West Indies. The establishment of clinical laboratories in Trinidad would be helpful to the scheme. We hold strongly that post-graduate studies of the type indicated should come within the province of the University of the West Indies. The authorities at McGill University agree that the proposed scheme for a Diploma will be temporary only and that training and research in Tropical Medicine will ultimately pass entirely to the University of the West Indies. This is, indeed, consistent with our recommendation that all specialised research naturally associated with the Caribbean area should form part of the activities of its own University.

105. We have naturally given close attention to the situation which will arise when the proposed Medical School in Trinidad has served its immediate purpose and is no longer required for the emergency training of medical students. It may prove to be the case, although according to our calculations this is unlikely, that a second Teaching Hospital may be required. In this event the School might be continued as part of the University of the West Indies. We are much more attracted to the prospect of transforming the Trinidad School into the future centre for post-graduate study and research in Tropical Medicine. Trinidad is well situated geographically for studies of this nature, and there would be a distinct advantage in having the corresponding library and laboratory facilities centralised for this purpose. Time and experience can alone solve the problem as to the part to be played in the future by the Trinidad School; but there is little reason to fear that when its immediate purpose has been fulfilled it will not be found useful in the programme of the University of the West Indies.

106: We are convinced that the modification of Sir Rupert Briercliffe's scheme proposed by the authorities of McGill University has everything to commend it and we unhesitatingly recommend its adoption as a temporary

measure. It may be stated that the Commission on Higher Education in the Colonies, to whom this recommendation was submitted, has deferred a decision as to whether the temporary Medical School in Trinidad should be attached to McGill University or to London University. In view of the urgency of the situation, any policy involving further delay is unwarrantable and accordingly we give in Appendix 6 the main reasons which have led us to reaffirm the recommendation given above.

CHAPTER VI

AGRICULTURE AND AGRICULTURAL SCIENCE

107. The over-riding importance of agriculture in the life of the West Indies was impressed upon us on every side throughout our work and travels. We realised that at no other point would our proposals touch more intimately the life of the people or more vitally affect their economy. It is above all to this art and to the sciences upon which it is based that we must look to raise the standards of life and to increase the prosperity and happiness of the West Indies.

108. In order to clarify the contribution which a University could make to agriculture it may be useful to distinguish the various levels and types of agricultural education which are in being or are required in the West Indies.

(a) Among the rank and file the first necessity is to diffuse more widely knowledge of the best modern practice in the treatment of land and stock. The inculcation in children of a right attitude of mind towards the land by which they are to live should come through the primary and senior schools, and the 4-H clubs and similar organisations. At a later stage there is an opportunity for adult education in which the proposed Extra-Mural Department of the University might co-operate with the Government Agricultural Departments and those other agencies which are already at work in this field.

(b) The next class comprises the supervisors or foremen of estates and farms and those farmers whose holdings are of a size to respond to varied and intensive treatment. Farm Institutes of a kind now being developed in the West Indies, in which theory is kept to a minimum and the emphasis is upon practice, are best suited to training young men for work at this level.

Neither of these types of agricultural education come within the sphere of a University except, in some part, with regard to the supply of instructors. We are, however, as a Committee, concerned with the two following classes.

(c) The owners or managers of large farms and estates or the Government officials who act as general Agricultural Officers.

(d) The specialists in Agricultural Science, official and unofficial, upon whose work the advances in agricultural technique depend.

109. The specialist class presents least difficulty in the West Indies and we will deal with it first.

The requirement here is for a highly-trained specialist scientist with sufficient knowledge of agricultural practice and theory to be able to apply his knowledge to the furtherance of the art of farming. Qualification in Britain is through an Honours Degree in Natural Science followed by a post-graduate course leading to a Diploma in Agricultural Science. If the application of science to agriculture in the tropics is the objective of the student, he then moves to the Imperial College in Trinidad where he takes the Associateship course. The Colonial

Office have hitherto insisted upon this last step as a necessary part in the training of all their agricultural science specialists.

110. This scheme, which has proved its worth in practice, fits in part into our general picture of a University of the West Indies. The Honours Degree in the appropriate sciences would be taken in the University of the West Indies by West Indian aspirants who, through training under residential conditions in the company of students reading other subjects, will be able to broaden their outlook and become conscious of their West Indian citizenship. It should be possible to include within their science course a general view of the place of agriculture in the world and in the West Indies in particular. When the new Farm Institutes now under consideration by the Comptroller for Development and Welfare are established, it will be possible for science students who intend to take up agriculture as a career to spend their long vacations on the Institute farms.

111. When the science degree has been obtained a more difficult question arises. Should the graduate then go to the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture for the Associateship course or should he go overseas to a British or a Canadian University? We believe that if financial circumstances permit, the latter course is preferable. There is great value to be gained from contact with the wider world overseas and this contact is likely to be most productive and rewarding when the student is more mature and when, without losing his freshness and capacity for the absorption of knowledge, he has learned to look beyond his own particular island and subject. Both in Britain and in Canada he would be stimulated by seeing on every side examples of the application of science to agriculture far more advanced and far more varied than he would in the West Indies.

112. At the end of two years he can still, if he so desires, go to the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture to apply his knowledge of general principles to tropical conditions, crops and pests. If this is considered too long a period of tutelage, he can gain his local knowledge through some employment where he would be under the guidance of experienced seniors. At a later stage he might be given the opportunity of a refresher course at the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture.

113. Our advocacy of this particular method of training the specialist conveys no reflection upon the Imperial College. We consider it to be desirable no matter how efficient the College may be.

114. So much for the specialist. There remains the more difficult problem of the general agriculturalist whose objective may be a post in the Government Agricultural Service or large-scale farming. The need for some form of higher education for these students is urgent. The most obvious method of satisfying this need would at first sight appear to be the Diploma course at the Imperial College, but at present this does not fulfil the purpose we have in mind nor was it intended to do so.

115. In our opinion the Diploma course of the Imperial College endeavours to meet the needs of a range of students who vary too much in quality of mind and degree of preparation to be efficiently educated together. We are not in a position to make any recommendations affecting this course since the Imperial College is a body under independent government, but we may express the opinion that when the farm institute scheme comes into being the Diploma Course should be reformed and brought up to university standard. We have considered the alternative of recommending that a Department of Agriculture be instituted in the University of the West Indies. It would be unthinkable that a University whose duty embraced the whole of the West Indies should stand aside from taking a responsible part in educational matters affecting the major

industry of the whole Carribean area. Yet it would be unjustifiable for the University to undertake the heavy financial and academic responsibility of founding a Department of Agriculture, including the establishment of an experimental farm, when a sister institution within the University province can provide the necessary facilities.

116. There should be no difficulty in reconciling the complementary parts played by the Imperial College and the University respectively, provided it is accepted that the recognition of entrance qualifications and of courses leading to graduation lies solely with the University. The entrance qualification for the present Diploma should be raised to university standard and the whole course placed on a basis which would make it acceptable for a degree in Agriculture at the University of the West Indies. This would best be secured by arranging for the student to spend two years at the University of the West Indies, reading Science as a preliminary to Agriculture, thereby fulfilling the minimum condition of residence, and then to complete his course at the Imperial College. We fully realise that the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture serves both the West Indies and the Colonial Empire as a whole, but the proposals we now make could only affect the associateship course in the sense of being beneficial by providing well-equipped students for that course. In thus adding to the duties of the Imperial College, as a partner of the University, we realise that it will need generous financial assistance.

117. In this way the University and the College by their combined efforts could make an increasingly important contribution to the welfare of the West Indian colonies. The projected creation of Farm Institutes, mentioned in paragraph 110, adds special timeliness to our proposals. If the form of co-operation proposed above is impossible our recommendation must be the establishment of a complete Department of Agriculture in the University.

CHAPTER VII

THE UNIVERSITY DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

118. The success of a University in the West Indies depends not only on the quality of the staff, but equally on the character, previous training and intellectual attainments of the student body. It is therefore essential that the secondary schools from which the students are recruited should be able to secure well-qualified and well-trained teachers. The Heads of Secondary Schools and other witnesses have brought to our notice the complete absence in the West Indies of any facilities for the training of secondary school teachers. They have also pointed out that since salaries are unattractive there is little inducement for holders of overseas scholarships to prepare themselves for the teaching profession and that few, if any, of them come back to the West Indies to teach. As a result there are at present many unqualified and untrained teachers on the staff of the secondary schools. Moreover, since the various overseas scholarships are generally based on the results of the Higher School Certificate examination, the competition between the secondary schools tends to concentrate attention on the upper forms to the detriment of the lower.

119. A sufficient number of recruits to complete and maintain a trained graduate staff in the secondary schools is already available, provided that training can be given at a cost within their reach and provided that their prospects are made at least as attractive as those of clerks in the Government service. We realise that the latter consideration is a matter for the individual Governments, but we should not be facing the facts if this real drawback to the

recruitment of the best material to teaching were not emphasised. A secondary school teacher who possesses a degree and teaching qualifications which it has taken him three or four years to obtain should be able to look forward with confidence to due recognition of his years of preparation and to a salary which will enable him to take his proper place in the social scheme and to live as he is expected to do.

120. Secondary schools need both teachers of general subjects for the lower and middle forms, and specialist teachers for the upper forms. The main weakness of the secondary schools lies in the quality of the teaching in the lower forms, and while it should be a primary duty of the University to eliminate this weakness it will also be necessary to train those specialist teachers who have taken an Honours Degree. The former can be achieved through the production of teachers with a broad background of knowledge and an understanding of the needs of the youth of the West Indies. In the lower and middle forms there is a danger when the instruction lies in the hands of the type of specialist teacher who tends to influence his pupils towards specialisation at too early an age. What is needed at this stage is a training which will produce teachers capable of developing their pupils to live as part of the community and to make each his own contribution to it.

121. It has been the custom to appoint from abroad a certain number of trained specialist teachers for the secondary schools of the West Indies and this is likely to be necessary for some time to come. The expansion of the education services in England in the post-war years will, however, make such recruitment increasingly difficult, and the University of the West Indies will have to play its part in relieving the situation.

122. On the question of training teachers for secondary schools we have had much conflicting evidence. This was mainly due to a misunderstanding on the part of some witnesses of the difference between the training of primary and secondary school teachers. There was a keen desire to bridge the present gap between these two groups by combining their training in one institution; but we are unable to recommend that the University should take up the training of primary school teachers simultaneously with that of graduates. Apart from the difference of intellectual attainments, the numbers involved are much too great. Schemes are already in hand to deal with the large increase in primary staff necessary for the expansion planned with Colonial Development and Welfare assistance. The facilities thus provided, together with existing Training Colleges and the proposed Central Training Institute in Trinidad, should be adequate to meet the problem of primary school teachers. We are confident, however, that a University Department of Education in co-operation with the Directors of Education will exercise a strong influence on these schemes through the Department of Extra-Mural studies, by exchange of staff and ideas, and through its educational research.

123. We therefore recommend that there should be, within the University, a strong Department of Education under a Professor. Such a Department should institute a post-graduate course leading to its own Diploma in Education. Its activities should also include the prosecution of educational research so much needed in the West Indies. It should set the papers and conduct the examinations in the Teacher Training Colleges for primary teachers and grant a certificate carrying recognition throughout the West Indies. It would thus provide a stimulus which would raise the standard of teaching and the prestige of the profession as a whole.

124. Intending teachers for secondary schools should, like all students at the University (except as recommended in paragraph 116), spend three years in residence and read for a degree in Arts or Science. Some will take an Honours

degree and others a General degree. The former must specialise, but for the latter we are of the opinion that the course should be more general and while it is not within our terms of reference to lay down specific subjects, the whole problem is so important that we venture to indicate the broad outlines. When the University of the West Indies is fully chartered, the student preparing for a General Degree in Arts should include at least one subject of the Science group, and similarly the Science student should include one in Arts. English Language and Literature should be compulsory in both cases in the first year of study, not only for the intrinsic value of such a course but equally for its general effect on the standard of spoken English in the schools. The choice of subjects before such students has already been indicated in Chapter II.

125. On the subject of professional training we have been faced with widely divergent views. It has been suggested that this should be taken concurrently with the Degree course ; that it should take the more practical form of the course provided by the Central Training Institute in Trinidad ; that it should take the form of a post-graduate course at a University Department of Education in England, either immediately after graduation or a few years later ; that it should be a post-graduate Diploma course taken at the University of the West Indies.

126. We are convinced that in view of the broader general degree course we have outlined for the intending teacher, it would be an intolerable burden to superimpose professional subjects and practical teaching during a three year's course. It is equally impossible to combine professional training with the exacting work of an Honours course. If such a method is attempted neither degree nor professional training will be pursued to the best advantage. We therefore recommend the post-graduate Diploma course, but nevertheless consider that the Professor of Education and his staff should keep in close touch with the intending teacher throughout his degree course.

127. The courses at the proposed Central Training Institute will be of a practical nature and in our opinion are unsuited to the complete professional requirements of secondary school teachers. We are, however, fully aware of the benefits which would accrue to the students of secondary schools from a leaven of teachers who have the non-academic side of their profession very much at heart. They could do much, through their own efforts and through the influence of their students, for the betterment of the whole community. For this reason we are prepared to recommend the institution of periods of study leave for those graduate teachers who wish to take up this aspect of teaching. It may be that a few of the teachers from the primary schools attending the Central Training Institute will possess University Entrance qualifications and for the best of these some form of assistance should be provided, in order that they may enter the University. The work of the Central Training Institute will be of special interest to the University Department of Education and it is our hope that the two organisations will establish a close and co-operative relationship.

128. Fears have been expressed that in adopting this form of professional training for graduates of the University of the West Indies contact with the University Departments of Education abroad will be lost. As already stated it is our intention to maintain and strengthen relations with British and Dominion Universities. For the teachers such contact can be retained if the most promising of their number, after a period of service in the West Indies, are given the opportunity of study abroad. This study would, we think, best take the form of practical experience in secondary schools and in connection with Youth Movements and Adult Education, together with a short course such as is provided by the London University Institute of Education.

129. In brief, we recommend that the intending teacher should choose his own Degree course according to inclination and ability, and that this should be followed by a fourth year post-graduate course in Education taken at the University of the West Indies, with the opportunity of practical experience in the educational field abroad or specialised study at the Central Training Institute in Trinidad.

CHAPTER VIII

RELATIONSHIP WITH OTHER UNIVERSITIES

130. Our recommendation that there should be a University College as a preliminary to an autonomous University throws upon us the responsibility of advising what examinations the West Indian students should take during this first stage. The options can be reduced to two.

131. The first is that the College should grant its own diplomas in lieu of degrees. There may be much to be said for this course where higher education is being developed in an almost virgin field and where there is both the need and the freedom to experiment. It will already be clear to the readers of this report that this is far from being true of the West Indies, and we are convinced from the evidence we received that this system would be wholly unacceptable in these territories. There is no reason, however, as we have remarked in paragraph 71, why the College should not, as a supplementary activity, grant diplomas and certificates and it would, indeed, in this way build up some very valuable experience against the day of its own coming-of-age.

132. The alternative is for the students to work for the degree of some University of standing. We have detailed the reasons which brought us to regard favourably the offer of McGill University to be responsible for professional examinations leading to the award of medical degrees, during the temporary emergency. For Arts and Science we recommend that the examinations for the Degrees of the University of London should be taken. We recognise the long and wide experience of the London University authorities in this sphere and the high repute of the degree they confer. The strongest reason for recommending this course, however, lies in the insistent demand for it in the West Indies. Some of the reasons for this will be self-evident; but it is worth emphasising, as the figures given in Appendix 4 show, that the external Degree of London University has for many years been the traditional goal of those West Indian students who were unable to enter a University.

133. We recognise fully the many criticisms that can be made against a system by which people of one country work upon curricula drawn up in another. We do not, however, see any immediately practicable alternative. We have, moreover, in making this decision, two reasons for encouragement. One is our understanding that the authorities of London University have expressed their willingness to modify their curricula to meet the special needs of overseas students and also to carry out their function, so far as its nature allows, in consultation both with the Inter-University Council and with the teachers in the University Colleges. Our second reason for recommending this plan for the West Indies is our anticipation that the period of academic apprenticeship will be short. We hope and expect that, after a very few years during which it will be earning the hall-mark of the London degree, the College will gain sufficient reputation and self-confidence to award its own.

CHAPTER IX

RESEARCH

134. From the beginning, the University of the West Indies should aim at becoming a centre of higher study and research in varied fields of enquiry. We kept this in mind throughout our tour and in consequence have come to certain opinions as to the lines on which research should be developed in an institution of the type we recommend. The first of our suggestions affects the staffing of the University. That teaching and research must be combined is a principle universally accepted; but the fact is often overlooked that if this dual function is to be discharged effectively the staff must be enlarged beyond the dimensions required for teaching alone. Unless the conditions necessary for the conduct of original research are provided in full measure, results of the first quality are unlikely to be forthcoming. To expect a University professor or lecturer to prosecute research of high standard in the periods of intermittent and scanty leisure remaining after exacting teaching duties have been discharged, is to expect the impossible. Research demands more than zeal and ability. Peace of mind and freedom from interruption are equally necessary. It may not always be possible to secure these conditions, but at least the staff of each department must be large enough to ensure that, by a fair distribution of other academic duties, adequate time is available to each member of the staff to devote a fair proportion of his energies to original work. Only in this way can both teaching and research be made effective in the best sense.

We are satisfied, as regards research both on scientific and sociological problems, that a wide range of subjects is available in the West Indies. From the very nature of research it is impossible to lay down rules as to how it should be conducted. In any event, the growth of research schools within the University will necessarily be slow, but there are certain other features to which we now refer in the hope that they may be found useful.

135. We consider the special case of scientific research, which may be classified approximately under the headings (a) fundamental, *i.e.*, devoted to the search for new knowledge irrespective of any immediate utility or market value; (b) exploratory, which is concerned with the scientific survey, mainly by standard methods, of natural phenomena and natural products of all types; and (c) applied, which consists in the solution of special problems through the utilisation and expansion of existing knowledge, the results being capable of immediate application. It is our opinion that the scientific staff of the University should focus on fundamental and exploratory research. Our reason for this recommendation is that the prestige of a University is determined largely by the scholarly value of the original work which proceeds from it. Efficient teaching is not enough; many Universities provide excellent instruction but only when this is supplemented by published research of high quality will a University earn the appreciation of the outer world. There is another reason. We believe that Professors and other members of the University staff ought not to remain content with being solitary workers, but should enlist the collaboration of senior students and graduates so as to bring into existence "Research Schools" to which, in time, workers from overseas would be attracted. This policy will develop the master-disciple relationship and there is no better way of maturing the scientific habit of mind in young students. In this connection we consider it important to offer a word of caution. A danger which we foresee as likely to be encountered in the West Indies resides in the attractions of utilitarian research. Indeed, we formed the opinion that in the West Indies the objective of research work is not fully understood and almost invariably scientific research is regarded merely as the quest for discoveries capable of immediate application. There is, of course, need in every country for those who can apply research to the practical affairs of life, but

applied research should not be assigned to students who have not undergone the discipline of pure research and acquired the corresponding technique.

136. Although we ascribe first importance to the prosecution of fundamental research we consider that the University should not stand aloof from engaging in applied research likely to be of value to the West Indies. Work of this description should be carried out only by mature workers, and it is probable that such workers will be assigned to the University to investigate specific problems and that they will not be in the fullest sense members of the University. Recognition of the important part which can be played in this way by the University lends added force to our plea for swift action. If the research projects envisaged by the Anglo-American Caribbean Conference, and equally those of other organisations interested in the region, are carried into effect, it is probable that part of the work could most appropriately be carried out in the British West Indies. At present, the University of Puerto Rico is the only institution of University rank in the area and it would be a source of regret to us if the University of the West Indies did not, from its inception, join in these activities to the fullest possible extent. We hope, indeed, that it will enter into both fraternal partnership and fraternal rivalry with its neighbour.

137. The position of sociological research, and indeed of most of the research work coming within the compass of the Faculty of Arts, is free from the danger of becoming associated with enquiry into purely technical questions. We have already stated our belief that the West Indies provide abundant opportunity for economic, historical and sociological research in the widest sense. The territories show great variety in their political and racial situations and histories while they sometimes present the same general problems with interesting local differences. To begin with, the research workers will experience difficulties through lack of reference and library facilities, and every effort should be made to build up the library in the shortest possible period. It must be admitted that in some subjects, such, for example, as history outside the special West Indian field, and most linguistic studies, the West Indies cannot offer facilities to the research worker. Nevertheless, the prospect opened out here in a wide range of studies is certainly no less urgent and stimulating than it is in Science and, indeed, we find it difficult to resist the temptation to enlarge upon the intellectual adventures that are waiting in this field.

138. So important do we consider this aspect of the work of the University that we think it desirable to appoint on the staff persons who have shown capacity for research even when, on grounds of the number of students who would require their teaching, this action would appear premature. They could not be better engaged than in building up, especially upon West Indian phenomena, new material which will be of the greatest value to their pupils, thus communicating to the young University the atmosphere and character of an institution devoted to learning.

CHAPTER X

EXTRA-MURAL DEPARTMENT

139. Throughout the West Indies the great majority of adults and of adolescents are without opportunities for intellectual activities. In the principal towns there exist Libraries and Museums as well as facilities for the promotion of public lectures and exhibitions. These institutions are an asset to the cities in which they are placed but they do not provide systematic

courses of instruction. With the help of the British Council, a central library scheme is being developed for Trinidad and the neighbouring colonies, while plans are now being made for the extension of library services throughout Jamaica. It remains true, however, that facilities for adult education are pitifully inadequate.

140. After generations of neglect there is to-day a growing demand for adult education within the West Indies. In most of the colonies there has been a marked increase in the number of cultural clubs and societies, and among these a tendency toward association is discernable. The efforts that are being made require co-ordination and assistance.

141. The present political awakening and the growth of a social consciousness make urgent the need for the wide dissemination of knowledge and the creation of an informed public opinion. We feel that a vigorous Extra-Mural Department at the University of the West Indies could play an important part in supplying this pressing need. There are many ways in which the Department could assist the community to acquire a wide diversity of interest and experience. These would include refresher and vacation courses and lectures in a wide range of subjects, week-end conferences and tutorial classes. At the same time the Extra-Mural Department would be the channel through which many graduates of the University could serve the community.

142. We therefore recommend the establishment of a Department of Extra-Mural studies under a Director. The importance of the Department should be emphasised by giving to the Director the status, though not the title, of a Professor, with the right to a seat in the Senate. Extra-Mural centres should be established in Barbados, British Guiana, British Honduras, Trinidad, Jamaica, the Leeward Islands and the Windward Islands. Each Centre should be in the charge of a Resident Tutor who would be a member of the University staff. These officers should work in close co-operation with the Directors of Education and with any existing agencies for adult education in the areas concerned. It would be the duty of such officers to use local ability to the best advantage and no doubt they would be able to enlist the help of members of the central University staff. These additional services by the staff should, as in Britain, be remunerated. At each Centre the Tutor should be provided with an office and with secretarial help.

143. The course of studies given should proceed along three main lines,

(1) general cultural subjects such as, for example, Political Science, Economics, Public Administration, Music, Drama, Languages and Literature. These courses should be essentially educative rather than vocational. The instruction given may be useful for professional purposes but this should never be regarded as a primary objective ;

(2) public lectures and series of lectures by visitors from the University or from abroad and the utilisation of every available means of presenting artistic achievement to the community ;

(3) refresher courses for teachers, social welfare workers and farmers organised in co-operation with the Government or voluntary organisations concerned.

144. We recognise that the smaller colonies present special difficulties. It will probably be necessary for the Tutors in the Windward and Leeward Islands to inspire volunteers to act as organisers in each of the Islands in the group and to arrange for occasional visits of selected persons from these islands to one of the larger centres for refresher courses or to attend residential summer courses at the University. We recommend that special consideration should be given to the needs of these smaller colonies.

145. We recommend also, that should a student attending Extra-Mural courses in any colony reveal unusual ability and outstanding perseverance in following his chosen studies, a maintenance scholarship should be provided to enable him or her to enter the University as a full-time student.

146. The radio, the educational film and the gramophone will be particularly valuable in the work of the Department. We understand that plans are now being made for developing a broadcasting service for the eastern section of the West Indies from British Guiana and we suggest that the Tutor for Extra-Mural work in Georgetown should work in close co-operation with those in control of this service.

147. The University would thus spread its influence widely throughout the West Indies and affect powerfully the life of the several colonies. The proposal for a decentralised Department of Extra-Mural Studies was welcomed by all witnesses, especially those who were inclined to criticise the proposal to establish a central University on the ground that its benefits would be confined to one colony.

148. During the period of probation as a University College much valuable evidence as to the intellectual requirements of the community and the types of courses required to satisfy them could be gained through the activities of the Extra-Mural Department. It is important, therefore, that its creation should not be delayed until the University achieves full autonomy.

CHAPTER XI

ENTRANCE AND SCHOLARSHIP EXAMINATIONS

149. We recognise that although preparation for entrance to a University must be a subsidiary function of a secondary school it is nevertheless of vital importance to a University to have the assurance that prospective entrant students have been educated on sound lines. In addition, as the recruitment of students to a West Indian University must of necessity be linked with the award of scholarships, we considered it our duty to study the secondary schools of the individual colonies and to obtain direct evidence on the working of the scholarship scheme. We have no doubt of the excellent material available and are confident that the new University will have a first class complement of students.

150. We cannot, however, emphasise too strongly the pernicious effect on secondary education in the West Indies, as elsewhere, of the present practice of awarding scholarships by competition in the Higher School Certificate examination. It has involved the concentration of the best available teaching resources of the secondary schools on the few brilliant pupils; it has meant that boys and girls who show promise at an early age are crammed in the few subjects they will offer for the scholarship examination years later; it has led to pupils attempting the examination, as a speculative trial, one year after gaining the School Certificate, and to repetition of the examination year after year with unfortunate mental and physical results for those candidates who have not been exceptional. Even the successful candidates would undoubtedly have gained more from their subsequent university life had they been spared this intense preliminary concentration in highly specialised study.

151. Much of this abuse of an examination which was intended for quite different purposes is due to rivalry between the secondary schools, the value

and scarcity of scholarships and to the commercial value of a degree. We have stated elsewhere our ideas of the purpose of university training and the part the University should play in the life of the community as a whole and it is upon these ideas that our recommendations are based.

152. Much educational opinion in Britain is in revolt against using the Higher School Certificate Examination as evidence of outstanding intellectual ability or as the sole criterion for the award of scholarships to a University. The tendency is to bring such examinations back to their proper role of providing proof of satisfactory work during the last two years of secondary school study and of ability to profit by further education in a University. These last two years of secondary education should have the effect of strengthening the student's knowledge and of broadening his outlook. While he should be required to specialise in one or more subjects, attention should also be paid to the development of general ability, character and personality.

If reform in this direction is carried through in England, the Higher School Certificate Examination might become a reasonable means of assessing intellectual fitness.

153. The minimum entrance qualification at the University College stage will naturally have to be governed by the Matriculation requirements of the degree-granting University; but if the problem of selecting entrants arises, something more will be necessary. For this reason we recommend that, as part of the entrance examination, candidates must be interviewed personally and their complete school records taken into consideration. We found that the keeping of records of school work was not a standard practice of West Indian schools and we consider that it would be of assistance to the Heads of Secondary schools, in compiling such records, if the University were to indicate the points on which it desired information about a student seeking admission. There are potential dangers in using the school records in this way, but we believe that if they are employed as supplementary evidence and carefully checked, they should prove of value.

154. The marks obtained in the entrance examination prescribed by the parent University should not be the sole determining factor in the award of scholarships. To avoid the harmful effects of using one examination for a dual purpose we recommend that the University College should conduct its own scholarship examinations. When the University obtains full autonomy it should conduct its own entrance and scholarship examinations designed on the broad lines we have indicated above.

155. It is of the greatest importance that State help towards the creation of scholarships should be generous. If the prestige and standards of the new institution are to be maintained and if its benefits are to be widely spread, such scholarships at the undergraduate level should be tenable only at the University of the West Indies. In this way the University will secure as students the best of the youth of both sexes. It has been pointed out to us that the individual colonies will not easily be persuaded to dissociate their chief scholarships from study at Universities overseas; but, as we have pointed out in para 31, we are convinced that such study could best be met at the graduate level though not necessarily in post-graduate work in the accepted sense.

156. The scholarships should, however, be differentiated. Each local awarding authority would be capable of selecting its own scholars when they leave school. The University is, however, the best authority to select graduates for overseas scholarships and must normally be trusted to do so. Ideally such scholarships should be open, to the best West Indian talent, regardless of its place of origin, but if local patriotism makes this course unacceptable to the

legislatures from whom most of the money must necessarily come, it would be possible as at present, to reserve Trinidad money for Trinidad scholars, Barbadian for Barbadians and so on.

157. Finally, the status of Scholar should be awarded without regard to the means of the candidate, and the eleemosynary system, well proved at Oxford and Cambridge during the past twenty years, should be adopted and financial assistance be given according to means. We believe that those who can afford to pay for the University education of their sons and daughters will prefer to do so and will be content with the honour of the scholarship in order that State help may be applied where it is most needed.

CHAPTER XII

THE UNIVERSITY BUILDINGS

158. We do not presume to make precise recommendations regarding the design of the University buildings but in the course of our travels we paid careful attention to the problems which should be borne in mind in dealing with the erection of academic buildings in the West Indian environment. We have recommended that an area of from 150 to 200 acres should be set aside for the University and we venture the opinion that the lay-out of the grounds and the design of the buildings should be entrusted to an architect with experience in the tropics. The building group should not be an imitation of the ancient Universities of Britain but should have a distinctive character of its own.

159. We envisage a main block of buildings to accommodate the administrative offices, and a central hall suitable for public academic occasions and adaptable for dramatic and musical performances. The main block should also carry the Arts lecture rooms and seminar rooms, together with accommodation for the Departments of Extra-Mural Studies and Education.

160. The library should occupy a central position but should be a separate building in order to lessen fire risks. In the case of the library, as in most of the buildings, care must be taken to allow for easy extension. Both for convenience and in the interests of safety the scientific subjects involving laboratory instruction should be accommodated in separate blocks, one for chemistry and physics, one for the three remaining subjects in the faculty of Science, and one for the pre-clinical medical subjects, anatomy and physiology. The location of the remaining medical buildings, whether in the vicinity of the teaching hospital or within the University precincts, cannot be decided at this stage. Experience has shown that both economy and efficiency are secured by the establishment of a well-equipped central work-shop rather than by the customary system of attaching a small workshop to each Department.

161. Although dispersion of the buildings is necessary an attempt should be made to embody them in a single architectural group but the quadrangular arrangement should be avoided so as to get the benefit of the prevailing wind. The student residences should be in close proximity to the academic buildings but residences for the staff are most appropriately distributed in the grounds so as to ensure the maximum amount of privacy. The arrangements we suggest bear a general resemblance to the lay-out of buildings and grounds at the Indian Institute of Science at Bangalore where the result is both practical and picturesque.

162. There should be, initially, five residences each capable of accommodating 100 students. Students from different faculties and from different colonies

should be members of each residence. Four of these residences should be reserved for men and one for women. This allocation is based on the number of boys and girls who at present qualify for entrance to a University. The residential scheme should be on the basis of each student occupying a study-bedroom but provision should be made for a common room and for one or two rooms to be set aside as studies. Any tendency towards making these residences merely dormitories should be scrupulously avoided. For this reason minor variations should be introduced into the design and furnishing of the rooms. The residences should be regarded almost as colleges and in consequence ought not to be referred to as hostels or dormitories. The students will do more than eat and sleep within the premises ; they will carry out the main part of their studies there and have ample opportunity for that exchange of ideas which we have advocated as essential to complete education. There should also be quarters in each residence for the Warden, for one or two Regents (see Appendix 5) and for a few guests. It would be desirable to provide running water in each study-bedroom. Each residence should have its own kitchen department and dining hall.

163. Economy in working should be secured by adopting the system of central stores and central catering, but the accounts for each residence should be kept separate and the expenditure framed so that each unit will be self-supporting. The charge to the individual student should be uniform. In the early years of the scheme, when the residences will not be fully occupied, it will not be possible to make each residence self-supporting but this objective is one which ought to be secured as soon as the total enrolment reaches 300. In our trial budget we have assumed that as students from a distance will travel home only for the long vacation, they will be in residence for approximately 40 weeks in the year.

The Students Union building should be in a central position and not far removed either from the library or from the residences.

164. We were repeatedly urged to make provision for a non-denominational University Chapel and while we agree fully with such a suggestion we consider that this very desirable part of University life might well be provided by the people of the Colonies concerned. In the lay-out of the University buildings sites, for a future Chapel or Chapels, should be set aside and we leave it to the Friends of the University (see para. 176) and others interested to see to it that the site is appropriately filled.

165. In an area of the size we have stipulated it should be possible to ensure that the sports ground, pavilion, gymnasium, swimming pool and central workshop are sufficiently removed from the main academic buildings to avoid any inconvenience from noise. These buildings might well be separated from the academic block and residences by a screen of trees.

CHAPTER XIII

FINANCE

166. Only by means of a University of the type we advocate can the need of the West Indies for enlightened and self-sacrificing leadership and for the maintenance of high standards of professional competence and ethics be adequately served. If success in this new venture in Higher Education is to be achieved, vision, courage and generosity must be shown by all concerned.

167. Our recommendations are interlocked in such a manner that the

adoption of our proposals only in part would fail to achieve the objectives we regard as essential. It is true that the initial step we recommend is the creation of a University College, but this covers only a passing phase and it would be fatal to be content with the financial requirements of a University College. Our scheme is for the establishment of a University and nothing less. The institution, even when passing through the intermediate stage of a College, should be staffed and equipped on the standards required for a University and provision must be made for future expansion both in numbers of students and extension of the curriculum. It is on this basis that our estimates have been designed. From the very beginning of our enquiry it became evident that, unless substantial financial help, both from within and from without the West Indies, were forthcoming, no University worthy of the name would be possible. It is in the faith that this financial help will be given in generous measure that we make recommendations which may appear out of perspective when viewed in relation to the financial resources of the West Indies.

168. We desire to make it clear that the establishment of a University of the West Indies should not be allowed to prejudice the excellent and timely plans for primary, secondary and technical education already put forward or in preparation by the Comptroller for Development and Welfare. Nevertheless, we are in no doubt that if the West Indies are to realise the expressed intention of His Majesty's Government and achieve full partnership in the British Commonwealth of Nations, the immediate establishment of a University College is essential and will more than justify the considerable cost involved.

169. We have endeavoured to estimate in the form of a budget the initial capital outlay and the recurring annual expenditure which will be necessary. The estimates are framed to meet the requirements of the University when it first comes into full working operation and they therefore represent figures, both for income and expenditure, which will not be reached immediately. In the initial period, when both staff and students are being recruited, the budget will naturally assume a very different form but it is our desire to forecast the ultimate financial commitments involved so that the plan as a whole can be accepted now.

170. The figures given in Appendix 7 are necessarily approximate but they are not entirely conjectural as they have been derived from a careful study of expenditure in existing Universities. They are quoted mainly to give an idea of the financial dimensions of our problem. So far as initial capital cost is concerned, the figures are based on the current building rates in the Caribbean. In our estimate of recurring expenditure we have taken into account not only the cost of living in the West Indies but have also considered the salary conditions necessary to attract that high quality of staff which we regard as vital to the success of the University. It may be added that the number and nature of the teaching posts scheduled in Appendix 6 represent only the minimum appointments which will be required in the first instance. Enlargement of the staff will be necessary as teaching requirements expand.

171. We have classified the cost of establishment and maintenance of the University under the headings :—

- (a) Cost of site,
- (b) Capital cost of buildings and equipment,
- (c) Provision for Endowment for Chairs and Research Fund,
- (d) Salaries of staff,
- (e) Assistance to students in the form of scholarships, maintenance allowances and loans,
- (f) Regents, whose duties are explained in Appendix 5,
- (g) Library and library services,

- (h) Annual departmental grants and Publication Fund,
- (i) Extra-Mural Fund.

We consider it necessary to make a few explanatory notes on some of the headings listed above.

(a) Cost of site

172. We hope that Jamaica will provide the site as a free gift. If the University can be built on Government land this should not be expensive but we are convinced that the cost of the site should not be a deciding factor in the location of the University. We emphasise the view expressed in paragraphs 52 and 58 that it should not be nearer than six nor further than twenty miles from Kingston and that 150 to 200 acres should be available. We realise that a tract of land of this area may be relatively expensive but would point out that Jamaica, as the home of the University, will gain considerable advantages, financial and otherwise, from the presence of the staff and students. We suggest, therefore, that it is reasonable to expect Jamaica to present the site of the University without any corresponding reduction from the share of annual maintenance costs which Jamaica should bear with the other contributing Colonies.

(b) Capital cost..... (estimate) £1,130,000.

173. It appears to us that the only practicable way of meeting capital cost would be by a special grant from Imperial revenue. The Colonies cannot hope to meet these charges on the requisite scale no matter how convinced the West Indian people may be of the value of the scheme or however anxious they may be to have it brought into operation.

(c) Endowments, Chairs and Research Fund.....£500,000

174. To minimise the effects of changes of fortune and to ensure the continuance of the University through hard times, we recommend that certain essential activities should be endowed. For this purpose some of the Chairs are chosen and we estimate that a capital sum of £300,000 will be needed. Another feature worthy of permanent endowment is the Research Fund and for this purpose we suggest a capital sum of £200,000. Endowment of this nature would go far toward assuring the future of the University and would give a feeling of confidence alike to the people of the West Indies and the Council of the University.

175. The purposes of a research fund are self-evident. Since it is impossible to regulate research so as to conform to a standard annual grant, we suggest that, as in the case of the publications fund, there should be an annual vote from the Council, drawn from the research endowment fund, and that unspent balances should be carried forward to meet exceptional expenditure in any one year. Such a scheme would be valuable as a means of attracting research workers of the first rank.

176. There must be a number of West Indian citizens whose pride in the University would find expression in generous help. Wealthy firms also, whose prosperity is linked with the development of the region, will wish to support the University of the West Indies. We have in mind the impetus our scheme of endowments would give to private benefactors. We also accept the suggestion put forward by one of our witnesses that a Society of Friends of the University should be formed with branches in each of the Colonies concerned. The activities of such a society would include the enlisting and maintaining of public enthusiasm which would find expression in the collection of funds applicable generally to the University.

(d) Teaching and Administrative Salaries, including Superannuation
.....£90,750 per annum. -

It should be noted that of the above total no more than £59,620 will be required immediately in order to bring into operation the Faculties of Arts and Science. The remainder viz. £31,130 will become a charge in the budget only when the Faculty of Medicine is fully established.

177. It is not within our province to make detailed recommendations regarding the salaries attaching to each post, as these should be determined by the appointing body; but we were obliged to give much attention to the general levels of stipends and it is necessary to mention the factors which have guided us in drawing up the figures appearing in our tentative budget. On first inspection these figures may appear to be disproportionately high when viewed in relation to the salary scales in the West Indies and the general economic and financial conditions of these Colonies. We wish to make it clear, however, that our figures represent upper limits and that our financial proposals are intended to apply exclusively to first appointments and ought not to be regarded as stabilised or as applicable to future appointments.

178. Our contention, emphasised more than once, that it is vital to provide the new University College with a staff of first-rate quality, acquires special significance in the making of the first appointments. It may be predicted that the first filling of Chairs and Readerships will involve the appointment of men and women from Britain and the Dominions. From what sources the staff may be recruited at later stages is not our immediate concern. We have to meet conditions as they exist to-day and in consequence our salary proposals have been adjusted to a level higher than that to which some of our members would have agreed if the salaries suggested were intended to apply to other than first appointments. In making future appointments it will be necessary for the Council to review salaries from time to time and to adjust them to conditions as they may then exist.

179. It must be kept in mind, when these figures are studied, that the first men and women appointed will have to do pioneer work in making the first contacts with the student body, in co-operating with a new Council, in building up their departments and in founding the reputation and traditions of the future University. Between them they should bring to the West Indies a large store of experience of University teaching and administration: it is for this reason that the great majority of the initial staff will have to be found in Britain and the Dominions.

180. If the best University teachers are to be attracted to the West Indies, it will be necessary to offer salaries somewhat higher than those current in their own countries. Appointment to these regions means uprooting men from their accustomed surroundings and interrupting assured careers; it may mean isolating scholars from their research material and intellectual contacts, and disturbing family life and the education of children. It is these considerations and the certainty that British University salaries are about to be revised upwards that have led us to recommend this scale of salaries. A uniform and maximum rate has been set down for each category of teacher, but the Appointing Body could, of course, adjust this within the grade according to seniority or other considerations.

181. The guarantee of an adequate stipend, however, is not the only factor affecting the recruitment of staff from overseas. A zealous and successful University officer may find it impossible to adapt himself permanently to tropical conditions and in consequence it may become desirable that he should return home. The reasonable fear that such return may not be possible without serious loss of academic status may often deter suitable men from accepting positions abroad. Experience has shown that in academic life it is specially hazardous to break away from the normal route of promotion by transferring to a University position overseas.

182. The vigour of the academic life of the University, in teaching and research, will depend in large measure on maintaining a proportion of staff from abroad. As experience has shown in other Universities, it would be fatal policy if the University of the West Indies became self-contained in the sense of recruiting its staff entirely from local sources and, in consequence, we should look forward to a permanent condition in which part of the staff is drawn from overseas. At the same time, we envisage the entry from the first of West Indians into the teaching ranks of their own University, and we hope that their numbers will increase until they occupy a large number of the posts.*

183. A travelling allowance should be allocated to meet the expenses involved in transferring a new member of the staff and his family and effects to the University both from overseas or from other parts of the West Indies.

* Miss Perham has written the following note upon this section.

" I am in agreement with the contents of paragraphs 177 to 182 but I should prefer to state in unambiguous terms that we recommend these rates of salary only for overseas appointments. I give three reasons for this :—

i. I do not think it would be right to ask the British Government to give an endowment for salaries at this rate, which is higher than that now paid for the same grades in many British Universities, except on the understanding that it would apply only to posts filled from the highly competitive field overseas and not to those from the relatively sheltered market of the West Indies.

ii. I regard it as probable that the number of overseas appointments will enter upon a progressive decline in a very few years. I certainly think this would be desirable. The experience of my tour has given me faith that from among West Indians of all races there will be a growing number of first-class candidates who will have graduated from their own University and have undertaken further studies elsewhere. At the same time, as the proportion of non-West Indian staff decreases, so there will, with the growth of the University, be an increase in the total number of posts. If the salaries are fixed upon a scale adjusted to West Indian rates and economic realities, then the original endowment can be spread to support a somewhat larger number of appointments, while the creation of still further posts will not be an excessive demand upon the restricted colonial revenues which will have to meet their cost.

iii. On general principles I do not think it desirable, in a country where the incomes of the great mass of the people are at a very low level, that the salaries of one section of the professional classes should be made equal to, still less higher than, those paid in a much wealthier country. The results are likely to be socially and financially disturbing.

One way of solving a problem which is likely to arise in other parts of the Empire, would be for the Imperial Government to set aside part of its endowment in such a way that the revenue from it could be administered by the proposed inter-University body in Britain in the form of expatriation allowances upon settled scales. The appointments could still be freely made by the appointing body of the Colonial College or University but those appointed from overseas would be able to apply for the allowance. This method would relieve the Colonial Universities of the financial and some other difficulties of this supplementary payment. If the scheme could be put on an Empire-wide basis the allowances could continue to be paid each way : thus, teachers domiciled in the Colonies and appointed to overseas Universities would be eligible for their allowances whenever it was necessary to bring the salary up to the agreed and uniform " overseas rate ". As, in the latter category, the numbers involved would probably be less, and as, in time, the number of staff appointed to Colonial Universities from outside the Colonies would decrease, the demands upon the fund would become progressively smaller, until the greater part of the capital could revert to the Imperial Government or the revenues be allocated to some other purpose in the sphere of higher education."

M.P.

* Note by the Chairman

" I agree with Miss Perham's note.

J.C.I."

* Note by Mr. P. M. Sherlock and Mr. H. W. Springer upon this Section :—

" We are firmly of the opinion that there should never be any distinction made between the salaries paid to members of the University staff in the same grade whether they are recruited in the West Indies or from overseas."

P.M.S.
H.W.S.

We would go further than this. We hope that the Council will make generous provision to allow members of the staff to travel at intervals to Britain and elsewhere to pursue research and to maintain intellectual contact with the outer world.

184. We have made provision in our estimates to enable the staff of the University to join the Federated Superannuation Scheme for Universities. This involves a contribution from University funds of ten per cent of all salaries towards pension and five per cent from contributing teachers. We are aware that this is more generous than the majority of West Indian pension schemes, but it is the proportion of superannuation payment standardised in Britain as the contribution of Universities to the scheme.

(e) Assistance to students.....£13,000

185. Substantial financial assistance to students will be necessary; such assistance should take the form of scholarships, maintenance grants and loans. Scholarships have been fully discussed in Chapter XI.

LOAN FUND

186. A loan fund is operated successfully by many Universities to-day. A number of witnesses suggested to us this means of financing students who are economically borderline cases and we include a sum of £5,000 in the above figure for this purpose. Loan funds need careful administration. We suggest that the loan fund should be used primarily for students who have already entered the University and have shown satisfactory prospects of being able to complete their studies successfully but whose financial circumstances have subsequently changed for the worse. No interest should be charged but there should be an acceptable guarantee of repayment by a fixed date after graduation.

Transportation Expenses£5,000

187. The large and varying distances which students will have to cover in travelling to and from the central University each year would involve considerable expense to parents whose homes are in more distant parts of the Caribbean. We are of the opinion that this liability should be met by an annual vote from University revenue which would mean that all the Colonies, including Jamaica, would be contributors.

(f) Regents £2,000

188. The students of the University should be accorded every reasonable freedom, but they should be supervised in their studies and be subject to discipline appropriate to the privileged position they hold as members of the University. This can be achieved by the appointment of Regents (see Appendix 5), to each of whom would be assigned a group of students numbering not more than twenty. It would be a Regent's duty to follow up his students' performance in class work and he would play the part of friend by helping them in personal matters as well as in their relations with the University. Normally, Regents would hold teaching posts in the University; our estimate is based on the assumption that the fee payable to Regents would be nominal.

(g) Library and Library Services.....Capital £60,000
Recurring £3,000

189. The Librarian of a University is the head of a major Department which vitally influences both teaching and research. For this reason we propose for him the status of a member of the Senate with professorial stipend. The West Indies are peculiarly ill-equipped in respect of library facilities and it will require vigorous action to build up a library appropriate to a University.

In our budget we have allowed a sum of £40,000 for the library building, a further sum of £20,000 for initial book purchases and an annual grant of £3,000 for books, periodicals and binding. It may reasonably be expected that this effort to create a new University library will be supported by gifts and donations from organisations endowed to promote education and culture.

(h) Annual Departmental Grants	£4,000
Annual Grant to Publication Fund	£2,000

190. The figure of £4,000 for Departmental Maintenance should be accurate since these recurrent expenses do not greatly differ from one University to another. £1,000 annually is included to cover the activities of the Extra-mural Department, in addition to the provision made in Appendix 7 B. (i).

A publications fund is not invariably a feature of a University budget, but is, in our opinion, especially important to the success of any University serving a comparatively isolated and scattered region. Admittedly research results of good quality can generally secure publication through the journals of the learned Societies but many subjects of research and of general interest are not readily accommodated within the ambit of these societies and publication may in consequence be denied or delayed. In addition, when the results of scholarly work can be adequately presented only in monograph or book form, publishers may hesitate in the case of an unknown author to undertake publication without guarantee against loss. The position can be safeguarded and the efforts of the University staff encouraged by the issue of a series of University publications financed from a Publications Fund. This fund should be initiated and maintained by annual votes from the Council and unspent balances should be carried forward to reserve.

191. There remains a considerable balance of recurring expenditure to be met by the Colonies who will be the immediate recipients of the benefits of the University. It is not our function to decide how that responsibility should be distributed but we have endeavoured so to frame our recommendations as to reduce to a minimum the cost to the individual colonies. We recommend that Colonial contributions should be voted and approved as quinquennial grants to the University and should not be placed on the basis of an annual vote.

192. It is of first importance that the University Council should be entirely free from political or Government control. Contributions voted to the University by Colonial Governments to cover recurring expenditure should in no case be earmarked for a specific purpose, but should be paid into the General Fund of the University to be administered solely by the Council who would be responsible for the distribution of all funds at its disposal.

CHAPTER XIV

CONCLUSION

193. We have now presented the case for the foundation of a University in the West Indies. We have not minimised the difficulties, but we believe that the effort required to overcome them would be justified by the contribution which a University could make to the education, the social and political development, and even, ultimately, the material prosperity of this group of colonies.

194. We believe that the time to decide and to act is now. Opinion in Britain at this moment, in spite of its overwhelming preoccupation with the war, is more alert to the needs of the colonies than it has been for very many

years. Britain and the colonies are engaged together in a supreme common effort ; the West Indian peoples have played their full part, and had the circumstances permitted, they would have been eager to send even more of their sons and daughters to serve overseas. When, after the war, the British government and people turn to face the many complex problems of peace and demobilisation, it may not be so easy as it would be now to obtain a clear and generous decision. At this moment, the Commission upon Higher Education in the Colonies, of which we are a Committee, is reviewing the whole field of higher education in the colonies, and is directing the attention of the British Universities upon the methods by which they can co-operate with the Colonial Universities and assist the younger and nascent institutions of the Empire. In the West Indies to-day there is a measure of suspicion and uneasiness, because, largely owing to war conditions, the promises of the Imperial Government have much outpaced performance. The despatch of our Committee has inevitably raised the strongest hopes that in this instance action will result. If, after the presentation of this report, our plan should be rejected or seriously curtailed it is unlikely that the West Indies will for a very long period have the advantage of a worthy centre of higher education, and this new disappointment would increase the sense of frustration.

195. It is worth remembering, in this connection, that the people of the West Indies, unlike those of most other parts of the Colonial Empire, are already literate as regards a high percentage of the population, and literate in English, which has for at least 150 years, and in many instances for longer, been the mother tongue of the great majority. The societies in the colonies have, moreover, been built up according to the British political and cultural pattern. It is to Britain that they look for practical help and for inspiration when they undertake measures of reform and development. Although full use is made of the characteristic British liberty to criticise the Government, both Colonial and Imperial, we found everywhere the strongest loyalty towards Britain and a deep affection and respect for British traditions and institutions. In spite of a most friendly attitude towards our American allies and a readiness to accept the necessity of the lease to them of the bases, there was profound satisfaction at the Prime Minister's reassurance that there was to be no change of sovereignty. The dominion of English language and culture, viewed, moreover, in conjunction with the proportion of the population which has for long received secondary and higher education, means that the West Indians are more ready than the peoples of some other colonies to make immediate use of a University established in their midst.

196. The forms of Imperial control and even of influence are changing in response to the changing needs of to-day, and the time is coming for the Colonies, as it did for the Dominions, when the bond of a common culture and the strengthening of ties of an unofficial and often invisible kind will assume greater importance than the forms of constitutional authority. There could be no gift from Britain more rich in its future possibilities than that which we now recommend, and no more valuable relationship than a fraternity between a University of the West Indies and those of Britain, the Commonwealth and the Empire.

197. The gift of this institution would be both a fitting and a logical climax of British policy towards this group of Colonies. A few years ago the centenary of the abolition of slavery was celebrated in England and in the West Indies. The Act of Abolition of 1833, which cost the British people twenty million pounds, representing then, of course, a much larger sum than now, was a great achievement, but it was negative in character. It was said, a few years after the event, that it freed a race but failed to create a society. This latter task, given the economic and social ideas and administrative methods of the time, could not have been achieved quickly. How much still

remained to be done in the West Indies a century later was made clear by the events and investigations which took place just before the outbreak of the present war.

198. It was as a result of these revelations that the Imperial Government, through the machinery of the Colonial Development and Welfare Act and the appointment of a Comptroller General for the West Indies, went into a new kind of partnership with the Colonial Governments. Together they have worked out a comprehensive programme of social, economic and educational reforms which only await the end of the war for their full execution. On the political side important changes have been enacted in some of the colonial constitutions in order to bring the great mass of the coloured population within the franchise. In inter-colonial affairs, every effort is being made to bring about closer relationships. Together these two developments should make possible the achievement by the British West Indies of self-governing status within the British Commonwealth of Nations. In the international sphere, the still wider conception of regional co-operation is being furthered by the Anglo-American Caribbean Commission and the Caribbean Conference.

199. To all these important and hopeful experiments we regard our recommendation as the essential complement in the sphere of higher education. We would, indeed, go so far as to say that they cannot achieve full success unless as the centre for research, for professional training, for the making of leaders, and the development of a spirit of inter-racial and inter-colonial co-operation, there shall be established in the immediate future a University of the West Indies.

J. C. IRVINE, *Chairman*

MARGERY PERHAM

P. M. SHERLOCK

HUGH W. SPRINGER

RAYMOND PRIESTLEY

THOMAS R. ROWELL, *Secretary*

August, 1944.

ANNEXURE

EXTRACT FROM THE REPORT OF THE MAIN COMMISSION*

We have enunciated the principles which in our opinion are fundamental in the development of higher education in the Colonial Empire. But as we have already indicated, we have not assumed that these general principles will be capable of universal application. We recognise that modifications may be necessary in particular cases to accommodate the varying circumstances encountered in different sections of the Colonial field. It is possible for us now to test the application of these general principles to a definite Colonial area, and for this purpose we give in some detail a summary of the findings of the Committee which has reported on the provision of university education in the West Indies. We have already explained in Chapter I of our report the circumstances in which this Committee was appointed, and have expressed our great appreciation of the manner in which it conducted its investigation.

At the date on which the Committee left this country our own deliberations as a Commission had not proceeded far enough to justify the formulation of comprehensive general principles and, in consequence, it was necessary for the Committee to exercise considerable latitude in the conduct of its enquiry. It was the primary duty of the Committee to examine the educational needs of a particular area, to recommend action appropriate to the geographical, social, racial and economic factors forming the background to the educational problems confronting it. Its approach to these problems was essentially practical and, in considerable measure, the educational survey of the West Indies was carried out as an independent investigation.

In these circumstances it is particularly gratifying to us to find that the detailed scheme recommended by the Committee for the establishment of a University of the West Indies is consistent with our own findings, and contains no important element at variance with the fundamental principles we have formulated. We have no hesitation in giving support to the recommendations which the Committee has made. There is, however, one point, namely, the provision to be made for training in medicine, on which some members of the Commission who did not form part of the West Indies Committee find it necessary to reserve an opinion, in the circumstances to which we shall refer more fully in the concluding section of this chapter. As will appear there, our hesitation is not due to any difference on a question of principle, but to the fact that circumstances have subsequently arisen which seem to some of us to require further consideration before it is possible to arrive at a final recommendation.

2. A SUMMARY OF THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

(a) Proposal for the early creation of a university

The Committee considered that the evidence forthcoming justified a firm recommendation that a university should be provided in the West Indies at the earliest possible date. Indeed, throughout its report repeated emphasis is laid on the necessity for swift action. Good intellectual material is available in the West Indies, and the work of the secondary schools attains a high standard, but only a small proportion of the pupils from these schools can hope to obtain a university education. Under existing conditions, the opportunity for further study must be sought overseas and, in consequence, is limited to the selected few.

The Committee draws attention to the fact that in each of the Colonies of the West Indies there is a body of public opinion which holds enlightened views on the ultimate purpose of university education; despite years of dis-

* Reproduced from Chapter 21 of Command Paper 6647, see footnote to page 11.

couragement, these small groups have not ceased to hope and even to plan for the realisation of schemes designed to promote access to advantages which are recognised as more than material. Attention is also directed to the expansion of the franchise and other legislative changes which have lately been carried out or are now in contemplation in the West Indies. The Committee emphasises the desirability of preparing for these advances by raising the general level of higher education and thereby adding to the intellectual equipment of those on whom the responsibility of leadership will increasingly rest. These factors, taken in conjunction with the need to educate a steady succession of West Indian students for professional life in the West Indies, combine to make the argument in favour of immediate university development exceptionally strong. There were not wanting some critics who, at first, opposed the idea that a university in the West Indies is necessary, but their objections were generally founded either on the fear that the special advantage of education overseas would thereby be lost to West Indians or that a university might fail to obtain recognition by other universities of the Empire through lack of staff and equipment of the necessary quality. For the most part, these objections were withdrawn when it was explained that the scheme envisaged by the Committee was based on the provision of teaching and administrative staff of the first rank, and that the opportunities for study overseas, in place of being curtailed, would in fact be increased.

(b) A unitary university recommended

It is of first importance to note that the Committee recommends the establishment of a unified university and rejects the alternative of federated colleges being set up in the different Colonies to function as constituents of a degree-granting university. This decision is emphatic. Bearing in mind the existence of a considerable measure of inter-island rivalry, the Committee took pains to discuss in each of the Colonies visited the advantages and disadvantages of the alternative schemes. This frank exchange of views had a considerable effect in modifying public opinion in favour of a unified university, it being recognised that only in this way could a university in the fullest sense and of the first rank be possible.

The Committee recommends that the University of the West Indies should not come into existence immediately as a fully-chartered autonomous institution. Time will be needed to establish the standards of teaching and the performance in research required to win recognition both locally and throughout the Empire; equally, time will be necessary for the governing bodies to gain experience in the complex problems of academic administration. For these reasons the Committee recommends that in the first instance the new institution should be given the status of a university college which will prepare its students for the degrees of London University. The hope is expressed that this formative period will not be prolonged beyond the minimum time necessary to establish the reputation of the University College as a centre of teaching and research.

(c) The scheme of government proposed

The scheme of government proposed for the University College has, in consequence, been framed on lines identical with those which apply to a chartered university. Two main governing bodies are recommended, namely:—

(i) a *Council*, charged with the management of finance and with the trusteeship of funds and properties, and

(ii) a *Senate*, which would carry full responsibility in all academic matters, including teaching, research and discipline.

In addition, it is recommended that a Guild of Graduates be instituted on lines detailed in the report.

It is proposed that the Council, the supreme governing body, should consist of twenty-seven members, of whom seven would be nominated by the Governments of the contributing Colonies. The remaining members would hold office either *ex officio* (seven), or by election, the electing bodies being the Senate (seven) and the Guild of Graduates (four). The remaining two members would be provided by the Inter-University Council in Great Britain.

The proposed composition of the Council of the College provides for well-distributed territorial representation, and is designed to secure a suitable amalgamation of interests and experience, the proportion of academic and non-academic members having been adjusted with this end in view. In making these recommendations the Committee had in mind the necessity to avoid the creation of a university governed by the State or subject to political control.

The composition proposed for the Senate and for the Faculties follows normal lines, but deviates in some respects from the standard pattern. These variations, which take the form of broadening the representation on these bodies, are designed to have the effect of stimulating the interest of the entire staff in discharging the responsible duties devolved on the Senate. Particularly in a young university, it is important to create the feeling that each member of the staff plays some part in the development of the new institution of which he or she is a member.

With regard to the making of university appointments, the report prescribes special measures necessary to fill the first appointments, as these will have to be made before the Council comes into existence. Thereafter the responsibility will rest on the Council, with the proviso that the election to all teaching posts will be made only on the recommendation of the Senate. This procedure is regarded as specially desirable in founding a university in an area where academic standards have to be created.

(d) Other characteristic features of the University.

The University should be open to women on precisely the same terms and conditions as are applicable to men. Similarly, no restriction should be imposed on grounds of race or creed; although the University would be undenominational, the Committee leaves the way open for local effort to take steps to supply the spiritual needs of the students.

It is recommended as essential that the University should be entirely residential and that the normal period of residence should be three years. In coming to this decision the Committee had in mind more than the comfort and physical well-being of the students. The halls of residence will not be merely dormitories in which students eat and sleep, but will carry features resembling those of residential colleges. The halls are designed to be centres of study where the work of the teaching departments will be consolidated and expanded. Under these conditions, the mingling of students, drawn from different Colonies and with widely different intellectual interests, should inevitably create a more fully educated type of young man and woman than the class-rooms alone can produce. It may also be expected that an indirect result of residential life will be the promotion of a spirit of co-operation between West Indians from different areas and that this will find its outlet in a desire to serve the West Indies when university days are done.

With regard to the size of the University, the Committee recommends that, initially, provision should be made for a student population of 400 to 500. In arriving at this figure it approached the problem from two opposite directions:—(i) the prospective annual number of pupils leaving school who hold

the requisite entrance qualification and who would extend their studies on a university level if facilities were available in the West Indies at moderate cost ; and (ii) an estimate of the annual absorption of graduates proceeding from the University who would seek employment within the Caribbean area. The totals provided by the two lines of enquiry were consistent and were confirmed from other sources. So far as can be predicted, therefore, a safe margin will exist between the opportunities for employment and the output of graduates, so that the possibility of "academic unemployment" can be ruled out. In all likelihood student numbers will increase considerably beyond the upper limit of 500 and the Committee's proposals have accordingly been framed to facilitate the future expansion of the University.

(e) The site of the University

At the conclusion of its tour the Committee was faced with the difficult problem of recommending the locus of the University. The Committee decided that it should be situated in Jamaica. It recognised that the Colony selected as the locus of a centralised university derives certain direct and indirect advantages and that, conversely, the remaining Colonies are confronted with disadvantages in varying degree. Certain compensations are, however, recommended in the report. For example, it is urged that for members of the Council, for the staff and for students, the transportation costs incurred in travelling from their homes to the University should be a charge on the University General Fund to which Jamaica, in common with other Colonies, would be a contributor. Of even greater importance is the comprehensive scheme of extra-mural studies which, directed from the central University, will operate in each of the Colonies. In short, an endeavour has been made to overcome the handicaps imposed by geographical separation. The Committee has sought to produce a scheme not for a University of Jamaica but for a *University of the West Indies* serving the entire Caribbean area.

(f) The course of studies to be provided

In any attempt to fill educational lacunae there is a natural tendency to attenuate both means and effort by spreading activities over too wide a field. The Committee has sought to avoid this mistake, and the teaching curriculum proposed initially for the new University is limited to the Faculties of arts, science and medicine. Future developments, and, if necessary, the creation of additional Faculties, are left to the Council and Senate who can best judge what lines of expansion are desirable. The subjects to be taught in the University have been chosen with special reference to West Indian conditions and should offer a sufficient variety to meet widely varying needs.

In its endeavour to provide a broad cultural education the Committee has drawn on the experience of the older universities of Great Britain and many of the subjects of study prescribed are identical with those taught in this country. Nevertheless, the Committee recommends that the training should not lose contact with West Indian conditions and requirements. Its intention in this respect is illustrated by the introduction of a Lectureship in West Indian history, by the scheme for a degree in modern languages (including Spanish and Portuguese) and by the emphasis laid on what may be described as local research. In many other subjects, as, for example, economics, geography, geology and the biological sciences, ample opportunity will be available for supplementing these studies by special reference to the West Indies.

The Committee does not propose at this stage to establish schools of agriculture or of engineering ; but provision is made for education leading to graduation in these important branches of applied science. The proposal is that students specialising in agriculture should take the previous degree of B.Sc. in the University of the West Indies and thereafter proceed to Great Britain

or extend their studies at the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture in Trinidad. The Committee considers that the policy of utilising facilities already existing in the Colonies has much to commend it, particularly as it opens the way to a working association with the Imperial College without infringing the principle of a unified university.

In engineering the problem is similar, and the Committee did not feel justified in recommending the immediate creation of a fully-equipped school of engineering. In the absence of any engineering college in the West Indies comparable with the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture, the Committee felt that it had no option but to advise that students of engineering should complete their science degree in the West Indies and then proceed to Great Britain for two years of specialised study.

The Committee's proposal to institute a department of education in the University is of much importance. As already stated, secondary schools in the West Indies are generally efficient and their record is praiseworthy, but in the educational system of these Colonies there is at present no provision for organised training so far as teaching in secondary schools is concerned. The Committee considers that this situation can be rectified by instituting a University diploma in education to be taken at the postgraduate stage. The department of education would also be responsible for continuous research on the special educational problems encountered within the university province, a field of enquiry too often neglected.

The Committee found the problem of training in medicine at a University of the West Indies to be at once simple in its long-term achievement, but beset with difficulties as regards the immediate future. In conformity with the policy of a unified university, the Committee recommends the establishment of a complete Faculty of medicine to be located at the seat of the University in Jamaica and working in association with the Kingston General Hospital. Obviously this recommendation could become operative only when the complete university scheme came into existence. But the situation in the West Indies in respect of the supply of medical officers and private practitioners does not admit of any delay in providing trained medical graduates. The need is urgent. The opportunities for West Indians to obtain a medical education in Great Britain or in the Dominions are shrinking and are unlikely to improve; to ignore the seriousness of the situation is unwarrantable. Confronted with this emergency, the Committee investigated the possibility of providing a medical course in the West Indies which could be brought into existence at an early date and would function as an emergency measure until the University comes into full operation. The Committee found that this aspect of its problem had already been studied and proposals made for its solution by Sir Rupert Briercliffe, Medical Adviser to the Comptroller for Development and Welfare. The scheme put forward by him involves the establishment of a temporary medical school in Trinidad working in association with McGill University, Montreal. Subject to certain minor modifications the Committee recommends the adoption of Sir Rupert Briercliffe's scheme as an emergency measure, without infringement of the condition that, on a permanent basis, the teaching of medicine must be conducted within the unified University.

Reference has already been made to the scheme of extra-mural studies by which the Committee hopes to give practical effect to their desire "to carry the University to the people." It was not its intention to increase facilities for the taking of external degrees but rather to diffuse learning and to foster cultural studies throughout the whole of the Caribbean Colonies. The Committee is of opinion that in many respects the scheme of extra-mural studies is as

important to the West Indies as the graduating courses to be provided within the University. It does not under-estimate the difficulties which will be encountered, but holds that this experiment in extra-mural education over a widely-dispersed area should certainly be tried.

In the course of its investigation the Committee was impressed with the need in the West Indies for improved facilities in technical training of all kinds. Plans are, however, under consideration by the Comptroller of Development and Welfare for supplying these needs and the Committee expresses the hope that the execution of these plans will not be delayed in consequence of the proposal now submitted for the establishment of a university. This support applies equally to other projects, also under consideration by the Comptroller and his advisers, for enlarging the experience and adding to the training of primary school teachers. In the opinion of the Committee, the creation of a university should not be regarded as in any sense competitive with or alternative to the plans being matured under the scheme of development and welfare.

(g) The staffing of the University.

It is emphasised repeatedly in the Committee's report that the University of the West Indies must be equipped and staffed in a way which would be recognised in Great Britain as conforming to a high standard. To attempt to economise in either of these respects would be fatal to the success of a great educational experiment. In the West Indies there is a small but responsible section of public opinion well aware of what is necessary to create a university capable of winning its way to a reputable place in the academies of the world, and to attempt anything less than the best is to court disaster. The Committee has drawn up approximate estimates of capital costs and recurring expenditure so that some idea may be given of the financial dimensions of the problem. In framing this tentative budget the Committee took into consideration the number of staff required and also the stipends which should be attached to the various offices if men and women of the first quality are to be attracted.

(h) Research

The Committee gives prominence to the position of research in the activities of the proposed University. The question of how far applied research should find a place is fully discussed; the Committee's hope is that fundamental, disinterested investigation should be the main feature of research activity. At the same time it is recommended that the University should not stand aloof from enquiries designed to benefit the West Indies, although applied research of this description should not be assigned to young graduates before they have undergone the discipline of training in pure research. In all branches of enquiry, humanistic and scientific, the Committee's intention is that, where possible, original work should focus on problems which can best be investigated in the West Indies or are of special importance to that region. The Committee also contemplates that not only will members of the University staff engage personally in original work but that in time they will be joined by some of their own students and graduates so that schools of research will come into existence.

The Committee has not ignored the fact that research costs money—in the provision and equipment of laboratories and libraries, in the purchase of books and periodicals, and in the employment of a larger staff than teaching requirements or the number of students would appear to justify. The financial estimates make adequate allowance for these factors.

(i) Financial assistance to students

The Committee, although engaged on a wide survey, has not overlooked the needs of the individual student. His work will be supervised: friendly guidance and advice will be at his disposal should he find himself in difficulties related to his studies or of a personal nature. It is also recognised that many, and possibly the majority of West Indian students will require financial assistance to attend the University. In attacking this problem, the Committee has evolved a scheme of scholarships and grants to be administered by the University from University funds, and advocates that the existing scholarships financed by the individual Governments for overseas study should be modified as to the conditions of tenure. It is urged that greater benefit to the student will result if his period of overseas study is delayed until after graduation in the University of the West Indies. The financial estimates prepared by the Committee would seem to show that a student could spend the necessary three years at the University of the West Indies and thereafter have the advantage of two further years abroad at a total cost no greater than the scholarship stipend now paid for overseas study alone. It may not be easy to persuade the various Governments to modify scholarship schemes which have admittedly been successful in the past. But the situation would be entirely altered by the foundation of a University of the West Indies.

The Committee also advocates reform of the methods adopted in making scholarship awards. It holds that the use of School Certificate results as a test of outstanding ability or of fitness to profit from University study is now largely discredited, and it advocates a more effective method of selection. This includes scrutiny of the complete school records of the candidates supplemented by an examination, including an interview, conducted by the University authorities.

(j) Estimates of expenditure involved

As already stated, the Committee has provided an approximate estimate of the capital and recurring costs necessary to establish and maintain a University on the scale and on the lines envisaged in its report. The estimates refer to the time when the University College is in full working operation and it is unlikely that they will require material alteration when the College is transformed into a University. Obviously, in the formative years, both income and expenditure will differ greatly from the figures quoted.

Capital Cost

It is recommended:—

(a) that if the University is located in Jamaica, the Government of Jamaica should meet the cost of the site, approximately 150 to 200 acres;

(b) that the cost of buildings and equipment necessary to establish the University on the lines indicated should be met by the home Government, future charges under this heading to be met by the Colonial Governments concerned;

(c) that the University should be provided with an endowment fund, the income from which would be applied to the support of specified professorships, and to the promotion of research. Should the provision of a capital endowment be considered inadvisable, the income equivalent could be paid in the form of a grant from the home Government.

The estimated capital cost is £1,130,000, or including a provision of £500,000 for endowment, £1,630,000.

Recurring Expenditure

The income of the University, apart from that referred to in (c) above, would be derived from fees and from contributions from the Colonial Governments.

It is estimated that £68,390 per annum will require to be met by the Colonial Governments in proportions to be determined by mutual agreement. It should be noted that this contribution from the Colonies concerned is less than 50 per cent. of the total annual expenditure. It is recommended that these Governments should pay their contributions into the University General Fund without ear-marking in favour of special purposes. Further, such grants should be guaranteed for a period of five years and should be revised only at quinquennial periods, following the precedent of the Treasury grants made through the University Grants Committee to the universities of the United Kingdom.

While the draft budget has been framed to provide a university of the first rank, the Committee has taken all steps in its power to avoid extravagance. All predictable items have been checked by reference to the cost of other institutions of similar size, with such modifications as seemed necessary in view of the level of costs in the West Indies. Moreover, the budget has been framed to minimise the cost to the student and to his parents. As already explained, travelling charges to and from the University will be met from University funds, while the remaining cost for tuition and maintenance will be of the order of £100 per annum. This figure was selected by the Committee in exercise of the principle that the benefits of the University should be spread as widely as possible.

In their present form, the estimates forecast an annual expenditure of £139,690, defrayed as under :—

	£	per cent.
(a) From tuition, examination and residence fees and from rentals	53,800	38.5 approx.
(b) From endowment income or equivalent grant	17,500	12.5
(c) From Colonial Governments .. .	68,390	49
	<u>£139,690</u>	

The Committee considers that the only major item in which alteration may subsequently be found necessary relates to the salaries to be attached to the various teaching posts. To take an example, the total for eight professorships corresponds with an average salary of £1,500 per annum. It may reasonably be predicted that, initially, the great majority of these senior posts will be filled by men and women from Great Britain or the Dominions, and the stipend suggested is no more than sufficient to induce experienced university officers of recognised standing to proceed overseas. But the figures should not be regarded as stabilised or as applicable to all future appointments. The necessity to recruit staff from overseas will, however, continue in some measure for a considerable period, and this fact carries in its train the necessity to pay certain stipends at least at overseas rates. One method—and it is perhaps the simplest—of dealing with this situation would be to fix a basic salary for each grade of post and fall back on the system of supplementary overseas allowances. But any differentiation in total stipend in respect of migration from overseas would be unwelcome to the West Indian members of the Committee, as is shown by their footnote to paragraph 182 of the report. An alternative has been suggested by Miss Perham in her own footnote to that paragraph; under this scheme the home Government would set aside part of its endowment in such a way that the revenue from it could be applied as expatriation allowances upon settled scales to staff drawn from overseas.

(k) *The procedure adopted by the Committee*

In the course of its enquiries, the Committee took evidence from a considerable number of witnesses, both official and non-official. For the most part, the witnesses provided memoranda of value, but there remained other sections of public opinion to which access could be obtained only by personal approach on the part of the Committee. All evidence and interviews were regarded as confidential and neither the press nor the public were admitted to the hearings; but this does not mean that, within the limitations attending any official enquiry of the kind, the public, was not taken into the Committee's confidence. At intervals, brief statements were issued to the press which outlined, in general terms and without disclosing the findings, the progress made in the investigation and corrected uninformed speculative criticisms. Throughout the enquiry the press gave much constructive help especially in leading articles marked by appreciation and understanding.

At the close of the tour, an outline of the prospective recommendations was submitted confidentially and informally to three of the Legislatures, with the object of inviting criticism and of providing an idea of the cost to the contributing Colonies. These meetings proved most helpful; they revealed a width of vision which justifies the expectation that the findings of the Committee will be acceptable in the West Indies and if put into operation without delay will receive loyal and generous support.

APPENDIX I

LIST OF WITNESSES INTERVIEWED AND MEMORANDA SUBMITTED

I. Trinidad

DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION

R. PATRICK, Esq., M.A.

Interviewed

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|--|--|
| 1. Queen's Royal College | Mr. B. J. Bedell. - |
| 2. Dr. S. M. Lawrence | |
| 3. Caribbean Training College | Principal. Mr. R. Badgley. |
| 4. Leo J. Basso, Esq. | |
| 5. Christian Social Council | Venerable Archdeacon C. S. Doorly, Reverend H. Cook, Reverend Dr. W. H. Mayhew, Dr. J. Scringeur, Reverend J. H. Poole, Messrs. Moosai Maharaj, Cyril Fletcher and T. E. Beckles, M.B.E. |
| 6. Pharmaceutical Society | Messrs. H. S. Adams and H. R. Piper. |
| 7. Law Students Society | Messrs. H. Deeble, D. J. Mahabir, C. Alexander and J. A. Le Blanc. |
| 8. G.C.T. Former Students Association | Mr. J. Hamilton Holder. |
| 9. J. Edward Lai-Fook, Esq. | |
| 10. Bishop's High School for Girls | Principal. Miss D. Shrewsbury. |
| 11. W. E. Daniel, Esq., and A. Beech, Esq. | |
| 12. Trinidad Literary League | Messrs. Isadore C. Rampersad and A. A. Thompson. |
| 13. McBean Agricultural Credit Society | Mr. James Harper. |
| 14. Trinidad and Tobago Teachers Union | Messrs E. M. Joseph, P. Ferdinand, A. Lutchman
Misses Louise Victor and Louise Horne. |
| 15. Arya Pratinidhi Sabha | Messrs. S. M. Rameshwar, N. O. Poonai,
S. Moosai-Maharaj, S. S. Supersad, R. H. Ojah,
I. Hyatalisy and Beharry Lall. |
| 16. Petroleum Association | Messrs. A. J. Ruthven Murray, R. B. Kerr and
F. E. Hunter. |
| 17. West India National Party | Mr. G. A. Richards. |
| 18. St. Benedict's College San Fernando | Principal. Reverend Father Boniface, O.S.P. |
| 19. Social and Recreational League,
Point Fortin. | Mr. Roderick Pierre. |
| 20. British Medical Association | Dr. E. Boucaud. |
| 21. Reverend G. T. Bartholemew | Rector All Saints Church. |
| 22. Noel P. Bowen, Esq. | Registrar General. |
| 23. St. Mary's College | Reverend Father L. J. Graaf, C.S.Sp. (represent-
ing Very Reverend J. J. Meenan, C.S.Sp.). |
| 24. Trinidad Medical Board | Dr. E. de Verteuil. |

Memoranda Submitted

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| 1. Queen's Royal College | Mr. J. Wright. |
| 2. British West Indies and British
Guiana Teacher's Association. | Mr. E. Quinlan. |
| 3. "Why Not?" Discussion Group | Miss Joy Braithwaite. |
| 4. Reverend Father B. O'Donnell, O.P. | |
| 5. Civil Service Association of Trinidad
and Tobago. | Mr. C. T. W. E. Worrell and Mr. C. L. Kendall. |
| 6. Bishop's High School, Tobago | Mr. R. S. Jordan. |
| 7. International Schools Company of
Latin America. | Mr. B. M. Clegg. |
| 8. P. B. Philip, Esq. (Tobago). | |
| 9. Mrs. Beatrice Greig. | |

Informal Discussions

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| 1. The Most Reverend Dr. Finbar Ryan, O.P., D.D., LL.D., Archbishop of Port of Spain. | |
| 2. The Right Reverend Dr. A. H. Anstey, C.B.E., M.A., D.D., Archbishop of the West Indies. | |
| 3. Canon M. E. Farquhar. | |
| 4. Canon Streetley | |
| 5. Dr. MacLennan | D.M.S. |
| 6. Professor S. Simey | Development and Welfare. |
| 7. Imperial College of Tropical Agri-
culture. | Mr. O. T. Faulkner, C.M.G. (Principal), Messrs.
F. Hardy and E. E. Cheesman. |

Visits

1. Queen's Royal College.
2. St. Mary's College.
3. Bishop's High School.
4. Government Teachers Training College.
5. Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture.
6. Government Stock Farm.
7. Government Plantations.
8. Trinidad Leaseholds ; Oil Refineries, Hospital, School, Oil-field.
9. Pitch Lake Company.
10. Site of proposed Central Training Institute.
11. Public Hospital.
12. St. Clair Cantonment site.

In addition visits were paid by various members of the Committee to Elementary Schools, Sugar Estates, Laboratories, Naparima Training College, Cotton Research Centre, etc.

II. British Guiana

DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION

L. G. CREASE, Esq., M.A.

Interviewed

1. The British Guiana Civil Service Association (Messrs. C. Holman, B. Williams, M.A., A. E. Small, C. R. Spence, A. J. Seymour (Secretary) and Captain H. Nobbs, M.Sc., F.I.C.).
2. The British Guiana Ministers' Fraternal (Reverend Dr. W. Rankin, M.A., Ph.D., the Reverends D. W. Hamilton Pollard, B.A., Norman Birnie, M.A. and D. U. Adams).
3. Mr. Ben. O. Yisu Das, B.A., Deputy Principal, Berbice High School.
4. Mr. Ben. O. Yisu Das, B.A., and Mr. G. B. Ganpatsingh, representing the Berbice Executive of the British Guiana East Indian Association.
5. Board of Governors, Queen's College (Hon. Dr. J. B. Singh, O.B.E., M.L.C.; Mr. A. V. Crane, L.L.B., Captain H. Nobbs, M.Sc., F.I.C., Hon. H. C. Humphrys, K.C., M.L.C., Messrs. S. L. Van B. Stafford, K.C., L. G. Crease, M.A., and R. V. Evan Wong, B.Sc.).
6. The British Guiana Sicknurses' and Dispensers' Association (Messrs. S. B. Persaud (President), J. W. McL. Ogle (Secretary) and Deodat Persaud).
7. Queen's College Old Boys' Association (Messrs. S. L. Van B. Stafford, K.C., N. E. Cameron, M.A., C. H. Lord, C. A. Robinson and D. P. Debidin).
8. H. B. S. Bollers, Esq., Barrister-at-Law.
9. Director of Agriculture, Professor J. S. Dash, B.Sc.
10. Director of Education (Mr. L. G. Crease, M.A.).
11. Director of Medical Services Dr. H. B. Hetherington, O.B.E., M.D..
12. Director of Public Works Mr. E. A. Boyce, B.Sc., A.M.Inst., C.E..
13. Mr. A. A. Thorne, M.A., President, British Guiana Workmen's League.

Memoranda Only

1. British Guiana Congregational Union (Reverend D. W. Hamilton Pollard, B.A.).
2. I. H. Myers, Esq., M.A., F.R.A.I.
3. Mr. C. H. Campbell, Government Pharmacist and Mr. C. A. Charles, Member of Board of Examiners, Chemists and Druggists.
4. Mr. C. Holman, B. Williams, M.A., Modern Languages and Agricultural Training.
5. British Guiana Chemists and Druggists Association with reference to Inter-Colonial Reciprocity and Training of Pharmacists in British Guiana.

Visits

1. Queen's College.
2. Teachers' Training College.
3. Bishop's High School.
4. Beterverwagting Community Centre.
5. Carnegie Trade School for Women.
6. Government vocational school.
7. St. Joseph's College.
8. Various primary schools.
9. Public hospital.

III. Jamaica

DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION

H. B. EASTER, Esq., C.M.G., C.B.E.

Interviewed

1. Very Reverend Father T. J. Feeney, S. J. Superior, St. George's Extension School.
2. Henry Fowler, Esq., M.A.
3. Conservator of Forests, Mr. C. Swabey, Dip. Forestry.

4. Director of Public Works, Mr. P. Martin Cooper, C.M.G.
5. Director of Surveys.
6. Acting Director of Agriculture (Mr. H. H. Croucher).
7. Director of Medical Services (Major T. J. Hallinan, C.B.E., M.C.).
8. Major A. Nathan.
9. Mico Old Students' Association (Mr. R. S. Stewart—Secretary).
10. Provisional Committee for the Establishment of a University in Jamaica (Reverend A. S. Herbert, M.A., B.D. (Chairman), Reverend W. Easton, B.D., Mr. W. Murray White, B.A., Mrs. Ken Hart).
11. Jamaica Christian Council (Reverend Canon H. G. Lovell (Secretary), Reverend A. S. Herbert, M.A., Reverend W. Easton, B.D.).
12. Social Welfare Services (Reverend T. E. Newlin (Secretary), Mr. N. W. Manley, K.C., Miss Jessie Irwin).
13. Association of Headmasters (Reverend A. G. Fraser, M.A., Reverend Canon P. W. Gibson, B.A., B.D., Reverend D. Davis, B.A., B.D., Messrs. N. S. Jackson, B.Sc., S. W. Brown, J. R. Bunting, M.A., Reverend H. S. P. Warren, Mr. J. W. S. Hardie, M.A., and Dr. K. B. M. Crooks, Ph.D.).
14. Board of Education (Right Reverend W. G. Hardie, M.A., D.D., Dr. W. J. Branday, Mr. E. E. A. Campbell, M.L.C.; Reverend J. W. Maxwell, Reverend H. Ward, Mr. E. V. Lockett, M.A., Mrs. K. H. Bourne, O.B.E., Reverend E. A. Jones, Reverend R. J. Fleming, Reverend F. Nichol, Reverend Fr. Feeney, Mr. C. D. Neilson, I.S.O., Mr. A. C. Thomas (Secretary)).
15. Jamaica Youth Movement (Mrs. Richard Hart (Hon. Secretary), Messrs. Leacroft Robinson, Vivian Blake, Miss Phyllis McPherson, Reverend Walter Foster, Miss Olive McNeil).
16. Governors of Jamaica Institute (Mr. E. E. A. Campbell, Reverend J. W. Maxwell, M.L.C., Mrs. E. Chapman).
17. Conference of Headmistresses (Mrs. E. C. Skempton, B.A., (President), Miss M. F. Gartshore, M.A. (Vice-President), Miss R. E. Gunter, M.A. (Secretary) and Miss M. Ritchie).
18. Association of Assistant Masters and Mistresses (Miss Audrey Pinto, Mr. W. Murray White, Mr. Caleb Cousins).
19. Jamaica Branch of British Medical Association (Dr. H. I. Whitelocke (Hon. Secretary), Dr. H. Robertson, Dr. W. E. McCulloch).
20. Jamaica Union of Teachers (Mr. H. A. Jones (General Secretary), Miss Amy Bailey, Mrs. S. W. James, Mr. E. H. Cousins).
21. Jamaica Schools Commission (Mr. B. H. Easter, C.M.G., C.B.E., B.A., Mr. R. B. Barker, M.A., Right Reverend Bishop W. G. Hardie, D.D., Dr. Richard Cory, Mrs. Ludlow Moody, Mr. Douglas Judah, Dr. G. V. Helwig, Ph.D., Mr. Philip Ogle (Secretary)).
22. The Legislative Council.
23. The Commissioner of Lands (Captain F. Burnett, M.A.).
24. Professor T. S. Simey.

Memoranda Only

1. Chamber of Commerce (through Mr. P. M. Sherlock).
2. Mr. J. R. Bunting, M.A., Dip.Ed. (Mr. Bunting met the Committee as a member of the Association of Headmasters).
3. Miss R. E. Gunter, M.A. (Miss Gunter met the Committee as a member of the Association of Headmistresses).
4. St. Andrew Old Girls' Association (Miss W. Moss—Hon. Secretary).
5. S. E. Edmondson, Esq.
6. W. Ellwood, Esq., LL.B.
7. W. G. Thomas, Esq., B.Sc., Dip.Ed.
8. Whitfield Division I, U.N.I.A. (Miss F. Pitters—Secretary).

Visits

1. Kingston Technical School.
2. Wolmers School.
3. Knockalva Practical Training Centre.
4. Munro College.
5. Jamaica College.
6. Kingston Public Hospital.
7. Banana Producers Association.
8. Jamaica Welfare Limited.
9. Jamaica Institute.
10. Mico Training College.
11. New Hospital, Port Antonio.
12. Industrial School.

IV. Barbados

DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION

H. HAYDEN, Esq., M.A.

Interviews

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Reverend Canon Wippell, M.A. | Principal, Codrington College. |
| 2. C. F. Broome, Esq. | Elementary Teachers Association. |
| 3. Barbados Co-operative Scholarship Committee. | Messrs. J. M. Hewitt, Clarke, Sealy, Coulston and Adams. |
| 4. Dr. Saint | Director of Science and Agriculture. |
| 5. Dr. H. H. Bayley. | |
| 6. Mrs. L. T. Moffett | Headmistress, St. Vincent Girls School. |

Memoranda

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. Director of Education | H. Hayden, Esq. |
| 2. Barbados Teachers Association | |
| 3. Mrs. E. J. D. Corbin | Headmistress Queen's College. |
| 4. Bruce Hamilton, Esq., B.A. | Harrison College. |
| 5. F. N. Grannum, Esq. | Acting Chief Medical Officer. |
| 6. L. T. Evans, Esq., M.A. | Headmaster, Lodge School. |
| 7. Principal | Codrington College. |
| 8. The Right Reverend D. W. Bentley, C.B.E., M.A., D.D. | Lord Bishop of Barbados. |
| 9. Staff of Lodge School. | |
| 10. W. A. Paterson, Esq. | Harrison College Department of Science and Agriculture. |
| 11. W. D. Isaac, Esq., M.A. | Harrison College. |
| 12. W. H. L. Medford, Esq. | Harrison College. |
| 13. H. N. Haskell, Esq. | Headmaster Harrison College. |

Visits

1. Codrington College.
2. Harrison College.

V. Memoranda submitted from Colonies in the Caribbean other than those Visited

- | | |
|----------------------------|---|
| 1. <i>St. Lucia</i> | (a) Unofficial opinion. Mr. G. H. Gordon, member of the Legislative and Executive Councils, flew to Barbados and discussed the memorandum with the Committee. |
| | (b) British Medical Association. Dr. L. A. P. Slinler and Dr. A. V. Wells. |
| | (c) Medical Board. Dr. H. J. Weatherhead. |
| 2. <i>Grenada</i> | (a) Education Officer, Mr. H. J. Padmore. |
| | (b) Senior Medical Officer, Dr. E. Cochrane. |
| | (c) Medical Board, Dr. L. S. Morgan. |
| 3. <i>Dominica</i> | (a) Senior Medical Officer. |
| | (b) Education Department. |
| 4. <i>St. Vincent</i> | (a) Senior Medical Officer, Dr. Leo M. Webb. |
| | (b) British Medical Association. Dr. A. B. Brereton. |
| | (c) Grammar School Old Boys Association. |
| 5. <i>Antigua</i> | Federal Education Officer. Mr. C. Palmer. |
| 6. <i>British Honduras</i> | Forwarded by His Excellency the Governor. |

VI. Puerto Rico

During their visit the Committee had the opportunity of informal discussions with Chancellor Jaime Benitez, M.A., Professor Gustavo Agrait, M.A., Professor Gallardo, M.A., Professor Luis Torres Diaz, M.A., Professor A. Morales Carrion, Professor Rafael W. Ramirez B.A., and heads of various Departments. They visited the University on several occasions paying attention to the general lay-out of buildings, the theatre, library, hostels, School of Tropical Medicine, Science Department, Agricultural Department, University extension work, Department of Home Economics and Rural Schemes.

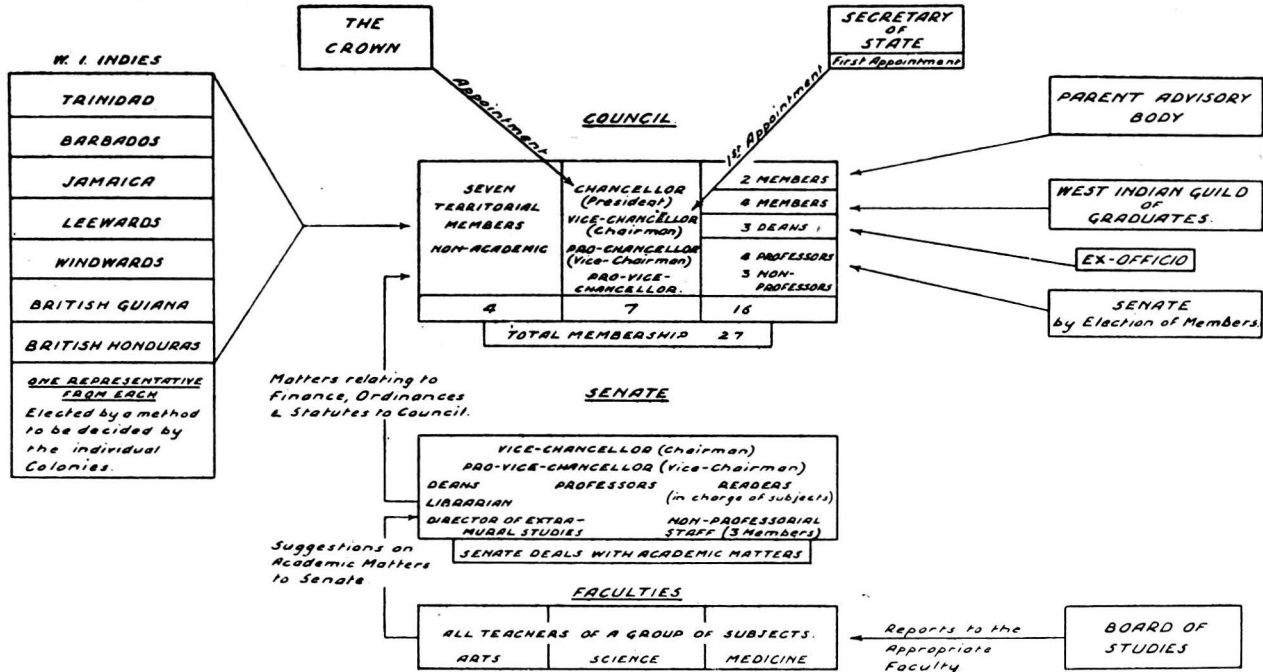
APPENDIX 2

TABLE OF STATISTICS FOR PARAGRAPH 13

(Note. Some figures are necessarily approximate; * indicates no figures available)

Colony	Area in sq. miles	Population 1939	Distribution by Races				Actual Revenue 1942	School age figures			Overseas University Students		
			African or mixed African	East Indian	White	Chinese		Population 6-15	Attendance and roll in Primary Schools	Attendance Secondary	Canada	U.S.	U.K.
Jamaica	4,207	1,200,413	1,180,000	*	12,000	*	£3,836,832	226,656	112,600 Roll 173,222	3,163	64		
Trinidad and Tobago	1,862	473,455	260,000	150,000	10,700	5,293	£4,500,615	100,900	50,000 Roll 79,190	3,038	83	Distribution not available	
British Guiana	90,000	341,237	180,000	143,000	10,000	3,426	£2,091,278	83,600	43,388 Roll 56,855	2,000	9		
Windward Islands	516	271,456	265,500	*	5,500	*	£ 242,485	63,300	29,837 Roll 45,448	1,080	12		
Barbados	166	195,584	181,000	*	13,690	*	£ 819,073	44,100	22,565 Roll 28,900	1,622	28		
Leeward Islands	726	93,426	90,000	*	3,000	*	£ 267,000 (1938)	22,900	12,532 Roll 18,400	700	2		
British Honduras	8,598	59,000	*	*	*	*	£ 242,485	16,000	7,935 Roll 10,032	525	2		
Totals											213	40	50+

PLAN OF PROPOSED CONSTITUTION OF THE UNIVERSITY.



APPENDIX 4 (A)

LONDON UNIVERSITY

Intermediate Examinations held in the West Indies

		1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943
		*S †P	S P	S P	S P	S P	S P	S P	S P	S P	S P
Centres										
Bahamas	1 1	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —
Barbados	5 4	3 1	7 2	4 1	6 1	6 3	3 1	4 2	4 2	3 2
Bermuda	1 0	2 2	— —	— —	2 1	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —
British Guiana	5 4	15 7	8 2	11 4	5 0	5 4	13 10	11 10	8 4	17 8
British Honduras	1 0	2 2	— —	— —	1 1	— —	— —	— —	— —	1 1
Jamaica	12 4	16 10	12 4	10 2	12 3	12 6	16 9	14 9	27 12	31 12
⊗ Leeward Islands (Antigua)	...	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	1 1	1 0	1 0	1 0
	(Montserrat)	— —	— —	— —	1 0	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —
	(St. Kitts)	1 0	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	1 1	1 1	1 0	— —
Trinidad	9 5	3 2	8 4	13 4	9 6	14 5	21 15	19 13	13 2	21 6
Windward Islands (Dominica)	...	2 2	1 0	— —	— —	— —	1 0	— —	— —	— —	— —
	(Grenada)	1 0	— —	1 1	— —	— —	1 1	— —	1 0	2 2	— —
	(St. Lucia)	— —	— —	1 0	— —	— —	2 0	1 1	— —	— —	— —
	(St. Vincent)	1 1	1 0	— —	1 0	1 0	— —	5 3	— —	— —	— —
		39 21	43 24	37 13	40 11	36 12	41 19	61 41	51 35	56 22	74 29

* S — Sat. † P — Passed.

APPENDIX 4 (B)

LONDON UNIVERSITY

Final Examinations held in the West Indies

				1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943
				*S †P	S P	S P	S P	S P	S P	S P	S P	S P	S P
Centres	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Bahamas	2 1	1 0	2 1	- -	2 2	- -	2 1	- -	- -	2 2
Bermuda	- -	- -	1 1	- -	- -	- -	- -	1 1	1 0	1 1
British Guiana	- -	2 2	2 2	1 0	3 2	- -	2 1	3 3	2 2	8 4
British Honduras	- -	- -	- -	- -	1 0	- -	1 0	- -	- -	1 0
Jamaica	4 0	- -	3 3	2 1	2 2	1 0	1 1	8 3	4 2	5 5
Leeward Islands (Antigua)	1 0	- -	1 0	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
			(St. Kitts)	...	- -	1 0	1 0	- -	1 0	- -	- -	- -	- -
Trinidad	- -	3 2	4 1	6 2	- -	6 3	3 2	4 4	3 1	11 8
Windward Islands (Dominica)	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1 1	- -	- -
			(Grenada)	...	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
			(St. Lucia)	...	- -	- -	- -	- -	1 1	- -	1 1	- -	- -
			(St. Vincent)	...	- -	- -	- -	1 0	- -	- -	- -	1 0	- -
				7 1	7 4	14 8	9 3	10 6	8 4	9 5	18 13	11 5	28 20

*S — Sat. †P — Passed.

**NOTE BY THE CHAIRMAN ON THE OFFICE OF UNIVERSITY
REGENT (see para. 188)**

The early years of a university are critical years and the establishment of standards of student conduct and discipline are not the least important of the factors which affect public confidence in a new institution of university rank.

In the West Indies the above generalisation applies with special force. There is no local academic background or tradition; standards and customs will have to be fashioned from the start. Moreover, it must not be overlooked that at least one half of the students attending the University of the West Indies will be separated from their homes by hundreds of miles and will find themselves entrusted with a new freedom to manage or mis-manage their own affairs. All this points to the necessity for some form of friendly guidance being placed at the disposal of students, not so much as a disciplinary measure but as a means of helping them over a difficult period of their lives. In doing students this service a true university spirit may be inculcated from the beginning.

The desired result could no doubt be attained by the adoption in full of the tutorial system but for various reasons (including costs) we have not made provision in a University of the West Indies for Tutors in the accepted sense. We have, however, recommended an alternative method of student guidance by advocating the institution of the system of Regents as operated during the past twenty years in the University of St. Andrews.

Originally, the Regent in a Scottish University took charge of a group of "Entrants" and, year by year, instructed them in all the studies prescribed for each session. Having brought his group up to the stage of graduation or ordination he once more was attached to a new class of entrants and repeated the cycle. The Regent was thus at once a tutor and a professor but, as the records show, he was above all the friend of the student although that friendship was often based on an iron discipline. After the Reformation, the expanding curriculum of the Scottish Universities gradually eliminated the Regent in favour of the specialist Professor who taught one subject to all grades of student; even an Admirable Crichton could not hope to teach all subjects on the standard demanded by the Reformers and so the Regent vanished.

He has now been restored in a modified form which has succeeded admirably in adapting a mediaeval system to modern conditions. The Regents at St. Andrews are drawn from every grade of university teacher. Professorial rank or scholarly eminence is not enough to secure a distinction greatly prized by the Staff, the main qualification being the power to gain the confidence of young students. In attaching students to Regents care is taken to make the selection appropriate to the upbringing and interests of the individual student and the only precaution which need be taken is that a student reading for Honours should not be assigned to a Regent who is an examiner in the Honours Group. It has indeed proved advantageous to allocate a student to a Regent whose interests lie in an entirely different field; frequently this results in mutual advantage.

On first matriculation, a student is enjoined to call on his Regent and thereafter they make their own arrangements for meeting. All class records are reported to the Regent who in his way can trace if a student is idling or is finding honest difficulty with a particular subject. Endeavour is at once made to eliminate these failings or deficiencies. Regents' reports are confidential and are seen only by the Principal of the University. The essence of the scheme is complete confidence between the student and his Regent; no disciplinary action is taken by the Senatus on the basis of a Regent's report and if, for any reason, a student has to appear on a charge of a breach of discipline his Regent attends the hearing.

A scheme of the kind cannot be circumscribed by rules and regulations, and everything depends on the personalities involved. The main point is that it works, and works well. It may not add greatly to scholarship (although undoubtedly it helps) but it has saved many a student from falling into idle ways or wasting his life through youthful blunders.

The financing of the scheme presents a few points of interest. When it was first submitted to the Senatus, a distinguished colleague moved its acceptance on the understanding that no fee be attached, for the reason that the work of a Regent could not be compensated in terms of payment and could be done only through a disinterested desire to give help to others. This was agreed to unanimously and only a nominal fee is paid for the submission of Regents' reports, but Regents are made members of a Residence Hall where they have their own Common Room and have the privilege of dining in Hall. In this respect also, unexpected benefits have followed as members of the staff, both senior and junior, meet on common ground and form friendships which might otherwise have been impossible.

It is my belief that a similar scheme would work excellently in the West Indies and would have far-reaching effects. My colleagues on the Committee have been good enough to accept the suggestion, which accordingly finds a place in the Report.

(Signed) J. C. IRVINE

APPENDIX 6

NOTE ON THE ARRANGEMENTS FOR CONDUCTING THE PROPOSED
TEMPORARY MEDICAL SCHOOL IN TRINIDAD

The recommendations made in paragraphs 95 to 106 of this Report are based on evidence obtained in a close survey of conditions in the West Indies as they now exist. Since the return of the Committee to this country, the Commission on Higher Education in the Colonies has continued its negotiations with the University of London, which University has now expressed its willingness to co-operate in conducting the proposed temporary scheme of medical education in Trinidad. In consequence, there are now two optional methods of carrying out the scheme and in the Report of the parent Commission a decision is delayed as to which of these options should be followed. It is only right to state here the main advantages and disadvantages attached to these alternatives as they appear to the West Indies Committee after rigorous investigations.

(a) *Association with McGill University.*—This proposal offers much the speediest method of meeting the emergency to which the Committee called attention. McGill University is both able and willing to undertake the immediate training of West Indian medical students in the pre-clinical sciences and is in a position to provide without delay adequate staff to conduct the teaching of clinical subjects in Trinidad. The scheme also possesses the additional advantage of continuing the training of the numerous West Indian students who, having already completed their pre-clinical education, can proceed no further with their studies through lack of hospital facilities. These are important and, indeed, fundamental advantages.

The only disadvantage is that the medical degree of McGill University is not at present recognised by the General Medical Council as a registrable qualification.

(b) *Association with London University.*—Here the advantages are:—(1) uniformity in the attachment of Colonial Colleges to a single parent University, and (2) the fact that the medical degree of London is a registrable qualification. Only the second of these factors is important in this particular case. It should be remembered that, in the present instance, we are not dealing with a long-dated academical partnership between a Colonial College and its degree granting University; the problem is how best to provide temporary measures to meet an emergency which, it is hoped, will be transient. The choice should therefore be determined mainly by which of the optional schemes offers the best prospect of speedy action. In this respect the London scheme is, in our opinion, unsatisfactory. It envisages that West Indian Medical students should receive their education in pre-medical sciences within the West Indies. This is almost an unworkable suggestion since we know from our visit to the West Indies that it involves many changes in curriculum, in equipment and in staffing of the existing secondary schools in each of the Colonies concerned. Even if this difficulty can be overcome (and, at the best, much time will be lost in making the arrangements), we are confronted with the further difficulty that London University cannot at this stage guarantee the necessary staff to conduct clinical courses in Trinidad. This hesitation is well-founded and further delay, of indefinite duration, is likely to intervene before the London scheme can be put into operation. Also, the West Indian medical students now awaiting access to clinical training will be left in a position of increasing difficulty.

To sum up, having considered the problem impartially, the undersigned members of the West Indies Committee are strongly of the opinion that its recommendation should stand as presented in its Report and that the proposed co-operation with McGill University should be ratified.

Signed J. C. IRVINE
MARGERY PERHAM
HUGH W. SPRINGER
RAYMOND PRIESTLEY

APPENDIX 7

ESTIMATED CAPITAL AND RECURRENT EXPENDITURE
INCLUDING ENDOWMENTS

A. Capital Cost

(1) Site	(See paragraph 172)	
(2) Buildings including Equipment		
(a) Main Building including Central Hall, General Offices, Arts lecture rooms, Department of Education, Extra-Mural Department and Dept. of Maths.		£200,000
	Carried Forward	£200,000

	Brought Forward	£200,000
(b) Chemistry and Physics block, including Engineering Drawing	...	£100,000
(c) Block of Botany, Zoology, Geology and Geography	£100,000
(d) Medical Buildings*	£135,000
(e) Playing fields and Pavilion	£ 10,000
(f) Five residences each for 100 students	£400,000
(g) Nine Staff residences (double)	£ 45,000
(h) Block of Flats for staff residences	£ 25,000
(i) Vice Chancellor's residence	£ 6,000
(j) Physical Training Institute and swimming pool	£ 18,000
(k) Staff Common Rooms	£ 6,000
(l) Students' Union	£ 15,000
(m) University Library (buildings only)	£ 40,000
(n) Initial purchase of books	£ 20,000
(o) Loan Fund, initial capital	£ 5,000
(p) Central Workshop	£ 5,000
		<u>£1,130,000</u>
(3) <i>Endowments</i>		
(a) Six key chairs (English, History, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Physiology)	£300,000
(b) Research Fund	£200,000
		<u>£500,000</u>
	Total Endowment	£500,000
	CAPITAL COST AND ENDOWMENT	<u>£1,630,000</u>

B. Recurrent Expenditure

(1) <i>Salaries (Senior Staff)</i>		
(a)* Vice-Chancellor (with free residence)	Total £ 2,500
(b) Professors		
(1) English		
(2) History		
(3) Mathematics		
(4) Chemistry		
(5) Physics		
(6) Modern Languages		
(7) Education		
(8) Economics		
		<u>£12,000</u>
(c) Deans. Arts and Science...	£200
(d) Readers		
(1) Latin		
(2) Modern Languages (2)		
(3) Philosophy		
(4) Psychology		
(5) Geology (including Mineralogy)		
(6) Geography		
(7) Political Science		
(8) Botany		
(9) Zoology		
(10) West Indian and Colonial History		
		<u>£11,000</u>
(e) Lecturers (Senior)		
(1) English		
(2) History		
(3) Mathematics		
(4) Chemistry (2)		
(5) Physics		
(6) Modern Languages		
(7) Philosophy		
		<u>£25,700</u>
	Carried Forward	£25,700

* Medical Buildings. The estimate of £135,000 is based on the assumption that anatomy and physiology will be provided at the University and that the remaining medical subjects will be taught at the hospital centre. If all medical subjects are accommodated in one block, the cost will be of the order of £115,000, but we do not recommend this alternative.

	Brought Forward	£25,700
* (8) Engineering and Engineering Drawing		
(9) Education		
(10) Geography		£8,800
(f) Junior Lecturers		
(1) Education		
(2) Economics		
(3) Psychology		
(4) Geology (including Mineralogy)		
(5) Botany		
(6) Zoology		
(7) English		
(8) Mathematics		£4,800
(g) Demonstrators		
(1) Chemistry (2)		
(2) Physics		
(3) Geology		
(4) Botany		
(5) Zoology		£2,700
(h) Other Appointments		
(1) Director of Extra-Mural Studies		
(2) Librarian		
(3) Registrar		
(4) Extra-Mural Organisers (7)		£4,500
(5) Physical Education		£4,200
(6) Regents (Honoraria)		£1,000
(7) Medical Services (Part-time)		£2,000
		£ 500
(i) Superannuation Contribution @ 10% on £54,200		£5,420
(2) Salaries. (Subordinate Staff)		
(a) Five Matrons (with residence)		£1,500
(b) Secretaries to Vice-Chancellor		
Librarian		
Director of Extra-Mural		
Registrar		£1,200
(c) General Office		
Head Clerk		
Six Clerks		£2,000
(d) Library		
Four attendants		£1,000
(e) Hall Porter's Department		
Hall Porter		
Assistant		
Messengers and Cleaners		£1,000
(f) Laboratory Attendants		£2,000
(g) Staff for Student Residences		
Cooks		
Assistant Cooks		
Attendants and Maids		£2,500
(h) Building and Ground Staff including Clerk of Works, Artisans, Groundsmen and Gardeners		£1,900
(i) Clerical Staff and local charges for Extra-Mural Branches		£4,000
(j) Superannuation at 10% on £16,100 (Subordinate Staff)		£1,610
	Carried Forward	£78,330

* It may be necessary to pay more in this case if a full time lecturer is required.

	Brought Forward	£78,330
(3) <i>Departmental Grants</i>		
Mathematics	£	10
Physics	£	1,000
Chemistry	£	1,000
Botany and Zoology	£	500
Geology	£	100
Social Studies	£	50
Physical Education	£	50
Medical Officer (Stores)	£	50
Education	£	50
Geography	£	50
		£2,860
(4) <i>Funds and Grants</i>		
Transportation (Students)	£	5,000
Publications	£	2,000
Research	£	6,000
Scholarships (University)	£	12,500
Council and Staff Transportation	£	2,000
Library	£	3,000
(5) <i>Miscellaneous Expenditure</i>		
Heat, Light, Water Power	£	5,000
Maintenance of Buildings (1st Year)	£	1,000
Examiners' and Invigilators' Fees	£	1,500
Contingencies	£	500
		£8,000
(6) <i>Students Residences</i>		
Catering and consumable stores	£	20,000
		£139,690

C. Estimated Income

(1) Tuition Fees, 500 Students at £25	£	12,500
(2) Examination Fees, entrance and matric	£	1,500
(3) Graduation Fees	£	300
(4) Rental of Staff Residences, 5% of Salary	£	2,000
(5) Residence Fees, 500 at £75	£	37,500
(6) Endowments (a) Chairs at 3½%	£	10,500
(b) Research	£	7,000
		£71,300
ESTIMATED TOTAL RECURRENT EXPENDITURE	£	139,690
ESTIMATED TOTAL ANNUAL INCOME	£	71,300
ESTIMATED CONTRIBUTION (ANNUAL) FROM SEVEN CONTRIBUTING COLONIES	£	68,390

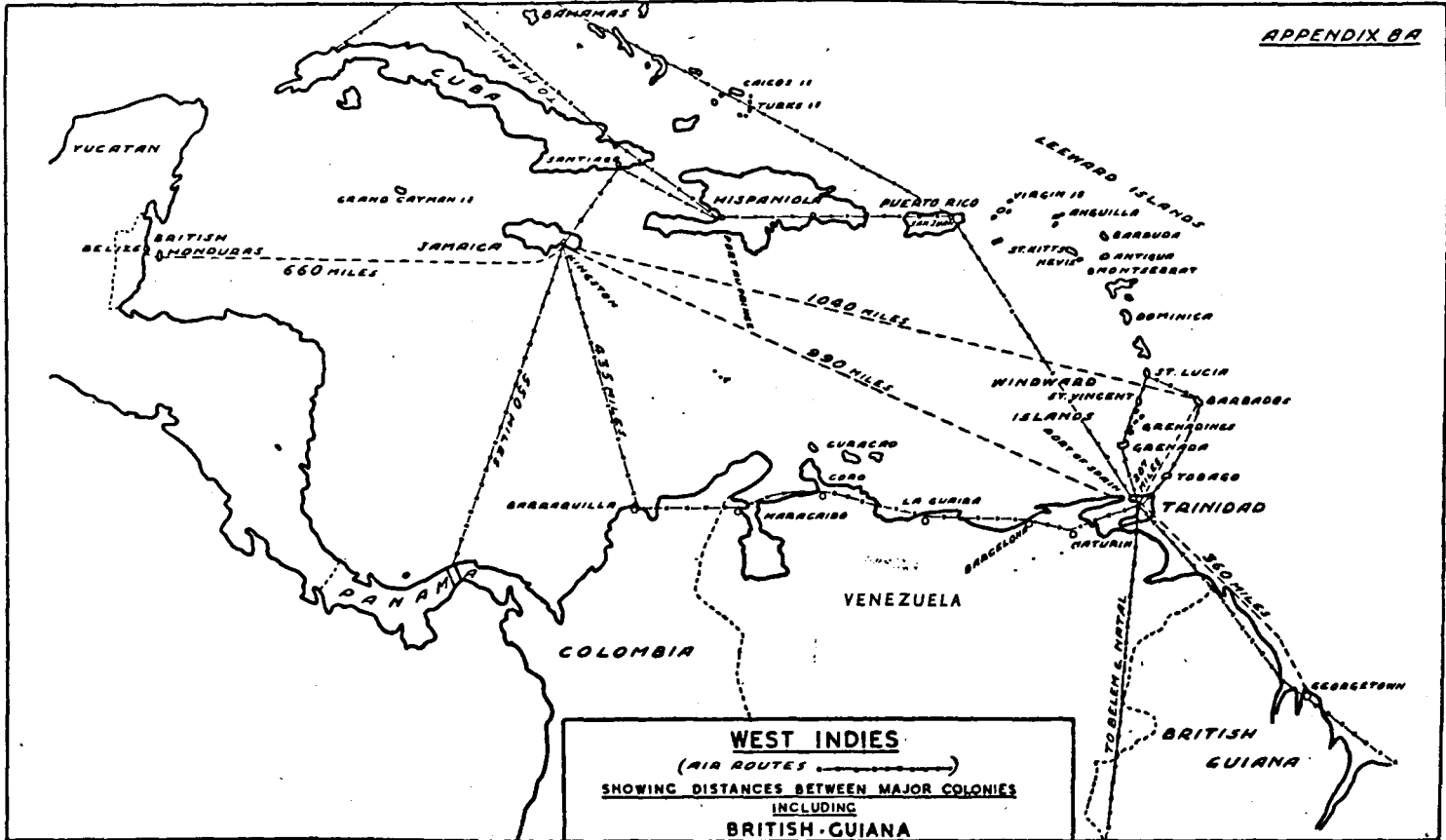
We assume that the Colonies will continue to provide annually a sum equivalent to their present expenditure on Scholarships.

D. Supplementary Expenditure

Ultimate requirements of the Faculty of Medicine

Professors (7)	£	14,000
Lecturers (7)	£	7,000
Technicians (3)	£	1,800
Demonstrators (7)	£	3,500
Part-time Lecturers	£	2,000
Superannuation	£	2,800
		£31,130
Departmental Grants	£	1,200
Incidentals	£	1,000
		£33,330
	Medical Departmental Total	£33,330

We hope that when the time comes to meet the above additional expenditure, further generous assistance will be forthcoming so that the contributing Colonies will not be burdened with more than 50 per cent. of the increased annual expenditure.



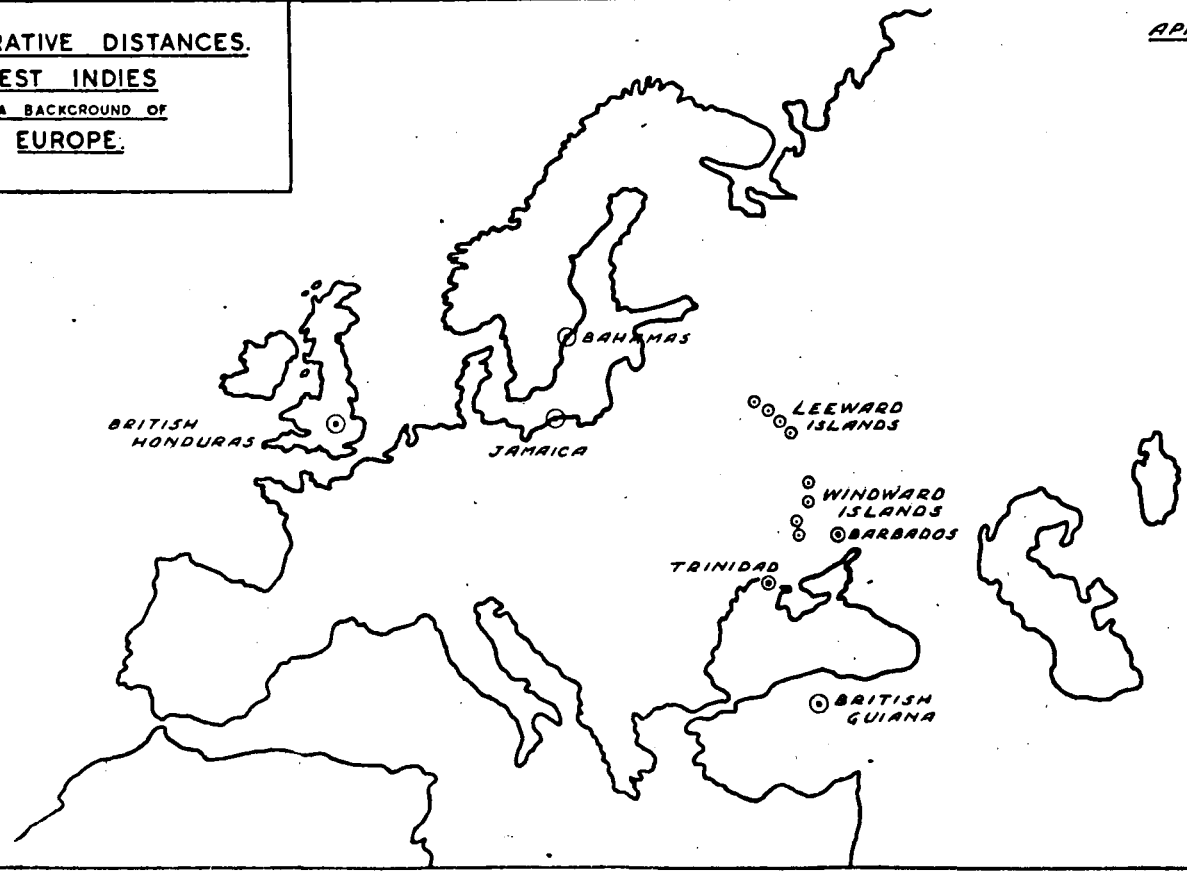
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WEST INDIES

ON A BACKGROUND OF

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LONDON

PUBLISHED BY HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE

To be purchased directly from H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE at the following addresses:

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COLONIAL OFFICE

Report of the Commission
on Higher Education
in West Africa

*Presented to Parliament by the Secretary of State for the Colonies
by Command of His Majesty
June 1945*

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The estimated cost of the preparation of this report (including the expenses of the Commission) is £12,815 os. od. of which £263 os. od. represents the estimated cost of the printing and the publishing of this report.

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To Colonel The Right Honourable OLIVER STANLEY, M.C., M.P., Secretary of State for the Colonies.

PREFACE

We were appointed by the Secretary of State for the Colonies with the following terms of reference:—

“ To report on the organisation and facilities of the existing centres of higher education in British West Africa, and to make recommendations regarding future university development in that area.”

The setting up of the Commission was announced in the House of Commons on 13th June, 1943. Two of our members were also members of the Commission for Higher Education in the Colonies (the Asquith Commission). Our three African members arrived in England early in September, 1943.

From the end of September until early in January, 1944, we took preliminary evidence in London. This included oral and written evidence from many bodies and individuals in Great Britain interested in education in West Africa: missionary societies, former principals of West African colleges, former Governors of West African dependencies, the Medical Advisers to the Secretary of State, the main commercial and industrial enterprises operating in West Africa, and the West African students in Britain. We took evidence also from individuals with wide experience of university development in Great Britain and in India.

During this time we despatched questionnaires to each of the four West African Governments and to the Principals of the Medical School, Yaba, and the Higher College, Yaba, in Nigeria, Achimota College, in the Gold Coast, and Fourah Bay College, in Sierra Leone. We asked the Governors of the four West African dependencies to publish on our behalf a press notice inviting members of the public to submit memoranda on the problem we had been instructed to consider. We gave notice that, as a general rule, we would take oral evidence in public; and we invited applications from individuals and representative bodies who wished to give oral evidence. We asked the Governors to arrange for us to travel widely in West Africa and to see the educational systems as a whole and as a part of the general life of the communities.

On the 15th of January, 1944, we left by air for West Africa. We spent three weeks in the Gold Coast, five and a half weeks in Nigeria and two weeks in Sierra Leone. During the visit to Sierra Leone four members of the Commission made a visit to the Gambia, which was unfortunately shortened to a few hours by a delay in air transport—the only delay of the tour. We wish to acknowledge the courtesy of the British Overseas Airways Corporation in putting the experimental “ York ” at our disposal to remedy the delay so caused. The same four members were able to visit Dakar, the administrative headquarters of French West Africa, at the invitation of the Governor-General, to meet the Director of Education there, and to see at first hand the French system and its methods. For this invitation and the courtesy extended during this visit, we wish to record our sincerest thanks.

In West Africa the Commission carried out a very active programme. Sometimes we worked as a body; more often we separated into small detachments. Everywhere we met an open welcome from Africans and Europeans both in the towns and in the outlying stations and villages. We visited the colleges, all grades of schools from secondary to infant schools, night classes, technical courses, Army technical training units, farm schools, land

resettlement schemes, research institutes, hospitals, health services, native authorities, municipal authorities, mines, ports and labour organisations. In addition we attended many receptions organised for us by our African and European hosts. We took oral evidence from over eighty representative bodies and individual witnesses, often before crowded audiences. We received, in response to the press notice already mentioned, some 300 memoranda. These numbers in themselves are an indication of the interest aroused by our enquiry. Everywhere people were anxious that we should see for ourselves the wide range of social development to be found, and spared no effort in helping us to build up a balanced picture of West Africa.

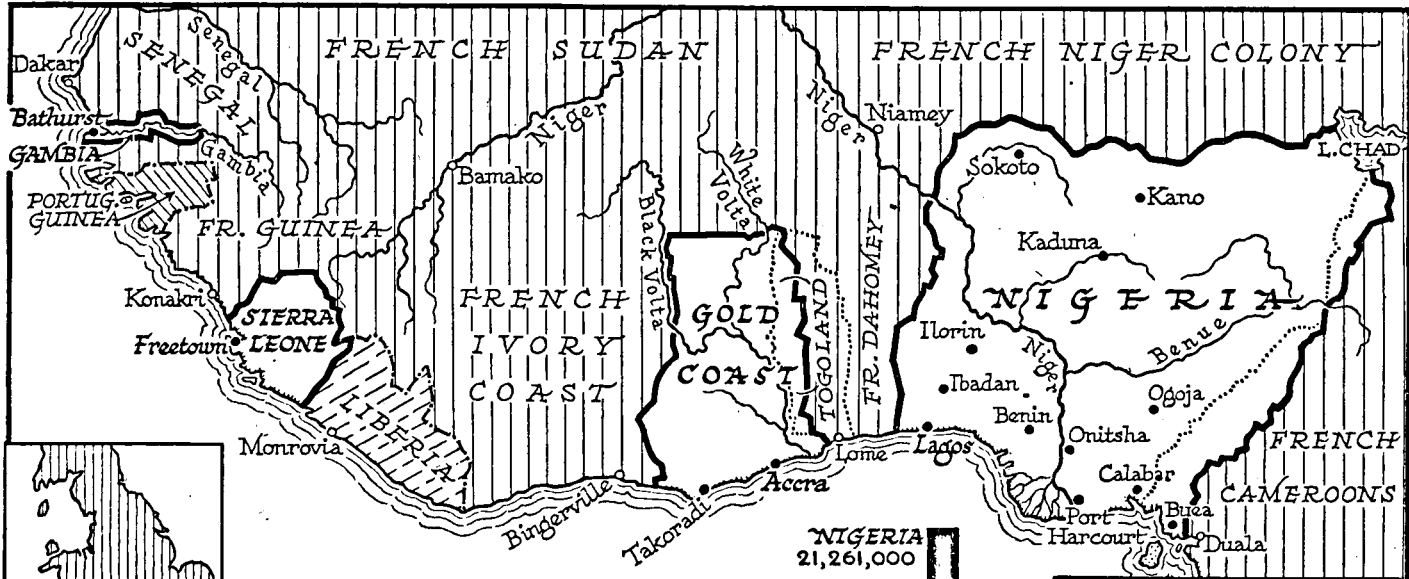
We wish to record our deep sense of gratitude to the Governors and all the officers serving under them, and especially to the Education Departments, which short-staffed as they were, made such excellent arrangements on our behalf and collected so much information for us. We wish to thank our liaison officers, Mr. G. B. Cartland and Mr. J. B. Flynn in the Gold Coast, Mr. D. W. Russell and Mr. C. T. Quinn-Young in Nigeria, and Mr. W. J. Davies, M.B.E., in Sierra Leone, who accompanied us on most of our journeys, for their untiring help in making our day-to-day arrangements while we were in West Africa. We owe also a great debt of gratitude to our hosts in West Africa, who, in the midst of wartime difficulties, threw their homes open to us as we travelled round. It was largely due to their kindness that we were able to complete, according to schedule, so strenuous a tour.

We left West Africa by air early in April and arrived in England on the 10th of April, 1944, with a mass of evidence to collate.

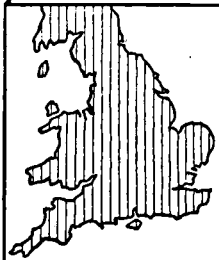
Since then we have been meeting in England and working out our recommendations. The West African Governments at our request have supplied us with further information on some points. We wish to thank them, and all those interested in this problem, for the patience with which they have waited for us to complete our report. Since we returned to England we have spent 33 days meeting together, for the most part in London; but we also had the good fortune to be for nearly a week the guests of Durham University in Durham Castle, and for four days in Oxford the guests of Westfield College, at St. Peter's Hall. Their hospitality under war conditions we desire to recognise with most cordial thanks.

During these long discussions we have found ourselves in unanimous agreement that the need for the extension of higher education, and of university development, in West Africa, is urgent, and that the time is ripe. We also find ourselves in agreement on many of the detailed steps to be taken. However, on the policy required to achieve the general aim, there has arisen a difference of views which it has proved impossible to reconcile. We therefore submit a majority and a minority report.

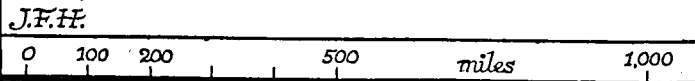
We desire to express our deep gratitude to our Secretary, Mr. G. E. Sinclair. Mr. Sinclair's knowledge of West Africa and his organising ability were both heavily drawn upon in carrying through the tour, with its numerous detached parties. He contributed in very great measure to the success of the visit. The technical preparation of the report, involving the collation of masses of evidence has been a work of immense labour for him, which all the Commissioners wish to recognise. Our stenographers, Miss E. I. Craik, and Miss S. M. Llong, came out from England and travelled with us the length and breadth of West Africa, carrying out their duties, often under trying conditions, with care, cheerfulness and great efficiency, and we take leave of them with warm appreciation of their services.



MAP I



England & Wales
on same scale



Populations

GAMBIA
199,000

SIERRA
LEONE
1,768,000

GOLD
COAST
3,960,000

NIGERIA
21,261,000

The four
BRITISH WEST
AFRICAN
Colonies

III

REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON HIGHER EDUCATION IN WEST AFRICA

CHAPTER I

WEST AFRICAN BACKGROUND

1. The expression "British West Africa" may convey to the mind of one who is not well acquainted with the British dependencies in Africa, the impression that British West Africa is one large compact territory, whereas in fact it is merely an expression used to describe four separate territories each administered by the British Government, under the form of administration commonly known as the Crown Colony system. The boundaries of the territories are not even contiguous; they are separated from each other by large territories, administered by several foreign powers.

2. The four British West African dependencies are: (1) Gambia, which is about the size of Wales, and has a population of about 200,000.* It is situated at the point where the continent of Africa bulges out into the Atlantic 2,600 miles from England; (2) Sierra Leone, which is about the size of Eire, and has a population of about 1,768,000.* It is situated 500 miles south of Gambia, from which it is separated by two territories, under the French and Portuguese governments respectively; (3) the Gold Coast, which is about the size of Great Britain, has a population of about 3,960,000,† and lies about 1,000 miles east of Sierra Leone, from which it is separated by two foreign territories, the Republic of Liberia and the French Ivory Coast; (4) Nigeria, which is about four times the size of Great Britain, has a population of some 21,260,000.† It is situated east of the Gold Coast, from which territory it is separated by Togoland, under French mandate, and the French colony of Dahomey. The distance between Gambia, the nearest of these dependencies to Great Britain, and Nigeria, the furthest away, is almost equal to the distance between London and Moscow.

3. Each of the dependencies of British West Africa is administered by a Governor with the advice of an executive council; the laws are made by the Governor with the advice and consent of a legislative council, consisting of Africans and Europeans in the colony.

4. Prior to the advent of British rule in West Africa, these territories were ruled in smaller, sometimes very small, units. These native states, as organized bodies, now exercise important administrative functions within the framework of the colonial constitutions. They are increasingly concerned with the administration and finance of education.

5. This is the first Commission appointed by the British Government on which West African representatives have served. It is worthy of note that our three African members who come respectively from the colonies of Sierra Leone, Gold Coast and Nigeria, are all past students of Fourah Bay College, a college founded by the Church Missionary Society in 1827, which was affiliated to Durham University as long ago as 1876.

Missionary societies in West Africa, as in many parts of the British Empire, have been the pioneers of educational institutions, and we are assured that West Africans will always have a deep sense of gratitude for the sacrifices which the hundreds of missionaries have made, and for their devotion to the cause of humanity. The work of education was begun, and for many years carried forward, almost entirely by missionary effort. The mission schools are now largely financed by the colonial Governments, which also

NOTE.—For convenience in this report we have sometimes used the term "West Africa," in the place of the more accurate but longer term "British West Africa."

* 1931 Census.

† Estimated (1942 Blue Book).

provide the inspectorate and the machinery for maintaining academic standards. The Governments have also provided a certain number of schools, mainly secondary and technical, and the villages themselves have taken the initiative in starting a great number of small or "bush" schools which subsequently qualify for Government recognition and assistance. It is however true to say that education in West Africa is still for the most part, in one way or another, under the management of religious bodies.

6. Our Commission was required, by its terms of reference, "to report on the organisation and facilities of the existing centres of higher education in British West Africa, and to make recommendations regarding future university development in that area." While pursuing these injunctions we have had, as may well be imagined, innumerable discussions on "What is the purpose of a university?" That general discussion must always, at the end of any given time, stand adjourned; but there is amongst us a wide agreement about the immediate purpose of a university or university bodies in West Africa; which we now set down. This purpose should be, to equip those students who will have to attack and solve the special problems of West Africa, (who, in the nature of things will nearly all be Africans,) with the skill for their tasks. Furthermore, to transmit, to those who are taking up professional study, not only existing knowledge—knowledge of medicine, of agriculture, of engineering, of teaching—but also the intellectual disciplines, and standards, without which that knowledge may be merely lumber, or worse. Lastly, and most important, to make available to all students who wish, and are able to avail themselves of it, a survey of principle, an access to thought, a training in objective thinking, such as will enable them to take their place in the world of learning of to-day as equals, in every sense of the word, capable of comradeship with their contemporaries in any land, deserving and receiving, in their chosen fields, the confidence and support of their own people.

7. To carry out the review of education above referred to, and to translate, or attempt to translate, those ideals into terms of students, subjects, and equipment, terms which will deserve support both from the peoples of West Africa and of Great Britain, is a stubborn undertaking. These ideals must appeal both to the African and the British communities, for they will not bring results unless they carry conviction to both.

8. Great Britain in her contacts with West Africa has shown a kaleidoscopic variety of interest during the centuries since the first hazardous voyages of English seamen to the coast. In Elizabeth's reign merchants of west-country ports and London were already concerned, under royal patronage, with "orderly traffique and trade of merchandize" in the Gambia, and in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries trade in gold, ivory, pepper and slaves was considered by a succession of chartered companies to be an enterprise well worth pursuing in spite of the depredations of climate and rival Europeans.

With the humanitarian agitation of the late eighteenth century and the final victory of the abolitionists in Parliament in 1807, new interests were gradually taking the place of those that were coming to an end, and government, merchants, missionaries, explorers, philanthropists were at times in an uneasy partnership, at others in open variance, in their plans for the future relations between West Africa and England. As late as 1865 the House of Commons resolved that Great Britain should take the earliest opportunity of withdrawing from every position on the West African coast except Sierra Leone. Yet the persistence of those who had come to the coast for commercial, missionary, or scientific interests made that decision of little more authority than Canute's command to the waves. Responsibilities which had been undertaken, and contacts which had been made, proved more lasting than resolutions for withdrawal.

9. The mood of discouragement was succeeded by a remarkable period of renewed vigour and development, which has continued into the present day. Energy came again to the churches. Trade developed on a large scale. Administration, both central and local, began to revive, after the chaos which the repeated fluctuations had brought about, or encouraged. The new developments of trade were particularly noteworthy. The abolition of the slave trade left at first only minor items such as ivory, gold dust, certain woods and gums, as articles of legitimate commerce. Then came the growing demand for palm oil. At the end of the 1820's the West African exports were under £150,000 annual value. By the end of the century the figures frequently approached £2,000,000. Nevertheless, it was not until the twentieth century that the big economic developments, capable of sustaining a real improvement in the condition of the people, began to take place.

10. This slow development, and the successive improvement and deterioration of relations, between Britain and Africa were due to a variety of causes. High amongst them must be placed the heavy sickness and mortality rates which existed amongst Europeans until recent years. A large part of the difficulty of gaining and maintaining touch was also due to the complex conditions of living amongst the West African tribes, and in particular to their innumerable languages. The life of a European on the coast was short, and when he died or went home everything had to be begun again. The health conditions certainly have recently improved out of all recognition. Too much emphasis, however, should not be placed upon the health position alone. In the first fifteen years of the Colony of Virginia, not now regarded as a particularly unhealthy spot, 7,000 of the 8,000 who had landed were dead, leaving only 1,100 survivors—about one out of every eight. Yet there was never any lack of pioneers eager to tackle these conditions. In West Africa, on the other hand, contacts with the outside world tend to wither away. Unless vigorous and definite new efforts are undertaken from time to time, development languishes.

11. As Europeans in their search for trade frequently in the past showed carelessness towards African interests, or pure selfishness, so West Africa, during these centuries of contact, exhibited to the full that combination of interest and wariness, which is a hallmark of Africa all over. The interest of the West African in the rest of the world is unfeigned and profound; he is neither abashed nor appalled by strange thoughts or circumstances, however novel they may be. He displays a remarkable resilience and cheerfulness, no matter how terrible the assault of circumstances upon him. Accordingly, he has always been a fighter—and, oddly enough, considering his own specialised environment, a wanderer. The Negro is depicted in battle, in the frescoes of Crete of the second or third millennium B.C. He is found, in our time, in the pages of Herman Melville, wielding a harpoon in the waters of the Antarctic, and "bound round the world after the White Whale."

12. His suspicion, for all that, is also profound. This is scarcely to be wondered at. The relations of the West African peoples with the rest of the world, and to a considerable extent with each other, have been, for a very large part, on the basis of frank hostility. The hand of every man was against them. The story of African contact with the outer world is inextricably bound up with the story of the slave trade. In some parts of West Africa, though not in all, this has left a bruise in racial memories which even yet is not to be carelessly touched. African sensitiveness upon the subject of slavery is extreme.

In Southern Nigeria the penalty for kidnapping a freeman into slavery was death. Legend describes how even the wise tortoise, suspected of this

crime, was brought to trial; and, the accusation having been proved, "the executioner drew the sword in his presence, and sheathed it in his absence".

13. In spite of all this, the other ruling African attitude, that of interest, must be given equal weight. The West African might be described as a xenophile. His suspicion of groups does not extend to individuals. "The stranger", as such, is universally known, and admitted. Once admitted, he rapidly becomes, whether European or African, a friend. Each of these two emotions has to be taken into account, and allowed for.

14. The whole physical lay-out of this immense region is calculated to discourage intercourse and to foster isolation. The dominant feature of West Africa is its huge belt of tropical rain-forest, nearly the depth of England from the Midlands to the Channel, and as wide as the Atlantic from there to Newfoundland. "West Africa" starts where the coastline begins to turn eastward, below Dakar, and ends, for purposes of demarcation, some 1,500 miles away, where the coastline pivots on two gigantic mountains, one, Cameroon, on the land, 13,000 feet high, and the other, Fernando Po, 10,000 feet high, in the sea 70 miles away. There the coastline begins to strike southward again. The great "West Coast" running almost due East and West for all those miles, and wholly within the tropics, has been, till the opening up of the air routes, on the road to nowhere. It faces towards the enormous and almost unbroken waste of the South Atlantic, whose only bounds are, to the West, Cape Horn, and to the East, the Cape of Good Hope, and which has no Southern shore before the Antarctic Continent. Nobody went along the West Coast of Africa unless he had very good immediate reason for his journey, and the further along the coast, the truer this became. This remoteness finds its final example around the Bight of Benin. The Portuguese reached Benin City in 1485, but it was still a place of mystery in the 1890's—although the distance from Benin City, to the mouth of its river on the sea, is only 73 miles.

15. The land frontier of West Africa is even more of an insulation. It is the Sahara. The extent of this barrier has literally to be seen to be realised. Only nowadays, coming from Africa to Europe by air travel, and taking the enormous views which air travel affords, does one get an adequate picture of the break in communications which the great desert means. The desert reaches the sea on a 1,000 mile front, from the Senegal river to the Atlas mountains, a barren, absolutely inhospitable coast, which must have been one long terror to the early mariners working south along it. But that is merely the water-front of the desolation. At the spot where the Tropic of Cancer cuts the coast, almost midway in this stretch, one has the formidable thought that there is no river, and scarcely even any running water, between there and the Nile, clear across the continent, 3,000 miles away. As the tropical forest of the coast is left behind, the landscape changes everywhere to savannah forest, then to orchard-bush with scattered trees only, then to thorn-bush country, and lastly, to the arid preludes to the desert itself. All roads out of West Africa, save one, lead either to the desert, or to the sea. To attempt to cross either was an undertaking indeed.

16. The one exception is north-eastward, where the Benue river comes down to join the Niger. That direction leads by Lake Chad towards the better watered region of Darfur, and so to the upper course of the Nile. Though the distances are great, that has been the traditional route of mass travel between West Africa and the rest of the world, from prehistoric times until to-day. It was last used on a significant scale as recently as the end of the 19th century, when Rabeah the Egyptian came that way, an adventurer with an army. He set up an empire in the region of Bornu and ruled till he was killed in battle, exactly in the old style. His coming still remains, in the

minds of living men, a cardinal date for many of the Northern Nigerian inhabitants—"I was a child under Rabeh," "When Rabeh came, my father was a man." He was in the tradition of the old invaders. It was down this road, the peoples felt subconsciously, that armies always came.

17. We have already seen how Europe came to West Africa; by sea. The culture, as well as the civilisation, of Asia, came by land. It came largely by the Nile-Niger traverse that has just been described, although the influence of Islam travelled also directly across the desert from North Africa, in the long toilsome journeys of the caravans. But the land-borne impact coming from Asia was no more able forcibly to penetrate the forest than was the sea-borne impact from Europe. This was partly because of the sheer obstacle of the trees, and the strength they added to the resistance of the inhabitants, and partly, we may suppose, to the death of horses and cattle, from the tsetse fly and the killing parasite, the trypanosome, which the tsetse fly carries. Consider first the actual obstacle. You may reach a tropical forest on a broad front—you must pass through it by files. It is like a town a thousand miles long. The paths lead to perfectly definite spots, from one village to another. Every village is a road-block; the path comes to the village, breaks up to enter the houses, regathers itself, and leads out on the other side. There is no reason why the path should skirt the village, and it does not do so. There is no way round the village, unless you fell trees and cut bush to make a new path for yourself; and no invading army from overland was ever able to do this for any distance.

18. The obstacle of the tsetse fly is yet greater. Even to-day the horse can live only with difficulty in the forest. The tsetse fly still kills the incoming cattle. There are no cattle in the forest, save for a few thousands of "dwarf cattle" which have a tolerance to the trypanosome in much the same way as the wild game. The absence of horses, the absence of oxen, meant that there were neither animals for war, nor for draught, anywhere in the forest. If they were brought in, by invaders or by settlers, they all died. There were, accordingly, no wheels. In these regions the wheel, in every form (even the potter's wheel), was unknown. There were therefore no roads as we know them.

19. Agriculture, the basis of society, was founded purely on tillage, and hand tillage at that. The main aspects of agriculture involving animals and the use of animals, the use of animal manure for instance, were unknown. The plough and its furrow were unknown. The tools of agriculture were the heavy African hoe, and its indispensable forerunners, the axe and the chopping-knife. There is not a rood of ground in the forest which can be used without first being cleared; and, in this system of agriculture, any cleared ground can only be used for two or three years before it is returned again to bush fallow, which is to say, to scrub forest, which will have to be cleared once more in a few years time.

20. In such circumstances agriculture became intensely local and operated by family groups. Property in land, though well-recognised, consisted of "rights", often of bewildering complexity, rather than of any kind of fee-simple. Yet, the trees such as oil-palms, which were not cut down and which survived the clearing-fires, were sometimes separately owned by families or by individuals. Such trees are not necessarily adjacent; they may lie a considerable distance from each other. British West Africa has scarcely known the "plantation" system, and except for Cameroon, where the Germans ousted the native proprietors by force, it has practically no working examples of this type of production. Undoubtedly this puts West African production at a great disadvantage, in some respects, in yield, quality of product and marketing arrangements, compared with the plantation production of, say,

the Dutch East Indies; but the peasant, here as elsewhere, simply will not consider systems which come between him and the soil. The controversy upon the advantages of large-scale as against peasant production, considered each in their widest aspects, is far too long and intricate to be gone into here. Suffice it to say that the admitted efficiency of "plantation" production has to be set against other advantages possessed by a peasant society—for example, its special quality as a way of life.

21. No one nowadays is likely to recommend the wide divorce of a people from its soil. But in some areas of West Africa the population is already pressing hard upon the means of subsistence, and in all West Africa the peasant, producing and marketing any export crop for the world market, has to compete with the most efficient world producer, working under the best conditions for that particular crop. Furthermore, without improved agricultural production, even for home use, the West African peoples must find themselves faced indefinitely with hard times and high mortality. Whether such progress is to be made by improved small-holding production, or by agricultural co-operation, or along new lines, such as large-scale agriculture carried on by village or tribal units on the tribal lands, is still a question for the future.

22. These problems urgently demand the closest possible study. This will have to be carried out jointly by Western specialists, and by Africans who can combine local knowledge and popular support with a scientific knowledge of the economic and agricultural problems in question. Experience in other parts of the world shows that alterations in the agricultural system of a country can only be smoothly and successfully carried through with the help of organisers drawn from the country itself, and enjoying quite exceptional confidence from its people.

23. The agricultural systems differ according to the climate. In the forest belt, the typical village is surrounded by a sea of bush, from which stand out the tall palms and giant cotton-woods or other forest trees. In the bush are patches on which the undergrowth has been cut and burnt. In these cleared areas are grown the root-crops, the leguminous plants, the plantains, and the grains, which provide the staple diet of the people. After two or three years' cropping the soil becomes exhausted, and the plot is allowed to revert to bush. Another area of forest is felled, burnt, and planted. After several years of "bush fallow" the previous areas are again taken back into cultivation.

This, the traditional system of the forest region, is not at all haphazard. Its essential object is to permit the accumulation of humus and to allow the deep-rooting bush vegetation to penetrate to lower levels of the soil and draw thence the elements which had been removed by the "surface" crops. It worked all right while the pressure on the land was not acute, and the resting period could be kept sufficiently long to allow the soil to recuperate. But in many areas, as, for instance, amongst the Ibos living on the light sandy soils east of the Niger, in the last few decades this fallow period has been reduced below that necessary to allow the soil to recuperate. The crops begin to be less and less adequate. As a result the period of bush fallow is continually reduced. Furthermore, soil erosion on a serious scale sets in.

24. Soil erosion is a phrase all too familiar to agriculturists everywhere. Its effects are evident in all parts of West Africa to a greater or less degree. Soil erosion has a particular intensity when it is carried out by a rainfall representing a depth of from five to ten feet of water poured in a few months of each year upon exposed soils baked by a tropical sun. The rainwater tears its way down the slightest slopes, gulling them back into great raw

wounds in the earth, and rushing the soil into the sea. The size of the Niger delta shows that this action is no event of yesterday. There is little doubt, however, that it has increased considerably during the last fifty years or so. Man certainly cannot arrest it entirely; but he can certainly make it worse; and, it is hoped, can make things better. For example, in the Protectorate of Sierra Leone the burning of the hillsides, in order to plant upland rice, has resulted in immense loss of soil and the subsequent abandonment of whole areas. The development of the delta lands, for the cultivation of swamp rice, will, it is hoped, relieve the pressure on the upland tracts, and allow regeneration to take place.

25. The forest belt with its heavy and well-distributed rainfall is really best suited for the cultivation of tree or orchard crops. So long as the soil has cover, it is protected from wash; but when exposed, as it is in the cultivation of annual crops, the loss by erosion is an ever-present menace. Once this sets in, rapid deterioration inevitably results.

26. The chief indigenous crop tree is the oil palm. It is important not only as a cash crop but as an essential element in the nutrition of the people. But within recent years in large areas of the Gold Coast and western Nigeria, it has been displaced as a cash crop producer by the cocoa tree. The rapid rise of the West African cocoa industry is one of the romances of tropical agriculture, for the Gold Coast within fifty years has become by far the largest producer of cocoa, and its crop is now the chief item in the world's cocoa-market.

27. The spread of the cocoa tree, and the development of the great export industry which has resulted from its cultivation, illustrate several points of special interest. The tree was first introduced into West Africa by an African. It came from the neighbouring island of San Thomé, to which it had been brought from Brazil. The African peasants themselves eagerly took to planting it. No pressure was necessary. After a run of fifty years, the cocoa orchards are now suffering from various diseases, which are the cause of much concern for the future. Science has already disclosed many of the causes of these diseases, and research on a large scale is now being liberally, though belatedly, endowed with the aim of devising remedies. In its economic aspect the marketing of the crop has led to friction, which at times has become acute, between the primary producers and the commercial agencies. A Commission, the Nowell Commission,* was recently appointed and reported shortly before the outbreak of the present war. Both the scientific investigations now proposed and the commercial reorganisation suggested by the Nowell Commission would require skilled African workers, who in numbers and in quality are at present unprocurable.

28. Here, as elsewhere, the introduction of new crops and new techniques has brought both advantages and risks in its trail. If the African cultivator becomes convinced that a new departure is profitable he will adopt it, though, like other farmers all over the world he wants to be sure of the facts before he takes the plunge. To the case of the cocoa-tree may be added ground-nuts, the great crop of the Gambia and Northern Nigeria, and also extensively grown in other parts of West Africa. American cotton is also being cultivated on a large scale. Citrus fruits, cassava, sweet potatoes and tomatoes are being more and more grown and used; yet not one of these crops is indigenous.

29. It is necessary to repeat, however, that agricultural innovations, whether in Europe, or in America, or in Africa, are attended by danger often not appreciated till long afterwards, and on which science, when asked for remedies, sometimes has little at first to say. This is especially true when

* Report of the Commission on the marketing of West African Cocoa. Cmd. 5845, 1939.

the production has reached a high degree of mono-culture. To raise the level of agricultural production and to utilise fully the natural resources of a country requires an immense amount of patient exploratory investigation, to be followed by extensive work. The problems to be solved are innumerable and the workers in the past have been all too few. The need for trained men is already great; it will be far greater in the future.

30. There are special problems arising out of local conditions in Northern Nigeria. Here, though cattle flourish, and the rainfall lends itself to arable cultivation, cattle do not form part of the traditional farming system. Nigerian cattle are owned by tribesmen—the Fulani—who are cattle-breeders and cattle-keepers, by profession. They are the remnants of a recent wave of conquest. The cultivating peasant has no cattle on his holding. The Fulani have no cultivation. The peasant is beginning to realise that cattle manure is good for his land, and tries to come to an arrangement with the Fulani to corral cattle at night in certain fields which he intends to cultivate later on. Careful and laborious investigations, extending over the last 25 years, have now proved that in Northern Nigeria as elsewhere a system of mixed farming involving the keeping of cattle by the farmer himself results in far bigger profits, and will, through the manure produced by the cattle, keep up the fertility of the land far better than the old system. There are signs that these improved methods are now being taken up at an ever increasing rate.

31. Improvement in farming methods is still rather complicated by the history of the cattle-keepers as nomads and conquerors. No nomad likes to sell his cattle. One tribesman, asked why he would not get rid of some rather old and useless-looking stock replied that they were his trek oxen. Enquiries proved that his family had remained in their then location for two generations. Again, the Fulani, as conquerors, maintained till recently a very strict discipline amongst themselves. The initiation of the youths into manhood, for instance, involved, till very recently, tests of endurance of a most searching kind. The flogging of the youths by the elders in the presence of the tribe recalls the tales of the initiation of the Spartans. The qualification of one's dairyman by public beatings administered by his seniors, and pushed almost to the point of death, exemplifies one of the difficulties in interchanging African and European values.

33. The various general factors described above have their bearing on the social structure of West African life. The intensely local agriculture in the forest-belt, and the maintenance of wide areas of bush around the villages, must, without question, have had an influence on the size of the native units of administration. These are usually small, and sometimes tiny. In Sierra Leone the protectorate alone, with 1,672,000 inhabitants, contained 221 separate states. The Gold Coast Colony proper (which is the coastal portion of what is generally known as "the Gold Coast"), is somewhat smaller, with a smaller number of inhabitants (1,574,000)*. The number of separate states here, 60, is still very large. The picture in the Eastern Provinces of Nigeria is even more striking. This area contains nowadays 100 Native Administrations with independent "Treasuries", many of which represent artificial amalgamations of clans. Where cattle-keeping is possible and where the horse is used, in Northern Nigeria, it is noticeable that the units of government are larger; though even there the states are not large, either in population or in territory, judged by European standards.

34. These units, till the coming of the paramount power, were the final authorities for life and death, war and peace, and, in short, conducted themselves as sovereign units in no way subordinate to each other, nor owing

any common allegiance. In Ashanti or in Yoruba-land, the areas of sovereignty are larger than those mentioned above. They may run up to a population of some 600,000* in the case of the Ashantis, and of some 1½ million* in the case of the Oyo Yorubas. Even so, they partake of the nature of confederations rather than of highly organised unified "kingdoms" such as Europe has shown in modern times. It will be seen that the opportunities for men to gain experience in handling the large units of the modern world are not numerous. The finding of a sphere where such talent can be discovered and exercised is a very great and real difficulty.

35. It is necessary to keep in mind both the origins of the native authorities and their present powers and growing importance. These authorities are the real constituent entities of all British West Africa, whether of the plain or of the forest. Through them the European officials work. With the native authorities lies the future. Education, public works, are functions of a local authority all over the world, and those in Africa are no exceptions. But the Asantehene, the head of the Ashantis, who discussed at length with us the grievances common to all local authorities the world over—such as the insufficient return to his locality of revenues which the central government drained away,—is also the head of a military confederacy which twice within the last 150 years has carried its arms right down to the sea, against the British as well as against the Africans, and even as late as 1900 laid siege to the British in Kumasi, the capital, itself. Again, the Sultan of Sokoto, deeply concerned over the scanty and inferior water-supply of Sokoto City and his desire to obtain sanction of the central government for a local loan to improve the city supply, is also the Sarkin Musulmi, or Leader of the Muslims, and the religious senior of all the great Northern Emirs; responsible for functions affecting the very life of the Mohammedans, such as declaring the rising of the moon of Ramadan—the month of the fast. The government of the town of Ibadan is divided between two authorities, civil and military, which derive from the old organisation of Ibadan as a military camp against the Northern Emirs. This system is in process of modification but even yet has by no means been abolished. A town organised partly as a civil administration and partly as a military camp inevitably provides many problems in time of peace.

36. In general, native authorities manage the land on behalf of the community. In return the people used to give service in arms and in kind, and payment of various dues. Now service in kind is being replaced by taxation. Land is leased to strangers from other tribes and fees are obtained from courts and markets, and royalties are drawn from mines and timber. From these revenues are built roads and water supplies, markets and schools and dispensaries; from these revenues are paid the salaries of the councillors and the growing civil services of these local governments. Where the authority is a large one it has been able to take over many of the local services. Kano administration, for example, in one year of this war was able to undertake work for the Army and Air Force to the extent of over £1,000,000. All these revenues however are very small indeed judged by European standards. Sometimes authorities are tiny in extent, and direct taxation has not yet come into being or gives a minute yield. There, the revenues are so small that they scarcely suffice for the salaries of the few court officials and elders, and no local services can be undertaken. In the forest regions hereditary office carries with it many democratic checks. Nearly all important questions, for instance, are hotly and lengthily debated in open meeting places in the towns and villages, where all sections of the community make their voice heard through their representatives.

37. The peculiar circumstances of the forest communities have been accentuated in many parts of the country, by the numerous perfectly distinct languages spoken by peoples living closely together and, indeed, frequently intermingled. There are for example three main separate languages in the forest area of the Gold Coast, with a dozen more in the Northern Territories. There are some fifteen languages in Sierra Leone, and an indeterminately large number in Nigeria, where the Jos plateau alone, the size of Wales, has from a dozen to twenty. There is no *lingua franca*. Hausa is extensively spoken in the North, but it is in no way a current speech in the Southern areas. In Yoruba, the tongue of several million people in Nigeria, one single word may have six completely separate meanings, according to its pronunciation, and as these differing sounds are extremely subtle, it is doubtful if more than a dozen or two Europeans so far can really talk the language at all. The mistakes made by an African in speaking English may be paralleled several times over by the mistakes made by an Englishman in speaking many of the African tongues.

38. This again has an immediate bearing on the problems both of administration and of education. A region where each language presents considerable difficulty, where a painfully acquired knowledge may become largely useless if an official is moved a few miles from his previous location, is a region where responsibility must inevitably remain largely with the people of the soil, and where therefore they must receive adequate training to enable them to exercise it.

39. The language-making habit of the West African is so great that a constant struggle has to be kept up to prevent him from establishing new languages out of English itself. Already there is the Creole "patois" of Sierra Leone, a tongue born in Freetown, of English origin, but quite unintelligible at first hearing to any Englishman. It is now spreading amongst the tribes inland. There is also pidgin English, differing according to the different colonies. It is a kind of translation from the African, and has at least the merits of a translation, that the idea to be conveyed is rephrased, and the hearer can decide whether it has been correctly grasped or not. Thus, when a farmer applying for a gun-licence gives us his reason that "dem bush-meat chop my farm too much" he is stating what, in officialese, would probably run "the depredations of the larger wild animals are making my agricultural operations almost entirely unremunerative". Opportunities for misuse of words, or misunderstanding of their precise meaning, are markedly greater in the second sentence than in the first.

40. It is not English alone that is subject to this constant remaking. Hausa also is developing a pidgin called "baraki" or "barrack" Hausa. The purity of English accent and the accuracy of English vocabulary, which can be acquired by educated Africans, whether in the Old World or the New, and the advantage which these powers give their users, make it necessary that at all costs the King's English, the language of educated men, must be at the command of the West African generally.

41. In this connection the great extension in the teaching of English through the army in the war must be borne in mind. The teaching of English for periods of an hour a day or more has been an essential part of the instruction in arms. During this war it was carried out for much larger numbers than ever before and at an intense pressure, since it was done by people whose lives literally would later depend upon it. Views upon the extent to which this knowledge will remain differ. Without doubt it has broadened horizons of every kind.

42. Where and how the transition to English from the "mother-tongue" is to be made at school, falls outside this review. Suffice it to say that those best qualified to speak attach an increasing importance to the primary stages of education being given in the language of the home. When for instance this language is only spoken in a few villages, and in a number of divergent dialects, the ideal becomes impossible. Then the child may have to pass through at least one difficult African tongue, a tongue of instruction, to reach English, the tongue of education—as though we should all find ourselves being taught Greek in Arabic. The extent of the handicap which this imposes on the African student is difficult for us nowadays to conceive. It imposes as much as a year's delay or more on the African student even in the best conditions. These problems cry aloud for the scientific investigation of education in Africa if it is to be really attacked for the people as a whole.

43. There are other problems, both technical and psychological, inherent in the use of the most important of the new instruments of popular instruction, the radio. The jostle of languages makes it certain that only a small fraction of listeners at any one time will be able to hear a transmission in their own language. African music also is highly idiomatic. A Fanti or Ga song or tune would evoke no more than an academic interest from a Yoruba or an Ibo audience; and of course the words would be totally incomprehensible. Transmissions in a foreign tongue are exhausting to the listener save under the very best technical conditions, and these are rarely achieved as yet, since West Africa is not an easy country from the radio point of view. There is only one large radio station, that at Accra, built under war conditions. There, the radio engineers and the artists radiate programmes made up according to the best information at their disposal; but they emphasise that they are without any thorough knowledge of how their transmissions are faring, or what impressions, apart from news, they are conveying. Here again a lengthy and painstaking investigation, conducted on the spot, in close collaboration between the most expert Western engineers and listener-researchers, and African linguists and listeners, is indispensable, before any pronouncement at all can be made as to the educative possibilities of the radio for West Africa. A similar comment may be made about the film. Years of work are necessary before full reliance can be placed on either of these new departures. The old tried methods of the individual teacher with his book or his tools—methods which, in the case of 90 per cent. of West Africans, are as new and as exciting as any electrical or mechanical devices—must be, for long enough, the sheet-anchors of learning. There is no short cut.

44. Indeed, the problem of books is important enough to deserve a report to itself. In most of these languages no original books of any kind exist, nor has it entered anyone's head to compose any. The only book is the Bible, in one of the many translations which the indefatigable industry of the missionaries, here as elsewhere pioneers and main transmitters of education, have made available. Even in the school books the innumerable dialects interpose themselves. We are apt to forget what a debt we owe to those who produced the King's English, the minted sovereigns of speech. If one can imagine the irritation that would be caused in Lancashire by finding that the whole of a child's algebra or biology had to be recited by it in broad Somerset under penalty of failure in its examinations, one can gain a faint impression of the indignation felt by parents who find their own ways of speaking corrected (and in their view without authority) by books drawn up in some other dialect which, often by pure haphazard, was the first to attract the attention of the codifiers of grammar and vocabulary. Till within the last ten or fifteen years there was no original book in Hausa by a Hausa author, excepting certain chronicles which had survived destruction by

the Fulani invaders. A Government officer in the North, with the encouragement of a recent grant from Government funds, has founded during the war one of the first newspapers in that tongue, which one of his two Hausa sub-editors, by a brilliant stroke of journalism, has entitled "Truth is Worth More Than a Penny." The staff has set itself the task, in the intervals of bringing out this journal, not only of translating into Hausa the masterpieces of world literature, but also of creating a new literature of Hausa origin. It will inevitably be a good long time before this can compare with other literatures.

45. All this multiplicity of tongues however gives the African scholar an outlook on languages differing altogether from that of his schoolboy British contemporary. Latin is simply one more language. Greek, to the Africans who reach Greek, simply another; it is true, with an unfamiliar script; but a script no more unfamiliar than that of Arabic, which to the northern Mohammedans is a normal culture language. Greek thought, Greek settings, Greek wars, Greek rituals, would be much more familiar and recognisable to him, once the initial unfamiliarity had been overcome, than the ideas that he will eventually encounter in English. Compare, for instance, the mental adjustment required to read and understand the trial and death of Socrates, with that necessary to master the Gold Standard, or the workings of the Liverpool Cotton Exchange.

46. So far this review applies primarily to the coastal and forest area. The forest and coastal communities have an outlook quite independent both of the East and of the West. The picture in the Northern Provinces of Nigeria differs considerably. The northern regions look inland, and are, so to speak, littoral states round the great dry sea of the Sahara. Their religion is Islam, their culture is Mohammedan, their clothes, their habits, their agriculture, are all from the arid lands. They have horses, oxen, camels. Their units of government are larger. Their administration is centralised—they have, for instance, a long tradition of direct taxation, the "haraji," a traditional form of income tax, and the "jangali," or cattle tax. Yet they are deeply influenced by the heavily watered lands of the south, rich in oils and fats, a market for their cattle, and an employer of their seasonal labour, wealthy by their standards, and in close touch with all the devices and the education of the West, which lies at their back-door. From time immemorial the Hausa traders have travelled and settled throughout the length and breadth of the southern regions. They have their own quarter in most of the large towns; and when in any of these out-lying settlements the word goes round that there is coming "a big man from Kano," the greatest of the northern walled cities, interest rises, among the Hausas, and respect is accorded as to a visitor from home.

47. The Mohammedan provinces are by no means wholly Mohammedan. Throughout them there dwell, often in large numbers (in Zaria province, for example, a third of the whole), the pagans. The pagans are a phenomenon of their own, the aboriginals of a pre-European conquest. Their characteristic dwellings are collections of bee-hive shaped mud huts, closely adjacent, built on no system, and surrounded by a stockade of high prickly euphorbia. Their costume is nothing at all, and this not only from poverty, though they are generally poor, but from preference. They regard clothing as unnecessary or undesirable, and leading to bad habits, such as stealing. But they are horse-users, cattle-keepers, when they can get cattle, and hard-working and skilful agriculturists. They approach new problems with an outlook of their own. They are not interested in the Koran, or any of its injunctions or prohibitions. Consequently there is nothing to prevent them taking up Western learning, which they are beginning to do; and so the Moslem sees

a certain danger of finding himself between the hammer and the anvil; his coastal neighbours, each year better educated, each year coming up to take more of the better-paid posts which he is so far unable to provide with fully trained staffs—and his erstwhile subjects, the pagans, on the spot, and only too anxious to accept all the opportunities for emancipation that the new learning can give them. A pagan has, in some cases, actually become a school teacher for Moslem boys, because no qualified Moslem teacher could be found for the post. All this seems to the Mohammedan populations to be contrary to the order of nature, and will, at no very distant date, set up the strains which such circumstances inevitably produce. One or two far-sighted Emirs realise the approaching danger; but the steps being taken to meet it, they know, are not adequate. We are well aware that the steps which we propose for higher institutions, situated, as they must be, very largely in the coastal regions, may at first actually accentuate this disadvantage. It is impossible to hold back the coast and the forest till the North is level with it, and it is impossible under present conditions to locate a university or university college in the North; but special steps should be taken to ensure an adequate share, without question, in the new educational advances, by students from the North.

48. Two points accentuate the educational difficulties of the Moslem North. Firstly, it was only at the beginning of this century, that British administration was extended so as to bring into its system the great Emirates. Indeed, Lord Lugard, who inspired and led the advance, was an active figure in London affairs until the spring of 1945. The forces used during this incorporation were tiny*—rather those of an embassy than of an army—and the arrangements arrived at aimed in every case, at the least possible disturbance of the status quo. Amongst other things, it was agreed that there was to be no insistence on the teaching of English. Also, that Islam was to remain the official religion. Consequently no missionary activities were to be carried on without the express sanction of the Moslem authorities. So the immense impetus which the churches have transmitted elsewhere in Africa has been lacking, and in particular their work on education. The influence of the missionaries on education in West Africa can here be estimated by the method of differences, and it is striking indeed. As is inevitable, many people of influence and foresight amongst the Mohammedans now turn round and blame the British because for example, they did not sufficiently stress the supreme importance, throughout the educational course, of English. When the answer is made "You were against it", the reply comes "You knew better. You should have insisted." It is the one accusation from which no-one who has accepted the responsibility of Government can shake himself free. All the more since the tradition of Islam is the tradition of submission to the Will of God, the acceptance of authority and direction. Lacking direction from rulers, action lags. It is difficult for many of the conceptions worked out in the forest to be applied in the plains. For example an enlargement of indirect rule in the North would mean an increase in the personal power of the hereditary Emir. The dovetailing of the new ways into this power has yet to be accomplished.

49. Secondly, Islam has its own attitude towards women. Its attitude in West Africa towards women's education is an attitude of the greatest caution, not to say hostility. Compared with other parts of West Africa, where the women's side of the house often holds a position of great authority, this is a double handicap. On the Coast it is taken for granted that the women have their own position, unquestioned, and, in the matriarchal states,

* The force which took Kano consisted of 700 Africans and 38 Europeans.

"History of Nigeria" Burns.

of a peculiar importance. Indeed, in the case of the Queen-Mothers in the Ashanti tribes, they have the first word in the selection of the ruler. (It is worth while noting that they exercise this, neither as Queens, nor as mothers, for they are not necessarily either, but rather as combining the weight of traditional place, such as that of a learned abbess of the 13th century, with the personal influence of a powerful leader of society in Victorian England.) This outlook, however circumscribed, is difficult for the Moslem sages to regard as anything but heathenish. The Christian ideal is also unacceptable. Meanwhile, the pagans have no inhibitions about the proper sphere of women. The conception of purdah, or even of the veil, would seem even further out of the question to a pagan woman than to anybody, man or woman, in Great Britain. The whole question of the improved position of women is being argued out, and indeed has been argued out, in many modern Islamic states; but the readjustments necessary before such a change in thought can be made in West Africa are far-reaching. Meanwhile, the old conceptions act as a heavy brake upon the progress desired by the Moslem communities themselves. The hospitals, for example, to be acceptable to Islamic opinion, should in theory provide wards for the Moslem women into which male visitors are not admitted. The difficulties of medical treatment, particularly for women, in backward Mohammedan countries are well known. The employment of Moslem women teachers is inevitably hedged about with every kind of restriction.

50. Nevertheless, the contribution of Islam to West Africa has been great and Islam has still its own part to play in African education. Xenophon tells that the ancient Persian ideal of education was that a boy should be taught to shoot with the bow, to ride the horse, and to speak the truth. The parallel conception of Islam, that education is essentially the inculcation of a code of conduct, is a factor which cannot be neglected in any system of education designed to appeal to West Africa as a whole. The building of character is a vital part of education. The two great schools of thought, Christian and Mohammedan, which have preached their gospels in West Africa, have always had before them perfectly definite ideals of character and conduct, however far believers may have fallen short in practice. These ideals have been accepted by great figures, and have been embodied in doctrines known for many centuries and spread far and wide throughout the world. The Koranic schools were instituted originally to instruct youth in the Book of a world religion. It is necessary to put on record that in 1931 the number of Koranic "schools" in Northern Nigeria is given, according to census figures, as 33,426, all purely voluntary, all maintained by the people themselves, and the scholars as 183,374. Although the vast proportion of these schools are purely Koranic, there are also, included in this figure the "Ilimi" or "law schools" which aim at a general education, including history, geography, Mohammedan law and custom. The Koranic schools of West Africa are in essence simply "a teacher under a tree" and may represent in many cases merely a patten-acquisition of texts and sayings in a foreign and incomprehensible tongue. Their origin, however, was the oldest of conceptions in the field of education, a pupil willing to learn and a teacher ready to teach. They were not intended for material ends but to help the scholars to understand man and his relations to things visible and invisible. West Africa will require always to remember, and often to reinforce itself from, those aspirations which, after all, fired the men who brought it contacts with the outside world, other than those of the trader, or the man with the club, the sword, and the gun.

51. A picture of West Africa must be the picture of a people leading a hard life; largely isolated from world influences, and actively and successfully

resisting many attempts to change their customs and habits by force. It is also the picture of a land where the vast majority of children, even to-day, receive no schooling at all. The percentage of children at school, in selected areas, reaches proportions comparable with those of some parts of Europe. In the coastal and forest regions as a whole it comes down to 17 per cent.; it drops to under 2 per cent. in Northern Nigeria and to an even lower figure for the Northern Territories of the Gold Coast. Two questions arise, "Is it desirable for West Africa to undertake, now, new education intended to reach Western university standards?" and "Even if such an extension is desirable, should it not be preceded by a further extension of primary and secondary education?" In other words, "Why higher education?"

52. In the coastal regions, for a hundred years and more, the mission schools have afforded some acquaintance with the three R's, some access to Western languages and Western thought to those who were willing and could afford to learn. It is important to remember, in estimating the interest of the West African boy or girl in education, and his or her family's desire to take advantage of the facilities that exist, that hardly anywhere in West Africa, in any institution, primary, secondary or higher, is education free. In some cases it is, of course, provided free of charge to the individual scholar, by way of scholarships—but this means that a stringent process of selection has usually to be applied. Yet education is attractive, both to the young people and to their parents, and the present schools are totally insufficient for those who are eager to attend.

53. Next, the need for educated Africans already far outruns the supply, present and potential. This holds good even for those who leave the elementary schools and become clerks without further training and who are at present much the most numerous. It is illustrated by the fact that both Government and commercial firms frequently attract teachers from schools into other walks of life. It is said that this is primarily due to the lower level of salaries paid in the teaching profession, and no doubt this is true—but the fact remains that if an educated African remains in the schools, he is not available for commerce. Yet educated Africans who can pass up the ladder of commerce to the higher posts, will become one of the country's most urgent needs, both commercially and politically. If an educated African leaves the school for the counting-house, or the Government office, his place as a teacher has to be filled by someone whose qualifications are less, not equal, and this in a country where, in general, the qualifications of teachers are admittedly lower than is desirable. Accordingly, many teachers, in Africa as elsewhere, remain in the schools, at considerable sacrifice to themselves.

54. Nowadays the knowledge begins to be widespread, that there is an altogether higher standard of health, of comfort, of nutrition, which can be attained by a modern community, but by an educated community only. Malaria is still the common lot of practically everyone in West Africa, man, woman, and child. Infection by trypanosomes (the organism of sleeping sickness) covers in some areas perhaps 20 per cent. or more of the West African populations. The characteristic tropical diseases are widely prevalent. There is often a resultant lowering of vitality, which leads in a great many cases to a permanently subnormal level of existence. A book might be written, as many books have been written, on this aspect of the problem alone. An ample supply of good water, a knowledge of the laws of sanitation, and an adequate standard of nutrition, will go a long way to prevent the illnesses of which the African is all too conscious. Progress in such matters is closely bound up with a wider extension of education and improvement in economic conditions.

55. Further, there is the knowledge that universal education is the practice amongst the Europeans both in their own countries, and wherever they go. Any suggestion of holding back in educational development arouses instantly the ever latent suspicion to which reference has already been made. "If education is not a good thing, why are you educated?" "If manual training is the proper avenue to understanding, let us see you limit yourselves to manual work." A small boy in another part of Africa, discussing the question of classical education, said to a member of another educational commission, years ago, "We desire to learn Latin because it is your secret language, from which you derive your power". A free access to Horace may disabuse him of that belief. Mere argument certainly will not. No partnership can succeed if one partner is denied, or even thinks he is denied, the facilities and privileges open to the other. "Neither is the father jealous of his child, nor the teacher of his pupil." It is the glory of a true partner to have trained someone anxious and fit to stand by his side and confront the world's difficulties.

56. When one looks for the root from which West African education sprang one comes back, everywhere and always, to the missionaries. It was the Christian missions who first came out to the Coast without desire for fee or reward. It was the congregations in Britain and America who provided the first development funds, the pennies of poor people, expended without reckoning of capital or interest. It was the Churches in both their African and European membership who first made Africanisation a working creed, and produced the first, and still by far the greatest, large-scale African organisation on the Western model. Finally, it was, and still is, the Churches, who have made it possible to talk of West African education, higher, middle, or lower, as a fact and not merely as an ideal. It is impossible for the full education of some thirty million people, of many religions, to be permanently undertaken by religious organisations controlled from another country thousands of miles away. The time is coming when the Churches will no longer be able to afford either the men or the money to continue the expansion of their educational work at its past rate, since education has now become the aim of West Africa as a whole. The Churches may rightly say however, that it was their work, long and patiently persisted in, throughout both Britain and West Africa, that has made co-operation between the two countries thinkable. This assertion, truly made, gives them the right to be heard on all these subjects, both now and in the future. It is only in the extension of the inspiration which combined ardour and service, that progress in education, and lasting co-operation between the two peoples, will be permanently secured.

57. A forward move in education, with all the urgency that conditions in Britain and West Africa will permit, is justified and indeed demanded, on every ground—that of historical development, of economic necessity, and of the fulfilment of a trust. But the second question remains—"Why higher education?" "Does not the picture just given point, without question, to a general spread of primary and secondary education, rather than of higher education?" To this the answer is simply that the advance must go on all along the front. Schools are not, and especially in Africa to-day, cannot be, simply links in an educational chain. Primary education is a stage in schooling, but it must also inevitably be regarded as a complete course in itself. Secondary education is a training for general immediate activity, a basic education enabling the student to go on to technical training, as well as a preparation for further learning, either professional or general. To suggest that University standards can only be based on universal popular education is to ignore the whole history of universities themselves. The great scholars of earlier centuries were not the product of a universal literacy in every artisan's or peasant's hut. It was the very reverse. The education

of the many was made possible by the prolonged and intense study of the few.

West Africa is in an epoch of its own. Total illiteracy and high standards of learning will exist side by side for many years to come. Only its own members can raise the mass of their own people.

58. In any case, university study by West Africans has been for generations in full swing. African doctors, African lawyers, African teachers, African churchmen, have for sixty years and more, in small but increasing numbers, passed into, and through, the universities of Great Britain, Europe, and America. What has happened is that these facilities are no longer adequate. That development is a first stage, and a most creditable and honourable stage, in the history both of West Africa and of Great Britain.

59. So far this survey has dealt with the difficulties under which the West African has worked. But that is only half of the picture. The other half, equally important, though it must occupy a shorter space, is what he has accomplished in spite of these difficulties. The development of these territories in the last 40 years has been the result of Africans and Europeans working together. The establishment of law and order, the construction of roads, railways, harbours, airports and modern towns; the increased crops, including the export crops, and the growth of the mining industry; the rising standard of living of the people, including the improvements in health and educational services; the armies which West Africa has raised and sent overseas during this war and the last; and the steady building up of representative government—in all these developments the Africans, with the guidance of European skill and experience, have played a great part. They have contributed their share through their labour, through their growing numbers of technicians and through professional men, through their churches, and through their chiefs and other leading public men. Through the spread of education, they have taken an increasing share of responsibility in all the activities which have together raised the standard of living of their own peoples. But Africans at times complain, and not without reason, that the history of their country is often written as though nothing had happened till the Europeans arrived. In fact, by that time the main work had been done. The whole land was populated, in places densely populated, with a tough and vigorous stock, often highly organised and with many achievements already to their credit. They had in fact subdued the tropics. When an African was asked "Have many Africans seen lions?" he replied, "Yes, but not nearly as many Africans as Londoners have seen lions." The West Africans have built up solidly constituted peasant states. They have made their own agriculture. Locally they have smelted ore and worked metals to a high degree of skill. They have organised guilds, such as those of the Awka blacksmiths, whose centre is on the Niger, but whose skill and standards are recognised throughout Nigeria, and trades, such as the remarkable fish trade from the coast to far inland—conducted almost entirely by women buyers and organisers. All this in the heart of the deep forest, or in the arid plains. West Africans do not, in fact, see lions, or even elephants. The animals have given up the contest. Only the insect disputes with man the mastery of this sub-continent.

60. The insect indeed takes a heavy toll. But there is enough surplus vitality left in African man when he has paid this toll, to show that zest in life of which his sculpture or his music are only examples, but which is typified in the smoke from a thousand miles of bush-clearing fires that one can see, from the windows of an aeroplane, or in the endless drumming that one can hear, looking in moonlight towards any African village. Negro music

is familiar to Europe in American settings. But this music in America is strikingly limited in scope as compared with the African stock. The African in his own land sings about work, about hunting, about money, about women, about canoeing, about planting, about war—in short, about all the things that men dwell naturally upon in their minds.

61. The West African's enormous zest overflows into song as it does into his elaborate organisations and rituals, whose language we have scarcely yet begun to decipher, which the rest of the world will never decipher, and whose lessons it will never read, without African tuition. Every now and then one comes on flashes which would light up much of our own forgotten history if they could but be made to last. Ancient European or Asiatic legends have counterparts, alive, and vigorous, governing the lives of many African people to-day. There are many things in West Africa still only half understood. The broad sandals of certain chiefs, for instance, made broad so that the ruler's foot shall not touch the earth at any point; the earth it is said, is very strong, and the ruler very strong, and if these two strong things touch, the current will "short", so to speak, and the power will be lost. Where this custom is followed, if a chief has to be deposed, his sandals are simply taken away, and then his foot touches the earth, power is no longer stored in him, and his strength is gone. The conceptions behind this—and so many other beliefs—have still to be unravelled. Africa is one of the source continents, and can strengthen our age, though, mis-handled, it can certainly weaken it. To clear the channels of thought and of confidence between Africa and the Western world may well be to open up a reinforcement of the spirit, of which both may stand greatly in need in the years ahead of us.

62. In any case great developments are under way. Far-reaching changes are inevitable. The West Africans have gone to the wars. They have been instructed in the handling of new machinery. Their troops have been trained to the highest levels, the levels of the airborne units, and, as the Secretary of State pointed out in Parliament, they formed a substantial part of the airborne forces landed far behind the Japanese lines in the heart of Burma, in one of the most adventurous exploits even of this war. We do not know what views the soldier will take of affairs when he returns; but they will certainly have changed from the views with which he set out. Again, coal, the pillar of industry, exists in West Africa, and sooner or later this is bound to take its place in the pattern of our time. There are, in Southern Nigeria, coal-seams up to five feet thick, occurring in strata which extend for hundreds of miles. The existence of lignite beds in Sierra Leone and also in Southern Nigeria, to a hitherto unsuspected extent, has only recently been verified. The manganese and gold of the Gold Coast, and the diamonds of the Gold Coast and Sierra Leone are already well recognised factors in world economy.

63. Somewhere, in West Africa within a century, within half a century—and what is that in the life of a people—a new African state will be born. It will be strong. Its voice will be listened for, wherever there are Africans or African-descended communities, and that is to say both in the Old World and in the New. It will have a vital need for counsellors, its own counsellors. Now is the time, and the time is already late, to train them for their work.

CHAPTER II

THE EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

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PRIMARY EDUCATION

1. A device sometimes employed to describe the educational system in a country is that of a pyramid, the broad base of which is the primary schools, narrowing to the apex of higher education at the top. Except in one respect it is a fundamentally misleading simile, for it implies that the aim of all education is the university. But it does at least show in diagrammatic form that all higher education is based upon an extensive foundation of primary education. The itinerary of the Commission recognised this fact by including many visits to primary schools in different parts of the West African territories. This essential glimpse into the groundwork of modern education in West Africa made it possible for us to see the existing educational system* as a whole, primary, secondary and higher, and to appreciate the complex problems of educational development at every level. The figures and maps on pp. 29 and 30 shew the numbers of children attending school in each territory and the uneven distribution of schooling in the various areas.

2. Since our concern is with the development of higher education, we make no attempt to examine or pronounce on the primary schools as they exist to-day. We think however that there are certain leading questions which we should put, because the answers to them throw some light on our conclusions.

3. The first question is about the place of modern primary education in the life of the West Africans. How far is it an alien growth, and how far have the West African people made it their own, and what does that involve? The answer to this question lies partly in the history of the growth of schools in West Africa, and partly in certain salient features of the present primary schools.

4. In the British West African colonies the provision of education has been due largely to the work of the Christian missions, and much of the credit for the present progress must be given to them. With encouragement, but at first with little financial support, from the colonial Governments, the missions from the outset of their work established infant and primary schools in the towns and villages within the orbit of the local church or mission station. As the African churches became more self-governing and self-supporting, they gradually took over the responsibility for maintenance and extension of the schools, since Christian parents wanted their children educated and were prepared to pay fees to get this education.

5. This close connection between church and school, and the almost universal payment of school fees† (graded according to the type and grade of school), show that the African people have made these schools their own and no longer regard them as something planted on them from outside. The great majority of the primary schools and all the types and grades of the so-called‡

* For terms used in West Africa in describing the various grades of school see Appendix II.

† School fees are usually higher in the towns than in the villages, and increase as the pupils advance up the school; for instance, in Southern Nigeria annual fees in infant classes vary from 3s. in rural areas to between 12s. and 20s. in the towns; in the highest forms, they vary from 20s. in the rural areas to between 50s. and 90s. in the towns. Similar ranges of fees are paid in the other three West African Colonies.

‡ See Appendix II.

“bush” schools to-day are not so much the direct concern of the missions nor of the government as of the people acting through their churches. Missions still provide a number of Europeans mainly for the supervising staff, and in girls’ schools some of the teaching staff. Government lays down conditions with regard to curriculum and qualifications of staff, and, after periods of inspection and approval, gives grants-in-aid to schools reaching a certain standard. But the main impetus in the starting of new schools, and the steady maintenance of existing schools, is from the people.

6. There are two important qualifications to be made to this statement. The first is that in Northern Nigeria mission activity has been restricted, mainly out of deference to the feelings of the Moslem population and in accordance with treaty promises. Here we find the centres of Koranic instruction in most towns and villages, where boys, and occasionally girls, learn to memorize and sometimes to read the Koran as part of their training for adult life. In the last 10 years in Northern Nigeria and the Northern Territories of the Gold Coast the Government policy has been to establish schools on western lines in connection with the native authorities. In Southern Nigeria, the Gold Coast Colony and Ashanti, and the Protectorate of Sierra Leone, a number of native administration schools have grown up in the past 10 years—schools which are beginning to show the same eagerness of the people for primary education as is seen in the church schools.

7. Some figures from Southern Nigeria will illustrate this growth of what might be called the “people’s” schools for which the local community were originally responsible. These figures illustrate also, in the increase of pupils in the native administration and assisted schools, and in the slight decrease in Government schools, the effect of the Government’s policy of developing primary education by assisting locally responsible bodies, rather than by the extension of Government schools.

Numbers of pupils in infant and primary classes

	1933.	1942.
Government	8,000	7,000
Native Administration schools	1,000	8,000
Assisted schools	51,000*	82,000*
Non-Assisted schools	88,000*	179,000*

* Estimates only.

(The non-assisted schools are mainly “bush” schools under church or mission auspices.)

8. The second qualification to the first statement in paragraph 5 is that this interest in and responsibility for primary education on the part of the people is by no means universal and is in fact limited to the areas which have been longest in contact with Europeans. In Southern Nigeria 17.7 per cent. of the school-age children attend school, in Northern Nigeria no more than 1.7 per cent. In the Gold Coast Colony and Ashanti about 15 per cent. of the children attend school, in the Northern Territories under 1 per cent. In Sierra Leone, in the colony about 43 per cent. of the children attend school, in the protectorate just over 2 per cent. In the Gambia, in Bathurst about 51 per cent. of the children attend school, in the protectorate about one-quarter of 1 per cent. These figures are shewn in diagram form in maps 2, 3 and 4, on pages 29 and 30. All these maps show how education has developed more rapidly in those areas which have been longest in contact with European influence. The maps of Nigeria, the Gold Coast and the Gambia illustrate the contrasting development of education, comparing the coastal and forest

belts, which are largely non-Mohammedan, with the open country further inland, which in Nigeria and the Gambia is predominantly, and in the Gold Coast to some extent, Mohammedan.

9. This emphasis on the origin of the majority of the primary schools and on the part played by parents in the payment of fees, and by the churches in school management is called forth by the need for answering the question how far the schools in West Africa are still an alien growth. On the whole we think that they have been and are being adopted by the people as part of their present-day life. This tendency is also evident in the increasing interest shown by many native authorities in the schools for which they have responsibility. In addition, however, education departments in all the territories have played an increasing part in the last 25 years in the supervision and inspection of schools, in planning future educational policy and in administering grants available for educational work.

10. It is in connection with educational policy that we put our second leading question. What is the present function of the primary schools and how is it related to the economic activities of the people? Here again the answer lies partly in the historical development of the schools. When the missions began their educational work they imported the English elementary school curriculum of their day, namely the three R's, religious instruction and, in general, though not universally, a minimum of practical work. Their ex-schoolboys were employed as teachers and clerks, and the main demand of Government and of commercial firms was for boys who knew a little English and could read and write. Both because of the original brand of primary education introduced, and because there was a constant demand for clerical employees, the literary emphasis in the education persisted, and is characteristic of the majority of primary schools to-day in spite of the efforts that are being made to relate education more closely to the life of the community. Education in the primary stages therefore has been, and still is to a great extent, a basic training for wage earning, mainly in clerical work.

11. The great majority of West Africans however are not wage earners but peasant farmers. If primary education is to spread much more widely than at present, is it of a suitable kind for the children of peasant farmers and for the artisans in rural areas? From what we were able to see of the primary schools at work, and from the evidence given in all the territories, it is clear that something like a revolution will have to take place in the curriculum and in the methods of teaching in the primary schools in rural areas, if the schools are to make their proper contribution to the future development of these peasant communities. There are signs in all the territories that both Governments and missions are well aware of the need for a re-orienting of the basic school curriculum, both to meet the needs of the people living in the rural areas and to bring it more into line with modern educational ideas. The place at which this new policy will have to be put into effect is in the teacher training institutions, and we shall return to this in Chapter V.

12. The third question is this. Is it feasible and desirable to expect a system of primary education to spread over the whole of each territory, so that in a given period of years all children of school age will have facilities for attending school? Problems relating to this main issue were urged on us by witnesses in many places, and we ourselves could hardly fail to see that in the eyes of many people this was a far more important issue than the provision of higher education for the few. It was also of course directly related to the previous question, the type of primary education to be given. The Gold Coast was at the time of our visit the only territory which had

drawn up, for the Colony and Ashanti, a plan by which a basic school training was to be made available for every child within the next 20 years. The Government of Sierra Leone had a 10-year plan for educational development which we discussed with the Director of Education, and the Governments of Nigeria and the Gambia had had such long period plans, which were however under revision. In none of these last three plans however was universal schooling contemplated. The main difficulties in the way of extending this basic education and of making it available for everyone are lack of finance and teachers and other staff, with an added difficulty in areas such as Northern Nigeria where there is yet no general interest in modern education.

13. How far the primary education of girls lags behind that of boys all over West Africa is shown by the ratio of the number of girls to the total numbers of pupils in the primary schools. This ratio is in Nigeria only one to five, in the Gold Coast one to four, in Sierra Leone one to four, and in the Gambia one to five. It is clear that a great increase in the education of girls is an urgent necessity.

14. The question which we had to ask ourselves continually was not: "Is universal primary education desirable?" We were all agreed that in the long run it was the necessary basis for progress in political and economic life. Our main problem was this: In view of the immense need for money and people to promote universal primary education, what were the ways in which the necessarily heavy expenditure on higher education could be justified, and were there any direct ways in which the development of higher education could assist in the spread of primary schools of the right type? We have enlarged on this relationship throughout the report. We would emphasise only three points. The first is our main contention, that a sound and rapid development of primary education can only take place if there is a development of facilities for higher education. For we believe that the primary schools should ultimately be staffed by teachers who have had at least a secondary education, and that the latter should be staffed by teachers who have had some post-secondary education in a university or college. The second point is that knowledge of the country, and of its resources and possibilities in the light of modern science, must be studied at the highest levels in order to make this knowledge available for the schools at all stages. In this way rural science and practical skills can be related to the three R's in the primary school curriculum. The third contention is perhaps a matter of faith; nevertheless we are prepared to back the people in this. It is that when Africans have their own centres of higher education, they will learn there not only the knowledge required for a degree, but the way and the will to serve their less fortunate fellow-countrymen. It must eventually be by African money and African men and women that universal primary education will be made possible.

15. We end this section by paying our tribute to the teachers, the parents and the children who are making the "bush" schools and the primary schools the foundations of the educational system. Some of the children will have the chance of climbing up a ladder to the secondary schools and even further. The majority will not. We make suggestions elsewhere in chapter V, para. 23 (4) for bringing to this majority some form of youth service and of adult education that will make their efforts worth while.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

16. By our terms of reference we are bound in our assessment of the present secondary schools to consider whether they have reached a level upon which a university structure can be built, though we know well that there are other

* See Appendix II for terms used to describe various grades and types of school in British West Africa.

criteria of at least equal importance. The secondary school must always have a broader function than that of feeding the university. It must aim at giving a balanced course which must not be solely, or even mainly, conceived as a foundation for a university career. The secondary school will give the best help in the urgently needed speeding-up of West Africa's development if it concentrates on high standards and sends out not only to the university but into a wide variety of callings, well educated young men and women of character who will play a full and worthy part in the social, economic and political life of their neighbourhood. For our particular purpose, the present extent and the probable expansion of secondary education are relevant factors. But quality matters even more than quantity.

17. For the population of about 27,000,000 in British West Africa, there are 43 recognised secondary schools containing in 1942 a total (in round figures) of 11,500 pupils, of whom 10,000 were boys and only 1,500 girls. But these totals do not tell us much. Our Tables I-IV in the Appendix III reveal some extraordinary anomalies. For instance, Gambia with 4 secondary schools obtained 5 passes in school certificate, Gold Coast with 7 secondary schools obtained 195 passes. Sierra Leone's 10 secondary schools entered 39 pupils for school certificate. Gold Coast's 7 secondary schools entered 285. These tables show that among the schools we are considering there is a vast range in size of schools and in the proportion of pupils who complete the course. But there are other anomalies of distribution which the tables do not show at all. For instance, more than half the population of Nigeria is in the Northern Provinces, but of the 30 secondary schools shown for Nigeria in Table I, only one is in the North. In Sierra Leone, there are 9 secondary schools in Freetown; the Colony proper including Freetown has a population under 100,000*; whereas the Protectorate with a population of over 1,600,000 has only one secondary school. Gold Coast's 7 secondary schools are all in the Colony proper; Ashanti and the Northern Territories have none. These examples show clearly (a) that secondary education is still almost confined to areas on or near the coast, and (b) that where it exists at all it is apt to exist in units much too small to be economic.

18. While our tables indicate the total provision of secondary schools, their quality is harder to assess. Still, an attempt must be made. There is of course a wide range of efficiency, but some general impressions remain, some of weak points, others of merits. In the following paragraphs we draw special attention to noticeably weak points, but we are unanimous in holding a high opinion of the keenness and potentialities of the pupils.

19. If one makes some slight allowance for the facts that English is not their native language, and that, in spite of the modifications made by the Cambridge Syndicate for local requirements, the examination remains one devised for pupils with a totally different environment and background, their results in the school certificate examination are undoubtedly good. As our figures show, of the 884 secondary school pupils who were candidates in 1943, 620 obtained a school certificate—a proportion of just over 70 per cent. But the results in an external examination can be misleading. Teachers can learn the "tricks of the trade," can cram rather than educate, and can cultivate rote memory rather than real understanding. It seemed that many teachers had learnt the "tricks of the trade," and African boys and girls certainly have good verbal memories. Where ill-qualified teachers are employed, something like cramming inevitably results, especially as the certificate examination approaches. Numerous witnesses assured us that this was the case, and that it leads to a narrow concentration on the syllabus just when the boys' and girls' education should be broadening their outlook.

* 1931 Census.

We do not doubt that this often occurs. On the other hand, the classes that we had the chance of questioning seldom failed to respond to general questions (though they naturally often made mistakes). And though they are much more likely than English boys, if asked for the meaning of a word, to give its dictionary definition *verbatim*, they can also, nine times out of ten, re-phrase that definition in their own words, proving that they have not merely learnt it but also understood it. For keenness to learn, for interest in the world at large, and for obvious enjoyment of their schooling, their average level is remarkably good; and these are really the most essential things if a boy or a girl is to profit by a higher education.

20. We are often told that their keenness, about which there can be no question, was prompted simply by the desire to get on in the world and not by educational enthusiasm pure and simple. But we must use realistic and not Utopian standards of criticism. In what country in the world does the economic incentive not stimulate the desire for education?

21. Excessive devotion to bookwork is a real danger. Some witnesses informed us that this fault was commoner in West African than in English schools. It is not unknown in the latter. The safeguard should lie in a wide range of school activities outside the classroom, so that the pupil cannot think of his school-life in terms of lessons alone. We saw evidence in numerous schools of real enthusiasm for football and cricket, for scouting, for singing, and for the making and acting of plays. But obviously we cannot generalise, either as to the proportion of schools where there is an adequate range of these activities, or as to the proportion of pupils enjoying them where they exist. We can only stress the great importance of this side of school life for every school.

22. There are three serious criticisms to be made. Like all generalisations they are not true of all the schools we saw. And not one of them is a criticism of the "raw material," i.e., of the boys and girls themselves.

23. In each of the dependencies efforts are being made to extend the teaching of science in the secondary schools. Progress is necessarily limited owing to the inadequate provision of laboratories and equipment, and the difficulty of securing suitably qualified teachers. In a large proportion of the schools the laboratories are unattractive rooms with little apparatus, and the teachers strive earnestly to cover the examination syllabus with little attempt at demonstration or experiment. In general it is only in the Government schools that science teaching is reasonably good. In the mission schools the difficulties of expense and staffing have seldom been overcome. Yet they must be overcome if the mission schools are to justify their claim to full secondary status.

24. It is not surprising therefore that when we asked individual pupils which subject they liked best, science was scarcely ever given as the answer. Yet, in our view, if agriculture, local industry and health services are to be rapidly developed in West Africa, it is essential that the schools should encourage an increased appreciation of science and of scientific methods. We recognise the difficulties which have to be overcome if this is to be achieved. It is clear that in West Africa few schools can spend as much as is desirable on science teaching, and also that at present it is impossible to obtain much equipment; things that almost every British school takes for granted, such as gas and electricity services, are simply unobtainable in most African schools. But special difficulties call for special efforts. Science teaching from a textbook without practical work for the pupils is a sheer waste of time. If simple laboratories are planned and apparatus carefully chosen for the purpose, the development of science teaching need not be disproportionately expensive.

25. We believe that much could be done if the science curriculum were designed to bring it into closer relation with the life and environment of the pupils. Even if the examination syllabus of the more senior pupils is for the present unchanged, we suggest that efforts should be made to rouse the interest of the younger boys and girls in their surroundings. Much use should be made of local material for these early science lessons. We saw a few instances where science teachers had set up simple experiments (such as demonstrations of plant respiration) or had encouraged the collection of local biological material; in those schools the teaching of science and the interest shown by the pupils were on a different level from that found elsewhere. It is apparent to us that in general the standard of science teaching will only be improved when properly qualified teachers are available, with sufficient knowledge to make use of local material as a basis for much of the early instruction.

26. The standard of spoken English is, generally speaking, unsatisfactory. The average level of fluency is good, and the written work in English, though it naturally tends to be more formal than that of the English schoolboy writing his mother-tongue, reaches a decent standard of accuracy. But in oral work the position is much less good. There are schools where, though clearly teacher and class understand each other, the visitor from England could hardly follow the English of either. This should be recognised, and special attention paid to careful phonetic training in the areas where this difficulty is found. Pending the development of much more advanced courses for African specialists in the phonetics of English, the specialist teacher of English in any secondary school ought if possible to be an Englishman. We heard the argument that, so long as the Africans understood each others' English and could write correct English, it did not matter if their pronunciation diverged widely from that of Englishmen. We cannot accept this argument, which would tolerate a serious limitation of the personal contacts between Africans and Europeans.

27. The low level of many secondary school teachers' academic qualifications is shown in Appendix III, and is also mentioned in our chapter on teacher training. It is still common to find classes being prepared for the school certificate examination by teachers whose own education stopped at the school certificate level. It is essential that the teacher should be thoroughly at home in the subjects that he professes to teach and should have a wide margin of knowledge and interests beyond the level prescribed for his pupils. Out of that margin come all the things that add life and variety to his teaching, the things that make the difference between cramming and real education. Considering this handicap, many of the teachers deserve great praise for their efforts. But the academic qualifications of secondary teachers must be drastically raised before the schools as a whole can give a good secondary education.

28. One result of this is that there is practically no sixth form work in the schools. The curriculum ends with school certificate. In the long run this must be altered. But for some time to come, and largely because of the need to learn English and then use it as the medium of education, pupils will probably not take the school certificate till an average age substantially higher than in England. The average age of candidates taking the Cambridge certificate examination from West African schools in 1943 was apparently 20 years 1 month. (A large percentage of the candidates were unable to state the date of their birth, so that the figure just quoted must be treated with caution. But it must represent something like the truth.) While this state of things lasts, we feel that it is wiser to collect those pupils who are to continue beyond school certificate into a college, than to encourage the formation of very small sixth forms containing "schoolboys" aged well over twenty. Pupils will

therefore enter college before they have been able to specialise to any great extent in their subjects (this is not an unmixed disadvantage), but also without having had much chance to learn how to find things out for themselves. A good sixth form in Great Britain can give this chance of independent study, and it is most valuable. But under present conditions, work beyond the school certificate stage must be postponed from school to college in West Africa.

29. Inevitably the best schools are those with most teachers who have a first-hand knowledge of the educational standards of a highly-developed country, in most cases Great Britain. We met Africans trained in England who were doing quite first-class work in secondary schools, in the training of character no less than in their teaching. But for a rapid raising of standards, still more for a rapid expansion of good secondary schools, enough Africans with the right qualifications simply cannot be found, and we believe that a very substantial strengthening of the secondary schools by the employment of more Europeans of high qualifications is highly desirable. (This is not to be regarded as an alternative to bringing as many selected Africans as possible to Great Britain to complete their training, until the proposed teacher training courses are established in West Africa, but as an additional measure as discussed in Chapter V.) It would be a temporary "priming of the pump" at the secondary school level. The more successful it is, the sooner will the need for it cease. It may not be easy to find the recruits, and it will certainly be expensive. But no other policy will bring about rapid improvement, nor give such effectual help to our long-term proposals for enabling Africans to reach the highest university standards in their own country. We have considered whether such a policy of strengthening the secondary schools should not precede the development of university institutions. As an alternative to the setting up of university standards we reject it. The need for highly trained Africans is too great to be met in any other way than by training them in their own country, and the secondary schools can already provide, albeit somewhat unevenly, the necessary minimum from which to build higher. But as a supplement to our proposals we can hardly exaggerate its importance. In this connection we heartily welcome the proposals of the McNair Committee* (paragraphs 476-484 of their Report) for a scheme by which school teachers in England could take a teaching post abroad for a substantial period without losing pension rights or prospects of promotion on their return.

30. We were impressed with the wastage from the teaching profession due to the counter-attractions of other forms of employment. We consider it essential that the conditions of service should be such as to ensure continuity and an adequate status to the profession and to secure a decent standard of living for those who are entrusted with the education of the future citizens of British West Africa.

31. There is some danger lest the very strong demand for more secondary education (intensely strong in some parts of West Africa) should lead to the setting up of more secondary schools by missions, native authorities, or private individuals, with no guarantee and no likelihood that they will reach a bare minimum of efficiency either in the qualifications of the staff or in premises and equipment. Once such schools are in existence it is difficult for the Government to suppress them, since their proprietors can misrepresent the Government's action as an attempt to keep the African from education. Nevertheless, we think the nettle should be grasped, that minimum standards

* Report on the Supply, Recruitment and Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders. Board of Education. Published by H.M. Stationery Office, 1944.

of staffing, premises and equipment should be clearly laid down, and that schools not reaching such standards should not only receive no Government grant but should not be allowed to call themselves by any such name as secondary school, high school, or grammar school until they can reach a satisfactory standard, though *bona fide* efforts to that end should be encouraged. Such schools exist and they are a source of weakness in every way. This makes it all the more necessary that the training of well-qualified secondary school teachers should be expedited.

32. On the vexed question of the right examinations for African schools, we can only say this. Ultimately African schools should take an examination set in Africa. But until such an examination is accepted by British universities and professional bodies as equivalent to an English qualification, Africans will inevitably look askance at it.

33. It is still fairly common for West African secondary schools to enter pupils for the Cambridge junior certificate. While secondary education in any country is still in the earliest stage of development a junior examination of this type has the merit of offering a goal that can be reached, and reached at a reasonable age. But wherever it is used it is regarded by many parents and employers as a terminal point, whereas, in fact, its standards are altogether too low to mark the end of a secondary course. We consider that if pupils are to receive secondary education at all, they should go beyond the junior to the full school certificate, and we hope that in West Africa the use of the junior certificate will cease at an early date.

34. The secondary education of girls everywhere in West Africa, except in Freetown and Bathurst, lags behind that of boys. The ratios of the numbers of girls to the total numbers of pupils in the secondary schools in the various territories are:—in Southern Nigeria one to eight, in Northern Nigeria one to sixteen, in the Gold Coast one to eight, in Sierra Leone two to five, in the Gambia (Bathurst only) two to three. We have remarked in Chapter I that in the non-Mohammedan areas of West Africa women have always exerted a strong influence. If they are to continue to make their full contribution to the life of West Africa, it is essential that the secondary education of girls should catch up with that of boys.

35. There are discouraging things in the picture. In their comparative scarcity, in their lack of highly educated staff, and in their defective or non-existent science teaching, the secondary schools of West Africa to-day somewhat resemble the emerging secondary schools of England some forty years ago; and in England the biggest single factor in raising standards was the increased flow of graduates, especially in science, that the modern universities were able to produce in spite of the defects of the schools which supplied them. All the discouraging things are remediable; though this will take both time, which is grudged by a people rightly anxious for progress to be accelerated, and money, which is at the root of so many West African difficulties. Great efforts and patience will be needed. But our last word on the secondary schools is quite definitely a word of hopefulness. The root of the matter is there. There are good schools, and there are more schools doing some good work under great difficulties. There are boys and girls working hard without losing their liveliness of mind and body. Many of the schools are boarding-schools which use their extra opportunities to make school life not merely the sum total of lessons, but a practical training in citizenship as members of a real society. Strict discipline is cheerfully accepted. Self-government on the lines of English schools is a known objective. Given the proper opportunities the boys and girls of West Africa will respond to the full.

SOME OBSERVATIONS ON THE RELATION OF EDUCATION TO
POLITICAL, SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

36. Before we pass on to the main section of our Report, namely the higher education of the few, there are one or two general points which we should like to make about the education of the many. A rapid general advance in the standard of living in West Africa will hardly be achieved until the masses of the people themselves are able to understand what advances are possible and are willing to work for such progress. At the same time we believe that if knowledge of these standards and the determination to achieve them is to be spread rapidly, it must be done largely by Africans themselves. We have made our recommendations for providing wider opportunities in higher education in order that there may be an increasing flow of skilled and responsible Africans who will be able to help the mass of their own people in a drive forward towards better standards. If such aid is to be fully effective, it is essential that the masses of the people should be able to help themselves; it will not be effective if they are allowed to lag far behind, and are wholly unable to understand the world of ideas and activities into which the colleges and universities introduce their students.

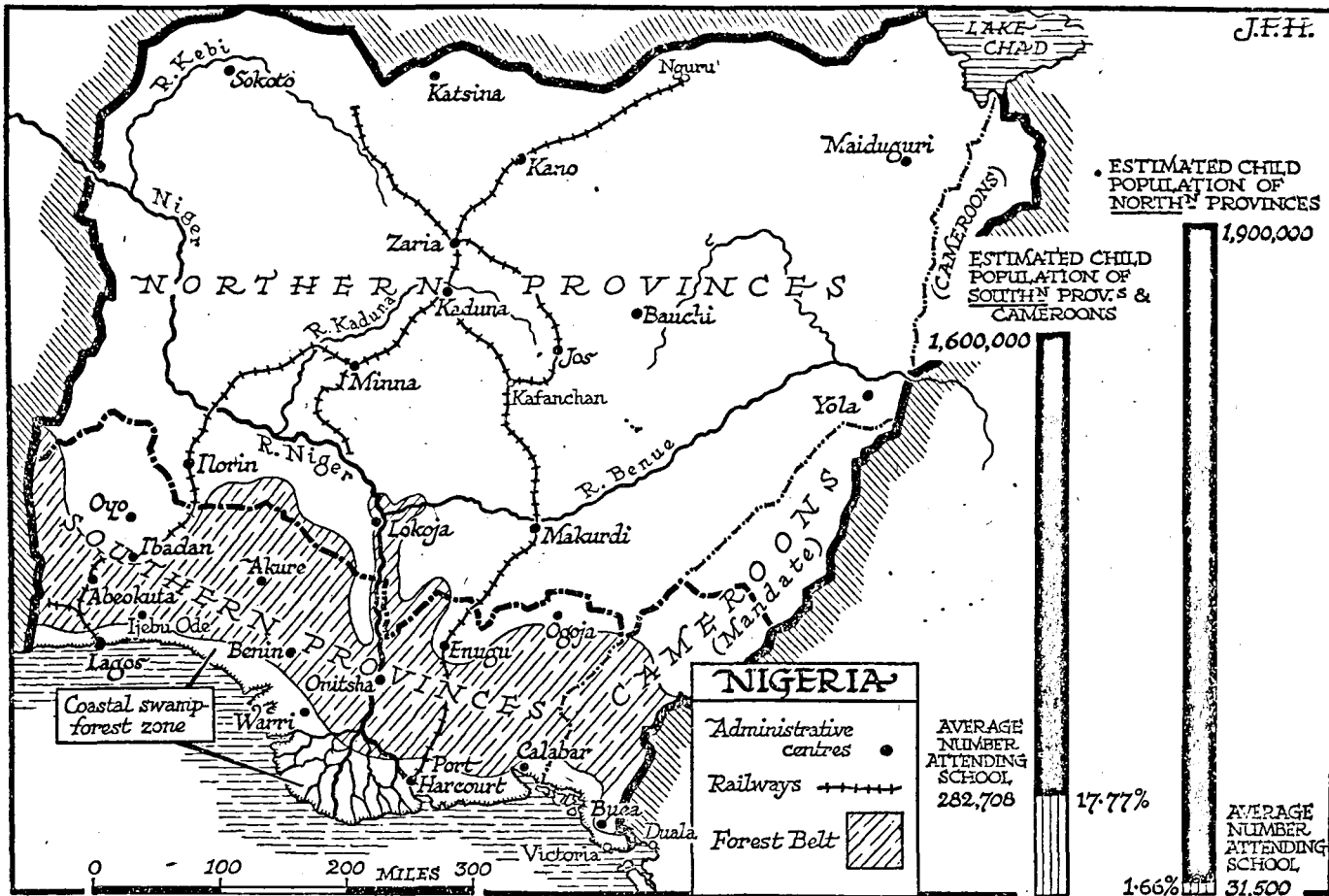
37. First of all we endorse the opinion expressed in the Mass Education Report* that adult education, and especially adult literacy, is an essential foundation of intelligent citizenship in the modern world. Parts of West Africa are still backward and undeveloped. They will not remain so long. As economic development advances, so must also the political education of the people in the practical duties of citizenship and of democratic local self-government. Ability to read and write, to understand the course of events and to form judgments on government policy is one of the necessary steps to this end. We make practical proposals later on about the way in which centres of higher education can further the cause of adult education.

38. In the second place, we are deeply concerned about the backwardness of women's education, especially since all improvements in the homes and in the bringing up of children will be delayed until a great drive is made to educate the women and girls. We have stated elsewhere in our Report our belief that improvement in general health and in hygienic conditions of living must be one of the main targets in the general progress of the people. The health and hygiene of the masses of the people in West Africa are largely in the hands of the women. While the women and girls are uneducated, little or no progress can be made.

39. Thirdly, the standards of production generally, of foodstuffs, economic crops, local industries and crafts, are all far too low. Any great increase in the wealth of the country is unlikely unless the people accept new technical knowledge, new methods of production, new incentives to produce more goods and increase their distribution. We refer elsewhere to the need for improved agricultural methods, and to the need for further facilities for technical training at every level. Advances in these directions, however, will not be used to the best effect unless the schools and adult classes awaken new incentives and point the way to new achievements.

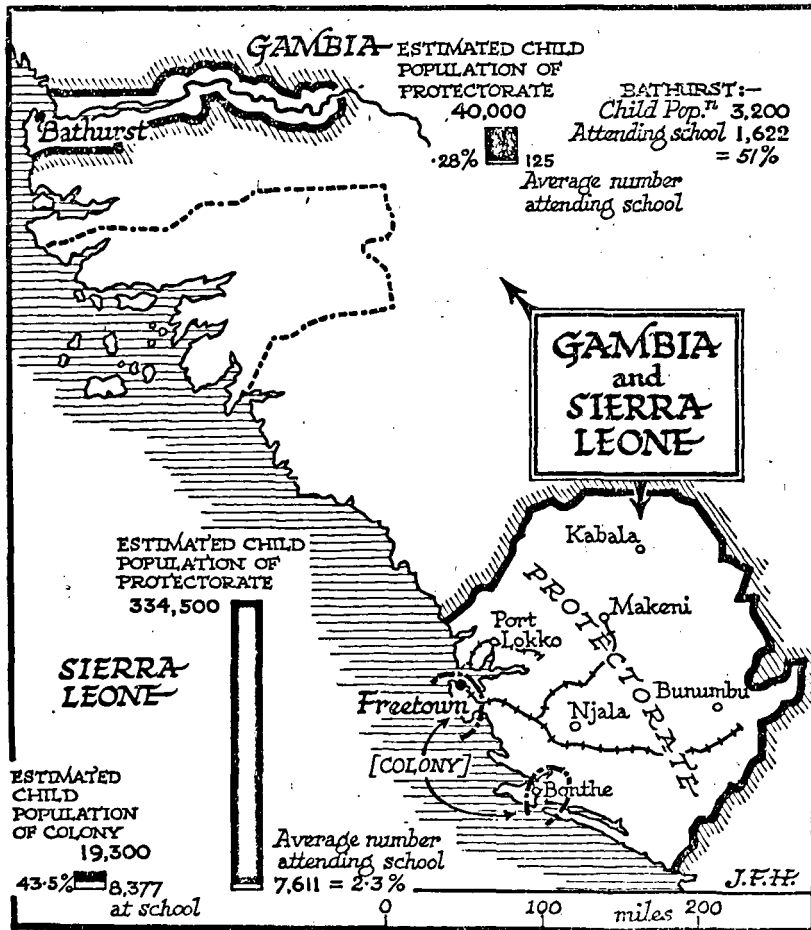
40. In the fourth place the schools, the youth services and adult education must make a contribution to the wise use of leisure. Many of the traditional forms of leisure-time activities, in which the people in the villages joined together, are in danger of dying out. To help young people both to enjoy

* "Mass Education in African Society". A report of the Colonial Office Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies. Published by H.M. Stationery Office in 1943 as Colonial No. 186. Price 1s.



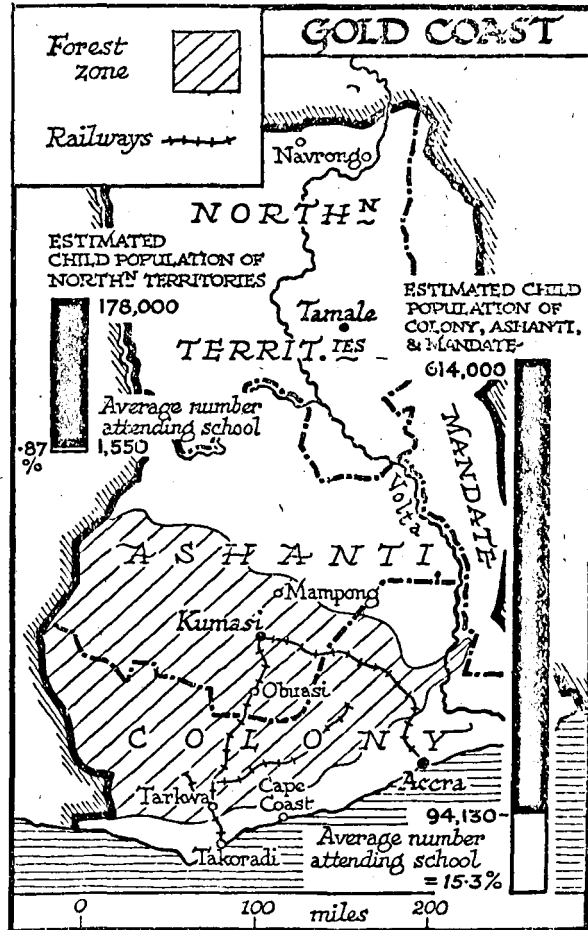
MAP 2. School Population.

J.F.H.



MAP 4

School Population



MAP 3

their leisure and to cultivate a strong sense of practical citizenship some of the traditional forms of amusement should be fostered and developed, and new interests such as libraries, debating societies, women's institutes, and scouting should be encouraged. Already some schools are providing a new stimulus to old and new forms of the drama, music, and dancing; many of them encourage athletics and some are able to maintain libraries. All schools might with advantage take a greater share in encouraging such activities. We shall refer to this again in Chapter V in connection with the training of teachers.

41. Finally, we look to the schools and to all community activities for the training of character. It is impossible to give that character training in the centres of higher education if the seeds have not been planted in the earlier years at school. In the old African traditional life behaviour and moral standards were taught in the home and in the community. Every year now more children in West Africa spend a great part of their time in school. During that time they are away from the influence of their parents and thereby miss the training they used to undergo as they worked in their family group. It is now therefore the duty of the schools to supplement the character training of the home, especially in helping boys and girls to meet the new problems which contact with the modern world is bringing into every town and village.

42. Many of the young pupils of to-day will later have to fill positions of responsibility, and their responsibilities will extend to people far beyond the group to which they owe a traditional loyalty. This will call for the practice of tolerance, for objective thinking and for work carried out in the spirit of disinterested service. For the discharge of these responsibilities, character will be as essential as intellectual attainment, and sound judgment more important than a school certificate. In fitting young people to play a useful part in a wider community the schools have a most important responsibility. Standards are changing and traditional authority is challenged, but we believe that the sound commonsense of the African peoples will find the way to achieve this most difficult and important object of education.

CHAPTER III

THE HIGHER COLLEGE YABA, ACHIMOTA COLLEGE, FOURAH BAY COLLEGE

PRESENT FACILITIES FOR HIGHER EDUCATION IN WEST AFRICA

1. The present stage in the development of higher education in each colony has been attained in the face of many difficulties. Until recent years the numbers of students seeking higher education have been small, and the standard of their previous general education has in many cases held them back. This has been due largely to the shortage of qualified staff both in the primary and secondary schools, and to the comparatively slow development of the latter. In addition, English is a foreign tongue to nearly all of the students and they are severely handicapped by having to study in a language which is not the language of their homes; many students also lack facilities in their homes for study or discussion of their student interests.

2. Of recent years the schools have produced far more students, better qualified for further study, who have sought higher education in all its forms. This expansion of student numbers is reflected both in the growth of the colleges providing post-secondary courses in West Africa and in the number of students who have come to the British universities.

3. In each of the three largest colonies there has been some provision for post-secondary education, but this has varied in a most marked manner.

4. The oldest institution, Fourah Bay College in Sierra Leone, was founded and is largely maintained by the Church Missionary Society. It has for nearly 70 years been affiliated with the University of Durham. Its students are drawn both from Sierra Leone and from the other parts of West Africa which until 1929 made no provision for higher education. They normally pursue the course for the pass B.A. degree of Durham University and in some cases the courses for that university's diploma in theology or education. The college has been maintained, especially in recent years, in the face of great difficulties.

5. In the Gold Coast there was no provision for higher education until 1929, when a higher department, known as the "University Department", was opened at Achimota. This has been developed as an extension of the school. Both were founded and are maintained wholly by the Gold Coast Government, though they are governed by an independent council containing a large majority of non-official members, both African and European. The university department at Achimota prepares students mainly for the external Intermediate examinations of the University of London in arts and science. It also prepares students for the London external degree of B.Sc. (Engineering), although the numbers taking this course have been small.

6. In Nigeria the general development of higher education began with the opening of the Medical School in 1930, and the Higher College, Yaba, which was formally opened in 1934. These institutions were founded, and are maintained, by the Nigerian Government. Their students work for the Nigerian local medical qualification and Nigerian diplomas in science, engineering, survey, agriculture, forestry and animal health. They only rarely take external examinations, the training provided being mainly vocational and related to posts available in Government service. The college has provided arts courses and maintains courses for the training of teachers.

7. We now describe in more detail the Higher College, Yaba, Achimota College, and Fourah Bay College. Descriptions of the schools providing specialist courses in Nigeria will be found in later chapters, the Medical School in Chapter VI, the Schools of Agriculture, of Forestry and of Animal Health in Chapter VII and the Survey School in Appendix VI.

THE HIGHER COLLEGE, YABA

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Introduction

8. Facilities for higher education in Nigeria are much more varied than in the sister dependencies. Courses of approximately the same length as those given in Great Britain are provided in agriculture, forestry, medicine, veterinary science and engineering. Save for engineering these courses are given in schools situated at the headquarters of the appropriate government department to which students proceed after receiving their fundamental training in science at the Higher College, Yaba. On the successful completion of their courses at these schools the students receive the Yaba diploma.

9. The Higher College, Yaba, was formally opened in 1934 after occupying temporary buildings for the previous three years. Its immediate object was to fit students to receive various forms of training in Nigeria so that they might take responsible positions in the service of the different government departments. It was recognised that in the early years of this ambitious programme the standards reached would not be those of university degrees, but the intention was that they should progressively rise to that level. In the words of Sir Donald Cameron at the opening ceremony, "As the level of attainment of students who matriculate at Yaba rises in proportion to the improvements in the schools from which those students come, the standard of the work at the college will rise in a corresponding degree, and we look forward to the time when it will be possible for men and women to obtain at Yaba external degrees of a British university." The Higher College, Yaba, is concerned exclusively with post-secondary education, and its buildings were designed for this purpose from the start.

10. Three of the six separate blocks of buildings are devoted to the subjects of physics, chemistry and biology, and engineering; the fourth provides for administrative purposes and a library, and the fifth for lecture accommodation; the sixth accommodates the students.

11. The physics building contains a laboratory for a class of thirty-five students, all the benches of which are fitted with both direct and alternating current, a lecture room for forty-five students, and a dark room and preparation room; there is also a workshop, well equipped for metal and wood working, where the engineering students construct engineering models and scientific apparatus for use in the laboratories.

12. The chemistry section of the block of buildings, which serves both for biology and chemistry, contains an elementary laboratory for sixteen, and a senior laboratory for twenty students, with balance and preparation rooms; the biology section has two laboratories, one for twenty and the other for thirty-five students. The engineering block contains a drawing office and a lecture room, each for twenty students, and a store room.

13. The upper floor of the administrative building serves as a library, which is airy and reasonably adapted for present needs. It contains some 3,600 volumes, mainly text books and works of reference in science; the annual expenditure on books has seldom exceeded £60 in any one year, and the total expenditure has been £910. On the ground floor of this building there are the usual offices and a small staff common room.

14. The residential block of buildings contains four large dormitories which accommodate eighty-eight students in all, and four large common and dining rooms served from a kitchen well equipped with electrical apparatus. Medical attention is provided through the services of a visiting medical officer who also gives guidance as to the dietary of the students.

15. The lecture accommodation is provided by a hall for two hundred students and six lecture rooms each of which is adequate for thirty students; two of these latter rooms are in use for other purposes, one for mechanics and the other as a room for models of building construction.

16. Occupation of the buildings for war purposes prevented us seeing a number of them under normal conditions. But from our inspection it was clear to us that the design, furnishings and fittings of the laboratories and classrooms were admirable. The standard of the scientific equipment and apparatus varies from subject to subject, but in broad terms it may be described as fully adequate for the scope of the work which the college is at present undertaking.

Courses

17. The courses given at the College may be classified under three headings. First, the science courses for students who are to become Assistant Agricultural, Forestry, Medical, Survey or Veterinary Officers.

18. Second, the course for engineering students which extends over four years and includes two months' practical work each year in the vacations; arrangements for this practical work are made by the Director of Public Works.

19. Third, the courses for secondary school teachers. The training of science teachers has naturally been the more important aspect of the teacher training activities, although some attempt has been made to provide courses for both Government and mission school teachers not concerned with science. In this arts course, which has been temporarily discontinued for the reasons given in paragraph 33, the subjects were English language and literature, geography, history, elementary mathematics or Latin. In the science course, two subjects are taken: either mathematics and physics, or chemistry and biology. The course for teachers now follows the general pattern in universities in Great Britain; the academic course extends over three years while a fourth year is devoted to the theory and practice of education with teaching practice held in six selected secondary schools in Lagos. Since 1933, 60 students have completed the course and 53 of these are still teaching. In 1944 there were 66 students in training as teachers.

20. The length of the general courses, and of the professional courses which follow them and the location of the professional schools are as follows:—

Subject	Length of general course at Yaba (years)	Length of subsequent professional course (years)	Location of professional school	Approximate distance from Yaba by rail or road (miles)
Agriculture ...	2	2	Ibadan	108
Forestry	2	2	Ibadan	108
Engineering ...	4	—	—	—
Medicine	1½	5	General hospital, Lagos.	6
Surveying	2	2	Oyo	141
Veterinary Science	1½	5½	Vom	733
Teacher Training	3	1	—	—

The professional schools are discussed in Chapters VI, VII and VIII.

Staff

21. The present academic staff numbers 9; it may be divided into two groups. The first group comprises members of the staffs of government departments who have been subsequently appointed to the staff of the college; the second those directly recruited to the staff. Among the former are the Acting Principal who is also lecturer in science; these Europeans, together with the African assistant to the lecturer in mathematics and physics, have all spent varying periods of service in the Nigerian Education Department. In this group also is to be included the officer who is seconded every two years from the Public Works Department for the teaching of engineering subjects. In the second group are the European lecturers in chemistry and zoology, and the African lecturers in botany and physics. All the lecturers hold full-time posts while on the staff of the college. Eight of them hold bachelor or higher degrees of British universities, and the other the teaching diploma of the college itself. Four members also hold British professional teacher training

qualifications; two others have held junior posts on the staffs of universities in Great Britain, and are the only members of the staffs of the West African colleges with university teaching experience in Great Britain. Of the three African members of staff, two have obtained by study in Great Britain, B.Sc. honours degrees of London University after first completing the three years science course at Yaba in physics and mathematics, and in chemistry and biology respectively.

Finance

22. As to the finances of the college, the cost of its buildings was about £40,000. This expenditure was met from Nigerian Government funds with the inclusion of a sum of some £6,000 for buildings and some £4,000 for equipment from the Sir Alfred Jones Bequest. The recurrent expenditure in 1934-35 was £9,567, of which the main items were £4,883 for salaries, £3,250 for scholarships tenable at the college and £1,363 for general upkeep. By 1943-44, the expenditure had risen to £16,137, salaries accounting for £11,051, scholarships £1,300, general upkeep £1,976 and general transport £1,692; this latter sum appears to be a consequence of removals caused by the war. The annual expenditure on equipment, apparatus, laboratory materials, text books and library additions and replacements has been of the order of £600. Apart from the fees the cost of maintaining the college is met exclusively by the Government of Nigeria. During the period 1937-43, eleven scholarships were awarded to students for study in the United Kingdom. The total cost of these overseas scholarships, which were tenable for periods of from one to three years, was £3,114.

23. The policy regarding fees is a liberal one. The inclusive fee for Nigerian students is £50 a year. This fee has, however, only been paid infrequently, first because up to one-third of the students receive free places on the results of the entrance examination; second, because for the rest the fee is reduced to £15 in the case of students unable to pay the full fees; even this reduced fee may be paid by instalments after qualification, and if the student fails to qualify, the fee is remitted. Whatever fees are paid, they are payable only for the first three years of a course irrespective of its length. In the case of students coming from other territories, for whom the fee is £75, the fee is however payable for the full period of the course. Further, students who enter as prospective teachers for mission schools are educated free of cost provided they undertake to teach for five years in the mission schools after their training is completed. This system was adopted in the hope of raising the quality of science teaching in mission schools; it has however not been very fruitful because many of the students have proved incapable of completing the course, or have entered other employment.

Admission

24. Admission to the college is through a competitive entrance examination in which the subjects are English, geography, history, chemistry, physics, biology and mathematics, and there are usually some 150 candidates for the 35 to 40 places annually available. The inclusion of the science subjects in the entrance examination means that the field from which students are drawn is limited largely to the pupils of Government secondary schools, where facilities for science teaching are further advanced than in the mission schools. As a result, the college, the work of which is so largely concerned with science, does not draw on as wide a field as would be available if science teaching of adequate standard in the schools were more widespread or an alternative method of selection were used.

25. Admission to the college is through a competitive examination because the number of available places is largely restricted to the prospective vacancies

in the different Government-services. This limitation presents great difficulties. It is natural that students should wish to enter the professions in which the conditions of service exert the greatest appeal, and in Nigeria, as in Great Britain, students prefer professions such as medicine which are associated with the amenities of life in towns. In consequence, the staff of the college is confronted with the difficult task of allocating the students to professions in accordance with the needs of the Government departments rather than in accordance with the students' desires. We do not need to enlarge on the obvious handicaps which such a system presents.

26. The number of students admitted to the college in 1934 was 18; by 1940 the new admissions had increased to 30 and during the last four years have remained approximately constant at 36. The total strength of the student body has correspondingly increased from 67 in its earlier years to about 95 since 1939. Some 365 students have entered the college since its foundation in 1930. Since the college is an institution designed to prepare students for the departmental services of the Nigerian Government, its students have been very largely drawn from Nigeria, although a few students have come to it from the Gold Coast, Dahomey and Sierra Leone. All its students, save two, have been men. The age of admission usually varies between 19 and 23 years, although in the case of medical and veterinary students it may reach 25 years.

27. In February, 1945, there were 193 students from Nigeria in Great Britain and Eire. 138 of these were studying in the universities, and were divided by subjects as follows:—medicine 45, law 30, social science 16, moral science 1, languages 5, other arts 6, science 8, mathematics 2, engineering 7, architecture 1, music and art 1, commerce 8, teacher training 3, other subjects 5. The remaining 55 students were engaged in other courses in Britain: of these about half were law students (see Appendix IV).

Employment of students

28. Analysis of the information supplied to us concerning the history of 181 students after they had left the college, illustrates how far the college is succeeding in its purposes of providing men for higher posts in Government service. From this information it appears that 58 students have been absorbed by educational services including 36 as science teachers; 31 by the Public Works Department, including 19 in the engineering grade; 22 by the Medical Department, including 20 as assistant medical officers; 19 by the Agricultural Department including 15 as assistant agricultural officers; 3 by the Forestry Department as forest supervisors; 8 by the Survey Department, including 6 as surveyors; in addition 31 students became clerks either in Government or other services while 9 entered industry in various capacities. These figures, and other figures submitted to us, lead us to think that about 80 per cent. of these 213 students are still holding the type of post to which their education at the college had been directed.

29. That the numbers of students have not increased further is due to a variety of factors. It must obviously depend on the fact that the number of admissions is limited to the likely future vacancies in the different Government departments. Indeed only in medicine are new students admitted each year; in agriculture, forestry, veterinary science, engineering and surveying, the courses begin only in alternate years.

30. We were informed, however, that the needs of certain of the Government departments could not be met by the present output of the college, and that insufficient numbers of students capable of completing the courses entered the college. This may be due in part to the conditions of service following

the completion of certain of the professional courses being insufficiently attractive to potential students, rather than to a general lack of a sufficiency of students of the desired quality. As we have said earlier, only one in four of the candidates for entrance gains admittance, and this might imply too rigorous an entrance examination. Nevertheless during the period 1935-43, 30 students left the college because of failure in the junior examination which is held at the end of the science courses, while 20 students who completed these courses failed in their final examinations. Thus 20 per cent. of the students who pass the entrance examination fail to complete the courses on which they have embarked.

Examinations

31. While the students at Fourah Bay and Achimota Colleges are prepared for certain of the examinations of the universities of Durham and London respectively, the Higher College, Yaba, has discouraged its students from the taking of London external degree examinations. This has been done in order that the curricula in certain subjects might be related to local background and in the hope that, with curricula less restricted by the limits of external examinations, the courses might receive broader treatment. As part of this policy of building up its own standards, the college holds, as we have said, its own entrance examinations even though its prospective entrants have all taken the Cambridge school certificate examination.

32. We are in full sympathy with the objects of this policy. Nevertheless it has, in practice, hindered the progress of the college. It has meant, for instance, that in contrast to that of the sister colleges, knowledge of its work in Great Britain is extremely limited. Yet its laboratories and their equipment and the standard reached in its science teaching are the best in British West Africa. Further, the fact that its students receive diplomas which have so far not been recognised outside Nigeria, has given them a sense of frustration; for Nigerian students like any others naturally prefer to be measured against the internationally recognised standards of British degree examinations. This is illustrated by the fact that without encouragement, some students have presented themselves as candidates for the London examinations. Thus in the period 1934-1943, 17 students have passed the London Intermediate science, 5 the Intermediate arts, 6 the Intermediate commerce and 1 the B.A. (Honours) examination. The strong desire to achieve an external standard is further shown by the fact that evening classes giving courses for the London Intermediate arts examination are conducted by private endeavour in Lagos and elsewhere.

Effect of the war

33. The college has suffered grievously from the effects of the war, for its buildings were requisitioned for war purposes. As a result, it has had to endeavour to carry on its work firstly in part at Achimota College in the Gold Coast and in part at the Church Missionary Society Grammar School, Lagos; later at Umuahia and now at Igbobi which is some two miles from the site of the college. The loss of its laboratories must have presented serious problems in the maintenance of the standard of its science teaching in a territory where, as we have pointed out in chapter II, laboratory facilities are so poor; the temporary loss on war service of members of its staff concerned with the arts courses, has meant that these courses have had to be discontinued. We sympathise with both the students and the staff in this serious dislocation of their work. It is indeed a tribute to their enthusiasm that the college has survived these grave difficulties. The fact that 32 students resigned during the years 1941-43 is not surprising, particularly when it is

remembered that the majority of these students were arts students whose courses had, because of loss of staff, been reduced to one subject.

34. Since the college had only just begun its work in newly adapted premises at Igbobi when we visited Lagos the second time, we were unable to obtain first-hand impressions of its corporate activities. In its earlier days, the college was conducted on a modified secondary school system; this method was abandoned when it was realised that it was unsuitable to the growing maturity of the students and would hinder them in the later acceptance of responsibility. We were informed that the vigour of the student societies varied with the interest taken in them by members of the staff, and that keen interest and skill was shown in games. But as we say, we ourselves can express no views as to the part which the corporate life the college plays in the development of the student in the wider sense.

General observations

35. We conclude our account of the Higher College, Yaba, with some general observations. As we have said earlier, the step which the Government of Nigeria took around 1930 to provide opportunities for Nigerians to obtain training of a standard which would enable them to enter the Government services and eventually attain the professional level was, in the prevailing circumstances of finance and the standard of secondary school education, one which was commendably bold. It was bold because the college began its work in 1932, although until 1928 King's College, Lagos, was the only school in Nigeria where any serious attempt to teach science was made, and it has fallen to this school, together with the Government schools at Ibadan and Umuahia where science was first taught in 1929, to act as the main feeders of the Higher College. In our opinion, the deficiencies in the school education, particularly in science, in addition to factors already mentioned, have made it difficult to carry out the programme of development which was planned. We have discussed the problems of secondary education in chapter II. Here we would emphasise that the students entering the Higher College have been handicapped by the deficiencies of their school training and have found it difficult to reach the high standard which the staff has endeavoured to establish.

36. Whatever the policy may have been we recognise that lack of funds made it inevitable that the departmental schools should be carried on at the headquarters of the Government departments through which their teaching staff could alone be provided. This has meant, as we show in paragraph 20, the separation of the students during their professional courses into small groups widely separated from each other. In consequence the college has lacked that impetus to the development of wider interests which results when teachers and students of different subjects share a common corporate life. It has meant also that the professional education has been too narrowly vocational and has lacked the wider qualities which it should possess. Even though we recognise the difficulties, we were surprised that there was no machinery whereby representatives of the staffs of the Higher College and of the different professional schools could meet for discussion of policy, the more so since the diploma which the student receives at the end of his professional course is that of the Higher College.

37. We are of the opinion that two facts, first, that the principal of the college has not hitherto been specially engaged for the post, but seconded from the Education Department, and second, that there has been no governing body, have reacted against the progress of the college. Its administration by the Acting Principal on behalf of the Director of Education, who consults the Governor and the Chief Secretary when questions involving major decisions arise, cannot have provided the college with the help which would have been

available through a governing body of the accepted type. We realise that there exists an advisory body, the chairman of which is the Director of Education. Its members include the acting principal and one member of the staff of the college, principals of secondary schools in Lagos, leading Africans resident in Lagos, with a representative from the Ex-Students' Union and since 1944, from the Nigerian Union of Teachers. We were informed that this advisory body had not played an important part in the work of the college, and we regard it as unfortunate that the departments other than that of education are not represented on it.

ACHIMOTA COLLEGE

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Introduction

38. The building of Achimota was intended, according to Sir Gordon Guggisberg's speech in 1924, to provide "an institution at which the African youth will receive, first and foremost, character training of such a nature as will fit him to be a good citizen; secondly, the higher education necessary to enable him to become a leader in thought, in the professions, or in industry among his fellow countrymen. . . . Achimota, as I see it, will be more of the nature of a university college than of a secondary school." He suggested that one of its first tasks would be to give general and technical education to the teachers necessary for staffing secondary schools and for improving the primary schools. "Achimota College is the stepping-stone towards the university which it is the ardent desire of the African to have, and which it is no doubt the duty of the Government to take a share in giving as soon as, but not before, the time is ripe. Further there is no reason whatever why Achimota should not itself expand into a university when it has done enough to enable sufficient secondary schools to be started. . . . In planning the administration I have therefore thought it advisable to consider the project of the college eventually becoming a university." But, he added, "In view of the great cost of providing the highly qualified staff required by the university, it is more than likely that when the time comes the people of the Gold Coast will not be the only ones who will welcome the idea of a university in West Africa."

39. When the college was opened, with the Rev. A. G. Fraser as its first principal, these aspects of its development had evidently been kept in mind and Mr. Fraser was first asked to educate boys from 16 upwards. He refused to do this since he believed that African boys of that age, owing to their inadequate earlier training, would be unable to hold their own when compared with Europeans. He insisted that the college should include a kindergarten department, accepting children from 4 years upwards, in order that at least a proportion of the children at every stage should have had training comparable with that of British children. He insisted also that from the beginning the college should admit girls as well as boys.

40. Mr. Fraser wanted to give the African knowledge of both African and British backgrounds. Community service formed an essential part of the

training in the college while practical work on the school farm was also included in his plan.

41. Owing to the emphasis on the earlier stages of education, the higher aspects assumed a smaller importance in the early years of Achimota than would seem to have been the desire of Sir Gordon Guggisberg. Thus when, after fourteen years, the number of scholars had reached 679, their distribution was: kindergarten 60, primary 233, secondary 180, teacher-training 174, "university courses" 32. The last Committee* appointed to inspect Achimota recommended in its report in 1939 that the kindergarten section should gradually be brought to an end to make more room for girls. The kindergarten was separated from the college early in this war, and both kindergarten and primary school were disbanded in 1944. The college now consists of a secondary school, a teacher training department, and what is known as the "university department." This department, as has already been explained in paragraph 5 above, prepares students mainly for the external Intermediate examination of the University of London in arts, science and engineering, and for the London external degree of B.Sc. (Engineering), although the numbers taking this last course have been small. The Achimota Council plans to separate the secondary school from the university department as soon as possible. Though the war has prevented the complete separation of the corporate life of the students in this department from that of the secondary school, they already live in separate houses and, for the most part, feed separately; they have separate chapel services and their own distinct organisation for games.

42. The Achimota buildings are well laid out on a spacious and healthy site on high ground six miles inland from Accra. The total cost of the buildings and layout was about £600,000. This was provided entirely by the Gold Coast Government. The site contains two groups of buildings. The smaller group, which is now being used by the army and the Minister Resident in West Africa, was designed to serve the school (see plan in appendix VII) and lies from a quarter to a half of a mile from the main buildings which were designed to serve the college. As soon as the "school" buildings can be released the Achimota Council proposes as a first stage to move the secondary school there as a separate unit under its own headmaster and later to a completely different site, leaving the whole of the present site free for the development of higher work. The main group of buildings and the greater part of the site would thus be available for the development of the university department. We are informed that there would be no difficulty in acquiring more land adjoining this site, which is already well supplied with playing fields, tennis courts, a golf course and a swimming bath.

43. Social life in certain directions is well provided for. There are ample facilities for games. There is a Union Society, a branch of the Student Christian Movement, a College Art Club, a Geographical Society, a Plato Club, and a very active Old Achimotan Association, which, among its other activities, has recently organised and staffed a night school in Kumasi as an experiment in adult education.

44. There is a resident medical officer and a college hospital giving free medical attention. The needs of the various churches are met by members of the staff who are qualified to act as chaplains. Religious services are voluntary.

* This Committee appointed by the Governor of the Gold Coast in 1938 was under the chairmanship of Dr. A. W. Pickard-Cambridge. The Report was published by the Gold Coast Government in 1939.

45. There are 16,000 volumes in the main college library, and there is in addition a special science library housed in the science block. This is by far the most extensive college library in West Africa. The present annual expenditure on books is £300 and it is proposed to increase this annual expenditure as soon as books become plentiful again. The list of books ordered showed a wide range both in subjects and in academic level of study. An important feature of the library is its use by outside members, chiefly teachers and others working privately for external degrees. There are 700 outside members who pay deposits ranging from 5s. to £1. These deposits are repayable on demand and therefore form no part of the library's income. The Government allows books to be sent from and to the library free of charge. The type of books most in demand at present are on sociology and economics.

46. There is an attractive small museum devoted mainly to anthropology and natural history, at present under the direction of a keen curator, who is, however, able to devote only a small proportion of his time to museum activities. The museum receives a grant of £90 per annum which formerly had to meet the salary of an African assistant as well as purchases, research, insurance, etc., but in the present year the grant is independent of the salary of the assistant. It may be emphasised, however, that a great deal of material is available at the present time which it is important to secure before it is lost, partly because much is being sold and sent abroad, partly because the native crafts are disappearing. If higher education is to be developed in West Africa further museum facilities are essential. The relation of this museum to the West African Institute of Industry, Arts and Social Sciences, however, will probably call for consideration when the plans for the future development of the Institute become more definite.

47. Achimota is perhaps unique in West Africa in having an African musician with an English musical training in charge of the music side of the College. The result is that music, both European and African, has an adequate place in the life of the students, and is related to dramatic work and to tribal dancing.

48. It may be worth while here to call attention to the potential values of a multilateral institution in the present stage of education in West Africa. Achimota is an example of such a place with its Intermediate work, teacher training, arts and crafts, and music. The net result is well developed individuals with an all-round interest in every side of education and with some appreciation of the value of other contributions to knowledge than the purely academic.

Government

49. The Achimota Council is an independent body and has entire control of its general policy and property. By a new ordinance, 1934, its constitution was changed so that it consists of sixteen members:—

(a) Four members appointed annually by the Governor.

(b) Six African members, four elected by the council, two by the Old Achimotans Association.

(c) One member annually elected by the council to represent mission education.

(d) Three members of the staff, one of whom must be African, elected annually by the staff.

(e) The Principal.

(f) The Director of Education.

The Principal is appointed by the Governor with the approval of the Secretary of State, the Council having the right to make recommendations.

50. The Gold Coast Government grant is at present £54,000 a year. Every five years the Governor appoints a commission to inspect and report upon the college and so satisfies himself that this money is being well spent.

51. The high place which Achimota holds in the esteem of the people of the Gold Coast is due in no small measure to the vigorous co-operation of the Africans and Europeans each bringing their own contributions to the council. It is clear that the Achimota Council is playing a continuous and most valuable part in the development of the college, and we regard this council as a model of what such a body should be.

The university department

Finance

52. The fee income for the university department in 1944 was estimated at £6,309, and the expenditure, including salaries and maintenance, at £15,300. The excess of £9,000 is met from the annual Government grant which, as already stated, amounted in 1944 to £54,000. Higher education at Achimota thus takes about one-sixth of the total grant for the College.

53. The inclusive annual fee for tuition and residence for students working for all Intermediate courses is £48 per year, while for the degree course in engineering it is £72; there is at present £1 per annum extra charged owing to the higher cost of food. The games fee is 5s. per year. At the time of our visit there were 102 Intermediate and degree students at Achimota, so that the annual cost of each student was about £150. Fifty-two per cent. of these students are receiving assistance from scholarships, mostly provided by the Gold Coast Government.

Staff

54. The staff engaged in higher teaching number 22, but most of them spend only part of their time on university work. Of these 19 hold degrees of British universities (including 3 external degrees), one of a Canadian, and one of the Gregorian University (Rome); one is a qualified engineer. They have been trained in a wide variety of subjects, generally sufficient to enable them to undertake the range of work which is now being done. The staff is now short owing to war conditions and the average teaching time amounts to 24 periods of 40 minutes each per week (that is 16 hours). This is heavier than in normal conditions.

55. This staff, many members of which were originally selected to teach also in the Achimota secondary school, has been reduced during the war and yet has had to maintain the teaching in the secondary school and to meet the increasing demands of a rapidly expanding university department. There is a limited tutorial system instituted for students in their second year. If it seemed to us that the atmosphere of the university department was insufficiently distinct from that of the secondary school, we realised that the necessary break between school and university life could not be achieved while the same master had to teach a boy as a schoolboy and shortly afterwards lecture to him as an undergraduate.

56. The Achimota Council considers that, if the Intermediate teaching is to provide an adequate basis for degree work, at least 8 additional members of staff—four lecturers in natural science, two in engineering, one in mathematics and one in English will be required for full time work on the Intermediate courses.

57. The European salary scale ranges from £400-840 for men, £400-720 for women; the Senior African staff receive five-sixths of these amounts.

58. Three important points were made by the staff in their evidence:—

(i) All the Intermediate classes were now full to capacity. This meant that the individual and tutorial work carried out in former years when classes were small was now almost impossible, unless there was a considerable increase in staff.

(ii) There were good relations between African and European staff. This was evident both on the professional and social level, and was one of the most outstanding features of Achimota. This relationship was considered by the staff to be enhanced by the strong Christian influence which had pervaded the life of the college.

(iii) Three out of five African members of the staff on the Intermediate and degree side had been to Great Britain for graduate or post-graduate work.

Admission

59. The students are drawn from all sections of the community. Forty-eight per cent. of the students in the university department receive no financial assistance from Government. The average age of students on entry into the university department is between 20 and 21.

60. Students admitted must have the London matriculation or a corresponding qualification giving exemption from it. Formerly students were allowed to enter with one subject to make up, but this permission has been discontinued partly because it is not possible to arrange the extra-teaching in the subjects required. Students wishing to study science or engineering are required as far as possible to have a credit in the school certificate examination in one science subject and/or in additional mathematics. Applicants having these qualifications in recent years have been in excess of the vacancies. All the students are resident and accommodation is fully occupied at present with 102 Intermediate and degree students.

61. The rapid increase in the size of the university department is shown by the figures for the last five years:—

Year	Total students in university dept.		Distribution by country of origin			
	Men	Women	Gold Coast	Nigeria	Sierra Leone	Gambia
1939 ...	35	—	33	1	1	—
1940 ...	44	1	42	3	—	—
1941 ...	62	1	53	9	1	—
1942 ...	73	1	56	15	2	1
1943 ...	96	2	78	14	5	1

62. Up till 1941 the factor controlling the number of entries was the number of applicants who had obtained exemption from the London matriculation: since 1942 the controlling factors have been the size of the staff available and, for science and engineering students, the accommodation in the laboratories. In 1942 and 1943 applicants who had obtained exemption from the London matriculation sat a competitive entrance examination and many who were well qualified for the university department could not be accepted as these results show:—

Year	Vacancies	Total applicants	Applicants who qualified for entry	Admitted
1942	21	77	45	21
1943	52	99	60	52

Courses

63. Students are accepted for the following courses (completed by external examination) of the University of London; Intermediate arts, Intermediate science, Intermediate engineering, B.Sc. engineering, Intermediate science (economics). It was hoped to add Intermediate commerce in September, 1944. For some time students were accepted for Intermediate agriculture but, although this includes a useful combination of science subjects, it has little direct relation to agriculture, being merely the basis for the more specialised work in agriculture for the degree stage and, as the title of the course is misleading, it has been dropped. Formerly students were also taken for the first M.B. but as the subjects can be taken in Intermediate science (although at a somewhat higher standard) intending medical students are now required to take those classes.

64. The students spend two years on the Intermediate courses. It is usual to complete the Intermediate course in English universities in one year in those cases where exemption has not been obtained on qualifications obtained at school. It may be assumed that the first year in Achimota is necessary to widen the range of the students' reading and to provide further opportunities for work in the science subjects, especially for those who have come from schools with few facilities for science teaching.

65. The Intermediate arts course involves the selection of four subjects from English, Latin, geography, history, economics, pure mathematics. Latin is a compulsory subject for the London Intermediate arts examination. The Intermediate science course involves four subjects chosen from pure mathematics, applied mathematics, physics, chemistry, botany, zoology.

66. One member of the staff is at present responsible for all the Intermediate chemistry, and another for Intermediate physics and one for biology; a further member has just been appointed to teach zoology. In fact the staffing is approximately comparable with that in a good secondary school where pupils are trained for the higher school certificate. The accommodation in the science laboratories is limited and controls the numbers of students who can be admitted. The places available are: chemistry 15, physics 12, botany 14 and zoology 14. There is a science lecture room which holds 75. It is evident that any development of the college will necessitate increases in the size of laboratories and in the equipment available.

67. Engineering students in the main work for the Intermediate examination, a small proportion proceeding to the final degree. The Intermediate engineering comprises several science subjects, not very dissimilar from those taken in the Intermediate science examination, together with engineering drawing. Intermediate engineering, in short, has very little reference to engineering. The degree in engineering requires two further years of study and is taken in two stages, Part I at the end of the first year, Part II at the end of the second. The engineering class has also limited accommodation, the electricity and mechanics laboratory holding only 12 students. At present the engineering staff is very restricted. The engineering school was inspected and approved by the representatives of London University before candidates could be presented for the B.Sc. Engineering examination.

68. The Principal considered that the Intermediate arts course did not meet the needs of West African students. The English syllabus was unsuitable for students whose mother tongue was not English, and the Latin syllabus had little cultural value for West African students. The science syllabus, however, only needed adaptation to local conditions, and this should not be difficult.

69. In addition to the university department, there are at Achimota four teacher training courses. Two of these are for teachers for the primary schools, a four year course admitting students who have passed the Standard VII examination, and a two year course admitting students who have completed their secondary education. During the last 11 years 377 students have completed these courses: the enrolment at the time of our visit was 128. A third course is for arts and crafts teachers. It is a three year course for quali-field teachers or for those who have passed the school certificate. A fourth course is for housecraft teachers. It lasts either for one or for two years. Entrance requirements are similar to those for the arts and crafts teachers.

Examination Results

70. Examination results over the five years 1938-42 are shown below:—

Year	Intermediate				B.Sc. Engineering					
					Part I			Part II		
	Sat	Passed	Referred	Failed	Sat	Passed	Failed	Sat	Passed	Failed
1938	15	6	4	5	2	1	1	1	1	—
1939	16	11	3	2	6	3	3	1	1	—
1940	13	5	4	4	4	4	—	4	1	3
1941	18	13	4	1	1	1	—	1	—	1
1942	30	18	7	5	5	3	2	7	3	4
Totals	92	53	22	17	18	12	6	14	6	8

The Intermediate figures divided by courses are:—

	Sat	Passed	Referred	Failed
Arts ...	26	16	7	3
Science ...	35	23	7	5
1st M.B. ...				
Agriculture ...				
Engineering ...	31	14	8	9
Totals ...	92	53	22	17

It may be assumed that the numbers sitting and passing in the above list include candidates who had been referred or had failed in a previous year.

71. The total wastage of students in the Intermediate department during the 11 years 1933-43 has been 20 including:—8 who left to continue their studies abroad (7 to U.K., 1 to U.S.A.), 4 who left for financial reasons, 1 who left giving no reason, 2 who left for unsatisfactory progress, 1 dismissed for unsatisfactory conduct, 4 who died.

72. Of the subsequent academic records of students we were told that since passing the Intermediate, 19 had taken degrees in the United Kingdom by the end of 1943. In 1943 there were 34 students (including 19 scholars) who had completed the Intermediate course at Achimota, studying for degrees in the United Kingdom. The subjects being studied by these 34 students were divided as follows:—

Medicine ...	19	History ...	2
Dentistry ...	3	Agriculture ...	1
Science ...	5	Law ...	1
Engineering ...	2	Architecture ...	1

In February, 1945, there were 89 students from the Gold Coast in the United Kingdom and Eire. Eighty of these were studying in the universities and were divided by subjects as follows:—medicine 21, dentistry 6, veterinary surgery 1, law 5, social science 7, moral science 3, languages 3, geography 3, other arts 6, science 6, mathematics 3, engineering 2, agriculture 3, commerce 3, teacher training 5, other subjects 3. The remaining nine were engaged in other courses in Britain. (See appendix IV.)

Subsequent Employment of students

73. At the time of the Commission's visit to the Gold Coast the employment of 78 students who had passed Intermediate and degree examinations at Achimota was as follows:—21 in the Gold Coast civil service (Administrative Service 2; Education 2; Public Works 5; Posts and Telegraphs 2; Survey 1; Railway 3; clerical branch 6); 26 in the teaching profession. 2 were doctors; 1 was in the legal profession; 1 in commercial engineering; 22 were engaged in further studies; 5 had not yet been appointed to posts.

FOURAH BAY COLLEGE

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Introduction

74. Fourah Bay College was founded by the Church Missionary Society in 1827 to train ministers and lay workers. It was affiliated with the University of Durham in 1876 and since then has prepared its students for the B.A. degrees of Durham University. Its students have also taken the B.C.L. degree and the (post-graduate) diploma in Theology of Durham, and, more recently the Teachers' Diploma of Durham, a one year course for graduates only. For about 15 years the college has also undertaken the training of non-graduate teachers for primary schools.

75. It was Fourah Bay College which opened the way to higher education for students from all the colonies in British West Africa. It has produced many of the leading West African figures who have helped to raise the educational standard in each colony, and who have interpreted to the colonial Governments the aspirations of their people. To educated people in West Africa, the college and its link with Durham have for long been a symbol of achievement and of promise for future educational advance. It is the object of keen loyalty from its old members and from the educated Africans of the colony, as is proved by their bequests and subscriptions.

76. The college has received from the Sierra Leone Government very little support for its degree courses. The Government has however given financial support to the non-university courses in which teachers are trained for the primary schools.

The college has been greatly hampered by lack of funds, especially in more recent years*, when it required increased staff and a wider range of courses to meet the developing needs of Sierra Leone and the other West African colonies.

* Its position has been the subject of a Government enquiry and report (Colonial No. 169, H.M. Stationery Office, 1939).

77. A more recent handicap has been the two moves owing to war conditions. The first was from the old college which stood on a fine site on a promontory jutting out into the Freetown estuary, to Cline Town, near the old site, and the second to Mabang, an isolated site in the bush. The former college buildings and site have now been requisitioned for the use of H.M. Forces and at the time of our visit negotiations were proceeding for their sale to Government. To all connected with Fourah Bay College the old site and the buildings represented a valued part of the college tradition. The staff and students have found temporary quarters in the Thomas Agricultural Academy at Mabang, which has neither the buildings nor the water required for laboratories. The students and staff are cut off from the capital, and the schools in which the teachers in training gained their practical experience. Furthermore, it was impossible to accommodate at Mabang women students, who had in recent years been admitted to the college, and two of whom had graduated in arts—the first women to graduate in any part of West Africa.

78. The library contains some 3,300 volumes. These include over 1,000 in the religion and philosophy section. The geography, science and classics sections are all weak, the classics section containing many old books which are unserviceable. The sociology section has only just been started. Between 1939 and 1943 £158 was spent on the library, an average of just under £32 a year. These sums were derived entirely from an annual fee of £1 paid by each student. The Carnegie Trust has recently made a grant of £300 to the college for the purchase of books.

79. While the college was in its old buildings it played a prominent part in the life of educated Africans in Freetown. Many of them attended public functions at the college and some gave lectures there; in turn students were welcomed in their homes. The Christian worship and outlook, and the friendly relations between staff and students, and between students from the different colonies, which have always been a feature of the life of this small college, have combined to give the students a very strong corporate sense. This has persisted even when the students have returned to other parts of West Africa, as we saw when we met their old students' associations in our tour in Nigeria. It says much for the strength of the spirit of the college that it has cheerfully survived the move from Freetown.

Government of the college

80. The college is owned and controlled by the Church Missionary Society through its local executive committee. In theory, the college council, which was formed in 1918, should comprise seven members appointed by the C.M.S. and seven members appointed by the Methodist Missionary Society, with the Director of Education of Sierra Leone as an additional member. In practice, the Methodist Missionary Society has not been able to co-operate as planned, and at present the council consists of five Church Missionary Society representatives, two Methodist representatives, and the Director of Education. The Bishop of Sierra Leone is ex-officio chairman. Of recent years this council has met infrequently. After holding no meetings in 1936 and 1937, it met once a year in 1938, 1939, 1940 and 1941, four times in 1942 and three times in 1943.

Finance

81. In 1938 the income of the college was £2,572, including £810 in fees, £1,304 from the Sierra Leone Government (£200 of this being in the form of a grant and £1,104 in payment for the primary teacher training course). The expenditure was £2,884. In 1942-3 the income was £3,755, including £950 from fees and scholarships, £950 grant from the Church Missionary

Society, £747 from the Sierra Leone Government for the teacher training department, and £467 from interest on investments. The expenditure of £5,719 included £1,330 on the move to Mabang, £1,915 on staff, £967 on the teacher training department, £696 on board, £582 on administration.

Sums owed to the college, including nearly £1,300 for rent of the old college buildings, have been set against the greater part of the deficit of £1,964.

82. The financial position of the college has been strengthened by the following bequests:—

(i) *Randle Bequest*. In the past the college received £300 a year from this bequest. The will stipulated that science should be taught. Since science teaching has been in abeyance since 1942, no money has recently been paid out from this bequest.

(ii) *Johnson Bequest*. This brings an annual revenue of £167 to encourage the teaching of science.

(iii) *Harding Bequest*. This is a sum of money which is at present accumulating in Nigeria: when it has reached £10,000, as it should do shortly, it will become available for the use of the college.

Staff

83. The present full-time staff comprises the Principal and two European and three African tutors. Two hold degrees of British universities, one with a diploma in education; one holds an American degree in addition to a degree and two diplomas of Durham University; one holds two degrees of Durham University; one holds degrees of two other British universities; the lecturer in charge of the teacher training course holds a teacher's certificate of a British university.

84. The European members of the staff work as missionaries and do not receive salaries. This limits the field of choice. They receive a grant from the Church Missionary Society to cover their expenses, which are calculated at £300 a year for a man and £500-£600 a year for a man and wife. There is one European lecturer for whom a salary is paid by the Sierra Leone Government to the Church Missionary Society. Africans on the staff are appointed and paid by the Church Missionary Society's local executive committee. There is one African lecturer on the teacher training staff whose salary is paid by the Sierra Leone Government. The salaries of the three African members of staff are £210, £210 and £230.

85. Up till 1938 there had been no formal consultation with Durham University over the appointment of staff for the university work at Fourah Bay College and no consultation with Government over the appointment of staff for the teacher training department. In 1940 the Senate of Durham University, which has had a Fourah Bay Committee for many years, passed a resolution in which it sought a closer link with the College. It offered to advise the College on the appointment of staff recruited in the United Kingdom. It invited the Principal and members of the staff of the college to visit the university during their leaves in England, and promised to try to send a member of the university to visit the college from time to time. The connection with Durham is greatly valued and has in fact been valuable. The Fourah Bay staff thereby have access to their counterparts in Durham and know the ways of one English university.

Admissions

86. Entrance for the university courses is by the Fourah Bay College matriculation examination (Durham University). The numbers of students who sat for this examination from 1938-43 were as follows:—

<i>Year.</i>	<i>No. sitting for examination.</i>	<i>No. passing examination.</i>	<i>No. entering College.</i>
1938	8	2	2
1939	17	10	8
1940	8	2	1
1941	11	7	3
1942	7	1	1
1943	14	4	3

87. The entrance qualification for the teacher training course was the senior school certificate but, owing to the scarcity of candidates and the need for teachers in the schools, the junior school certificate has recently been accepted as a qualification. Ministerial students are accepted on the recommendation of the Missions without an examination test; the College has never been asked to accept more than 4 at one time.

88. The numbers of students in the college during the last 11 years have been as follows:—

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Total students in College.</i>	<i>No. of University students.</i>	<i>No. of students from areas outside Sierra Leone.</i>
1932-3	29	16	6
1933-4	22	12	4
1934-5	28	17	9
1935-6	40	25	12
1936-7	31	17	10
1937-8	30	17	10
1938-9	33	16	9
1939-40	33	20	15
1940-1	38	18	17
1941-2	25	16	10
1942-3	25	20	13

89. Nearly all those who came from outside Sierra Leone were university students, and comprised nearly three-fifths of the total university students. When we visited the college in March, 1944, the number of university students was 17, five being from Sierra Leone, ten from Nigeria and two from the Gold Coast. Three were reading for a diploma in education and fourteen for an arts degree. The fourteen arts students were divided as follows:— final year 6, second year 3, first year 5.

90. The average age of students starting degree and diploma courses during the years 1932-43 was 23.3 and the average age for completing degree and diploma courses was 27 and 28. The average age of ministerial students was 47.

91. At the time of our visit the Sierra Leone Government was not granting scholarships for the degree courses at Fourah Bay College though it had recently granted scholarships for Sierra Leone students to study in the university department at Achimota in the Gold Coast: it has since awarded scholarships to enable students to study both at Fourah Bay College and in the United Kingdom. In February, 1945, there were 62 students from Sierra Leone in the United Kingdom and Eire. Twenty-nine of these were studying in the universities and were divided by subjects as follows:—medicine 10,

dentistry 2, social science 6, moral science 1, arts 3, mathematics 1, engineering 3, commerce 2, law 1. The remaining 33 students were engaged in other courses in Great Britain, about a third as teachers in training. (See appendix IV.)

92. The inclusive fees (covering residence) for all students are £20 a term or £60 a year. These fees are reduced for ministerial students to £40 a year, if they live in college, and to £16 a year if they live out of college. There are three open scholarships valued at £10, £30 and £72 per annum and scholarships for those studying for the ministry valued at £100, £80, £120, £47 and £20.

Courses

93. The courses taken at Fourah Bay were, at the time of our visit:—

(i) Arts: a pass degree of Durham University providing in the last year of a three year course either a general arts or a divinity group of subjects. In this course the English syllabus for students of Fourah Bay College differs from that laid down for students taking the courses in England, in that it is prescribed that English may be taken by Fourah Bay College students as a foreign language.

(ii) Diploma in Education of Durham University: a one year course for graduates.

(iii) Diploma in Theology of Durham University: a one or two year course for graduates.

(iv) Pre-medical (1938-42 only): a two year course up to the standard of the Durham higher school certificate.

(v) Teacher training: for training teachers for the primary schools. A three years course: two years being spent on academic and professional training and one year in practice in teaching.

(vi) Ministerial: this is a two year non-graduating course.

94. For the years 1932-43 the average numbers of students in each group of courses each year has been as follows:—university courses 18, teacher training 8, ministerial 2, pre-matriculation (1931-39 only) 2, pre-medical (1938-42 only) 4.

Examination results

95. From June, 1938, to December, 1942, there were 31 entries for the final arts examination. In this examination the majority of the students took Latin, Philosophy and English as their subjects. The results of the final arts examinations during the twenty years 1923-1942 were as follows:—

	Entries.	Passed.	Referred.*	Failed.
Total	157†	57	9	91
Yearly average... ..	8	3	.5	4.5

96. The results in the diploma courses have been as follows:—

	Entries.	Passed.	Passed Part A only.	Referred.	Failed.
Education (1927-42)...	32‡	10	—	5	17
Theology (1923-42)...	26§	13	5	1	7

NOTE.—* Required to take the examination again in one subject. † The figure of 157 entries includes those who have failed and taken the examination again. The gap between the number of individuals who entered for the examination and the number who passed is therefore probably much smaller than these figures suggest.

‡ Represents only 23 individuals some of whom took the examination more than once.

§ Represents only 17 individuals some of whom took the examination more than once.

Employment of students of Fourah Bay College

97. The majority of students after leaving Fourah Bay College enter the ministry or the teaching profession, some in the education departments of the Government and some in the mission schools. In a memorandum submitted to us the Church Missionary Society stated that a very recent statistical survey had revealed the fact that at the present time five-sixth of the African graduate staff of the secondary schools in Freetown and practically all the African graduate teachers in the Nigerian secondary schools were products of Fourah Bay College.

98. In 1938 the occupations of those who had completed their courses at the college between 1921 and 1935 included 34 in the teaching profession, 11 in the ministry, 6 medical practitioners, 2 barristers and 17 in Government service. From the earlier students, nine have become bishops. Many of the West Africans who have been prominent in the service of British West Africa for a generation received their early training at the college. As we have mentioned in our first chapter, it is noteworthy that the three African members of this Commission are all old students of this college.

99. Some students come to Fourah Bay College for a post-secondary course in arts or (during the years 1938-42) in science before going to a British university, usually Durham. Six students have done this in the last two years.

100. So far the Sierra Leone Government's recognition of the pass degree in arts at Fourah Bay College as a special qualification for employment has been confined to posts in the Education Department. No doubt more students would come to the college if the Government were to accept the Fourah Bay College courses as a qualification for responsible posts in other departments. A qualification for entry to the junior grades in these departments is the junior Cambridge school certificate, whereas for the senior grades of the administrative service an honours degree, for which there are no facilities at Fourah Bay College, is required. As a result few graduates of the college enter departments of the Sierra Leone civil service other than the Education Department. There may be a slight increase of those entering the Sierra Leone civil service in view of the recent openings for welfare officers, but the main avenues of graduate employment in Sierra Leone are the professions of teaching, law and medicine, and the ministry.

CHAPTER IV

THE FUTURE DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN WEST AFRICA

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I.—THE HIGHER EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF WEST AFRICA

1. We have pointed out the need of West Africa (i) for Africans capable of filling responsible professional and administrative posts, (ii) for research workers, (iii) for institutions serving as centres of general culture and learning. We now consider these questions in greater detail.

Urgency of the requirements for trained African men and women

2. Already the demand for skilled and responsible men and women has exceeded the training capacity of the existing educational institutions in British West Africa. There has been an increasing flow of West African students to the British universities, notwithstanding the high cost of such an overseas education, and the difficulties of war-time, including travel. There were in February, 1945, 249 West African students in the universities and university colleges of the United Kingdom. Of these about one-third held Government or other scholarships. There were in addition 103 more students, of whom about one-sixth held scholarships, taking other courses of higher education in the United Kingdom: thirty-one of these were law students. (See appendix IV.)

3. Both the projected expansion of education and health services and the intended economic development will demand greatly increased facilities for training and for research in West Africa, if Africans are to play a full part in the working out of such schemes.

4. The present shortages are startling. For example, if we estimate that there are already over 4,000,000 children in British West Africa between the ages of 6 and 14, there would be required, to provide a full primary course of six years for these children, even in classes of 40, upwards of 75,000 teachers. If full primary education for every child within the next 25 years were the aim, then 3,000 teachers would have to be trained each year to staff the primary schools alone. The present output of trained teachers is perhaps a twentieth of that. In Great Britain there is one qualified medical man to about every thousand of the population. In West Africa before the war there was one to every 60,000. If there is to be even one doctor to every 6,000 of the population in West Africa, 5,000 doctors would be needed. Merely to keep up such a figure would require 150-200 graduates each year, which is far more than ten times the figure of those coming forward annually pre-war. The Government of the Gold Coast has recently put forward a plan for establishing 14 regional hospitals: Nigeria plans to provide 60 new hospitals: the doctors and other staff for such hospitals are nowhere yet in sight. The registered dentists available in all British West Africa to serve some 27 million people number perhaps half a dozen.

5. Highly trained men and women will be required not only in agriculture and industry and expanding commercial activities in order to enable the colonies to support a higher standard of living, but also to serve in the growing administrations both local and general. The larger native administrations of West Africa, of which there are many hundreds, will increasingly need on their staffs well educated persons with a strong sense of responsibility. Africans with a wide general education will also be needed in the churches, if the churches are to take their rightful part in the leadership of public opinion. It is almost impossible to exaggerate what the churches have meant and should yet mean to the development of British West Africa.

6. Trained African research workers are required immediately in such fields as sociology and linguistics and other fields in which they have particular contributions to make. Provision must also be made for those Africans who will find an interest in education for its own sake.

7. Well educated persons when available are rapidly absorbed. There is a continual wastage from the teaching profession owing to competition for its members from commerce and the civil services. (See chapter II, paragraph 30.)

8. We consider that the chief immediate fields for graduate workers in West Africa may be grouped as follows:—

- (1) Education.
- (2) Medicine, including dentistry.
- (3) Other professions, such as agriculture and engineering.
- (4) Administrative grades in the civil service, local government and commerce.
- (5) The supervision and training of social workers of all kinds, particularly of women.
- (6) Research work.

In all this we should like to emphasise that when we say men we do also mean women, and that we intend all opportunities for higher education to be open to women as well as to men.

Need for increased facilities for higher education in West Africa itself

9. It is generally agreed that, in the majority of cases, a student should take his first degree in his own country. Moreover, the number of West African students for whom places can be found in the British universities (especially in the years immediately after the war) will necessarily be limited. For both these reasons the pressure to provide adequate training at home, in West Africa, is becoming more urgent. It is however important to remember that there will continue to be a need for certain students to come to the United Kingdom even for their undergraduate training, in particular those for whom no suitable courses are available in West Africa. It is essential that the British universities should keep their doors open to such students.

10. The importance of a thorough training up to the Intermediate standard should not be underestimated. Intermediate standard, followed by professional training, will have to be accepted, for some time to come, for many of the teachers who will be needed in the secondary schools. Even this will represent a great advance on the present qualifications of many such teachers. Again, many who have not gone beyond a good Intermediate training should be capable of filling responsible posts both in the economic life of West Africa and in the civil service.

Requirements for future research and post-graduate workers

11. Many new research activities are projected, and some are under way. It is unquestionable that the peoples of West Africa can be greatly aided by the results of work directed towards West African problems; in health by researches in nutrition, diseases and water supplies; in agriculture by researches on crops, soils, pests and systems of cultivation; in economic development, by geological survey and research into the processing of local raw products; in the changes of their social order, by economic and demographic surveys, and by researches into African history and systems of customary law, and land tenure. Research into the past will not only stimulate local interest in the ancient traditions of the peoples, but will help to maintain their sense of continuity in the rapid changes now coming upon them. Many such researches can only be carried out in West Africa, on the spot.

12. It is very desirable that these researches, wherever possible, should be connected with the institutions of higher learning in West Africa. It is universally agreed that members of staffs of university institutions, if they are to carry out their proper function, must have full opportunities to engage in research in their subjects and in widening the frontier of knowledge. Students also should be brought at the earliest possible stage into contact with research workers and research methods. The stimulus on students of research work is unquestionable and such an association will help many of them to carry into their working lives the spirit of unprejudiced enquiry.

13. Such research work, urgently required in the near future, cannot be staffed or carried out by European workers alone. It will require the close co-operation of both Africans and Europeans. There will therefore be a need for Africans who have received a more advanced training than that represented by a first degree. Facilities for such post-graduate training must be aimed at from the start in West African university institutions. Selected graduates from West Africa should also be enabled to undertake post-graduate studies in the universities of Great Britain and elsewhere, to widen their own knowledge, to study in close contact with research workers from other parts of the world, and to work amongst the people with whom their own countries are so closely linked.

Influence of centres of learning on the surrounding communities

14. The influence of a university or university college is far-reaching even in the midst of old and highly developed communities. The need for such influence is much greater amongst communities passing through a period of rapid change, especially when they find themselves faced with the necessity for the rapid assimilation of a great flood of new experiences. University work in its widest sense includes the comradeship of learning and the emergence from pupil to adult status. These things mean not only the acquisition of knowledge, but a way of life. It is not too much to say that Europe's remarkable progress in the early middle ages could scarcely have been accomplished without the help and inspiration of her schools of learning—some of them with very small beginnings and founded at a time when literacy was still the accomplishment of a very small minority. It is especially important that the West African dependencies should see such a way of life in active progress within their own borders.

15. Activities beyond its own walls bring a university institution into closer contact with the community outside, and help it to become a centre to which neighbouring populations will look for enlightened and progressive thought, since there will be both staff and graduates, free and independent in their views, living amongst them. The development of adequate libraries and museums and of societies for studies of various kinds, such as grow in and around any university, do much to enrich the local life of the community in which the university institution is established. In addition university institutions, by retaining close contact with their graduates who have gone out to teach in the schools, provide a sense of continuity between school and university education, which should have a good effect particularly on a young educational system such as is developing in West Africa. Such institutions enable the teachers to renew in familiar surroundings an encouragement for learning.

The need for several centres

16. No single university institution, however excellent, could adequately supply these wider influences to the other colonies from one site alone in West Africa. The British West African territories are not only themselves of wide extent; they are, as may be seen from the map on page viii, separated from each other by long distances, and by other states and governments. Great contiguous territories, such as exist in French West Africa, present a picture differing completely from that of the British dependencies. French West Africa has developed along the lines of centralisation. British West Africa by the very nature of things, has developed with a high degree of decentralisation. The different territories follow independent, though converging, lines. Modern transport has shortened distance and quickened communications, but it has actually increased the danger that a small academic group in a single centre would become cut off from the popular life in their own home lands.

17. University facilities for West Africans in West Africa must be forthwith very considerably extended. Merely to provide more openings for West Africans in the British universities, as is being done at present, will not meet the need for African teaching and African investigations. A university in each of the larger West African colonies will ultimately be required. The sooner a beginning is made, the sooner will this object be attained.

THE RANGE OF FACILITIES REQUIRED

Departments of study and range of work

18. We now indicate some of the departments of study and fields of research which we consider to be most urgently required to meet the needs of which we have spoken.

19. In general, we believe that any university institution which in these days is to give a balanced education to its students, and play its proper part in the cultural and spiritual development of a people, must provide for the study both of arts and science. Professional schools, if they are not to have too narrow an outlook, should develop alongside such a group of studies.

20. We were specially impressed by the urgent need for the development of advanced work in science, in view of the deficiencies of science teaching in the schools, the requirements of the professions and the pressing needs of research. We believe that increased and improved education in arts is no less urgent. A properly planned university arts course should provide a training in clear and objective thought and in appreciation of the accumulated wisdom of the outside world. This is perhaps even more necessary in West Africa, owing to its long isolation, than it is elsewhere. We found in West Africa a desire for such knowledge widespread among educated and responsible Africans.

Arts

21. A suitable group of departments for the arts faculty might be made up from English, modern languages, history, geography, philosophy, sociology, economics, and classical languages, including Arabic.

22. It is a matter for discussion, when preparations have further advanced, whether the range of departments to be included in an arts faculty should be identical with that usually found in a British university.

23. We have received in evidence suggestions for new grouping of subjects especially in the social sciences, but we consider that such re-grouping can be fruitful only if for each main subject in the group there has already been established a systematic and disciplined approach.

24. For some time to come the content of the arts courses in West Africa, if they are to secure a high standard of intellectual discipline, will have to be much the same as that of the arts courses in the home universities, though the approach in the teaching might be different (compare paragraph 126). We do not consider that in general the study of West African subjects has progressed far enough to make them suitable for inclusion at this stage as separate subjects in arts degree courses, though general subjects such as history and geography could no doubt be taught with emphasis on those aspects which were of special interest to West African students. We recommend that research in local subjects, for example, economics, geography, sociology, history, music and art, should be pressed forward at the earliest opportunity. European and African researchers, working together, must widen the field of knowledge of distinctively West African subjects. These subjects will take their place later, though as soon as possible, in undergraduate studies.

Science

25. For a science faculty, departments of mathematics, physics, chemistry, botany and zoology are essential. An approach to these subjects and a grouping of studies rather different from that of the British universities may be appropriate. Special emphasis may be laid on biology at the first stage owing to the needs and opportunities of biological research and to the probability that men of high research ability will be able quickly to build up in West Africa a school of biological investigation.

26. Chemists or physicists of outstanding ability may not be so easily attracted to work in West Africa, for it will take some time to build up a research school in these subjects along the recognised lines, and the final success of these schools, even more than other research schools, will depend on African research workers themselves. Geology will eventually have to be taught locally to a high standard, but it is necessary to make provision immediately for elementary geology (up to the Intermediate stage), and for more advanced work in soil geology, in order to meet the needs of agricultural students and to extend the understanding of soil problems among teachers and others. For the present, specialised training in geology for mining and survey purposes would be suitably provided in Britain. Physiology and anatomy, necessary subjects in the faculty of medicine, would also be available to students in the faculty of science, and to others.

Intermediate courses in arts and science

27. We recommend that the Intermediate courses should be developed in the university institutions in these territories, rather than in selected secondary schools. Though candidates in England frequently get exemption from the Intermediate arts and science examinations through the higher school certificate, experience shows that work done in connection with these courses in a university differs essentially, both in quality and range, from that done in the later years of schools. It is in any case certain that for some years to come few schools in West Africa would be able to reach a standard properly exempting their pupils from any part of university teaching. (See Chapter II, paragraph 28.)

28. Until education beyond the school certificate stage is further developed in the secondary schools, we recommend that the Intermediate courses should be of two years duration, and that arts and science should always be in close association. Such courses should both serve as a basis for higher and more specialised study and provide the students with a broad education which would be valuable in itself. In this way those students who completed their Intermediate courses but did not go on to higher studies would have an opportunity of obtaining an appreciation of intellectual values and a wide range of humane and scientific interests. Such courses would be of value to students whether they were entering on a professional course, or going out to responsible posts in other fields of employment.

29. We now turn from the general to the more specialised courses that are required. We have discussed in detail the needs of education in chapter V, medicine in chapter VI, agriculture, forestry and animal health in chapter VII. It is convenient at this stage to summarise the conclusions which we reach in those chapters.

Education

30. Provision should be made in each of the three largest dependencies for training as teachers for the secondary schools those who have completed intermediate courses. In addition there should be set up an Institute of Education. The functions of such an Institute will include the training of

graduate teachers, and the development of research in education, with psychology and linguistics. For the present one such institute will be adequate to serve the whole of British West Africa. These questions and the location of the Institute are discussed in Chapter V.

Medicine

31. There should be established one medical school and one school of dentistry to serve for the present the whole of West Africa. This question and that of the location of these two schools are discussed in chapter VI.

Agriculture, forestry and animal health

32. There should be established schools of agriculture, forestry and animal health to serve for the present the whole of West Africa. This problem and that of the location of these three schools are discussed in chapter VII.

Engineering

33. In view of the progressive development present and intended, of communications, water supplies, building and industrial undertakings, there is a growing need for men with various grades of training in engineering. It is probable that the majority of men required in West Africa, as in Britain, will not require technical qualifications up to the level of a degree.

34. The total number of Government posts in West Africa normally filled by qualified engineers is nearly 300, to which should be added the numbers employed by the native administrations, the commercial firms and the mining industry. This industry in the Gold Coast alone, according to the evidence given to us by the London Advisory Committee of the Gold Coast Chamber of Mines, provides 198 posts for which qualified mining engineers are required. Of all these engineering posts scarcely any are so far held by Africans. We consider that the development of these territories demands that Africans shall rapidly start to play a full part in this profession as in other professions. Many Africans are greatly attracted to engineering as a profession, and are keenly anxious to devote themselves to its study in order to take part in the development of their country.

35. It is possible to give much of the basic theoretical training in engineering and some variety of practical experience in West Africa. This is especially true of civil engineering and to a certain extent of mechanical engineering; the opportunities for experience in electrical engineering are likely for some time to be inadequate. After students have acquired the basic training in civil and mechanical engineering in West Africa, it will for some time to come be essential for them to spend some two years in Britain, working with suitable engineering firms, in order to acquire the wider practical experience available in an industrial country.

36. Until the post-war development schemes of the West African colonies mature, it will be difficult to assess the number of trained engineers which will be required, though the number will be considerably larger than at present. Under present conditions there is not sufficient demand to justify more than one institution providing a full degree in engineering. But the need for trained engineers should, if a reasonable proportion of the present schemes comes to fruition, justify another school. We later (see paragraph 152) make a recommendation that if our report is adopted, a review and progress report should be made to the Secretary of State at the end of five years. This, we think, would be a suitable occasion to estimate more closely the need of British West Africa for facilities for training professional engineers and to decide on the developments and reorganisation required. Our present recommendations are set out in paragraphs 75 and 88 below.

Surveying

37. It is necessary to have accurate surveys of the West African colonies on various scales, as a basis for agricultural, forestry and geological surveys, as well as for boundaries, town-planning, road construction and other engineering projects such as irrigation and drainage. It is interesting to note that only one-eighth of Nigeria has been topographically surveyed. African staff is required in order to supply the additional surveyors both for the Governments departments and for private practice. For many years there have been locally trained African surveyors working in these colonies. Many of them have carried out responsible work in this field.

38. We have noted in appendix VI that the special courses, which are designed to train surveyors for the Nigerian Department of Lands and Surveys, have for various reasons not been successful of recent years. We recommend that there should be maintained special courses and practical training in surveying which should follow preliminary courses in Mathematics and Science corresponding in part to the course for Intermediate Engineering. We recommend that in the selection of intending survey students greater account should be taken of the student's aptitude for such work. While the needs for surveyors not requiring a professional qualification would be met by the provision of suitable courses in the technical schools, we consider this more advanced work should be concentrated in a single institution serving the whole of West Africa.

Theology

39. The strength of the demand for a Faculty of Theology, as distinct from denominational training colleges, is somewhat uncertain. It is not clear whether even all the Protestant churches would be willing to co-operate in supporting such a Faculty at this stage. Until these questions have been settled, it is not possible to pronounce upon its desirability.

Law

40. From the evidence available it is doubtful whether the need for lawyers is sufficient to justify the creation in West Africa of a Faculty of Law. In view of the many more urgent needs, such a faculty should not be considered at present.

Extramural education

41. No university institution in West Africa will be carrying out its full task unless it is keenly and constantly concerned to stimulate education at all levels throughout the area which it serves.

42. The influence of a college as a centre of learning and new ideas should be spread through the whole community. If it is able to spread its ideas directly not only to the future professional men, teachers and administrators, who are students at the college, but also to those who will later be assisting them in all parts of their work, its ideas will reach the mass of the people far more quickly. We consider for instance, that at this stage a college can help greatly to broaden the scope of specialist courses maintained by the various government departments and by educational bodies by sending members of its staff to lecture at the various training centres, and by helping to organise vacation schools, short courses and conferences either at the college itself or at any other suitable institution. A college could assist by making some of its own accommodation, lecture rooms and libraries available for such purposes during vacations.

43. We consider that as part of its work in enriching the general cultural life of the community a college should co-operate with bodies, such as the

British Council, which are already engaged in such work in West Africa. In particular it would render a valuable service by fostering the establishment of libraries and museums at suitable centres.

44. All this will require extra staff, and as the work grows, a special extramural department at the college. Beyond recording our strong opinion on these matters we make no specific recommendations. The actual proposals can only be worked out between any college and the territory it serves.

STEPS RECOMMENDED

45. We are agreed, as has already been stated, that each larger colony in West Africa should eventually have its own university. Nigeria with its immense territories, its diverse cultures, indigenous or Islamic, and its population of over 21 millions, will need in due course to provide itself with more than one. It must however inevitably be a long time, having regard to the history of university development in Britain and elsewhere, before a university with a charter of its own, granting its own degrees, will emerge in any of the West African colonies, though university institutions, teaching up to degree standard, promoting research and exercising the influence which such institutions can properly exercise will come into being within a much shorter period. There are at present only a very few institutions in West Africa which approach university standards in study. They draw their students from educational systems which have developed mainly during the last 40 years. Both primary and secondary schools have, in general, still far to go before they reach Western European standards. We stress this because we are conscious of the rapid progress which has been made, and are deeply anxious to see a solidly based as well as a swift advance in the years to come.

46. Any scheme of advance will involve certain risks. The urgency of all the problems is very great, and the time available for their solution is not indefinite. An advance upon the widest front is indispensable.

47. We recommend that there should now be set up a university college in Nigeria, and a university college in the Gold Coast, and that certain reorganisations and new developments of higher education should be carried through in Sierra Leone, in close connection with Fourah Bay College. The university college in Nigeria should include faculties of arts and science and the professional schools of medicine, agriculture, forestry and animal health as well as a teacher training course. The university college in the Gold Coast should include faculties of arts and science, and an institute of education, which would provide for research in education and for teacher training courses. The university college in Sierra Leone should include courses in arts and science up to the Intermediate level and a teacher training course. With this, we hope, would be associated an arts degree course intended mainly for theological students, financed by the Church Missionary Society, who are the present authorities of the college. (See paragraph 105.) The organisation of each college and the field to be covered by each, now and in the future, are worked out in subsequent sections.

48. Before going on to the question of organisation, however, we review the main points which have weighed with us in coming to this conclusion, namely, that advance in each major colony is necessary, as against the argument that effort should be concentrated wholly on the creation of a single central institution.

49. In the first place we must have regard to the great populations in question, and the diversity and isolation from each other of the territories. British West Africa with 27 million people comprises nearly half the population of the colonial Empire. It does not form a 'region' such as the West

Indies with three million inhabitants and a single language, or even such as Malaya with six million inhabitants, though these admittedly differ widely in language and race. The British West African colonies are themselves an empire.

50. Furthermore, the West African dependencies, vast as they are, have no common frontiers with each other. They are separated, as has been already said, by great distances and by other states and governments. Their lines of travel have developed towards the ocean, not across the land. Their land communications lead not into each other but into French territory, by which each colony is deeply surrounded.

51. For advances in general education, and in particular the general education of the majority of those who are to lead in the improvement of the educational system, which is so urgently required, work proceeding up to degree levels in their own country, evoking the interest from both students and community which such work inspires, and attracting and retaining the staff who can maintain the inspiration, seems to us altogether to outweigh the advantages which would be gained by concentration. The general needs of these populations cannot be met wholly by one centre of higher education even for a short time.

52. For certain professional, research, and technical schools the balance of arguments is, for the present, in favour of concentration.

53. There are also questions of general policy which cannot be ignored. We do not have before us a blank sheet. The two colleges of Achimota and Yaba were each planned and launched with the intention, publicly proclaimed in each case by the Governor at the time, that they would proceed towards university levels. Fourah Bay College, the smallest of the three, has been providing degree courses and passing its scholars through Durham University examinations for 70 years. It is true that evidence taken in the Gold Coast stated that Achimota was prepared to face the necessary evils of sending its students elsewhere, if a single institution were decided on and were located outside their colony. A similar proposition was passionately argued against in Nigeria, and we doubt whether the Gold Coast communities in general had really envisaged the prospect for instance of no work beyond Intermediate being developed in the Gold Coast for many years to come.

54. Fourah Bay, Yaba, and Achimota colleges are regarded by African opinion as symbols of future progress. Any steps taken to halt development for a generation or more, would rouse the deepest feelings, and evoke grave misgivings as to good faith, in any territory concerned. These factors, though imponderable, have to be taken seriously into account. African support, African enthusiasm, is an indispensable need if higher education in Africa is to surmount the difficulties which inevitably lie before it. It is a universal experience that local patriotism is one of the strongest factors in evoking such support. Steps must be taken which will maintain in being all existing facilities which can usefully be developed, now or later, and to build on local foundations wherever possible.

55. There is, however, the important point, on which we have had many discussions, that of 'regionalism' or "How best can a West African outlook, such as we all desire, be achieved, which will take into account the common factors and common problems of the whole 'region' of British West Africa?" The belief that educational progress in one territory was being held back to promote the success of a regional plan, might well prejudice the chance of whole-hearted support for any particular project of centralised education or research. Only if each community believes that as and when it shows itself capable of further progress, such progress will be permitted,

and indeed fostered, will it be possible to obtain cordial agreement upon the numerous institutions, such as the Medical School, the Education Institute, or the various researches, which for reasons of staff and finance, it will be necessary, for some time, to limit in each case to a single colony.

56. The financial arrangements by which one colony would help to build up a complete university in another colony, which would eventually pass, from a general West African institution, into a university for that colony alone, would be complex in the extreme, and the minds of those responsible for education in the other colonies would inevitably keep looking forward to the time when they could end their contributions to the central institution, and begin to build up one of their own. A fruitful source of disagreement rather than of unity, would thus be ready to hand.

57. The lesser difficulties might be got over; but the main arguments remain. The influence of a university college outside its walls is strong, but in the nature of things it cannot reach for hundreds, or for thousands, of miles. A way of life, especially amongst developing peoples, is not a thing which can inspire by distant rumour. It must be witnessed close at hand, shared in by those whom they meet and know. The difficulty of distance can be surmounted by modern methods of travel, but in the very act of overcoming it a new obstacle to understanding is brought into being, that of severance, perhaps ultimately as formidable as the difficulty which has been overcome. Institutions reaching towards university level have come into existence in each of the three great colonies; not in pursuance of any abstract plan, but arising out of the facts of the case. To discourage two of the existing organisations, and, at a later date, to encourage them again, is a proposal which might well defeat the purposes which it is designed to achieve. A regional outlook will best be secured by encouraging these colonies to develop along common lines and towards a common aim. The powerful influence of advice and staff from the universities, the financial assistance from the United Kingdom, will prove the best means of securing the regional outlook desired. "The sun succeeded in getting the traveller to lay aside his cloak, which the wind had only compelled him to wrap more tightly around him".

CHAPTER IV (PART II)

ORGANISATION OF THE PROPOSED UNIVERSITY COLLEGES

58. Two questions must be answered. First, are there sufficient West African students of the required quality to make a vigorous development feasible now or in the near future? Second, is it possible to find the staffs, buildings, and finance, which will be required? We believe the answer to each of these questions is "Yes."

Student body available

59. The numbers of West African students proceeding to higher studies have recently rapidly increased and are still increasing. There were in February, 1945, already 249 of these students who had been admitted to and were studying in the British universities or university colleges: 103 more were in the United Kingdom working at other higher studies—one-third of them at law; while 270 were at work in the various institutions of higher education in West Africa at the time of our tour. Of those in the universities in Great Britain, over three-fifths have come and are working at their own expense. The secondary schools in West Africa have long lists of applicants who cannot yet be admitted, as there are no places for them. For these the teachers now being trained in West Africa and in the United Kingdom will soon begin to provide staff. The West African Governments have asked that 120 places

shall be found in Great Britain for West African students at the start of the new academic year in 1945. The majority of these students, of whom about three-fifths will be scholars, will be seeking admission to the universities. It has been estimated that a similar number of places will be required in 1946. We estimate that over 600 West African students in all are, even to-day, engaged in higher education either in West Africa or in the United Kingdom, and this at a time when the work of the secondary schools has been greatly disorganised and held up, owing to the interference of war needs both with the use of their buildings, and with the services of their staffs. As to the quality of the future students it is impossible to prophesy. The fact that about 250 are at present undergraduates in Great Britain, where most of them are making satisfactory progress, and that for many years past West Africans have entered for, and secured, the degrees of British and other universities, often with marked distinction, is a testimony to their power to achieve university standards, under great handicaps, and from an almost non-existent educational background.

60. It is worth while also taking into account that for a college starting its progress towards university work, an initially small student body is an actual advantage, from more than one point of view. Greater attention can be given to each individual student. It has always been found that a corporate spirit is developed more rapidly and surely in a small than in a large community. The provision of wider facilities locally will broaden the field of selection. The number of students who can afford to take, or are willing to take, the long journeys at present necessary, and to sever themselves from their people for the long periods required, is inevitably only a fraction of those who would benefit by a continued education. This applies with special force to girls. We are certain that unless facilities are provided in more than one centre, the opportunities for higher education for women in West Africa will be seriously restricted.

Provision of Staffs, Buildings and Finance

61. *Staffs.*—The next most important question is that of staffs. Neither for one institution, nor for two, beginning a new venture far away, will good university teachers be easy to get, especially in the years immediately after the war. Any institution or institutions in West Africa will have to build up staffs gradually, and to rely for European staff for the most part upon young men who will go out to West Africa to seek new opportunities for teaching and research. (This question of staff will itself impose a delay in development, during which time the numbers of potential students will certainly increase. In fact it may well be that the secondary schools will be turning out a body of young men and women capable of taking advantage of university training in West Africa, and eager to do so, before some of the proposed institutions, even at the most rapid pace of development, are ready to receive them.)

62. *Buildings.*—Our proposals involve an extensive building programme in Nigeria and another, though less extensive and required in any case, owing to the Government's purchase of the existing buildings, in Sierra Leone. It will be difficult to obtain building materials and skilled labour immediately after the war. The universities in the United Kingdom have had to recognise this in planning their own development. In view, therefore, of the need for a rapid extension of the facilities for higher education in West Africa in this period, the utmost use must be made of existing buildings and equipment, and this applies with special force to the extensive buildings already existing in Achimota.

63. We are all agreed that a university college teaching arts, science, medicine, agriculture, forestry, animal health, and teacher training, is

necessary in Nigeria at the earliest possible date. We are all further agreed that it cannot advantageously be developed at Yaba and from the present buildings. A new site and new buildings, including a new hospital, are imperative, if the new venture is to have a real chance of success. We think that the new foundation should be established at or near Ibadan, making a completely new departure, and literally, breaking fresh ground.

64. The making of a university in an undeveloped area such as that near Ibadan, under the spur of urgent necessity, covering many subjects not hitherto brought together in Nigeria, or whose teaching is at present non-existent, is an undertaking which has not many precedents in our academic history. We all believe it should and can be embarked upon. But experience of those who have given a lifetime to such tasks is that such developments take time. It would not be fair to those who are looking eagerly forward to the completion of those developments to slur this over.

65. While the new university college is being built at Ibadan, it will be necessary for the developing arts and science departments, the teacher training course, and the medical school to use the existing buildings at Yaba. Additional temporary buildings will be required at Yaba for expansion. This will leave the site at Ibadan clear for the building programme, which we hope will be pressed forward with the utmost urgency. Similar temporary arrangements will be required for the schools of agriculture and forestry at Ibadan.

66. At Achimota the site is already laid out, a nucleus of good buildings, in which teaching is actively going on, is already in existence and an orderly development has for several years been in progress. With these buildings available an immediate expansion at Achimota is possible. We believe that to continue this development here will be more advantageous than a present stand-still, followed by an attempt at hasty progress later. The reinforcement, now, of Achimota, an institution already under way, is an indispensable step towards the steady and firmly based general progress which is our aim.

67. In Sierra Leone a new site and buildings for Fourah Bay College are required in any case, even to continue its existing work. We later recommend that these should be in the Freetown peninsula. While a new college is being built, it seems probable that, unless suitable temporary accommodation can be found in the peninsula, the college will have to use its present temporary quarters at Mabang and that some additional temporary buildings will be required in the meantime. In view of the unsuitability of the Mabang site we hope that the provision of a new site and buildings will be treated as a matter of urgency.

68. *Finance.*—We consider that the expenditure* involved in our proposals should be financed from the revenue of the West African Governments and from the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund. The extension of facilities for higher education is an essential part of the plans for the development of British West Africa. This is recognised both by the West African Governments and by the Secretary of State for the Colonies. It is appropriate therefore that at first the greater share of this expenditure should be met from the grant of £120,000,000 which has recently been voted by Parliament under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act. In making our proposals we have borne in mind that there are many other urgent claims on the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund from West Africa and elsewhere, that this sum is designed to serve the whole Colonial Empire. It should however be remembered that the 27 million inhabitants of West Africa comprise nearly half of that Empire.

* See Summary of Recommendations.

69. The West African Governments should, in our opinion, bear part of the cost of these proposals from the start; their share should increase steadily until they ultimately bear the whole burden on their own shoulders. We consider that students' fees should cover only a small proportion of the annual expenditure.

70. We are not in a position to review as a whole the development programmes of the West African Governments. These depend greatly on assistance from the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund. We therefore make no recommendations as to how the cost shall be shared. Our estimates of the cost of our proposals are made to serve as a guide; for we cannot forecast accurately the post-war cost of buildings, or post-war salary levels.

NIGERIA

Range of facilities

71. We have already indicated our view that schools of medicine, agriculture, forestry and animal health, designed for the present to serve the whole needs of West Africa, should be developed in Nigeria, and that they should be in close association with faculties of arts and science. These proposals are set out in full in Chapters VI and VII.

72. We recommend that a medical school should be developed providing courses which would lead to a qualification recognised by the General Medical Council. While the medical school at Yaba has achieved some success in meeting the urgent needs of Nigeria for African doctors, it is clear that, if the needs of the whole of West Africa are to be met, an institution providing fuller courses and a more widely recognised qualification is essential. The cost and difficulty of building, equipping and staffing a medical school have led us to recommend that at this stage only one medical school should be established in West Africa. This should be situated in Nigeria. The needs of Nigeria's population will always require that the majority of students in a single medical school shall be from Nigeria; and Nigeria has already done much towards the establishment of such a school.

73. In Chapter VI we give an account of the schools of agriculture, forestry and animal health which Nigeria has established, and the reasons why we consider that they should continue to be developed there.

74. We recommend that there should be set up immediately in Nigeria a Science faculty in close association with these professional schools, both to cover much of the common teaching that will be required and to provide advanced scientific training especially for those who are to teach Science in the secondary schools. The staff of the Higher College, Yaba, have already succeeded in developing courses in some science subjects beyond the Intermediate stage.

75. Courses in engineering, to a standard somewhat above that of the Intermediate standard, followed by extensive practical training, have been provided in Nigeria since 1934. We consider that the largest requirements for trained engineers in the British West African colonies will undoubtedly be in Nigeria. We therefore recommend that a department of engineering should be established at Ibadan, providing courses for degrees in civil and mechanical engineering. As a first step, early provision should be made for courses up to the Intermediate B.Sc. in engineering temporarily at Yaba, and later to be transferred to Ibadan, and these should be extended to degree level as soon as buildings and facilities can be provided at Ibadan. The students should be required to devote certain vacations or other periods to practical training in engineering works approved by the head of the Department.

76. Until a degree course at Ibadan is established we consider that Achimota should serve the whole of West Africa for degree training in engineering (see paragraph 88 below). If when the general review at the end of the first five years is made (see paragraphs 36 and 152) the need for trained engineers does not require the maintenance of two schools, degree training in engineering should be concentrated at Ibadan.

77. We recommend that this department should also provide for the training of surveyors and that for this purpose the survey school at Oyo (see appendix V1) should be associated with the university college. This should then become the centre for training of surveyors for all the West African territories.

78. A College so constituted would be completely unbalanced unless it maintained as an integral part of its activities a faculty of arts. The facilities in Nigeria for the study of arts even to the Intermediate level were at the time of our visit totally in abeyance. It is essential that this deficiency should be made good immediately up to the Intermediate level and as soon thereafter as possible up to the full degree level. These courses are necessary to meet the immediate needs of Nigeria for teachers in the schools and for responsible leaders in other forms of development.

79. It is not anticipated that Nigeria, with the rapidly growing number* of students who each year are completing their secondary education, will have any difficulty in providing an adequate flow of students capable of taking advantage of the range of facilities described above. In addition students from the other West African Colonies which lack facilities for certain professional courses, will come to Nigeria after completing the Intermediate stage.

Site for the university college of Nigeria

80. We consider that the site for this university college should be at Ibadan in Western Nigeria. We propose it should be moved from Lagos because of the limitations of space for development in or near Lagos, which is an overcrowded port town situated among lagoons. There is, for example, no site available to permit the building of a medical school near the hospitals. The new college should be residential, and it will need a considerable area of ground for buildings and playing fields in addition to that required to house the range of departments envisaged and to allow space for their future development. Ibadan, with a population of nearly 400,000, is the fourth largest city in Africa, and the largest in tropical Africa, and will need in the near future a large new hospital, which could be planned in conjunction with the medical school. Ibadan is situated in hilly country and we understand that space for extensive development could be made available. Its situation on the railway linking the North and the South and at no great distance from the sea or air terminals at which students from other colonies are likely to arrive, is also a factor in its favour. A further advantage is the existence at Ibadan of the schools of agriculture and forestry with their experimental stations. At this site should also be established the degree courses in engineering.

81. With a university college started at this site all the students in the whole range of faculties, except in the school of animal health, would be able to find facilities for their work in the immediate vicinity of the university college. The students of animal health would need to carry out their clinical work at Vom on the Jos plateau in Northern Nigeria, after the completion of their pre-clinical studies at Ibadan.

* In 1943, 505 students passed the Cambridge Senior School Certificate, 281 being placed in the first and second grades.

Courses

82. This university college should provide the following:

Arts.	Intermediate and degree courses.	
Science.	" " " " "	including engineering intermediate and degree ; and a survey school for West Africa.
A School of Medicine for West Africa	and	} See Chapter VI
A School of Dentistry for West Africa.		
A School of Agriculture for West Africa.		} See Chapter VII
A School of Forestry for West Africa.		
A School of Animal Health for West Africa.		} See Chapter V.
Teacher Training.	A two-year course.	

It is likely that a college providing Intermediate courses will be required shortly in Eastern Nigeria, partly to serve as a feeder to the university college and partly as a centre of university interests and extension work in that area.

Research

83. There will be a need for new research projects in all branches of the work of the university college, which may in addition have to maintain and develop some existing researches when it absorbs the existing schools of medicine, agriculture, forestry and animal health.

In addition it will be necessary to establish close relations with the research workers in the various Government departments in the several colonies, and with other research institutes in West Africa, especially those in Nigeria (such as the yellow fever research institute at Yaba).

Government of the College

84. A new governing body of the college will be necessary with representation drawn from a wide basis in the community. We recommend that at the earliest possible moment this body should be autonomous, as indicated in paragraph 117.

THE GOLD COAST

Range of facilities

85. The Gold Coast already provides at Achimota courses in engineering up to degree standard, and in arts and science up to the intermediate standard for a rapidly expanding student body which at the time of our visit numbered about 100. These courses will have to be strengthened and expanded to meet the increasing flow of students from the secondary schools.

86. We believe that the time has come when teaching in arts to degree level should be provided, and that as soon as possible science courses also should be built up to degree level.

87. We recommend that the arts department should include a social science course which would, for the time being, serve the whole of West Africa. In planning this course and the staff which it would require, the authorities of the college should consult the Director of the London School of Economics, which has since 1943 provided a special social science course for colonial students.

88. We consider that the science department should continue to provide courses in engineering. The only degree course in engineering now provided in West Africa is at Achimota where it has been in existence since 1935. Provision should continue to be made for courses for Intermediate B.Sc. in engineering. We recommend also that for the present the existing courses for the B.Sc. degree in engineering should serve the whole of West Africa and should be correspondingly

strengthened in staff and equipment. The position of the degree course in engineering at Achimota should be reviewed at the end of five years, in relation to the probable needs for professional engineers and to the extension of technical training in the several territories. If when the general review at the end of five years is made (see paragraphs 36 and 152) the need for trained engineers does not require the maintenance of two schools, degree training in engineering should be concentrated at Ibadan.

89. In Chapter V we recommend that an institute of education, designed to serve the whole of West Africa, should be established in the Gold Coast.

90. It is our opinion that the Gold Coast at the present moment affords the best opportunities for the development of higher work in arts and education. Not only have arts courses been satisfactorily developed at Achimota up to the Intermediate level but we believe that the constructive and co-operative attitude there towards social problems, which has been due in no small measure to the Gold Coast Government's strong support for the development of this college, provides a favourable basis for the further development of humane studies. (It is largely owing to this spirit, which is particularly evident in the whole field of education in the Gold Coast, that we later recommend the establishment there of an institute of education to serve the whole of West Africa.) We recognise that for some years the number* of students will be small. We are convinced, however, that the number will expand rapidly, as the teachers coming out of the new university institutions enable the large number of potential students to be prepared in the expanding secondary schools for entry to the university college.

91. There are indeed, as we have pointed out, positive advantages in having a small student body when a college is in its earliest stage. The staff obtains opportunities for just those contacts and that research work which we regard as essential if an arts course is eventually to be properly related to the life of the people. The members of the staff who came out to start Achimota each spent with great advantage a year or more in the Gold Coast getting to know the people and studying the local problems of education before they themselves started teaching.

92. The Gold Coast will within a very few years need a full arts faculty in which to train its students both for the teaching profession and for other responsible posts. Many suitable buildings and the nucleus of a library and museum are already available at Achimota. We consider that an immediate start should be made. The institute of education should be established as part of the university college, and should provide both for research and for the training of teachers. It will maintain a body of graduate arts and science students from all the West African colonies. In addition Gold Coast students who have completed their Intermediate courses in arts and science will be training as teachers in the same institute.

93. Together, these students will make up a substantial number pursuing a variety of courses, and will obtain the opportunities for corporate life, which will be enriched by contact with the research workers at the various centres, existing or being brought into existence in proximity to the college. A faculty of science should also be built up as soon as possible. In view of the great scarcity of suitable science staff and the need for the rapid development of a full science faculty in close association with the schools of medicine, agriculture, forestry and animal health, Nigeria in building up a science faculty should have priority over the Gold Coast as regards staff.

* In 1943, 195 students passed the Cambridge Senior School Certificate 115 being placed in the first and second grades.

94. There are notable advantages in the situation and circumstances of Achimota. For instance, there is already established in its vicinity the West African Institute, which with a capital grant of £52,000 and an annual grant of £15,000 for 5 years has for some time been carrying out development work in local arts and industries, and has now started to carry out the social and economic researches which are to form a further aspect of its work. The Secretary of State has recently presented to Parliament a proposal to devote £1,250,000 to the development of cocoa research which is centred at Tafo, not far from Achimota, so that a considerable body of scientific research workers will be at no great distance. A young Arts faculty could expect to share, with these two institutes, such advantages as a good library and a properly staffed museum, as well as the contacts which would naturally spring up between the staffs. The pace of social and political development is increasing, and approval has already been given for an unofficial majority in the Legislative Council. We consider that it is most desirable for the Colony, if it is to succeed in its new programmes of social and political development, to have in its midst a live and growing university institution which will command the respect of the people and help to guide them through these years of change.

Site for the university college

95. The Achimota site is eminently suitable for the proposed college, and the buildings already there can be adapted and extended to meet most of its needs. The separation of the university department from the secondary school at Achimota, which has already been planned by the Achimota Council, should be completed as quickly as possible.

Courses

96. This university college should provide the following:—

<i>Arts</i>	Intermediate and degree courses.	(Including a course in social science to serve West Africa).
<i>Science</i>	Intermediate and degree courses.	(Including Intermediate engineering and, for the present, a degree course in engineering to serve West Africa).
<i>An Institute of Education for West Africa.</i>	Providing for ...	(a) Research in education, psychology and linguistics. (b) Teacher training courses including one for graduates from all the British West African colonies.

(See Chapter V.)

Research

97. There will be a need for new research projects in all branches of the work of the university college. It should also establish close relations with the research workers in the various Government departments in the several colonies, and with other research institutes in West Africa, especially those in the Gold Coast, the West African Institute of Industry, Arts and Social Sciences and the cocoa research centre at Tafo.

Government of the college

98. A new governing body will be necessary. Detailed recommendations for the constitution of this body are discussed in the section dealing with administration.

SIERRA LEONE AND THE GAMBIA

Range of facilities

99. Fourah Bay College provided for over 60 years the only facilities in West Africa for students to complete degree courses. The number of students has always been small and the development of facilities in the other colonies will inevitably circumscribe the area from which the college has so far drawn

its student body. So far the body of students in Sierra Leone who have completed their secondary education has been provided almost entirely by the schools in the Freetown peninsula. We must however take into consideration the increasing development of the hinterland which is at present only in its early stages; especially in education. In addition the Gambia is already linking its education system with that of Sierra Leone. These two Colonies between them have a population approaching that of the West Indies, though of course their present educational facilities are far below those of the Caribbean area. As they develop, however, they undoubtedly will provide an increased flow of students for the college. The development of the mining industry in Sierra Leone, and of Service bases both there and in the Gambia will tend to increase the pace of their economic development.

100. While Sierra Leone and the Gambia are relatively small, and isolated from other British dependencies in West Africa, it must be borne in mind that they are very close to Dakar, the capital and centre of educational development for the whole of French West Africa, and British achievements close at hand are subject to constant comparison with those of Dakar and its district. We consider it important that these two dependencies, the nearest of all British Africa to the United Kingdom and to the Americas, situated in the midst of a rapidly developing area of French West Africa, should not be relegated to an educational backwater. A University institution in the Gold Coast or Nigeria over 1,000 miles away would be too distant to have any but the most indirect influence on the day to day lives of people in Sierra Leone and the Gambia. We therefore recommend that a university college should be maintained in Sierra Leone.

101. We consider, however, that at the present time the chief educational need in Sierra Leone and the Gambia is for better qualified teachers in the secondary and primary schools, especially in the hinterland. To provide these we consider that the course in arts to Intermediate level should be maintained though the number of students qualified to benefit would at first undoubtedly be small* and that the course in science to the Intermediate level, which made a promising start before the war wiped it out, should be re-established immediately. This would provide a balance to the arts teaching and would also provide science teachers for the schools, to remedy the almost complete absence of science teaching there.

102. To prepare the students who have successfully completed their Intermediate courses in arts and science for teaching in the secondary schools and to provide refresher courses for suitable teachers already employed in the secondary schools, we have recommended in Chapter V that a teacher training course be established in close association with these Intermediate courses.

103. We consider that by developing these three courses the college would render its best service at present to the whole educational system of Sierra Leone and the Gambia, and while laying a sound foundation for a balanced system of higher education would provide for the secondary schools more numerous and better qualified teachers. On the quality and numbers of these Sierra Leone and Gambia scholars the future of Fourah Bay College must mainly depend.

104. While we have recognised the pioneer service in higher education which Fourah Bay College has rendered to West Africa, we consider that we should not be justified at present in recommending the support from public funds, of a general arts course to degree level, especially one isolated from science

* In 1943, 34 students passed the Cambridge Senior School Certificate, 7 being placed in the first and second grades.

teaching to the same level, for those few qualified students who may be available in the near future. Students qualified to take degree courses in Arts or Science or other advanced professional courses should for the present be enabled to make use of the facilities to be established elsewhere in West Africa.

105. The maintenance from public funds of the Intermediate courses will greatly lighten the burden on the Church Missionary Society, which with its own funds, apart from fees and certain bequests to the College, has hitherto borne by far the largest share of the cost of maintaining Fourah Bay College. Throughout the course of our enquiries we have kept in touch with the Church Missionary Society concerning the future of Fourah Bay College. We understand that they are considering the continued provision from their own resources at a reorganised Fourah Bay College (such as we have outlined above), of staff adequate to provide a full course in arts, the subjects being chosen for their suitability for theological students; also of an extra tutor in social science to broaden the basis of this course, and of an adequate number of students.

106. We consider that such a proposal would be in keeping with the best tradition of the college, which has from its earliest days provided training for the Ministry. The number of these theological students would not form an undue proportion of the total number of students and teachers in training, but both they and the staff would enrich the cultural and spiritual life of the College. The teaching to degree standard would preserve in one course at least, the academic status of the college; and, it may well be that an increasing flow of students will justify a development of general degree courses. The test for this, as indeed for all our proposals, will be the extent to which students are available, and the standards which they successively attain.

107. We recommend therefore that the proposed university college providing Intermediate courses in arts and science and a teacher training course including refresher courses, should be a development of Fourah Bay College. We trust and believe that the Church Missionary Society will co-operate with the proposed general development in every way and we believe that they would be glad to see the name of Fourah Bay College maintained for the whole new institution. This reorganisation will of course involve a reconstitution of the governing body and to that we refer later.

Site for Fourah Bay College

108. It is certain that a new site and new buildings will be required. The old buildings are no longer available, as they are about to be purchased by Government. The present site at Mabang is isolated and unhealthy, and in any case is unsuitable for teacher training courses as there are practically no schools in the vicinity. We consider that the site for this college should be within easy reach of Freetown, in order that the influence of the college may be felt by a wider circle than the student body and that in turn the college may continue to draw support from the public interest in its activities.

Courses

109. The reconstituted Fourah Bay College should provide the following courses:—

Intermediate Arts: There should be a minimum of five subjects and of one lecturer to each subject.

Intermediate Science: The aim should be to establish as quickly as possible the teaching of four subjects in addition to mathematics. One lecturer for each subject is desirable.

Teacher Training: A two year professional course (see Chapter V.)

Arts: Continuance from private funds of an arts degree course suitable for theological students has been considered by the Church Missionary Society.

Research

110. The college should establish close relations with the various bodies of research workers in West Africa and especially with the Institute of Education and the West African Institute at Achimota. It should of course maintain the contact with the Alfred Jones Laboratory if and when that research unit reopens its work in Sierra Leone after the war.

Government of the college

111. A new governing body of the college will be necessary, drawn from a wide basis and including all sections of the community. The Church Missionary Society both in Sierra Leone and in London have stated in evidence that they would accept a governing body on which their representation would not be a majority. It is fitting, in view of the past history of the College, that their representation should be substantial.

ADMINISTRATION

The Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies

112. We have given careful consideration to the problems of administration which will arise in connection with the proposed West African colleges. We are convinced that the provision of facilities in West Africa will in the early stages involve active co-operation with administrative bodies and universities in Britain. The bodies to be set up in Britain are in the main the concern of the Asquith Commission. We understand that this Commission will recommend the establishment of an "Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies," to maintain touch with university institutions in the colonies. We believe that such a body would be able to give suitable guidance to the growing university institutions in West Africa and we regard it as essential that each university college should have the closest possible contact with British universities.

113. We understand also that the Asquith Commission will recommend the establishment of a finance committee which will make recommendations concerning grants to university institutions in the colonies.

Organisation in West Africa

114. We now come to the administrative arrangements to be made in West Africa. It may be useful to point out what are the administrative bodies in many modern British universities:

(1) The court of governors, which is usually a large and representative body, meeting only once or twice a year, is the governing body of the university, but normally it exercises only general supervision. Its business includes the election of some members of the council.

(2) The council is the executive body of the university and exercises control in non-academic and financial matters. Such a council has strong representation from the academic staff of the institution, but ordinarily it has a non-academic majority.

(3) The senate, consisting of the Principal or Vice-Chancellor, the professors and heads of departments, and other representatives of the teaching staff, controls and regulates academic and disciplinary matters. It has the right to discuss and express an opinion on any matter concerning the university.

(4) **Faculties.**—Each main group of subjects (arts, science, medicine, etc.) is the concern of a faculty. Members of the board of the faculty include the professors and heads of departments and other representatives of the teaching staff. The duties of this board include the control of the curriculum, syllabus, and examinations in the relevant subjects. Faculties derive their authority from the senate and their decisions are subject to its confirmation.

115. We have considered how far it will be necessary to establish analogous bodies for the government of the university colleges in West Africa. In the initial stages it is desirable that the constitution should not be too complex and that the bulk of the non-academic functions should be discharged by the college councils.

116. We have given careful consideration to the question whether it may be desirable to institute in West Africa a "West African Advisory Council on Higher Education" which would be concerned with the wider problems of organisation of higher education in West Africa and would make recommendations from time to time concerning the further development of the three colleges. It is clear that such a body would have only advisory functions in the first place, in view of the fact that we expect that the allocation of grants from United Kingdom revenue will be made in London. While, therefore, the duties of an advisory council in the first stages might appear comparatively unimportant we suggest that one should be established to gain and co-ordinate experience of the working of the three colleges. We suggest that this council should include representatives of, (a) the three colleges (for example, the principal, the chairman and one African representative from each college council) and, (b) the various territories, but that its members should not be more than about twelve. It would meet only at fairly long intervals to discuss common problems.

Non-academic administration

117. We recommend that for each university college the functions of non-academic administration and finance should be exercised by a council. The council should consist of the principal, as the chief officer of the college, and representatives of the territory, of the teaching staff, of the medical and technical services, and of the educational services including representatives of the Churches. It is essential that the African membership of the council should be strong from the outset, and that it should include both men and women. A total of not more than 25 members is suggested. It would receive reports and recommendations from the senate or academic board. It would elect its own chairman from time to time.

118. We believe also that a large representative body known as the Court of Governors would be useful when the colleges have been established but we think that it would be unnecessary to inaugurate such a body immediately. When appointed, that court would normally meet not more than once in a year, when it would receive the annual report of the council. It would also possibly have the function of electing a small number of representative persons as members of the council but its main purpose would be to get as many influential people as possible interested in the college and to make the people of the country feel that it belonged to them. It should therefore contain representatives of the Government, of the Chiefs and people, of business interests and of the professions. Members of the council should be ex-officio members of the court. We hope that in each colony the proposals of our Report will be backed up by a large and influential committee brought together by the council, charged from the outset with the enlisting of interest and financial support for the colleges. It would be a natural development for such a committee at a later stage to develop into the kind of Court here outlined.

119. We consider also that it would be desirable to establish small advisory committees for those professional schools which under our proposals will not for the present be duplicated in West Africa. For example, at Ibadan we would recommend the establishment of advisory committees on medicine, agriculture, forestry and animal health, and at Achimota, an advisory committee on education. These committees should include the senior members of staff concerned and representatives of the four colonies with experience in the particular field of study. Representation of each colony is necessary while these schools serve the needs of the whole of West Africa. These committees would report to the council of the college concerned.

Academic administration

120. It is desirable that an academic body should be created immediately for each university college with the principal as chairman to advise on courses and to interpret the academic needs of the college to its council and to the inter-university council for higher education in the colonies.

In matters relating to examinations, syllabuses and curricula it would also be in contact through the principal with the university concerned with the degree examinations. It is suggested that this body should be known as the Academic Board until such time as the college received its own charter when the body would take on wider functions, including the award of degrees, and would be known as the Senate. All professors and heads of departments should be members, and there should be representatives of the lecturers. These boards would be responsible for the general academic work and for the conduct of examinations, the admission of students, the award of scholarships, and would make recommendations to council concerning the development of the colleges and concerning the appointment of staff. Separate Boards of Studies may not be necessary in all the colleges in the early stages, but, as the colleges develop, these should be constituted to make recommendations to the academic board. When the institutions become degree-giving universities these boards of studies would become boards of faculties.

121. In the university college at Ibadan the schools of medicine, agriculture, forestry and animal health should form an integral part of the college and for administrative purposes they should all be under the principal of the university college. The administration of each of these schools should be under a Head, and we recommend the establishment of separate boards of studies in (a) arts, (b) science, (c) medicine and (d) agriculture, forestry and animal health. These boards of studies should include the heads of all departments concerned and a large representation of the other academic staffs.

122. The institute of education should form an integral part of the university college at Achimota; its chief officer should be known as the Head, who will be responsible to the principal of the university college. We recommend the establishment of boards of studies for (a) arts, (b) science and (c) education.

123. In Sierra Leone the present small size of Fourah Bay College indicates that an academic board will suffice without sub-division into boards of studies.

Examinations

124. It is clear that for some years to come students of the West African colleges will take the degrees of some British university, and that the grant of a university charter enabling these institutions to award their own degrees can only be made when they have established a reputation for teaching and research and when they have gained experience in academic administration.

125. It is essential that the degree examinations taken in West Africa should be equal in standard to those taken in British universities. In making all our recommendations we have kept this

end clearly before us. It was frequently urged upon us in West Africa, and we emphatically agree, that the provision of facilities for obtaining qualifications thought to be inferior to those gained in Britain, would be most undesirable. Moreover it is important that qualifications obtained in West Africa should be regarded as an adequate basis for post-graduate work by other British universities, since it is hoped that a proportion of the graduates will proceed to Britain after graduation in order to pursue their studies further.

126. We understand that colonial university colleges in general will be afforded facilities by London University, which will act as an examining body and will be prepared to approve syllabuses and curricula designed to meet the needs of colonial students. (Compare paragraph 24.) We are satisfied that such an arrangement will be suitable for the immediate needs of West Africa, with the reservation that Fourah Bay College may prefer to retain its existing links with Durham University and to allow its students to continue to work for Durham degrees. If this latter arrangement is made however it will be essential that facilities shall be provided whereby Fourah Bay students who have completed the Intermediate course in arts or science shall be able to proceed to one of the other West African institutions in order to complete their degrees. This would be provided either by allowing them to choose whether they take the Intermediate examination of Durham or London University, or by the universities concerned accepting each others Intermediate certificates. This matter, important only in the case of Fourah Bay, could be settled after discussion between the institutions concerned.

127. We suggest that as early as possible members of the staffs of the university colleges in West Africa should be given opportunity to take some part in the examinations conducted on behalf of the University of London (or the University of Durham). We understand that London University is considering how best this may be done.

BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT

General requirements

128. We give below some indication of the buildings which will be required in the early stages of development of the three university colleges. We do not attempt to consider the problem in any detail, but suggest what we believe to be the minimum requirements for the effective development of higher studies in each area.

129. In general we recommend that the buildings should be of simple construction, capable of modification and extension as conditions require. This applies particularly to the accommodation for the science departments. On the other hand, we hope that the equipment will be extensive and modern, appropriate to the work being undertaken, and that generous facilities for research will be provided. Residential buildings should provide individual rooms for each student as well as common rooms.

130. The building up of a good library is essential at each centre. The extent of the library will in part be related to the work carried out in the college but should in each case cover a wide range of subjects not normally read by the students for examination purposes. An attempt should be made in each centre to provide the more essential modern literature required by research workers, but it is recognised that for some time library facilities for these purposes will be incomplete and some use of British libraries will be necessary. It is important also that each college should possess a good museum.

The university college at Ibadan

131. It will be necessary to acquire a new and extensive site which should be large enough to meet present needs and leave ample room for future development. It is recommended in Chapters VI and VII that the schools of medicine, of agriculture, of forestry, and of animal health should be located on the same site as the university college. Taking account of the areas suggested there, it is apparent that an area of not less than 1,000 acres will be needed.

132. The following are among the buildings which will be required:—

(i) Residential buildings for men and women students and staff, and for college servants.

(ii) Buildings for religious worship.

(iii) A library and reading rooms, and a museum.

(iv) Buildings for the arts faculty:

Probably three or four lecture rooms each holding 100-200, with a similar number of smaller class rooms, and several rooms for seminar and discussion classes, together with staff rooms.

(v) Buildings for the science faculty:

A minimum of two laboratories to each subject going beyond the Intermediate standard, and additional laboratories for research. Facilities for research should be provided for the staff and for visiting workers at the earliest stage. Laboratories should be of light construction and capable of extension. More money should be spent on equipment than on buildings.

Three or four lecture rooms each holding 100 students would be needed by the various departments of the science faculty: four or more smaller class rooms would also be required.

(vi) Engineering Department.

When this is developed at Ibadan, engineering laboratories, a workshop and a large drawing office will be required. The laboratory and workshop will need to be fitted with some heavy equipment.

(vii) Buildings for corporate activities.

Halls for meetings and social functions.

(viii) Playing fields, with a gymnasium and a swimming pool.

The university college at Achimota

133. The present buildings sited in the main compound already provide accommodation for over 100 Intermediate students and staff, in addition to the secondary school, and should be adapted and extended for the use of the university college. Residential buildings should be adapted to provide individual rooms for each student as well as common rooms. The secondary school should be moved as soon as possible to the buildings now occupied by the Army and the staff of the Resident Minister, and the buildings so set free made available as additional accommodation for the university college.

134. Some additional buildings will be needed, including further lecture rooms and a larger library, reading room and museum, with additional staff rooms and small rooms for seminar and discussion classes.

135. The existing science laboratories will have to be extended to accommodate at least 24-30 students taking Intermediate courses, and additional laboratories for more advanced work in physics, chemistry, zoology and botany will be needed. A minimum of two laboratories for all departments undertaking work beyond the Intermediate stage is essential. Provision must also be made for research rooms, sufficient in the first instance for the use of the staff and a small number of other workers. Some additions to the buildings and

equipment of the present engineering school at Achimota will be necessary, but as the continuation of the engineering degree course at Achimota may be temporary, it is suggested that only a moderate extension should be undertaken. But, in this connection, the five year review, which we have mentioned, should be kept carefully in mind.

136. In planning any new buildings attention must be paid to the almost certain needs for future development in some directions within a few years. The lay-out should be so designed that additional laboratory accommodation can be provided conveniently to the respective departments.

137. A new group of buildings, with lecture rooms and other class rooms, will eventually be required for the institute of education, though the present college buildings will probably meet the needs of the institute for the first few years while it is being established.

138. We suggest in paragraph 146 a financial allocation for the extension and adaptation of the present buildings. When it becomes necessary to find a new site and buildings for the Achimota Secondary School, the Achimota Council will require a grant to cover the cost of moving the school.

Fourah Bay College.

139. It will be necessary to acquire a new site and it is suggested that this should be in the Freetown peninsula and should be extensive enough to meet present needs and leave ample room for future development. The following are among the buildings which will be required:—

(i) Residential buildings for men and women students and staff, and for college servants.

(ii) Buildings for religious worship.

(iii) A library and reading rooms, and a museum.

(iv) Class rooms including laboratories for physics, chemistry and biology. The teacher training course would require additional accommodation and lecture rooms.

(v) Buildings for corporate activities—

A hall for meetings and social functions.

(vi) Playing fields, with a gymnasium and a swimming pool.

FINANCE

The basis of the estimates

140. We make no attempt to estimate the cost of sites required by each of the colleges. The probable cost of buildings and initial equipment can only be indicated in the most general terms, but some indication is given of the probable recurrent expenditure in the case of each college. The figures given relate to staffing when the colleges are established and have the numbers of students reasonably to be expected after possibly five years.

141. The initial costs of our proposals will be smaller than we have indicated. It is suggested that in many subjects it may be undesirable at this stage to appoint a person of senior standing to a professorial chair, but that the staff will be more suitably recruited among younger men and women who have had suitable research and teaching experience but who will justify their promotion to a chair by the research which they will develop in Africa. If this procedure can be adopted initial costs may be somewhat smaller, and in a few years a vigorous senior staff will be secured with wide experience of and adaptability to African conditions.

142. It may also be emphasised here that the recurrent expenditure stated will not all require new income. In the first place it must be remembered

that there is already some expenditure on higher education in the various colonies: some of this will now be devoted to the university colleges. It may also be expected that there will be a moderate income from fees, for judging by the fact that at the present time large numbers of West African students are in British universities at their own charges, a proportion of students at the university colleges will be able to pay fees. It may be hoped also that local income, including that from individuals and industrial concerns, will increase as public interest is awakened.

143. The figures of recurrent expenditure are based on estimates of salary levels which may not apply after the war. It is assumed that a professor will need to be paid at least £1,200 to £1,500, while junior staff will commence at about £500, and more senior lecturers at higher levels. It is recommended that staff should become members of the Federated Superannuation Scheme for Universities. If adopted, this measure would involve an increase of 10 per cent. or more on salary charges. It would however greatly facilitate interchange between British universities and the West African colleges.

144. We recommend that all members of the teaching staff should be given the opportunity to take leave each year in the United Kingdom or elsewhere, and should be provided with free air passages for this purpose. Hitherto lack of continuity in teaching has been a handicap to many colonial colleges. We consider that by air travel it should be possible for members of the staffs to take their annual leave during the long vacation. The scale of leave might correspond to that laid down for the Colonial Service, which is at present a week's home leave for every month of service in West Africa.

The university college at Ibadan
Capital expenditure

145. Apart from the cost of the site and of buildings for the professional schools (see chapters VI and VII),¹ the cost of the necessary college and residential buildings and initial equipment is likely to be at least £5—600,000.

Annually recurrent expenditure

	£	£
<i>Arts staff</i>		
Allowing for about six main departments each with a staff of a professor (initially a senior lecturer in some cases) and one or two others	16,000	20,000
(Only part of this expenditure will be incurred during the first years, while the arts faculty is being built up.)		
<i>Science staff</i>		
Allowing for six main departments including engineering, each with a staff of a professor (initially a senior lecturer in some cases) and two or three others		30,000
An education department		4,000
Annual grants to laboratories, libraries, and museum, including salaries of the technical staff in laboratories, the librarian, and the curator of the museum		7,000
Administration (including the salary of the principal)		5,000
Total	£62	66,000

The university college at Achimota
Capital expenditure

146. The cost of new buildings, including science laboratories, and initial equipment will probably not exceed £120,000.

Annually recurrent expenditure

Arts staff

	£	£
Allowing for about six main departments each with a staff of a professor (initially a senior lecturer in some cases) and one or two others	16,000	—20,000

Science staff

Allowing for five main departments with staff as above, and the department of engineering which will require one lecturer in engineering in addition to the present staff. (Only part of this expenditure will be incurred during the first years, while Ibadan is developing its science faculty)		23,000
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Annual grants to laboratories, libraries, and museum including salaries of the technical staff in laboratories, the librarian, and the curator of the museum		5,000
Administration (including salary of Principal)		5,000

Total		£49—53,000
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It is noted that this expenditure is less than the present annual grant of the Gold Coast Government to Achimota College, while at the present time the university department of Achimota costs £15,300 of which £6,000 is met from fees. These figures include residential charges, and only £8,000 represents salaries and passages of staff; £3,596 represents administration and maintenance and presumably includes residential charges, and £1,700 covers laboratory expenses and equipment. (See Chapter III, paragraph 52.)

Fourah Bay College
Capital expenditure

147. This college will need completely new buildings (including laboratories and equipment). It is hoped that the Church Missionary Society may be prepared to devote some of the funds realised from the sale of the old Fourah Bay College site and buildings to the erection of some buildings at the new college. The additional capital sum required therefore may not exceed £100,000.

Annually Recurrent Expenditure

		£
Staff (including the principal) of 10-12 to cover Intermediate arts, Intermediate science	10,000	
Education department	2,000	
Administration including library, museum and laboratory grants	2,000	

Total		£14,000
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Scholarships

148. In order to ensure the development of the university colleges it will be necessary to institute a very considerable scholarship scheme in each colony.

149. There should be scholarships from the secondary schools to the university colleges allowing the scholars to take the Intermediate courses. These scholarships should be awarded on a basis which does not favour unduly certain types of school. Students of real ability, who may not have had much opportunity to study science at school, should be able to complete the Intermediate science course in two years, and should not be passed over when scholars are being selected, especially in these early years.

150. It is recommended that the award of scholarships for post-Intermediate work should enable all the more able students completing the Intermediate stage to proceed to degree work in their own university college, or in another university college in West Africa, or, in special cases and where suitable courses are not available in West Africa, in Britain. This selection should be made on the record of the students doing the Intermediate course, since students at this stage will all have had comparable facilities, and any unfairness which might affect the selection at an earlier stage, owing to the great range of efficiency of the secondary schools, will be avoided. At that stage also it is easier to assess the promise of a student for more advanced work of a university type. This stage will correspond to the stage at which students are normally awarded university scholarships in Britain.

151. For some time to come it will be desirable to afford opportunities for a selection of the better graduates to spend a period about two years in post-graduate work in Britain. This will enable a number of Africans to gain wider experience in academic life and research methods, and will provide a pool of trained men and women from which it will be possible to select future members of the university and college staffs.

REVIEW OF PROGRESS MADE AND REPORT TO THE SECRETARY OF STATE

152. We recommend that there should be a review of the progress made and of the financial allocations which we have proposed, in five years time. This progress report should be submitted by the councils of the three university colleges to the Secretary of State for the Colonies, in order that he may consider the progress made by the three university institutions and the response to university development which had been called forth locally. In this review the Secretary of State would be able to seek the views of the Governors of the West African colonies and of the Inter-university Council for Higher Education in the colonies.

CHAPTER V

THE SUPPLY AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS

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THE PRESENT POSITION

1. There are two aspects of teacher training which are quite clearly related to higher education: first, the teacher training courses which are attached to the present centres of higher education at Fourah Bay, Achimota and the

Higher College, Yaba; and second, the standards and qualifications of the secondary school staffs, since it is from these secondary schools that the recruits come for higher education. These are the obvious reasons for including a chapter on teacher training in this report. Nevertheless, as we visited educational centres in every territory, and attempted to assess the broad foundations on which higher education was to be built, we were impressed with the need for a great increase in the quantity, and a great improvement in the quality of the teachers of all grades. It is the unanimous view of the Commission that the supply and training of teachers is of paramount importance.

2. We collected information from all four territories in order to have statistics and local opinions which might supplement and be compared with our own impressions and comments. This information, for which we are much indebted to the education departments, has been arranged under the following heads for each territory:—

(a) The existing facilities for all forms of teacher training, secondary, primary and specialist. This included, among other details, the qualifications of the staff of each institution, the number of students in training in the past ten years and an estimate of the wastage of teachers after training.

(b) The qualifications of the present staffs of secondary and primary schools.

(c) Comments from each territory on the existing facilities for consideration with the evidence we collected individually during our tour.

(d) The estimated needs for additional facilities and suggestions as to how they might be provided.

3. It was impossible for us not to sympathise with the grave concern felt by the education departments about the provision of teachers. The needs of the territories and the rising enthusiasm of the people for education have far outstripped the capacity of the existing training colleges to produce enough qualified men and women for the schools. Post-war plans envisage great extensions of the school system, as, for example, on the Gold Coast where the provision of six years' schooling for every child is to be completed within the next 20 years. At the same time it is recognised that the war years have intensified the outflow of teachers to other professions, thus making it difficult to maintain existing staff, quite apart from supplying the immense numbers needed for expansion work.

4. The narrower aspects of teacher training were therefore inevitably merged in the much wider problem of providing increased educational opportunities for all sections of the population, including the illiterate adolescents and adults who were particularly considered in the Colonial Office Report* on Mass Education. We recognised, however, that progress on the broad front of universal education depended to a large extent on the standards and numbers of teachers in every grade. The provision of these teachers at the higher levels, that is for secondary schools and for training colleges, is most directly affected by our recommendations. We shall therefore consider these two problems first, and then return to some of the wider aspects of teacher training.

5. At present there are no facilities for training secondary school staff in West Africa which are in any way comparable with those in the United Kingdom, with the exception of the course leading to the Diploma of Educa-

* "Mass Education in African Society". C.O. No. 186. H.M. Stationery Office. 1943.

tion of Durham University which is taken by a very small number of Fourah Bay graduates. It is generally accepted in the United Kingdom that secondary school staff should be graduates, and in addition some kind of professional qualification is increasingly being regarded as advisable, if not indispensable. A small number of Africans on the staffs of secondary schools have taken degrees and diplomas of education in Britain. The great majority of the Africans on these staffs are non-graduates, though most of them hold the highest grade of Teachers' Certificate for such courses as are available in their territories.

6. The narrow academic nature of many of the present secondary schools and the concentration in the curriculum on examination results reflects the gulf between modern thought on secondary education in the United Kingdom and the present practice in West Africa. Three steps seem to us essential to remedy the present state of affairs.

STEPS RECOMMENDED FOR RAISING THE STANDARD OF TEACHING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

7. The first is that all the non-graduate African staff in secondary schools should themselves have an opportunity of wider academic study in the atmosphere and surroundings of a university institution. We recommend therefore that, as opportunity allows, African staff who have neither an intermediate nor a graduate qualification should be given a year's further study at one of the proposed university colleges to widen their cultural outlook and to increase their intellectual interest in the subjects they are teaching. This provision will have to be spread over a number of years, since it will not be possible to withdraw simultaneously for this purpose a large proportion of the existing staffs of secondary schools. The numbers in this category to be catered for by each university college in any given year will not be large, and these teachers should be able to join the regular classes of the college during their year of attendance. Indeed a great part of the benefit they should receive depends upon their doing so. They should, however, be allowed the greatest possible latitude in their choice of subjects. These academic refresher courses for existing teachers will involve no extra staff or administrative cost beyond the cost of maintenance of the extra students.

8. The second step is that all new African appointments to secondary school staffs should as soon as possible be from men and women who have passed through at least an intermediate course in one of the proposed colleges and taken in addition the two-year teacher training course which will be attached to these colleges. We stress the necessity of a two-year professional training course for such students. A one-year professional course will suffice, though barely, for the graduate. But for the non-graduate who is to teach in a secondary school, the successful completion of an intermediate course followed by two years of professional training are essential. With less than this he cannot play his proper part in raising the standard of the secondary school. As we say later in this chapter, this course must come after, and not concurrently with, the Intermediate course of academic study. The two years allowed for the professional course give time to enable the student both to acquire the necessary basis of skill in teaching and also to conceive of his task broadly and place it in perspective as a part of the progressive development of the social life of his people. We hope that an increasing proportion of secondary school teachers will in time be graduates of the university colleges with a diploma of education in addition. In fact, we regard this standard as the one to be aimed at for the majority of secondary teachers. But we recognise that the need for a great number of secondary teachers is so urgent, that the higher standard, namely a graduate with a diploma, cannot be insisted on for some time to come.

9. The third step involves both Europeans and Africans. We regard it as essential that the men and women, of whatever race, who hold important posts in secondary schools should be aware of the ferment in educational ideas and methods which is characteristic of the western world at the present time, and should be aware too of the changing needs and new emphases in African education. To achieve this meeting place of Western and African thought will be one of the tasks of the Institute of Education for West Africa. But in the meantime, until its work is under way, principals of secondary schools and leading members of staff ought where possible to be given the opportunity of taking short refresher courses in the United Kingdom, in order to observe and ponder over new ideas and methods, and to discuss them with men and women from other countries and territories. It will be as important in Africa, as it will be in Britain, to ensure that enthusiastic young African and European teachers shall find as their colleagues in the secondary schools senior members of staff who are not content to live in the world of the 1920's or even earlier, but have their minds open to new ideas and methods.

10. All the territories emphasise the need for more Europeans of the right academic and professional qualifications in secondary school work, if standards are to be brought up, and the extension of facilities made possible. While our main task is to consider the preparing of young Africans to take their part, *inter alia*, in teaching and in educational supervision and administration, we concur with the view that for some time to come a much larger number of academically and professionally qualified Europeans will be needed on the staffs of secondary schools.

TWO-YEAR POST-INTERMEDIATE COURSES FOR THE TRAINING OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

11. In the review of the existing centres of higher education it has been pointed out that each has somewhat different facilities for training teachers. Fourah Bay has a course for the Durham Diploma of Education. It also has a two-year course for men primary teachers. Achimota has a two-year course for those who have passed standard VII. There are also special courses for teachers of art and of domestic science. At the Higher College, Yaba, a professional course of one year's duration following an academic course lasting three years is provided for the training of science teachers for the secondary schools. This year is devoted to the theory and practice of teaching, including practice in teaching in six selected secondary schools in Lagos. Some attempt has been made to provide also courses for government and mission school teachers not concerned with science. These courses have been intermittent and were in abeyance at the time of our visit. With the work already done at these three centres in mind, we make the following observations:—

(a) It is essential that a teacher training course should be regarded as a professional course and should not be mixed up with an attempt to extend the general education of the would-be teacher or to make good its deficiencies. The future African teachers in secondary schools should pass through three clearly marked stages in preparing themselves for their work: first, a good general secondary school education, second, at least two years of academic work in a university institution where they learn to study independently and to handle reference books and scientific apparatus as students in search of knowledge; third, two years of professional training (or one year for graduates), when they learn by observation and by practice in teaching, to adapt their new-found knowledge to children of different age levels, to

understand, again by observation as well as by reading, the mental, physical and moral development of children, and to see, by studying the community and its needs, the process of education as something much wider than giving lessons in a classroom or a laboratory.

(b) It follows that in the teacher training courses at the university colleges there should be special and separate members of staff to direct the professional training. As far as possible the lectures on "methods" and on "principles" should be built up out of the students' experiences in school practice, and never learned solely as chapters in a book. The staff of the training course will of necessity visit the students while they are practising teaching, and it is advisable that the schools selected for this practice should include some other schools in addition to secondary schools, in order that students may learn the need to adapt teaching material to children of every age. It is to be hoped that these courses, though professional, will not be narrow. The present tendency in the United Kingdom to associate courses in art, music, handcraft and physical education with the training of teachers for secondary schools, has much to commend it.

(c) As the teacher is going to be an important and responsible servant to the community, he should, as part of his professional training, learn, again by observation as well as lectures, about the nature and needs of his own society. A growing number of teacher training colleges in the United Kingdom give "social studies" an important place in the curriculum, and we commend this practice to those directing teacher training at the university colleges. (Compare Chapter IV, paragraph 42.)

STAFF FOR COLLEGES FOR THE TRAINING OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

12. We have so far set out some of our recommendations for raising the standard of secondary school teachers and providing for an increase in their number. We now come to the problem of the staff of the existing colleges for training primary school teachers. There are already a number of these in each territory, but the need is urgent for their number to be substantially increased, if trained teachers are to be available for the new schools which are wanted.

13. We visited a number of these teacher training colleges, including some maintained by the Government and some maintained by the missions in Nigeria, the Gold Coast and Sierra Leone; in addition, we have before us the comments of the education departments. While here and there the work being done is quite first class, some of the courses lay too little stress on the professional part of the training and produce disappointing results. There seem to be two main reasons for this. One is that the training college too often has to make good the deficiencies of the general education of the students, and degenerates into a lower grade secondary school in which the students may lose interest before they come to their professional training. This difficulty will persist while the teachers for the higher primary schools have no secondary education before they start their professional training. The other reason is that some of the professional training is not up to date and tends to be divorced from the life and interests of children. Certain brilliant exceptions, already referred to, show how such training can be done.

14. We recommend that in future any European coming out to the staff of a teacher training college in West Africa should have a degree and either a diploma of education or a professional certificate. We recognise the excellent work being done by some Europeans who have no degree, but have a professional qualification, and have made good use of their experience. But we think that in view of the need to step up standards all round, a degree

and post-graduate training is the minimum qualification which should be required for a European in these important positions. We should like to see more Europeans who are graduates taking a professional training in the United Kingdom which would prepare them to train students in West Africa as teachers in elementary schools, and even in infant/junior schools.

15. For the African staffs of teacher training colleges, the same qualifications should be aimed at. But, for the immediate future, we recommend that Africans should have at least the qualifications demanded for secondary school teachers, namely, the successful completion of an Intermediate course and two years' professional training. They should of course in addition have some years of teaching experience, and, if possible, of supervisory work. The present African staff in the teacher training colleges will need careful revision and those who do not reach the required standard should find employment more suited to their capacities. The best men and women should be picked out, and sent, as opportunity offers, for special courses at the proposed university colleges. These courses might be partly academic, and partly professional, and should last from six months to a year.

16. It is vitally important for training college staffs of both races to be constantly in touch with new ideas and practices in education and to freshen up their outlook on their own problems. The Europeans should be encouraged to take refresher courses in the United Kingdom when on leave, and selected African staff should be given the chance to do this too. Every possible means must be devised to prevent training methods becoming static and ill-adjusted to changing needs. The policy adopted by some West African Governments in sending experienced and "proved" African teachers on scholarships to the United Kingdom in order that they may be prepared for training college posts or for supervisory work is to be welcomed.

AN INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION FOR WEST AFRICA

17. Reference has been made in paragraph 9 to an Institute of Education for West Africa. We consider that the importance of education in West Africa should be recognised by establishing as part of a university college a university institution to be called the Institute of Education for West Africa. This institute should be related to the university college in the Gold Coast in the same way as the Schools of Medicine, of Agriculture, of Forestry and of Animal Health serving the whole of West Africa, are to be related to the university college in Nigeria. We recommend that this institute should be located in the Gold Coast. We consider that the excellent spirit of co-operation between the Africans and Europeans in educational affairs, which, fostered and strongly encouraged by the Gold Coast Government, has made possible the educational achievement of the Gold Coast, is most likely to make the institute succeed there. In addition the fact that suitable buildings are already available, will make it possible to start the work of this institute without any delay.

18. The work of this institute may be considered under two heads: research and training. But we cannot emphasise too strongly that the research must vitalise the training work, and the training be the testing ground of all research. Both research and training are to serve the needs of all the West African territories until such time as parallel institutions can develop elsewhere. In view of the needs of West Africa in the field of education, we consider that the establishing of this institute should have a high priority.

Research Division.

19. We consider that the following three fields should be explored forthwith: education, psychology, and language study and teaching. The opportunities for research in education are almost limitless in West Africa and much experimenting and testing are essential.

20. The study of psychology in Africa is in its infancy. One factor which has hampered West African students, as it has hampered many students elsewhere, has been the antiquated educational psychology found too often in the text books used in the training colleges. The other factor, potentially much more menacing and distorting, has been the outcome of the various schools of thought about so-called "primitive mentality." If education in Africa is to have its necessary psychological basis, the initial step must be to study African children in their own environment without any such preconceived ideas. We therefore recommend that the primary psychological research should be a study of child development, including the full range from infants to adolescents. For this purpose we attach the utmost importance to securing competent African observers at the earliest opportunity. These should come to England to study child development here and then return to work with Europeans in West Africa.

21. The relation between language teaching and education does not need amplifying. But we should perhaps explain why we suggest that researches in language study as well as language teaching should be made at the Institute. We regard it as at most a temporary home for the study of language, for there will certainly emerge a School of African Languages in the university organisation in West Africa. But, in the meantime, the study of English teaching and of vernacular teaching is so bound up with educational policy and practice, that we consider the Institute of Education might prove a satisfactory temporary base from which to expand. This expansion has already made a promising beginning in the Gold Coast. There is no doubt that scholars working at language study in the research division of the Institute would gain much from, as well as contribute to the other fields of research already indicated.

Training Division.

22. In making the following proposals we recognise that they are of necessity related to the early years of the institute. As research progresses, and university institutions in West Africa develop, a vigorous Institute of Education will map out its own field of work, and will have under revision the training which it can offer in relation to the training given elsewhere.

23. At the beginning, however, we recommend that the following courses should be given at the Institute of Education. All of them will be serving the whole of British West Africa except course (1) which will also be provided in Nigeria and Sierra Leone.

(1) A two-year course for those who have reached Intermediate standard (see paragraph 8).

(2) A one-year course for graduates who intend to teach mainly in secondary schools. Following English usage the award of the "Diploma in Education" should be reserved for the successful completion of this post-graduate course.

(3) A course lasting 6 or 12 months for specially selected or prospective members of training college staffs, to bring them into touch with new ideas and methods in education (see paragraph 15).

(4) A course lasting 6 or 12 months to train men and women for youth service. Several universities and some training colleges in the United Kingdom have such courses at present, and we recommend that their syllabuses be studied with a view to adaptation to West African conditions.

(5) A course, lasting at first for one year, in physical education, to provide a much needed class of teachers for every kind of school and institution.

(6) A course for teachers of art on the lines of that so successfully begun at Achimota.

(7) Some provision for teachers of music who could study Western and African music, in relation to singing, instrumental playing, and dancing.

STAFF AND ADMINISTRATION

A. For the two-year post-intermediate course in Nigeria and Sierra Leone

24. Staffing a teachers' training course can never be cheap, since individual supervision is peculiarly necessary, and administrative duties are heavier for the head of that department than for most other heads of departments. Some help can and should be obtained (a) from carefully chosen school teachers in the neighbourhood, (b) from officers of the territorial education department, who must also be carefully chosen, since there may be otherwise excellent officers who have little sympathy with this particular task. But while contacts of this kind will be most useful in keeping the training in touch with reality, the course must have a nucleus of whole-time staff of its own, and must not rely mainly or entirely on school teachers or education officers seconded to it from the territorial education service. This should be obvious, but from what we have seen in West Africa we feel it necessary to emphasise the point. As stated elsewhere in this chapter, the education staff of each college should be distinct from the staff responsible for the other subjects; the latter might, however, assist in the teaching of such subjects as social studies and languages, and African art and music.

25. Where the number of students, in both years of the training course combined, does not exceed 20, we consider that a staff of one full-time head and one full-time assistant would suffice, if part-time help, as mentioned in the preceding paragraph, were available. Roughly speaking, for each additional 15 students, another full-time assistant must be added. On this basis we consider that at the start the annual cost of staff for these courses might be in the region of £2,000 in Sierra Leone and £4,000 in Nigeria.

26. As regards administration, at the colleges in Nigeria and Sierra Leone the Department of Education will be of equal standing with the other academic departments. In the Gold Coast the post-intermediate teachers' training course will be a part of the work of the proposed Institute of Education for West Africa (see below).

B. For the Institute of Education for West Africa, including the two-year post-intermediate course for the Gold Coast

27. The staffing of this institute on its research side need not be a heavy burden at the outset, but it must be clearly realised that if the institute flourishes further expenditure on staff may quickly become necessary. Since this institute will include both teaching and research, we have tabulated the necessary minimum staff under the two separate headings, but we do not wish thereby to suggest that most members of staff should be separately labelled as whole-time researchers or whole-time teachers respectively.

28. On the research side, the three departments of education, psychology and language will each require a head. The two former could be started with one assistant each, the language department will need one assistant for each language or closely allied group of languages to be investigated, and one of these languages must be English. On the teaching side (training division), to the courses serving British West Africa as a whole (Nos. (2)-(7) in paragraph 23) must be added the two-year post-intermediate training course (No. 1) for the Gold Coast. This course, together with Courses (2) and (3) in paragraph 23 could be handled by one and the same staff, and there could be a certain amount of overlapping of lecture courses for these groups of students. As a rough estimate, we consider that a full-time staff of six would be needed at the outset for this part of the work of the institute. Courses (4) (Youth Service), (6) (Art), and (7) (Music) would each involve provision for one full-time specialist from the outset. Course (5) (Physical

Education) would involve one man and one woman specialist. Students in all these special courses would obviously obtain the less specialised part of their training from other members of the institute staff. In addition there should be a head of the whole institute.

29. The total requirements would therefore be:—

One Professor of Education who will be the administrative head of the institute.

Three Heads of Research Departments.

One Head of Training Division.

Five assistants on the research side (assuming that there are three language assistants at the outset).

Six non-specialist staff in the training division.

One specialist in youth service.

Two specialists in physical education (one man, one woman).

One specialist in art teaching.

One specialist in music teaching.

The annual cost of the staff of the institute might therefore be somewhere about £20,000.

30. Cost of equipment will be comparatively small. The specialist courses will need most. For the other courses a really well-equipped library is the most expensive of their needs.

31. It is essential, in our opinion, that the most advanced training and research in education should be concentrated in a single institute. It is no less essential that the colleges in the other colonies should include professional training in education as an integral part of their work. We regard it as a duty of the institute to keep in touch with the education departments of the other two colleges and to prevent them from suffering from isolation and possible consequent stagnation. The most profitable connection will be achieved if members of staff are enabled to exchange fairly frequent visits, in both directions, i.e. the Institute staff will visit the university colleges in Nigeria and Sierre Leone and *vice versa*. It would also be advantageous if a combined vacation school in education could be given by the members of the Institute staff assisted by members of the education staff of the two other university colleges. Such a vacation school should be held from time to time in each of the three largest colonies.

CHAPTER VI

MEDICAL AND HEALTH EDUCATION, INCLUDING DENTISTRY

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PRESENT FACILITIES IN WEST AFRICA FOR TRAINING IN MEDICINE

1. We introduce our recommendations regarding the training of doctors by an account of the Yaba Medical School as it was at the time of our visit. This school is the only centre of medical education in the British West African dependencies. It was established by the Nigerian Government in 1930. The aim was to provide courses of study of limited scope yet adequate to equip those who had completed them with sufficient knowledge to enable

them to carry out useful work as medical assistants in the Government medical service, and not to attempt to give, in the first instance, training in medicine to the professional standards recognised in Great Britain. On completion of the four years course, the holder of the certificate of medical assistant was posted to a Government hospital. After two years hospital service followed by a further year of study at the medical school, he was eligible to become a candidate for the diploma of Licence in Medicine and Surgery (Nigeria). In contrast to that of medical assistant, this qualification entitles the holder to become a registered medical practitioner after he has completed five years in the service of the Nigerian Government and to enter general practice within Nigeria or the British Cameroons.

2. In the light of experience, the method of qualification was changed in 1936 to bring it more into line with current practice in Great Britain. The course was therefore lengthened to five years and the examination for the diploma held at the end of the course without the requirement of further hospital experience; those medical assistants who had not already obtained the diploma were permitted to endeavour to do so under the old regulations; all but two have been successful. The complete medical course thus now extends over six and a half years, made up of a pre-medical course of one and a half years, a pre-clinical course of two years and a clinical course of three years.

3. The subjects of the pre-medical course, chemistry, physics and biology, are studied at the Higher College. In the pre-clinical course five terms are devoted to anatomy and embryology, and to physiology and histology; two terms to organic chemistry and biochemistry and one term to an introduction to clinical methods and clinical pathology.

4. The teaching of medicine and surgery, including their special subjects, extends over the three years of the clinical course; two terms are devoted to pharmacology and materia medica, and to forensic medicine; three terms to the pathology group of subjects and also to public health and four terms to midwifery and gynaecology, including ante-natal care and hygiene. During the clinical period, the student holds clinical appointments as medical clerk and surgical dresser each for two periods of three months, and as post mortem clerk for three months; he also acts as resident midwifery clerk for one month.

5. The buildings of the medical school, at which the teaching of the pre-clinical subjects is given, are situated on a site adjoining that of the Higher College; on this same site is the school of pharmacy. Save for the physiology department, which was erected with semi-permanent materials in 1938, all the buildings are wooden structures, and most of them were originally built for other purposes. They are small single storey buildings which cannot be regarded as adequate even for the present limited teaching.

6. The department of physiology contains a teaching laboratory, a preparation room, and an office. This laboratory provides accommodation for twelve students, and in it the students carry out both their practical physiology and histology. It is reasonably well equipped for teaching certain aspects of physiology, but facilities for work in mammalian physiology are not available. There is at present no laboratory for the teaching of biochemistry, while organic chemistry is taught in the chemical laboratory of the school of pharmacy. The anatomy building contains a dissecting room with five tables. There is ample material for dissection, and the beginnings of a museum containing some anatomical models. The school contains neither a library nor student recreation rooms.

7. The clinical teaching is given mainly in the General hospital, Lagos, which is about 6 miles from the medical school itself; this hospital contains

some 300 beds. Here the subject of pathology is taught under good conditions, and there is an excellent pathology museum. Other clinical teaching is given in the maternity and child welfare clinic and in the maternity hospital. In the General hospital there is a library containing standard text books and medical journals; £60 a year is spent on the former, and £35 on the latter.

8. The pre-clinical subjects are taught by members of staff holding full-time appointments. The authorized full-time staff is intended to consist of lecturers in anatomy, physiology and biochemistry together with an assistant to the lecturer in physiology. The post of lecturer in anatomy was, at the time of our visit, vacant owing to the retirement of the previous holder, while the filling of the newly created lectureship in biochemistry was held up pending our visit. In addition to the staff just mentioned, the superintendent of the school of pharmacy takes some part in the teaching of medical students. The administrative head of the school is the principal, a post held by the former lecturer in anatomy; at the present time, the lecturer in physiology is the acting principal of the school.

9. The teaching in physiology, histology and biochemistry is given by the lecturer in physiology with the help of an assistant, who qualified as a Licentiate of Medicine and Surgery (Nigeria) in 1943 and was seconded to the staff in 1944; the latter gives occasional lectures and supervises the practical classes, while the general laboratory supervision is in charge of a laboratory superintendent. In anatomy, the course, is, for the moment, directed by a surgeon who acts in a part-time capacity. There is also a prosector in anatomy who conducts tutorial classes and supervises the dissecting work of the students. The prosector is not professionally qualified; he entered the Higher College in 1932, the medical school in 1933, and was appointed as prosector in 1936 before completion of his medical course. Organic chemistry and pharmacy are taught by the superintendent of the school of pharmacy.

10. All the clinical teaching is carried out as a part-time duty by medical officers of the Government medical department, and by the medical officer of health of the Lagos Town Council. Since 1941 there have been nineteen such part-time clinical teachers with European professional qualifications and one holder of the Licence of Medicine and Surgery (Nigeria).

11. The entrance qualifications for admission to the school are similar to those required in Great Britain in that the candidate, who must be not less than eighteen years old, must have passed a matriculation and a pre-medical examination. Matriculation may be the London matriculation or its recognized equivalent or the entrance examination of the Higher College; the pre-medical qualification may be the passing of the London First M.B. or Intermediate B.Sc. examination or the pre-medical examination of the Higher College. In practice, these entrance requirements have been the passing of the examinations conducted by the Higher College. War conditions have prevented the carrying out of a proposal made in 1940 that in future the entrance requirements should be the London matriculation or equivalent examination, and the London First M.B. or Intermediate science examination.

12. Students admitted to the school receive a free medical education and a subsistence allowance throughout their course. In return, they are required to undertake to serve in the medical department of the Nigerian Government for five years immediately following qualification; they are then free to leave the Government service and to enter private practice if they so wish. The object of this condition is to endeavour to meet the need for expansion of the medical service.

13. The School is an institution specifically concerned with the training of doctors for service in the Nigerian medical department. It is administered by the principal on behalf of the director of medical services; it does not possess a governing body. There is, however, a board of medical examiners constituted under the medical practitioners and dentists ordinance which exercises some of the functions of a medical council for Nigeria as well as acting as the licensing body.

14. The grant of a subsistence allowance mentioned in paragraph 12 is necessary since, as we found to our surprise, no hostel facilities are provided. Students have therefore to seek whatever lodgings may be available in Lagos. We were informed that these lodgings often consisted of an ill-lighted room, with little ventilation in a grossly overcrowded tenement, conditions ill-suited either for adequate nutrition, good health, or pursuit of study. The normal subsistence allowance of £36 a year has been increased to £54 on account of the rise in the cost of living due to war conditions; the student receives, in addition, a free issue of text-books to the value of £6 a year.

15. Prior to 1937, courses began in alternate years only; from 1938 onwards, new entries were admitted each year. While the school is able to provide facilities for twelve students a year, this intake has rarely been approached, as the following table shows:—

<i>Year</i>						<i>New Admissions</i>	<i>Total students</i>
1934	2	28
1935	—	28
1936	5	27
1937	—	22
1938	10	22
1939	6	20
1940	6	26
1941	6	30
1942	7	33
1943	5	30

Seventeen of the students admitted to the school since its inception have failed to complete their courses. These unsuccessful students have spent on the average 3.8 years at the school, or 5.3 years if the pre-medical course be included. In order to eliminate at an earlier stage students who are unlikely to be successful, regulations have recently been laid down regarding the conditions required for the passing of each examination and prescribing a limit to the number of examination attempts permitted.

16. We regard both the limited number of the entrants and the number of students who have proved capable of completing the course as disappointing. We note, however, that there are at present 51 Nigerian students as well as 36 from other West African colonies (see Appendix IV) studying medicine in the United Kingdom and in Eire. It should be noted that the entrants for the medical school are drawn from the body of students in Nigeria who are available to present themselves for professional courses either in West Africa or in the United Kingdom. In this connection, it is relevant to mention that the majority of the students who enter the Higher College make medicine their first choice of the professions which they wish to enter. To the authorities of the college falls the difficult task of trying to allocate the students to professions in relation to the needs of the different Government departments, and in the light of opinions formed as to their personal qualities, their performance in the entrance examination, and their prospects of success. Although it may be difficult to assess the suitability of students for entry to any profession at this early stage in a country where school education has as yet so far to advance, it seems likely that the subject of medicine obtains the best of the Higher College

students. If that be so, the smallness of the numbers of those who finally qualify is, as we have said above, disappointing, and points to factors which will have to be remedied.

17. We have pointed out in paragraph 12 that every student after qualification, in view of the fact that the whole of his training and subsistence has been provided from public funds, is required to spend five years in the service of the Government Medical Department during which he receives a salary considered by many of our witnesses as inadequate. Only then is he free to leave the Medical Service and enter the more attractive sphere of private practice. The requirement that he should give this period in the service of the Medical department is one which under the conditions laid down is not accepted gladly. We recognise that this system may deter students from entering the medical school, and in paragraph 42 we comment on the general principle which it involves. We understand that there is little reluctance on the part of West African doctors who have qualified in the United Kingdom to enter the medical departments in West Africa. But they enter the service under different conditions.

18. As to finances, we were informed that for the year 1943-44, the estimated recurrent expenditure for the schools of medicine and of pharmacy was £12,855. The two more important items in this budget were £6,813 for the personal emoluments of the professional and subordinate staff and £2,805 for the subsistence allowances of the students.

19. During our visit to Nigeria, we heard considerable criticism of the medical school, much of which had its origin in the discontent at what was regarded as the slow progress made by the school towards the recognition of its diploma as a British registerable qualification. As our subsequent recommendations show, we are in complete sympathy with the desire of the people of Nigeria, as indeed of the people of the other colonies, that they shall be able to obtain in West Africa a qualification recognised by the General Medical Council. Some of the discontent seemed to us to be based on an insufficient appreciation of the difficulties to be overcome in reaching this goal in the particular circumstances imposed by colonial conditions, and on an incorrect assay both of the quality of the facilities available and of the standards already achieved. The fact that the medical course follows the general pattern of courses given in the medical schools of Great Britain has perhaps misled some of our witnesses in estimating the standards already reached.

A NEW SCHOOL OF MEDICINE REACHING GENERAL MEDICAL COUNCIL STANDARDS RECOMMENDED FOR WEST AFRICA FORTHWITH

20. The school has had to face many difficulties inevitable in a developing country, lack of facilities specially designed or adapted for teaching purposes, the problem of staffing, lack of funds, and the dearth of students. Both the staff and the students labour under difficulties, the staff from the pressure of duties other than teaching, the students from facilities which we regard as inadequate, even though we consider the school has endeavoured to make the best use of what was available. Nevertheless in the fourteen years of its existence, during the last six of which progress has been retarded by the effects of war, it has, in our opinion, done much to pave the way for the development of medical education in British West Africa.

21. We have recommended in Chapter IV that there should be created at Ibadan a single centre of medical education and research to serve all the West African colonies. We regard the provision of such a centre as a matter of urgency. There is the great need for the rapid expansion of the medical services in all the territories which we have discussed in Chapter IV. There

is, too, the fact that in spite of their sympathetic attitude towards the problem of receiving students from the colonies for undergraduate training, the medical schools of Great Britain will for some years ahead be unable to admit from the colonial Empire as a whole more than a fraction of the students whom it is desirable to train. These schools are faced with the problem of admitting the large number of men and women of Great Britain, who have been prevented from embarking on their medical courses through service in the armed forces or by other forms of national service. They have also to face the longer term problem of the provision of doctors to meet the needs of the projected expansion of the medical and health services of Great Britain. Adequate provision for medical education must therefore be provided in West Africa. We turn to indicate our view on the nature of this provision.

22. The standard of the facilities provided at the Medical School for West Africa should be such that the school should receive recognition by the General Medical Council at the earliest moment possible. This recognition is desirable in order that the successful student may feel on terms of professional equality with those who have studied in Great Britain; that the disappointment which West Africans may feel when they are unable to secure a vacancy in the overcrowded medical schools of Great Britain, may be avoided; that any student from West Africa may go to Great Britain for post-graduate study or training in research without the necessity of carrying out a further period of undergraduate training; lastly, that West Africa shall ultimately possess a medical school which will not only serve the needs of its own peoples, but will attract research workers and others from Great Britain.

23. This objective can be reached only if there are available adequate buildings, a staff adequate in number and quality, and a supply of students capable of making full use of the opportunities afforded to them.

24. The buildings of the new school must be planned not in relation to the number of students available at present or in the near future, but for an eventual annual intake of eighty students, which is, in our opinion, a maximum which it is undesirable to exceed in a medical school in the tropics. The medical school should be designed not only to allow for the theoretical and practical teaching in the subjects of anatomy and embryology, physiology and biochemistry for this number of students; it should provide ample laboratory accommodation for research, including the provision of animal houses.

25. The hospital should be designed in relation to the specific needs of a teaching hospital. The recent authoritative report of the Inter-Departmental Committee on Medical Schools (1944) recommends that the number of beds for general cases should be ten times the number of students admitted annually; colonial conditions may make it desirable to exceed this number. The progressive expansion of the annual intake of the school to eighty students would thus require that the teaching hospital should contain up to 1,000 beds. The function of the hospital as a teaching hospital must be kept in the forefront in the admission of cases. If the clinical teaching is to afford the same opportunity as is available to the student in Great Britain, the dangers that the hospital should be filled with a preponderance of acute cases too ill to be disturbed by students or by the visits of lecturers, or that it should lack a sufficiently wide variety of subjects, must be avoided; there must be no admission of patients in excess of the recognised number of beds. The hospital must in fact be conducted in the same way as a teaching hospital in Great Britain.

26. We turn to discuss the question of staffing. In paragraph 9 we have mentioned that all the clinical teaching at the Medical School, Yaba, is given by officers of the Government medical service. In Great Britain,

save in the few hospitals which have established full-time clinical units, the clinical teaching has always been given on a part-time basis by consultants who hold honorary appointments, for which incidentally there is usually much competition, but a parallel system to this is not in our opinion possible under present conditions in West Africa and should not be contemplated in the new medical school. A Government medical officer is usually much too fully occupied with his primary duties to be able to devote adequate time to teaching; he may have had no teaching experience; his appointment as a teacher must sometimes, at least, depend on his being located near the school where teaching is required, rather than on his desire or aptitude for teaching. The student also is at a handicap, for, as in the Medical School, Yaba, he does not receive the great benefits derived from the extensive clinical teaching available in Great Britain through the daily ward rounds conducted by the visiting physician and surgeon and in many other ways. These observations are not meant as a criticism of those who have carried out their teaching duties often in the face of much difficulty; they are a justification for the establishment of a number of full-time clinical appointments. We are confirmed in our view by the recent report of the Goodenough* Committee which recommends that the time has now come when there should be such posts even in the medical schools of Great Britain. Only by a new approach to the general problem of staffing will the new Medical School for West Africa progress at the rate and in the manner we consider desirable.

27. We now record the staff which we consider desirable for a School with an annual intake of thirty to forty students. As soon as possible there should be a professor in the subjects of anatomy which would include embryology and histology; in physiology which would include pharmacology; in biochemistry, in pathology, in medicine, in surgery, in obstetrics and gynaecology, and in social medicine and hygiene. In each of these eight departments there should also be one senior and one junior lecturer.

28. We recognise that the teaching of biochemistry to medical students might well be carried out under the auspices of the department of physiology. We have included a department of biochemistry, because apart from the particular opportunities which tropical medicine, particularly in the field of nutrition, offers for biochemical research, a department of biochemistry is necessary to serve the interests of agriculture, forestry and veterinary science.

29. We regard it as most desirable that all these appointments should be on a full-time basis, and that the holders of the posts in the clinical departments including pathology should not engage in consultant practice. We recognise that a strictly limited amount of consultant work may be unavoidable under colonial conditions; if this be so, a large proportion, if not all of the fees received, should be devoted to building up the research funds of the department concerned.

30. Apart from the full-time staff, assistance in the teaching of such subjects as anaesthetics, orthopaedics, paediatrics, forensic medicine, mental diseases, ophthalmology and others will be required. Such teaching might be shared by suitable officers of the Colonial Medical Service and private practitioners on a part-time basis, and the senior full-time lecturers in the clinical departments; in this connection it is to be remembered that highly specialised training in these subjects is better deferred until the post-graduate period.

31. If the school is to progress in the manner we think desirable, it will be necessary to recruit an academic staff of high quality who will of necessity in the first place hold overseas qualifications. As graduates of promise of

* Report of the Inter-departmental committee on Medical Schools (1944).

the new school become available, opportunity should be provided to them to undertake post-graduate study in Great Britain. From these returning graduates we would hope to see men of outstanding merit appointed to the academic staff.

32. Staff of the quality required will only be attracted if the posts carry salaries similar to those obtainable in the home medical schools. In the pre-clinical subjects and in pathology, these are likely to be, for a professor from £1,000 up to £1,500, and for the senior and junior lecturers £800 up to £1,000; in the clinical subjects, the corresponding figures may be up to £2,000, £1,500 and £1,000. The annual cost of the salaries of the full-time staff mentioned in paragraph 27 and for allowances to part-time teachers would, on this basis, be about £32,000. To this must be added the salaries of a laboratory superintendent for each of the three pre-clinical departments and for pathology; these superintendents would need to be European in the earlier years, and their total annual salaries would amount to £2,000; wages of an African technician and two laboratory boys in each of these four departments, £1,500; departmental and laboratory maintenance £2,000, and administration £500. With an allowance of 20 per cent. of the salary expenditure to cover the cost of passages and pensions, the recurrent expenditure would be between £40,000 and £50,000.

33. It is obviously difficult for us to predict the capital expenditure involved in obtaining a site and in erecting the hospital and medical school. These two items together would certainly reach £500,000 and might well considerably exceed this sum. Though this hospital will form part of the medical system* of Nigeria, yet as the teaching hospital for students from all West Africa, it should be eligible for a substantial grant from the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund.

34. We recognise that these proposals entail heavy capital and recurrent expenditure, but in our view, they are essential to achieve the object we have in view of providing in West Africa adequate facilities for medical education. The estimate of recurrent expenditure approximates to that of one of the medical schools in England. While this school in England admits twice the number of students we have mentioned in paragraph 27, its clinical teaching is, in contrast to our proposals for the Medical School for West Africa, carried out largely on an honorary basis, a condition which will doubtless undergo changes in the light of the Report of the Inter-Departmental Committee on Medical Schools; apart from this its recurrent expenditure is likely to increase as a result of the effects of the war on salary scales.

35. When the number of students admitted annually to the school increases beyond forty, increases in staff will be required. In the pre-clinical departments and in pathology, this will mean increases in the numbers of the junior staff; in the clinical departments, in the number of part-time lecturers. As the School grows, it will doubtless need to add more specialised departments to those which we have enumerated as the minimum. In the earliest stages, the number of students may not warrant the appointment of three members of staff to each department. But in no case should there be less than two teachers in each of the departments; and three are essential when the annual intake of students rises to more than thirty.

36. We turn to discuss the question of research. A centre of medical teaching and research which we visualise provides opportunities for the investigation of many problems. It is of great importance that these opportunities be taken, for the progress of the Medical School for West Africa will be retarded unless it builds up from the beginning a tradition of research. While

* See Nigerian Sessional Paper No. 6 of 1945.

we recognise that the first consideration of the school must be to place its teaching on a sound footing, the full-time staff which we have proposed is sufficient to allow its members to devote a reasonable proportion of their time to research. We hope that research into problems which are the concern of particular departments will not cause the fact to be overlooked that the clinical material in the wards will provide great opportunity for collaboration in research between the teachers of the pre-clinical and clinical subjects and with members of the Colonial Medical Service.

37. The school also has an important part to play as the natural centre to which visiting research workers should turn for facilities and accommodation. The future may see the development of schemes whereby groups of research workers may be sent out from Great Britain to study particular problems for varying periods of time. Increasingly too, there may be special investigations carried out by workers from countries other than Great Britain. Unless the nature of their problems renders them unsuitable for investigation at Ibadan, we would hope that the medical school would be the home of such investigations. These research workers would on the one hand profit by contact with the members of the staff of the school and by use of the facilities available, and on the other do much to further the development of the school as a centre of research, and have a profound influence in arousing in the students the desire to seek knowledge for its own sake.

38. This brings us to mention the Institute of Medical Research of the Nigerian Government which is situated near the existing medical school at Yaba. During the war the work of this institute has been largely concerned with the large-scale preparation of serological products, and if it is to continue similar work after the war, it is clearly desirable that it should remain on its present site, which is admirable for these particular purposes. Work of this nature as well as clinical pathology and other important though routine investigations often form a large part of the activities of the institutes of medical research in the colonies; the progress in research of the new Medical School for West Africa will, however, be impeded unless its concern with this type of work is reduced to the minimum essential for the success of its own research projects.

39. We have recorded in Chapter IV the reasons why the existing medical school should be replaced by a new Medical School for West Africa situated in Ibadan. We now turn to comment on the location of the buildings. We earnestly hope that it will be found possible to locate not only the medical school but also the teaching hospital on the same site as the other buildings of the university college and easily accessible to each other. If, in the light of other considerations, the site finally chosen for the university college would prevent ready access of patients to the hospital, transport facilities might be provided to overcome this difficulty. Only if the difficulties prove insuperable, should the hospital be located at a distance from the other buildings of the college. But whatever the location of the hospital may be, the medical school should be built as part of the general buildings of the university college, for it is important that both the students and staff should be in close contact with their colleagues in other faculties. For this reason, medical students should throughout their courses share with other students the common residential facilities of the college; the only exception might be in the case of certain periods of the later clinical training, such as obstetrics, where residence within the hospital may be essential.

40. The academic qualification for admission to the school should be the passing of suitable subjects in the Intermediate science examination of a British university. The method of selection based in part on interview is now regularly used in the medical schools of Great Britain, and it has

been the subject of recommendation in the reports both of the Inter-Departmental Committee on Medical Schools (1944) and the Planning Committee on Medical Education of the Royal College of Physicians (1944).

Accordingly we recommend that the possession of this academic qualification should not alone entitle the student to admission. His admission should depend also on his promise and aptitude, for in no profession is selection with due regard for personal qualities so important as in medicine.

41. The new school would admit students of either sex from the four British West African dependencies under equal conditions. We recognise that in the early years there may be but few women students available. We hope, however, that every encouragement will be given to the entry of women into medicine, for there is no doubt of the large part which African women doctors will be able to play in the development of the health and welfare of the African peoples.

42. In paragraph 12 we mentioned the fact that in the existing Medical School at Yaba, the student in return for a free medical education is required to give an undertaking to serve for five years after qualification in the medical department of the Nigerian Government at a lower rate of salary than is granted to an African who has qualified in Britain. It is for the different Governments to decide whether their award of scholarships to the new medical school should be qualified by conditions of this type. In view of the urgent need in West Africa for the expansion of the Government medical Services, which is essential for the improvement of the health of the people, it does not appear to us that it would be improper to require an undertaking of a period of Government service from those who receive Government scholarships to enable them to train as doctors. The School would, of course, be open to students other than scholarship holders, at fees which should approximate to those prevailing in Great Britain. For the reasons we have already given, we would hope that these private students also would be willing to give a short period of service to the medical departments of their own Governments.

43. The immediate governing body of the medical school would be the board of medical studies; which would eventually become the Faculty of Medicine, which would be responsible to the academic board and council of the university college. Its members would include the professors in all the subjects of the pre-medical, pre-clinical and clinical departments, a proportion of the full-time non-professional clinical teachers, and a number of the part-time clinical teachers.

44. The general administration of the school would be carried out by a dean, who would be a professor carrying out these duties in addition to his academic work. The office of dean should not be a permanent one but should be filled by election by the board of medical studies of one of its members every four or five years.

45. While we recognise that the general administration and finance of the hospital would be under the control of the Nigerian Government, we emphasise that the board of medical studies must have complete responsibility for all matters affecting clinical teaching.

46. The immediate object of the school should be the institution at the earliest moment possible of a course of a standard which will be accepted for recognition by the General Medical Council and will accordingly be accepted for all purposes as fully equal to a British qualification. The nature of the qualification which will be awarded before the future University confers its own degrees will doubtless be worked out by the academic authorities of the college in association with the Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies, the creation of which is, we understand, being recommended by the Asquith Commission.

47. If the course in the Medical School for West Africa is to be equivalent to courses in Great Britain it must be of at least the same duration. Following the recommendations of the Goodenough Committee (see para. 40), we recommend that there should be a post-qualification but pre-registration year to be devoted to house appointments or other forms of supervised training.

PROVISION OF QUALIFIED DENTISTS

The need for dentists

48. Evidence both from European and African witnesses clearly brought out the fact that the popular conception of Africans as "all having magnificent teeth" is very far from the truth. Both in the towns and the villages Africans suffer directly and indirectly from dental troubles. Not more than six West Africans have ever qualified as dentists, and the number of dentists available in all British West Africa has scarcely ever reached double figures. For a population of 27,000,000 this figure is itself a condemnation. The training of a considerable number of dental surgeons and their assistants is an urgent necessity.

Training facilities recommended

49. We recommend that

(1) a school of dentistry for West Africa should be established at Ibadan as an essential part of the proposals for the intended faculty of medicine. This should be done as soon as possible. (Those Commissioners who are themselves West Africans, and some others of us, desire to stress that they consider the establishment of this school a matter of the very greatest urgency, especially in view of the absence till now of any training in West Africa, either for dentists themselves, or for the skilled technicians who are their indispensable assistants.)

(2) Until the school of dentistry is established, the Governments of the West African colonies should continue to provide scholarships to enable students to come to the United Kingdom to train as dental surgeons.

50. We recommend that a Director of the proposed school of dentistry should be appointed at an early date. He should submit a detailed estimate of the requirements and of the cost of the proposed school, after a personal investigation of the problem. We append, as a footnote to this chapter, a suggested outline for a school of dentistry to serve West Africa.

51. At a rough estimate the annual cost, in the early years of such a school, would be:—

Director	£	£
Senior Lecturer	1,250	1,500
Ancillary Staff		1,000
							3,000
						<hr/>	
					Total ...	£5,250	5,500

It is difficult to estimate the initial capital expenditure. We consider that the cost of equipment should not exceed £10,000 and the cost of buildings should not exceed £50,000.

52. The training of dental nurses, attendants and other subordinate staff should in the first instance be undertaken by the medical department in each colony in which there is a government dentist.

PROVISION OF ASSISTANTS FOR THE MEDICAL AND HEALTH SERVICES

53. The raising of the general standard of health in the British West African territories will depend almost as much on an increased number of trained hospital nurses, community nurses, midwives, and dispensers, sanitary inspectors and health visitors as on an increased supply of doctors. The

West African Governments have extensive plans for increasing their medical and health services immediately after the war, and these plans include the training of Africans, men and women, who will be able to assist the doctors in these services. The training of these skilled assistants will be carried out by the medical departments of the various governments, not at the proposed university institutions, but we here stress three points only.

54. First, they will have to be trained in numbers far exceeding the numbers of doctors trained, if the West African communities are to derive the full benefit from their health services.

55. Second, they will be amongst the chief agents in spreading new ideas on health and improved standards of living throughout the villages as well as the towns. They will be teachers as well as skilled workers, and will thus require a broad general education, in addition to their specialist training, as well as some knowledge of the technique of teaching their ideas. We have already suggested (Chapter IV, paragraph 42) ways in which the proposed university centres will be able to help in broadening the scope of these specialist courses.

56. Third, we regard it as essential that exceptionally promising students in these courses should be enabled to continue their studies and be given the opportunity to obtain medical and other professional qualifications.

FOOTNOTE.

Suggested outline for a school of dentistry for West Africa.

(i) The school of dentistry should be an integral part of the proposed university college at Ibadan. It should at the start be a small school providing for an annual intake of about eight students for the first four years. The entrance qualifications should be the passing of the premedical or the intermediate science examination. The course should extend over four years at the end of which the student would take a qualifying examination. This examination should be of the same standard as the examination for the Licence of Dental Surgery in Great Britain. The course should aim from the start at providing a qualification which will entitle the holder to practice through the Colonial Empire and in the United Kingdom. As in the case of the medical school for West Africa, the nature of the qualification to be awarded before the future university confers its own degrees will doubtless be worked out by the academic authorities of the college in association with the Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the colonies. In our opinion the annual intake of such a school should not exceed thirty.

(ii) During the first four years the school would probably require the following professional staff:—

(a) A professor of dental surgery, who would be director of the school. He would teach dental and oral surgery and orthodontics. We recommend that he should be appointed at an early date in order that he might survey the requirements of the proposed dental school and help in planning it, while he was acquiring a wide knowledge of West African conditions.

(b) A senior lecturer who would teach prosthetics and dental mechanics. Some subjects are common to both medical and dental students. No additional staff would be required in the early years for the teaching of such subjects as anatomy, physiology, pathology and bacteriology which would be available in the medical school.

(iii) By the time the annual intake reaches 15 students the staff will probably require the addition of three assistant lecturers. This would mean an increase of about £2,250 in the annual expenditure of the school. It is hoped that at this stage qualified African dentists will begin to be available for employment in the school as house surgeons and demonstrators.

(iv) At the start the school would probably require the following ancillary staff:— 1 senior dental mechanic, 1 junior dental mechanic, 1 laboratory technician, 1 dental nursing sister, 1 dispenser and storekeeper, 1 secretary. It is suggested that members of the ancillary staff should be given temporary appointments of from 3 to 5 years during which time they should train Africans for such places.

CHAPTER VII

AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY, AND ANIMAL HEALTH *

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IMPORTANCE OF TRAINED STAFF

1. A very large proportion of the population of British West Africa is dependent for its livelihood on the soil and its products. The subjects of agriculture, forestry and animal health are therefore of immense importance, for whatever may be the future economic developments, this position is unlikely to be substantially changed. At this point, it is essential to emphasise that under existing conditions practically the only employer of men professionally trained in these subjects will be the Governments, for the plantation system, so widespread in other parts of the colonial Empire, plays no part in West African agriculture save in the mandated territory of British Cameroon and in a few privately owned estates. Agriculture is based on the individual peasant farming an area of a few acres, and these small farmers are not in a position to employ expert advice. All the organisation necessary to effect the many desirable improvements thus falls to the work of the departments of agriculture, forestry and animal health. It is probable that the time may come in the not too distant future, when African organisations may be involved in farming on a large scale and may be in a position to employ trained advisory staff, and there may be an increased demand from Cameroon. Speaking generally, however, the only avenue for employment of men trained in these three professions will, for some years ahead, be Government service. Any course of training that may be instituted must therefore be related to the policy of Governments towards development.

2. The activities of the departments of agriculture, forestry and animal health are inter-dependent since they all have as their objective the proper utilization of the land. As the population increases, planning to ensure the more efficient use of the land, and avoidance of its misuse, are becoming most urgent matters and progress will result only by the close co-ordination of the work of the three departments. There are many important problems involved, the provision of fuel and timber reserves, the planning of forests for wind breaks and to protect water supplies, the prevention of soil erosion, the improvement of the soil by proper systems of crop rotation, and the introduction of mixed farming methods which in turn requires the keeping of livestock. It is thus desirable that all students taking up any one of these professions as a career should obtain a clear idea of the aims and objects of the other two and should understand how their programmes of work are related to his own. Understanding of the main policy of Government towards land utilization should be acquired at the start and this can be best achieved at a university institution. There, the students of the different subjects can become closely associated and can have the opportunity for free and unhampered discussion enabling them to understand each others views.

* In this report we use the term animal health in the modern sense. It covers not only the problems which have traditionally engaged the attention of the veterinary services, but also wider aspects, such as animal nutrition, the preservation and improvement of pastures, and even some aspects of soil erosion.

3. At the present time, each of the different dependencies maintains its own teaching establishments, which provide courses of training to meet its own particular needs. It is evident, however, that much remains to be done to correlate their activities in order that their work may be more fruitful. At this point, it will be useful to describe briefly the five different classes of staff required by departments of agriculture, forestry and animal health.

4. First, there is a junior grade, the members of which speak the vernacular only and are trained to perform certain limited functions, such as ploughing, seed collection, acting as forest guards, herdsmen and so on; such men receive a simple practical training at the various departmental stations.

5. Second, there is the lowest pensionable grade of agricultural or veterinary assistant or the forester or forest ranger. Candidates for this grade must be able to speak English, and they receive a longer and more thorough training. Departmental schools for training these officers have been established in Sierra Leone at Njala; in the Gold Coast at Achimota for agriculture, at Sunyani for forestry and Pong Tamale for animal health; in Nigeria there are agricultural schools at Ibadan and Samaru; the forestry school is at Ibadan and the veterinary school at Vom in the heart of the cattle-country on the Jos plateau, over 600 miles by rail from Ibadan. The desired standard for admission is in all cases the school certificate, although in certain backward areas a somewhat lower standard is accepted for the time being.

6. Third, there is the grade of assistant agricultural officer; we understand that the institution of corresponding grades in the forestry and veterinary departments is at present under discussion. These officers must possess technical ability sufficiently high to enable them to be of real assistance to, and if necessary to deputise for short intervals for the senior officer under whom they work; they should be capable of undertaking administrative or research duties involving responsibility and initiative. The standard to be reached in the training of this grade should be equivalent to that of a diploma in agriculture, forestry or veterinary science of institutions in Great Britain and the Dominions.

7. Fourth, there is the grade of agricultural, forestry or veterinary officer. These posts are filled by direct appointment by the Secretary of State, and their holders form the Colonial Agricultural, Forestry and Animal Health Services. Members of these services are liable to transfer to any part of the colonial Empire, and qualifications for admission consist of a full degree course or its recognised equivalent with two or more years post-graduate training as laid down by Colonial Office regulations.

8. Last, there is a new class of officer who is now being recruited and for whom training must be provided. This is the agricultural educational officer whose duties are concerned with the broad problem of impressing on the agricultural public the need for improved methods, and of promoting knowledge of such methods. Experience suggests that the best way to achieve this new outlook is by giving instruction in the schools, and specially qualified officers are required for the training of the teachers necessary for the introduction of an agricultural basis to the teaching in rural schools; two special training centres have already been established in Nigeria to train such teachers. Officers of this new grade must be primarily trained as agriculturists and will need to take a diploma or degree at an agricultural school, followed by a course of training in teaching methods. They form a link between the agricultural and education departments and may eventually form a branch of the education department. The senior officers of this grade are recruited by the Secretary of State and are members of the Colonial Service. Three

such officers have already been appointed in Nigeria and plans to recruit five more have been prepared. Sierra Leone has asked for two and the Gambia one, whilst the Gold Coast Government has also drawn up definite proposals envisaging the employment of officers of this type. The assistant agricultural education officers appointed by a colonial Government will correspond in grade to assistant agricultural or veterinary officers.

9. Since we are concerned with higher training only, the last two grades alone come within our consideration. These two grades are:—

(a) assistant agricultural, forestry and veterinary officers and assistant agricultural education officers.

(b) agricultural, forestry and veterinary officers and agricultural education officers.

Owing to the absence of facilities very few Africans have hitherto been able to qualify for these posts, although a small number who have proceeded abroad by means of scholarships, or by private endeavour, to acquire the necessary qualifications, have been able to enter the service. But this source of supply is wholly inadequate and in view of the greatly increased activities of the departments that are envisaged as soon as hostilities cease, there is urgent need to provide the necessary facilities for higher training in West Africa. We now turn to discuss the existing facilities.

EXISTING FACILITIES FOR HIGHER TRAINING IN AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY AND ANIMAL HEALTH

(a) *Agriculture*

10. The most advanced training in agriculture in British West Africa is given at the school at Moor Plantation, Ibadan, which is the central research station of the Nigerian agricultural department. This school provides two separate courses. The first is a two year course leading up to a certificate, the prescribed entrance qualification for which is Middle VI or the school certificate. In this course, students are trained for the agricultural assistants class and a similar course is given at the agricultural school at Samaru in Northern Nigeria.

11. The second course leads up to the diploma in agriculture and covers a period of four years. The first two years are spent at the Higher College, Yaba, where the students gain a knowledge of the basic sciences; the last two years are spent at Moor Plantation where they devote their attention to agricultural science. The students of this course are members of the Yaba Higher College. The hostel organisation, hours of work, and similar matters are usually discussed by the agricultural officer in charge of the school, who is styled the headmaster, and by the principal of the college. For the last two years of the course, the staffing, syllabuses, and examinations are the responsibility of the agricultural department and are considered by a school advisory committee consisting of all the senior officers taking part in the lectures. This committee is purely advisory and makes its recommendations to the assistant director of agriculture who may consult with the principal of the Higher College, Yaba, as need arises.

12. The full-time staff consists of the headmaster, who is an officer of the Nigerian department of agriculture and a member of the Colonial Agricultural Service with an honours science degree and the associateship of the Imperial College of Agriculture, Trinidad; one assistant agricultural officer, who holds the Yaba diploma in agriculture; one senior agricultural assistant; and a master (Grade III) of the education department. Additional lectures on special subjects are given by the specialist officers of the department who have their laboratories at Moor Plantation. The buildings consist of lecture rooms and a laboratory, a hostel and a school farm of $1\frac{1}{4}$ acres.

13. In order to encourage initiative and a sense of responsibility each student takes a turn in managing the hostel, supervising the servants, catering, and sanitation. During the vacation students are posted to different sections of Moor Plantation and also go on conducted tours in order to become acquainted with the various functions of the department. Since the diploma course opened in 1935, twenty-one diplomas have been awarded and the successful students have been absorbed into the department as assistant agricultural officers, being employed either on field and extension work or in the research laboratories. At the time of our visit there were 14 students taking the diploma course. In spite of its limited facilities, the agricultural school at Moor Plantation has already done much to provide better trained recruits for the Nigerian agricultural department.

(b) *Forestry*

14. Higher training in forestry is also a recent development and, as is the case with the two sister departments, most progress has occurred in Nigeria. The Gold Coast has a school of forestry at Sunyani but this provides training only for the subordinate grades; somewhat similar arrangements are being made by Sierra Leone and Gambia for the training of their subordinates at Njala.

15. In Nigeria the need for better trained staff has been felt for some time and a forestry school was opened at Ibadan in 1941. In addition to the training for lower grade officers, now termed forest assistants, the school provides also a course of higher training for officers who will become forest supervisors. At present this is the only forestry school in Africa which aims at giving higher training. For the time being it admits East Africans, and two students from Uganda have recently joined the course. When the East African dependencies have completed arrangements for their own school, it is intended that the school at Ibadan shall become the centre for higher forestry training for West Africa only.

16. The forestry school is situated at Ibadan within a mile or so of Moor Plantation and the agricultural school, so that the staffs of these two institutions have the opportunity for close collaboration. It consists of a group of temporary buildings costing £3,300 provided by a grant from the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund. It accommodated at the time of our visit six forest supervisors who were in the senior course and twelve forest assistants in the junior class.

17. The standard of admission to the junior course is the Middle VI or the school certificate, but owing to the lack of educational facilities in the Northern Provinces of Nigeria, in practice it has been found necessary to admit a small proportion of their northern candidates who have passed the Middle IV. The course lasts for fifteen months, nine of which are spent on practical studies in the forest.

18. It is with the senior course that we are mainly concerned. The earlier part of the course is the same as that of the corresponding agricultural student who attends the Yaba Higher College for two years to gain knowledge of the basic sciences. After leaving Yaba, the students spend two years at the Ibadan forestry school. For the first of these years the course is substantially the same as that given to forest assistants and the subjects comprise botany, zoology, geography, soils and geology, silviculture, forest law and land utilization. The final year is considerably more advanced and includes such subjects as ecology, forest economics and management, forest engineering, advanced forestry and office routine. About half the two years is spent on practical work, and includes tours to important forestry centres.

Since the school opened in 1941 twenty-four forest assistants have completed their training. Four students have passed the supervisors course and six more have recently entered upon it. The staff is small and consists of a European officer of the forestry service in charge and a resident African master who is a trained surveyor. Lectures on technical matters such as sylviculture, systematic botany, engineering and forest utilization are also given by three officers of the forest department. The site is an excellent one and various small forest-blocks in the neighbourhood afford facilities for practical instruction.

(c) *Animal Health*

19. Higher training in animal health is at present only to be obtained at Vom in Nigeria, for the other veterinary school, situated at Pong Tamale in the Northern Territories of the Gold Coast, is concerned with elementary training only. Vom, on the Jos plateau, is the headquarters of the Nigerian veterinary department. A veterinary research laboratory was established there in 1925 for the production of anti-rinderpest serum. The elementary training of Africans in methods of inoculation was later started at Kano in 1934 but this school was closed down in 1940 owing to staff difficulties. Since then all training and research has been concentrated at Vom. The veterinary school buildings at Vom which are in process of completion, have been built out of grants provided from the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund. The total estimated cost is £55,000 and at the time of our visit about £34,000 of this had been expended.

20. The courses of instruction now available at the Vom school are, firstly, the assistant veterinary officer course which extends over five and a half years, following eighteen months spent at Higher College, Yaba, where a preliminary knowledge of science is acquired as in the case of agricultural students. On completing his final examination, the student is granted the diploma of veterinary medicine and surgery which qualifies him to practise his profession in Nigeria only; this follows the present practice regarding medical qualifications in this colony. The course is being developed along lines similar to that given for the M.R.C.V.S. diploma in Great Britain. At the time of our visit there were 3 students engaged on this course.

21. Secondly, the veterinary assistant (senior) course which extends over three years; the standard for admission is the Middle VI examination of the Northern Provinces of Nigeria or its equivalent.

22. Thirdly, the veterinary assistants (junior) course which extends over one year only and is chiefly designed to give further technical training to the existing staff of the native administrations.

23. The veterinary school has only recently begun to work in the new buildings under the revised scheme and it offers great opportunities for higher veterinary training. The buildings consist of class rooms and laboratories, hostels with accommodation for about 70, quarters for two members of the staff, a clinic and dispensary, farm buildings and stores and electric and water supply installations. The school and laboratories have 640 acres of land available whilst the adjoining stock farm comprises 600 acres. More land is likely to be needed in the future. Estimates for the provision of staff quarters for a principal and three more lecturers have been made but these buildings have not yet been erected. Close to the school is the veterinary research laboratory which is the centre for the large scale preparation of a variety of serological products. As a result of concentration on this work and on the development of dairy farming, research is being conducted at the present time by only one junior member of the staff.

NEED FOR INCREASED FACILITIES IN WEST AFRICA FOR TRAINING
AND RESEARCH IN THESE SUBJECTS

24. The outline of existing facilities which we have given indicates that the three Nigerian departments are all pursuing the same objective of seeking means to secure better trained recruits. It is obvious that as the scope and activities of these departments expand, the need will become more pressing. Work was expanding rapidly, before the war caused a temporary check in 1939, and plans have been made, and in some cases have already been approved, for a vastly increased programme as soon as hostilities cease. It is the policy that, as West Africans become qualified they shall take an increasing share of responsible posts. To say nothing of the fact that tropical training is best done in the tropics, the problem of providing in West Africa for Africans the courses in agriculture, forestry and animal health, which will enable them to qualify for such posts, is the more urgent in view of the fact that it is unlikely that the British Universities would be able to supply even the minimum European staff needed. It is anticipated that the demand for trained men in agriculture, forestry and animal health in the British Isles alone will be considerable for some years to come. In addition there will be the urgent demands from other colonies, besides those in West Africa, for all of them are extending their programmes. There is thus ample justification for providing higher training in these professions in Africa. But it must be realised that it is useless to attempt this training unless it can be of first rate quality. The filling of the superior cadres of a service with ill trained men of indifferent education will prove a menace to the orderly development of the very services which are so vital to West Africa.

25. The betterment of agriculture involves many perplexing problems which demand in the first place research and investigation of the highest quality and secondly the application of the results of these investigations which requires considerable administrative ability. The training of men for these posts must therefore ensure not only that they are thoroughly competent technically but that they have learnt to think for themselves, to analyse problems and to have confidence in their own results and judgment. In other words, men of ability and character are required and the system of education adopted must have this purpose in view. As we have already said it is essential that any university institution concerned with agriculture, forestry and animal health should be associated as closely as possible with the work of these three Government departments concerned. Students of the requisite quality are not available in sufficient numbers in West Africa at present, mainly because secondary education, particularly in science, has much leeway to make up. It is desirable therefore to start with such few students as are suitable and to build up one first-class school in each of the three professions of agriculture, forestry and animal health to serve the needs of all the four colonies. Any attempt at this stage to duplicate these schools would certainly defeat the end in view; for a single first-class school itself will be created gradually and not without difficulty, and diffusion of staff, students, material equipment and funds in an attempt to provide more than one school would, in our opinion, be most undesirable.

26. As has been shown in preceding paragraphs, most progress in higher training in these subjects has so far been achieved in Nigeria, which, for a variety of reasons, seems the appropriate area for the creation of these schools. We discuss later the detailed reasons for our proposed location of these schools. Here we need only say that we recommend that Schools of Agriculture and of Forestry for West Africa should be at Ibadan, that the pre-clinical training of veterinary students should also be carried out at Ibadan followed by their

clinical training at Vom, and that the field station of the Animal Health School for West Africa should be at Vom. As has already been said, Nigeria seems the obvious place for its headquarters, as for reasons of animal health the greatest head of cattle in British West Africa will always be in the Northern Provinces of Nigeria.

27. We have indicated already that each of the three existing schools is part of a particular department of the Nigerian Government; each department concerned budgets for the expenditure, provides the staff and is in charge of the teaching arrangements. Up to the present time, the number of students admitted has been limited to the probable number of vacancies that are likely to occur in the departments, because while Government was the sole employer of men professionally trained in these subjects, it was considered that the risk of training men in excess of the situations available would be avoided. There is something to be said for the point of view of limitation of intake. It is obviously undesirable that a student should find himself unable to obtain suitable employment after he has spent years in acquiring a specialised form of training. On the other hand the present system also has its drawbacks. Once a student has been selected for a scholarship, he knows very well that the number of men being trained fits the number of vacancies. He is therefore practically assured of a post provided he passes the necessary examinations. The system has the further disadvantage that the student may not prove suited to, or be particularly interested in the work of the particular department for which he is being trained. This is more particularly the case in forestry, and to a lesser extent in the veterinary department, for complaints have been fairly frequent that misfits, who would be more suitably employed elsewhere, find their way into these services.

28. Such situations are much less likely to arise when these schools become institutions serving West Africa as a whole and are integral parts of a university institution. With an increased entry to the different courses it would be possible to divert to other courses students, who were found unsuitable for the profession on which they had embarked, and to introduce a field of selection for employment. Students with the diploma in agriculture, for example, would be free to apply for any vacancies that might occur in the departments of the different colonies. In this way the general standard would be improved while it is unlikely that unemployment would result. Under present conditions, the Nigerian departments have found it difficult to attract an adequate number of suitable candidates. In preferring other employment students have, no doubt, considered the salary scales in these three services, which do not compare favourably with those of other Government departments, and the general conditions of service, which often involve isolation from town life. There is the further point that there may arise in due course a need for employment outside the Government Service, and it is likely that if men surplus to the requirements of Governments were available they would be gradually absorbed by the native authorities or into other non-Government African organisations. We do not anticipate that there will be any such surplus for some years to come. We turn to discuss matters of principle which apply to all the schools.

STEPS RECOMMENDED

29. The basic requirements for professional training in agriculture, forestry and animal health are the same, in that all require a sound knowledge of chemistry, physics and biology. We accordingly recommend the academic standard of admission to the professional courses in agriculture, forestry and animal health should be the passing of the Intermediate science examination of a British university in the subjects of chemistry, physics, and biology.

Students should complete this course in the college serving their own territory. Agricultural students from all the territories would then continue their studies for a further two years at the agricultural school of the university college at Ibadan. Forestry students would likewise spend two years at the forestry school. Veterinary students, after one and a half to two years of pre-clinical training at Ibadan, would proceed to the veterinary school at Vom for the two to two and a half years of their clinical training. There should also be opportunity for students who have obtained a degree in science to enter the schools of agriculture, or forestry, or animal health at that stage.

30. These three schools will be integral parts of the university college, and later will constitute one or more faculties of the university. They should however be institutions serving British West Africa as a whole and perhaps other areas: they would admit students from any of the West African colonies under equal conditions.

31. We recommend that the academic staff in each of the main subjects of the curriculum shall consist of at least two members and that the head of the school should be of professorial rank. This recommendation is based on the fact that only if the staff be adequate in number and quality can first-class schools of the type which we consider desirable be built up. It is, for instance, essential that there shall be continuity of teaching; the difficulties presented by leave and other problems peculiar to the tropics which are the main causes of this discontinuity, must be overcome. It is equally essential that the staff of each of these schools shall have sufficient time to undertake research, for which the opportunities are extensive; the recognition of the schools outside West Africa will depend on their research achievements in addition to the quality of their teaching. The fact that in the earlier years, the number of students may be relatively few will prove an advantage in this respect. We recognise that our recommendations will entail considerable expenditure. But it is to be remembered that these proposed schools are to serve British West Africa as a whole, and that the provision of academic staffs which may appear extravagant on previous conceptions, may be regarded in part as an increase in the very limited number of men who have time for research in a region where the need for research is outstanding. (Compare paragraph 36 of chapter VI.)

32. The teaching in each of the Schools will be carried out largely by the full time members of the academic staffs which we mention in detail later. But none of these schools can progress along the lines we consider desirable without the close co-operation of the departments of the Nigerian and other West African Governments. Such co-operation will be required in the provision of part-time teaching in particular subjects to be given by specialists from the different departments; in the staff and students of the college being able to have access for the purposes of teaching to the experimental stations of these departments; in the close collaboration of the staff of the college and the officers of the departments in research problems. We recognise that these proposals present problems of organisation, but they are all capable of solution.

33. As to the method of government of the schools, there would be a single board of studies for the three subjects of agriculture, forestry and animal health, which would be responsible to the academic board of the university college. The members of this board of studies would be drawn from the full-time and part-time academic members of the staffs of each school. In addition there should be established from the outset for each school an advisory committee containing both members from the board of studies of the school and suitable representatives, three in number, of the particular Government departments concerned; one from Nigeria, one from the Gold

Coast, and one from Sierra Leone and Gambia, for as we have said elsewhere it is essential from every point of view that the work of each school should be in the closest touch with the work and policy of the departments of Government; the help and guidance of these representatives in the building up of suitable courses will be essential.

34. We turn to the question of residential facilities. While the later parts of the courses in each of the schools will be concerned with the more specialised aspects of the teaching and will entail work in agriculture and forestry on the farm and estates at Ibadan, the provision of special hostels away from those of the university college is to be deprecated. Unless there emerge considerations of the greatest importance which we cannot foresee, all the students of the university college should share the corporate life of the college as a whole. With this object in mind, we hope that in the preparation of the plans for the college, the great importance of the appropriate location of the experimental grounds devoted to agriculture and forestry will be a major consideration. While the final part of the veterinary course must entail the students being separated from their colleagues in other subjects at Ibadan, our choice of Ibadan for the university college is based in considerable measure on the fact that Ibadan is the only centre where it is possible to provide the complete courses in agriculture, forestry and medicine, with all the material and intellectual advantages to the staff and students which such a concentration can give. Having discussed general principles of application to all the schools, we turn briefly to consider each of them in turn.

A School of Agriculture for West Africa

35. Ibadan is situated in a region intermediate in conditions between the forest areas to the south and the savannah country to the north; this region offers opportunity for growing a wide range of crops while the raising of livestock is also possible. Thus its choice as the headquarters of the Nigerian agricultural department is not fortuitous, and the extensive estates known as Moor Plantations, with their experimental plots and substantial research and other facilities are situated here. The location of the school of agriculture in Ibadan would thus present great advantages. It would enable the students to be in personal touch with current developments; it would afford opportunities for the staff to collaborate with the scientific officers of the Department in investigations of many problems the solution of which is essential to the agricultural progress of West Africa. These officers are already confronted with far more problems than they have either the time or means to tackle, and close collaboration between the school and the department would be greatly to the gain of both.

36. A fresh site would be needed for the new school, for the present one is too limited and the ground is needed by the department; the vacated school would serve admirably for the training by the Nigerian department of its own junior staff, the agricultural assistants already mentioned. It is essential that the new school should have its own farm for the giving of practical instruction, for the field work which the students would undertake, and for the field experiments of research workers. In our opinion, an area of 250 acres with the possible later extension to 500 acres is required; this, like the grounds devoted to forestry, will be part of a single estate on which all the buildings of the university college are situated. This large area devoted to agriculture seems to us essential, for it cannot be too strongly emphasised that the conception that agriculture can be taught on garden plots is fundamentally unsound. Much land will be required, particularly as some of the tree crops require much space, and because animal husbandry will be an important part of the curriculum.

37. As in other subjects so in agriculture, the School should aim from the start at reaching degree standards. There must necessarily be an interval before the proposed course at Ibadan can lead to an actual degree. During the interval the aim should be to provide a course which would be recognised throughout the British Empire and accepted as a qualification for colonial agricultural scholarships. It is hoped that eventually the school will develop into a centre which is suitable for post-graduate work.

We do not need to go into too much detail on the subjects of the curriculum. It would include the general principles of agriculture with special emphasis on tropical crops; animal husbandry; botany, including the principles of plant pathology, plant breeding and genetics; agricultural chemistry with reference to tropical soils, crop products, manures, fertilisers and crop ecology; diseases and pests of crops; agricultural economics, which would include accountancy, marketing and grading, co-operative methods, and methods of economic survey; agricultural engineering, including the care and adjustment of machinery and implements, the use of local building materials, drainage, field surveying and the lay out of land; elementary veterinary science with emphasis on the diagnosis of common local diseases of live stock; and a short course in tropical hygiene and sanitation.

38. We attach particular importance to the development of the teaching of agricultural economics, which must play an increasingly important part in the development of agriculture in West Africa, and to the provision of instruction in tropical hygiene and sanitation, which will enable the prospective agricultural officer to play the necessarily wide part which he ought to play in any scheme of rural development.

39. We recommend that the head of the school of agriculture should be an agriculturist with a wide knowledge of tropical conditions and with personal experience of African agriculture. He will act as the administrator of the school. He will take part in the teaching, in which he will need a well qualified lecturer who would share with him lecturing on general agriculture and be responsible for the supervision of the school farm. Though we consider that the special subject of the first head of the school should be general agriculture, the choice of later heads should not be so limited. The ablest administrator available might be, for example, a specialist in any one of the branches of agricultural science. Such an appointment would involve consequential changes in the proposed composition of the staff, which it is unnecessary to enumerate. There would also be required two lecturers in each of the following subjects: agricultural chemistry, agricultural botany, entomology, mycology, and agricultural economics. The teaching of other subjects would be carried out by members of the staff of the university college who were primarily concerned with the work of other departments. Thus the lectures in agricultural engineering might be given by the appropriate member of the staff such as the lecturer in engineering in the school of forestry; similarly, such instruction in their particular subjects as may be necessary for the students in forestry would be given by the entomologist and mycologist of the school of agriculture. The elementary course in veterinary science should likewise be given by a member of the staff of the veterinary school at some times to suit his other commitments; likewise the short course of lectures on tropical hygiene and sanitation would be arranged through the medical faculty of the college.

40. In addition to the academic staff mentioned, there will need be to a farm manager and staff, who will be responsible for the management of the labour and general maintenance of the farm.

41. It is obviously impossible for us to give detailed estimates of the cost of these proposals. The capital expenditure would involve the acquisition of 250 to 500 acres of land and its development; the construction of administrative buildings and lecture rooms, laboratories both for teaching and research in chemistry and biology, farm buildings, and staff quarters. Ultimately a sum of up to £100,000 may be required. Some idea of likely recurrent expenditure may be based on the assumption that the Head would receive a salary of up to £1,500, that the senior members of the staff in each subject will receive salaries of up to £900 and that their more junior colleagues salaries of up to £750; that the administration may cost £1,000 and wages £2,500. With pension contributions and passage monies, this would give a total of £15,000. With allowance for materials and maintenance, the recurrent expenditure would be of the order of £20,000. These figures should be taken as a guide and not as an attempt to lay down a salary scale. The revenue would consist of income from students' fees and money resulting from the sale of farm produce; the income would amount to only a small proportion of the recurrent expenditure.

A School of Forestry for West Africa

42. As with agriculture, the headquarters of the Nigerian forestry department are at Ibadan, where are located its nurseries and experimental plantations; the Nigerian forestry school which we have mentioned earlier is also located on this site. The considerations regarding the choice of Ibadan as the centre for a School of Agriculture for West Africa apply with equal force to its suitability for a School of Forestry for West Africa. It is obviously important too that agriculture and forestry should be studied side by side, for many aspects of the two subjects are inter-related.

43. We have already said that we hope it will be found possible to locate all the buildings of the university college in close proximity to each other on a single site, and for this and other reasons a new forestry school will be required. We suggest that the existing forestry school should be used by the Nigerian forestry department for the training of subordinate staff.

44. Provided the Nigerian forestry department is willing to provide facilities for training and for visits to their existing forest areas, the area of land required by the forestry school need only be such as to provide for a forest garden for propagation work. If the actual buildings of the school were located on the site, however, with staff houses and other necessary buildings it would require an area of perhaps 100 acres. In reaching a decision on the question as to whether the buildings should be separate from the estate, it is to be borne in mind that the existing buildings are of temporary nature and, if utilised would require considerable extension by the provision of better library facilities, another lecture room and more laboratory accommodation; a common room for the students would also be required.

45. The aim of the school should be to provide a degree course in forestry. In the first stage it will be necessary to establish a course of similar scope, standard and status to that which is recommended for the agricultural school (see paragraph 37). We need mention here only the second two years of the four year course which we consider desirable, for the first two years will be spent along with students of agriculture and animal health in the study of the fundamental sciences. The entrance requirement for the third year of study will be the passing of the Intermediate science examination. The third year should be devoted to more advanced botany, particularly systematic botany, zoology and mycology, geography, soils and geology, engineering and surveying, silviculture, forest law and land utilisa-

tion. The final year would include such subjects as ecology, economics, plantation management and more advanced instruction in forestry and office routine. A considerable portion of the teaching in both years would be devoted to practical work in the forest and visits to centres of forest activity.

46. Following the principles which we have laid down for agriculture, the full time academic staff would consist of two members in each subject. The Head would be a man with wide experience of tropical conditions, and if possible, personal experience of West African forestry. He would have the assistance of a more junior colleague who would assist him in the general courses of lectures. Though we consider that the special subject of the first head of the school should be general forestry, the choice of later heads should not be limited to those who would lecture on this subject, but might include other branches of the forestry profession. Each of the three subjects of forest botany, forest engineering and forest economics would require two lecturers. Teaching of such subjects as zoology and mycology, tropical hygiene and sanitation would be given by the appropriate members of the academic staff of the university college.

47. It is impossible for us to estimate the likely expenditure with any certainty. As to capital expenditure, the cost of a new school and 100 acres of land might be of the order of £50,000; recurrent expenditure calculated on the same basis as was used for the agricultural school might reach £10,000.

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48. Reference has already been made in paragraph 19 to the veterinary school at Vom where the development of a centre of veterinary education is already far advanced. Vom is situated in the heart of the cattle country, on the Jos plateau, eight miles from Bukuru railway station, and about 600 miles by rail from Ibadan. It has ample access to clinical material of all kinds; its buildings which were nearly completed at the time of our visit, have been carefully designed; there is ample room for their future expansion; the school already possesses 600 acres of land, and more land can be readily secured. In addition, Vom is the headquarters of the Nigerian veterinary department. Here is situated the large and well equipped veterinary research institute which is at present mainly concerned with the extensive production of serological products. The breeding of pigs for marketing, and in the preparation of dairy products such as cheese and butter are in full development, and provide an excellent background for veterinary education and research.

49. The Vom school is a centre of veterinary education which provides a complete course leading to the award of a Licence of Veterinary Medicine and Surgery for students who have already passed the London Intermediate Science, London First M.B., or other exempting examination. This course is based on what has hitherto been the practice in the training of veterinarians in Great Britain. This course was started in 1942.

50. Veterinary education has been the subject of a recent enquiry by the Loveday Committee on Veterinary Education in Great Britain, appointed by the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Department of Agriculture for Scotland, and two Reports of this Committee have been issued (1938; and 1944, Cmd. 6517). In Great Britain the veterinary schools, with one exception, are largely detached institutions providing complete courses of study, and are only loosely connected with universities. The Loveday Report concludes that only if veterinary education becomes the concern of universities in the same way as is medical education, will veterinary medicine be provided the

opportunities which its increasing importance in the national economy demands. It points out that hitherto veterinary education has been too theoretical and has lacked the facilities for proper clinical instruction particularly in the case of farm animals; that the teaching has remained concerned too largely with animal sickness; and that it has lacked the emphasis which, in the light of modern knowledge, should be placed on animal health. It recommends that all schools should be provided with a field station for the purposes of clinical teaching and that the curriculum should be substantially revised, not only in the pre-clinical teaching but particularly in animal husbandry and clinical teaching.

51. The findings of this Committee bear directly on the policy which should be adopted at the Vom school. We fully recognise that when the school was planned, there was no alternative but to visualise the creation of a self-contained teaching centre. However, our recommendation regarding the formation of a comprehensive university college at Ibadan materially changes the position. We agree with the findings of the Loveday Committee that the teaching of such subjects as physiology, anatomy and pathology, the particular applications of which comprise veterinary medicine, should be carried out in association with similar teaching in medicine, and that its proper place is in the university. This is in the interests both of the teacher and of the student. Of the teachers, because they are concerned with the teaching of subjects which are closely allied to the teaching given in a medical faculty, and the fundamentals of which are the same; a close association with their colleagues in medicine, agriculture, and other subjects, is clearly desirable from the point of view both of teaching and research. Of the students, because contact with their fellow students in the different faculties is, in our opinion, essential. As we see it, the isolation of the veterinary students at Vom for five and a half years would certainly fail to give them the broad educational background and the outlook of service to the community which, as we have mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, is so necessary if they are to hold posts of responsibility.

52. The natural development of the Vom school would, therefore, be that, by arrangement with the Government of Nigeria, the university college should take over the existing school buildings and the land attached to it, and that it should become the field station of the School of Animal Health for West Africa. Students would enter on their pre-clinical training in anatomy, physiology, and the pathology group of subjects at Ibadan, and this training would last for one and a half to two years. They would then proceed to Vom for their clinical training for a further two to two and a half years, during which the more specialised aspects of pathology, bacteriology and similar subjects would be given. If this plan were carried into effect, the School of Animal Health for West Africa would be in a position which has no counterpart in Great Britain, for nowhere are there to be found the facilities for clinical training which the vigorous activities of the Nigerian veterinary department has provided at Vom. The situation in regard to the clinical training of the student would be all that could be desired, while opportunities of collaboration between the members of the full time academic staff and the scientific officers of the department in research problems could not be bettered.

53. While the transfer of the teaching of anatomy, physiology and pathology to Ibadan would mean that some laboratory provision already made at Vom would not be needed for its original purposes, we do not doubt that any accommodation set free will be required under the proposed reorganisation.

54. The present course for the M.R.C.V.S. diploma is one of four years, following the first examination, and the revised course suggested by the Loveday Committee is of the same length. The course at Vom is, however, planned to last five and a half years. While we realise that in the particular conditions of the tropics the teaching of certain subjects may need to be more extensive, we are led to wonder whether the course need be so long. Students who have the Intermediate science entrance qualification, which is of a higher standard than the minimum required for the present M.R.C.V.S. course, ought, in our opinion, to be capable of completing their studies in the time which is not greatly in excess of that which is considered necessary in Great Britain. The length of the course will need to be determined in the light of experience. The purpose of this course is to reach a standard equivalent to that reached in the M.R.C.V.S. course in Great Britain and, as soon as possible, degree level.

55. As to the curriculum, we are impressed with the desirability of the general changes proposed by the Loveday Committee both as regards the distribution of the subjects and the emphasis to be given to them. The findings of this Committee seem to us applicable to West Africa with suitable modifications which local conditions may make desirable.

56. The staff of the present school consists of two veterinary education officers and authority has been sought for the appointment of a Principal and three more education officers. The staff of the new School of Animal Health for West Africa should consist of a Head and two whole-time teachers in the more important subjects of the curriculum. Apart from the Head, the staff at Vom should consist, in our opinion, of two holders of senior posts in veterinary medicine, two in animal husbandry, and two in veterinary pathology and bacteriology. The fundamental teaching in the subjects of pathology and physiology would be given by members of the staff of the medical school at Ibadan. The teaching of anatomy at Ibadan would, however, require two teachers of the status of senior lecturer and demonstrator. The students would receive teaching in the more applied aspects of the subjects of anatomy, physiology and pathology during their clinical training at Vom. As in agriculture, forestry and medicine specialised teaching in particular subjects might be given at Vom by officers of the Nigerian veterinary department on a part-time basis. It is highly desirable that each student should spend his vacation, during his first year, at Vom to give him first-hand experience of work with farm animals.

57. It is difficult for us to estimate the capital and recurrent expenditure which would result from these proposals. As to capital expenditure, the Vom school is being built out of funds provided from the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund, and at the time of our visit £34,000 of the grant of £55,000 had already been spent. It seems to us likely that this sum will prove insufficient. As to recurrent expenditure estimates have already been submitted under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act and these include the cost of some additional staff not yet appointed. Under these estimates, the recurrent expenditure will rise from about £11,000 in 1945 to about £13,000 in 1947. In the light of our proposals, and if the research activities which we consider should be developed come into being, the recurrent expenditure would rise to perhaps £20,000 a year.

58. As we have pointed out elsewhere, the existing school provides courses for subordinate grades of the Nigerian veterinary department. In the evolutionary period, it would probably be desirable to continue these courses at the Vom school, although later it will certainly be desirable that separate institutions should be built on an adjacent site for the training of entrants to the junior grades.

CHAPTER VIII

TECHNICAL EDUCATION

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THE GENERAL PROBLEM OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN WEST AFRICA

1. We deal with technical training in a separate chapter for reasons of convenience. We wish however to emphasise that we do not recognise any sharp line of distinction between technical or vocational training and more liberal education. On the one hand, we believe that practical training should play a part in education both in primary and secondary schools, and on the other we consider that vocational education should be so planned that the student is brought into contact with more liberal studies besides the purely technical subjects appropriate to his calling. We are aware that the greater part of the range of facilities required in the field of vocational and technical education cannot be regarded as part of higher education, and do not therefore fall within our terms of reference, but in order that the problem may be seen as a whole, we survey the whole field very broadly, while paying particular attention to the sections which seem more relevant to our enquiry.

2. We regard the provision of more extensive opportunities for trade and technical training for the peoples of West Africa as a matter of real urgency. The territories need skilled workers who can take part in the extension of roads and communications, who can improve drainage, water supplies and housing, and who can develop local industries, such as carpentry, weaving, metal working. We recognise that for West Africa the next decade must be a period of rapid development. Its peoples are becoming increasingly aware of their needs, and increasingly interested in the standards and achievements of other countries. Trained workers will be wanted in all fields of economic development, whether in connection with all forms of transport and its maintenance, the extension of public works, in power, communications, water supply, soil conservation, irrigation, and other utilities, or with the extension of housing, public health and sanitary services. In all these fields skilled men, tradesmen and men with technical knowledge will be needed if these countries are to be steadily equipped and developed. The nature of the training and the rate at which it is provided must clearly be related to the schemes for the economic and social growth of the territories.

3. The training facilities available at the present time are inadequate and will be quite insufficient to meet the needs of the immediate future. This was illustrated when, during the war, the defence programmes in parts of West Africa were seriously delayed through lack of Africans trained to carry out construction programmes and to give skilled direction to the labour on these works. The many schemes for future economic development in the West African colonies which have recently been drawn up, and the growth of public works and of secondary industries, which His Majesty's Government is pledged to foster, will all require greatly increased numbers of skilled and responsible Africans at all stages of qualification if they are to make rapid progress.

4. The comparatively backward condition of technical training in many areas has in part arisen because in the early years of West African development it was possible to bring in from Europe the necessary numbers of skilled men to direct the building of roads, railways, ports and trading centres. The schools, both those started by the missions and those developed later by the Governments, aimed chiefly at training in the three R's and at more advanced academic education, and tended to provide a steady flow of men able to undertake clerical employment, for whom there has been an increasing demand. Certain of these schools paid some attention to practical skills, carpentry, metal working and gardening, but only in limited areas was good training provided for artisans. Moreover, the demand for clerks was such that they were offered prospects and conditions of service which were regarded as much more favourable than those offered to Africans entering equally responsible posts where technical skill was required. The civil service, teaching and all forms of clerical employment have in the past been able to absorb most of the able students of the primary and secondary schools, and because of this and its more remunerative character, this kind of work has become the recognised field of employment for educated Africans.

5. There are signs however of a very real interest in all forms of skilled and technical employment and we have no doubt that the new developments in most primary education will pay attention to this fact. As we have said in Chapter II, it seems to us that practical work, whether in gardens or in the normal work of the villages, should be more strongly emphasised in the curricula of the schools, and that school work should be less academic and the studies more closely connected with the vocations and skills which these territories increasingly need. Many responsible Africans emphasised to us the need for the organisation of vocational training as well as for the institution of professional courses in engineering. We were informed that the number of candidates seeking admission to the one technical school in British West Africa had recently been five times greater than the number of vacancies.

6. As there have been few training centres for technical workers, most of those who have adopted such careers have received their training in the course of their work. Thus several Government departments and some of the mining companies have established their own systems for training the various categories of men needed in their services, from artisans to junior technical staff. The training provided in many cases has been effective, and Africans are carrying out responsible and complicated tasks in the mines, on the railways, in power houses and in water works: they have learned not only how to drive and control machinery, but how to repair and service it. But such training must by its very nature lack many of the elements essential in sound education. Often it is of an improvised nature, and neither equipment nor qualified instructors are available. Under the stress of war the numbers receiving such training have been vastly increased, and when the war is over there will be available great numbers of artisans and technicians, trained by the army for special tasks, who will respond rapidly to opportunities for further training but who may find it difficult to return to their former ways of life. There will also be available for the economic activities and development work of these countries a large number of men already trained as tradesmen and transport workers who can be utilised without delay.

7. The African technicians needed to help in developing their own countries must be drawn from among the most able men coming from the schools and colleges. It must be recognised that employment in technical work is as responsible and valuable as clerical and other forms of employment which

require no more specialised training. The technicians will require not only a high degree of skill but also a well developed sense of responsibility and leadership. We consider that training courses should provide for theoretical training, for practical experience by which students will learn to apply their theoretical knowledge and to work with other men, and for further general education which will provide opportunities for the students to pursue wider interests and to prepare themselves for more advanced technical studies and heavier responsibilities. It is important also that opportunities should be provided for those students who have shown exceptional ability and promise in any technical course to proceed to a more advanced course, so that an artisan may hope to become a technician, and a technician an engineer.

8. It is with these considerations in mind that we now turn to examine the present slender facilities for technical training in the British West African colonies before making our recommendations that far wider facilities should be provided. In Chapter III we have set out the facilities for engineering at the professional level at the Higher College, Yaba, in Nigeria and at Achimota in the Gold Coast. Facilities for training in survey work at the higher level are described in Appendix VI. We consider their position in relation to the university colleges in Chapter IV. It is only in the Gold Coast that any special provision for a technical school has been made.

EXISTING FACILITIES FOR TRAINING

9. It is difficult to draw any accurate distinction between the various grades of skill below those of the professional qualification, but, for convenience, we divide the training facilities into (a) those designed to produce artisans; and (b) those designed to produce technicians with a higher degree of skill and responsibility such as charge hands, foremen and engineering assistants.

(a) *Artisans*

10. The training of artisans cannot be considered as post-secondary training, and is clearly not within the scope of our Report. It is plain, however, that any development in West Africa which requires a greatly increased supply of responsible technicians will require a correspondingly great number of skilled artisans if the work of the technician is to bear full fruit. Further, if one may judge from experience in Britain, West Africa would expect to draw some of her best technicians from those who have first been trained as artisans.

11. So far the Government technical departments have been the most important agencies in the training of artisans. This they have done chiefly through an apprentice system. Apprentices are trained also by tradesmen working independently in the towns and villages. Many of the tradesmen trained by the Government departments to meet their own needs subsequently find their way into the towns and villages to work independently, or in other employment, and hand on their skill to groups of apprentices. Recently the middle boarding schools in the Gold Coast have provided trade training as part of a higher primary course.

12. Only a small percentage of the artisans who are trained under the very limited arrangements we have outlined above reach a high level of skill, and the numbers of skilled and semi-skilled men available are quite inadequate to meet the ordinary needs of West Africa, let alone sudden needs such as wartime development. During the war the army has established its own trade schools to man the artisan works companies and other technical units of the Royal West African Frontier Force.

(b) Technicians

13. Turning now to the training of technicians, everywhere in West Africa we were told by the authorities concerned that the present provision for the training of responsible and skilled technicians was quite inadequate to meet the needs of the Government departments, the commercial and mining companies and other enterprises.

14. We can give only the briefest outline of the various facilities provided by (1) Government departmental courses, (2) the Government Technical School in the Gold Coast, (3) the mining industry, (4) commercial schools.

(1) Departmental courses

15. The Nigerian technical departments* employ far more staff than the corresponding departments in the other British West African colonies, and it is in Nigeria that we find that the departmental courses for training African technical staff are most advanced. For example, the Public Works Department, the Nigerian Railway, and the Marine Department have provided training courses for the various types of technician they require. In addition they provide the practical experience for the students studying engineering at the Higher College, Yaba. Recently the Public Works Department of Nigeria has accepted apprentices for training on behalf of the Governments of Sierra Leone and the Gambia. The Sierra Leone Government maintains less advanced courses of its own. The Gold Coast Government also maintains less advanced departmental courses and relies on its technical school and the Achimota courses in engineering to provide more advanced courses.

16. There is still much diversity of practice between departments of the same colony and between corresponding departments in different colonies in the provision of separate training courses. In some cases there is a lack of co-ordination of the schemes organised by different departments, and quite separate departmental schools are maintained although certain parts of the work are admittedly common to all. These departmental schools often consist of very few students and their training is necessarily very costly. As a rule the teacher is a normal member of the staff of the department, engaged as an engineer or surveyor, for whom this type of work, for which he is rarely trained, may possibly be unsuitable. Such teachers are liable to frequent transfers to other work, and the courses consequently lack continuity both in their teaching and in their development.

17. The recruitment of pupils for most of these courses in which men of technical grades are trained is made usually direct from school. The standard of entry desired is the school certificate or its equivalent, though in many cases this has been waived. The boys have seldom received any training which enables the department to form a reasonable judgment of their suitability for the particular type of work on which they are to be engaged. For most of the students recruitment at this level is directly related to the presumed vacancies which will occur, and the entrants have a definite expectation of a Government post at the end of the training, although this is not always specifically promised. In such schools they receive much practical as well as theoretical training, and are paid a salary throughout.

18. Some of those departmental courses have reached a high level of purely technical training, but they are usually narrow in their scope and do not provide for the further and wider education of the students, which would help them to bring a greater sense of responsibility to their work, and encourage them to continue their training to a higher level. Often facilities for good instruction are not available—equipment has to be improvised, funds are not easy to secure. As a result teaching standards and the supply of books are often poor.

* An outline of the main departmental courses in Nigeria is given in appendix v.

(2) *The Government Technical School, Gold Coast*

19. This school, which was founded in Accra in 1909, aimed at becoming the centre of technical education in the Gold Coast. In 1939 the school was moved to Takoradi, where its new buildings provided residential and teaching accommodation for 100 students. When these buildings were requisitioned for the R.A.F. in 1940, the school moved to a temporary home; finally in 1942 it was taken over by the army as a technical training centre. Before the school was taken over it provided a five-year course for those who wished to qualify for responsible technical posts. It was divided into two departments, one for building construction, carpentry and joinery, and one for mechanical and electrical engineering. Students were not specially prepared for external examinations but they were allowed, if they wished, to take the examinations of the City and Guilds of London Institute. Recent results in these examinations are given below:—

	<i>Entered.</i>	<i>Passed.</i>
1940	20	19
1941	13	12
1942	19	19

20. The school did not undertake to secure employment for its students, but, in point of fact, the demand for students trained in the school was so great that they had no difficulty in finding good employment, either in the civil service or in commerce. In March, 1942, there were 146 candidates to fill the 31 vacancies in the school. The Gold Coast Government proposes to re-open this school after the war.

(3) *The mining industry*

21. There are at present no training courses designed to equip Africans for senior technical posts on the mines. Several of the gold mines have classes for artisans and employees engaged on certain occupations needing a high degree of skill.

22. The London Advisory Committee of the Gold Coast Chamber of Mines informed us that in 1941 836 Europeans, of whom about 12 per cent. held university degrees, were employed in the mines of the Gold Coast. Most of these were employed in technical positions: 108 posts required qualified mining engineers and some 60 of the men holding these posts were so qualified; and some 50 other posts required mechanical and electrical engineers.

The Gold Coast Chamber of Mines expressed the following views:—

(i) that the mining field was too small to afford a suitable training for senior staff and that some part of their training would need to be obtained abroad,

(ii) that a mining school in some suitable centre, such as Tarkwa, conducted on a part-time basis, would enable many men to reach a technical level much above what was at present possible,

(iii) that if such a school were established, boys should be admitted with the minimum qualification of primary Standard VII,

(iv) that they would prefer to select any Africans who were to be sent away for more advanced training from successful pupils at such a mining school rather than from secondary school boys who had had no practical experience of mining.

(4) *Commercial Training*

23. The facilities in British West Africa for commercial training whether in bookkeeping and accounting, typewriting and shorthand, office routine and the general mechanics of trade, or in the broader subjects such as shipping, world markets, banking, etc., are quite inadequate. There are practically no commercial courses of any standing, and most clerical employees in commercial firms and in government departments acquire their training during the course of their work. Many of the leading commercial firms in British West Africa urged on us the necessity for increased provision for training in clerical work as well as for the engineering trades. One large firm was even considering establishing its own school in Lagos, while others stated that they would be ready to co-operate with any technical school development in Lagos.

24. We were informed also by many Government officials that the clerks in Government departments had been greatly handicapped by lack of training, and that as a consequence the standard of technical work in Government offices was often low compared with that expected in more highly developed countries. They considered that facilities for modern training in such work were urgently required. Since 1942 the Army has maintained a Clerks Training School in Nigeria to serve the West African Command and the West African Expeditionary Force. We understand that this has proved to be a very successful experiment.

TWO RECOMMENDATIONS

25. At the time of our visit most of the plans of the West African Governments to meet the post-war needs for technical training were still under consideration. The Gambia was considering sending pupils to the Gold Coast to the technical school, and Sierra Leone the establishment of a clerks' school and a junior technical school as a branch of an existing secondary school. In the Gold Coast, the Government was planning to reopen its technical school and maintain the engineering courses at Achimota, and the Chamber of Mines was considering the establishment of a mining school. In Nigeria, the Government was considering the development of the departmental technical courses, and the development of the engineering course at Yaba; and the commercial firms were anxious that a technical school should be established, as the departmental courses did not meet their needs.

26. We consider that technical education in West Africa presents an extensive problem requiring more detailed study than we have been able to give it. We have nevertheless reached two main conclusions, and make two recommendations; first, to ensure that the whole problem of technical education shall be carefully surveyed, in consultation with those planning the economic development of the British West African territories, with a view to meeting the foreseeable economic needs of those countries; second, to meet the immediate and urgent needs for technical training in West Africa.

First.—We recommend that forthwith three technical education officers of wide experience of technical work and technical education in the United Kingdom shall be appointed:—

(a) to survey the existing facilities for technical and commercial training, and, in consultation with those planning the economic development of the area, and with each other, to make recommendations as to future development.

(b) to establish the technical institutes as outlined in our second recommendation.

(c) to supervise the future development of technical education.

One officer should be appointed for Nigeria, one for the Gold Coast and one for Sierra Leone and the Gambia. Each officer should be of the rank of an assistant director of education and should be a member of the education department of the territory concerned.

Second.—We recommend that as soon as possible each of the three main dependencies should have its own technical institute, that in Sierra Leone serving also the Gambia.

GENERAL OUTLINE FOR THE THREE TECHNICAL INSTITUTES

27. We are not in the position to go into any detail as to the nature and standards of the courses to be provided in the three technical institutes. These will vary from territory to territory and will need to be worked out by the proposed technical education officers. We can however state certain general requirements. Each institute should at least be partly residential, since many of the students will come from a distance; and library and recreational facilities should be provided. Technical, commercial and, perhaps, art courses should all be available in the one institution in order that the educational basis of the institute may be as broad as possible. It is essential for the success of the technical institutes that close contact shall be established and maintained with the subsequent employers of the students, and that representatives of the technical departments of Government, and of private enterprise in commerce and industry, and of the workers' organisations shall be closely associated with the management of the institutes.

28. The scope of these institutes will depend on local needs, but, broadly, they should cater for the intermediate ranks of industry and commerce. To this end great flexibility in courses and standards will be necessary to meet a great variety of needs. We consider that there should be classes in:—

(a) General subjects: English, mathematics, physics and chemistry.

It would be necessary to provide classes at different levels to allow those whose earlier education may have been limited to get sufficient basic training in English, mathematics and science to follow the ordinary courses. Some work in English should be continued at each stage. This should be broadly conceived more as a means of expression, and as an introduction to sound and humanistic studies, and less as a literary study.

(b) Special subjects, such as:—

(i) General mechanical and electrical engineering, building construction, drawing and surveying, and printing. These courses should be planned to cover the work which is common to the various departmental schools, so far as the theoretical and related practical training are concerned.

(ii) Commerce, both in the technical skills, such as typing, shorthand, bookkeeping and accountancy, and in its wider aspects, such as knowledge of world markets, banking, shipping, and modern commercial practice.

29. We have pointed out in the first section of this chapter the important part which we consider the African technician has to play in the development of his own country. To fit him for this work, and to give both technical and skilled manual work the honourable place which it merits in the social system, we consider it essential that, while in no way neglecting the purely vocational side, his training should be made the basis of as broad an education as his abilities permit. The student may thus learn to appreciate the wider problems with which his country is faced and, by seeing his own work as an integral part of the whole process of his country's development, realise his responsibility and his opportunity.

30. The institute should provide also such facilities for further study as would enable the exceptional student to proceed to the university.

31. We heard conflicting evidence about the usefulness of evening classes for technical training. We consider that the officer appointed to survey the needs of each territory should give this matter his early consideration.

32. Each technical institute would be under the education department of the territory and should also have its own advisory committee of men and women representing:—

- (i) the staff of the institute,
- (ii) public enterprise (Government departments, local government bodies, municipal governments),
- (iii) private enterprise and labour organisations,
- (iv) the university college.

African opinion should be fully represented whether under the above headings or separately.

The technical institute as a centre for adult education

33. While the Technical Institute must necessarily start as a centre of vocational training we should wish to see it exercise a wide influence. It should in due course become a focus of interest both for the youth of the country and for the adult population living round about it. It should open its doors more widely and become a place where many problems besides vocational ones are discussed, where people may attend courses of lectures, where study groups are organised by the university colleges, and where talks may be given by eminent visitors. We wish it to be a living centre of education, enriched by the extramural work of the university colleges, and another meeting place for all concerned with the general cultural development of the people.

34. If the technical institutes develop in this way, they will do much to attract the best of the youth of the country, and to give to the technician's work the place it deserves in the public esteem. In planning the buildings provision for expansion along these lines should be kept in view.

FACILITIES RECOMMENDED FOR (i) NIGERIA, (ii) THE GOLD COAST, AND (iii) SIERRA LEONE AND THE GAMBIA

35. We recommend that the following facilities for technical education should be provided as soon as possible.

(i) *Nigeria**

The first technical institute for Nigeria should be centred near Lagos. We recommend that it should be at Yaba. We visualise a future need for further technical institutes in Nigeria as, for example, at Enugu and Kaduna. The Higher College at Yaba can provide not only the buildings but also much of the necessary equipment, and we recommend that it should become the technical institute of Nigeria. It would provide (we believe more economically) for much of the instruction at present being given in several Government departments, and would benefit the students by enabling them to share the activities of larger and more varied groups.

(ii) *Gold Coast*

(a) The present technical school at Elmina, which is now engaged in training army tradesmen, should be reopened at the earliest possible moment in its old buildings at Takoradi; but if those buildings, for defence reasons, cannot be released by the R.A.F., then a new technical institute should be built at Takoradi with the broader functions as indicated above.

* Since this was written the Governor of Nigeria has announced the outline of plans for the development of technical education. (Nigeria S.P. No. 2/1945.)

(b) We recommend that commercial courses should also be established in Accra.

(c) We were impressed by the evidence of the Gold Coast Chamber of Mines that a technical school to serve the mining area would meet a real need in the Gold Coast. We agree that there is a case for such a school to which the Mining interests could make a suitable contribution. It would be most conveniently established in the mining area, e.g. at Tarkwa.

(iii) *Sierra Leone and the Gambia.*

The increasing development of the Protectorate of Sierra Leone and the enhanced political and strategic interest of these two territories makes it important that technical training should be obtainable for these areas. Accordingly we recommend the establishment of a technical institute in or near Freetown to serve the needs of Sierra Leone and the Gambia.

CHAPTER IX

IN CONCLUSION

1. In making our recommendations for the development of university education in British West Africa we are fully conscious of the ambitious nature of the programme we have set out. We are aware that what we have proposed may to some appear incompatible with the somewhat slender foundation of primary and secondary education upon which it is necessary to build. We are, however, firmly convinced that no considerable advance in the social, economic and political development of the four dependencies is possible without the setting up of the institutions of higher learning we have proposed. A major advance in the general educational level is a prerequisite to advances in all other directions, and little progress is possible in the lower ranges of education without a simultaneous and rapid development in those at the top.

2. British West Africa needs very large numbers of well-trained teachers, doctors, scientists; agriculturists; administrators and research workers. They are needed now and they will have to be for the most part trained on African soil. Space for all who need to be trained is not available in the universities of Britain; even were it so, the cost of such a solution of the problem would be prohibitive. Moreover British West Africa, with its population of 27,000,000, must have its own centres of learning and research if its peoples are to take an honourable place among the peoples of the world and be captains of their own destiny. British West Africa forms a distinctive part of the British Empire, but nevertheless each of the three larger dependencies, separated as they are from each other by long distances and each with its own special problems, traditions and outlook, must have its own centre of culture if progress throughout West Africa is to be general and active. Pride of ownership and enthusiasm for achievement must be canalised into productive channels, and the enlightening influence of university development on the community made widely effective.

3. We have repeatedly stated our belief that university institutions in West Africa can and should have an active influence beyond the immediate university circle of staff and students. University education is not and cannot be a thing detached from the community. We hope these institutions will play as great a part in the development of West Africa as the British Universities are now playing in the social life of the United Kingdom. We cannot lay down in detail the lines of such development in West Africa: the university institutions will themselves have to find out the ways in which they can best serve their own communities and the communities which lie beyond their borders.

4. But the mere establishment of the university institutions which we have proposed is not enough. Without a true university spirit, they will surely become a source of weakness rather than of strength. This spirit will not arise spontaneously: it calls for a conscious effort and the exercise of intellectual honesty of a high order. It will develop fully only in institutions which enjoy academic freedom. In their early days the university institutions in West Africa, building up the standards which will entitle them to that academic freedom, will need the strong help of established institutions which have themselves a long tradition of academic freedom. We hope that this help will be given to West Africa by the universities in the United Kingdom through the proposed Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies.

5. All agree that African academic standards in no way inferior to those of British universities are essential. African graduates must be able to proceed to England for post-graduate work and must be able to compete with graduates of other universities for all appointments. The suggested association with London University should safeguard this position. But watchfulness will be needed to ensure the standard of entrance to the colleges: pressure to admit the unfit will arise and must be strenuously resisted: quality before quantity must be the motto. Academic standards alone do not make a university. A university is a community whose purpose is the advancement and dissemination of knowledge. In so far as the passing of examinations is the main object of the student so far does the University fail in its purpose: in so far as learning is pursued for learning's sake so far it succeeds. The attainment of this ideal calls for a co-operative effort by both teachers and taught.

6. The student must be trained in the methods of the unprejudiced inquirer: the teacher must remain a learner all the time. In short, it is the quality of the teaching that in the long run can produce a living university. The teacher must be able to inspire in his pupils the spirit of curiosity and the desire to satisfy it: he can do so only if he himself is an active searcher after truth. It is for this reason that we have all through our Report stressed the importance of research. We stress it again here in the conviction that the first essential to progress towards full university status is the selection of a first-rate teaching staff who will not only inspire their pupils but will themselves be constantly contributing to the advance of knowledge.

7. We would stress, too, that lectures and laboratory work, essential though these are, provide one element only in the training of an undergraduate. Teachers and taught alike form one community of learners of widely varied interests. The closer the contact between all the members of the university, brought about by societies, academic, athletic, social or political, the greater the opportunities for mind to clash with mind, the more effectively will the college perform its real task of producing men and women of wide outlook and independent judgment, of toleration and of that intellectual humility which is the beginning of wisdom. When the student comes to regard the degree not as an end in itself, not as a passport to lucrative employment, but as a token only that he has acquired a certain competence and knowledge in a field of study with which he has but the beginnings of an acquaintance, and with it an added obligation to serve his day and generation, then and then only will he completely justify his university training. This is, no doubt, a counsel of perfection: students, like everyone else, will always have an eye to their economic future. But unless a genuine tradition of learning for learning's sake prevails from the start the path of the West African colleges towards full university status will be a long one and their value to the community comparatively meagre. The development of this tradition must be to an ever-increasing extent in the hands of Africans. The initial impetus and

responsibility will be largely with the teaching staff, but it can only be kept alive if the Africans themselves, staff, students and general public, appreciate it, value it and insist on it. This will be no easy thing. To the majority of West Africans the tradition of pure learning will be a completely novel idea not easily assimilated. It will be a challenge to them which they must take up if their future universities are to be of world rank. To meet this challenge will call for intellectual integrity and for a spirit of patience and determination which will tolerate the best alone however slow its growth may need to be.

8. We have mentioned from time to time the vital part played by the churches in beginning and carrying on the task of education in these great regions. It is a very remarkable thing that even to-day, if the educational institutions conducted and supervised by the religious bodies were suddenly to vanish, the greater part of education in British West Africa would practically disappear. It is a simple historical fact that, save for the churches, now largely Africanised, no one so far has seriously tackled on the grand scale the sheer hard work of West African education. The Christian religion has not in fact been the opiate of the West African peoples. It has been, to many thousands, a guide, philosopher, and friend, taking each of these words in a perfectly literal sense. No development would be either adequate or historic which did not appreciate and welcome this aspect of the problem. We have not, save in the broadest general sense, made recommendations to cover these facts. All our report must, however, be read in their light.

9. Governments can provide a people with the outward symbols and trappings of a university but it is the people alone who can eventually make of it a vital intellectual force working for the general good of humanity. Our recommendations are made in the firm faith that the peoples of West Africa will be able to justify their adoption to the full.

OUTLINE OF RECOMMENDATIONS

We have recommended the development of three centres of higher education in British West Africa. These are, a new college at Ibadan in Nigeria, a development of Achimota College in the Gold Coast, and a reorganisation, on a new site, of Fourah Bay College in Sierra Leone, which will also serve the Gambia. Each of these university colleges would provide courses in arts and science, though to varying levels, and would undertake extramural work.

We have recommended the development of certain professional schools, four of which have already made a start, to serve for the present the whole of West Africa. These would be the schools of medicine, including dentistry, agriculture, forestry, and animal health, situated in Nigeria and integral parts of the university college there, and an institute of education, as an integral part of the university college in the Gold Coast. Each of these university colleges would provide Intermediate courses in engineering, and one of them a degree course. In addition, each of the three colleges, that is to say the two already mentioned and the reconstituted Fourah Bay College, would maintain a professional course for the training of teachers for the secondary schools. For other university studies we have recommended that West African students should continue to come to Great Britain.

We have recommended that the standards of the various stages of the courses proposed should be those of the British universities. The Asquith Commission is making recommendations as to how the British universities shall recognise the courses in university institutions in the Colonial Empire and also how co-operation between these institutions and the British universities can

best be promoted. We regard this co-operation as essential to our recommendations. The Asquith Commission is also recommending the establishment in Great Britain of an Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the colonies. We welcome this proposal.

The university colleges should themselves be centres of research and should collaborate closely with research organisations in West Africa such as the Institute of West African Industry, Arts and Social Sciences, and the West African Cocoa Research Institute, and with the research work of Government departments. The colleges should provide facilities for visiting research workers. The scale of staffing recommended will also allow members of the staff opportunities for research.

We have recommended that each college shall be governed by its own council, and that there shall be an advisory council for higher education in West Africa.

We have made a tentative estimate of the cost of our proposals for university development. In the near future capital expenditure would be in the region of one and a half million pounds and annually recurrent expenditure in the region of a quarter of a million pounds. We have recommended that at first the greater share of this expenditure should be met from the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund, and that the share to be met by the West African Governments should increase until they ultimately bear the whole cost.

We desire to draw special attention to the need for improvement in the education of girls.

We have recommended that there shall be a progress review of the whole situation at the end of five years.

We have considered higher education, not in isolation, but as an integral part of a complete educational system. We have reviewed the primary and secondary schools both in their general aspects and as the source of supply on which the university institutions would have to depend for the quality and the quantity of their students. We examined them also as fields of service for teachers who had been trained in the university colleges. We have accordingly included in our Report some suggestions for the general improvement and expansion of the primary and secondary school systems.

When we examined the system of technical education we considered that an immediate increase in facilities was so urgent that we should make recommendations on the subject. We have therefore recommended the appointment of three technical officers to survey the existing facilities as a whole, and to establish technical institutes in each of the three main dependencies.

The development of many of the services which are urgently needed in West Africa will depend greatly on the training of African staff and on the research work for which our proposals provide. We hope therefore that university development in West Africa will be regarded both in the West African dependencies and in Great Britain as a matter of great urgency.

SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS WITH REFERENCES TO THE RELEVANT CHAPTERS AND PARAGRAPHS OF OUR REPORT

Primary and Secondary Education

(Chapter II)

Curricula in Primary Schools.

Most of the children in the primary schools come from rural communities. The curricula in the schools should be much more closely related to the life and environment of the children. (*Paragraph II.*)

Staffing of Primary Schools

The primary schools should ultimately be staffed by teachers who have had at least a secondary education, and the secondary schools should be staffed by teachers who have had some post-secondary education in a university college. (*Paragraph 14.*)

Education of Girls

A great increase in the education of girls is an urgent necessity. (*Paragraphs 13, 34 and 38.*)

The Schools and Character Training

The schools must in future accept more responsibility for character training in view of the inroads upon the traditional system of home training which increased schooling inevitably entails. (*Paragraphs 41 and 42.*)

Teaching of Science

More facilities for the teaching of science are required in all secondary schools. The science curriculum should be brought into closer relation with the life and environment of pupils. More use should be made of local material for science lessons. (*Paragraphs 23, 24 and 25.*)

Teaching of English

The standard of spoken English is unsatisfactory. Specialist teachers of English in the secondary schools should if possible be English, until more advanced courses for African specialists in the phonetics of English are developed. (*Paragraph 26.*)

Qualifications and Status of Teachers

The academic qualifications of the great majority of the teachers must be raised. For the rapid raising of standards and for a rapid expansion of good secondary schools, enough Africans with the right qualifications cannot at present be found. As a temporary measure the employment of more Europeans with high qualifications is highly desirable. In the meantime as many selected Africans as possible should be sent to the United Kingdom to complete their training, until the necessary teacher training courses can be established in West Africa.

In this connection we have pointed out that unless conditions of service ensure to the teaching profession continuity, an adequate status, and a decent standard of living, the difficulties of securing and retaining adequate staffs will constantly recur. (*Paragraphs 27, 29 and 30.*)

Work Beyond School Certificate stage

Under present conditions, work beyond the school certificate stage must be postponed from school to college in West Africa. (*Paragraph 29.*)

Future Development of Higher Education in West Africa**(Chapter IV)****STEPS RECOMMENDED**

We recommend that there should now be set up a university college in Nigeria, and a university college in the Gold Coast, and that certain reorganisations and new developments of higher education should be carried through in Sierra Leone, in close connection with Fourah Bay College.

The university college in Nigeria should include faculties of arts and science and the professional schools of medicine, agriculture, forestry and animal health as well as a teacher training course.

The university college in the Gold Coast should include faculties of arts and science, and an institute of education, which would provide for research in education and for teacher training courses.

The university college in Sierra Leone should include courses in arts and science up to the Intermediate level and a teacher training course. With this, we hope, would be associated an arts degree course, intended mainly for theological students, and financed by the Church Missionary Society, who are the present authorities of the college. (*Paragraph 47.*)

Research

The university colleges should themselves be centres of research and should collaborate closely with research organisations in West Africa, such as the Institute of West African Industry Arts and Social Sciences, and the West African Cocoa Research Institute, and with the research work of Government departments. The colleges should provide facilities for visiting research workers. The scale of staffing recommended will also allow members of the staff opportunities for research. (*Paragraphs 11, 83, 97 and 110.*)

THE PROPOSED UNIVERSITY COLLEGES

NIGERIA

We recommend that there should be set up at Ibadan a university college providing:

Arts. Intermediate and degree courses.

Science. Intermediate and degree courses, including intermediate and degree courses in engineering, and a survey school for West Africa.

A School of Medicine for West Africa and a School of Dentistry for West Africa. See Chapter VI.

A School of Agriculture for West Africa, a School of Forestry for West Africa, a School of Animal Health for West Africa. See Chapter VII.

Teacher Training. (A two-year course.) See Chapter V. (*Paragraphs 80 and 82.*)

THE GOLD COAST

We recommend that there shall be developed at Achimota a university college providing:—

Arts. Intermediate and degree courses. (Including a course in Social Science to serve West Africa.)

Science. Intermediate and degree courses. (Including Intermediate engineering and, for the present, a degree course in engineering to serve West Africa.)

An Institute of Education for West Africa. (See Chapter V.) Providing for (a) Research in education, psychology and linguistics. (b) Teacher training courses, including one for graduates from all the British West African Colonies. (*Paragraphs 95 and 96.*)

SIERRA LEONE AND THE GAMBIA

We recommend that Fourah Bay College should be reconstituted, with a new site in the Freetown peninsula, and new buildings. The college should provide:—

Intermediate Science: The aim should be to establish as quickly as possible the teaching of four subjects in addition to mathematics.

Teacher Training: A two year professional course (see Chapter V).

Arts: Continuance, from private resources, of an arts degree course, suitable for theological students. This, we understand, is being considered by the Church Missionary Society.

The reconstituted Fourah Bay College should serve the Gambia as well as Sierra Leone in the range of Intermediate courses recommended. (*Paragraphs 100, 108, and 109.*)

ADMINISTRATION

Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies

We regard it as essential that each university college should have the closest possible contact with British universities. We understand that the Asquith Commission is recommending the establishment of an Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies to maintain touch with university institutions in the colonies. We consider such a body would be able to give suitable guidance to the growing university institutions in West Africa. (*Paragraph 112.*)

Organisation in West Africa

We recommend that there should be established a West African Advisory Council on Higher Education which would be concerned with the wider problems of organisation of higher education in West Africa, and would make recommendations from time to time concerning the further development of the three university colleges. (*Paragraph 116.*)

Non-academic administration

We recommend that for each university college the functions of non-academic administration and finance should be exercised by a council.

We believe that, when the colleges have been established, there might be set up for each a large representative body to be known as the Court of Governors.

There should be small advisory committees for each of the professional schools which, under our proposals, will not for the present be duplicated in West Africa. We recommend the establishment of advisory committees on medicine, agriculture, forestry and animal health at Ibadan, and an advisory committee on education at Achimota. (*Paragraphs 117, 118 and 119.*)

Academic administration

An academic body should be created immediately for each university college, to advise on courses and to interpret the academic needs of the college to its council and to the Inter-University Council on Higher Education in the Colonies. In matters relating to examinations, syllabuses and curricula, it would also be in contact, through the Principal, with the university concerned with the degree examinations. This body should be known as the Academic Board until such time as the college received its own charter, when the body would take on wider functions, including the award of degrees, and would be known as the Senate.

In the university college at Ibadan the schools of medicine, agriculture, forestry and animal health should form an integral part of the college and for administrative purposes should all be under the principal of the university college. (See Chapters VI and VII.) We recommend the establishment of separate boards of studies for (a) arts, (b) science, (c) medicine and (d) agriculture, forestry and animal health.

At Achimota the Institute of Education should form an integral part of the university college and for administrative purposes should be under the principal of the university college. We recommend the establishment of separate boards of studies for (a) arts, (b) science and (c) education.

In Sierra Leone the academic board at Fourah Bay College should not at this stage be sub-divided into boards of studies. (*Paragraphs 120 to 123.*)

Examinations

Degree examinations taken in West Africa should be equal in standard to those taken in the British universities. Qualifications obtained in West Africa should be regarded as an adequate basis for post-graduate work by other British universities. We understand that colonial colleges in general will be afforded facilities by London University, which will act as an examining body and will be prepared to approve syllabuses and curricula designed to meet the needs of colonial students. We are satisfied that such an arrangement will meet the immediate needs of West Africa, with the reservation that Fourah Bay College may prefer to retain its link with Durham University and allow its students to continue to work for Durham degrees.

As early as possible members of the staffs of the university colleges in West Africa should be given the opportunity to take some part in the examinations conducted on behalf of the University of London (or the University of Durham). (*Paragraphs 124 to 127.*)

BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT

General requirements

We recommend that buildings should be of simple construction, capable of modification and extension as conditions require, but that equipment should be extensive and modern, and that generous facilities for research should be provided. Residential buildings should provide individual rooms for each student as well as common rooms. It is essential that a good library and a good museum should be built up at each university college. (*Paragraphs 129 and 130.*)

The university college at Ibadan

A new site of not less than 1,000 acres should be acquired, to meet the needs of the university college, including the schools of medicine, agriculture, forestry and animal health. (*Paragraph 131.*) (Details of the buildings required are given in paragraph 132.)

Until these new buildings are ready the college should use the existing buildings at Yaba for its developing faculties of arts and science, its medical school and its teacher training department. Similar temporary arrangements should be made for the schools of agriculture and forestry at Ibadan. (*Paragraph 65.*)

The university college at Achimota

Buildings in the main compound at Achimota should be adapted and extended for the use of the university college. Residential buildings should be adapted to provide individual rooms for each student as well as common rooms. (*Paragraph 133.*)

Fourah Bay College

A new site in the Freetown peninsula and new buildings should be provided. (Details of the new buildings required are given in paragraph 139.)

FINANCE

Sites, buildings, equipment and staff

In the near future capital expenditure would be of the order of one and a half million pounds, and there would be an annual recurrent expenditure of about a quarter of a million pounds.

We have recommended that at first the greater share of the expenditure should be met from the Colonial Development and Welfare funds, and that the share to be met by the West African Governments should increase until they ultimately bear the whole expenditure. (*Paragraphs 68 and 69.*)

The estimates of the capital expenditure which may be required for sites, buildings and equipment have been indicated in the most general terms, and should be taken as guides rather than estimates.

The figures given for estimated recurrent expenditure relate to staffing when the colleges are established and have the numbers of students reasonably to be expected after possibly five years. Before that time, the cost of our proposals should be less than we have indicated. The figures of recurrent expenditure are based on estimates of salary levels which may not apply after the war. It is assumed that a professor should be paid at least £1,200 to £1,500, while junior staff will start at about £500, and more senior lecturers at higher levels.

Members of staff should become members of the Federated Superannuation Scheme for Universities. They should be given free air passages to enable them to take leave each year in the United Kingdom. (*Paragraphs 140 to 144.*)

The financial summary overleaf (pages 130 and 131) sets out in tabular form the relevant recommendations contained in paragraphs 140-147 of Chapter IV and in Chapters V, VI and VII.

Scholarships

There should be scholarships from the secondary schools to the university colleges for the Intermediate courses. There should be scholarships also for degree work for promising students who have completed their Intermediate courses. For some time to come there should be scholarships to enable selected graduates to spend two years in post-graduate work in Great Britain. (*Paragraphs 149 to 151.*)

REVIEW OF PROGRESS MADE AND REPORT TO THE SECRETARY OF STATE

There should be a review of the progress made, and of the financial allocations we have recommended, in five years' time. This progress report should be submitted by the councils of the three proposed university colleges to the Secretary of State for the Colonies, in order that he may consider the progress made by the three university institutions and the response to university development called forth locally. (*Paragraph 152.*)

FINANCIAL SUMMARY

A summary of the preliminary estimates of the cost of the proposals put forward in Chapters IV, V, VI and VII of the Report.

	Capital	Total	Recurrent	Total	Remarks
	£	£	£	£	
A. Projects to serve the whole of West Africa.					
<i>In Nigeria.</i>					
Schools of Medicine	500,000 ¹		40—50,000		¹ Includes a 1,000 bed hospital, part of the cost of which should be borne by the Nigerian Government.
Dentistry	60,000		5,500		
Agriculture	100,000		20,000		
Forestry	50,000		10,000		
Animal Health	—		20,000		
		710,000		95—105,500	
<i>In the Gold Coast.</i>					
Institute of Education	— ²		20,000		² Will eventually require more buildings as the university college grows.
Degree course in engineering	20,000 ³		3,000		
		20,000		23,000	
		730,000		118—128,500	
B. Projects to serve each territory.					
<i>(i) Nigeria.</i>					
Site, buildings and equipment	600,000 ⁴		—		³ To serve West Africa until degree courses in engineering are established at Ibadan in Nigeria.
Arts	—		16—20,000 ⁵		
Science	—		30,000		
Education	—		4,000		
Grants to laboratories and libraries	—		7,000		
Administration (including salary of Principal).	—		5,000		
		600,000		62—66,000	⁵ Less at start.
<i>(ii) Gold Coast.</i>					
Buildings and equipment	100,000		—		⁶ Less at start.
Arts	—		16—20,000		
Science	—		20,000 ⁶		
Grants to laboratories and libraries	—		5,000		
Administration (including salary of Principal).	—		5,000		
		100,000		46—50,000	

(iii) <i>Sierra Leone and Gambia.</i>						
<i>In Sierra Leone.</i>						
Buildings	100,000	—
Arts and Science—Intermediate	—	10,000
Education	—	2,000
Administration	—	2,000
						14,000
					100,000	
					800,000	122—130,000
<i>Total expenditure in each territory.</i>						
<i>(A and B Combined).</i>						
Nigeria	1,310,000	157—171,500
Gold Coast	120,000	69— 73,000
Sierra Leone and Gambia	100,000	14,000
TOTAL EXPENDITURE IN WEST AFRICA	1,530,000	240—258,500

The Supply and Training of Teachers

(Chapter V)

STAFFS FOR COLLEGES FOR THE TRAINING OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

The number of training centres and colleges should be substantially increased. (*Paragraph 12.*)

In future any European coming to the staff of a teacher training college should have a degree and a diploma of education or a professional certificate.

For African staff, the same qualification should be aimed at. But for the immediate future we recommend that Africans should have at least the qualification required for a secondary school teacher, that is, the successful completion of an Intermediate course and two years' professional training. The present African staff of these colleges should be carefully reviewed. Selected members of these staffs should be sent, as opportunity offers to the university colleges for special courses.

European staff should take refresher courses in the United Kingdom when on leave. Selected African staff should be given the opportunity to do likewise. The policy of sending "proved" African teachers on scholarships to the United Kingdom to be prepared for training college posts is welcomed. (*Paragraphs 14, 15 and 16.*)

STEPS RECOMMENDED FOR RAISING THE STANDARD OF TEACHING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

(a) All non-graduate African staff in secondary schools should have an opportunity of wider academic study in the atmosphere and surroundings of a university institution. A year's refresher course should be provided for these teachers at the university colleges.

(b) New African appointments should as soon as possible be from men and women who have passed through at least an intermediate course at one of the proposed colleges and a two year teacher training course. Staff of secondary schools should eventually be graduates with a diploma in education.

(c) Principals and leading members of staffs should attend refresher courses at the proposed Institute of Education when it is established. In the meantime they should be enabled to take short refresher courses in the United Kingdom. (*Paragraphs 7-9.*)

TWO-YEAR POST-INTERMEDIATE COURSES FOR THE TRAINING OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

(a) These should be regarded as professional courses and should not be mixed up with an attempt to extend the general education of the would-be teacher.

(b) At the university colleges there should be separate members of staff to direct this professional training.

(c) "Social studies" should be given an important place in the curriculum. (*Paragraph 11.*)

AN INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION FOR WEST AFRICA

An Institute of Education for West Africa should be established as part of the university college at Achimota in the Gold Coast. The work of the institute is considered under two heads:—

- (a) Research,
 - (1) education,
 - (2) psychology,
 - (3) language study and teaching.

(b) Training, providing at the start the following courses, all serving the whole of West Africa except course (1); which will also be provided in Nigeria and Sierra Leone.

(1) A two year course for those who have reached Intermediate standard.

(2) A one year course for graduates, who intend to teach mainly in secondary schools. Following English usage the title "Diploma in Education" should be reserved for this post-graduate course.

(3) A course lasting 6 or 12 months for specially selected or prospective members of training college staffs, to bring them into touch with new ideas and methods in education.

(4) A course lasting 6 or 12 months to train men and women for youth service.

(5) A course, lasting at first for one year, in physical education.

(6) A course for teachers of art.

(7) Some provision for teachers of music who could study Western and African music, in relation to singing, instrumental playing, and dancing. (*Paragraphs 17, 18, 19 and 23.*)

STAFF AND ADMINISTRATION

(a) *For the two-year post-intermediate courses in Nigeria and Sierra Leone.*

Staff

Where the number of students in both years of the training course combined does not exceed 20, a staff of one full-time head and one full-time assistant should suffice, provided part-time help were available. For each additional 15 students one full-time assistant should be added. (*Paragraph 25.*)

Administration

As regards administration, at the colleges in Nigeria and Sierra Leone the department of education will be of equal standing with the other academic departments. In the Gold Coast the post-intermediate teachers' training course will be a part of the work of the proposed Institute of Education for West Africa. (*Paragraph 26.*)

Finance

(See Summary of Chapter IV.)

(b) *For the Institute of Education for West Africa.*

Staff

(For recommendations see paragraph 29.)

Administration

The institute of education should form an integral part of the university college at Achimota. (*Chapter IV, paragraph 122.*)

There should be an advisory committee on education. This committee should include the senior members of staff of the institute and representatives of the four dependencies with experience in the particular field of study. (*Chapter IV, paragraph 119.*)

Finance

(See summary of Chapter IV.)

Medical and Health Education, including Dentistry

(Chapter VI)

MEDICAL SCHOOL FOR WEST AFRICA AND ITS TEACHING HOSPITAL

There should be created at Ibadan in Nigeria a single centre of medical education and research to serve for the present all the West African colonies. The buildings should be planned for an eventual intake of 80 students each year. A teaching hospital containing up to 1,000 beds should be provided. (*Paragraphs 21, 24 and 25.*)

The medical school and, if possible, the teaching hospital should be on the same site as the other buildings of the university college. (*Paragraph 39.*)

Staff

For an annual intake of 30 to 40 students there should be a staff of one professor, one senior and one junior lecturer in each of the following eight departments:—

- (1) anatomy.
- (2) physiology.
- (3) biochemistry.
- (4) pathology.
- (5) medicine.
- (6) surgery.
- (7) obstetrics and gynaecology.
- (8) social medicine and hygiene.

All these appointments should be on a full-time basis and the holders of posts in the clinical departments, including pathology, should not as a general rule engage in consultant practice. (*Paragraph 27.*)

In the earliest stages three members of staff for each department may not be required: in no case should there be less than two teachers in each department: three are essential when the annual intake exceeds 30 students.

When the annual intake exceeds 40 students, increases in staff will be required, in junior staff for the preclinical departments and in pathology, and in part-time lecturers for the clinical departments. (*Paragraph 35.*)

Research

The scale of staffing proposed will allow members to devote time to research. The medical school should become the centre for medical research in West Africa. It should collaborate with other bodies engaged in medical research and with members of the Colonial Medical Service. It should provide facilities for visiting research workers. (*Paragraphs 36 and 37.*)

The preparation of serological products as well as the work of clinical pathology and routine investigations should continue to be done at the Institute of Medical Research of the Nigerian Government. (*Paragraph 38.*)

Admission

The school should admit students of either sex under equal conditions. The academic qualification should be the passing of suitable subjects in the Intermediate science examination of a British university. The possession of an academic qualification alone should not entitle a student to admission to the medical school. (*Paragraphs 40 and 41.*)

Administration

The immediate governing body of the medical school should be the board of medical studies which would eventually become the faculty of medicine.

This board would be responsible to the academic board and the council of the university college. The general administration of the medical school should be carried out by a dean, whose office should be filled by the board of medical studies by the election of one of its members every four or five years. (*Paragraphs 43 and 44.*)

Standards

The immediate object of the school should be the institution at the earliest moment possible of a course of a standard which will be accepted for recognition by the General Medical Council, and be accepted for all purposes as fully equal to a British qualification. (*Paragraph 46.*)

The course should be of at least the same duration as a full medical course in Great Britain. There should be a post-qualification but pre-registration year to be devoted to house appointments and other forms of supervised training. (*Paragraph 47.*)

Finance

(See summary of Chapter IV.)

PROVISION OF QUALIFIED DENTISTS

Training facilities recommended

We recommend that

(1) a school of dentistry for West Africa should be established at Ibadan as an essential part of the intended faculty of medicine. This should be done as soon as possible.

(2) Until the school of dentistry is established, the Governments of the West African colonies should continue to provide scholarships to enable students to come to the United Kingdom to train as dental surgeons.

We recommend that a director of the proposed school of dentistry should be appointed at an early date. He should submit a detailed estimate of the requirements and of the cost of the proposed school, after a personal investigation of the problem. (*Paragraphs 49 and 50.*)

Finances

(See financial summary of Chapter IV.)

Training of dental assistants

The training of dental nurses, attendants and other subordinate staff should in the first instance be undertaken by the medical department in each colony in which there is a government dentist. (*Paragraph 52.*)

PROVISION OF ASSISTANTS FOR THE MEDICAL AND HEALTH SERVICES

The training of hospital nurses, community nurses, midwives, and dispensers, sanitary inspectors and health visitors, should continue to be carried out by the medical departments of the various governments, and should not be done at the proposed university institutions.

These assistants should be trained in considerable numbers. Exceptionally promising students should be given the opportunity to obtain medical and other professional qualifications. (*Paragraphs 53, 54 and 56.*)

Agriculture, Forestry and Animal Health (Chapter VII)

SCHOOLS OF AGRICULTURE, OF FORESTRY, AND OF ANIMAL HEALTH.

Location

The Schools of Agriculture and Forestry for West Africa should be established at Ibadan. Pre-clinical training of veterinary students should be carried out at Ibadan and should be followed by clinical training at Vom. The field station of the School of Animal Health for West Africa should be at Vom. (*Paragraph 26.*)

Admission and length of courses

The academic standard of admission to the professional courses in agriculture, forestry and animal health should be the passing of the Intermediate science examination of a British university in the subjects of chemistry, physics, and biology. Students should complete this course in the college serving their own territory. Agricultural and forestry students from all the territories should continue their studies for a further two years at the agricultural and forestry schools of the university college at Ibadan. Veterinary students, after one and a half to two years of pre-clinical training at Ibadan should spend the two to two and a half years of their clinical training at Vom. (*Paragraph 29.*)

Staff

At each school there should be at least two members of staff for each main subject of the curriculum. This scale of staffing is essential to provide continuity of teaching and to allow the staff time for research. In the teaching of special subjects this full-time staff should seek the part-time assistance of specialists in the various Government departments. There should be close collaboration between the staff of the college and the officers of these departments in research problems. (*Paragraphs 31 and 32.*)

Administration

The three schools should be integral parts of the university college. There should be a single board of studies for these three schools responsible to the academic board of the university college. There should be also a separate advisory committee for each school representative of the board of studies of the school and of the Government departments concerned. (*Paragraphs 30 and 33.*)

Residence of students

These students will be members of this university college and should share in its corporate life. They should not be housed in separate hostels. (*Paragraph 34.*)

SCHOOL OF AGRICULTURE

Site

The school should have a new site as part of the university college at Ibadan and 250-500 acres of ground for an experimental farm. (*Paragraph 36.*)

Standards

The course should aim from the start at reaching degree standards. Until that aim is achieved it should provide a course which would be recognised throughout the British Empire, and accepted as a qualification for colonial agricultural scholarships. (*Paragraph 37.*)

Staff

There should be a head of the school, who should act as the administrator of the school. In addition there should be two lecturers in each of the following subjects:—

- (1) agricultural chemistry,
- (2) agricultural botany,
- (3) entomology, } (would lecture also in school of forestry)
- (4) mycology, }
- (5) agricultural economics.

(Paragraph 39.)

Finance

(Paragraph 41.)

(See Summary of Chapter IV.)

SCHOOL OF FORESTRY

Site

The school should have a new site, as part of the university college at Ibadan. (Paragraph 44.)

Standards

The aim of the school should be to provide a degree course in forestry. Until that aim is achieved it should provide a course of similar scope, standard and status to that which has been recommended for the agricultural school. (Paragraph 45.)

Staff

There should be a head of the school. In addition there should be two lecturers in each of the following subjects:—

1. forest botany,
2. forest engineering.
3. forest economics.

(Paragraph 46.)

Finance

(Paragraph 47.)

(See Summary of Chapter IV.)

SCHOOL OF ANIMAL HEALTH

Sites: Ibadan and Vom

The teaching of such subjects as physiology, anatomy and pathology, the particular applications of which comprise veterinary medicine, should be carried out in association with similar teaching in medicine at the university college at Ibadan. This part of the course would last from one and a half to two years. Students of the school should spend the vacation of their first year at Vom.

The existing buildings and land of the Vom school should be taken over by the university college. Here the students should do the clinical part of their course, which would last from about two to two and a half years. (Paragraphs 51, 52 and 56.)

Standards

The school should aim at a standard equivalent to that reached in the M.R.C.V.S. course in Great Britain. (Paragraph 54.)

Staff

At Vom the staff should consist of a head, and two whole-time lecturers in each of the following subjects:—

- (1) veterinary medicine,
- (2) animal husbandry,
- (3) veterinary pathology and bacteriology.

In addition, specialised teaching of particular subjects might be given at Vom by officers of the Nigerian Veterinary Department on a part-time basis.

At Ibadan, the fundamental teaching in the subjects of pathology and physiology should be given by the staff of the medical school. The teaching of anatomy would require in addition a senior lecturer and a demonstrator. (*Paragraph 56.*)

Finance

(*Paragraph 57.*)

(See Summary of Chapter IV.)

Technical Education

(Chapter VIII)

I. TECHNICAL EDUCATION OFFICERS.

We recommend that forthwith three technical education officers of wide experience of technical work and technical education in the United Kingdom should be appointed:—

(a) to survey the existing facilities for technical and commercial training, and, in consultation with those planning the economic development of the area, and with each other, to make recommendations as to future development.

(b) to establish the technical institutes as outlined in our second recommendation.

(c) to supervise the future development of technical education.

One officer should be appointed for Nigeria, one for the Gold Coast, and one for Sierra Leone and the Gambia. Each officer should be of the rank of an assistant director of education, and should be a member of the education department of the territory concerned. (*Paragraph 26.*)

2. TECHNICAL INSTITUTES

We recommend that as soon as possible each of the three dependencies of Nigeria, the Gold Coast and Sierra Leone should have its own technical institute. The one in Sierra Leone should serve the Gambia also. (*Paragraph 26.*)

*General Outline for the Three Technical Institutes**Residence*

Each institute should be at least partly residential. A library and recreational facilities should be provided.

Courses

Technical, commercial, and, perhaps, art courses should all be available in each institution. The institutes should cater for the intermediate ranks of industry and commerce. To meet the great variety of needs, the courses and standards should be flexible.

Each institute should provide such facilities for further study as would enable the exceptional student to proceed to the university. (*Paragraphs 27 to 30.*)

Administration

Each technical institute should be under the education department of the territory, and should also have its own advisory committee. (*Paragraph 32.*)

Adult education

The technical institute should be a focus of interest for the youth of the country and for the adult population living round about it. (*Paragraph 33.*)

Facilities for Nigeria

The first institute should be at Yaba, and should use the buildings of the Higher College when these become vacant. It should include provision for much of the instruction at present being given in several Government departments.

Facilities for the Gold Coast

(i) This institute should, if possible, be established in the former buildings of the technical school at Takoradi. If these buildings cannot be released, a new technical institute should be built at Takoradi.

(ii) Commercial courses should also be established at Accra.

(iii) A technical school might with advantage be established to serve the mining area.

Facilities for Sierra Leone and the Gambia

A technical institute should be established in or near Freetown to serve the needs of Sierra Leone and the Gambia. (*Paragraph 35.*)

WALTER E. ELLIOT, *Chairman.*

J. R. DICKINSON.

J. F. DUFF.

B. MOUAT JONES.

K. A. KORSAH.

I. O. RANSOME KUTI.

EVELINE C. MARTIN.

E. H. TAYLOR-CUMMINGS.

A. E. TRUEMAN.

G. E. SINCLAIR,

Secretary.

5th May, 1945.

The following five members, Dr. H. J. Channon, Sir Geoffrey Evans, Dr. Julian Huxley, Mr. Creech Jones and Dr. Margaret Read, have signed the Minority Report which follows.

MINORITY REPORT

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INTRODUCTION

1. We are in general agreement with substantial parts of the foregoing Report, to which we have made no small contribution, but with the principles and the policy elaborated in Chapter IV we find ourselves in serious disagreement. We deeply regret the difference of opinion, particularly as we set out together with the common desire to make recommendations regarding the development of higher education in British West Africa which would fulfil the highest hopes of all interested in the welfare and progress of the West African peoples. That desire has remained with us all. But early in our discussions after our return to Britain, it became clear that in important respects our views regarding the best means of attaining the ends which we were all seeking, were widely divergent, and lengthy discussions have failed to reconcile them. In the pages which follow, we shall confine ourselves largely to consideration of an alternative policy, for we do not consider it necessary to point out or discuss the consequential changes in a number of other chapters which adoption of our own proposals would entail.

2. Our colleagues base their recommendations on the conception that the development of higher education in West Africa will at the moment be most fruitfully furthered by an extension of the scope and activities of the existing institutions towards university status. They recommend that Sierra Leone and the Gambia shall be served by a new Fourah Bay College, providing degree courses in arts, "mainly for theological students," and intermediate courses in arts and science; that in the Gold Coast, the existing intermediate courses in arts and science of the university department* at Achimota College shall be extended to degree level and an Institute of Education added; that the courses now being given in various parts of Nigeria, in science, agriculture, forestry, medicine, and animal health, shall be brought together in a new institution at Ibadan, and, with the addition of courses in arts and engineering, be raised to degree standard. The institution would be a Nigerian one, but the schools of medicine, agriculture, forestry, and animal health would serve the whole of West Africa (see paragraph 39). Our colleagues thus propose the establishment of three separate university colleges of varying degrees of comprehensiveness.

3. Our proposals are on the contrary founded on the belief that the development of higher education will be best promoted by the formation of a comprehensive unitary University College for the whole of British West Africa together with a Territorial College in each of the three larger dependencies† (see paragraph 27). We shall advance reasons which lead us to the view that the proposal of our colleagues to create three university colleges will defer for a considerable time the provision of the type of university education which we would wish to see established as soon as possible. In our opinion, their proposals do not pay sufficient attention to the question of the number of students likely to be available, nor to the difficulties of making the necessary provision of staff, equipment and finance; they involve a diffusion of effort and resources when all the circumstances suggest to us the urgent need of concentration, if realisation is not to be indefinitely postponed; they make what we regard as a provision for quantity when we would prefer one of higher quality, more soundly based. Lastly, we believe that there is danger that such proposals will lead to a wrong emphasis in educational development which may prove detrimental to the social and economic needs of the territories. We feel encouraged to express our opinions since each of us has

* See paragraph 112.

† Wherever the expression "the three main territories" or "dependencies" is used, we refer to (1) Nigeria (2) the Gold Coast, and (3) Sierra Leone together with the Gambia.

been interested in the development of colonial peoples for a long time and has worked actively on their behalf. It is because we feel that the proposals miss what appears to us to be a great opportunity for the advance of the West African peoples that we venture to suggest other methods.

General considerations

4. We must state at the outset that we have no doubts either as to the desirability or as to the urgent need of making provision for university education in British West Africa. We shall not therefore restate the case. Our aim indeed is that the West African territories shall be provided with a full range of university facilities at the earliest moment possible. In our view, the means we propose will alone ensure that adequate numbers of West African men and women can be trained to the highest standard in the different professions. Nor will anything less than these means serve the purpose of enabling West Africans to obtain in West Africa education which will justify them in feeling that they are on terms of professional equality with those who have been educated in Great Britain, or will fit them in the fullest sense to be pioneers in the much needed development of their own country.

5. This aim requires that any future university must have all the necessary material facilities planned and provided without delay:—a library, essential for all studies and particularly for those in arts, intensively built up from the beginning; adequate laboratories for practical instruction in the different branches of science and engineering with provision of appropriate equipment and apparatus; the complete range of practical facilities for such subjects as agriculture, animal health, forestry and clinical medicine; residential facilities worthy of the purpose they must serve.

6. It also requires that the staff must be adequate in number and of high calibre. The recognition outside West Africa of any university institution will depend not only on the quality of the teaching given to its students; it will depend equally on its research achievements. If the number of its staff is too small, its members will be too occupied with teaching and they will have little time or inclination to carry out and to supervise research, although the need for this is urgent. If the facilities are inadequate, staff of the calibre necessary to carry out research will not be attracted. Thus a vicious circle will be created.

7. There are two other points to which we attach much importance. No university institution can fulfil its purpose unless it is comprehensive in scope. It is not sufficient in the world of to-day that a student should acquire a narrowly vocational qualification of competence in a particular profession. He must acquire a much wider outlook on the problems of the world than can be given by isolated intensive study of his own subject. Students of a variety of faculties must work together in a single institution and share a corporate life. This is particularly necessary if Africans are to fit themselves for the higher posts in the different professions and for public life. We need not labour this point for it has been emphasised repeatedly in recent authoritative reports in Britain.

8. Lastly, no college aiming at university status can progress with any speed towards its goal unless the students entering it have been adequately equipped for university study. Their numbers too must be adequate. Both these conditions must be fulfilled to justify the costly provision of the necessary facilities, to provide impetus to development, and to help to attract the desired staff. We shall often have occasion to refer to what we have said in this and the three preceding paragraphs.

Secondary Education

9. We accept in full the observations in Chapter II concerning the handicaps under which the secondary schools labour. We would, however, add a further comment so that their difficulties may be more fully appreciated both in West Africa and in Great Britain.

10. In Britain, boys and girls are learning from their environment through all their waking hours. Moreover, and this is very important, their formal education in school is to a great extent in harmony with what they are absorbing from their general surroundings. In West Africa the situation is entirely different. The formal education in secondary schools cannot be said to be in harmony with African life and thought; in most respects it is alien to it; and the facilities available to the English child out of school hours are completely lacking. The pupil is under the heavy handicap of being taught in English, which to him is a foreign language and which he may not hear spoken save during his school hours; he lacks all the educational environment of the British home, family discussions, books, the wireless; theatres and cinemas employing the medium of English are largely non-existent; libraries and magazines play little part in his life. We understand that even in the boarding schools, where the general position is obviously better, the pupils naturally tend to relapse into their own vernacular outside the hours of formal instruction.

11. At the same time we must sympathise with the difficulties of the teachers. A very high proportion of the 559 teachers in the secondary schools* of British West Africa are West Africans. While almost all of them have received the best courses of teacher training available in West Africa, the academic qualifications of more than three-fifths of their number is no more than the possession of the School Certificate, and in some cases, less. We make these observations in no spirit of criticism either of the pupils or the teachers. Indeed we greatly admire the cheerful way in which teacher and pupil face the great handicaps under which they labour. But as a result of these and other handicaps, the average age of entry to the School Certificate examination is 20 +, while the age of admission to the West African Colleges is about 21 +; in England this examination is usually taken at the age of 16 + and the student usually enters the university at 18 + after two years further education at school. This background of secondary education has important implications on our conclusions.

12. The present conditions both of secondary education and of life in West Africa thus mean that pupils leave the schools with a general education which is far too limited for them to begin true university study. To quote from evidence submitted by the Council of Achimota College, as to its university† department: "The method of instruction approximates more to the classroom than to the lecture room. It has been found by experience that students are not capable of profiting from lectures alone, although as their course proceeds, they are taught to work more and more on their own, as a preparation for further studies." This state of affairs is inevitable and it will persist until the secondary schools are able to undertake sixth form teaching as it is understood in Great Britain. Some years will elapse before this practice which, in our view, is essential to sound educational development, can become general or perhaps even begin. The present deficiencies of schooling must therefore be met by the colleges to which the students proceed on completion of the school certificate, and two years are devoted to the intermediate course which in Great Britain occupies one year. Even on successful completion of

* See Table V of Appendix III.

† See paragraph 112.

the latter course, the West African student must, for the reasons given in the two preceding paragraphs, be at a handicap compared with the English student at the corresponding stage in a university of Great Britain.

13. We give a few illustrations of the difficulties under which the West African labours who is seeking higher education. Thus we may note that of the 30 students who reached the various London intermediate examinations in 1942 after the two year course given at Achimota College, only 18 passed; that there has been a 20 per cent. wastage rate at Yaba Higher College even though the entrance examination is highly competitive and the various courses have yet to reach degree level; that of the average annual entry of 8 Fourah Bay students for the Durham B.A. degree, 3 have been successful. Or we may cite the results of West African students who have come to study medicine in three of the medical schools of Great Britain since 1931; 15 of these 43 students left because of repeated failure in the earlier examinations. We give these illustrations because they reveal some of the difficulties which must be faced; these difficulties are not peculiar to West Africa, for they have been encountered in other regions where secondary education is inadequate.

14. There is much experience from other colonial areas to show the handicaps under which any college labours when it is burdened with the task of making good the deficiencies of secondary education. Instead of being free to concentrate on its development as a university institution, it tends to become a continuation school; there is always a heavy wastage rate of unsuccessful students; the development of the research and other activities properly associated with a university institution is almost impossible, for under such conditions staff of the quality required are not attracted; lastly, the best students whose presence would contribute so much to the creation of the high standards required, naturally prefer to go elsewhere. Colleges founded in such conditions as our colleagues propose will doubtless reach their goal ultimately; but their progress will be exceedingly slow and it will be a very long time before they can include anything of the range of activities which will provide their students with a genuine university education. This method of university development is academically unsound and economically wasteful in any institution aiming at full university status other than as a very distant objective. In our view it would be unwise to ignore the lessons to be learnt from colonial experience elsewhere.

THE POTENTIAL NUMBER OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

15. If a university is to come into being within any reasonable period of time, it is not the extent of the area to be served nor indeed the size of its population which must be considered. It is the capacity of the area to supply an adequate flow of students able to pursue successfully degree courses within the period normally allocated to these courses in universities in Great Britain. As in Great Britain, so in West Africa, the capacity of secondary school pupils varies; some are capable of proceeding a stage further to intermediate study, others to a degree level, while for the majority the completion of secondary education will be the stage at which academic instruction will cease, for they will take up immediate occupations or proceed to vocational education. We turn to consider the potential number of entrants for university study.

16. Our colleagues stress the considerable increase in the number of pupils passing the School Certificate examination which in 1943 amounted to 739 (Gambia 5, Sierra Leone 34, Gold Coast 195, Nigeria 505). Of this total, 620 were drawn from the 884 candidates who entered from secondary schools; the remaining 119 were derived from 481 private entrants.

17. Figures of successes in the School Certificate examination acquired under colonial conditions must however be used with caution in attempting any estimate of the number of students capable of pursuing university study successfully. Thus the Report on Higher Education in Malaya pointed out the difficulties which were encountered in the achievement of the desired standards at Singapore, where work was confined to medicine and dentistry and to a limited number of subjects in arts and science; yet in 1938, nearly 2,800 pupils took the School Certificate examination in Malaya.

18. The significance of the West African figures must be considered in relation to the educational background which we have just discussed, and we must therefore rely on the opinions of those who have wide local experience. Here we would refer to the considered views of the Council of Achimota College which draws students from all the Colonies, a proportion of whom subsequently study in British Universities. "At the present time the Gold Coast alone produces about 45 students a year who are qualified to commence an intermediate course, of whom at least 20 are fitted for degree work," and later, "We consider that a West African University would be able to enrol annually a total of at least 60 students from the start who would be fitted for degree work."

19. We recognise that this number is only an estimate. But even if all these 60 students wished to pursue courses in the range of professional studies which the Commission unanimously recommends should be established—arts, science, engineering, medicine, dentistry, agriculture, forestry, veterinary science, social studies and teacher training—such an annual entry will certainly not allow of the multiplication of university facilities in three or even in two places. Indeed, it would be much too small to meet the needs of a single institution embracing all these subjects. We must also recognise that for some years ahead a significant proportion of students will certainly wish to go to England to study subjects such as law, medicine, and the like.

20. We add a further comment concerning the intake. Our evidence suggests that the increase in the number of pupils passing the School Certificate cannot proceed much further until more secondary schools and better teaching are provided. Here we would emphasise that whatever increase there may be in the years immediately ahead, it cannot add greatly to the potential annual entry of 60 degree students, which represents about 1 in 11 of those passing the School Certificate. This entry will rise appreciably only when the quality of secondary education is markedly improved, and when the use of English becomes much more widespread; time will be required for the achievement of both these objects.

21. Nevertheless we are convinced that immediate steps should be taken to provide adequate facilities for higher education in West Africa. This conviction is not a matter of faith only; it is supported by the evidence we have gathered and the educational activities we have witnessed. We are, for instance, encouraged in this view by the performance of West African students in Great Britain, to which many now come to seek degree or similar qualifications. As we pointed out in the example given in paragraph 13, some of these students return home with unfulfilled hopes. A proportion, however, acquit themselves well. Thus in this same example, 9 of the 21 students who have successfully completed their medical courses have done so with no failure or only one failure in the five examinations entailed, an achievement with which any British student would be justifiably satisfied. We also have faith that the proposals we make in paragraph 81 (that wider opportunity shall be given to students to show their capacity for university study) will lead to the discovery of further students of the calibre required. We anticipate also that our recommendations in paragraphs 83-84 will improve the quality of second-

dary education without undue delay. We have no doubt that these and other factors will in the years ahead justify the heavy capital and recurrent expenditure which must be undertaken now.

A WEST AFRICAN UNIVERSITY COLLEGE

22. We encountered in West Africa the almost unanimous desire of representative African opinion that any facilities for higher education provided should be of high quality. It was constantly urged upon us that West Africans must be able to obtain in their own country at the earliest moment both university education and qualifications equivalent to those which they could obtain in Great Britain; status and quality were always to the forefront of discussion. We agree with this view which we regard as of high importance. In our opinion, the proposals of our colleagues to establish three university colleges will not satisfy this requirement. We base our conclusion not only on the grounds of the limited number of students available; we invite particular attention to our remarks in paragraph 14 and to our subsequent discussion.

23. There is however another approach to university development in the conditions of West Africa to-day, which is, in our opinion, much more likely to be fruitful and to yield more certain and rapid results. This method is to create a new West African institution aiming at high quality in university teaching and research from the start. Students would not be admitted to it direct from the secondary schools; admission would be confined to those who had shown their capacity by successful completion of the first stage of a university course. This would be effected by passing, in the territorial college of their own dependency (see paragraph 27), the intermediate arts or science examination of London or other British University.

24. In our view, the urgent needs and desires of West Africa can be met only by the creation of such a new West African institution, serving all the dependencies. A West African University College of this type, provided with all the material facilities necessary for a full range of studies from the start and concerned only with students of proven capacity, would succeed in attracting staff of the university experience and quality to be desired. These three factors—adequate material facilities, capable students and a staff of quality—which are all within the range of achievement in the next few years, would provide great impetus to its development both in teaching and research. We do not doubt that within a short time, and particularly in view of certain of the recommendations of the Asquith Commission, it would enable Africans to acquire in West Africa degree and other professional qualifications receiving recognition in Great Britain and elsewhere. It would at the same time provide an intellectual centre with adequate material facilities and the staff necessary to carry out research work vital to the progress of West Africa and essential to the recognition of any university institution. Unencumbered by the handicaps to progress which we discuss in paragraph 14, it could proceed with vigour forthwith to the progressive building up of academic standards in teaching and research which would lead to the attainment of the status of an autonomous university awarding its own degrees.

25. We therefore recommend the creation of a unitary residential West African University College. This College would provide equal opportunity to students of all the dependencies, and the three main territories would be equally represented on its governing body. We discuss this College in detail in paragraphs 60-77.

26. This recommendation is in harmony with the views expressed by the Asquith Commission as to the principles which should govern the development

of universities in the Colonies. A similar recommendation has been made regarding the projected University of the West Indies by the West Indies Committee of the Asquith Commission. We would do no more than point out that in the Caribbean area public education is far more advanced than in West Africa and that the distances separating the Colonies to be served are similar.

TERRITORIAL COLLEGES IN THE GOLD COAST, NIGERIA AND SIERRA LEONE

27. We also recommend that the Gold Coast, Nigeria and Sierra Leone, which for this purpose would include the Gambia, should each possess what we shall describe as a Territorial College, the functions of which we discuss fully in paragraphs 78-98. Here we would say that each Territorial College would provide courses up to the Intermediate level for potential entrants to the West African University College, for those who wished to prepare for more advanced technical and other vocational training, or to fit themselves to hold posts of greater responsibility than would otherwise be open to them. Each would become a vigorous centre for training teachers for secondary and primary schools and social welfare workers. Each would act as the centre from which extra-mural activities and extension work in the broadest sense would be conducted. In a word, each Territorial College would make itself the growing point of education in its colony. On the one hand, it would be in close contact with the work of the West African University College, for entry to which it would prepare its students and on the governing body of which it would, as we discuss in paragraph 97, be represented. On the other, through its training of teachers and the many activities we discuss in full later, it would bring its full weight to bear on the general problem of increasing the spread of education to the mass of the peoples and of raising the general standard of life.

28. As secondary education spreads and the West African University College becomes firmly established, there will be need for the creation of further university facilities in the different dependencies, so that ultimately each will doubtless come to possess its own university; we refer to this question in paragraph 101. But some time must pass before such developments are practicable and we are concerned here with the problem immediately confronting us. We therefore confine ourselves to expressing the belief that the method we have proposed of a West African University College, fed by Territorial Colleges, which also exercise the other functions we have briefly mentioned, is, in our view, not only more in the interests of West Africa as a whole, but calculated to achieve both short-term and long-term university development more quickly.

THE EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND OF WEST AFRICA

29. The development of university education or any other form of education must be related to the social and economic needs of the peoples. We are deeply conscious of the character and the urgent importance of these West African needs. We shall not discuss them at length, for brief mention of the educational picture only will illustrate them. There are estimated to be some five and a half million children of school-going age in British West Africa. Even in areas where education is most advanced, only one child in six receives any education whatever; in the territories as a whole, only one in thirteen. And as to secondary education, a total of no more than 11,500 pupils attend secondary schools, not all of them for a full secondary course. This is the background against which we submit our recommendations.

We now turn to present in more detail our objections to the majority proposals for the immediate creation of three university colleges.

AN EXAMINATION OF THE MAJORITY PROPOSALS

30.—(a) *The undesirability of institutions of narrow academic range.*

We have pointed out in paragraph 7 the reasons which lead us to the view that any university institution can only succeed in its educational purpose if it is comprehensive in scope. We cannot therefore agree with our colleagues' view that the Church Missionary Society should be encouraged to continue providing for degree courses in arts only at Fourah Bay College, divorced as they must be for many years to come from similar studies in science; we examine this matter in more detail in paragraphs 118-122.

31. We hold similar views regarding their proposal that degree courses in arts should be provided forthwith at Achimota, and that corresponding courses in science should be added "as soon as possible." We point out that the great extension of the social services which will be brought into being in Great Britain after the war will require very considerable increases in university staff, just at the time when the effects of the war on university education have reduced the supply of potential candidates to much below normal; there will also be large demands from all the dependencies of the Colonial Empire. Our colleagues implicitly recognise this difficulty. They suggest that if sufficient staff cannot be found, there should be preferential allocation of such science staff as may be available to their proposed Nigerian College at Ibadan. If this occurs—and it can only occur by arrangement between the respective dependencies at a time when each will be struggling to establish full facilities in its own college—Achimota College will for some years ahead be concerned with degree studies in arts only, while it is likely that the degree work of the Ibadan College will be confined to science and professional subjects.

32. We do not need to stress the undesirability of such a method of development, for it is contrary to much authoritative opinion which has been expressed in recent years in Great Britain. We would add that our visit to West Africa left us deeply impressed with the intense need for the development of studies in arts and science to the same level *side by side*. While we recognise the desirability of providing in West Africa degree facilities in arts and science as soon as possible, we would nevertheless regard some delay in their provision as preferable to their divorce from one another.

33. Such developments at Achimota and Ibadan as are suggested by the majority might lead eventually to a federal type of university organisation. While federal universities exist in Great Britain, they owe their existence not to deliberate design but to historical circumstance. They have come into being usually because experience showed that individual colleges founded earlier to meet local needs or to provide for particular subjects could not, by reason of finance, numbers of students, or their general range of studies, justify their elevation to the status of universities. Little if any support can be found for the federal conception among university opinion in Great Britain. In our view, it would be unfortunate if the experiences of Great Britain in this matter were repeated in West Africa.

(b) *The prosecution of research.*

34. We consider that the majority proposal that degree facilities in arts and science should be duplicated at Achimota and Ibadan will greatly hinder the development of research activities in both these and allied fields of study. We base this opinion on the considerable experience which shows how difficult it is for colleges or even universities in the Colonies to include within their activities what we should regard as a sufficient emphasis on research.

35. In West Africa, research in science must be concerned mainly with the biological subjects such as botany and zoology, and with the application of these subjects and of chemistry and physics to medicine, animal health, agriculture and forestry. Research in pure chemistry and physics, and in engineering will not be possible for many years ahead. In our view, every endeavour should be made to build up a first class scientific centre by concentration of scientific development at the West African University College at Ibadan, where co-operation with those working in medicine, animal health, agriculture and forestry will provide both the environment and impetus to the carrying out of much-needed scientific research, and will at the same time greatly aid research in these subjects themselves. West Africa is in desperate need of such a scientific centre, and its creation will prove impossible unless the necessarily costly facilities both for teaching and research are provided in full measure at a single institution. Even so, the recruitment of the desired staff will not be easy; the difficulties are indeed likely to be far greater than in other subjects, because of the large demands for the projected expansion of industrial and other applied research in Great Britain.

36. We do not need to say that we share our colleagues' views that any university institution can justify itself only if its teaching receives the continued inspiration of research. We fear, however, that their proposals to duplicate facilities in science must inevitably defeat the end in view. We base our conclusion, not only on the diffusion of material resources, the difficulties of staffing and the number of students likely to be available; we also point out that under their proposals, the staff will be burdened by making good the deficiencies of the school education, since, in contrast to the professional courses, students will be admitted direct from school.

37. The arguments which we have just put forward in regard to science, apply in our opinion with equal force to arts, where such problems as the creation of an adequate library, and the conduct of research in such subjects as education and sociology, present no less difficulty.

38. We turn to comment on the training of West Africans in research methods on which our colleagues lay much stress. We wish to emphasise that, in Great Britain, training in research is limited to those students who have acquired a first or second class honours degree in arts or science, or have achieved a correspondingly high standard in the professional subjects. We mention also that the conduct of much of the research work carried out to-day depends on the availability to the academic staff of research students who collaborate with them. The future development of research in any university institution in West Africa must depend on the establishment of courses for honours degrees, and we have no doubt that our proposal for the creation of a single university institution will hasten the establishment of such courses. In the interim period, it will ensure that everything possible has been done to make practicable the conduct of research by the staff.

(c) *The proposal for concentration of certain subjects in a Nigerian Institution.*

39. As regards agriculture, forestry, medicine and veterinary science, our colleagues share our view as to the need of a single centre, and as to the scope and quality of the provision to be made; these are described in Chapters VI and VII. We all recognise that the standard of teaching and research in these subjects in West Africa can be made to approach those in Great Britain only if all effort is concentrated on the development of single schools, admission to which shall be the passing of the intermediate science examination. Our colleagues' proposal, however, that the concentration should be effected in a *Nigerian* college seems to us gravely to jeopardise the purpose

in view. The task of building up the professional standards which West Africans desire is an immensely difficult one. It will not be accomplished without the driving force which can be provided only by the combined efforts of all the peoples of British West Africa. In our view, these and other studies should be concentrated in a *West African* and not in a purely Nigerian institution; the college should be supported by all the British territories in West Africa, and the peoples of all the four dependencies should share in its government and in responsibility for its success and progress.

40. As we have just said, the arguments to which our colleagues subscribe regarding the professional subjects, apply in our opinion with no less force to arts and science. Equally, the West African University College should embrace the Institute of Education, discussed in Chapter V, as well as a school of engineering.

(d) *The number of West Africans in universities of Great Britain and their subjects of study.*

41. We have already mentioned some of the evidence which bears on the number of students likely to be available for university study; we have also indicated our view that in planning university development it is necessary to differentiate between those who are capable of proceeding to intermediate level only and those who can reach degree standard. We desire to point out here that the gross total of the number of students pursuing various post-school-certificate courses, either in West Africa or in Great Britain, gives no indication of the nature of the university facilities which must be provided; such figures must be analysed in relation to the subjects under study and to the length of the courses involved.

42. We shall not discuss this question further in relation to the courses taken by students in West Africa itself. We turn however to consider it in relation to the 249 West Africans who are studying in British universities. We note that 66 of these students are pursuing courses for which provision will not yet be made in West Africa (law 36, African languages 8, commerce 13, architecture 1, other subjects 8). There are two outstanding figures in the remaining 183, namely 76 in medicine and 30 in social science.

43. As to medicine, the considerable figure bears out experience throughout the Colonial Empire where usually between one-third and sometimes more than a half of the students seeking university education choose to become doctors. The fact that the number of students making this choice bears a high proportion to the total students available, and that it includes a majority of the more able students, is an important factor in the greater progress which is made in medicine as compared with other subjects. This number of 76 corresponds to an annual entry of about 13 to the six-year medical course. This would form a useful beginning for the proposed Medical School at Ibadan, which is planned for an eventual annual entry of 80 students.

44. As to social science, the students involved are taking a special two year elementary course, designed to enable beginnings to be made in the initial staffing of welfare posts in the dependencies. The remaining students are distributed over a wide range of subjects; they include 8 in teacher training, 9 in dentistry, 12 in engineering and about 20 each in arts and science. We submit that the latter three figures (which correspond, for courses of three or four years in length, to an annual entry of from 3 to 6) provide no support for the multiplication of degree facilities in engineering, arts, or science, at this stage of university development in West Africa.

45. We would add two points. First, that some of the courses now being taken in Great Britain in universities and elsewhere, such as social science,

teacher training, etc., would under our proposals be provided mainly in the Territorial Colleges. Second, that experience has shown that students are far less likely to encounter failure in their university studies in Great Britain, if the deficiencies of their school education have been first made good by study in a West African college, where they have shown their capacity by reaching intermediate or higher standard. This is one of the factors which leads us to make our recommendations regarding the Territorial Colleges, for as we have said, we wish to see much wider opportunity provided for West Africans to show their fitness for university or other higher study either at the West African University College or in Great Britain.

(e) *The need for a balanced educational policy.*

46. The picture which we have given of the educational background of West Africa in paragraph 29 shows that there are immense tasks ahead in every sphere of education, from the spread of literacy and elementary knowledge to the masses of the people to the production of professionally trained men and women. There are equally pressing needs in every other sphere of human activity. There is the need to improve the general lot of the peoples by raising the standards of their health by better nutrition and housing, by provision of pure water supplies and sanitation, and by the prevention of disease; and the need to provide better communications, to promote industry and a vastly improved agricultural productivity, on which economic development and better standards of living in West Africa must largely depend. Education is indispensable to economic development, for without it little improvement in the present low standards of life is possible. Nor can effective progress towards self-government be made without both educational and economic development, for a self-governing country, in the sense we understand self-government, must be capable not only of providing efficient administrators and legislators; it must aim at being financially self-supporting.

47. The social, political and economic development of the territories will therefore require very large numbers of trained personnel for all the intermediate posts in the various public, technical, commercial and industrial spheres; in agriculture, forestry, veterinary science, medicine, engineering, transport, communications, the Civil Service, commerce and the like. The building up and progress of West Africa depends on an adequate supply of men and women, of secondary education followed by suitable technical training, to serve the expanding services and essential needs of their respective countries. We emphasise that the capacity of every qualified professional man can be utilised to its full extent only if there are many such men and women able to work under his direction. If therefore the schemes now being planned by Colonial Governments under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act are to be implemented, there must be a wide extension and improvement of vocational and technical education. Very large numbers of secondary school pupils will be required to undertake the theoretical and practical training necessary to fit them for the many intermediate posts which will have to be filled.

48. We mention this matter first because we lay much emphasis on the development of post-secondary vocational education. Secondly, because we fear that in their desire to justify their proposals for the immediate establishment of a university college in each of the three larger dependencies, our colleagues have given a picture which to some may be misleading. It would be unfortunate if the impression were conveyed that secondary school or college education should be mainly directed to the preparation of students for university education. Comparison with Great Britain is instructive here. In England and Wales, only one in six or seven of secondary school pupils

who have passed the School Certificate or Higher School Certificate examinations enter university institutions. We desire to emphasise that the economic and social progress of a country demands simultaneous progress in education at all levels. The history of education in India illustrates this point. There is, we hope, little likelihood for a long time ahead of the occurrence in West Africa of the problem of the unemployed graduate which has been met in India. But Indian experience does illustrate the necessity of a balanced provision of education at all levels, the importance of relating the development of education to an expanding social and economic life, and the need for high quality in higher education.

49. In our view, the suggestion of our colleagues that three university colleges should be established at this stage, may lead not only to a lack of balance in educational policy but also to a lack of balance in educational expenditure. We are not discussing in this report the considerable expenditure required in all the other services concerned with health and social welfare; nor the limitations imposed on educational expenditure by the pressure of other urgent priorities. Colonial Governments and the British Exchequer are already committed for some years ahead to wide and costly schemes of educational development at the lower levels. Even so, such knowledge as we have of these schemes leads us to believe that they will make only a limited inroad into the problem of providing universal public education for all children.

50. We desire to point out that the cost of a university college does not end with the initial capital outlay and the recurrent provision of its initial annual expenditure. Once established on a narrow basis, it naturally endeavours to widen its activities and to become all-embracing in its range; there then follow demands for greatly increased expenditure. Such a development is obviously much to be desired if conditions are favourable and if quantitative provision is not made at the sacrifice of quality. In present colonial conditions, however, this can rarely be accomplished; lack of an adequate number of students of the requisite quality, and inability to attract staff of the necessary calibre, make its achievement impossible. In our view, the establishment of three college centres of restricted scope, struggling at this stage to develop to university status, and providing in each territory at an unjustifiably high public cost courses for small numbers of students, is not the wisest use which can be made of the money available for education in general, nor is it in the best interests of the social progress of the West African peoples. In the circumstances of West Africa to-day, and for some time to come, such colleges cannot hope to achieve the educational standards or the university life which we believe desirable.

51. In making these comments, we are not prompted by any doubt as to the desirability of incurring the heavy capital and recurrent expenditure which will be necessary if proper university facilities are to be provided. Indeed, as we have already indicated, we wish every capable West African to be given the opportunity of availing himself of such facilities. We are however concerned that there shall be an adequate return on the heavy expenditure, and that the lessons to be learnt from colonial experience elsewhere shall be carefully weighed.

EVIDENCE

52. We received in West Africa a considerable volume of evidence in support of our main view. Even though there were differences of opinion regarding the siting of the university, the general view expressed was in favour of a comprehensive West African university.

53. Thus our attention was drawn to the resolution of the noteworthy 1920 Accra Conference of representative African delegates from the four dependencies, chosen by the educated community in each territory. It declared for a British West African University on such lines as would "preserve in the students a sense of African nationality," and for a system of sound secondary education on national lines in each colony "which shall form a sound nucleus for the formation of the proposed British West African University."

54. This idea has continued ever since among West Africans. We found African opinion in the Gold Coast united in demanding a single West African University. The Asantehene of Ashanti (Otumfuo Sir Osei Agyeman Prempeh II, K.B.E.), when asked if his people would attend a West African University which was not sited in Ashanti, replied, "Yes, my people will not mind where the university is, so long as it is in British West Africa and they have access to it." The chiefs of the colony, through the Standing Committee of the Joint Provincial Council of Chiefs of the Eastern, Central and Western Provinces of the Gold Coast colony, told us that the three existing colleges provided "*the basis for a future West African University.*" "It is evident that the time for the founding of such a university has arrived or will soon arrive. We are of the opinion that the work at Achimota requires extension, that of Fourah Bay and Yaba not excepted. The most economical means of extension which will above everything else give our children the fullness of life that higher education can provide, appears to be *a central university capable of ensuring a true university life which is beyond the scope of any one of the existing centres.*"*

55. The Gold Coast Youth Conference, regretting the limitation of the Commission's enquiry to British West Africa, said, "It is our view that the system of regional councils now made part of the policy of His Majesty's Government could be more effectively applied to higher education than to any other activity. If a real centre of learning adapted to the needs of the people of West Africa is to achieve its cultural and development purpose, what should be visualised by His Majesty's Government in this enquiry must be the establishment of a seat of learning for all West Africa, that is to say the West Sudan, in which the Governments of France, Liberia and Britain will participate." The Youth Conference naturally favoured the establishment of the university of British West Africa in the Gold Coast, but stated that they had considered the possibility of smaller universities, each territory with its own. "It is our view that, both from the academic and administrative point of view, smaller universities will be a tough and uncertain proposition because of want of money, want of a fully developed economic life and want also of fully integrated communities conscious fully of their own educational needs. A start may therefore be made *with one university in one centre with a possibility of establishing other universities at other centres as the countries and the peoples develop*, to justify the subsequent spreading out of our energies." We received evidence similar to the view expressed in the last sentence from the Gold Coast Teachers' Union and from the Accra Town Council.

56. When Mr. Coussey, a distinguished African lawyer, then serving on the Governor's Executive Council and now appointed a Judge of the Supreme Court, was asked whether he thought all the dependencies would send their children to a unitary university for British West Africa, he replied "I think every colony would co-operate. We hope there will be a university which will serve not only the British Colonies but also the French Colonies." He thought such a university would have the full support of West Africa "because it would from the outset be engaged in research and teaching and turning

* Italics in paragraphs 54-58 are ours.

out men who would benefit the country greatly . . . I personally feel that one university and one unit, where all would live together and share common studies, would do a great deal to break down the barriers between the different colonies." The Director of Education, Mr. Gerald Power, C.M.G., also expressed his views in favour of a residential West African unitary university, provided it offered a full university life.

57. The most detailed evidence was offered to the Commission in a memorandum by the Achimota College Council, a comprehensive and representative body of men and women, African and European, academic, official and lay, who have been in the closest touch with the development of West African education for many years. After examining the advantages of a university of a semi-federal type and of a federal type, the Council rejected emphatically these forms of university and urged the Commission to consider establishing "*a unitary university situated in one of the colonies, supplying the needs of all British West Africa,*" with centres for higher study in agriculture, forestry and veterinary science "associated with it but located in appropriate areas." When faced with the possible objection that the colony with the unitary university might have an advantage over others, that such a university would involve much travelling on the part of students, and that local differences between the various colonies might make cultural unity difficult in the university, the Council said,

(i) "The tendency is for British West Africa to draw together in administration (e.g. the Resident Minister's organisation) and for purposes of research (e.g. on cocoa); a central unitary university would be in keeping with probable developments, and would assist in the creation of joint technical services.

(ii) No more travelling would be involved than in a semi-federal university, and it may be anticipated that after the war inter-colonial travelling will be easier and less expensive.

(iii) Nigerian students have been attending both Fourah Bay and Achimota for some time; there are now students at Achimota from Nigeria, Sierra Leone and the Gambia. No serious cultural disunity has been experienced."

"We feel also that a unitary university has certain definite advantages:—

(i) An adequate number of students will be available for a full variety of courses.

(ii) It will be much easier to provide the necessary staff, and there will be a considerable saving on salaries.

(iii) The administration of the university will be more efficient and less expensive.

(iv) A full university life affording social contact between workers in different fields will be possible.

(v) Students from the four territories will become better acquainted with each other, and will face the common problems with fuller understanding.

(vi) Proper provision can be made for research."

58. "*We therefore recommend that the University of British West Africa should be unitary in form, and that it should have a Governing Body fully representative of the four colonies. As education expands in the future, the time may come when, one by one, the colonies may establish universities of their own, but we consider that present conditions require a unitary university, for only in that form can a University of British West Africa maintain a proper academic standard. We consider also that it is essential that the university should be residential.*"

59. This, we would point out, is the same plan that we propose. It means applying in the sphere of higher education the same principle of inter-territorial co-operation which has proved of benefit in a number of other problems of common interest in West Africa. All who are familiar with the problems and needs of colonial development and welfare recognise the role which planning, common services, and joint research schemes over wide areas play in such matters.

THE WEST AFRICAN UNIVERSITY COLLEGE

(a) *Site.*

60. In our opinion, the West African University College should be established in Nigeria. The vast population and area of that territory are but two reasons for this proposal. The evidence we received convinces us that on realistic grounds a single West African university could not well be situated elsewhere than in Nigeria.

61. Both our colleagues and ourselves have expressed the view that a university institution, with certain departments serving the needs of West Africa as a whole, should be established at Ibadan. We go further, and recommend that Ibadan should be the site of the West African University. Any decision on the site of an institution which is to serve a number of colonies must inevitably prove disappointing to some. But in the main report we agree with the powerful reasons there set forth as to why Ibadan suggests itself as the natural centre in British West Africa for the development of study and research in agriculture, forestry and medicine. We would add two points. First, Ibadan offers opportunities for the development of a comprehensive university, which are unique in West Africa. Here can arise under the most favourable conditions, a West African University of the nature and character which we would wish to see. Ibadan is West Africa's largest native town, and one of character, situated in attractive country. Here it will be possible, for the practical instruction in agriculture, forestry and medicine to be given within the confines of the university grounds; only in the case of students of animal health will it be necessary for it to be given elsewhere. Students of all these future faculties, together with those of arts, science and engineering, can work side by side throughout their courses. Secondly, the southern part of Nigeria is the centre of West Africa in terms of the number of students to be served, and this has a practical bearing on the convenience and cost of travel. We are quite clear that the location of the West African University College at Ibadan will in no way make it a purely Nigerian institution: our proposals provide adequate safeguard against this occurring and ensure that it shall be West African in scope and outlook.

(b) *Range of Studies.*

62. The University College would provide courses in arts, science, medicine, agriculture, forestry, veterinary science, and engineering. In view of current thought in Great Britain, it is essential that the Institute of Education, concerned as it will be with graduate teacher training and research in education, should also be located here.

63. It is unnecessary for us here to discuss the scope and range of the facilities for medicine, agriculture, forestry, veterinary science and teacher training, since our views on these subjects are fully expressed in the main Report, in Chapters VI, VII and V respectively.

64. The provision of facilities for arts and science must be of similar scope and range, both as regards staff, buildings and equipment. An adequate library must be built up as rapidly as possible; an ample number of teaching and research laboratories with full provision of apparatus will be required, and an appropriate number of laboratory staff.

65. We regard the provision in West Africa of a properly equipped school of Civil and Mechanical Engineering as of considerable importance. Without such a school there will not be available the African professional engineers who will be required in increasing numbers for the projected extensive development of the four dependencies, particularly in such spheres as roads and general communications, water supplies, drainage, irrigation, and the control of soil erosion. We recognise that the provision of the school will be costly, but we have no doubt either as to the need or as to the wisdom of the expenditure.

66. The fact that Yaba Higher College, which the entire Commission proposes should be converted into a Technical Institute, already provides a four-year course in engineering, may give rise to the view that this new Technical Institute should aim at the provision of degree courses in engineering, as is done in Ceylon, where this particular type of instruction is carried out at the Technical College and not at the University. But for three reasons we recommend that the School of Engineering should be located at Ibadan. First, it is important that the Technical Institute at Lagos should concentrate on the training, in a wide variety of activities, of the large numbers of men urgently required for intermediate posts in Nigeria. Success in carrying out this highly important objective would, in present conditions, be jeopardised if any attempt were made to provide in the early stages too extensive an academic range of study. The Nigerian Technical Institute should therefore, like those of the Gold Coast and Sierra Leone, concern itself with making good the deficiencies of technical instruction at the intermediate level. Secondly, the heavy expenditure which the provision of a centre of professional engineering instruction will entail, can only be justified if it serves all the West African dependencies. Thirdly, the developmental needs of the vast territory of Nigeria, and the opportunities for practical experience which that dependency already provides and will increasingly provide in future, are powerful reasons for the development of a fully equipped engineering school at Ibadan.

67. We agree with our colleagues that there should be facilities at Ibadan for the study of engineering at university level. The majority recommend that there should be a department of engineering at Ibadan, and also that the engineering department at Achimota should be continued. We consider, however, for the reasons given in paragraph 65, that there should be one well-equipped School of Engineering at Ibadan to serve all West Africa. We cannot therefore endorse their proposal that the staff of the engineering department at Achimota should be strengthened or the extremely limited equipment of the department increased, for there can be no justification for any attempt at present to establish in West Africa more than one school of engineering. We refer in paragraph 131 to the intermediate steps which should be taken before the Ibadan School is brought into being.

68. As to the Institute of Education, we do not need to repeat the views expressed in Chapter V of the main Report. We therefore confine our remarks to suggesting that its initial teacher-training activities should be

- (a) a one-year post-graduate course for the diploma in education.
- (b) a one-year refresher course for members of the staffs of existing training colleges.
- (c) Specialist courses for teachers of physical training and art.
- (d) A training course for Youth Service Leaders which might be held not annually but in alternate years.

69. It may seem that this proposed range of teacher training work to be undertaken at the Institute is somewhat restricted. We make these proposals deliberately, however, for two reasons. One is that we think it essential for

the training staff to be associated with the research activities which will be set up in the research division of the Institute. The other is that we hope the staff will be available to give advice and help in establishing and developing teacher training courses in all the territories, whether at the Territorial Colleges or in other training institutions.

70. We reiterate our conviction, already expressed at the beginning of the section on the Institute of Education in Chapter V, that if such an Institute is adequately staffed and given opportunity to experiment and to expand its activities, it will, in a relatively short time, see its own scheme of work ahead and plan accordingly.

(c) *Entrance Requirements.*

71. For the reasons given in paragraph 14, the College would not be concerned with studies below Intermediate level; the entrance requirement would therefore be the passing of the intermediate arts or science examination of London or other British University. Students would acquire this qualification by study in the Territorial College of their own colony; in Sierra Leone and the Gambia at a new Fourah Bay College; in the Gold Coast at Achimota College; in Nigeria at a new College which we suggest might be located at a suitable centre east of the Niger, possibly at Enugu. The provision of a Nigerian Territorial College is necessary since our colleagues and ourselves are agreed that Yaba Higher College should become a Technical Institute. It is an essential feature of our plan that each of the three main dependencies should have its own Territorial College.

(d) *Travelling expenses of students.*

72. If equality of opportunity is to be provided for all the territories, a further condition must be fulfilled. Students coming from the other dependencies or from the more distant parts of Nigeria must not have to bear the cost of travel. We therefore recommend that the annual return travelling expenses of the students of all the territories should be met out of a fund provided for the purpose. This should apply not only to scholarship holders but also to private students. The total annual sum required should, in our view, be met from the revenues of all the colonies. The amount to be borne by each territory should be related not to the number of its students in attendance in any particular year; it should be determined by the usual financial method followed in joint undertakings by the colonies. A similar recommendation has been made by the West Indies Committee of the Asquith Commission, for the new unitary University College of the West Indies.

(e) *Governing Body.*

73. We propose that the College should be governed by a Council and an Academic Board. The importance of university administration independent of the local governments or of political considerations was stressed repeatedly in the evidence submitted to us. We mention this point because we recognise that some Africans may be apprehensive that the government of the territory in which the college is situated may exert considerable influence on its policy. We see no ground for this apprehension. The Council must, in our view, possess autonomy, and at the same time be fully representative of the academic and territorial interests involved. It would then, in conjunction with the proposed Inter-University Council in Great Britain (paragraph 100), be able to guarantee that academic freedom of teaching and research which is essential to any true university. Membership of the Council would include the two chief officers of the College, namely the Visitor (who would become the Chancellor when the College received its University Charter), and the Principal

(who would become its Vice-Chancellor), together with the Vice-Principal, and the Chairman of each of the five Boards of Studies.* The dependencies, and here again we group Gambia with Sierra Leone, must have full and equal representation. Each should be represented by four members (the Gambia should be represented perhaps by one, and Sierra Leone by three). Of these four, one should be nominated by the Governor; one elected by the Legislative Council; one should be the Principal of the Territorial College; and one a graduate, African or European, representing the Guild of Graduates (see paragraph 92), and elected by the Council of each Territorial College. Such a composition would ensure the closest contact between the Territorial Colleges and the University College; it would, at the same time, give representation to the other interests of each colony.

74. We recognise that attendance at meetings of the Council by representatives of the more distant dependencies will involve long journeys. That is inevitable in any institution serving a number of territories. This situation is already encountered in East Africa and it will arise in the case of the University of the West Indies where distances are equally great. Air transport will, however, help largely to overcome the difficulties of distance, and free air passages should be provided for all members. We express the hope that the importance of this work would ensure that members of the Council would regard it as a duty of first importance to attend its meetings.

75. When present, the Visitor would act as Chairman of the Council; normally, however, the Council would be presided over by its elected Chairman. We suggest that the first Visitor and the first Principal might be nominated by the Crown; subsequent appointments to the latter post might perhaps be filled by the Council.

76. The Academic Board would consist of the Principal, who would be its Chairman *ex officio*, the Vice-Principal, the Chairman of each of the five Boards of Studies, all professors, the non-professorial heads of departments, the librarian and five other members of the academic staff.

77. We do not need to discuss in detail the functions of the Council and Academic Board, which would follow the accepted form. The Council would be the final authority of the College and would be responsible for all matters of finance and general policy. It would make appointments of non-academic nature, and after consultation with the Academic Board, it would appoint to academic posts. The Academic Board would be responsible for all matters of academic concern, such as curricula and examinations. It would make its recommendations to the Council on these and other matters such as discipline. The Academic Board would conduct its work largely through the Reports of the Boards of Study. There would at the outset be five such Boards of Study; one each for arts (which would include education), science, medicine, engineering, and one for the combined subjects of agriculture, forestry, and animal health. The membership of each Board of Study would include all the professors teaching in its subjects, together with a suitable proportion of the senior and junior non-professorial full-time or part-time teachers.

TERRITORIAL COLLEGES

(a) *Number and location.*

78. We have already indicated that we attach the highest importance to the work of the Territorial Colleges, each of which must become the dynamic centre of educational development in the territory which it serves. As we have mentioned in paragraph 71, there would at the outset be three such: Achimota College in the Gold Coast, a new Fourah Bay College in Sierra Leone, and a new College to serve Nigeria situated east of the Niger.

* See paragraph 77.

(b) *Functions*

79. The three chief functions of each College would be to provide academic courses to the intermediate level; to train teachers for the primary and secondary schools, and social welfare workers; and to act as the main centre from which the extra-mural activities throughout each territory are organised.

(c) *Intermediate courses*

80. Each Territorial College should provide courses leading to the intermediate B.A. or B.Sc. examination of London or other British University. These intermediate courses would be of two years duration. They would be taken by those students who wished to acquire the entrance qualification to the West African University College, to seek further education for the purposes mentioned in paragraph 82, or to be trained as secondary school teachers as described in paragraph 84. While the students will be specialising to a certain extent in preparing for their various intermediate examinations, we consider it to be important that they should be given some background of general cultural studies. All of them should therefore be required to attend courses in English and in elementary sociology, while arts students should be given a course designed to illustrate the place of science in the modern world. Unless such courses are given, the colleges will fail to provide their students with the broader outlook desirable in itself and necessary for them to profit by university or other higher study or training which they may later follow; teaching will tend to be directed too intensively to the examination syllabus. In the case of Achimota College and the new Nigerian College, courses for the intermediate B.Sc. (Engineering) should be provided.

81. In order that wide opportunity should be given to students to show their fitness for higher study, the entrance qualification for the intermediate courses should be possession of exemption from London Matriculation. We make this suggestion because the variable quality of the secondary schools means that pupils are provided with unequal opportunity, and a further examination test might have the effect of eliminating students of potential capacity. Possession of the London Matriculation exemption would not, however, entitle the holder to automatic admission. Regard would be paid to the personal qualities of the student and his school record; it would also be undesirable to admit students who had obtained the entrance requirement after a number of repeated attempts. This would not debar admission of those who are described in Britain as "persons of mature years"; such persons are in another category.

82. As time goes on, the secondary schools will improve their general standards and the age at which the school certificate is taken will decrease. (In West Africa, candidates take this examination at the age of 20+; in Malaya the age of passing both for boys and girls was 17½; in Ceylon 16.) Employers, whether Government departments or commercial firms, may then demand that a certain cadre of future employees should have a better general education before beginning their specialised vocational training. Such a demand is likely to arise in the Civil Service, in commerce, and in administration; in the whole range of social services; for social welfare appointments such as labour and co-operative assistants; for non-professional posts of more responsible nature in the technical aspects of industry and in Government departments such as those of agriculture, animal health, survey and the like. These students would come to the Territorial College to follow an academic course whether in arts or science, perhaps taking the intermediate examinations, perhaps not. They would work side by side with those who intended

to proceed to the University College, and would eventually help to form the cadre of well educated, technically trained young men and women who are so much needed for the future development of West Africa.

(d) *The training of secondary and primary school teachers.*

83. The most desperate educational need of the West African dependencies is for greatly increased numbers of teachers of every kind: men and women who have been given the opportunity for obtaining the educational training which the importance of their work demands. We make three recommendations regarding the teacher training section of the Colleges.

84. As to secondary education, we fully recognise that the quality of the secondary school teaching can only begin to approach that in Great Britain when the staffs of the secondary schools contain a considerably increased proportion of trained graduate teachers. Even if the West African Institute of Education is established without delay, it must be a long time before teachers of this type are available in anything like adequate numbers. Meanwhile there is the pressing need for expansion of school education. We therefore recommend first that each Territorial College shall undertake the training of secondary school teachers. These teachers should take the two-year intermediate course in arts or science which we have just described, followed by two years devoted to a properly designed teacher training course. We regard the production of large numbers of teachers trained in this way as an urgent need. It is only by this means that the quality of the teaching in the existing secondary schools, in which more than half the teachers have not proceeded beyond the School Certificate stage, can be rapidly improved; and provision made for the expansion of secondary school facilities for which there is so great a demand. Students who successfully complete the intermediate teacher training course should be recognised as qualified to teach in the secondary schools or upper standards of the primary schools in any of the British West African colonies; the West African Council for Higher Education which we discuss in paragraph 99 would concern itself with the conditions to be fulfilled to acquire such recognition. Secondly, refresher courses for the non-graduate teachers of existing secondary schools should be provided. There is real need for courses of this type, which would probably require to be of not less than one year's duration.

85. Our third recommendation concerns the training of primary school teachers, for whom a two-year course following the School Certificate course should be provided. Lastly we record our opinion that the teacher training section of each College should experiment in the training of women teachers, whether through special refresher courses for existing teachers or in the regular two-year courses. We earnestly hope that an increasing number of girls will wish to take one of these teacher training courses, and also the other courses which now we turn to discuss.

(e) *The training of social welfare workers.*

86. The Colleges should provide vocational courses for the training of social welfare workers. There is a pressing need for facilities for training in the basic knowledge required for such posts as probation officers, youth leaders, labour officers, co-operative secretaries, welfare officers in industry and commerce, and community workers of many kinds. These men, and eventually women, would be rather older than the average age of the teachers in training, and might not necessarily take the full two-year intermediate course. They might be selected for their experience or particular ability for welfare or other work and given a special one-year course of further general education, followed by a suitably designed second year vocational course.

87. The advantages of combining the teacher training and social welfare course in one institution are obvious. Future progress must depend on the intimate collaboration of these two groups of workers, and it will be invaluable for them to train side by side. Whilst the practical training of teachers and welfare workers would be separate, they would share certain general lecture courses and discuss their general problems in seminars. Such a system would widen the teacher training course and help to avoid the somewhat narrow interests which tend to develop in the teaching profession; at the same time, it would give that educational background to welfare work which is essential to its success.

(f) *Social Studies.*

88. Before proceeding to further discussion of the work of the Territorial Colleges, we consider it desirable to comment on the general question of teaching and research in social studies, and the respective parts which the West African University College and the Territorial Colleges have here to play. In this somewhat ill-defined field, there is need for clear distinction between the training of social welfare workers, undergraduate study and post graduate study and research.

89. As we have indicated in paragraph 86, the training of social welfare workers should be undertaken at each of the Territorial Colleges where the conditions in which welfare work is to be carried out can be studied on the spot and where experiments and investigations can be made. At the same time we emphasise the importance we attach to an elementary course in social studies which should be compulsory for *all* students of the Territorial Colleges; such a course will reach the widest number of students in all the territories.

90. As to social studies at the West African University College, we make three comments:—

(a) We do not think that sociology should be offered as a separate degree subject in the earlier years; that will be possible only when the results of sociological research in Africa are more systematised and available in published form. Sociology, however, might and probably should, form some part of any economics degree course.

(b) The possibilities of post-graduate work in African sociology will depend upon the development and utilisation of research facilities. Whether the sociological research activities of the West African Institute are centred in Ibadan or not, there should be research undertaken at the University College in the field of African sociology and this should be closely related to economic and demographic research.

(c) We have suggested a course for youth leaders at the Institute of Education, in addition to such youth service training as the Territorial Colleges may provide. We have made this suggestion because we think that Youth Service is in one sense "continued education", and it must of necessity be closely linked with educational planning and research.

(g) *Adult Education and Extra-mural activities.*

91. The third function of the Territorial Colleges would be to act as the extra-mural centres of the West African University College. We interpret the term "extra-mural" in the widest possible sense to include at least three types of adult education: residential study during the College session; vacation courses; and what is known in Great Britain as extension work, namely lectures and tutorial study groups conducted in clubs, co-operative guilds and other centres of adult activity.

92. We lay great emphasis on this function of the Colleges, for we are convinced that it is vitally important that higher education should not be divorced from the mass of the people as a whole. We fully agree with the recommendations in the main report that the Technical Institutes should also concern themselves with adult education and become centres of social and educational thought and activity. But the Territorial Colleges have a particular responsibility and opportunity in this matter. To them will largely fall the task of undertaking the wide dissemination of knowledge and gradually building up an enlightened public opinion. They would accomplish this in many ways. They would hold short refresher and vocational courses for teachers in different subjects and for workers in other fields of social service. They would make arrangements for giving, both on their own premises and at selected centres in the Colony, lectures or performances providing a general cultural background of music, languages, literature, drama, economics, political administration, history, science, trade, etc. These lectures or performances would be given by members of the staff of the College, by visiting members of the University College, or by distinguished visitors to West Africa (of which there are likely to be many in the future) or by graduates living in the Colony. To further this purpose, we should like to see established in each Colony, with the Territorial College as its centre, a Guild of Graduates consisting of men and women, African and European, willing to take part in these extra-mural activities. That guild would be represented, as we say in paragraph 73, on the Council of the University College. The importance we attach to this adult education and extra-mural work is such that, in our opinion, each Territorial College should possess at least two members of staff, over and above the number required for strictly academic teaching, to act as tutors in this sphere of work. The Principal of each College would act as Director of these extra-mural activities.

93. At the same time we believe that the Territorial Colleges should be the place where West Africans who have been forced to discontinue their studies at too early an age, should be able to recommence them; and where opportunity is given to those of responsible age, who desire to equip themselves for social or public service, to acquire a better cultural background. Courses for students such as these would probably, in the first instance, take one of two forms. Scholarships might be given for a year's academic study in which students could choose, with help and advice, from among the various courses being given in the College, and might in addition have special seminars and tutorial work to meet their particular needs. Secondly, vacation courses might be held lasting from two to six weeks in which either academic studies or vocational training would be provided. These short courses might be of various kinds, such as physical training, youth leader training, teaching of English, dramatic work, crafts and so on.

94. We make this proposal in the light of two main considerations. The first which we have already mentioned, is the importance of making provision for many able men and women who have never had a chance of real *study*. The second is our conviction that in the modern world, when educational opportunities are being extended and social differences are being diminished, it would be disastrous to set up a great gulf between the few who, by merit and good fortune, have had the opportunity for acquiring learning and education, and the vast majority who have had no such opportunity. We think it of the greatest importance in the conditions of West Africa that the doors of both the Territorial Colleges and the University College should be open to students who do not necessarily fit into the academic mould to which we are accustomed in Great Britain. We are confident that Progress Unions, Youth Movements

and Native Authorities will be anxious to raise funds to give scholarships for courses such as we have outlined above. This proposal is in the best traditions of certain forms of adult education in Great Britain, where it is recognised that residence in a College, with access to libraries and opportunities for combined discussion and recreation, are essential elements in continued education, essential things which cannot be provided solely by extra-mural organisation of tutorial or extension classes or even of less formal class work in adult education.

(h) *Library and Museum*

95. The provision of adequate libraries for the Territorial Colleges is essential. These need not provide the facilities for advanced reading, scholarship and research required in the library of a university institution (except where a member of the staff is specialising on some particular subject), but should cover a wide cultural range. In addition to providing textbooks and standard works on the subjects dealt with in the curriculum, the library should include books giving a general background in such subjects as literature, history, social studies, geography, philosophy, scientific method and achievement, modern political and economic viewpoints, etc. Good books and journals on African, and particularly West African, subjects should naturally be available. The intelligent use of such a general library by students should be an important part of their education.

A good museum should also be provided at each Territorial College. This should include general exhibits illustrating the geology, geography and natural history of the territory, its ethnology, archaeology and history, its art and its crafts, its local products, its recent developments and its plans for the future—all of these against a general West African background. In some cases such a Museum might be combined with the main Museum of the colony, while in others geographical considerations might make separation desirable. In the former case, the Museum would be more elaborate and comprehensive, and would probably require a full-time Curator. In any case, the member of staff entrusted with the care of the Museum should be given facilities for learning the technique of curatorial work; and should receive part of his salary expressly in respect of such work.

A good museum of the type suggested is an important educational instrument, not only for regular students, but perhaps still more in respect of extra-mural activities of various kinds.

(i) *Staffing*

96. We attach particular importance to the question of staffing. In seeking staff for these Territorial Colleges, there must be no question of recruiting men and women who will consider themselves as senior schoolmasters or school-mistresses, "willing and able to teach up to intermediate standard." If these Colleges are to take their real place in the life of the people, the members of their staffs must have an outlook much wider than that of the schoolroom. They must necessarily be able to prepare their students for the intermediate examinations, and at first they will inevitably need to make good the deficiencies of the students' previous school education. Nevertheless they must be people with wide interests of their own, who will welcome a job like this because it gives them a pioneering opportunity to develop also adult education and youth services in the interests of the West African peoples. It is inevitable that we must turn to Britain for such teachers until Africans of suitable qualification and interests are forthcoming in sufficient numbers. We believe that this type of work will make an immediate appeal in Britain to men and women with no narrow academic outlook, but with sound learning, broad sympathies and—perhaps most important—a willingness to experiment.

(j) *Governing Body.*

97. Each of the Territorial Colleges would possess its own governing body constituted on the lines of that of the present Council of Achimota College. Each College should be in the closest touch with the work of the West African University College, and as we have said, its Principal should be a member of the Council of that institution. By such means he will be able to give the Council the benefit of his advice in the light of his experience of the workings of his own College; to follow personally the progress of his own students; to participate in the discussions of policy on the University College Council; to seek its advice on further developments of his own College; to help to develop a co-ordinated policy of extra-mural study and development.

98. Similarly we feel that it would be an advantage to the work of each Territorial College if its Governing Body included among its members, one or possibly two members of the academic staff of the West African University College. Such members need not necessarily be members of the University College Council; their choice might, in some cases, for instance, be determined by their capacity to assist the Territorial College in the development of a particular subject. If this proposal prove acceptable, we suggest that the member or members should be invited to serve on the governing body by the West African University College Council, on the nomination of the Principal of the Territorial College concerned.

WEST AFRICAN ADVISORY COUNCIL ON HIGHER EDUCATION

99. We endorse the majority recommendation given in paragraph 116 of Chapter IV that a West African Advisory Council on Higher Education should be established. The proposals we have made for the method of government, and for the composition, of the governing bodies of the West African University College and the Territorial Colleges will ensure that there will be an ample number of persons, fully acquainted with the position and needs of all the Colleges and territories, from which the members of such a Council could be drawn. In view of the importance of the teacher-training and other related activities of the University College and the Territorial Colleges, we suggest that the Council should contain among its members, a representative of the Education Department of each Colony. Such a Council would be well equipped to co-ordinate development as a whole, to encourage specific activities in different dependencies and to avoid undesirable multiplication of facilities.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE ASQUITH COMMISSION

100. We refer in rather more detail than is done by the majority to certain recommendations of the Asquith Commission. The first is the proposal for the creation in Great Britain of an Inter University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies, through which the Colleges throughout the Colonial Empire will be able to seek the advice and help of the Universities of Great Britain on any matter of academic policy, staffing and many other aspects of their work. It is also suggested that one or two of the members of the Inter-University Council should be members of the Council of each of the Colonial Colleges, each of which would receive visits from these and others sent out from Great Britain. The object of this first recommendation is to bring to bear on the development of higher education in the Colonies all possible academic help from Britain. The second recommendation is for the creation in Great Britain of a Colonial University Grants Advisory Committee, on which the Inter-University Council will be represented. This body will, after consultation with the Inter-University Council, advise the Secretary of State on the allocation of monies from United Kingdom Funds for the development

of higher education in the Colonies. It will act in a manner not dissimilar to the University Grants Committee in Great Britain. We mention these proposals so that it may be fully appreciated that the development both of the University College and the Territorial Colleges will proceed under the most favourable conditions and in close co-operation with authoritative academic opinion in Britain.

FUTURE UNIVERSITY DEVELOPMENT

101. It is clearly not our task to attempt to define future university development, recommendations regarding which will fall to the Inter-University Council to which we have just referred. We therefore do no more than to make two observations. The first is that it is clear that as soon as the number of students entering a given Faculty at the University College reaches a certain figure, it will be desirable to provide further facilities elsewhere; here we recall that the proposed Medical School is planned for an annual entry of 80 students. The second concerns the future of the Territorial Colleges. In our view such Colleges will have an enduring place in West African education. With regard to the present provision of three such colleges as only a beginning, and we are anxious that further colleges of this type shall be created as soon as possible. We recognise that as secondary education improves it will be desirable for the West African University College at Ibadan, or any other similar college developed later, to admit students direct from school. Nevertheless the background of West Africa which we have mentioned in paragraph 29 leaves no doubt in our minds that, even if the emphasis of the work of the Territorial Colleges changes in particular cases as time passes, the fundamental need for these colleges will long remain.

102. We turn to comment on one aspect of the development of future University Colleges. These might develop out of Territorial Colleges or they might arise as new foundations. We believe that the latter course may prove desirable, for two reasons. First, because, as we have just said, we believe that the Territorial College has an enduring place in West African education. Secondly, because its buildings may not lend themselves to adaptation to university needs. In our view it is desirable that when a further university college is developed it should be planned as a future university from the start. Otherwise sooner or later a new beginning on a fresh site has to be made, or profound difficulties of adaptation and administration met by what proves so often to be unhappy compromise.

AN EXAMINATION OF SUGGESTED DIFFICULTIES

103. We shall not argue further the reasons which lead us to dissent from the views of our colleagues which they record in paragraph 51 of Chapter IV that university development in West Africa will be best encouraged by the provision in each territory of an institution "proceeding up to degree levels." Nevertheless we wish to comment on a number of points they raise regarding our proposals.

104. In paragraph 55 of Chapter IV, the majority suggest that we contemplate holding back educational progress in individual territories in order "to promote the success of a regional plan," and in paragraph 57 they refer to an endeavour to promote a "regional outlook by discouraging two of the existing organisations." This is a misleading view of our conception of regional understanding and collaboration; it is in conflict with much of the evidence and it rests on a different assay of the standards of the present institutions and the educational background. In our opinion our proposals

are, on the one hand, more ambitious and practical in respect of university development proper; on the other, they will provide greater impetus to general educational development in the individual dependencies. Each dependency will have its own Territorial College, and will take an equal share of responsibility in the government of the West African University College. The Principal of each Territorial College and one other member nominated by its governing body will be members of the Council of the West African University College. The students of each dependency will carry out the earlier part of their courses in their own Territorial College. They will then proceed to the West African University College, where they will receive education of a quality which Colonial experience shows cannot be provided by any other means. They will return to their Colony to play a fuller part in its life and development than would have been possible otherwise. Some of them will, we hope, become members of the staffs of their own Territorial College.

105. Our conception rests on a desire to see more broadly-based education in all the territories, as well as higher standards achieved at all educational levels. If our proposals are adopted, each dependency will be heavily committed for a long time to come in creating a Territorial College of the nature we have described, in providing the teacher training which will enable the future development of higher education to rest on a more adequate foundation, in extending and re-organising its primary and secondary education, and in creating Technical Institutes. We recognise that our proposals mean that the giving of degree courses in engineering at Achimota College will not be continued; in addition, they also mean that the provision of Pass Degree courses in arts at Fourah Bay College will not be continued, for reasons which we present in paragraph 122.

106. In countering our proposals, our colleagues, contrary to the evidence we received, lay emphasis on the distances which separate the West African Colonies. But this factor must be considered in relation to present and past practice. Already numbers of Africans from all the Colonies come the much greater distance to study in British universities; Fourah Bay College has derived the majority of its students from Nigeria and the Gold Coast, when travelling was more difficult than it is to-day; Achimota College has students from all the Colonies. If distance is to be considered a factor of over-riding importance, the development of university education in West Africa will be indefinitely postponed; and our colleagues' proposals for the centralisation of medicine and the other professional subjects at Ibadan, and of education and social sciences at Achimota, will prove as unpractical as our proposals appear to them.

107. During our discussions, reference has been made to the different cultures of the West African peoples as being a factor unfavourable to co-operation in university development. Such an argument, which, in any case, we regard as inappropriate in considering the provision of university education, is discounted both by the evidence of the Achimota Council and by the history of Fourah Bay College. It is relevant to recall that in the Singapore Colleges, Chinese, Indian, Malay, and Eurasian men and women students worked together without difficulty, though special provision was made to comply with the dietary habits of each race.

108. Our colleagues stress the advantages which result from beginning a university college with small numbers of students. As we have indicated, we foresee that for a long time to come there cannot be in the various schools of the single university institution which we advocate, more than a limited number of students. Consequently these advantages for which our colleagues

plead will operate also under our own proposals. They suggest too that there will be a tendency towards isolation and exclusiveness in a unitary university college. We consider however that the West African University College will inevitably have a number of contacts in all the territories through its governing body, its students which come from each dependency and its extension work. A well-founded institution of the type we advocate will, in our view, enliven the intellectual life of all the dependencies.

109. Lastly we refer to the suggestion that a unitary institution would hinder the advance of the education of women through their severance from their own people. If there is force in this argument, we submit that it applies equally to certain important proposals of the majority, as we point out at the end of paragraph 106. We would also quote from the evidence of the Gold Coast Teachers' Union. "Hitherto it has been customary for most of the West African girls destined to fill high scholastic or other posts to go to England for the final years of their education; but we feel the time has come when such training should be readily available in a good university or college in West Africa." We would add that the number of women at present seeking higher education is very small, for in 1943, only 32 girls obtained the School Certificate in British West Africa as a whole. In the early stages of the higher education of women in the Colonies, when their numbers are inevitably small, it is for obvious reasons desirable that they should be brought together in a single university institution.

THE EXISTING COLLEGES

110. We hope and believe that the plan we have so far described will carry the goodwill and active support of the peoples of all the dependencies. In putting it forward we have no desire to undermine the hopes and traditions which have centred on the existing colleges. We believe that if the plan is looked at as a whole it will be appreciated that the desire of West Africans to see university studies and research of high quality established soon in West Africa cannot be achieved along the lines of earlier anticipations, based on the conception that the expansion and upgrading of the three colleges would lead to their rapid advance to the status pictured by their founders. Our plan not only permits of the reorganisation and development of the colleges, but it provides the means for a general advance both in higher and other forms of education in each of the dependencies. But it means inevitably a change of emphasis in the immediate object and present policy of the existing colleges, to which we now refer.

(a) *Achimota College.*

111. Achimota College, founded in 1924, has recently shed the kindergarten and primary school which were originally part of it. At the time of our visit it contained 242 secondary school pupils. There were also 98 students working for the various intermediate examinations, for which it provides two-year courses following the passing of the School Certificate; in one direction only does it already proceed beyond the intermediate stage, for it provides degree courses in engineering, and in the period 1935-42 a total of 8 students have passed the final B.Sc. examination of London University in this subject. It has, too, a course of training for primary teachers.

112. We appreciate that in founding the college, Sir Gordon Guggisberg conceived it as "more of the nature of a university college than a secondary school" and that he regarded it as "the stepping stone towards the University which it is the ardent desire of Africans to have." But in our view it is unfortunate that the term "University Department" has been

adopted by the College to describe the teaching given in its post-school-certificate classes. As we have indicated, the great majority of students concerned are carrying out work which is done in the sixth form of a secondary school in Britain, and their teachers devote much of their time to the teaching and other activities of the more junior pupils. We would be insincere if we did not express our view that while the College has certain special activities, its general atmosphere and its academic range (except in engineering) do not yet differ significantly from that to be found in a good secondary school in England.

113. The Achimota Council has itself pointed out that, in present conditions, university development in West Africa can only make headway if it is planned on a West African basis. We would add a further point. Achimota Council proposes that in order to obtain more room for its post-school-certificate classes, all the pre-school-certificate teaching should be transferred to the buildings of the original Girls' School, when they are released by the staffs of the Resident Minister and the General Officer Commanding, West Africa. The main buildings of the College would then be used exclusively for post-certificate work. We would regard such a proposal as undesirable other than as a temporary improvisation even for the work of a Territorial College; for the university purposes which the majority propose, we regard it as even less desirable. In our view, it is unlikely that anything approaching a university atmosphere will develop in a College which draws its students from a school situated a few hundred yards away in its own grounds. The desired change in the attitude of mind from that of a secondary school pupil to that of a university student, particularly difficult in the conditions of West Africa to-day, becomes much less easy of achievement. The Achimota Council implied its recognition of this problem, for it indicated that it might perhaps later prove desirable to seek a fresh site for the secondary school.

114. We also point out that while the buildings and grounds of Achimota College are in some respects on a lavish scale for a school, they were not planned as university buildings. The laboratories for instance, are small and would need very considerable extension even for an adequate expansion of the intermediate teaching; for degree teaching in science, new blocks of buildings and expensive equipment would be required; the present hostels are quite unsuitable for university purposes; many other substantial building additions and adaptations would prove necessary.

115. Four of us have been in touch with the work of Achimota College for a number of years. We appreciate the great services which it is rendering to education in the Gold Coast, and we wish to pay our full tribute to them. Our conception of the work of the Territorial Colleges has been influenced by this knowledge; in general terms we have expressed it in Chapter III of the Report and said: "It may be worth while here to call attention to the potential values of a multilateral institution in the present stage of education in West Africa. Achimota is an example of such a place with its intermediate work, teacher-training, arts and crafts, music, domestic science. The net result is well developed individuals with an all-round interest in every side of education and an appreciation of the values of other contributions to knowledge than the purely academic." Broad considerations of university development and educational policy alike demand, in our opinion, that Achimota College should pursue this same objective in the wider setting and at the higher level we have earlier indicated (paragraphs 78-98).

116. It is desirable to add a comment regarding the West African Institute (Institute of West African Arts, Industries and Social Science). The close proximity of that institute to Achimota has given it a valuable link with a many-sided centre of teaching and study. While it is not in our province to

discuss the future relations of the West African Institute to the new centres of higher education in West Africa, nevertheless we record our opinion that on general principles the main research centre of the Institute, with its museum and library, should be at or near the University College at Ibadan. That does not by any means exclude the maintenance of local research and production units and experimental stations in each territory. Indeed we hope that on the art, industries, and social science sides the work of the Institute will be carried on as widely as possible in all the territories, and bring valuable results to the Territorial Colleges, the Technical Schools, Teacher Training Colleges and other educational centres.

(b) *Fourah Bay College.*

117. Fourah Bay College, as our colleagues point out, has laboured under immense difficulties ever since its foundation in 1827. The average total number of its post-school certificate students in the last eleven years has been only 17. During the last twenty years, an average of 3 students have passed the Durham Pass B.A. examination each year, while in the last fifteen years an average of less than 1 student a year has taken either the Diploma in theology or that in education. In spite of its difficulties of lack of students, finance and staff, it has nevertheless done pioneer work in Africa, to which we wish to pay tribute.

118. We desire however to commend to the attention of the Church Missionary Society and of their fellow missionaries a suggestion for a somewhat fundamental change in the organisation of academic studies, namely that degree work in theology should be carried on at the West African University College at Ibadan along with other studies in the future faculty of arts.

119. A number of reasons lead us to make this suggestion. First, it is the accepted tradition of English and Scottish Universities that the systematic study and teaching of theology should be accorded a place of importance equal to that given to other studies in the faculty of arts. It is also realised with increasing emphasis that future clergy and ministers should pursue their academic courses with students training for other professions rather than that they should be segregated from them in separate colleges. Secondly, we point out that in West Africa the churches in Nigeria far outnumber in their membership those in the other territories. The provision of the theology course there would thus be likely to lead to an increase in the number of candidates coming forward for theological study.

120. We realise that this change would involve some break with a long established and worthy tradition, but we hope that the churches and missions will recognise the advantages which would result from locating theological studies at the new University centre of West Africa and that they would be prepared to consider the allocation of funds for this purpose.

121. We wish to repeat our conviction that it is undesirable that degree courses in arts, divorced from similar studies in science, should be provided for the very few students likely to be available. In expressing this view, we are uninfluenced by the suggestion of the majority that the cost of this provision would not, for the moment, fall on public funds.

122. We point out that at the time of our visit, the total number of post-secondary students was no more than 17, and that 12 of these came from Nigeria or the Gold Coast, mainly to take courses for the B.A. Pass Degree and not to study theology. When degree facilities are provided outside Sierra Leone, it seems likely that the students of Fourah Bay College will be drawn only from this dependency and the Gambia, and in our view, some time must elapse before even this decrease in the number of students can be made

good. We note, for instance, that the total number of Sierra Leone students passing the School Certificate examination in 1943 was 34, and that only 4 of the 14 candidates who sat for the Durham Matriculation, which is the entrance examination to the College, were successful. Nevertheless we believe that a Territorial College should be founded forthwith, for even though the number of students entering upon its intermediate courses is likely to be very small in the earlier years, its foundation will be justified by the importance of the other activities which it will carry out as a Territorial College.

123. We bear in mind also the fact that this College will serve the needs not only of Sierra Leone but also of the Gambia. We are disturbed by the isolation of education in the Gambia from the rest of British West Africa and we express the earnest hope that the Gambia will not only make the fullest use of the new Fourah Bay College, but will play its full part in the development of the West African University College. Only by so doing, can it hope to remedy its backwardness in educational development.

124. We hope that the new Territorial College we propose, more widely-based than the existing college is, will bear the name of Fourah Bay, and by its wide service to all sections of the community carry on the spirit of the founders of the original college, and have a profound effect in stimulating the much-needed progress of education in Sierra Leone.

(c) *Yaba Higher College.*

125. We are in full agreement with the assessment of Yaba Higher College which is given in Chapter III of the main report and with the recommendation that it should become a Technical Institute; a provisional statement of policy by His Excellency the Governor is in agreement with the latter recommendation. We regard it as unnecessary therefore to comment further, save to point out that we make provision for a new Territorial College in Nigeria. This College will carry out on a broader basis the work which Yaba Higher College has hitherto endeavoured to do under the considerable handicaps of uncertainty of policy, the limitations imposed on its activities, the effects of the war, and lack of adequate funds.

PRACTICAL STEPS

(a) *General.*

126. Whatever be the policy adopted, an extensive building programme must be carried out. Thus the features common both to the majority and to our own report include the following construction:—(1) at Ibadan, a medical school and a teaching hospital of 1,000 beds and all the buildings required for teaching to the full university standard, and for research, in arts, science, engineering, agriculture and forestry, and for the pre-clinical courses in veterinary science; residential facilities for the staff and the students, and buildings for administration; (2) at Freetown the building of a new Fourah Bay College to serve Sierra Leone. Building extensions at Achimota will also be required; under the proposals of our colleagues these would be much more substantial than under our own, as they would include buildings for university teaching and research in arts and science, the Institute of Education, and additional residential facilities. Our proposals include, however, the provision of a new Territorial College in Nigeria and the Institute of Education at Ibadan.

127. The whole Commission agrees that the importance of this work demands that it should be given high priority, for on it depends not only the production of the professional men and women on whom the social and economic development of British West Africa must in no little part rely, but

also the rapid building up at every level of the social and economic life of the territories. Without these professional men the implementing of policy under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act will be seriously impeded. In times of peace, the carrying out of plans of this magnitude on a permanent basis would have taken much time. Wartime demands moreover have seriously affected the availability of materials and the like. But we express the earnest hope that planning and construction should proceed with all possible speed. We trust that, with the co-operation of the Governors of the dependencies, the usual time taken to reach a decision on policy will be reduced, as well as that needed for the carrying out of all the many preliminaries which must precede permanent construction, such as the choice and acquisition of sites, the preparation of plans, and the delivery of materials.

128. Whatever the speed of erection of the permanent buildings required for the West African University College and the Territorial Colleges, temporary provision must be made for the immediate future. For this purpose we recommend the use of Nissen or similar type of temporary building, for the war has taught many lessons as to their use. One of us is, for instance, familiar with the temporary arrangements made necessary by the war evacuation from London of certain of its famous medical schools. In one of them, the subject of anatomy has been taught in an Army hut under admirable conditions; in this same school, another hut has provided research laboratories in biochemistry; an excellent pharmacology laboratory has been made in converted stables. In a second school, not only the whole of the teaching but also research work in organic chemistry and biochemistry has been carried out in Army huts of much less extensive type. At the same time the students have gained much by taking part in the creation of the necessary improvisations; nor have the examination standards fallen. These examples serve to show what can be done by imagination and energetic action; they demonstrate that magnificent buildings are not a prerequisite of university study. Steps should be taken immediately to arrange with the military authorities for the acquisition of buildings, equipment and apparatus which after the war will be surplus to their requirements and suitable for the developments we propose.

(b) *Development of the West African University College, Ibadan.*

129. In our view it is essential that construction of permanent buildings should not begin until complete plans for the layout of the area and all the buildings which will be finally required have been made. We hope that the best expert advice will be sought and that the buildings will be of fine architectural standard, fitting for the first University of West Africa, and providing inspiration to its staff and students.

130. The immediate steps to be taken will be to provide temporary buildings for lecture rooms, laboratories, libraries, common-rooms and residences for the future faculties of arts and science and for the Institute of Education, and to recruit staff for these subjects. War experience shows that it should be possible to have these buildings in use within a year, for their erection need not necessarily be on the site which the permanent buildings will later occupy. We regard the provision of these temporary facilities for arts, education and science as of the first importance; the erection of the permanent buildings for these subjects should also have precedence over other permanent construction.

131. As to the immediate development of other subjects, the schools of agriculture and forestry (which are both in the vicinity) should be extended in the temporary manner we have described, and their staffs should be strengthened. In veterinary science, all the teaching can be carried on, for the time being, in the excellently equipped School at Vom. As to medicine, full time appointments should be made to the clinical staff of Yaba Medical School and

additional appointments made to the staff in the pre-clinical subjects; for these latter and for residential purposes, further additional temporary provision will prove necessary. In this way, progress towards recognition by the General Medical Council can proceed while the new medical school and hospital are being built at Ibadan. In engineering, for which temporary buildings will not serve, steps must be taken to make it possible for West Africans to obtain the training necessary to ensure their professional recognition as fully qualified engineers. This requires the carrying out of a period of practical training and works experience of approved type following graduation, and under present conditions this experience should be obtained in Great Britain. We suggest as an interim measure that students should take courses for the London Intermediate Engineering examination either at Achimota College, or at Yaba Higher College. Selected students should then be sent to Great Britain to complete their degree courses, and if their performance is of adequate merit, to obtain the subsequent practical experience which will enable them to seek full professional recognition.

(c) *The Territorial Colleges*

Achimota College

132. It must be recognised that the plan to transfer the secondary school to the original girls' school can only become effective when these premises are vacated by the Resident Minister and the General Officer Commanding, West Africa. This cannot occur unless other buildings of which we are unaware become available, or new buildings are constructed. As we have already said, we regard such a plan as desirable only as a temporary improvisation (paragraph 113). Even when it proves possible, it will only partially solve the problem, for the vacated girls' school would be inadequate for the secondary school which would need new class-rooms and laboratories and new residential facilities for staff and students. In the Territorial College itself, new laboratories for practical teaching in chemistry, physics, botany and zoology would be necessary since the existing ones which accommodate an average of only 14 students, have now to serve for the teaching of science to the secondary school pupils. In addition, proper residential facilities to replace the present hostels which were planned for a secondary school must be provided. If the building programme which will be necessary to convert Achimota College to a Territorial College is impossible in the near future, temporary provision of the nature we have already discussed might be made, and the number of admissions to the secondary school decreased. At the same time, the staff for the College must be built up. Some of the existing staff who are teaching in the intermediate classes will doubtless confine themselves to the secondary school, while some will remain on the staff of the Territorial College. We wish to emphasise that the quality and outlook of the College staff to be recruited must be appropriate to an institution of higher education and not to a school.

133. The College would continue to give intermediate courses in arts and science. In engineering, the college might continue for the time being to provide courses for the Final Degree until the West African School is established at Ibadan. There is no doubt however, that in view of the very limited equipment and staff for engineering instruction, it would be more advantageous to the student first to complete his intermediate course at Achimota College and then to come by scholarship to Great Britain for further study in a fully equipped university department, and to obtain adequate practical experience after graduation.

134. The other steps to be taken towards carrying out the sphere of work which we have described for the Territorial Colleges would be:—

(a) To provide for two grades of teacher training for primary and for secondary teachers. The first will be a two-year course following School Certificate, the second a two-year course following the passing of the intermediate examination.

(b) The specialised training of art teachers should continue until such time as an art school has been built at Ibadan.

(c) Preparations should be made to begin some training of social welfare workers.

(d) Some experimental work might be done in extra-mural work, and in adult residential courses in the vacations.

Fourah Bay

135. A new site will be required and temporary buildings must be used until permanent buildings are erected. Priority should be given to the provision of buildings for teaching to the intermediate standard in arts and science and for teacher-training courses along the lines already suggested. It seems likely that the training of social welfare workers and the carrying out of extra-mural activities will not be possible in the earlier stages of this College. The reorganisation of Fourah Bay College which we propose, will entail abandoning the existing B.A. courses. We recommend that during the short interval before the B.A. courses come into operation at Ibadan, scholarships to Great Britain should be provided for promising students who have passed the intermediate examination.

The Nigerian Territorial College east of the Niger.

136. A site and temporary buildings will be required for this new College. Priority should be given to the provision of the intermediate arts courses and to teacher training, for in the earliest stages, the intermediate science courses could be taken at Yaba Technical Institute. But this must be an improvisation of the shortest possible duration. The teacher training now given at Yaba Higher College should be removed to the new Territorial College to facilitate the conversion of the former to a Technical Institute.

FINANCE

137. We do not propose to enter into detail concerning the financial aspects of our proposals. As to the expenditure to be incurred at Ibadan, we are in full agreement with the estimates of the capital and recurrent expenditure required for medicine, agriculture, forestry and animal health recorded in Chapters VI and VII. These subjects will require a capital expenditure, including the cost of a teaching hospital, of at least £710,000 and a recurrent expenditure of at least £95,000 a year. As to arts, science and engineering, the majority suggest that a capital expenditure of between £500,000 and £600,000, with an annual expenditure of some £64,000, will be needed. In this connection, we would point out that the West Indies Committee of the Asquith Commission has, after very careful consideration, estimated that the buildings of the new University of the West Indies, providing initially for some 400 to 500 students, will cost something like £1,130,000 exclusive of the cost of the site. They estimate that, for the faculties of arts and science only, the recurrent expenditure on teaching and administrative salaries alone will be some £60,000 a year. These estimates do not include the heavy sums required for a professional school of engineering.

138. We make no claim that the capital expenditure required under our plan will be less than that proposed by our colleagues; it may possibly

be more. We are however confident that the avoidance of what we regard as an undesirable multiplication of university facilities will result in a substantially smaller annual expenditure. We are also confident that there will be a far greater return on the expenditure required by our proposals, not only in the field of university education and research, but also in the general impetus given to the development of education as a whole. Further, the ordered development which we propose will avoid the future dissipation of financial resources to which we refer in paragraph 50.

139. We would record our opinion that Great Britain could make no gift likely to prove of greater benefit to British West Africa than to provide from Imperial Funds the whole of the capital expenditure required for the West African University College and the three Territorial Colleges which we propose. A similar recommendation has been made by the Asquith Commission in respect of the projected University of the West Indies.

140. We appreciate that the maintenance of three Territorial Colleges and a University College will involve considerable annual expenditure. We hope that the revenue of all four institutions will be met in part by scholarships founded by the local Governments, by the big economic interests, by the Native Authorities, and by fees payable by a proportion of the students. We assume that each local Government will make direct grants to its own Territorial College and that the four Governments will contribute on an agreed basis towards the maintenance of the University College. But we are conscious that the considerable demands on the revenues of the respective colonies will make it extremely difficult for the Colonial Governments to subscribe as generously as they would wish or is desirable. In the circumstances we suggest that until local resources have considerably increased, the Colonial Development and Welfare Act should make good the deficits of the Territorial Colleges through the proposed Colonial Universities Grants Advisory Committee, and that a considerable proportion of the revenue of the University College should be found from the same source. We agree with the majority that the dependencies should bear a progressively increasing proportion of the annual expenditure, until eventually they are entirely responsible for it.

141. We have heard the fear expressed that financial help from the United Kingdom may not be forthcoming for later developments of university facilities in the other dependencies. We appreciate that fear. We would point out, however, that there is in Britain an increasing desire to further the welfare of the Colonial peoples, and that we hope to see wide economic development in the four territories in the coming years, stimulated by the policy which we advocate.

CONCLUSION

142. We believe that the policy we have outlined represents the only realistic solution of the problem with which we are confronted. We have heeded the evidence placed before us and had regard for the educational experience presented to us. We have tried to assess dispassionately but sympathetically the facts as we found them and to respect the sentiment that already exists towards education in British West Africa. We do not believe that this is the time to formulate schemes involving diffusion of resources, with all the handicaps to progress which must inevitably follow. We believe that our proposal of a unitary university college in these formative years will bring within the grasp of West Africa a university of high quality within the shortest time; while respecting territorial differences it will emphasise the value of a West African approach and a fuller appreciation of the influences and

forces at work in that part of the world. We confess that many of the views expressed by our colleagues in Chapter IV appear to us to be irrelevant to a right conception of the proposals we have made. To suggest that we wish to hold up educational progress in any territory in order to promote the success of a regional plan is incongruous with our eager desire and plans to build up influential centres of educational activity in each of these territories. We have refused to deceive ourselves that there are easy short cuts in providing Africa with that reconstruction in the field of education which is an indispensable part of the great social and economic advance of West African life. Each territory has immense tasks at every level of educational effort and each is asked to co-operate whole-heartedly with the others in achieving the advances necessary in West Africa as a whole and carrying higher education further in each territory. We agree that African support and energy are necessary if the difficulties which inevitably lie ahead are to be surmounted, but we submit that our proposals are the only practical means of achieving the objective so many Africans have demanded. Undoubtedly it would have been easier for us to accept the view of our colleagues, and perhaps in some cases, it would have been more popular. We are confident, however, that the more our recommendations are understood and appreciated, the more support they will gain among West Africans. As we see the situation it is the only way in which the cherished hopes of the four territories can be realised and their people achieve higher standards of living and make rapid progress along the road to self-government.

OUTLINE OF MAIN RECOMMENDATIONS

In opposition to our colleagues, we recommend the immediate establishment of only one institution of university rank, to serve the whole of British West Africa. This should be entitled the West African University College, and should be situated at Ibadan in Nigeria. We also recommend that each of the three main dependencies should possess a Territorial College. For the present they should be devoted (a) to providing courses to Intermediate level, (b) to the training of teachers and social welfare workers, (c) to adult education and extra-mural activities. We consider that territorial colleges of the pattern we propose will for a long time be a necessary link in the educational system of West Africa.

We are in substantial agreement with the proposals of our colleagues, as set forth in Chapters II, III, V, VI, VII and VIII of the main Report, except (a) for the siting of the proposed Institute of Education, and (b) for confining degree work in Engineering to the University College at Ibadan. There are also many small points of difference consequential on our basic disagreement in regard to the proposals of the majority in Chapter IV. Our reasons for proposing the establishment of a unitary University College are set out in detail in our report.

Students should proceed to the West African University College from the Territorial Colleges after taking their Intermediate course there (which for the present should last two years and should include general subjects beyond those required by the Intermediate syllabus).

A reconstituted Fourah Bay College on a new site should become the Territorial College for Sierra Leone and the Gambia; Achimota College that for the Gold Coast; and a new institution should be created in Nigeria, East of the Niger.

We recommend the creation of a West African Council for Higher Education to assist and co-ordinate the development of higher education in British West Africa.

We recommend that the Council of the West African University College should include four representatives from each of the three main dependencies, one of which should be the Principal of the Territorial College, and one a graduate elected by the Council of the Territorial College.

Each Territorial College should also possess an autonomous Council. We suggest that it would be advantageous if one or two members of the staff of the West African University College were to serve on the Council of each of the Territorial Colleges.

The West African University College, in addition to the professional schools of Medicine, Agriculture, Forestry and Animal Health, which our colleagues agree should be established at Ibadan to serve the whole of British West Africa, should also comprise the proposed Institute of Education and a West African School of Engineering. It would also be of advantage if the research headquarters of the Institute of West African Arts, Industries and Social Science were situated at Ibadan, though experimental stations and local research units should be maintained by it in all territories.

The responsibility of recommending the creation of further institutions of university rank in West Africa will fall to the Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies recommended by the Asquith Commission. We believe in general that it will be best to establish wholly new institutions, rather than to attempt to convert Territorial into University Colleges.

We anticipate that further Territorial Colleges will be required as the educational systems of the territories expand.

We recommend that all capital expenditure for the establishment of the West African University and the three Territorial Colleges in the near future shall be met from Imperial funds. For some time to come, annually recurrent expenditure will also need to be met in part from Imperial funds.

In view of the urgency of the matter, temporary accommodation should be provided for the West African University College and for new construction for the Territorial Colleges, until first class permanent buildings can be erected. Steps should be taken to acquire from the military authorities in West Africa any suitable surplus buildings, equipment and apparatus.

H. J. CHANNON.
GEOFFREY EVANS.
JULIAN S. HUXLEY.
A. CREECH JONES.
MARGARET READ.

11th June, 1945.

APPENDIX I

Itinerary of the Commission's Tour of West Africa

15th January–10th April, 1944

The Commission left England by air for West Africa on 15th January and arrived back in England on 10th April, 1944.

18th January. Arrived in Bathurst and stayed the day there.

19th January. Arrived at Accra via Lagos.

THE GOLD COAST

19th January–10th February.

(See Map 6, page 179).

The main centres visited by members of the Commission were :—

Accra	Assuantsi	Kumasi
Achimota	Sekondi	Effiduase
Tafo	Takoradi	Konongo
Akwatia	Tarkwa	Tamale
Akropong	Nsuta	Pong-Tamale
Cape Coast	Obuasi	Navrongo
Elmina	Bekwai	Zuarangu

10th February. Arrived at Lagos from Accra.

NIGERIA

10th February–20th March.

(See Map 5, page 178).

The main centres visited by members of the Commission were :—

Lagos	Gusau	Umuahia
Yaba	Sokoto	Ikot-Ekpene
Shagamu	Vom	Uyo
Ijebu-Ode	Jos	Uzuakoli
Abeokuta	Bukuru	Aba
Ibadan	Anchau	Port Harcourt
Oyo	Toro	Owerri
Ife	Bauchi	Okigwi
Ilorin	Enugu	Ogoja
Kaduna	Oron	Awka
Zaria	Calabar	Onitsha
Samaru	Victoria	Benin
Kano	Buea	

20th March. Arrived at Freetown from Lagos.

SIERRA LEONE—GAMBIA—DAKAR

20th March–3rd April.

(See Map 7, page 179).

The main centres visited by members of the Commission were :—

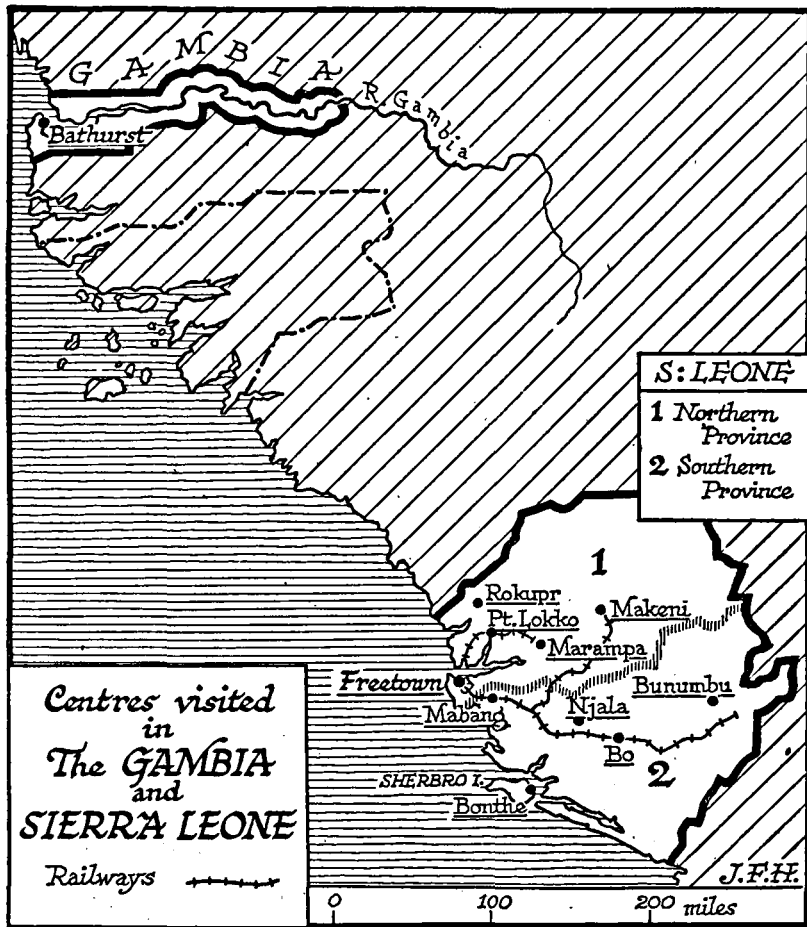
Freetown	Bunumbu	Rokupr
Mabang	Port Lokko	Bonthe
Njala	Marampa	
Bo	Makeni	

A detachment of the Commission visited Gambia on 29th March (the planned visit being shortened by a day owing to the delay of air transport) and Dakar 29th March–1st April and returned to Freetown on 1st April.

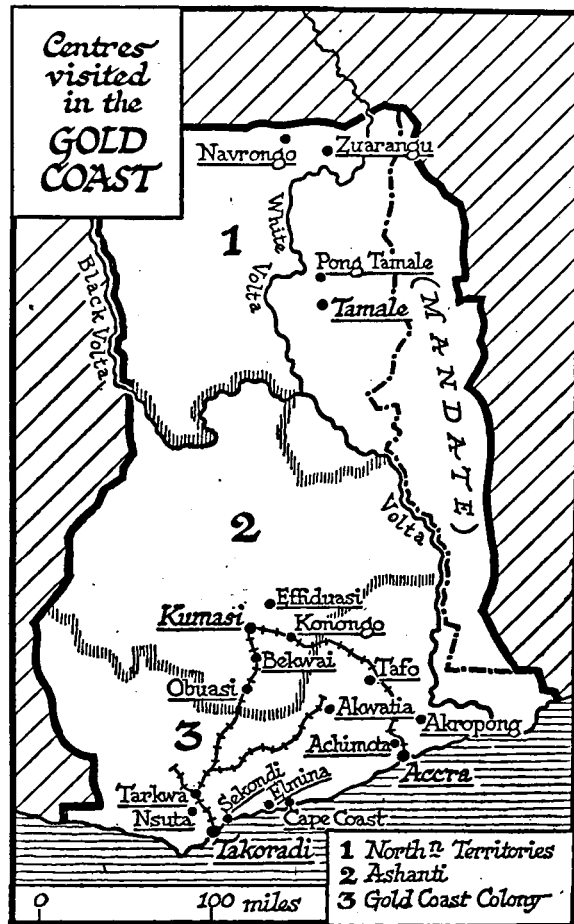
3rd April. Returned to Accra.

6th April. Left Accra for England via Sierra Leone and the Gambia.

10th April. Arrived in England.



MAP 7



MAP 6

APPENDIX II

Explanation of some Educational Terms used in West Africa
GRADES OF SCHOOLS

NIGERIA.

Two systems of classification are used :—

- (a) Elementary and middle schools.
- (b) Infant, primary and secondary schools.

The corresponding stages in these two systems and the English equivalent are given below :—

(a)	(b)
Elementary	Infant classes I and II Primary standards I-IV
Higher Elementary I and II Middle I and II	Primary standards V-VI
Middle III-VI	Secondary forms I-IV

Note :—The School Certificate is taken in Middle VI or Secondary Form IV.

Teachers are trained at

- A. Higher College, Yaba.
- B. Higher Elementary Training Colleges.
- C. Elementary Training Centres.

THE GOLD COAST.

Primary schools.—A ten year course including :—

- 3 infant classes
- 7 " standard " classes

Pupils are admitted from the ages of 5-7 years and complete the course at the age of 15-17 years.

Middle Boarding schools.—Provide a four year course for those who have completed a primary education. The pupils spend about one-third of their time in literary work and about two-thirds in practical work learning a trade.

Secondary schools.—Provide courses up to school certificate level for pupils who have completed a primary course. Some of the secondary schools have preparatory forms also.

Teachers are trained at :—

- A. Achimota.
- B. Training colleges maintained by the missionary societies.

SIERRA LEONE.

Infant schools and departments.—A two year course (ages 5-7+).

Primary " standard " schools.—Standards I-VI. A six year course (ages 7-15).

Secondary schools.—Preparatory, forms and forms 1-5 (ages 13-20). Form 3 is of the Junior school certificate standard. Form 5 is of the Senior school certificate standard.

Teachers are trained at :—

- A. Fourah Bay College.
- B. Njala Training College.
- C. Training colleges and training courses at secondary schools.

GAMBIA.

Infant classes.

Primary schools.—Standards I-VI.

Secondary schools.—Preparatory, Preliminary and Junior classes. Classes I-VI.

Training of Teachers.—The training of teachers has been carried out by one of the secondary schools.

TYPES OF SCHOOL

In each dependency there are found the following types of school :—

Government schools. Financed by the Government and controlled by the Education department.

Native administration schools. Financed and controlled by the native administration with varying degrees of government assistance and supervision.

Assisted schools. Controlled usually by the churches and the missionary societies. They are aided by grants from Government and inspected by the education departments. A few proprietary schools also are assisted by Government grants.

Non-assisted schools. The majority of these schools are controlled and financed by the local churches. They are supervised and sometimes aided by the missionary societies. Some of the other non-assisted schools are under proprietary management.

Many of the assisted schools have started as non-assisted schools (often called "bush" schools whether situated in villages or towns) and have later qualified for Government assistance.

Koranic schools. (See Chapter I, paragraph 50). According to the 1931 census the Koranic schools in Northern Nigeria had an average attendance of about 6 pupils each. They are normally carried on by a teacher, who is called a "mallam".

APPENDIX III

SECONDARY SCHOOL STATISTICS.

(i) *Total number of secondary schools.*

Table I

	Boys	Girls	Mixed	Total
Nigeria	30*	4	—	34
Gold Coast	5	1	1	7
Sierra Leone	6	4†	—	10
Gambia	2	2	—	4
TOTAL	43	11	1	55

* Includes Kaduna College in Northern Nigeria.

† Not including Moyamba.

There were thirty-four secondary schools in Nigeria which had been approved by 26th June, 1943. Thirty-three of these were in Southern Nigeria, and comprised twenty-four schools (including 3 girls' schools) providing full secondary courses up to Middle VI, one up to Middle V, and eight (including 1 girls' school) up to Middle IV.

In addition we received particulars of 12 secondary schools (including four evening schools) which had not been approved by the Nigerian Education Department by 26th June, 1943.

(ii) *Numbers of pupils enrolled in the secondary schools and secondary classes in 1942.*

Table II

	Boys	Girls	Total
Nigeria	7,472	638*	8,110
Gold Coast	1,897	241	2,138
Sierra Leone	748	458	1,206
Gambia	82	134	216
TOTAL	10,199	1,471	11,670

* The figures for girls in the lower classes are to some extent estimated as some of the available returns do not separate girls and boys.

(iii) *The numbers of students taking the Cambridge Senior School Certificate in 1933 and 1943*

Table III

	Entered		Passed		Failed	
	1933	1943	1933	1943	1933	1943
Nigeria	40	961	19	505	21	456
Gold Coast	97	324	59	195	38	129
Sierra Leone	37	74	14	34	23	40
Gambia	2	6	—	5	2	1
TOTAL	176	1,365	92	739	84	626

In 1943, 35 per cent. of the entrants, 19 per cent. of the passes, and 58 per cent. of the failures were "private students" not entered by schools. See Table IV.

More detailed figures for 1943 are given below showing separately boys and girls and students entered by schools and students entered privately:—

Table IV

		Entered		Passed		Passed with 1st and 2nd grade Honours		Failed		Total Entered
		Sch.	Pr.	Sch.	Pr.	Sch.	Pr.	Sch.	Pr.	
Nigeria	Boys	530	398	385	102	252	18	145	296	928
	Girls	26	7	16	2	10	1	10	5	
Gold Coast	Boys	272	38	177	8	109	2	95	30	310
	Girls	13	1	10	—	6	—	3	1	
Sierra Leone	Boys	35	35	26	6	6	1	9	29	70
	Girls	4	—	2	—	—	—	2	—	
Gambia	Boys	2	2	2	1	—	—	—	1	4
	Girls	2	—	2	—	1	—	—	—	
TOTAL	Boys	839	473	590	117	367	21	249	356	1,312
	Girls	45	8	30	2	17	1	15	6	
	Boys and Girls	884	481	620	119	384	22	264	362	1,365

Of the *school* entrants, 70 per cent. passed, and 43 per cent. passed with 1st or 2nd grade Honours.

Of the *private* entrants, 25 per cent. passed, and 5 per cent. passed with 1st or 2nd grade Honours.

Table V

QUALIFICATIONS OF STAFF IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF BRITISH WEST AFRICA

1. Staff with academic qualification of at least the Intermediate standard

Territory	Total Staff in Secondary Schools	U.K. Graduates		U.S.A. Graduates	Priests (otherwise unqualified)	U.K. T.T. Certificates		Durham (Fourah Bay College)				London Intermediate		Yaba Diplomas		Total staff with qualification of Inter and above	Total staff with qualifications below Intermediate
		Degree and T.T. Cert. or Diploma	Degree alone			Board of Education	Other	Degree and Diploma	Degree alone	Inter and T.T. Cert.	Inter alone	Inter and T.T. Cert.	Inter alone	Diploma and T.T. Cert.	Diploma alone		
<i>Southern Nigeria</i>																	
19 Boys Secondary Schools (approved).	246	14	17	—	2	—	2	3	9	—	1	1	2	3	15	69	177
3 Girls Secondary Schools.	28	2	6	1	—	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	11	17
9 Secondary Schools (including 4 evening schools) not approved.	52	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	1	—	4	48
<i>Gold Coast</i>																	
5 Boys and 1 Mixed Secondary Schools (excluding women teachers).	111	7	21	—	6	—	—	—	1	1	—	4	18	—	—	58	53
1 Girls School and women teachers of 1 mixed school.	15	3	5	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	5
<i>Sierra Leone</i>																	
6 Boys Schools ...	47	2	1	5	4	1	—	8	7	—	1	—	—	—	—	29	18
4 Girls Schools ...	43	1	3	—	—	1	8	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	14	29
<i>Gambia</i>																	
2 Boys Schools ...	9	1	4	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	2
1 Girls School ...	8	—	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	5
TOTAL ...	559	30	59	6	12	6	15	11	18	1	2	6	20	4	15	205	354

NOTE.—The figures in Table V do not cover all the secondary schools in West Africa, but only those for which we secured complete details. We consider however that this table represents a fair sample of the staffs of all the secondary schools in West Africa.

Table V—cont.
 QUALIFICATIONS OF STAFF IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF BRITISH WEST AFRICA—cont.
 2. Staff with qualifications below the Intermediate standard

Territory	Total Staff in Secondary Schools	Total Staff with qualification below Intermediate	Senior School Certificate and T.T. Certificate	Senior School Certificate alone	Junior School Certificate and T.T. Certificate	Junior School Certificate alone	Local T.T. Certificate alone	Unqualified
<i>Southern Nigeria</i> 19 Boys Secondary Schools approved.	246	177	22	15	—	1	97	42
3 Girls Secondary Schools	28	17	6	1	—	—	10	—
9 Secondary Schools (including evening schools) not approved.	52	48	7	15	—	—	12	14
<i>Gold Coast</i> 5 Boys and 1 Mixed School (excluding women teachers).	111	53	17	21	—	—	15	—
1 Girls School and women teachers of one mixed school.	15	5	4	—	1	—	—	—
<i>Sierra Leone</i> 6 Boys Schools	47	18	—	2	—	—	11	5
4 Girls Schools	43	29	—	—	—	—	16	13
<i>Gambia</i> 2 Boys Schools	9	2	1	—	—	—	—	1
1 Girls School	8	5	—	—	2	—	1	2
TOTAL	559	354	57	54	3	1	162	77

NOTE.—The figures in Table V do not cover all the secondary schools in West Africa, but only those for which we secured complete details. We consider however that this table represents a fair sample of the staffs of all the secondary schools in West Africa.

APPENDIX IV

WEST AFRICAN STUDENTS AT UNIVERSITIES AND UNIVERSITY COLLEGES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM AND IN EIRE
AS AT 28TH FEBRUARY, 1945

	Oxford	Cambridge	London	Edinburgh	Glasgow	Aberdeen	St. Andrews	Durham	Exeter	Nottingham	Southampton	Birmingham	Bristol	Liverpool	Manchester	Reading	Loughborough College	Belfast	Trinity College, Dublin	University College, Dublin	Total
Nigeria	6	13	58	5	11	1	2	7	3	3	2	3	1	—	8	—	—	2	6	7	138
(Scholars)	1	1	28	—	—	—	1	—	2	2	2	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	40
Gold Coast	7	12	25	23	—	—	—	1	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	2	—	80
(Scholars)	3	8	19	13	—	—	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	47
Sierra Leone	1	1	6	5	—	—	—	11	—	2	—	—	—	1	—	—	1	—	—	1	29
(Scholars)	—	1	4	1	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	7
Gambia	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
(Scholars)	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
	14	26	90	34	11	1	2	19	11	5	2	3	1	1	8	1	2	2	8	8	249
	4	10	52	14	—	—	1	—	6	4	2	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	96

581

NOTES.—The upper row of figures for each colony is inclusive of the number of scholars given in the lower row.

These tables are based on information supplied by the Director of Colonial Studies, Colonial Office. There may be a few students who are not included in these three tables, as the Colonial Office does not necessarily come into contact with all West African students who come to the United Kingdom.

COURSES BEING TAKEN BY WEST AFRICAN STUDENTS AT UNIVERSITIES AND UNIVERSITY COLLEGES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM
AND IN EIRE AS AT 28TH FEBRUARY, 1945

	Law	Medicine	Engineering	Science	Arts	Music and Art	Architecture	Geography	Dentistry	Veterinary Surgery	Mathematics	Languages other than European	Teacher Training	Agriculture	Commerce	Social Science	Moral Sciences	Other Subjects	Total
Nigeria (Scholars)	30 —	45 —	7 2	8 7	6 1	1 1	1 —	— —	— —	— —	2 2	5 5	3 1	— —	8 3	16 16	1 —	5 2	138 40
Gold Coast (Scholars)	5 1	21 11	2 2	6 3	6 2	— —	— —	3 3	6 3	1 1	3 1	3 2	5 4	3 2	3 1	7 7	3 2	3 2	80 47
Sierra Leone (Scholars)	1 —	10 1	3 —	— —	3 2	— —	— —	— —	2 —	— —	1 —	— —	— —	— —	2 —	6 4	1 —	— —	29 7
Gambia ... (Scholars)	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	1 1	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	1 1	— —	— —	2 2
	36 1	76 12	12 4	14 10	15 5	1 1	1 —	3 3	9 4	1 1	6 3	8 7	8 5	3 2	13 4	30 28	5 2	8 4	249 96

COURSES BEING TAKEN BY WEST AFRICAN STUDENTS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM WHO ARE NOT UNDERGRADUATES AT UNIVERSITIES

	Law (Inns of Court)	Medicine (Premedical at Glasgow and Edinburgh)	*Engineering	Science	Music and Art	Accountancy	Dentistry	Veterinary Surgery	†Teacher Training	Commerce	Nursing and Nursery School	Domestic Science	‡Other Subjects	Total
Nigeria ... (Scholars) ...	25 2	6 —	5 1	2 —	— —	2 1	— —	— —	— —	2 —	4 —	— —	9 —	55 4
Gold Coast ... (Scholars) ...	— —	2 —	2 2	— —	2 2	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	2 1	1 1	— —	9 5
Sierra Leone ... (Scholars) ...	4 —	2 1	3 1	1 —	— —	— —	1 —	1 —	12 5	— —	4 1	1 1	4 1	33 7
Gambia... (Scholars) ...	2 —	1 —	— —	— —	2 —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	1 —	6 —
	31 2	11 1	10 3	3 —	4 2	2 1	1 —	1 —	12 5	2 —	10 —	2 2	14 1	103 16

187

* Including students at Northampton Polytechnic, Technical College, Hull, Huddersfield Technical College, College of Technology, Northampton.

† Including students at Homerton College, Cambridge, Mount Pleasant, Liverpool, St. Charles' Training College, Cold Ash, Berkshire, Hereford Training College.

‡ Mostly technical subjects being studied at Technical Institutes.

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APPENDIX V

DEPARTMENTAL COURSES OF TECHNICAL TRAINING IN NIGERIA

A short account of the main departmental courses of technical training maintained in Nigeria, based on information supplied by the Government of Nigeria.

*A. Courses provided by the Public Works Department**The Junior Technical Staff course.*

This course was started in 1931 in Lagos. A qualified engineer of the department is posted to the course as Instructor. The entrance qualification is the Cambridge senior school certificate or the Nigeria Middle VI examination. The course includes English, mathematics, electricity and magnetism, surveying, building construction and other technical courses. It lasts for 4½ years providing a sandwich course of practice and theory, in all 3 years of practice and 1½ years of theory.

The average annual entry is 10 students. In the last 13 years 107 members of the Public Works Department junior technical staff have been trained in this course.

Students have been trained also for the Gambia and for Sierra Leone Governments and for the architectural branch of the Nigerian Public Works Department.

Junior Technical Course, Kaduna.

This course was started in 1938 and has been staffed by members of the department. The entrance qualification is the Middle VI examination. The students are from Kaduna College and they are trained for their future employment in the Native Administration Works Department. The average annual entry is 4-6. If students of the required qualifications were available, 12 entrants could be accepted each year.

*B. Courses provided by the Nigerian Railway**Technical apprentices' course for the mechanical department.*

This course was started in 1942 in Lagos. Recently it has been impossible to provide an instructor from the railway staff. Theoretical instruction has been received in the "University Evening Classes" held at Kings College, Lagos, by instructors provided by the Public Works Department.

The entrance qualification is the Cambridge senior school certificate or Nigeria Middle VI examination, and a satisfactory interview. The course lasts for 5 years. There are at present 14 students taking this course to which 6-8 could be admitted annually.

Station Staff Training course.

This course in Lagos has been running since the opening of the railway. It is under a European instructor. The standard of entry is now the Cambridge senior school certificate or the Nigeria Middle VI examination.

In 1943 a four year course was started to train selected station staff who must have had at least five years' railway experience.

C. Courses provided by the Marine Department

A course was started in 1928 in the Marine Department at Apapa, Lagos, and is under a European instructor. The entrance qualification is the Cambridge senior school certificate. It is designed to train those who will ultimately occupy senior posts on Nigerian Marine vessels. Students are trained in a six year course (of which a proportion must be spent at sea) for the Board of Trade Certificate. The dockyard has been approved, for training for this certificate. It has been found that many of the pupils have been hindered by weakness in mathematics even though they have obtained exemption from London matriculation. The numbers taking the course vary but since 1937 have averaged about 12.

D. Courses provided by the Posts and Telegraphs Department

A course was established in 1931 in Lagos. It is under a European instructor. The entrance qualification is the Nigeria Middle VI examination or an equivalent standard.

The course is for the training of sub-inspectors, and lasts six years of which the first three years provide a sandwich course of theory and practice, and the last three years provide for work in the districts.

An average of 4-6 students are admitted each year.

E. Courses provided by the Lands and Survey Department

Apart from the training of professional surveyors which has already been discussed, classes are conducted in Lagos for the training of computers, draughtsmen and other technical staff of the department. These students also attend the survey school at Oyo to get some experience of practical work.

APPENDIX VI

SURVEY SCHOOL, OYO, NIGERIA

History

1. This school was founded in Lagos in 1908 to train professional surveyors. It was the first Government school in Nigeria for training Africans for responsible professional posts. In 1926 the school was moved to Ibadan, and in 1934 to Oyo to more open country suitable for a survey school. Up till 1934 the three year course was taken entirely at the survey school but since 1934 the first two years of the course have been taken at the Higher College, Yaba, and two further years at the survey school at Oyo.

2. The survey students for the first two years of their course enjoy the general amenities of the Higher College. During the second two years of their course they are resident at the survey school at Oyo and are isolated from many of their former interests. The student body is not large enough to engage in varied corporate activities but the students have been allowed to use the playing fields of a training college nearby.

Government of the school

3. The school has always formed a part of the Government survey department and is under the control of the Director of Lands and Surveys.

Staff

4. The school has usually been run by an officer of the survey department except during two periods 1908-13 and 1930-39 when a special instructor was in charge.

Students

5. *Admission.*—Up till 1934 the aim of the entrance qualification was the senior school certificate but students with the junior certificate were often accepted. The number of vacancies in the school has always been governed by the number of vacant posts in the survey department. Until 1934, students recommended by principals of secondary schools sat for an entrance examination set by the survey department. Since 1934 the principal of the Higher College has selected for the survey course the required number of students from those who have passed the Higher College entrance examination. Since few students made the survey course their first choice, some find themselves studying for an uncongenial career. Since 1935 21 pupils have entered the Survey School. Entrants are admitted once every two years.

6. *Fees and scholarships.*—These are the same as for other students of the Higher College, Yaba. (See Chapter III).

Courses

7. The course lasts for four years. Two years are spent at the Higher College, Yaba on a science course. Two further years are spent at the Survey School at Oyo, in specialist training. At the end of this course successful students are granted a Yaba diploma.

8. Of the 21 pupils who have entered the course since 1935 10 have passed and been appointed to the survey department, 1 has passed but has not been appointed, 4 have failed, 1 has been invalided and 1 has resigned, 4 are in the survey school now. From the 6 pupils who took the last course 1942-43 1 resigned, 4 failed and 1 passed: none were appointed to the survey department. Of recent years it has proved very difficult to get Higher College students to take the survey course.

Subsequent employment of students

9. Those students who pass the survey diploma are normally absorbed by the survey department. The vacancies in the survey department are likely to increase in view of the amount of survey work which is needed as a basis for future schemes of development all over Nigeria. At the present moment only one-eighth of Nigeria has been topographically mapped.

10. We were informed that those who passed the survey course before 1934 were in many cases better suited for employment in the survey department than those who had passed the present course.

11. Many students after completing their course at the school subsequently take the Licensed Surveyors' examination, a local qualification which does not include geodetic work. Some of these surveyors subsequently leave Government service to take up an independent survey practice.

Finance

12. The cost to Government of the last two years 1942-3 at the survey school was £3,900. None of the students who took this course obtained appointment to Government service.

LONDON

PRINTED AND PUBLISHED BY HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE

To be purchased directly from H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE at the following addresses:
York House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2; 13a Castle Street, Edinburgh 2;
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SCOTTISH EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

THE NEEDS OF YOUTH IN THESE TIMES

A Report of the
Scottish Youth Advisory Committee

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1945

ONE SHILLING AND SIXPENCE NET

PREFATORY NOTE.

The following Report, submitted to the Secretary of State by the Scottish Youth Advisory Committee, is published in order that it may be available to all who are interested. The recommendations in the Report have still to be considered by the Secretary of State, and in the meantime he should not be regarded as in any way committed to accepting them.

J. Mackay Thomson /

11th May, 1945.

NOTE.—The estimated gross cost of the preparation of this Report is £395 12s. 11d. of which £110 4s. 6d. represents the estimated gross cost of the printing and publishing of this Report.

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INTRODUCTION.

To the Rt. Hon. THOMAS JOHNSTON, M.P.,
Secretary of State for Scotland.

Sir,

In March, 1943, you approved our undertaking a remit "to inquire into and make recommendations regarding

- (a) the needs of youth and how far they are met by existing agencies;
- (b) the section or sections of the youth population for which a comprehensive community service should be provided;
- (c) the extent to which the service should seek to provide for the needs of youth;
- (d) the means and agencies by which the service can and should be provided;
- (e) the type of authority by which the service should be developed, co-ordinated and controlled;
- (f) the influences leading to a sound development of character and to the prevention of anti-social conduct and juvenile delinquency."

This report deals with items (a) and (f) of the above remit and we think it desirable to remove at the outset any misconceptions as to the character of our report. In the first place we present the report as a background to the work which still lies ahead of us in carrying out our further remits; secondly, we hope that it may form a framework within which any future committee, or any organisation, or body of investigators, interested in the problems of youth, may be able to work, to fill in and develop many points of detail and to formulate specific proposals and experiments. The report is an attempt to survey from the widest angle the whole potentialities of youth, the influences affecting it, and the means by which its potentialities may be developed and guided along sound lines.

Previous Government inquiries affecting young people have all been made into particular aspects of their life and needs. We believe this to be the first occasion on which a Minister of State has given a committee an opportunity of taking into comprehensive review all the needs and possibilities of that stage of human development which we call "youth," of considering the vitally important period of transition from childhood to manhood and womanhood as the integrated process which it really is.

In undertaking this unique task we have been conscious of its possible usefulness at this time when there is a growing awareness that the responsibilities and opportunities facing the people of our country will call for the full development of the potentialities of all our young people. We hope, too, that when so many different and often competitive plans are being canvassed for the better preparation of youth for industry, for citizenship, for parenthood, for leisure, and, in fact, for all the functions of adult life, there will be found to be some value in a study of youth considered in the round, treated as a phase of common experience involving many preparations and giving rise to many needs—a study in which a conscientious effort has been made to keep all the aspects and purposes well in mind and in which the claims and interests of no one function have predominated.

In any statements, suggestions or recommendations that we make we would make it clear that we have not proceeded on evidence led before us. The subject matter of our remit was so wide and in many respects so little capable of being dealt with by evidence, other than "opinion" evidence, in the time at our disposal that we considered the only possible basis of our report to be that of the joint knowledge, experience and ideas of the individual members of which the committee was composed, along with certain material drawn from documentary sources and the assistance of the assessors appointed by the different Government Departments. We had in mind also that the committee was a very large one, representative of many different interests and including many individuals with a direct interest in, and knowledge of, various organisations and activities of youth.

In the circumstances it was perhaps inevitable that at many points we had to approach our problems from a theoretical, or idealistic, standpoint. It may be that practical considerations will dictate solutions along other lines than we have envisaged. Again, in many matters, to some of which we have called attention in our report, detailed expert or scientific enquiry may be necessary before the proper approach or the correct solution can be discovered.

We have found it necessary, in order to present a proper picture of the needs of youth as we see them, to deal with the school as an agency in its development. In so doing we have not sought to encroach on the province of the Advisory Council on Education. Our suggestions in this field will probably be given further and fuller consideration by the Council and will be reviewed, we hope, in relation to the whole picture of youth as we see it and have endeavoured to describe it.

Lastly we would like to emphasise that we feel that some means should be sought by which young people themselves may be brought into consultation as regards their needs and the means for their satisfaction. It has been felt by some of us that the gap between the generations is, in present conditions, greater than would normally exist and that too often middle-age plans for a future which youth neither visualises nor is willing to accept. For the reasons already given, youth, as such, has not been consulted in the preparation of this report. Youth itself may none the less have a valuable contribution to make, and in any further and more detailed enquiry that may follow on this report or any of its branches we hope that this aspect will be kept in view.

The report has been compiled mainly from the findings of sub-committees which worked under the chairmanship of Dr. W. A. F. Hepburn and Mr. Stanley Nairne. We should like to acknowledge with gratitude the ready and able assistance which we have received on all occasions from the officials who have sat with us as assessors.

We are also particularly indebted to our Secretary, Mr. C. H. Dand, for the patient and able way in which he has assisted us at our meetings and has undertaken so much of the arduous labour of preparation and of draftsmanship of the material of this report. Thanks are also due to Mr. Campbell Young, who acted as Clerk to the Committee.

CHAPTER I.

THE MEANING OF ADOLESCENCE.

The main phases in the development of a young person from the onset of puberty to the threshold of adult life are briefly described with a view to indicating needs to which the succeeding phases give rise.

1. Adolescence is the period when boys and girls begin to pass from childhood to manhood and womanhood. With the physical changes go many mental concomitants and consequences. In the study of those physical changes and their psychological accompaniments care must be taken to avoid oversimplification. Every child passes into and through adolescence in its own way and according to its own time-table. The sex glands come into activity earlier in some children than in others; some mature quickly, others slowly. Some appear to have little difficulty in adjusting themselves psychologically to the phases of their physical development, others become the victims of many forms of mental and emotional disturbance. The causes of those variations are themselves a very complex study requiring consideration of the racial strains within our population, of innate mental and emotional differences, and of the manifold influences of the many varieties of homes, schools and other social environments. There are, nevertheless, certain fairly well-defined phases of development through which every normal adolescent passes. In large part both boys and girls pass through the same phases, and the following paragraphs are to be understood as referring to both sexes unless it is otherwise indicated. It should be noted, however, that girls mature earlier than boys and that between the ages of ten and eighteen girls gain upon boys in physical maturity by 18 months to two years on the average.

The First Stage.

PHYSICAL ENERGY, GAMES, AND "GANGS".

2. The first stage comprises the years immediately before and after puberty. In the majority of cases this first stage may be regarded as beginning between ten and twelve and passing into the next stage somewhere around thirteen or fourteen. The first result of the onset of puberty is that the child becomes highly charged with physical energy for which he seeks vigorous, and also boisterous, outlets. He wants to engage in quick, active muscular movements; to run, jump, shout, sing, and make noisy demonstrations of the access of life within him. At the same time, the physical changes which are taking place manifest themselves psychologically in three directions. He feels a need, firstly, of the society and support of numbers of his contemporaries; a sense of community dawns in him; he begins to develop a social consciousness. This need combines with his physical energy to interest him more than before in the organised team-game. He becomes aware of the team-spirit and begins to be willing to subordinate his personal feelings, comforts and interests to whatever efforts, standards and codes the playing of the game or membership of the team may demand. The comradeship of the game does not meet the whole of his need, however. Generally, he wants a comradeship that will cover all or nearly all the activities and enthusiasms of his daily life. Hence the "gang" that tends to go everywhere together and do everything in unison. This community life provokes an interest in ethics and the child adopts the codes of ethics that prevail among the members of his own gang or are developed

by them to serve their own purposes. He wants to dress, talk, and conduct himself in every way in accordance with the modes and manners of his intimate contemporaries.

QUESTING CURIOSITY: ROMANCE V. REALITY.

3. Simultaneously with the development of this sense of community, he begins to exhibit a questing curiosity to try different forms of activity and interest. He responds readily to many kinds of stimuli—something he may read or hear, "crazes" that arise in his school or neighbourhood, echoes of activities current in the adult world. His responses are often very short-lived but all the time he is trying himself out and making discoveries about the world around him. At this stage, too, he begins to have some difficulties in adjusting the "make-believe" propensities which he has carried over from childhood to his growing interest in real life. A little earlier he was content to imagine himself riding a horse on the prairie, flying an aeroplane, driving a car, robbing a bank. He is still a romantic. He would still like to emulate the cowboy, the air-pilot, the racing motorist, but he has become too sophisticated to ride on anything but a real horse or in a real car or aeroplane. Sometimes, unfortunately, in default of other realities, he finds a release from this embarrassment in raiding real shops.

INDIVIDUALITY, INCOMPATIBILITY, AND "REBELLION."

4. The third characteristic of this first stage of adolescence is a growing consciousness of being a creature with a separate existence—separate mainly from the family in which he has been brought up. He begins to think of himself as the possessor of individual looks, tastes, aptitudes, disabilities, and so on. This consciousness is related to the developing sense of community, being in some part a step towards community life and at the same time an antidote to the complete submergence of the young individuality in the life of the gang. He distinguishes himself from his family in order to form outside loyalties and associations but also begins to think of himself, albeit vaguely at first, as bringing a certain individual element to those outside associations. This consciousness of separate individuality affects, moreover, the outlook of the gang as a whole. They are aware that their tastes, habits, and interests are in a considerable way out of conformity with the lives of all who are below and above them in the chrono-psychological scale. They are too boisterous, too changeable, too uncertainly poised between reality and romance to be easily tolerated in any more stabilised community. They are thrown back, therefore, upon themselves and find a certain comfort of the spirit in their common bond of outlawry. In this state of mind there is an inevitable tendency to resort to retaliation. Adults dislike noise, slang, untidiness; young adolescents are deliberately noisy, slangy, and untidy. Society is sensitive about the care of private and public property; the young adolescent is inclined to treat this sensitiveness with the contempt which his feeling of outlawry suggests as being appropriate. In the absence of restraints and of sufficient lawful means of expending his energies and satisfying his curiosities and romantic longings, only a small step may be required to bring him into conflict with the law.

DIFFICULTIES OF ADJUSTMENT.

5. The adolescent in this first stage remains in large measure a child. He is always presenting contradictions to himself and to others. One moment he is displaying either his former childlike qualities or weakness, the next moment he is putting on new and possibly dismaying features. He is a conformist within his gang and a rebel outside it. He is passionately enthusiastic one week over an interest which he spurns the week following. Altogether he is difficult to

fit comfortably into any world peopled by those who are not his own psychological contemporaries and sometimes he cannot live in entire amity even with them.

The Second Stage.

GROWING COMMUNITY CONSCIOUSNESS.

6. Somewhere between fourteen and sixteen in the majority of boys and earlier in girls another stage develops. The body is adapting itself to its new physical powers and energies. The turbulences of the first stage are beginning to tone down. The growing youth begins to be more successful in adjusting himself to the world of adult reality in which he is more anxious to be acceptable. While the gang habit may persist to some extent, it ceases to play so important a part in satisfying his need for the comradeship of kindred spirits. He becomes both more catholic and more selective. He is conscious of larger communities and able to comprehend his own relationship to a variety of them. He can see himself more clearly as a member of his family, his school, office, or workshop, his club, his football team, his church. At the same time as he becomes more aware of his own potentialities or the attraction of particular pleasures, he tends to choose one or more companions who have the same interests. He may be acutely conscious of difficulties in his community relationships. His developing individuality and desire for recognition as a personality may bring him no less into conflict with his family than did his early adolescent ebullience. He begins to discover the importance in community life of differences in modes and manners of living, of social and economic distinctions.

IDEAS AND JUDGMENTS: CRITICISMS AND SCEPTICISMS.

7. His maturing intelligence gives him the power of grasping and applying ideas and he will apply this power in as many directions as his degree of intelligence and the circumstances of his life permit. If he has done or wishes to do anything which does not conform with the rules and regulations, he will be ingenious in producing justifications of his conduct drawn from an acute observation of adult ways of life and thinking. He begins to distinguish clearly between precept and practice, to be capable of criticism of external things, and of scepticism which may even become cynicism. He brings a judgment of his own to bear on the work which he may be asked to do. If it appeals to his imagination or his sense of values, or if he is given a reason for doing it which he is prepared to accept, he will apply himself to it. If it does not comply with these requirements, he will find arguments for avoiding it. At this stage, of course, the adolescent's use of his intellect produces rather raw and often erratic results. The point of interest for this analysis is the delight which he is prepared to take in the use of his newly found powers of observation and reasoning, a delight, unfortunately, which quickly passes unless he is given suitable opportunities and encouragement to go on exercising them.

INCLINATIONS AND WORK.

8. His increasing maturity expresses itself also in his nicer selection of the activities and interests to which he is prepared to devote himself. He discovers that there are certain things which he can do more readily, with greater prospect of success, or with more personal satisfaction. The direction of his talents begins to reveal itself and greatly affects his attitude to work in school and in the office or workshop. If he is given an opportunity to develop his emerging capacities he will generally work well; if his work calls for application of a type which comes less easily to him he may be indifferent, evasive, or positively resentful. The work which he is set to do at this stage is of critical

importance, therefore, to his whole future development, and, if he is to grow into an adequate human being, it should bear a considered relation to his own inclinations. On the other hand, he is still very immature and consequently can only be dimly aware, as a rule, either of his inclinations or of how these might best be applied in a lifelong career. He is at a vital stage, moreover, in the development of his character. If everything is made easy for him, he may not develop will-power, grit, determination. If, however, he is forced to work too much against the grain he can easily become soured and his emerging capacities may be thwarted and stunted. A nice balance requires to be preserved between allowing him to do what he likes and ensuring that he will undergo certain experiences that may be good for him. Fortunately, he is still a romantic as well as a budding rationalist and if the right appeal is made both to his imagination and to his intelligence he is generally capable of putting considerable effort into his less agreeable tasks.

EMOTION AND THE SPIRIT.

9. Meanwhile, deep down, the wells of his emotional being are beginning to flow. He has perceptions of his own uniqueness and solitariness, of the vague mystery and strangeness of life. He knows feelings which cannot be easily expressed and shared. There will be times, too, when he is aware of personal imperfections and inadequacies. The intensity and endurance of these perceptions and feelings will depend on temperament, environment, and education. He may court them or run away from them, but he experiences them. In this mood he is ready to be introduced, or re-introduced, perhaps, to the expressions of his feelings which are to be found in literature, art, music, and religion. He is ripe for the discovery that he is not alone in his possession of a mysterious inner life in which he can tremble and suffer or be heartened and exalted: and if he is given opportunities to make contacts with these things of the spirit, they receive a flickering illumination from his own adolescent experiences which should encourage him in due course to more adult explorations and appreciations. If religion, expressed in suitably inspiring forms of worship or through the presentation of examples of heroic and self-disregarding service, is an active constituent of his life, thoughts and outlooks may be implanted in him which will colour and shape his whole career and personality. It is in this period of their lives, for example, that many boys and girls have conceived the idea of preparing themselves for some kind of missionary service. This is the period, too, in which under favourable conditions he will derive a new satisfaction from the effort to express his growing personality in things of his own making or doing, on paper, on a stage, on a work-bench, or round a club committee table, and on all these efforts the contacts he has made with other people's expression of their emotions and aspirations naturally have a large influence.

PRESENT JOYS AND POSSIBLE FUTURES.

10. His general awakening has an important effect on his imaginative life. It was noted that in the first stage of adolescence difficulty was liable to arise in the adjustment of the romantic world which he longed to inhabit to the actual world in which he had his physical being. In the second stage the romantic longings persist and may even be intensified by the developing sense of personality, but they are adjusting themselves more and more to certain factual situations. He still longs for life to be vivid and exciting; he still sees himself as a potential hero and adventurer. But he is no longer the easy Jack of All Adventures that he used to be. His earlier day-dreams and imaginings were an aspect of his present. His new dreams are tending to be anticipations of possible futures and, as such, have to contend with the more definite self that he is beginning to know, especially with its inclinations towards

expression through particular forms of work and action, and also with its increasing intellectual awareness of the practical difficulties involved in the realisation of dreams. It would be wrong, of course, to suggest that the imagination of youth in the second stage of adolescence is entirely preoccupied with dreams of self and the future. The present has its own excitements to offer—mainly in the closer contacts with adult life which are becoming possible, particularly for young people who have left school and are able to claim the added status and freedom which they associate with the earning of money. The anticipations, and the realities, of going to a dance or taking part in a game or going on a holiday are all part of the business of growing up. Nevertheless dreams of the future play a vital part in the life of the adolescent, and consequences of some moment arise when conditions are unfavourable to their proper indulgence. The conditions may be unfavourable in several ways. The young person's potentialities may not have been brought to the surface through lack of opportunities for their full discovery. His imaginative life remains confused. He is more or less aware of a certain frustration and may take refuge either in an aimless apathy to all that goes on around him or in a nervous search for temporary assuagements of his discontents. He becomes a frivolous pleasure-seeker, living only for the immediate present, or reverts to the earlier stage of being an obstreperous nuisance. In either case his development is stunted. It may be that he is beginning to be aware of the directions in which his potentialities lie but he knows too little of how they might be used in the larger world to be able to indulge in satisfactory visions of his future. Again, his sense of the disparity between his dreams and the realities of his opportunities may already be acute and he may consequently be in danger of developing into a disappointed idealist, a disillusioned cynic, or an active enemy of society.

SEX.

11. Underlying all these changes in the mentality of the adolescent is the important change which is taking place in his body, and at this period he becomes aware of the fact of sex as affecting his own life. His behaviour depends to a considerable extent upon his upbringing and the conventions and outlook of his social environment and the effect which these have had upon his character. There are in consequence great variations in the reactions of young people to this development. With some, outlook and interests are such that the development is a quiet growth, the vigorous pursuit of a wide range of worth-while activities reducing the incidence of erotic speculations and imaginings. Previous acquaintance with some of the facts of procreation and birth, animal or human, may help the young person to realise that what is happening to him is not abnormal. In the majority of cases, however, there will be a measure of wonder about novel feelings and experience. It must be said that many children are not treated fairly in this matter. They learn about sex only that it causes adults to be strangely embarrassed, and when sensitive children with this experience become aware that the secret is theirs, it is not unnatural that they think of it as shameful. So there is formed the habit of mind which regards sex as a guilty secret; and the furtiveness of approach to it which is a consequence of that attitude. This adds to the conflicts and confusions of adolescents and prevents them from seeking, or being offered, the guidance of understanding adults. Some try to face their difficulties in lonely silence, others seek companionship in the exchange of furtive jokes and similar confidences. The result in either case is unfortunate. The silent sufferers are apt to develop an unhealthy morbidity while the more outspoken are tempted to find a conversational outlet in what is vulgar and indecent. The result in either case is unwholesome and unfortunate. With many these conditions do not become extreme, and many also become more healthy in

regard to sex when they grow beyond adolescence. But a sound education or training of youth should normally be a remedy against furtiveness in this matter. Already in this generation sound religious and moral educators recognise the need of answering simply and clearly, and as a matter of course, the questions which adolescents ask. Generally speaking, there is less shyness of this subject than formerly. But there is a danger in supposing that the only enemy in the matter is factual ignorance. The normal adolescent has also to learn to control his imagination and the stimuli which can come to him externally. If he grows up in a sound moral atmosphere, he will not be furtive but he may be reticent on this subject, talking of it frankly and fully only with those in whom he has special confidence, and remembering always that this is a matter which concerns the very integrity of his character.

The Third Stage.

12. Somewhere around the age of 16—but again rather earlier in girls—the adolescent enters upon the third stage of his progress to adulthood. The personality which is emerging from the earlier stages looks around upon the world and contemplates the acquisition of certain things which nature and his own intelligence tell him are going to be necessary to his existence. Chief among these are work—a means of earning a livelihood and of using his abilities—and the companionship of the opposite sex.

A REASONABLE EXPECTATION OF AN ATTRACTIVE FUTURE.

13. Under present conditions, the majority of young people are at work before they reach this stage, and few of the boys, at least, are completely without consciousness that they have lives ahead of them for which some kind of vocational equipment will be necessary. In the new stage, however, the needs of the future are looming closer. The boy begins to think, perhaps, that he would like to claim full adult status by leaving his home and providing entirely for himself. He may be growing too old for the kinds of work he has done since leaving school. For a variety of reasons the question of a job which will give him the means of life assumes front-rank importance in his mind. The working girl has a similar question on her mind, but her thoughts tend to be concerned more with her prospects of marriage than with her equipment for retaining a job. In the case of the boy or girl who is still at school during the onset of this third stage the actual choice of some job or career begins to be a matter of pressing necessity as the end of school-days draws steadily nearer. The adolescent is fortunate if he is able to delay his choice of a livelihood until he reaches this degree of maturity. If he has been given reasonable facilities at earlier stages he should know in what directions his abilities lie and should have some idea of how they might be utilised in the work of the world. He is in a position to give serious consideration to his possibilities and to apply himself with real determination and imagination to making full use of his opportunities of preparation and training. With his new apperceptions of the future, he is ready, too, to adjust himself more definitely to reality. He is not wholly free of the world of dreams and expectations, however, and it is important that his prospects of work should be such as to permit him to make the adjustment with some degree of personal satisfaction. If his prospects seem good to himself, he is usually ready to develop rapidly. If the jobs available to him are in no way to his liking or if they offer very small expectations of an attractive future, he is liable to be affected by a feeling of frustration or of either passive or active discontent from which he may not easily recover. By this stage, therefore, he should either have awakened from his earlier romantic dreams of a future to a reasonable expectation of a real future which will contain certain things that are now seen to be congenial to him or his dreams and his prospects should still seem to have a possibility of converging.

ADVENTURES INTO ROMANCE.

14. While the nearer approach of adulthood may be casting shadows over certain aspects of his imaginative life, it is also lighting up other aspects. Sex ceases to be just a mixture of physical and intellectual facts and mysteries as a result of which males and females are oddly separated and equally oddly conjoined and becomes in addition an emotional excitant which sharply splits the other sex into its individual members and lends to some of them a new and highly romantic significance. Awareness of the romantic possibilities of the other sex is generally present much earlier in both sexes but, whatever a young person's relations with the other sex may have been, in the third stage of adolescence they undergo subtle changes. The mating instinct is at work and the new personalities are beginning the search for suitable counterparts. The close companionships of one sex which were noticed as a feature of the second stage of adolescence are usually continued in these new experiences. Girls and boys seek their contacts with the other sex in couples and tend to go on forming quartettes until experimental flirtations are succeeded by deeper attachments. The quartette arrangements serves several purposes: the companions lend courage to one another in the excitements of these encounters with the strange creatures of another sex; the safety of numbers is provided as long as it may be felt necessary; an element of chaperonage can be claimed if propriety seems to demand it; and when the companions are alone again they can give each other their confidences and compare notes. The last is by no means the least in importance, because the members of the couples are making discoveries about an exciting aspect of life as well as about the individuals they consort with and for that purpose an exchange of notes is necessary.

PREPARATION FOR LOVE-MAKING.

15. All normally constituted adolescents who are leading normal social lives fall under this stimulus of sex and the majority of them contrive to obtain some experience of the kind mentioned. It is a matter of some importance, however, that these romantic experiences should be approached in a spirit which will both safeguard the young adventurers from possible perils and also enable them to derive the emotional and spiritual benefit which is definitely obtainable from their early love-affairs. Essentials of this spirit are the idealism inspired and the restraints imposed by the right kind of moral and spiritual background, a healthy attitude to sex, an appreciation of the place of love and sex in the development of the kindlier emotions and the finer feelings of humankind, and an experience of a wider comradeship with the other sex in activities in which the sexual impulse can either be sublimated or forgotten. Whether a boy or girl is able to approach the matter with this equipment will depend on earlier upbringing, particularly in the first and second stages of adolescence. Neither a moral and spiritual background nor a healthy attitude to sex can be produced to order at a moment's notice, and the young person's need of them at this stage has to be anticipated and prepared for.

GUIDANCE IN MATTERS OF SEX.

16. When the fancy is turning to thoughts of love, the adolescent is ripe for further cultural advances. New possibilities of appreciation of music, art, the more aesthetic aspects of craftwork, and literature are opened up. There are, of course, many varieties of art and literature which can make an appeal at this time, and the importance of the adolescent's being able to apply for himself certain standards in the way of moral and cultural values cannot be over-estimated. The fact is that when love and sex begin to take the adolescent under their sway, he has great need of sympathetic adult guidance. The crux of the whole matter is how far his impulses and emotions should remain a secret to be shared only with his intimate contemporaries and how far they should be

brought into the open and catered for by experienced adults in the same way as provision may be made for his training for health, work, citizenship, and so on. The problem involves many delicate considerations, but there is no doubt that careful study should be given to it if full advantage is to be taken of the developmental possibilities of this most critical phase of adolescence and if its dangers are to be avoided.

HUMAN SYMPATHIES: SOCIAL AND POLITICAL IDEALISMS.

17. Largely as a result of the interest taken in work and sex, the third stage of adolescence brings a widening of the social interests of youth. Unless their horizons have been very much circumscribed by cramped social environments, they begin to realise that the influences upon their lives are not limited to the happenings within their own families, places of employment, and towns but range far afield and manifest themselves in complex forms. As workers, they are beginning to look towards a world in which politics, economics, trade unions, wages, markets, and other things discussed in the press and in the conversations of their elders are of vital consequence; they are potentially interested in housing, town planning, social services; and other matters affecting homes and communities. The extent to which they actually probe into these matters depends upon the encouragement they receive, upon the facilities available to them for guidance, and upon the development which they achieved in the second stage of adolescence, but the seeds of interest are there and in favourable conditions they can be made to sprout. This is the stage, too, in which adolescents are ready to embrace causes discovered in consequence of their growing social awareness and appealing to their emotions or their sense of justice, or adopted because they are becoming impatient with a world which seems to have so many imperfections. They will give devoted service to persons who engage their sympathies and, if conditions are present to call them forth, they may display considerable powers of leadership and readiness to assume responsibilities. While in certain respects the young person is becoming more of an individualist in his attitudes to life—it is his own work he seeks, his own mate, his own hobbies—at the same time his sense of community grows with each new contact and experience and, except when the contacts and experiences have a definitely chilling effect on him, he tends to be predisposed to generous human sympathies, to social and political idealisms, and to a sense of brotherhood, which might seem to be directly at variance with his individualisms. Ideally, there is no contradiction between individuality and social brotherhood and in this stage of development the soul can be—if the circumstances are propitious—large enough and fresh enough to be able to embrace both these aspects of human possibility.

LACK OF DEVELOPMENT.

18. All that has been said of this third stage applies in some degree to all young people who pass through it. Everything is there in the form of propensities, at least. But many of the best of these propensities may not make their presence felt to any appreciable extent because the surrounding conditions of intellectual and emotional life which are necessary to give them nourishment have not been present at the time when they were ready for cultivation. To give one important example, the third stage of adolescence with its closer integration of personality, its deeper emotional life, its latent idealisms, and its increased awareness of social responsibility should offer interesting possibilities in the development of the religious consciousness of youth. That it fails to do so in many cases can be attributed, in some of these cases, at least, to the lack of development of certain impulses and propensities (in particular those described in Paragraph 9) which are available for cultivation in the preceding stage.

Physical Growth During Adolescence.

19. This chapter has been concerned mainly with the effects on the mental, emotional and social lives of young people of certain physical changes which are peculiar to adolescence. But other processes of physical growth are going on. Over the period between 11 and 18 adolescents grow taller and put on weight. Between 11 and 16 there is a very marked "springing-up" stage which demands special consideration in an examination of the needs of youth. The long bones of the body consist of shafts and articular ends or joints separated by actively growing plates of cartilage. Growth of these bones is the result of the extension of the cartilage, which is slowly but steadily calcified and converted into bone. So the shaft increases in length at both ends until towards the end of adolescence the growth cartilage ceases to develop and the young person has attained his or her full stature. While the process of growth is going on, however, the bones remain unknit and are liable to injuries, deformities, and damage to the growth cartilage. The joints are soft and can easily be over-strained. The areas of growth, too, are very susceptible to disease. It is highly important, therefore, that adolescents should not be subjected to conditions of living and working which may be injurious to them in this comparatively delicate stage of their physical development. Such conditions include the performance of heavy, continuous muscular work and the adoption at work of positions likely to cause strain or postural fatigue. If these dangers are overlooked, young people—girls especially—may develop postural defects which can never be completely rectified and may be left with physical weaknesses which will handicap them in later life.

Differences Between Girls and Boys.

20. Fundamentally, boys and girls are affected by the same influences during adolescence and tend to react to them in broadly similar ways. There are one or two differences of detail which should be mentioned, nevertheless, if the needs of girls are to be given due consideration. For one thing, girls are more susceptible to over-strain during adolescence than boys are because of the greater changes which their bodies are undergoing in preparation for motherhood. Moreover, as already mentioned, between the ages of ten and eighteen girls gain over boys in physical maturity by eighteen months to two years on the average. By eighteen, girls have reached their full stature as a rule while boys may go on growing taller until about the age of twenty-four. There are strong reasons, therefore, for the view that special care should be taken to protect girls during adolescence against both physical and mental strains and that they should be permitted to lead freer and more leisurely lives in comparison with boys of their own age and members of their own sex at earlier and later stages of development. Unfortunately, the adolescent girl is often expected to carry a not inconsiderable burden of duties in the home in addition to the strains to which she may be subjected in school or at work.

THE GREATER EMOTIONAL SUGGESTIBILITY OF GIRLS.

21. In the first stage of adolescence, the differences between the sexes are superficial, the restless, rowdy exuberance of the boy appearing as a shriller, sharper, more nervous excitability in the girl. It is in the second stage that more important differences display themselves, principally in the attitudes of the sexes to work and in their relative preoccupations with the present and the future. The whole business of learning to work and so of preparing consciously for the future, which should mean much to the adolescent boy, plays a very much smaller part in the life of the adolescent girl. Preparations go on, but they are less conscious, less active, less avowedly purposive. On the other hand, when a girl is definitely encouraged to train herself for a career.

she generally devotes herself with more single-heartedness to her preparation than does the average boy. She works harder and learns more rapidly. The explanation lies partly in her earlier maturity and partly in her natural tendency to conform more readily to whatever seems to be required of her by the society in which she finds herself. She is more pliable, more suggestible than the boy. Whereas the boy requires to be won through the intellect and the imagination, the girl can be persuaded almost entirely through her emotions, and the influences which play on these tend for the most part to induce in her a willing acceptance of the ideas, standards, and ambitions of those whose lives are closely bound up with her own and whose affection she is desirous of holding. Her emotional suggestibility works in more than one direction, of course. If all her associates live only in the present and no more seems to be expected of her, she will tend to follow them to have their goodwill just a little more readily than will a boy in similar circumstances. If she has been encouraged to value the love and esteem of a Creator, she will be more religious than a boy usually is. If her upbringing has tended to suggest that sex is a sin, she will be deeply worried over what nature is doing to her. If her imaginative fare consists only of cheap novelettes, her dreams will be full of the emotional reactions which they are designed to produce. And if her emotions are roused in favour of the good and the unselfish, good and self-sacrificing will she often be.

The Final Stage.

22. These, then, are features of the transition from childhood to adulthood to which we wish to call attention for the purposes of our inquiry. It is perhaps advisable that we should repeat the note of warning with which this chapter began. Every child passes through adolescence in its own way and according to its own time-table. At the same time, when the needs of adolescents extend beyond the possibilities of their own homes, and particularly when any question of the provision which might be made by public authorities and voluntary organisations arises, common factors have to be sought and groupings will require to be considered. Our concern in this chapter has been to outline the most common features of the three large phases of adolescent development and to indicate broadly where in the lives of most adolescents these features occur.

THE "FILLING-OUT" PERIOD.

23. It is impossible to say when adolescence ends and adulthood begins. Boys may still be growing in height after the age of 18 or 19 but "springing-up" has ended for most of them by that age and been succeeded by "filling-out." Most girls are fully grown at eighteen or nineteen. Physical adolescence with its psychological concomitants is really over. The apprentice is normally accepted as a journeyman about the age of 21. Majority is legally attained at 21, but if a young man of 21 is a student at a university he will be regarded by many people as still a youth. On the other hand, at 21 he can exercise his rights as a citizen and he has been free to marry since he was sixteen. In the eyes of the criminal law he has been an adult from seventeen. It can be said, at least, that the average young person is not really a stable adult until the early twenties have been passed and that in considering the needs of youth a fourth stage should be added to the three already dealt with. "Filling-out"—physically, mentally, morally, spiritually, vocationally, and socially—describes this further stage adequately enough and, moreover, makes the point that what there is to fill out will depend on the "springing-up" which has been possible in the earlier stages. The adult reaps what the adolescent has sown, and the fourth stage should be a period for the ripening of the grain—an opportunity for the developed personality to become accustomed to itself, to

toughen itself in the winds of experience and enrich itself in the sunlight of the knowledge which it is now ready to absorb before the real responsibilities of adulthood begin.

CHAPTER II.

THE TREATMENT OF ADOLESCENTS.

An examination of certain respects in which the needs of youth have not been met and the consequences arising therefrom.

24. The analysis which we have made in the preceding chapter suggests that if the interests and possibilities appearing in each phase of adolescence were all encouraged, a young person could expect to arrive at adulthood with his potentialities reasonably well developed and with some pretensions to a physical, mental, spiritual, social and cultural experience which would be very useful to him in adult life. All who come into intimate contact with numbers of young men and women are aware that in a great many cases this expectation is not being realised—potentialities remain undeveloped and the equipment for adult living is lamentably slender. We consider that society should be concerned about this disparity between promise and performance and we make the following observations on certain possible causes.

The First Stage.

LACK OF OUTLETS FOR PHYSICAL ENERGY.

25. We noted that with the onset of puberty the child becomes highly charged with physical energy for which he seeks vigorous and even boisterous outlets. He becomes a player of organised games and tends to associate with "gangs" of young people with similar needs to his own. The 1931 census of houses revealed that 46.4 per cent. of Scottish homes consisted of two rooms or less. In one town the percentage was as high as 73.9. In few Scottish working-class houses is there sufficient living space for every member of the family. In these circumstances, groups of friends have rarely the space to meet in their own homes, even for quiet games. In all areas there is a great shortage of suitable indoor accommodation to which they can resort as members of their own gangs or of juvenile organisations. During the last twenty years—thanks to the activities of the National Playing Fields Association, the King George Memorial Fields Foundation, the Miners' Welfare Commission, and to a more progressive attitude on the part of local authorities—the number of playing fields has increased considerably. There was a great leeway to be made up, however. There are many small towns and villages which have no permanent playing-field accommodation, while the accommodation in most towns is still insufficient to provide adequately for the needs of the age-groups of their populations for the preservation of whose health and fitness the playing of organised games is of the greatest value. When local authorities are providing for the recreation of the people, they have not always considered the special needs and circumstances of children in the first stage of adolescence. These younger adolescents are a menace in the children's playing-spaces and a nuisance to adults to suit whose tastes and appreciations parks are often laid out. The primary need of the 10-14 years old is a playing-space close enough to his own home to enable him to play vigorous games with his companions in his shorter periods of leisure—between school and tea-time, between home lessons and bed-

time. In the crowded districts of towns and cities he is very inadequately served in this respect. There are many towns in which facilities for swimming are lacking or not readily accessible to the younger age-groups; the possibilities of providing prepared and guarded pools in rivers and lochs are often neglected or too lightly dismissed. It is true that instances may be quoted of playing accommodation which is not always used by the 10-14 year olds for the playing of the organised games for which it was intended, particularly when, for one reason or another, football is not permissible or possible. Children are introduced to a variety of organised games in their physical recreation periods in the school time-table. That they show little inclination to adopt other games than football for leisure-time use is due partly to their lack of the various articles of equipment which are needed and partly to the absence of any leadership to guide them into a more varied use of the time and space that may be available to them. Few of the schools in the crowded urban areas are provided with playing-field accommodation, and because of the lack of facilities the organisation of leisure-time games for children attending primary and junior secondary schools is still not a very strong feature of school life.

QUESTING CURIOSITY UNSATISFIED.

26. Reference was made to "a questing curiosity to try different forms of activities and interest." The importance to the development of any child of the adequate gratification of this very proper curiosity should not require to be stressed, but guidance is clearly needed, and in this respect many children are gravely handicapped. Since the need lies definitely in the educational field, the first duty to satisfy it should fall, presumably, on the school. Efforts in this direction are made by many teachers, but the facilities obtainable in school are often limited and the exigencies of curricula and time-tables and the claims of the more generally recognised objectives of schooling confine these efforts to the seizing of incidental opportunities which lessons may afford or to the organisation of voyages of discovery outwith school hours. However it may be done, the child is more often an observer and a listener than a doer, and in this stage it is personal tasting by means of his own activity that the child who is not academically gifted most desires. The consequence is that many children have a tendency to be bored and exasperated with the fare offered them in school at this age. They want to get away from the desk, the book, the paper and the pencil to the filling of real tanks with real water, the laying of real bricks, the papering of real walls, the revolutions of real engines, the cooking of real food, and the bathing of real babies. They want to exchange the word for the deed. They are in the mood to learn whatever may be necessary to help them to try out their bodies and minds in exploring and creating, and school too frequently condemns them to further arid reading, writing and counting. In their haste to make contact with new experience and with the realities of action, their thoughts turn more and more to the day when they will be released from school, their impatience with schooling grows stronger, and the questing curiosity within them, which should be facilitating their education, actually has the effect of stultifying it. Admittedly, the school does more to satisfy the questing curiosity of the child who learns readily through the spoken and the written word and who can derive satisfaction from purely mental appreciations. These children are generally earning some commendation for the work they do at school and are looking forward to a school life of longer duration. They escape boredom on these accounts, but it does not necessarily follow that they are really deriving all the benefit they should and that more contact with other ways of acquiring knowledge and experience would not be valuable to them. Schools with the necessary equipment provide a number of manual activities for their pupils and considerable efforts are being made to develop a curriculum with a less academic bias. School handwork and bench-

work and domestic science hardly satisfy the adolescent's real needs, however, because they tend to be given to him as introductions to techniques rather than as opportunities for experiment and discovery. He does not want merely to learn how to handle a few woodwork tools. He wants the feel of many different kinds of tools, the sight of many trades and skills, the thrill of contacts with things that have importance in his imaginative life.

ACCESS TO OBJECTS OF INTEREST.

27. Since at no other period of his development will the child display quite the same eagerness to look at and learn something about a multitude of things, it is a pity that access to objects of interest is often difficult for the early adolescent. Being, as a rule, without much money to spend, he is an object of little interest to the commercial purveyors of things to do and see or to enjoy—with the exception of the publishers of certain ranges of books and magazines which are specially produced for him and, to a very much smaller degree, the cinemas. Children of the 10-14 group often visit cinemas two, three, and four times in a week. Almost the only films which are ever made with their patronage in view, however, are the "Wild Westerns" and while these are generally wholesome enough, they traverse very beaten tracks in plots, geography and morals and the children's horizons are in no way extended by them. A great part of cinema programmes is definitely unsuitable for them. In some areas interesting experiments have been made in the form of special Saturday morning orchestral concerts and cinema shows for school children and conducted visits to museums and art galleries. The efforts have abundantly proved their worth. The necessary facilities for concerts and visits to galleries are not available in all areas, but if the need had been really appreciated, a variety of ways and means of meeting it could have been developed.

FAILURE TO MAKE GOOD IN SCHOOL LIFE.

28. There is still another aspect of early adolescence which tends to be neglected—the child's developing sense of individuality and his simultaneous need to express himself through close and active co-operation with his fellows. A school may easily fail a child in those respects. If he is near the top of his class, he will be encouraged and picked out for individual recognition. His growing feeling of being a person in his own right is ministered to and he obtains certain necessary satisfactions. If he is unable to achieve distinction in this regard, the school may not offer him any other opportunity of achieving it. His school life becomes a source of dissatisfaction to him, and again he waits, more or less patiently, for the day of his release. Some schools have experimented in meeting these needs satisfactorily. Individualities which might otherwise have been repressed and submerged are given a chance to achieve recognition because all the children co-operate in tasks to which each individual can make a personal contribution suited to his abilities. Team-work is developed involving both academic and practical abilities and providing the pupils with a variety of ways of giving service and accepting responsibility.

HANDICAPS OF THE VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

29. Through their membership of organisations such as the Boys' Brigade, Boy Scouts, Girls' Guildry, and Girl Guides, and the junior sections of Boys' and Girls' Clubs, children are introduced to a variety of interests, to organised games and team-work, and to a community life with their contemporaries. The voluntary organisation goes some way towards offsetting the inadequacies of the school in addition to making certain definite contributions of its own in that it caters for the child's leisure life and brings him into contact with adults outwith his own family who are willing to give him their affection and regard

and to accept his in turn. The child can often form in the voluntary organisation closer relationships with both adults and his own contemporaries than are possible to him in school. With all its virtues, however, and in spite of the truly remarkable results achieved by leaders with the requisite personality, the voluntary juvenile organisation contends with certain handicaps in its efforts to minister to the needs of certain types of adolescents. Many juvenile organisations can meet only on one evening of the week and perhaps also on Saturday afternoons and for religious observances on Sunday. These meetings can contribute a good deal to the life of a child whose needs are also being satisfied by a good home and a good school. They leave a gap to be filled in the life of a child whose home and school may be contributing little. In many cases the child, in consequence of earlier upbringing or of the pursuits to which he is turning in the endeavour to meet his needs, feels superior to the activities offered by voluntary organisations or alien to their atmosphere. The organisations have been handicapped, too, in extending their appeal by an insufficient supply of workers with insight into the lives and interests of children and the inadequate premises which are generally available to them. The latter difficulty is being eased to some extent by the extended use of school premises in the evenings but the conditions under which most of them work are still far from ideal.

PARENTS WITHOUT MEANS TO MEET THEIR CHILDREN'S NEEDS.

30. The extent to which the development of a child is thwarted or distorted by the circumstances described in the above paragraphs depends on his home and parents. The child of well-to-do parents is usually sent to a school where the importance of playing-fields and organised games is understood and provided for and where some attempt is made to create a community life. Where such schools do not cater adequately for the questing curiosity of early adolescence, the parents are generally able to buy plenty of books on all kinds of subjects and otherwise to permit their children to indulge their tastes and hobbies. Homes are reasonably spacious and better supplied with facilities for groups of young people to join together in leisure activities. The family life has many contacts with the world at large from which the children benefit and they can derive the maximum advantage from membership of voluntary organisations. While there may be respects in which the life of these more privileged adolescents leaves something to be desired, on the whole their physical and psychological needs are reasonably satisfied. The majority of parents desire to do all they can for their children but, as the scale of means is descended, the home becomes less and less able to meet its children's needs, less and less social importance is attached to things which appear to be luxuries or refinements rather than necessities, and the parents have less and less chance of attaining a consciousness of the subtle processes involved in the development of a child. No analysis of income-levels is required to demonstrate that the majority of adolescents must suffer from deprivation in varying degrees.

SOME CAUSES OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY.

31. In the worst circumstances, this deprivation is a factor of considerable importance in the causation of juvenile delinquency. Without suitable places in which to play, left to their own devices in their choice of play, and without the means of guidance to engage in really beneficial pursuits, children from poor overcrowded homes try their best to satisfy their need of outlets for their energy, their desire for novelty and excitement, and their instinct towards co-operative enterprise in the gang play of the streets. It is small wonder that they are frequently in trouble with authority. Where the desire to be recognised as a somebody is being satisfied neither in the-home nor in the school the

commendation of the gang is sought. If the home has not supplied the necessary moral restraints the step to crime is a short and dangerously easy one. It may come about through the difficulties of reconciling romance with reality to which reference was made in paragraph 3, through vague feelings of hostility to society engendered by consciousness of deprivation or by the feeling that society is always against them, through the desire to possess something not otherwise easily attainable, or a combination of these. While the lack of satisfaction of the needs with which this chapter has been concerned is not by any means the sole cause of the high incidence of juvenile delinquency in the 10-14 age group, it is our belief that there would be many fewer delinquents if these needs were being satisfied.

CONTEMPT FOR EDUCATION AND SELF-DEVELOPMENT.

32. The delinquents are relatively few. A far larger group are those whose needs are little better satisfied than are those of the delinquent but who are saved from his errors by the influence or the affection of persons whom they respect. For them the first stage of adolescence is not the swift, venturesome, exciting thing which it should largely be, but consists to a considerable extent of impatiences, discontents, snatched pleasures, and boredom. Their desire is to get on to the next stage as marked by the exchange of school for work. The objection is not necessarily to their preferring work to school but to their developing a state of boredom with everything savouring of education and personal development from which they can rarely be recovered at any later stage of their lives. It would not matter, perhaps, that they turn away from formal education if they sought informal means of developing and expressing themselves. The tragedy is that at the very age when they should be beginning a fascinating stage of their education they turn their backs on it completely and are openly contemptuous, not only of everything they have been taught which is not directly required for the holding of their jobs, but of everything they might engage in with a view to self-development. Many of them lose all the more active characteristics of youth, and when work is over, have no desire for anything but the most passive forms of pleasure and amusement until, later on, interest in the other sex takes them to the dance-hall. They are set at this early age on a course which will normally offer nothing more mentally or physically exhilarating to them outside of their working lives than being spectators at a football match or the cinema, listening to the lighter items on the radio, discussing the sports items in the newspapers, and gambling on horses, dogs, or football pools. There might not be anything so very dreadful in all that if it were certain that they are incapable of anything more. But there is no reason to suppose that they are radically different from others. For the most part, they are simply under-developed.

The Second Stage.

33. Up to the present most young people have left school in this period of their lives and gone to work. As our earlier analysis has shown, the average child is only beginning at the age of fourteen to know the direction of his abilities. Even if he has begun to display preferences, it is hardly possible that he should have learned enough about the work of the world to be able to consider how these might best be applied in it. It is clear, therefore, that children need guidance if they are to be given at that age a reasonable chance of taking up work in which they will find personal satisfaction in later years and a good use for their abilities. A national scheme for advising boys and girls in their choice of employment has been in operation since 1910. It is carried out by the Juvenile Departments of the Employment Exchanges of the Ministry of Labour assisted in all the larger industrial areas by Advisory

Committees composed of representatives of Education Authorities, teachers, employers, workpeople, and others interested in the welfare of youth. Under this scheme schools are asked to supply in respect of each school-leaver an educational report and also any observations which the head teacher cares to make that might be useful to those who will be advising the child. Prior to the outbreak of war, when the work was curtailed, it was the practice of most Juvenile Advisory Committees to arrange that meetings of intending leavers were addressed during school hours by members of the Committees and other suitable persons who gave them advice regarding the world of industry and business which they were about to enter and told them of the various ways in which the Committees and Juvenile Departments could help them. Some Committees provided leaflets about the types of employment in the localities, and various other means of furnishing information were employed in different areas. In addition, invitations were issued to school-leavers and their parents to attend at the Exchanges for individual interviews with members of the Committees and officials regarding their choice of employment.

CRITICISMS OF THE VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE SCHEME.

34. The criticisms are made that the simple report which the Employment Exchange receives from the school is far from being adequate to provide the vocational adviser with the information he needs, that the information supplied to children regarding jobs and careers is very limited, and that the interviews are too short for decisions which may determine the course of a whole life. It is a matter for regret that although individual teachers play a prominent part in the work of many Juvenile Advisory Committees, the general body of teachers in Scotland has not been more definitely and officially associated with the working of the scheme. If they had been thus encouraged to take a closer interest in the jobs and careers which their pupils might take up on leaving school, both the vocational guidance service of the Ministry and the work of the schools might have benefited. A satisfactory scheme of vocational guidance presupposes (1) an intimate knowledge of a young person's intelligence, special abilities, and attainments, and of his interests, temperament, and character development over a considerable period and (2) the widest possible use of objective measurements.

PRACTICAL LIMITATIONS OF THE SCHEME.

35. The scheme has had to contend with many difficulties:

(1) Children leave school as a rule at certain fixed dates. A job has to be obtained speedily, since the children are eager to earn money and the wages they bring home are frequently a matter of some importance to the family exchequer. In populous areas, therefore, the Employment Exchange staffs work at considerable pressure around the leaving dates and suitable places cannot always be provided by employers for all the children who suddenly come into the labour market.

(2) In most cases a 14-year-old school-leaver has to take a job from those available for a child of his years in the locality in which he lives. This fact sets limits to vocational guidance at the best of times but in the conditions of depression prevailing in many areas during a large part of the period between the two wars, many school-leavers had to be content with any jobs that might be going.

(3) The scheme is voluntary. Employers are under no obligation to notify the Exchange of vacancies. Large numbers of children take the first jobs which parents and friends find for them.

In spite of these handicaps, the scheme has been instrumental in guiding a proportion of young people to more suitable jobs than they might otherwise have found. The fact remains, however, that the Juvenile Advisory Committees have provided vocational guidance of only a limited kind. For this they are not to blame. They have done their best to select suitable persons for the posts available and by a process of trial and error have rectified some of the more obvious misfits: but much more must be done, especially in the schools, if vocational guidance is to become a reality.

THE SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPIL.

36. In the above paragraphs we have been considering the national scheme as it has applied to young people who left school at the statutory leaving age. That young people who remain at school with a view to qualifying for careers in commerce, finance, insurance, public administration, the higher technical posts in industry and the professions have much to gain from a scheme of vocational guidance has been demonstrated in Glasgow and Ayrshire where Secondary Schools Careers Councils have provided, with assistance from the Ministry of Labour, a service of considerable value to pupils, parents and employers, and in Edinburgh where the Education Authority and the Ministry of Labour conjointly operate a juvenile employment bureau of which all school-leavers can take advantage. It is true that the Ministry of Labour has produced an informative series of pamphlets on possible careers for secondary school pupils and the Exchanges have been willing to advise pupils who apply to them but, except in the areas above-mentioned, the liaison between the Exchanges and the schools has not been as close as could have been desired, and, consequently, the pupils of most of the Scottish Secondary schools have lacked the benefit of any expert guidance in choosing their careers. Headmasters and teachers can often give useful advice to pupils who may be contemplating a professional career of a well-established type. It is clear, however, that if boys and girls are to be assisted to choose among all the varieties of work which they may undertake in the modern world, the services of a specialist who is able to give continuous study to his subject are required.

JOBS THAT FAIL TO MEET YOUNG PEOPLE'S NEEDS.

37. It has to be remembered, too, that very many of the jobs which have been available to 14-year-old school-leavers have provided them with very limited opportunities of discovering their own potentialities or even of obtaining any real training which would assist their development. We are informed that, in their reports to the Ministry, Juvenile Advisory Committees have frequently commented with regret on the numbers of young people who, willingly or unwillingly, have entered "non-progressive" jobs on leaving school at fourteen. In consequence, a very formative part of their lives has been spent in occupations in which they have had little real interest and have been forced to mark time, more or less, when their psychological need was to be applying themselves with considerable intensity to work that engaged all their emergent capacities. The tendency during recent years has been for industry to employ more and more young people in processes which, while not necessarily "non-progressive" in the sense that they have offered continuity of employment and financial improvement, have been so simplified as to become largely a matter of mechanical repetition and so afford very little chance of a young person's discovering the possibilities of work as a form of self-development and self-expression. A similar lack is to be found in many of the jobs which the distributive trades—the largest employers of juvenile labour—offer to school-leavers.

UNDEVELOPED POTENTIALITIES: LOST NATIONAL WEALTH.

38. In permitting so many of our children to start work at the early age of fourteen, we have been neglectful of their real needs and it may be that by failing to provide them with adequate opportunities to discover their real needs we have allowed many useful potentialities to go undeveloped and have robbed ourselves of national wealth. In so far as children have failed to find jobs which ministered to the needs of their stage of development we have added a further toll of under-development to that which we have already noted. Moreover, since it is the victims of under-development in the first stage who are least able to make a way for themselves in the industrial world, they are given little chance of recovery and are liable to become still more retarded. The effect of this cumulative under-development is of importance socially and industrially.

FORCED DEVELOPMENT: "DE-TRIBALISATION."

39. In other days the adolescent grew up within a comparatively restricted community life. He modelled himself on his elders because few other models were available to him and he absorbed the traditions, manners, ideals, and ambitions of his own town or village. With each new generation there was change but the process was gradual and a native core which made for stability was handed down. The remarkable increase in the speed of communications which has been effected in the present century has changed entirely the atmosphere in which the modern adolescent grows up. Slow natural ripening has been replaced by an artificial forcing-house. The adolescent is no longer limited to the models and manners, the ideals and ambitions of his native community. Trade and commerce, the radio, the cinema, the press and the advertisement hoardings thrust on him models, manners, ambitions and ideals from all over the advancing world. There might be no great harm in this if he were in a position to discriminate, if he had any values and standards of his own to apply to them. But all these influences have spoken so easily, so insistently, and so strongly to the successions of under-developed adolescents of this century that the stabilising factors have ceased to have an effect. The under-developed adolescents of Scotland to-day are in a position not so very different from that of the "de-tribalised" natives of Africa of whom we sometimes hear. Prematurely encouraged by their entry into industry, by the conditions of their employment, by their possession of wages, and by the persuasions of commerce to think of themselves as the full-grown inheritors of all the material things that our twentieth century civilisation brings to them, they lose the features appropriate to their adolescence and take on less appealing appearances and crude sophistications which are sometimes rather disturbing.

YOUNG PEOPLE'S SHALLOW LIVES.

40. The war has shown that most young people are capable of endurance, courage, achievement and fine impulses if the circumstances are there to call these things out of them. When these special circumstances are absent, however, the lives of very many run in lamentably shallow grooves. Instead of being concerned to assure that they were brought into atmospheres in which their impulses to use their intelligences, to deepen their emotional, imaginative, and spiritual lives, could be encouraged to grow, we have allowed them, by our neglect of so many of their adolescent needs, to drift into a condition of mind in which many have little interest in normal times except the pursuit of forms of pleasure which demand nothing from them and have little to give them. It is not surprising that this condition of affairs tends to produce considerable patches of indifference, instability and cynicism and that these in turn permit of easy descents into anti-social and immoral conduct

if conditions should incline in these directions. Perhaps the most dangerous development is the professed scorn for moral standards and values. Though many do not behave as badly as they talk, the first condition for the recovery of self-discipline, respect for high standards of life, is in danger of being lost. It is a failure of our age that in adopting a negative attitude to the normal ways of life, we have been anxious to reject the old standards but less concerned to establish new standards of reverence based on knowledge and expressed in the language of to-day. Of itself, direct teaching cannot impose from without a personal equipment of standards and values, but it is equally true to say that this equipment cannot be organised unless mental processes have been kept alive and certain deeps have been set in motion in early life.

POSSIBLY HARMFUL ENVIRONMENTS.

41. We are approaching these matters in a positive spirit and our view is that the community should seek to enlarge the field of activity open to young people rather than to restrict it. Prohibition is a dangerous form of protection to offer to youth. We feel obliged to note, however, as a corollary to our observations on under-development and forced development, how easy it is for young persons (and children) to obtain access to environments that may be productive of harm. We are informed that there are no restrictions on the age of admission of children and young persons to billiard saloons and dog-racing tracks. Boys of any age can spend whole evenings in billiard saloons, loafing around, watching the play, listening to the conversation. There are places in Scotland where it is the fashion for numbers of boys varying from ten to sixteen years of age to spend several nights a week in billiard saloons. We have no objection to boys learning to play billiards. The game is played in many highly respectable boys' clubs. But there is a vast difference between an hour of recreation passed in a game of billiards and the waste of the precious leisure hours of childhood and adolescence in the atmosphere of a billiard saloon. The saloons can be conducted in a seemly manner and yet be the means of developing wastrel habits and outlooks in children and young persons. The same strictures can be passed on dog-tracks and all other places of resort used for purposes of betting and gambling and "getting rich quick" or obtaining something for nothing. Whatever arguments may be advanced for betting as a form of amusement, it is quite obviously a dangerous pastime for immature youths. It is true that bookmakers are prohibited by law from accepting bets from persons under 18, but the law cannot prevent the young person from following a desire to copy his elders and there is no doubt of the popularity of many kinds of gambling among thousands of young adolescents.

CINEMAS AND DANCE-HALLS.

42. The dance-hall and the cinema are in a different category. The good and ill they may do to youth depends on circumstances. The addiction of many young people to the dance-hall and the cinema has reached dimensions which must be deplored. For a boy or girl regularly to spend three nights a week at the cinema and two at the dance-hall is by no means uncommon. Cases have come to our notice of both children and young persons attending cinemas five and six nights in a week. The cinema may be less noxious than the billiard saloon or the dog-track, even when indulged to this extent, but it has the grave disadvantages that it demands nothing from its young audiences but passive absorption of the wares which are thrown so indiscriminately on the screen, and that a large proportion of the films shown are likely to give under-developed young people distorted ideas of society, morality, science, history, and, in fact, of everything they touch about which the camera can lie. On the other hand, the cinema is the only place other than the street which many children and

young persons know as a retreat from their overcrowded and possibly unwelcoming homes. The dance-hall offers a more active form of leisure occupation. It offers society, music, movement, an opportunity for dress and display, for many refinements, graces, and even courtesies which are absent from the everyday lives of many young people. It offers only a very shallow form of activity, however, and presents dangers for certain types of young people. There is definitely a need of some improvement of the conditions to which the young may be introduced in some of them.

PREMATURE DRINKING.

43. The law endeavours to protect children and young persons from premature exposure to the dangers of alcohol.* In the course of our inquiries we have considered statements that during the war years the habit of drinking has been increasing among young people under the age of 18, and especially among girls. We have been unable to secure any information which would suggest that young people are drinking to an extent which would bring them to the notice of the police, but it can be no easy task for a licence-holder to decide from their appearance in these days whether his girl customers are under or over 18 and there is no doubt that the tendency for young men and girls to look upon alcoholic refreshment as an essential constituent of a "good time" has considerably increased. There has been, moreover, evidence of a looser standard of sexual conduct among young girls—the proportion of young girls among those obtaining treatment for venereal disease has given definite cause for alarm—and a girl who is even very slightly under the influence of alcohol will offer less resistance to persuasions to immorality than one who is completely sober. There is some reason for concern, therefore, when social restraints against the consumption of alcohol by the young tend to be lessened, as they have been under recent conditions.

The Third Stage.

UNEMPLOYMENT AT SIXTEEN.

44. We said of the adolescent boy in the third stage: "The question of a job which will give him the means of life assumes front-rank importance in his mind. . . . If his prospects seem good to himself, he is usually ready to develop rapidly. If the jobs available to him are in no way to his liking or if they offer very small expectations of an attractive future, he is liable to be affected by a feeling of frustration or of either passive or active discontent from which he may not easily recover." On the whole, the industrial world treats the sixteen-year-old boy better than it has treated the fourteen-year-old. Boys are usually apprenticed at sixteen to the skilled trades. Around this age boys and girls who have remained at secondary schools find employment in many directions. The incomers are at a more advanced stage of development. There is a greater possibility that they will know more of their own potentialities than could the fourteen-year-olds, and that they are choosing careers which will be to their liking. There is another side to the picture, however. In peace-time it was the practice of many employers in the distributive trades

* Children under 14 are not permitted to be in the bar of licensed premises during the "permitted hours" and it is an offence for a licence holder to sell or deliver exciseable liquor to any person under 14 years, for consumption on or off the premises, except when the liquor is contained in corked or sealed vessels of not less than a pint. It is also an offence for a licence-holder to sell any liquor for consumption on the premises to any person under 18 years, or knowingly to allow such a person to consume liquor in any bar on his premises, although a young person over 16 may obtain beer, porter, cider or perry for consumption along with a meal taken in a place other than a bar which is usually set apart for the service of meals.

and other industries to give work to boys until they reached the age of sixteen and then replace them by school-leavers. A proportion of these sixteen-year-olds were willing to leave in order to start work in a more skilled occupation but during the period of widespread unemployment from 1929 onwards the phrase "too old at sixteen" came to have a bitter significance for youth in the depressed areas. It is worthy of note that in 1938, when trade had revived and the unemployment crisis had passed, 7.9 per cent. of the insured male population of 16-17 in Glasgow were unemployed compared with 3 per cent. of the 14-15 age-group. In the 18-20 age-group the percentage was 12.1. These figures would suggest that the expectation of an attractive future started to dwindle for a not inconsiderable proportion of boys when they reached the stage at which it began to occupy front-rank importance in their minds. The problem which these percentages reveal is obviously important from the point of view of the national economy, especially since the trend displayed is not peculiar to Glasgow. The United Kingdom figures for the same period read:

Percentage of Insured Males Unemployed
at July, 1938.

14-15	16-17	18-20	21-24
1.6	4.5	7.8	12.5

In Liverpool, the percentage of young persons of 18-20 unemployed in July, 1938 was as high as 16.1.

A CONSEQUENCE OF UNDER-DEVELOPMENT.

45. That there is a special problem to be faced here within the general question of the prevention of unemployment is made fully evident by a study of the report "Disinherited Youth," a survey of unemployment among young men between the ages of 18 and 25 carried out under the auspices of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust over the period 1936-1939. The human material for the survey was obtained by an automatic selection of every tenth young man of appropriate age on the unemployed registers of the Employment Exchanges of Glasgow, Liverpool and Cardiff at a certain date. An analysis of their industrial histories "revealed that, on the average, fully five of the first ten years of their post-school life had been spent in unemployment. This unemployment accumulated at a rate which increased with age from 14 to 23, so much so that almost twice as much unemployment was experienced from 21 to 23 as from 14 to 17. . . . At the extreme there were 14.4 per cent. with less than two years and 21.4 per cent. with fully seven years of unemployment in the first ten." The close examination conducted into all the factors making for the unemployment records of these young men is interesting in the light of the observations which we have made regarding the neglect of the needs of youth at earlier stages. A predisposing factor would seem to have been inadequate home circumstances. Close in importance came insufficient education or inability to profit from the type and method of the education provided. ("Many of our youths may have had the ability to profit by a secondary education; but the economic conditions of the home made it necessary for them to become wage-earners at the earliest possible moment. Others again, while having the ability and the necessary economic standard to permit of further education, ceased to attend school because of a distaste for the type of education being received.") Thirdly, there was the lack of training, the fact that they had no job they could call their own. "Out of every ten unemployed young men (in Glasgow) approximately one was skilled, two were semi-skilled, and seven were unskilled. . . . Intensity of unemployment increases with lower occupational skill. . . . All things work together—education, occupational skill, home circumstances—in a con-

spiracy of good or evil in terms of less or more unemployment *according to the status of the father.*" The italics are ours. There can be no doubt then that prior to the outbreak of war society was failing, in respect of the proportion of its third-stage adolescents whose position we have been considering, to meet their need to see before them expectations of an attractive future, and, although the problem is to some extent bound up with larger issues affecting unemployment, we are forced to the conclusion that society failed them in this need largely because it had failed to meet their needs in earlier stages of their development. As the report which we have already quoted declares: "No matter how we view the question, the answer must be found in some kind of educative process, liberally interpreted to cover (his) technical, physical, moral, and mental well-being. It must save him from the final catastrophe of all, that of abandoning hope when he is still on the threshold of life, with all the powers and energies of youth."

SQUARE PEGS IN ROUND HOLES.

46. Dissatisfaction with their expectations of an attractive future is not limited to the victims of unemployment, however. There is a larger category of youths who may escape unemployment but who are working at jobs which are not wholly suited to them or are definitely below the level of their actual or potential capacities. They are the square pegs in the round holes. Every employer of juvenile labour knows, too, the boy whose mind is never on his work or whose heart is obviously not in it. It is inevitable, as things have been ordered, that there should be many such cases. It may be true that most of them ultimately settle down in the jobs to which they have been committed and life goes on without much evidence of loss to the individual or to society, but there can be little question that personality and character, satisfaction with life, and working efficiency are all liable to suffer if a boy's mind and heart are not given to the work in which he is engaged at this period.

WHY GIRLS DO NOT PREPARE FOR HOME LIFE.

47. It is frequently complained that, although the mind of the working girl from fifteen onwards is largely preoccupied with her prospects of love and marriage, she takes no interest in preparing herself for marriage and home life. Much that has been said in this chapter in criticism of the conditions which conduce to the under-development of boys applies in even greater degree to girls. Although the girl may tolerate school more than the boy does, she suffers as much from the inadequacies in the school life and curriculum; perhaps more, because of her earlier maturity. When she leaves school, less attention is paid by her parents to her choice of employment because the only consideration in view is that she should keep herself as far as possible and contribute to the family exchequer until she marries. The girl, far more than the boy, has become a minor adjunct of the machine, often under conditions which demand too much of her body and her nerves and are utterly indifferent to her emotions and her mind. A large part of the work on which girls are employed in industry takes no count of the finer susceptibilities of their sex (apart from their more skilful hands) and has, in fact, a distinctly coarsening effect. There have to be added to these disadvantages, first the modern conditions of life which promote over-development and shallowness, and, secondly, the early marriages which are customary among the girls from whom industrial labour is recruited. With an expectation of marriage around eighteen and children soon after, the working girl feels that her freedom to enjoy herself, to taste the pleasures that life has to offer is going to be very short. All her gaiety and excitement have to be crowded into three or four short years of the evening hours which are free to her between work and sleep. It may

be pardonable if she considers that to give her evenings up to learning how to cook and how to bath babies would merely be assuming a burden before it is due. She may also be of opinion that it is more important to get her man by going to the cinemas and dances where she expects to find him than to prepare for marriage in places where male company will not be found.

INADEQUATE COMMUNITY LIFE OF THE SEXES.

48. The last observation raises the need of the sexes in this stage of their development for opportunities of meeting each other. Under present circumstances, this need is met mainly by the street, the cinema, and the dance hall. The principal objection to these as meeting places is that they contribute so little to development in any other respect. The young people encounter each other in one mood only—the search for a means of passing time in accordance with their very limited and rather shallow ideas of obtaining pleasure and excitement. They are given no opportunity of learning together, working together, joining together in social interests and activities—in short, of getting to know one another in the full light of a community life which is both a testing-ground and a developing influence. The need is being met to some extent by clubs and youth centres which are catering for older boys and girls, but there are too few of these and the technique of running them in a way which will meet the real needs of youth at this stage is still only experimental. All such efforts have been handicapped, too, by the cumulative effects of their circumstances on the habits and outlooks of the young people whom the clubs are trying to help and the difficulty of competing successfully with super-cinemas and dance palaces on the limited funds usually available to supply premises and make them comfortable and attractive. Shortage of adult assistance and inadequate premises limit also the power of most youth organisations to distinguish sufficiently between the needs of the different age-groups of young people.

Town and Country.

49. In making the above observations we have had in mind mainly the young people of the urban and industrial parts of Scotland. It may be well to consider briefly how far our observations can be regarded as applying to the young people of the smaller county towns and villages. There are certain respects in which country life would seem to favour the adolescent. There is ready access to hill and moor in nearly all parts of rural Scotland, and country children find many outlets for their physical energy in pursuing their everyday lives. They can still play the traditional organised village games and there is much in country living on which they can nourish their questing curiosity. They have the advantage of the closer personal relationships of small communities, of small classes in schools, of the respect which the country still pays to self-development. Home and church are better placed to influence their lives. On the debit side, there should be noted the lack of vocational guidance and employment opportunities, the absence of many cultural and welfare services, and a growing consciousness of being removed from many satisfactions and interests which are known to be within easy reach of those who live in larger towns. All those account for the steady drain of country youth into the towns. In certain ways, too, the country has moved into modernity with the town. Country youth sees the same films, hears the same broadcasts, reads the same magazines, dances the same dances, and wears the same clothes. In so far as any of these features of modern living are tending to produce either under-developed or prematurely sophisticated young people, they are doing it in the country as well as in the town, in direct proportion to the nearness of the rural communities to larger concentrations of population. Country life

is undergoing many changes and some of these are having the effect of destroying or reducing, at least, the advantages of the country to which we have referred. We feel we may conclude, therefore, that although the conditions of country life may require some differences in the detail of the provision to be made for the needs of young people and thoughtful adaptation of methods will certainly be called for, the broad needs of young people are the same in the country as they are in the town, and, while some exceptions of detail may require to be noted, the main defects and neglects with which this chapter is concerned are either encountered or have their parallels in rural life and the general condition of youth in the country is not so superior to that of town youth that they should be exempted from the major conclusions which we draw as a result of our survey.

Some General Observations.

LACK OF A SENSE OF PURPOSE.

50. In all the above observations on the present treatment of adolescents, we have ignored (except for a few incidental remarks) any exceptional conditions created by the war. It may seem unjust that we have made so little mention of the responses which many of the young people we have been describing have made to appeals to work, serve, and train in furtherance of the war effort. The opportunities which war has brought into the lives of the young have provided a vital element which was lacking in pre-war years and may be lacking again—a sense of over-riding common purpose which has inspired them to the effort of preparing themselves for a future near enough, big enough, exciting enough, and *general* enough to appeal greatly to their imaginations. It is the spirit engendered by this sense of purpose which has helped to fill the ranks of the pre-service organisations and also of the voluntary organisations which have offered suitable forms of training and service. Youth needs banners, adventures, crusades, and the war has provided them. Peace in the past has not produced any comparable stimulus. On the contrary, normal life (especially in the form we knew between the two great wars) tends to have a discouraging and rather demoralising effect on youth. Instead of a common purpose, to whose accomplishment all sections of society, all ages, all occupations are looking forward and in whose pursuit they are prepared to sink many personal considerations, there are many occasions of division, the pursuit primarily of personal and sectional ends, a hundred daily competitions and rivalries, and nothing at all to override and bind. In this state of affairs, there is nothing to uplift the weaker and less privileged among young people, or to call forth higher, more impersonal, more socially oriented efforts from the strong and purposeful. There is no feeling of sharing in the struggle towards common objectives to assuage and compensate for any discontents that might arise from their inability to achieve all the personal satisfactions they might have in view. This latter consideration is important to youth. Not every young person can have exactly the right job or the rosier personal prospects of a future, but failure wholly to satisfy these needs is less irksome if there is a sense of honourable participation in some effort that transcends the purely personal need. The common purposes of war have not been completely satisfactory from this point of view but there is a danger that youth may feel the lack of them rather acutely if something does not take their place when peace returns.

YOUTH AND SOCIETY.

51. Youth takes its moral and spiritual tone from the moral and spiritual atmosphere of the community within which it is raised. Young people are often shocked to discover that in the field of moral standards there is a big difference between our theory and practice. They are taught at school, Sunday school, and church to revere honesty and good faith and to deal justly with

their fellow-men but when they go to work they learn that the moral standards prevailing in the workaday world are not always so simple and straightforward. It is borne in on them at every turn that the ultimate criterion in all aspects of life which the majority of people care deeply about is money. They are involved in many hostilities over it—between employers and employees, landlords and tenants, shopkeepers and customers, citizens and local authorities. They are aware of the part it plays in the satisfactions of their own needs. In this present age many young people may encounter no other standards of value at all and have no other conceptions of obligation and relationship to the world around them than are associated with the money nexus. The absorption, too, of so many lives into large industries and large towns has been steadily producing a “de-humanised” and “de-personalised” form of existence. The young people make no contacts outside their own families and associates within their own class which are truly human and personal. Their employers and managers are people of another order who want full value for the pay they hand over. Their lives are strangely dominated by distant forces called trade federations, trade unions, governments, and economic interests. The superior beings of the world become a vague “they” with whom no direct personal relations are possible and who take no count of them as individual human beings. In their dealings with the agencies of government they are possessors of cards and numbers and must conform to the rules and regulations before their existence can be considered. Even in their leisure lives the “de-humanising” tendency is at work. The cinema and the radio give them no personal contacts with the human beings of the entertainment world but only with machine-made reproductions of the personalities they adore. During the period we are reviewing, their lives have been under constant threat from happenings arising from causes so far outside the comprehension of most families as to seem almost to result from movements in inter-stellar space—booms, slumps, competition for markets, rationalisations of industry, rumours of war, and war itself.

A MATTER FOR URGENT ACTION.

52. If this chapter makes rather depressing reading, it should be remembered that its purpose has been to explore the reasons why so many young men and women fall below the level of development which our first chapter has suggested as being possible to them. We have been looking, therefore, for disadvantages, deterrents, and obstacles to development and have been concerned only with young people who suffer under these. We recognise that many young people do not have to contend with these handicaps and that others make much of their potentialities in spite of them. We are aware, too, of brighter things that could be said about even the most handicapped—the truly remarkable growth during the last twenty years, for example, of the outdoor movements which have drawn much of their support from sections of the population most liable to be affected by the disadvantages we have described, and the resource, adaptability, endurance, courage, and heroism displayed in ample measure under the demands of war. When all has been said, however, the fact remains that there is an under-development which is resulting from neglect of the needs and possibilities of adolescence, and, although we cannot assess with any exactitude either the degree or the extent of the incidence of this phenomenon, nevertheless it would appear from our analysis of its causes to affect large numbers of the young population and we consider it to be a matter which calls for urgent and determined remedy.

A NEED OF OUR TIMES.

53. The neglects of the needs of youth to which we have pointed are not new and it could be maintained that large numbers of the population have always

been under-developed in the sense in which we are using the term. There are reasons, however, for the view that this form of national impoverishment should no longer be tolerated. If a peaceful and civilised world is to be obtained, the mental, moral, and spiritual levels of the masses of all peoples must be raised as speedily as possible, and in our own country as much as in any. That task will not be accomplished overnight but it brooks no delay. The responsibilities and opportunities now facing all nations call for a high degree of social and political ability in all sections of the populations. If we are to hold our own in any respect as a nation, we cannot afford to allow any of the potentialities—intellectual and practical, cultural and constructional—of any of our young people to go to waste. We must endeavour to obtain the maximum contribution *from* all by providing the maximum possibility of development *for* all.

A NEW CONCEPTION REQUIRED.

54. It is worth noting, too, that some of the causes of under-development which we have mentioned are not of very long standing. The cumulative effects of modern city life, modern forms of entertainment, and modern forms of mass production are only beginning to be apparent. Forms of under-development which were not incompatible in the past with a stable order of life now threaten to produce serious social consequences. A new conception of the purposes of the education and training of youth and a new care for the needs of childhood and adolescence seems to be required if we are to adjust ourselves satisfactorily to new ways of material living. In the following chapter we give an outline of what, in our view, these purposes might be.

CHAPTER III.

AN EQUIPMENT FOR ADULT LIVING.

What every young person should become, know, enjoy, and experience as a preparation for adult living in the world of to-day.

55. The needs of youth cannot be studied in isolation from one another. Each need is a factor, operating with all the other factors, in the making of a single product—a man or a woman. Whatever we may have to say about physical, mental, and spiritual growth, about preparation for citizenship, for work, for marriage and parenthood, or about leisure and recreation, we are concerned with these things, not as ends in themselves or as completely separable aspects of adolescent life, but as contributions which go to the building-up of a personality which will manifest itself in all the functions its possessor is called upon to perform. It is not just the vocational training he receives which makes a boy into a good worker or the domestic science lessons which produce the wise wife and mother. What kind of young man or young woman do we see as the result of the satisfaction of all the needs of growth and preparation and enjoyment which we are examining? What are the essentials of an all-round development? What physical, mental, moral and spiritual attributes should the young adult possess? For what functions should he or she have been prepared and to what extent?

THE PHYSICAL FOUNDATION.

56. The physical foundation should be as good as the combination of natural endowment, modern health knowledge and a reasonable amount of enterprise and application can make it. The young man should have developed his

strength, not to its maximum, perhaps, but just short of what a few years of maturity may give him; he should be dexterous, agile and well co-ordinated. The young woman should have grace, agility and dexterity, and have learned how to make the most, by healthy practices, of any natural equipment of beauty and charm with which she is endowed. Both should have discovered in what directions their own physical aptitudes lie, in both work and play, and should have had an opportunity of cultivating their special abilities and compensating for their weaknesses. Both should have sound limbs and organs and have habituated themselves to a routine of healthy living, including personal hygiene, exercise, fresh air and sleep. They should know the more important things about their bodies, including the reproductive functions, and have acquired a good deal of commonsense about maintaining health and protecting themselves and others against sickness and disease. They should have some understanding of how the health of the community can be safeguarded and developed, the relevance of good housing, town planning and working conditions, and they should have at least a nodding acquaintance with the different kinds of health services that are provided.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE MIND.

57. Both sexes should be no less mentally able than they are physically, again having regard to the combined effects of individual natural equipment, modern techniques of teaching and learning, and personal application. They should be trained to think straightly and objectively and be accustomed to seek information and evidence, to sift it critically, to form their own judgments, and to express themselves in speech and writing in straightforward and vigorous English. They should have discovered, through the opportunities presented to them, the direction of their own mental powers; they should have learned how these can be extended by grappling with problems; and they should be aware of the diverse opportunities open to them of applying their minds in work and service, in culture and recreation. They should know how to perform quickly and correctly the simple basic mathematical processes required in everyday life; something of the methods of the sciences and the contributions which they are making to modern living and knowledge; the world-wide story of man's development, including a broad outline of his achievement in art, literature, music, and the cultural influences generally. The existence of a veritable catalogue of living interests should be known to them and they should have discovered their own special interests through the opportunities offered to them in their education and their leisure. Their appetites should have been so whetted by their discoveries that they are eager to continue their explorations throughout their adult lives. They should have learned to look upon education as a life-long process.

MORAL CHARACTER.

58. Our young men and women should have exercised and nourished their moral characters as much as their minds and bodies. They should have learned how to master their whims and tempers and their more elemental passions and urges, and how to brace themselves to disagreeable tasks and circumstances. They should know the fundamental importance of truthfulness and honesty and be aware that these are perfections to be striven after with as much care and pertinacity as physical health and fitness. They should have the power of discriminating between good and evil, right and wrong, beauty and ugliness, deriving this power from a well-developed sense of their duties and responsibilities to themselves and others, of the consequences that follow selfish and inconsiderate actions, and of the principles that should influence and decide their thinking and doing. These principles require to be rooted in a philosophy

of life. From this philosophy they can draw a controlling and guiding sense of purpose and order in living which is particularly necessary in their stage of development and which will both discipline and inspire them for the responsibilities and opportunities of their futures. Since the civilisation in which they are being nurtured owes much to Christian influences, they should have had an opportunity of knowing Christian ethical principles and of understanding the part which these have played in forming the ideals, standards, traditions, and institutions of their country and of the world. Animated by this sense of purpose, they should include among their moral qualities a responsible adventurousness, a readiness to face change and bring it about, regardless of self-interest, if that purpose can be better achieved thereby. In the narrower field of sexual morality, their attitude should be honest and healthy and their impulses controlled and directed by their sense of social and personal responsibility and sublimated by the purposeful and imaginatively satisfying activities in which they are engaged.

RELIGION AND THE SPIRITUAL LIFE.

59. Their moral outlook should be illumined and softened, and at the same time strengthened and supported, by their spiritual qualities and experiences. They should be humble and reverent, sensitive to the mystery, the awesomeness, and the aspiration of creation. They should understand the vital importance of religious convictions in the development of human personality and in the ordering of all human relationships and activities and the needs and impulses which seek expression in all the acts and associations of a corporate religious organisation. They should know that different religious faiths exist among different peoples and also within communities of the same people, and they should have learned to respect the sincerity of those who hold faiths and conform to religious practices varying from their own. They should have acquired through their own daily lives a realization that a spiritual life may be something more than the acceptance of certain beliefs and the observance of certain rules and ceremonies, that it grows by the influence which our beliefs exert over all our thoughts and actions, that it can and should express itself in all our activities and relationships, and that it can be nourished and developed by all our interests and studies and appreciations. It will be clear from the foregoing that while we attach a high degree of importance to the development in the young of a proper understanding of the place of religion in life, we also respect completely the right of every individual to his own beliefs and convictions in that sphere. We are strongly opposed to anything which might suggest that only people with a particular religious conviction should be permitted to teach or be in a position to exert an influence over the growing mind. At the same time, we are very conscious both of the historical associations of all European and English-speaking countries with the Christian faith and of the important place which that faith and its churches hold in our own national and community life, and for these reasons we consider that all young people should be aware of the essential tenets of the Christian religion, even if they do not accept them.

PREPARATION FOR CITIZENSHIP.

60. A young man or a young woman with the physical, mental, moral and spiritual equipment which we have described above could be regarded as well on the way to making good in any sphere of adult living. There would be a reasonable assurance, at least, that with this foundation, they would become good citizens, good workers, good parents, or anything else which might be required of them. In our view, however, they should have received some additional training and experience more specifically directed towards the performance of some of the functions of the adult. To prepare them for

citizenship, they should have learned, from participation in the daily life of the home, the school, the workshop and office, and through their contacts with society in general, how the members of a democratic community behave to one another. They should understand, largely from the practical experience of managing their own lives in a democratic way, how the community's respect for the individual and the individual's respect for the various community groups to which he belongs are maintained by delicate and imaginative adjustments which are constantly being made; that democracy has gradually evolved methods of making these adjustments, that the methods are the product of an organic growth, and that the process of development is still going on. They should have some awareness of how the larger affairs of the community are handled by means of local and national government, and the part played by industrial organisations, political parties and other voluntary groupings. They should have a strong appreciation of the close inter-dependence of all aspects of the community life, of all groups and jobs and functions within the community, and should consequently be devoid of social or vocational exclusiveness and snobbery. They should have some understanding of how their sense of purpose and values can be applied to the problems of community life, both at home and abroad. They should love their country and be proud of the service which their nation can render to world humanity. They should have learned how to contribute to social living and to conduct themselves with ease, discretion, and manners in the various kinds of social circumstances.

PREPARATION FOR WORK.

61. In our descriptions of the physical and mental development which should have been attained, we declared that the young man and the young woman should have discovered, through the opportunities presented to them, in what directions their mental and physical abilities lay. They should have some familiarity, too, with the different kinds of work which are done in a modern society. They should have had a chance in school workshops of sampling different types of work, learning something of their usefulness to society, the conditions under which they are carried on, and the prospects and opportunities they offer. As a result of the combination of self-knowledge and this vocational experimentation, most young men and women should have been able to decide by the age of eighteen or nineteen what kind of work seems to offer the best scope for their abilities and gives them a reasonable prospect of the satisfactions which they hope to obtain from work. They should have chosen a job or career, therefore, and be engaged in equipping themselves to do well in it. Their interest in work should not be limited, however, to their own job or career. They should have learned to look upon work as service which a man or a woman owes to society, valuing it by the social importance of the service performed and not merely by the power or financial reward which it brings to the performer. They should have some understanding of the many varieties of work, performed in many different circumstances, climates, and countries, which are necessary for the well-being of modern society and the consequent interdependence of all occupations and all peoples. Their sense of purpose and values should suggest the objects of their work and infuse all their working relationships. They should bring to their work the sense of participation in the creative effort of humanity, the use of their energies and skills, of machines and natural resources, in a common crusade for the production of all that goes to make a juster, healthier and happier world.

PREPARATION FOR FAMILY LIFE.

62. Young men and young women who had been prepared for adult living in all the other respects we have described could hardly have avoided developing

an understanding of the social value of the home and family, of the institution of marriage and of the responsibilities which attend it. The health knowledge referred to in Paragraph 56 will also be of use to them as members of homes and families and when they come to found homes and families of their own. The young woman should have acquired, in addition, a sound knowledge of the major practical arts involved in the management of a home. She should have received a good grounding in cookery and dietetics, in marketing and budgeting, in first aid and home nursing, and in carrying out simple household repairs. The young man should be familiar with the principles of dietetics and have obtained some practical ability in the simpler forms of cookery. He should know how to administer first aid and how to make himself handy about the house, and, like the young woman, he should have learned the sensible handling of money for both personal and family purposes. The young woman should know how to look after her health and prepare her home when a baby is expected and how to care for and train a baby. The young man should have enough knowledge of the woman's part in parenthood to enable him to treat her with sympathy and understanding. Both sexes should have learned, through the example of their own upbringing and from their general education, that it is essential for those who have the care of wives or husbands and of children to give some study to how that care may best be exercised. All the aspects of their preparation and development—physical, mental, moral and spiritual—should have combined to give them a healthy, knowledgeable and respectful attitude to sex and reproduction. They should view it in the proportion appropriate to their stage of development. That is to say, they should not be so knowledgeable as to have nothing left to learn and no discoveries to make but they should be informed enough to enable them to avoid both the troubles and disasters which are apt to attend upon sexual ignorance and the warping effects which arise from regarding sex as a shameful mystery to fly from or to snigger furtively over. The sense of mystery properly attaching to sex in the minds of healthy young men and women is that which surrounds it as a source of inspiration and aspiration, of poetry, art, and music, of tenderness, devotion, and sacrifice, and as the means by which life is continued and developed. It is to experiencing in their own lives the full savour of this deeper mystery that young men and women on the threshold of adult life should be looking forward, their natural and proper interest in sex taking its place among the many other interests which should be engaging their attention.

INDIVIDUAL PERSONALITY.

63. We have been concerned in the preceding paragraphs with qualities and attributes, interests and skills which should be the common equipment of all young adult life. But the common equipment is not enough; the young adult must also be the possessor of an individual personality. We have no fear that there would be any danger of all our young men and women who had received the common equipment turning out to be all of one common pattern. Some of the most important requisites which have been mentioned should have had the effect of provoking and encouraging individuality. In an ideal preparation for adult living, however, the development of individual personality would have been fostered even more definitely. While the word "should" has been used very liberally throughout this chapter, it is to be interpreted as indicating the value which we attach to the possession by all young people of the attribute of the accomplishment rather than as suggesting that we visualise a system in which all young people would have these virtues forced upon them. Certain elements in the programme are of such kind that a measure of compulsion may be justifiable, but in general we view our young adults as the product of the inter-action of their own growing personalities and an environment in which they would be given every opportunity of discovering all the things

which are likely to be of benefit to them in their developing futures and of seeking contact with these things of their own accord. As they have grown up from infancy to adulthood, their freedom to choose for themselves and to be themselves should have been steadily widening. They should have discovered their own skills and interests, their own preferred ways of work and service, of giving and obtaining joy and pleasure. They should have been helped, too, to uncover and develop any latent talents which they may possess. Although they should have been exposed to many persuasive influences, they should have been encouraged to make their own decisions, not wilfully, but as the result of a balancing of alternatives, to learn from their own mistakes, and so to develop independence of mind coupled with the power of making reasoned judgments. Their daily lives should also have included time in which to live independently and individually in manners of their own choosing. As they grew older it should have been more and more possible for them to spend their free time to widen their experience of people, places and things to see and do. Through these means we should hope that our young adults would have developed personalities of their own and that these would be enhanced rather than diminished by the fact that their preparation for adult living had taken adequate account of their common humanity and common functions.

AN EQUIPMENT FOR ALL YOUNG PEOPLE.

64. At first sight we may seem to be making heavy, even extravagant, demands on youth and on society in suggesting that all young people should be equipped with this large catalogue of experiences and attributes. Such an impression can arise only from the unfamiliar effort which we have been making to collate in our thoughts about youth *all* the aspects of living for which young people are consciously and unconsciously preparing and being prepared, and to look at these with a sense of values sharpened by the times in which we live. Some of the items in the catalogue already have general acceptance as a desirable part of the equipment of youth; others would usually be approved as desirable in the case of young men and young women who are educated for certain purposes and up to certain standards. The novelty of our view is that we have been describing an equipment which we believe to be necessary *in its entirety to all young people* and it may be that this view will not meet readily with general assent. To those who dispute it we may say that the items in the catalogue can be divided into three groups; first, such rights of human entitlement as health, reasonable opportunity to discover and develop one's talents, access to the storehouses of knowledge and pleasure, and the enlargement of personality and the vision and hope of a future which satisfaction of these rights produces in youth. These are things which every thoughtful parent who is possessed of the means to make them possible considers to belong to his child's entitlement. Second, there is a group which might be described as possibilities of making use of and benefiting by the wisdom which human experience has gathered and is still gathering together in regard to the more essential ways and means of doing and living. The health, the efficiency, and the happiness of all nations is far below what it might be by reason of the ignorance of the masses of people about what is possible or available or useful or right in many of the matters which are of the greatest importance to their ordinary lives. We are merely suggesting that the time-lag between what is known and what is practised should be reduced by an improved education of the young so that they may all live as wisely and as well as informed humanity knows how. The third group consists of moral and spiritual attitudes, outlooks, and values. Without these, life subsists on the level of the robot or the brute. In its broad outlines, therefore, there is nothing really extravagant in our conception of an equipment for adult living. And if the groups are acceptable,

we are convinced that the details will bear close examination. All of them are relevant to the lives which are led by all men and women in a modern civilised or pseudo-civilised community; all of them are vitally relevant to the well-being of a modern society. We should argue, indeed, not only that there is no item in them which can be said to be superfluous to the preparation for adult living of any young person in this twentieth century, but also that until such a preparation is provided for every young person, mankind must continue to fall short of the stature of which it is already capable and life will be less happy, less noble, less prosperous, less peaceful, and less godly than it could easily be.

CHAPTER IV.

THE CHILD AT HOME AND IN SCHOOL.

How the equipment described in the previous chapter can be provided; recommendations regarding the education of parents, certain essentials of a good home life, the relationship of the nursery and the primary school to the home, and the training and experience which should be given in the primary school.

65. If young adults are to possess the attributes which we have described, their acquisition of a large part of these will have to begin in the home. It is in the home that they should learn from infancy the routine of healthy living, develop sound habits in regard to personal hygiene, exercise, fresh air and sleep, and pick up a good deal of commonsense about the maintenance of health. Their mental alertness, the direction of their mental and physical abilities, their power to think and reason for themselves and to give expression to their thoughts will all be determined in large measure by the encouragement and guidance which they receive from their parents, especially in early childhood before they become susceptible to the influences of school. It is from their parents that children should learn, in the first instance, habits of truthfulness, honesty, self-discipline, and their conceptions of right and wrong, good and evil, beauty and ugliness; it is in the miniature society of the home that they should become respectful of others and sensible that they have duties and responsibilities to their fellows. Their whole social outlook is subtly moulded by the social attitudes and values of their home lives. The possibilities of their spiritual natures, their individualities, their cultural interests, their futures as citizens, workers, and parents all depend, in considerable degree, on what happens to them within the four walls of their own homes.

A PUBLIC CAMPAIGN OF PARENTHOOD EDUCATION.

66. There is need, therefore, for an immediate campaign for the education in the more fundamental aspects of parenthood of all those of the present generation of parents who may be able to benefit by it. That is to say, we should like to see instruction being offered in all that appertains to the bodily health and fitness of children and young people and to an understanding of their psychology and the influence of the home on their general development. The need for such a campaign is by no means confined to any particular sections of the population and we recommend that the machinery which has proved useful during the war for the education of the people in regard to food, salvage,

rationed goods, etc., should be utilised. We have in mind broadcasting, the press, the cinema, talks and demonstrations, and the employment by local and national authorities of skilled technical and propagandist personnel. Local authorities should be given a special responsibility in this connection.

PHYSICAL ESSENTIALS OF A GOOD HOME.

67. More than education will be needed, however, to enable the home and the parent to play their part. The home itself must be a good one. That is to say, there should be sufficient living space for every member of the family, adequate lighting and ventilation, freedom from damp and draughts, reasonable warmth by day and night in all weathers, good sanitation, a hot water supply, and all the facilities necessary for keeping bodies, clothes and houses clean. Privacy and quiet should be obtainable. Inside the home, the setting of family life should be such as will make possible and encourage a healthy routine of living. The design and construction of houses should be honest, simple, purposeful and aesthetically satisfying. At the same time, it must be possible for the home to be a real "home" with its own individuality and all the warm, friendly, social sentiment attaching to the term. These would seem to be the minimum *physical* domestic requirements within which young people can be fittingly reared. We have detailed them with some exactitude because so many of the homes in which children are reared are lacking in these particulars.

HOMES FIT FOR CHILDREN TO LIVE IN.

68. The most clamant need of Scottish childhood is a building and reconstruction programme which will give to every child the desirable living conditions we have described, and we recommend that these should be provided in accordance with a plan which should have behind it the same sense of national emergency and urgency and the same co-ordination of all human, material and financial resources as has been brought to the provision of the munitions of war. It will not be sufficient, however, if the plan is confined merely to providing houses. Children should not be reared in wildernesses of brick and stone, no matter how up-to-date may be the fittings and furnishings within their homes. They need the considerable variety of educational and recreative facilities which is described in later sections of this report; they need surroundings in which they can naturally and easily acquire healthy habits of living; and the settings of their homes should have enough simple beauty, dignity, and general "rightness," aesthetically and architecturally, to inspire them with affection and care for the amenities of their neighbourhood and give them the mental and spiritual nourishment which an aesthetically satisfying environment affords. In a subsequent section we make some observations on well-balanced communities and the restoration of real "neighbourliness" as important factors in the lives of children and young persons. We realise that the acute shortage of houses may make it necessary to resort to temporary expedients but we urge that every care should be taken in these temporary schemes to meet the needs which we have detailed. Five or ten years may be a short time in a housing programme, but it is long enough to make or mar the development of many thousands of children and we should press that in the making of housing policies, long-term or short-term, the predominant consideration should be that in the houses and communities children will be reared.

FAMILY ALLOWANCES.

69. The preceding paragraphs suggest that the larger the family, the larger should be the house they occupy. This can be made possible only if rents are adjusted in some way to enable large houses to be occupied by large families or if some other form of family allowances is made available. The needs of

children, moreover, are not confined to housing. They must also be adequately fed and clothed. The general policy in regard to child life which we are proposing clearly commits us to endorse the provision of family allowances and to press for a considerably more generous scale of such allowances than has usually been contemplated. It is necessary to ensure, of course, that family allowances will really be used for the benefit of children and young persons. Certain types of subvention in kind, such as school meals, free education, and many of the publicly-provided or publicly-aided facilities which we recommend in this report offer a means of achieving this end, but they are provided outwith the home and are handicapped in helping to raise the standards of family life unless the home itself possesses the amenities which we have described and the parents are financially able to meet their children's needs in a variety of other and more personal respects. Allowances in kind may not meet the whole need. We recommend that the adequate economic support of family life should be adopted as a national policy and that the best ways and means of enabling all parents to provide tully for the needs of their children should be explored.

The Child and The School.

A THREE-FOLD FUNCTION.

70. The school has a three-fold function to perform in the life of the child. First, it has to continue the preparation begun in the home, it has to enlarge it, and it has, where necessary, to compensate for the home's deficiencies and to correct its faults. Second, since the school offers a common experience as opposed to the more individualised family atmosphere of the home, it has a special responsibility to prepare the child for the aspects of living which go to make our common lot. Third, it has to ensure that the child is equipped with certain forms of knowledge, appreciation, and skill.

THE NURSERY SCHOOL.

71. The proper upbringing of children requires that from the age of two or three they should live for certain periods every day among their contemporaries. Consideration should be given to the framing of a scheme under which Education Authorities would be required to establish Nursery Schools. While these schools should be provided first in the localities in which home circumstances are least satisfactory, we are of opinion that they are just as necessary in localities where the home circumstances are usually described as good but where families tend to be small and are often limited to one or two children. The technique of the nursery schools is already highly developed. Mothers should be encouraged to attend the nursery schools for certain periods each week to study the training which their children are receiving and to discuss their infant welfare and guidance difficulties. Through the nursery school they should also have access to skilled medical advice, to child guidance clinics, and to all statutory and voluntary services which can be of help to them in maintaining and developing the all-round fitness of their younger children.

THE PRIMARY SCHOOL AS WELFARE CENTRE.

72. At each succeeding stage in the development of the child the school should continue to provide a centre in which he is under competent observation, from which his parents can obtain or be offered advice, instruction, and assistance in his upbringing, and through which all the appropriate statutory and voluntary services can be directed to the homes where they are needed. The relationship between the home and the primary school should be sufficiently close to allow the teacher to have some awareness of what kind of training and upbringing the child is receiving in the home. His teachers should be concerned

to mark and inwardly digest everything about a child which indicates his physical, mental, moral and spiritual condition and it should be the first aim of the school, treating each child as an individual case, to reduce whatever gap there may be between the actual condition of the child and the standards of attainment which the staff of the school consider to be reasonable in the light of the child's natural endowment. Whatever may be necessary for the reduction of the gap—advice for the parent or for the child, healthier living conditions, better feeding, medical treatment, individual or small group tuition for slow learners or otherwise retarded pupils—the teachers should be able to turn to certain agencies to get something done about it. In full co-operation with the home, compensating for it wherever necessary, the school should be endeavouring to give every individual child the opportunity of attaining as high a level of physical, mental, moral and spiritual fitness as can be made possible for him.

WELFARE AND THE SCHOOL STAFF.

73. We look upon welfare and guidance, not as appendices to the normal work of the school, but as an integral part of the school's proper functioning as an educational establishment. The implications of this conception will require careful examination, of course. It suggests, for one thing, that in the training of teachers increasing attention should be paid to the study of the home circumstances and social conditions of the child. An increase in the number of doctors, psychiatrists, educational psychologists, and other specialised workers would be necessary. Certain members of the staff of every school would probably require to devote a major part of their time to welfare and recreative work. It would be necessary for all the members of a school staff to work as a team, concerning themselves less than they do at present with the teaching of subjects and more with all-round development, and this would have repercussions on a rigid class system. Both classes and schools would certainly require to be smaller. The welfare interests of the teacher would not be restricted to his pupils' homes. He would wish to see that they had opportunities for using their leisure (in juvenile organisations, for example) and that they were not being exposed to influences which might be detrimental. He would be interested, therefore, in the types of reading matter, films and other amusements which are available for children and in the facilities open to them for play and recreation.

WELFARE SERVICES IN RURAL AREAS.

74. It is necessary to consider how far these suggestions can apply in rural districts and the areas of Scotland with very thinly scattered populations. All the needs and problems to which we have referred arise in the country, and fundamentally the same forms of treatment have to be provided, although the technique of provision may require to be adapted to suit widely varying conditions. There will be many parts in which nursery schools are not a feasible proposition and also in which the primary school cannot be expected to be in as close touch as in the thickly populated areas with all the agencies of advice, instruction and assistance which we are advocating. In spite of the difficulties, however, we maintain that the services are required, that they must be built up, and that the rural teacher can be a valuable link between the services and the child. Teachers should be encouraged to live in the communities among which they work and adequate housing accommodation should be provided to make this possible. They should know the home circumstances of all the children attending their schools. Their training should have made them familiar with the general principles of child guidance and welfare and they should be able to form views regarding the probable needs of the children under their care and the sources from which closer diagnosis and remedial assistance

should be sought. A working relationship should be developed between the rural teacher, the minister, the doctor and the district nurse. We feel that the co-operation of trusted local residents holding these official positions would facilitate the readiness of country people to avail themselves of the services offered. Certain of the services should be taken to country people in their own localities by travelling specialists and mobile units. In other cases it may be necessary or advisable that the children and young persons should be brought into town centres for observation and treatment, free transport being provided where necessary.

THE COMMUNITY LIFE OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL.

75. The child is being prepared to take his place in society. The school should accustom him to the adjustments, the responsibilities and the opportunities of life in a community. It has the duty of making a citizen out of him, not so much by what it tells him of citizenship, but by the practice in citizenship which his membership of its community can give him. This practice should be a direct result of the whole scheme of organisation, management, and discipline of the school, which should provide a miniature society that the child can participate in and observe as one of the principal reasons for his being at school. Its daily life should develop his notions of right conduct and decent behaviour, his sense of duty and responsibility, his conceptions of law and order, of work and service. Within it he should learn to shoulder his own burdens and to assist others to carry theirs. By the opportunities which it should give him of choosing, individually and in conjunction with his fellows, whether he takes this road or that, it should accustom him to dealing with the practical problems of life. And in the life which he actively pursues within his school community he should discover the need for knowledge and skill and the uses to which it can be put.

DISCIPLINE AND PUNISHMENT.

76. We referred above to the school scheme of discipline as playing a part in its community life and practice of citizenship and we feel that the subject is of sufficient relevance in this context to justify a few constructive observations. Like the community at large, the school community needs rules and laws designed to foster its well-being and there must be penalties for deliberate breaches of the law. The proper purpose of these penalties is to inculcate a respect for the rules and laws, but this object will not be achieved if the penalty appears to be an expression only of the teacher's displeasure and has not behind it at least the tacit concurrence of the offender's classmates. It is very important, therefore, that the reasons for the school laws should be carefully explained to the pupils and that they should be made to feel that any punishments they receive are for offences against the laws of their own community and well-being and not merely because they have failed to satisfy requirements arbitrarily imposed by an autocratic authority. Corporal punishment, for instance, used as a normal instrument of discipline, would be quite incompatible with the kind of school life which we are anxious to see developed. If used at all, it should be reserved for really serious breaches of discipline where it is calculated to bring home the gravity of the offence to the offender and his school mates.

NEW SCHOOL FACILITIES NEEDED.

77. We are suggesting an aim of school life which is not new but is far from being widely realised in practice. We have no doubt that it is largely realisable, given the necessary conditions and school staffs with the necessary training and

outlook. A new type of school building would seem to be required—one that has been planned as the living quarters of an active community, possibly one in which use would be made of the modern arts of pre-fabrication to permit of frequent re-planning as the needs of the community changed and grew. It should be amply equipped, too, with all the ways of learning by doing rather than by listening, and the classrooms should have plenty of floor space in order that as much activity as possible can be introduced into the classwork. Interiors and exteriors should be inspiring and exhilarating. In all respects the environment within and around the school should be such as will permit of the creation within the school of a community life. There should certainly be an adequately sized and pleasingly decorated assembly hall. Children should have easy access to playing fields, gymnasia, swimming baths, spray and shower baths, and any other facilities necessary to the cultivation of health and hygiene. The buildings (and, as far as possible, their surroundings) should be aesthetically pleasing and help to inculcate an appreciation of beauty and respect for the amenity of physical surroundings. All schools should possess adequate kitchens from which the children can be served in dining halls with meals fully prepared on the school premises. We regard this provision as an important means of ensuring that children will be adequately fed but we are also of opinion that instruction in cookery, diet and nutrition should be included in the education of every child and that the eating of communal meals under satisfactory conditions can be a very useful part of their social education. This function of the school to provide a community life is too important and urgent, however, to wait upon the ideal building. The best-equipped schools could be developed as centres for research into methods and techniques; the results of these researches could be introduced into the schemes of training colleges and made the subject of vacation courses and summer schools.

THE EQUIPMENT OF THE CHILD.

78. How much education, in the accepted sense, would the child receive in a school devoting itself largely to welfare and community life? To play any active part in the type of community which we have roughly sketched above the child would have to be able to read, write, count. Participation in the work and play of the community should supply him with incentives to learn these basic skills and means of immediately and progressively applying his proficiency. If the child is given enough opportunity of applying English, mathematics, science and handcrafts in ways which have some practical value in his own developing daily life, we consider it is likely that he will learn—and retain—more of these subjects as a result of the school life we have been visualizing than he generally does under more established methods of tuition. The benefits of improved study of the needs and circumstances of the individual child are also as likely to be reflected in arithmetical prowess as in gymnastics or moral behaviour. The essentials of a standard education need not suffer, therefore, through any importations into the school system which are recommended in this report. We could expect the child, given the home life and the school life which would result from our proposals, to reach the beginnings of adolescence with the following useful attributes and accomplishments: a reasonably healthy and efficient body, a routine of healthy living, an alert mind, some power of independent thought and judgment, a capacity for grappling with problems, some facility in expression, a knowledge of certain basic mathematical processes, a considerable degree of practical ability and an experience of life in a community. The list is not unimpressive and would provide a good enough basis for further education during adolescence. In the very nature of things, however, teacher and child would almost certainly have

gone further. The child would have wanted to know how its body functions, how it came to be there, about God, about the stars and the sea, gas and electricity, about people in other lands, about how to make music and to draw, about the inside of books, and so on, and teachers who had in mind the equipment of our third chapter as the ultimate objective of their collective work with the child could hardly avoid leaving the pupil ready, and, indeed, willing, to advance into farther fields.

OTHER NEEDS OF CHILDHOOD.

79. Observations and recommendations regarding the leisure needs of children and further comments on their religious education and sex education will be found under the appropriate headings in subsequent sections.

CHAPTER V.

YOUTH AT SCHOOL AND AT WORK.

Recommendations regarding secondary and continued education and the training of young people for work.

80. In Scotland it has been the practice for children to pass around the age of 12 from the primary school into one of several forms of post-primary education—two or three-year advanced divisions, higher-grade schools, intermediate schools, secondary schools. The new Education Code, which was devised to allow for the raising of the school-leaving age to 15, simplified the organisation and nomenclature to provide a secondary division with alternative courses for pupils leaving at 15 and for those remaining at school till 17 or 18. It was proposed that the former should normally be given in Junior Secondary Schools for a period of three years, and the latter in Senior Secondary Schools over a period of five or six years. It is now proposed that the raising of the leaving age to 15 should take place at an early date and that a further rise to 16 should follow as soon as possible. In our view, the needs of youth will not be fully served until the leaving age is raised to 16 and we recommend that this step should be taken with all reasonable expedition. The progressive raising of the leaving age affords an opportunity to reconsider the aims and methods which should be adopted in the education of the adolescent with a view to meeting the needs which we have analysed and providing the equipment for adult living which we have specified.

TWO STAGES NEEDED IN POST-PRIMARY COURSES.

81. In our first chapter we showed that there were two stages in the development of the adolescent between 12 and 16 and that a new degree of maturity, with new needs and new educational possibilities, was generally reached around the age of 14. We consider it to be highly important that the existence of these two stages with their different needs and possibilities should be adequately recognised in the planning of post-primary courses, and we should suggest that these should be treated as falling into two parts of two years each rather than as a single four-year course.

The 12-14 Stage.

A "TEAM" APPROACH TO LEARNING.

82. The needs and possibilities of each stage of adolescence should be used in school to develop the full powers of body, mind and spirit of which the young

people in the stage are capable. A course for 12's to 14's should aim at educating young people through their questing curiosity, their desire to equate romantic adventure with reality, their need of outlets for their physical energy, and their passion for teams and gangs. The first stage of the secondary school should have a community life based on small groups, not only for purposes of organised games but also for co-operative attacks on all the subjects of the course. A "team" approach to learning should be encouraged.

CONTACTS WITH REALITY AND ADVENTURE.

83. The course should include inquiries into how things in which boys and girls of that age are naturally interested are made and work—cars, aeroplanes, engines, ships, electrical apparatus, household labour-saving inventions, etc.—and much of their science, mathematics, geography, handwork, art, and even their English grammar and composition should be applied to these inquiries. The school should give them interesting and instructive contacts with a range of human activities and occupations, aesthetic and cultural as well as practical and vocational, and should give them opportunities of "getting the feel" of these wherever possible. It should also seek to make it possible for them to do things which appeal to their imaginations—sail a boat, ride a horse, climb a mountain, fly in an aeroplane. Part of the course should be conducted in a residential school in the country or at some form of camp school which would permit rural life and land work to be included among these adventures and experiences in addition to adding to the young people's experience of community living. A considerable part of ordinary school work might be made more attractive, more demonstrably useful, and more memorable through associating it thus with reality and adventure, but the contacts with reality and adventure have an educational value in themselves which justify their being strongly featured in the 12-14's school life.

ALL-ROUND DEVELOPMENT.

84. A course planned for the 12-14 could also be providing him with important elements of the equipment for adult living which we outlined in Chapter III. On the physical side, it should be using his adolescent energy to develop, but not over-tax, his strength and endurance, and to give him dexterity, agility and grace of movement with plenty of opportunity of trying out his physical abilities; showing him the whys and wherefores of the routine of healthy living which should have been cultivated in him at home and in the primary school; and giving him some knowledge of how his body works. It should be using his questing curiosity to help him to think straightly, express himself clearly, apply his mind to grappling with problems, and also to strive after truth of fact and honesty of behaviour and outlook. He can be introduced, again largely through the satisfaction of his curiosities, to the sciences and their contributions to modern living, to parts of the world-wide story of man's development, and to some of his achievements in art, literature and music. His dawning community sense can be used to quicken his appreciation of community worship, to enlarge his childhood ideas of God, and to give him a view of religion as an influence on man's relationships with his fellows.

THE SCHOOL AND ORGANISED GAMES.

85. A school curriculum of the more active kind which we visualise would go some way to meet the need of outlets for physical energy. It should, within reason, aim at supplying them. Regular physical exercise should be included in the course. The school should also provide facilities and leadership for leisure-time games, and the young people should be able to engage in them either as members of clubs formed within the school or as members of voluntary organisations.

VOCATIONAL OBSERVATION AND EXPERIMENTATION.

86. In our opinion, vocational instruction directed towards preparing a young person for a particular industry should not be included in a course for the 12-14's. As our earlier analysis has shown, they are generally too immature to choose and start training for a particular job. On the other hand, by giving a young person contacts with a variety of activities and occupations and providing him with many opportunities of trying out his abilities, a course of the kind we have suggested would have some value in the matter of vocational guidance, and parts of the course could well be planned with this object in view. Members of the teaching staff responsible for organising this aspect of the school work should have some acquaintance with vocational requirements and should be given opportunities of widening their knowledge and experience beyond the industries of the school's immediate locality. It is desirable, however, that they should be acquainted with the local industries and that the children taking the course should be given an insight into the local employment possibilities.

The 14-16 Stage.

COURSES WITH VOCATIONAL TRENDS.

87. In this stage the young person is beginning to know the direction of his own abilities and, assisted by the acquaintance with possibilities which he has gained in his first course and the guidance of those who have been observing him, his ideas about a vocation may be firming. It is at this stage that he should first be given the option of courses with different vocational trends—manual, commercial, scientific, professional, the arts, etc.—but the first year of the second part of his secondary education—14 to 15—should be devised to give him opportunities of discovering more about the possibilities within the broad field he has chosen: the different types of work that might be available to him, the conditions under which he would work, the contributions he would be making to the work of the world, and so on. He should visit places of work, hear workers describing their jobs, be given a chance of trying jobs in small, experimental ways. In the second year—15 to 16—having made a narrower selection of the particular type of employment or industry to which he proposes to go when he leaves at 16, he could receive a training designed to give him a suitable equipment for starting work.

HIS GROWING INTERESTS.

88. His general education should take into consideration the possibilities which his growing powers of grasping ideas and of reasoning offer in the way of a better appreciation of the common sense of health and the prevention of disease, of the place of science and the scientist in modern life, of the broader causes of the more important events in world history, of the main articles of Christian faith and the Christian contribution to ethical progress, of the existence of varieties of religious belief and the importance of religious freedom and toleration, of the different methods of government and the machinery through which they operate. His developing individuality and deepening emotional life make possible a more personal appreciation of literature, music and art and the course should provide opportunities for him to discover his own likes in these fields.

Some General Observations on the Secondary School.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE BY MEANS OF APTITUDE TESTS.

89. We should like to see use being made, at suitable stages in courses of secondary education, of psychological and manipulative tests of

vocational aptitude to supplement the young person's own discovery of his aptitudes by opportunities of the kind we have suggested earlier in this chapter. Tests cannot of themselves provide all the guidance that youth requires.

COMMUNITY LIFE AND SELF-GOVERNMENT.

90. The observations which we made regarding the development of the primary school as a centre of welfare and community living apply in general to the secondary school. Life in the secondary school should be taking more and more the form of a miniature community at each successive stage and in the 15-16 year a marked degree of self-government should be reached. Co-operation and individuality should both be fostered.

INDUSTRY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION.

91. In making these observations regarding the type of secondary education which our schools should seek to provide in the future, we have had in mind the analysis of adolescent development with which we began this report and the description of a desirable equipment for adult living which we set out in Chapter III. These two chapters present our case for the structure, objectives, and content which we are advocating. A scheme such as we have outlined would have certain other advantages, however. It seems to us to offer a reasoned solution to the claims which are made for vocational instruction on the one hand and for general education on the other. It is argued that education in the past has not been practical enough; that young people are entering industry and commerce untrained in the things which would enable them to give efficient service; and that our national existence requires that our schools should provide their pupils with a more definite training for the jobs they are to undertake. It is also said that young people will not be keen to stay at school until they are 15 or 16 unless they feel that in doing so they are equipping themselves for work. It may be true that some of the young people who find work in offices and shops are not so accurate in the spelling or counting which a particular job calls for as could be desired. It is true that there is room for considerable improvement in the training of young men and women to take up technical and managerial posts in trade and industry and also of skilled workers to make and repair the machines of industry and to supervise those who man them. But it is equally true that, so far as the masses of its employees are concerned, industry is depending less and less on the skill acquired through technical training or years of experience and preferring workers who can learn in a very short time to do a particular piece of work well and are prepared to go on repeating it so long as may be required of them. The training of efficient machine workers has been greatly speeded up in most industries in recent years, and it is very much open to question whether the type of work which will be available for the majority of school-leavers in the future would really provide a distinct form of vocational instruction on which they could profitably spend an important part of their secondary school life.

RECRUITING THE SKILLED WORKERS.

92. We should maintain, however, that the attitude towards secondary education which we outline is well calculated to meet the needs of industry in the future. Through the opportunities it affords for vocational experimentation on the part of all pupils it should greatly increase the field from which technical and skilled personnel can be recruited. Boys and girls who might have been professional or clerical misfits may find their real calling in a skilled industrial post. Others who might have remained unnoticed in unskilled jobs all their lives would have the chance of discovering a special aptitude and being guided

while still at school how best to use it. Vocational experimentation at the ages we have suggested should help industry and commerce to find the skilled workers they need. It is a means towards using the national man-power to the best advantage. The wider knowledge of work as a whole which it should afford to employees in offices and shops should be of advantage to them in their occupations.

SOCIETY AND THE UNSKILLED WORKER.

93. The benefits to the large numbers who will necessarily become "machine-minders" or be engaged in unskilled trades are less obvious. It might even be argued that the less they know of the other jobs they might have had, the better for their peace of mind. On the other hand, they would have had a chance to disclose any aptitudes they might possess and their school life should have made them more adaptable, more able to adjust themselves to changing work and conditions, more able to take advantage of any other opportunities that might come their way. If, as seems likely, the industry of the future needs a considerable reservoir of readily adaptable labour, the education we suggest should help to produce it. Moreover, the remedy for whatever disabilities there are in the situation of the unskilled workers of the future is not to give them less education than their skilled fellow workers but to give them the full status and respect which is the due of every form of necessary labour and at the same time to make it possible for them to share fully in any aspects of the social, political and cultural life of the community to which they may be drawn. This means that they should enjoy the same opportunities of a liberal secondary education as any of their fellows, irrespective of what their ultimate vocation is likely to be. Any other treatment of them educationally in this modern world will lead to a keener consciousness of social cleavage and to social unrest and disaster.

THE MORE ADVANCED PUPIL.

94. The objection may be raised that a scheme of the kind we have recommended is liable to do injustice to certain types of young persons who have thriven well in the past on the more orthodox forms of secondary education—early starters for the professions and for the posts in industry and commerce which are filled from candidates with a good school record. It is not a single rigid course of instruction and experience that we are recommending, however, but a scheme of objectives permitting a variety of possible courses. In Paragraph 87 we have said that when he enters on the second stage of his secondary schooling the pupil should "be given the option of courses with different vocational trends—manual, commercial, scientific, professional, the arts, etc." It is not our intention that there should be any retardation of the pupil for whom a particular line of progress is becoming clear. On the contrary, we should hope that in all the available forms of secondary education there would be, especially when this stage has been reached, considerable opportunity for a pupil to forge ahead and, within reason, set his own pace. At the same time, we consider that the pupil with an academic or other distinctive bent should not be segregated at this stage from pupils following other courses but should continue to share with them in the community life of the school and the more general kinds of citizenship study to which we have referred in Paragraph 88.

THE SOCIAL ASPECT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.

95. We tend to favour, then, an "omnibus" type of secondary school which could be attended by all young people up to the age of 16—a school with a common community life and common instruction in those subjects which should

be within the general knowledge and experience of all, but offering a variety of courses from which choice can be made around the age of 14 in accordance with the vocation in view. Pupils who receive full-time education after 16 might continue in the same school if it were equipped to provide the training they are seeking, or they might attend more specialised centres. We fully realise that it may be difficult to provide, equip and staff such schools for all adolescents up to the age of 16 and that there may be practical arguments for the provision of separate schools to meet different needs. We are anxious to assert the view, however, that the problems of providing a longer period of secondary education for all young people should not be considered in terms of their probable occupations alone. Important as vocational education undoubtedly is, it is only one aspect of the education that modern living demands. The purpose of raising the school-leaving age is not only to produce better workers but also to produce better citizens, better parents, better individuals—an objective which we have kept before us in drawing up our outline of a possible curriculum—and there may be dangers in attempting to deal with occupational needs in isolation from other equally important needs of the day. High among these needs we should place a sense of social unity, a closer community of understanding, interest and purpose among all vocations and classes. The part which the structure and content of education can play in making social understanding and co-operation easy or difficult is far from being sufficiently appreciated. By virtue of the foundations laid when a national scheme of education was first propounded at the time of the Reformation, the Scottish educational system has worked in favour of a large measure of social unity and understanding. In the planning for the raising of the leaving age a deliberate piece of educational construction will necessarily be undertaken and it is imperative that full consideration should be given to the possible social consequences of any form which the construction may take. We do not wish to over-simplify the problem but, broadly, it would appear that if we are too ready to divide young people at an early age into groups such as brain-workers and hand-workers and proceed to educate them separately for different walks of life, we shall run a risk of increasing social differences and jeopardising the possibilities of closer social unity in the future. We have, on the other hand, an opportunity to seek a plan for our new secondary education which will keep in view whatever differences in educational content it may be necessary to allow for up to the statutory leaving age but will at the same time be mindful of the value to society of the continuance—as far as modern conditions will permit—of the old Scottish tradition under which the children of the ploughman, blacksmith, grocer, teacher, minister, doctor, banker and laird attended the same school and received a large measure of the same education.

AID TOWARDS HIGHER EDUCATION.

96. We should hope—indeed, we expect—that the number of young people who will wish to continue their full-time studies in order to obtain degrees, diplomas, and other higher educational qualifications will be very much larger after compulsory education is extended to 16 than it is at present. If we are to reap the full harvest of the extension of compulsory education, it is essential that no young person who shows promise should be prevented from continuing his education by lack of means. We consider that the raising of the leaving age should be accompanied by the abolition of fees in all schools under the control of Education Authorities and by a considerable increase in the number and value of bursaries and scholarships and that there should be full equality of opportunity, regardless of the part of the country in which a potential student may reside. To secure both the increase and the equality of opportunity

it may be necessary to replace or to supplement the financial aid at present supplied by local authorities by an extended scheme of national bursaries and scholarships which will take full account of both maintenance and fees.

Youth at Work.

97. The general trend of our survey commits us to the view that until the age of 18 is reached, a young person should be regarded as a "learner" rather than an "earner." He should be under educational care in the sense that the Education Authority of his area should be responsible, not only for providing facilities for his continued education, but for ensuring, in co-operation with appropriate agencies, that if it is necessary for him to be away from home, there is good hostel accommodation in which he can reside and that his work provides him, as far as possible, with a training which will give him a reasonable prospect of being able to use his abilities in making a good standard of living during his adult life. The raising of the school-leaving age, especially when the age becomes 16, will remove some of the distressing features of juvenile employment to which we have referred in an earlier chapter, especially if young people can be provided from the age of 12, as we have suggested, with opportunities for personally surveying and investigating different kinds of work, discovering their own aptitudes, being guided to a choice of employment, and actually beginning a training for work before they leave school. Any such scheme will face certain practical limitations, of course. A full range of employment possibilities cannot be made available in every area. The schools will require to maintain a very close liaison with the Ministry of Labour in order to be aware of the trends of employment, locally and nationally, and the openings which are likely to be available—one, two, and three years ahead—inside and outside of their own areas for young people of different types of ability and capacity. At the same time, we are anxious—in the interests of social justice and national well-being—that the large aim of providing young people as far as possible with equal opportunities of finding employment which make full use of their possibilities should be the dominant motive in co-operation between the schools and the Ministry. We recommend that the Scottish Education Department and the Ministry of Labour should institute, as soon as may be practicable, a joint inquiry into the machinery which would be necessary, locally and nationally, to enable the teaching staffs of the schools, the Education Authorities, and the local offices of the Ministry to co-operate in the development of the methods of vocational observation, experimentation, selection and training which we advocate, and to add to these a nation-wide scheme for the placing of all types of young people in suitable work.

MAINTENANCE GRANTS FOR YOUNG WORKERS.

98. A large obstacle in the way of the development of any scheme of vocational guidance and placing is the fact that the parents of many young people cannot afford to send them away from home to secure work for which they may be suited but which is not available in the neighbourhood and which may not offer sufficient remuneration to enable them to maintain themselves away from home. The full value of longer schooling will not be obtainable by young people, by industry and by the nation until this disability can be removed. Works, offices and shops in which young people are employed should be, *ipso facto*, places for further education, and it is our view that financial aid to enable school-leavers with distinctive aptitudes and abilities to enter types of employment in which they show promise of doing well is just as necessary as the financial aid towards further education to which we referred in Paragraph 96. We recommend that an inquiry should

be instituted into the best means of developing a scheme by which young people can obtain financial support to enable them to continue their education by entering suitable employment.

THE CARE OF UNSKILLED WORKERS.

99. We have considered a suggestion that young people engaged in jobs of a repetitive character which have little or no developmental value should work only for half the day or week and spend the other half of the normal working week either in learning to be more vocationally adaptable or in acquiring hobbies and skills for use in later life in their leisure time. It would be very difficult, however, to produce any scheme which would draw a clear line between skilled jobs and repetition jobs and which would hold a fair balance of advantage between the two types of worker. The alternative would be to suggest half-time work and half-time education for all young people between school-leaving age and 18 but we hesitate to recommend this as a policy to be immediately realised. The duty of the Education Authority to these young workers should be to ensure—again in co-operation with appropriate agencies, which should include the industries themselves—that the conditions of their employment are in every way as favourable to their development as they can be made and that they are given opportunities of transferring to other industries which may offer better use for their abilities.

PREVENTION OF PHYSICAL STRAINS.

100. In Paragraph 19 we described certain dangers of physical strain to which adolescents are liable. To prevent these we recommend that:

(a) Attention should be drawn to these risks in the campaign of education for parents which we have proposed in Paragraph 66, and particularly to the strains to which girls may be subjected by domestic duties and responsibilities, especially when studying for examinations; in propaganda directed to employers of juvenile labour; and in instructions to teachers.

(b) When compulsory day continued education is instituted, the health of all young people should be a care of the school medical service until they reach the age of 18. The Department of Health for Scotland and the Ministry of Labour should devise a scheme—to come into operation as soon as possible—for the regular medical inspection of the working conditions of all young people.

(c) In each locality a study should be made and information supplied to the Education Authority regarding the working and living conditions of young people and the types of physical strain, postural defect, etc., to which their work may be exposing them. If the risk of strain or defect cannot be wholly avoided, the Authority should seek suitable forms of remedial recreation and take steps to see that these are made available to the affected young people in continued education centres or the youth centres or youth organisations to which they may belong.

The Further Education of Young Workers.

101. We understand it is contemplated that all young people between school-leaving age and 18 should be compelled to attend, during their working hours, a centre of further education for one day or two half-days a week over a period of 44 weeks in the year. In isolated rural areas the attendance will be at a residential centre for a continuous period or periods giving the same number of hours of instruction. When the school-leaving age is raised to 16, there will be 88 days in which an opportunity is given to round off the compulsory part of a young person's education—88 days in which to ensure

that he is brought into contact with things of which he would be the better of knowing something if he is to make a good and responsible adult but which he was too immature or had not the time to learn in his full-time schooling. The community will be making its last assured educational contact with most of its future citizens during these 88 days. Moreover, the 88 days fall within a period of adolescent development which all teachers of the upper forms in secondary schools know to be very fruitful and interesting from an educational point of view. It would seem to be vitally important, therefore, that the use to be made of them should be considered with very great care. We saw in our opening analysis that between the ages of 16 and 18 the young person develops wider social interests and sympathies and also engages in certain preliminaries to the ultimate selection of a mate and the creation of a home and family. In our view, a programme of instruction for the compulsory continued education centres should be based on the three themes of society, home and work.

THE PLACE FOR TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION?

102. It appears to be generally assumed that part of the curriculum of compulsory continued education should be given over to some form of technical training suited to the occupations which the students are following. This assumption is a natural one since continuation classes have largely been used for that purpose, but after examining it in the context of our whole inquiry into the needs of youth and of society, we feel that it has perhaps been made without full consideration of the value and practicability of the proposal and also of the possibility of alternative treatments of the work theme. It will be recalled that our proposals for the secondary school include experimental guidance towards the choice of a vocation followed, where appropriate, by a course of definite occupational instruction in the final year. If full use is made of the extended period of secondary education, the young workers of the future should be educationally more advanced than is usually the case at present and may also have acquired more than a little technical skill and experience before leaving school. We have already referred to the growing tendency of many industries to rely on a limited number of high-grade technicians and skilled key-workers and to transform as many as possible of the operations into simplified repetition jobs for which no prolonged period of training is required. In large part, therefore, a new situation is developing so far as the technical training of large numbers of young workers is concerned.

DIFFICULTIES OF PROVISION.

103. There will probably be two streams of young workers to be catered for in the compulsory day centres. There will be a stream composed partly of entrants into certain fairly well-defined categories of industries and occupations which will still require workers with a considerable degree of personal skill and experience and partly of young people whose school record has marked them out as potential key-workers and technicians in industries where mass production methods are in use, and a very much broader stream composed of the young people who will be employed in the less skilled types of mass production work and workers in a host of miscellaneous occupations with greatly varying possibilities of prescribed courses of training. Considerable difficulties may be encountered in trying to provide suitable courses of vocational instruction which will be of real value to so heterogeneous a collection of workers. Courses of the "lowest common denominator" type are not likely to be of real benefit to either of the streams, and we doubt whether the time available for instruction would justify the costs of equipping and staffing a large variety of courses with greatly differing subject-matter and of varying lengths and degrees of intensity and pace.

ANOTHER SOLUTION NEEDED.

104. In these circumstances, we consider that another solution should be sought to the problem of supplying technical instruction where it is needed or wanted. In our view, all employers should accept a responsibility to provide their workers under the age of 18 with as much as possible of the technical training which their work may require or of which they may seem to be capable of profiting. There should be technical schools in all Education Authority areas equipped to provide the training required for the major occupations of each area, and arrangements should be developed to release young workers to attend these technical schools for part of the working week, in addition to their attendance at the compulsory day continuation centres. The technical schools should also be open in the evenings to meet the needs of young people who may be anxious to qualify themselves either for advancement in their own occupations or for other employment than they are immediately engaged in. It seems to us that in these ways the needs of industry and business, and also of the young workers themselves, can be more efficiently met than they would be if attempts were made to provide technical training for work under the compulsory continued education scheme.

LEARNING ABOUT THE WORK OF THE WORLD.

105. We are of opinion moreover, that there is another important field of information and instruction related to work which could very fittingly be given to all young workers through the medium of compulsory continued education. The young person's interest in the new atmosphere of work to which he is being introduced should be utilised to give him some conception of the place of his work and his industry in the business and industrial scheme of things as a whole and also of his relationships to his fellow-workers, his managers and employers, and to society and the world. We should like him to learn what every worker ought to know about works and industrial organisation; trade unions; the story of industry, commerce and trade; the landmarks in legislation affecting work and workers; the relation of his own job to the way other people, from his own firm to the world as a whole, get a living and pursue happiness; the romance and the realities of the labours of mankind—in short, all he should know about work if he is to be a responsible and informed worker-citizen. We have no doubt that in the times in which we live this knowledge is in every way as important and necessary as technical instruction. A course of this kind would be free from the difficulties described above, since it could be equally relevant to all types of workers and all occupations, and if it were intelligently and imaginatively handled it would go a long way towards the development of greater social and economic understanding.

PREPARATION FOR FAMILY LIFE.

106. Unquestionably, a considerable part of the time-table should be devoted to an education for home life and parenthood. In Paragraph 62 we gave some account of the preparation which we consider necessary for family life. We should like to see new types of courses directed towards those ends being developed for use in the compulsory continuation centres. Some of the necessary instruction would no doubt have been given in earlier school life, but many new angles on the subject become possible with young men and women who are earning money of their own, contributing to family budgets, aspiring to adult status, and taking an interest in the opposite sex. We should hope that this subject would not be labelled "Domestic Science" and that a treatment could be worked out which would combine the imaginative with the practical. Experiments in "Home Building" programmes and competitions

which are being conducted by voluntary organisations point to methods that might be studied with advantage. The course should range over every aspect of the making and running of a home. The psychologist, the artist, the craftsman, the tradesman, the nurse, the physician, the cook, the butcher, the decorator, the furniture-maker and the banker should be numbered where possible among its tutors, and the methods should include visits to actual homes, demonstrations, the making of models, practical work of many kinds, lectures, films, brains trusts—anything which will make home building into an adventure which both boys and girls will consider to be worthy of special preparation.

SOCIAL VALUES AND COMMUNITY LIVING.

107. Attention should still be given to physical fitness, knowledge of health, straight thinking, clear expression, moral and spiritual development, preparation for community living. The purpose of this last stage of compulsory education, however, should be to relate all these to a social background and establish their social values. For example, health education should be directed in this stage to an understanding of how the health of the community can be protected and built up by the health services, housing, town and country planning. The method of the social survey could profitably be employed. With this sort of material and the introduction which they would be receiving under Paragraph 105 to the economic and other needs of mankind, young people would become ready to consider the types of problems which arise in the organisation of social life and in local and national government and could be given practice in analysing issues, seeking information and evidence, and endeavouring to arrive at a considered judgment. We have in mind, in making these suggestions, that they will have been benefiting by secondary education until the age of 16 and we are convinced that a suitable *introduction* to those fields of human interest and necessity can be provided for them. At the age of 21 all these young people will be eligible to declare their views through the ballot-box on the most complex social and political issues, and it is surely essential in the interests of national welfare and security that before their contact with formal education ends, they should have been given a certain background of knowledge and have realised the great responsibilities which they assume when they become citizens. Besides, as our earlier analysis has shown, under favourable conditions they are ready about this time in their lives to take an interest in these matters.

CO-EDUCATIONAL CENTRES.

108. In view of the nature of the curriculum which we are suggesting, we consider that all centres for compulsory continued education should be co-educational, though separate instruction for the sexes in certain subjects will be necessary, and the students should be drawn from mixed areas of population. A richer, more socially, and also more psychologically, valuable curriculum and community life will be possible if both sexes are taking part in it and if the students possess a variety of social and occupational backgrounds. The objects we have in view are not likely to be met if, as has been suggested as a possibility, centres are established on works premises to cater for the workers employed by single firms or groups of firms. We should prefer that all the centres should be under the complete control of the Education Authorities and only in very exceptional circumstances should they be set up on premises belonging to or associated with an employing firm.

CONTINUED EDUCATION AND UNEMPLOYMENT.

109. In Paragraph 101 we pointed out that the proposed scheme could provide only some 88 days of compulsory continued education. No opportunity of increasing this time should be neglected. Between the two wars large numbers of young people were unemployed for considerable periods and a system of part-time attendance at Junior Instruction Centres was instituted. We should hope that the conditions which caused so much juvenile unemployment will not recur, but it may be that certain numbers of young people will not be employed immediately on leaving school or may fall out of work for one reason or another. We consider that whenever this happens, an unemployed young person should automatically be required to increase his day-time attendance at either a centre of compulsory continued education or a technical school. By this means the disadvantages of special instruction centres for the unemployed could be obviated and a flexible principle of "less work, more education" could be developed.

A Comprehensive Plan.

110. During the coming years changes will take place in Scottish education. We are most anxious to emphasise that, if the interests of youth and of society are to be served, the new developments must be regarded as affording an opportunity for a review of adolescent education *as a whole*, its purposes, methods, and relationships to the rest of education and to social life, and the preparation of a boldly comprehensive plan which is calculated to meet all the educational needs of youth in these times and to which each of the stages can be carefully and purposefully related. Without such a plan we fear that the new developments may merely add patches to an existing patchwork instead of producing a much-needed new garment, and that neither youth nor society will benefit as they should from the proposed advances. If the appropriate sections of this report have suggested the possible scope and content of a plan, we feel it will have served a useful purpose.

CHAPTER VI.

OTHER ASPECTS OF EDUCATION AND WELFARE.

Recommendations regarding religious education and the relation of the churches to the problems of youth; sex and education, and care of handicapped children and young persons.

111. In Paragraph 59 we outlined the scope of the knowledge and experience of religion and the spiritual life which we should like all young people to possess and we have suggested that certain parts of that knowledge and experience should be obtained by young people during their school life, the right of conscience being duly safeguarded. We are aware that many people may regard Paragraph 59 as an inadequate scheme of religious education in that it omits all reference to a denominational basis of religious knowledge and might form an acceptable element in the upbringing of a child of parents who do not fully subscribe to Christian doctrines. We should hope that such parents would be prepared to agree that their children ought to know the broad principles of the religious faith held by their neighbours and appreciate the part which these principles have played in the moulding of civilised life, just as we should hope that parents of all beliefs would permit their children to

understand that other doctrines and views exist and should be respected. In our opinion, it is not the function of a school, a youth organisation, or a youth centre to accomplish the full religious education of a young person. Indeed, there are excellent youth organisations that have no specific religious background. The main part of that education should be undertaken in the home and by the church of which the young person may be a member. Each church must develop its own methods of bringing religious knowledge and experience to its young adherents, and we suggest that churches draw the attention of their clergy and lay workers to the desirability of a closer study of the psychology and needs of youth along the lines which have been indicated in this report. The clergy should consider whether the forms of worship and religious teaching provided for the young people of their churches are really suited to their stage of development and understanding of life in these times. Most of the denominations have given attention to the religious needs of children. We think that a certain failure to realise and provide for the needs of adolescents in the church may have contributed considerably to religious indifference. We think there is room for attention to be given to means of enabling young people to take a more active and personal part in religious services and to understand the full significance of worship; to the content and phraseology of prayers with a view to a finer expression of the spiritual needs, aspirations and emotions of youth; to the more careful selection of readings from the Scriptures whose meaning and relevance can be appreciated by young people; and to the selection and preparation of more suitable hymns which might be sung at young people's services in Church, in club, and at camp—hymns which will express aspirations and emotions more appropriate to youth and to modern life than many of the hymns in use. Ways and means should be considered, too, of introducing young people, who may be more interested in religion as a way of life than as a matter of doctrine, to the practical expression of religion in their daily lives as pupils, workers, members of families, of the church, and of the community. The training of divinity students should include specific preparation for undertaking the religious education and assisting the spiritual development of young people, for ensuring that young people's needs as members of church communities are properly met, for giving practical guidance to parents, and for using their influence in the community to bring about a proper appreciation of the importance of adequate provision for all the needs of childhood and youth.

THE CHURCHES AND THE COMMUNITY.

112. We view the churches as possessing certain other responsibilities to childhood and youth. We believe that, in the light of the Christian conception of the value of every human soul in the sight of God, the churches will feel called upon to support our contention that every child should be given the opportunity of attaining its maximum possibility of development and, therefore, to use their influence with the parents, the employers, and the rate and tax payers in their congregations, and collectively with the community in general, towards the establishment of the social and educational services for the benefit of children and young persons which we have recommended. The churches should also recruit and train workers who could participate in the development of parenthood education and parent guidance services. On the other hand, the churches must have the means to play an effective part in the life of youth, and the handicaps which many of them have suffered during the war years through being deprived of the use of their halls and other supplementary buildings should not be continued. A large part of these means they must necessarily assemble for themselves, but it is of vital importance that sites adequate in size and position should be allotted for them in planning schemes for post-war housing development. This need has not always been recognised

in the past, and a site which may seem sufficient for a place of worship may not be large enough to permit the church of to-day to minister adequately to the social as well as the religious needs of its members. It is specially desirable that churches should be equipped with modern and attractive facilities which will allow them to gather together their children and young people and enlarge in their own particular way upon the preparation for living which they are receiving from other sources.

Sex and Education.

113. In Paragraphs 11 and 14-16 we discussed some of the problems which youth has to face in regard to sex and in Paragraph 62 we indicated the outlook which we should like all young people to attain. Once again we would lay emphasis upon the wide individual differences in the reactions of children and young people to the problem of sex. In our view, the broad requirements are:

(1) that everyone should gradually acquire during childhood and youth a sufficient and accurate knowledge of the facts of sex and reproduction;

(2) that all young people should develop a healthy attitude towards sex and reproduction, regarding the function of sex as an aspect of life which plays a very important part in their personal, social and cultural lives, and which consequently needs wise management;

(3) that everyone should recognise the need for good standards of conduct derived from an understanding and appreciation of the place of sex in a well-balanced moral and spiritual life.

A GRADUAL PROCESS.

114. The gaining of factual knowledge about sex should be a gradual process, and there is no simple rule which can be applied to all cases and in all circumstances. It seems clear that in early childhood satisfactory answers should be given to children's questions at home and in nursery schools. During school life an increasing amount of knowledge should gradually be imparted during courses of teaching in healthy living, biology, parent-craft, etc. During adolescence preparation for responsible adult living demands that all young people shall be given some instruction in social and community health, one of the aims of which should be the development of a responsible attitude towards sex behaviour, and all information which will conduce to a clear understanding of the social, moral, and spiritual reasons for the adoption of high standards of sex conduct and for the institution of marriage should be included.

EXAMPLE AND GUIDANCE NEEDED.

115. A healthy responsible attitude towards sex will be encouraged if the necessary knowledge is given at the right time and in the right manner by adults who have themselves developed a healthy and balanced outlook on life based on a sound philosophy. The *ideal* to be aimed at is for all adults to have sufficient accurate knowledge, a healthy natural attitude, and high standards of personal conduct so that they can set an example through their own lives as well as being fit to guide the young people with whom they come in contact. Young people should be able to turn to their elders and leaders for advice when they need it and to discuss their difficulties and doubts with people in whom they have confidence. It follows that everyone concerned with the upbringing of children—parents, teachers, nurses, youth leaders, ministers of religion, etc.—should have some special instruction to fit them to be understanding and helpful in this way. There should be in addition a certain number of specially qualified persons to whom parents and teachers and youth leaders can turn for expert advice when difficulties arise.

LONG-TERM AND SHORT-TERM POLICIES.

116. We have found it necessary to think of the problem of instruction in terms of present circumstances and also of the future. At present wise parents are able and anxious to give their children the advice and guidance of which they stand in need and we look forward to a day when the great majority of parents will play their part with a finer touch and adopt a method which will accord closely with the needs of individual cases. Pending that day we are forced to admit that experiments should be continued with a view to developing a more informed and responsible attitude to sex in the children and young persons who are now passing through our schools and youth organisations. By this short-term policy, a feature of which will be more direct methods of instruction, we hope to prepare for a time when those who are now young will be concerned with the upbringing of another generation. We are informed that the need for such a policy is urgent; but no matter how urgent the need, we are convinced that in aim and method this short-term policy should have constant and careful regard to the context in which the instruction is given. In particular, it should always be borne in mind that by itself factual knowledge, however complete, will not lead to the desire to reach a high level of personal conduct. The emotions must be trained and sentiments associated with worthy living must be carefully fostered if there is to emerge a personally accepted ideal of purity and self-control. Having reached this conclusion we stress the importance of the home and are of opinion that any long-term educational policy should not envisage sex instruction as a special subject of the curriculum.

THE NEED FOR INFORMATION AND ADVICE.

117. *We recommend:*

- (i) Factual information should be collected immediately regarding the advantages and disadvantages of methods of sex instruction and guidance which have already been the subject of some experiments in schools and youth organisations as a necessary preliminary to the preparation of short-term and long-term schemes.
- (ii) These schemes may themselves be experimental in character for some time to come but in view of the complexities, difficulties and dangers which surround the whole subject, it is advisable that there should be a recognised central body able to give information and guidance and to keep the experiments under careful observation.
- (iii) Opportunities should be provided in schools and leisure activities for boys and girls to associate in forms of work, play, and community life which will sublimate their more physical instincts, develop a mutual understanding and respect, and give them experience of preparing together for an all-round comradeship in adult life.

The Needs of Handicapped Youth.

118. This report would be incomplete if no reference were made in it to the needs of children and adolescents who are handicapped by some defect or disability and whose chances of making good in life are consequently reduced unless they receive special consideration and help. There are different types of handicapped children and young persons, and each handicapped individual has a number of different types of need, such as medical treatment, suitable education, vocational training, social and general welfare, etc. Although both statutory and voluntary agencies are making increasing provision in some of these respects for some types of handicapped young people, there are many

gaps which will have to be filled before it can be claimed that all the handicapped are being satisfactorily helped to make the most of their possibilities. Among the most notable deficiencies in the present arrangements are:

- (1) the lack of satisfactory methods for the early ascertainment of defects, with the consequence that there is an almost complete absence of reliable figures by which to gauge the extent of the problem;
- (2) an absence of facilities for the vocational training of certain types of handicapped adolescents;
- (3) very inadequate and incomplete arrangements for the general welfare of most handicapped adolescents after they leave school.

A REGISTER OF THE HANDICAPPED.

119. Defects might be ascertained earlier if the services of parent education and guidance, nursery schools, and primary school welfare which we have recommended in Chapter IV. were in operation. It would seem to be necessary, however, that some means should be sought of compiling a register of handicapped children which would help the agencies offering skilled assistance in their upbringing to make early contact with them and their parents or guardians. Parents are sometimes reluctant to admit that a child may be suffering from a handicap or to allow the existence of a handicap to be known outside the family circle. A scheme of compulsory registration would probably prove to be impracticable but the co-operation of parents could gradually be obtained by propaganda and persuasion, and doctors, nurses, teachers and other responsible persons who come in touch with homes and children might be encouraged to report suspected cases for expert investigation and observation. It could be the duty of the registering bureau to see that all possible assistance is offered in each case.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING.

120. The Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, 1944, gives the Ministry of Labour powers to provide vocational training courses for disabled persons over 16 years of age. In this Act the expression "disabled person" means "a person who, on account of injury, disease, or congenital deformity, is substantially handicapped in obtaining or keeping employment, or in undertaking work on his own account, of a kind which apart from that injury, disease, or deformity would be suited to his age, experience, and qualifications." The expression "disease" is to be construed as including a physical or mental condition arising from imperfect development of any organ. This Act makes an important contribution, therefore, to the welfare of handicapped persons over 16 years of age in the matter of employment. Courses of vocational training beginning at the age of 16 do not, of course, meet all the needs in this respect of all types of handicapped youth. If they are to be given every chance of making good in spite of their disabilities, it is necessary that all handicapped young persons whose disabilities permit should have similar opportunities of vocational experimentation, guidance and training while at school to those which we have recommended in Chapter V. for normal young people. It is important, therefore, that Education Authorities should be charged with the same responsibility to provide vocational education for all other types of handicapped young persons as has been placed upon them in regard to the blind, and that there should be the same close co-operation between the Education Authorities and the Ministry of Labour in the vocational guidance, training and placing of handicapped young people as we have suggested in Paragraph 97 for the benefit of normal young persons.

IMPROVEMENT OF LOCAL SERVICES.

121. Scottish local authorities should be given as full powers to provide for the treatment and welfare of the handicapped, either directly or by assisting and co-operating with voluntary agencies, as have been given to the corresponding English authorities and should be encouraged to make full use of these. Education Authorities should be asked to review the provision made in their areas for the general education of all types of physically and mentally defective children and young persons, including those suffering from chronic diseases, and to take steps to remedy any deficiencies. We should like to see more attention being given by Education Authorities to the problems of maladjusted children and dull and backward pupils. We look forward to a more general distribution over the country of the child guidance clinics which are proving so valuable in the areas where they are in operation.

A CASE FOR CO-ORDINATION.

122. To a considerable extent the welfare of each different type of handicapped person requires specialised treatment. This is provided for to a certain extent by the powers given to statutory authorities to help different groups and through the work of voluntary bodies which concern themselves mainly with the care of a particular type of handicapped person. This specialised care must be continued and developed, but there would seem to be a case for some kind of co-ordinating agency to look after the interests and needs of all handicapped persons. A co-ordinating agency, operating locally, could be responsible for keeping the register of handicapped persons which we have suggested, giving advice regarding the agencies which might provide treatment, welfare and training, notifying agencies of people who might benefit by their services, and suggesting means of filling gaps in the local provision, such as the inadequacy of the arrangements for the welfare of handicapped adolescents when they leave school which we have noted. It might also undertake the supervision of the welfare of handicapped children whose home conditions are unsatisfactory, and, where necessary, assume responsibility for their care and upbringing. There might also be advantages to be derived from a greater measure of national co-ordination. These are matters, however, for more expert consideration than can be given by our committee. The care of handicapped youth deserves, in fact, much more detailed investigation than is possible within the compass of a general report of this kind. We consider that an inquiry might well be instituted into the needs of the handicapped population as a whole, including their health, education and employment, with a view to the improvement and better co-ordination of the services provided for their benefit, and that special attention should be given in this inquiry to means of ensuring that handicapped young people will be afforded every possible opportunity of achieving all the development of which they may be capable.

CHAPTER VII.

YOUTH AND LEISURE.

Recommendations regarding facilities for the leisure and recreation of young people, voluntary organisations, cultural interests, service to the community, the protection of young people against harmful influences, pre-service training, and the continuity of development in adult life.

123. What young persons can do in their leisure time is no less important to their development than what they do at school and at work for the following reasons:

(1) in their leisure time they follow their own bent as far as circumstances permit, and the things they do are an expression of, and have a profound effect on, their developing personalities;

(2) their formal education is supplemented (or counteracted) in their leisure time;

(3) youth is a stage of life with an entitlement of its own—a certain degree of freedom from both childish restraints and adult responsibilities, freedom to dream, to play, to adventure, to explore—and it is mainly in their leisure time that young people can indulge that freedom.

General Observations.

124. If young people are to be encouraged to develop and express their individual personalities in their leisure time, it is essential that sufficient variety of leisure-time occupations which can be of value for this purpose should be available in their localities to enable them to exercise a reasonable freedom of choice. They should have opportunities of engaging in all kinds of hobbies, pursuing particular lines of study, acquiring particular skills, training for special purposes, giving service to others, and generally living their own lives and building up creative individualities. And, since places and persons, atmospheres and examples, play an important part in the development of personality, they should enjoy possibilities of choosing among different companies in which to spend part of their leisure time. There should be opportunities open to them of joining in the activities of various types of groups and organisations and of associating with communities of religious faith, political view, etc.

CO-OPERATION OF EDUCATION, WORK, AND LEISURE.

125. Voluntary organisations for young people have generally aimed to supplement the education given to their members at school by giving them opportunities in their leisure time to become acquainted with things which are not included in the school curriculum or of doing things in a different way. They have concerned themselves with character-training, moral and spiritual welfare, health-training, home-building, citizenship, self-government, service to others, the study of nature and country life. Some organisations have performed a most valuable service for their members by supplying them with outlets for energies—physical, mental and creative—which are cramped or starved by the conditions of their employment. Through these efforts of the leisure organisations, youth, education, industry, and society as a whole have

all benefited. With more collaboration from school and industry, the leisure organisations might have achieved more, and both industry and education might have learned much that would have been of advantage to them in their handling of youth. This suggests that one of the most urgent needs of youth is closer co-operation among the agencies of education, work and leisure, with a definite view to making their contributions to the lives of young people complementary to one another.

LIBERTY OF ACTION.

126. We are not averse to applying certain compulsions to young people. We have indicated that we are strongly in favour of more compulsory education for all young persons. We hold equally strongly, however, that young people should be free to spend their leisure time in any wholesome way they wish. This is essential if they are to enjoy the entitlement of youth to which we referred above, if they are to develop their own personalities, and if they are to be educated for membership of a democratic community. We are opposed, therefore, to the suggestions which are sometimes made that young people should be compelled to join youth organisations or to undertake this or that activity in their leisure time. In our view, the essential feature of a leisure-time activity is that a young person should take part in it of his own free will, because of the enjoyment or satisfaction or advantage he will obtain from it, or of the pleasure or service he will give to others, or of the discipline and training he will voluntarily undergo. Some young people may have a bent for employing their leisure time in reading, in art, in music, or other pursuits of a solitary character and it is important for their individual needs that their natural bent should not be thwarted. Most young people have something to gain from membership of a group or society of some kind, however, and in all organisations, clubs and youth centres we want to see young people being encouraged even more than in the past to take more responsibility for "running their own shows," choosing and organising their own activities. There should be an increasing place, too, for the type of club or society which young people form among themselves for the purpose of pursuing either a particular activity—football, cricket, badminton, cycling, camping, boating, drama, and debating clubs and societies are all existing examples of the trend we have in mind—or the freely assorted combinations of these activities which go to make up the programmes of former pupil clubs, workshop and factory clubs, village clubs, and so on. This kind of spontaneous association of young people for their own chosen purposes should be given a recognised place in any extension of leisure-time activities among youth. In fact, if they are given a longer education more suited to their needs, if a variety of attractive facilities is available to them, and if they have the encouragement and guidance of the right type of adults, we believe that young people will respect the liberty of action which we are recommending for their leisure time and will make good use of it.

ADEQUATE TIME FOR LEISURE.

127. If young people are to enjoy their youth and fill it with the experiences proper to that stage of development, they must be given a reasonable amount of leisure time. When the school-leaving age is raised, young people between 14 and 16 will benefit by the longer school holidays. All young people between the ages of 16 and 18 should be given 28 days' holiday in the year with pay, inclusive of local and statutory public holidays, and should be entitled to have 14 of these days consecutively between the beginning of May and the end of September. Compulsory attendance at continued education centres and at technical and vocational schools should be included within the working hours permitted by statute. All school pupils should have opportunities in their

vacations of doing things which they would really like to be doing and the schools should advise them regarding all the possibilities of recreation, work, service and adventure which may be open to them. A similar service of advice should be available to the young worker through his continued education centre and any voluntary organisation to which he may belong.

Leisure-Time Organisations for Young People.

128. It would be difficult to pay a high enough tribute to the men and women who give time and energy, talent and affection, in promoting local and national efforts to provide children and young persons in their leisure time with opportunities of enjoyment, discovery, development and training. They have generally laboured with little recognition from society of the true value of their service, and sometimes without respect or gratitude from the parents of children whose lives have been made happier and more promising because of their work. They have pioneered many of the aims and methods which we should like to see introduced into formal education. They are conducting noteworthy experiments in fields of training to which we have drawn attention—health education, training for the making and running of homes, and preparation for specific aspects of citizenship. There is hardly a need of youth which they are not trying to meet in some way, although their achievements may be handicapped by inadequate facilities, too little assistance, and limited finance.

THE IMPORTANCE OF VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

129. Voluntary organisations are indispensable to the healthy life of a democratic country. They serve as a means of the formation and expression of opinion and belief, of the free association of individuals in undertakings for their own benefit and in the service of the community at large, and of the co-operation of people of like mind and interests in the enjoyment of various forms of community life. In all these respects they are a vitally important element in the education of young people. However much the education given in schools and continuation centres may be developed to provide an all-round training for living, such an education will be incomplete unless the young people can complement, or even modify it, by participation in their leisure time in the activities of groups and organisations which they form or choose freely for themselves.

A NEW SITUATION.

130. The raising of the school-leaving age and the institution of compulsory continued education should have the effect of inclining much larger numbers of young people to seek more fruitful ways of spending their leisure time. There ought to be a growing demand for all kinds of activities and interests, and the young people who join voluntary organisations in search of these may be of a better developed type altogether than many organisations have had to cater for in the past. Some of the present activities of voluntary organisations may find their way into the school curriculum, and if the schools give more attention to character-development and training for adult living, voluntary organisations may consider that some of the efforts which they have made in these directions are becoming less necessary. It may be, too, that extended and improved education will result in an increase of groups and organisations formed by young people themselves.

ACTION BY STATUTORY AUTHORITIES.

131. The inauguration by the Government of what has come to be known as the Youth Service scheme has opened a new chapter in the provision of leisure-

time activities for youth. It cannot be other than a matter of gratification that the Government has now laid on Education Authorities the responsibility of ensuring that adequate provision is made for the leisure-time of the youth of their areas. The intention has always been that action taken in this way should be in the nature of a partnership with voluntary organisations. We believe that this provision for the needs of youth on the part of the State and local authorities need not, of necessity, involve any clashing between the state and the voluntary organisations. We would emphasise, however, that where a voluntary organisation is meeting the needs of youth adequately and well, it should not be faced with the fear of a State-aided, or rate-aided, authority competing in the same plane. We would go further, indeed, and suggest that, where an Education Authority, after making its survey of any area, finds that any part of it is inadequately provided for in the matter of leisure-time activities, it should consult with the voluntary organisations in order to see how the needs can best be met, the voluntary organisations being strengthened, if required, by assistance being given in regard to premises and leadership. It is, in our opinion, of importance that Education Authorities should be willing to give the same support to voluntary organisations that are able to meet a real need as to any scheme initiated and controlled by themselves.

THE OPPORTUNITY OF THE LEISURE ORGANISATIONS.

132. Whatever facilities are provided by statutory authorities, young people must continue to be free to choose their own company and their own ways of spending their leisure time. Any voluntary organisation should be able to open its doors and invite them in. However much the school may do for them, it can never meet all their needs, and interests as *individual personalities*. Therein still lies the golden chance of the leisure organisations. They can offer many enjoyments, many means to personal development. Young people will want to engage in their leisure time in their favourite forms of physical recreation, to pursue hobbies and crafts, to make their own pictures and music, to produce plays, to study nature, to discuss books and films, to learn how to shoot, sail boats and fly planes. They will have a thousand and one different desires which can only be satisfied if they are given facilities to spend their free time in their own chosen ways. We do not anticipate that the leisure organisations will lack material out of which to continue, and even enlarge upon, their valuable function of supplementing and complementing the recreative and educative opportunities which young people can obtain from other sources.

FINANCIAL SUPPORT FOR VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

133. During the last four years Education Authorities have made increasing use of their powers to provide voluntary organisations with premises, to supply them with equipment and instructors, and to give them financial assistance. This assistance has been of very great value to the organisations and we hope that it will continue. We feel it is desirable, however, that organisations which have been promoted to make their own contributions to the training of youth or to meet their needs as members of religious or other special communities should not be wholly or perhaps even largely dependent on financial aid obtained from statutory authorities. The young members should be encouraged to esteem the value and freedom of their own leisure organisations by supporting them financially as much as they are able. But the young people are unlikely to be able to supply all the money that may be needed, and in view of the importance which should be attached to the maintenance of the voluntary principle in a democratic community, we trust that private support for all kinds of voluntary

work on behalf of youth will be more widely forthcoming from all sections of the people than it has been in the past. In the light of these observations we recommend that:

(a) Young people should be encouraged to form and to join voluntary groups and organisations. Any group within the community which may consider that it has a contribution to make to the healthy and lawful education and recreation of young people should be entitled to offer it to them in their leisure time; a wide variety of such groups and organisations should be available in every populous locality to meet the differing needs of individuals.

(b) Local authorities should make generous use of their powers to assist voluntary groups and organisations, including units and groups which may be formed by young people themselves, to obtain suitable meeting-places and all reasonable facilities for carrying on their activities.

(c) The members of a community, including the statutory authorities, should be concerned to see that voluntary groups and organisations are helped to obtain suitable leaders, workers and money. Local authorities and other contributors to the funds of voluntary organisations should appreciate that the essential feature of a voluntary organisation is that it should be free to guide its own destinies and to cater for the needs of youth in its own particular way. On the other hand, organisations which may be seeking financial or other aid should be prepared to give all relevant information regarding themselves and to furnish evidence that good use is being made of any assistance which may have been received. They should also faithfully carry out any conditions which they may have accepted.

Facilities for Leisure and Recreation.

134. We have undertaken a special remit to inquire into the accommodation and other facilities required for young people's leisure-time activities and we hope to present a more detailed report on these matters in due course. It is obvious, however, that adequate accommodation for their leisure activities is one of the most pressing needs of young people and it is necessary that we should indicate here our view of the broader requirements.

1. Indoor Facilities.

PREMISES FOR VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

135. The units of voluntary organisations for young people cherish a desire, as a rule, to have homes of their own. There are many advantages to be derived from the possession of a hut, a small hall, a suite of rooms, or even a single room which members can regard as their own permanent headquarters and in which they can keep their common property, and we believe that this ambition should be encouraged and assisted wherever the necessary premises can be provided and the organisation can show that good use will be made of them. It is hardly to be expected, however, that every group or unit in a locality can find or be provided with premises of its own which will be large enough and well enough equipped to enable all the possible activities of the unit to be carried on within them. There are other organisations which can obtain the use of church or other halls for one or two nights in a week. Such organisations are doing good work, but many of them would like to be in a position to make more adequate provision for the leisure time of their members. Much of the good they seek to accomplish in one night can be undone by the environment of the boy or girl on the other nights of the week. There is a need, therefore, for the provision of facilities such as recreation halls, halls with stages, gymnasia, library and reading rooms, craft rooms, canteens, and the like which could be

available for the use of voluntary organisations whose own premises are insufficient for their purposes. The organisations could give their members the benefit of these larger facilities and still retain their loyalty.

THE SELF-CONTAINED UNIT.

136. Some of the existing organisations have been able, by their own efforts, to provide adequate buildings for their memberships. These buildings have naturally been costly and, as they have been erected or procured mainly by voluntary subscriptions, they are still comparatively rare. We should like, however, to believe that, with the continuance of voluntary donations, and the aid of public funds, organisations might be encouraged to extend provision of this type. Private enterprise of this kind should be undertaken, of course, only after due consideration of the needs of an area and the other facilities available in it, but if a voluntary organisation sees its way to provide premises of a comprehensive character and can show that there is a need which can be met by this means, help should be forthcoming from public funds.

PLAY CENTRES AND YOUTH CENTRES.

137. In many areas provision of the above kinds is unlikely to meet the whole need and there should be ample room for further experiment. In all populous areas there should be suitably equipped play centres which can be used by younger children for leisure activities in winter and wet weather. During recent years Education Authorities have experimented with public Youth Centres, usually in school buildings. These centres can have the advantage that membership of them can be obtained by the young people of a district without adherence to any particular organisation. If they are open every evening of the week, they can meet a real need by developing facilities, such as games rooms, reading rooms, libraries, hobbies rooms and canteens which can be used by young people on any evening when they have an hour or two to spare. If the buildings were available for use in the day-time, arrangements could be made for these facilities to be open to young people during their leisure hours whenever these occur. They should mean something more in the lives of their members, however, than places for spending a casual hour. Experience has proved that a centre for youth that is based merely on an informal social or recreative programme may attract numbers for a time but it will fail to hold these numbers unless they can develop loyalty to some constructive purpose. Since the facilities are to be used by young people in their leisure time, there need be no unnecessary control or excessive organisation. For the older groups, in particular, there must be a considerable sense of freedom. It is essential, however, that skilled leadership should be provided, that the members should be encouraged to take part in well-conducted programmes of activities suitable to their ages and that they should form groups of a convenient size for this purpose, that they should enjoy a considerable measure of self-government and take a responsible part in the running of the centre, and that an atmosphere of friendship and camaraderie, of purposes and ideals and loyalties, all of which are indispensable if a centre is to hold its members, should be consistently built up. Centres of this type should not be set up, of course, without due consideration. The goodwill and co-operation of the leaders of organisations in the district should be sought in the planning of a centre, and care must be taken to see that it makes a genuine addition to the facilities of the district. If this initial co-operation is achieved, there would seem to be several ways in which a centre of this kind could be of service to the organisations. It might be able to supply specialist helpers for some of the activities of the organisations, give the use of parts of its premises for other activities, and additional units of some of the organisations might be formed within the centre. Ways could be found, no doubt, in which the organisations could reciprocate.

THE USE OF SCHOOLS FOR LEISURE ACTIVITIES.

138. These observations on indoor accommodation raise the question of the extent to which facilities for leisure can be associated with other buildings, such as schools and community centres. Most schools have not been built for leisure activities and they are not the most desirable type of premises, although many could be made more suitable with a certain amount of reconstruction. It should be evident from our earlier recommendations regarding school life and curricula that we visualise a school building in which it will be possible to carry on the activities and create the atmosphere of an attractive play centre or young people's club. Such schools might well provide accommodation for children's play centres, and all the special equipment of schools—gymnasias, showers, swimming baths, playing-fields, art and craft rooms, music-rooms, workshops, assembly halls, etc.—should be available for the use of organised youth groups in their leisure-time. The future centres for day continued education should provide an opportunity to build premises which could serve a dual purpose, although there are not likely to be enough of these centres to supply all the accommodation required for leisure activities in populous areas. We consider, however, that accommodation for the leisure activities of adolescents should not be entirely obtained by a secondary use of accommodation provided to serve another primary purpose. It might reasonably be provided as a part of the accommodation of a school—such an arrangement would facilitate the use of the special types of accommodation referred to above—but an adequate number of suitable rooms reserved and suitably furnished for leisure activities is essential if a real "club" atmosphere is to be created and the young people are to feel that they have a place of their own. It would be preferable that a youth centre or suites of rooms for the use of organisations should be a separate block or wing of the school buildings. A distinction can be drawn between the 12-16's—that is to say, the secondary school population of the future—and the 16-18's, most of whom will have left school and will wish to regard themselves as being eligible for full participation in activities suitable to their age. Our observations in earlier chapters have emphasised the importance to this age-group of wholesome meeting-places for the sexes and we recommend that local authorities should consider the provision of facilities for dancing which are attractive and well-conducted and of restaurants which should be run with a special view to meeting this social need of young adults and older adolescents.

2. Outdoor Facilities.

139. The young people of every residential locality, urban and rural, should have within reasonable reach of their homes fields and spaces where they can play different kinds of games. Many difficulties stand in the way of suggesting any definite standards of provision but the following needs require to be met:

- (a) Playing spaces near to their homes for children under ten years of age;
- (b) Having regard to their special needs which we have indicated in Chapter I, separate playgrounds, also near to their homes, which can be used during their short periods of play by young adolescents between the ages of ten and fourteen;
- (c) Properly equipped playing fields for a variety of team games.

PLAYING SPACES AND PLAYING FIELDS.

140. Full use should be made for (a) and (b) of all pieces of unused ground (these would require conversion, of course, to make them safe, suitable and attractive), suitably protected flat roofs, school playgrounds, public parks, etc. There should be a hut attached to each playing space in which equipment

could be stored for use under the supervision of the play leaders referred to below. Playing fields for major games should be sited, wherever possible, in close proximity to schools, youth centres, community centres, or other premises which are used for the education or recreation of young people so that indoor and outdoor activities may be engaged in without loss of time in moving from place to place. All new schools, youth centres, and community centres should be equipped with proper playing fields, and playing fields should be provided for schools which have no playing fields of their own. Fields should also be available for use by youth groups and voluntary organisations. The equipment of all playing fields should include adequate changing accommodation and spray baths.

SWIMMING POOLS.

141. We should like to see all children and young persons being encouraged to swim, and indoor and outdoor swimming pools should be included, wherever the facilities can possibly be provided, in the development schemes of local authorities.

LEADERSHIP FOR GAMES AND PLAY.

142. Education Authorities, in conjunction with other local authorities, voluntary organisations and interested persons, should arrange for the institution in each residential area of play and games leadership schemes under which rotas of suitable persons, including qualified coaches, would be available at playing spaces and playing fields to assist children and young persons to make full use of them for a variety of forms of play and games. The leadership for children's play might suitably be provided by the older members of youth groups and organisations, who should be encouraged to undertake it as a definite part of their training in citizenship and a form of voluntary service to the community.

GRANTS FOR PLAY AND GAMES SCHEMES.

143. All forms of outdoor playing accommodation provided by public authorities should be accessible without fees or charges to children and young persons who can make, or learn to make, good use of them. At least, any charges which are made should be such that no child or young person who is keen to play or to learn a game is precluded from doing so. Substantial State grants should be available to assist local authorities and voluntary organisations to provide adequate accommodation, and special assistance should be given to authorities who may be handicapped by the low rateable value of their areas.

FACILITIES FOR CAMPING, HIKING, AND TRAVEL.

144. The recreative needs of young people extend beyond their own residential areas. Facilities should be available to encourage individuals and groups to go rambling, hiking, cycling, hostelling, and to engage in outdoor pursuits such as boating, canoeing, fishing and hill-climbing. We recommend that:

- (a) Suitable areas should be established as national parks catering for different forms of outdoor activity. Within short journeys of the concentrations of population in the central area of Scotland there are areas by hill, moor, loch and sea which should be equipped to accommodate considerable numbers of day and week-end travellers. In these parks should be provided low-priced hostel or hotel accommodation, low-priced but good restaurants, indoor recreative accommodation, playing fields, swimming pools, boating facilities, and permanent sites for campers, due regard being paid in all

cases to the local amenities. Other national parks should be established at greater distances from the populous areas to cater for those who prefer a less gregarious kind of holiday. Within the latter type of park there should be hostels, permanent camps and camp sites which can be used by youth groups, and also facilities for small parties of campers through which it should be possible for young people to become acquainted with the wilder parts of their own country.

(b) There are a certain number of voluntary organisations which are engaged in this field and which are strongly supported by the young people themselves. These would be greatly assisted if local authorities, public bodies, public-spirited citizens and government departments would help them to obtain suitable sites, accommodation and other facilities for developing their activities. We have particularly in view buildings as hostels for hikers and cyclists and sites for camping. Education Authorities should accept responsibility for assisting such organisations. The Scottish Youth Hostels Association should be encouraged to extend the valuable contribution to the needs of youth which it has made; in every county where there is suitable hill and moorland, sites should be prepared for the use of casual campers and there should also be erected larger permanent camps of huts and tents which could be rented by or loaned to or owned by youth groups and organisations.

(c) Prior to the war several Education Authorities organised camps during the school vacations for the benefit of children attending schools in their areas. The Educational Institute of Scotland organised both permanent and trekking camps for school-children on holiday, and the camps of the Scottish Schoolboys' Club have brought together under voluntary auspices boys from many schools. We hope that Education Authorities will develop this very useful form of holiday provision and co-operate with one another and with voluntary bodies in the running of such camps.

(d) Liberal national financial assistance should be forthcoming for the development of hostels, camp sites, etc. We propose to inquire further into the ways by which these important needs might be met.

NEW EXPERIENCES.

145. The facilities we have recommended above should help young people to travel within their own country. We should also like to see them being given opportunities during their holidays of broadening their experience by making contacts with people engaged in other jobs and other ways of living than normally come into their ken, by foreign and Empire travel, and by taking part in work and expeditions which would appeal to their desire for adventure. International camps and conferences for young people of all types and classes and all kinds of organisations should be an annual feature of the youth world. We should specially like to see a wider range of young people being enabled to enjoy the facilities for sea-cruises which were provided for the pupils of secondary schools by the Scottish Secondary Schools Travel Trust. The running of "Youth Ships" under some national scheme would be of great assistance in this direction.

Town and Country Planning.

146. In order to ensure that all the needs of indoor and outdoor accommodation which we have described above may be adequately provided for in all localities, we recommend that the following steps be taken:

(a) A duty should be laid upon Education Authorities to secure that adequate facilities are available in their areas to meet the leisure-time needs of children and young persons.

(b) Since there is a danger that land suitable for the provision of leisure-time and recreative facilities may be inadvertently used up in the housing and industrial development of the future, and since it is one of the purposes of planning to obviate this danger, the attention of Planning Authorities should be drawn to the importance of taking these needs into consideration in preparing their planning schemes and they should be required to consult with the Youth Service machinery of Education Authorities (*e.g.* Education Committees, Youth Councils and Local Youth Panels) and to obtain from these bodies all information which can be of assistance to them in preparing their schemes.

(c) The authorities responsible for actual development (County, Burgh, and District Councils) should be required to consult with Education Authorities, their Youth Councils and Local Youth Panels, with a view to a study being made of the recreative and leisure-time needs of the different age-groups of their populations and plans being prepared for meeting these needs in areas scheduled for development and also in areas which have already been developed.

(d) The attention of Education Authorities should be drawn to the importance of their ensuring that adequate consideration is given to these needs in all surveys and schemes prepared for purposes of Town and Country Planning and in all development which may be undertaken in their areas. They should be required to conduct, with the assistance of their Youth Councils and Local Youth Panels, an inquiry in each locality of their areas into the needs of outdoor and indoor accommodation and to prepare estimates of, and proposals for meeting, the desirable requirements on which they can base their submissions to the bodies responsible for planning and development and also their own plans for development if they should be charged with that responsibility.

Culture and Entertainment.

147. We should hope that many children and young persons whose interests were being stirred and encouraged in all the ways which we have been suggesting would be eager to read in their leisure time. There is considerable room for improvement in the services on which the majority of young people depend for their leisure reading-matter and we recommend:

(a) Reading-rooms and libraries should be provided in schools or play-centres and in youth centres and clubs and the borrowing of books should be made as easy as practicable.

(b) On the staff of all large libraries there should be an assistant specially qualified to organise reading services for children and young persons. Public librarians should co-operate with teachers and youth workers in studying to cater for the reading interests of the different age-groups of children and young persons and it should be possible for adequate supplies of literature, including a variety of the latest books on technical subjects of interest to youth, to be available on loan to school and youth centre libraries. A system might be devised by which schools and youth centres could be regarded as eligible to be treated as branch public libraries. Attention should be given more widely by librarians to providing readers' guides for youth, making reference and study rooms available, organising young people's book exhibitions, supplying talks on books in clubs and youth centres, and other ways and means of popularising books and reading among the young.

(c) The present limitations on the amount of the library rate in Scottish burghs and any other legal and financial disabilities which would restrict

the co-operation of burgh and county services in making the provision we have recommended, should be removed.

(d) The Scottish Education Department in conjunction if need be with the Ministry of Education should bring together publishers of books and periodicals, library authorities, the teaching and library professions, and youth workers to consider how the needs of the masses of children and young persons in regard to books and periodical literature can be more adequately met.

MUSEUMS AND ART GALLERIES.

148. Teachers and youth workers should collaborate in the wider extension throughout the country of schemes for the better use of museums and art galleries for the benefit and instruction of children and young persons. These have been the subject of interesting experiment in some areas. More consideration should be given to the possibilities of lending out museum and gallery material, to the provision of special facilities for young people, and the organisation of conducted parties and talks.

CINEMAS, THEATRES, CONCERTS.

149. If the leisure-time facilities which we have recommended were available, children and young persons would be less dependent on the cinema as a way of putting in their leisure hours. We are anxious that they should obtain real enjoyment from their visits to cinemas, theatres and concerts and we should like to see the provision of services of programmes in all those fields which would take into proper consideration the stages of development and the interests of the different age-groups. Before the needs of childhood and youth can be met by the production side of the film industry it will be necessary to provide the producers with some organisation of their young audiences. We suggest that this need could be met by the institution.

(a) of regular children's performances in cinemas on Saturday mornings and on selected afternoons between the hours of four and six, and by the provision of projectors in the play-centres which we have recommended; and

(b) of similar performances for young people of school age in other cinemas on Saturday mornings and selected afternoons after school hours (or alternating with the children's shows in places where more than one cinema is not available) and by performances in youth centres and clubs.

We recommend that the Scottish Education Department, in collaboration with the Ministry of Education, should consult with the different branches of the film industry and other interested organisations regarding ways and means of developing a service of this kind. Schools, clubs and youth organisations should recognise the part which the cinema has come to play in the lives of children and young people and should seek by demonstrations, talks and discussions to promote a more critical outlook and to raise the standards of film appreciation.

MUSIC AND DRAMA.

150. Theatrical entertainments and concerts of good quality, specially devised to suit children and young people and to raise their standards of taste and appreciation, should be organised under appropriate central auspices and sent on tours of the country. Education Authorities should also employ organisers of music and drama who would be responsible for developing appreciation and execution in these fields among the children and young people of their areas.

BROADCASTING.

151. Broadcasting can contribute in many important ways to the needs of youth which we have been considering in this and previous chapters. It can awaken curiosity and stir imagination; it can point to interests and possibilities; it can provide information on any topic; it can set up standards of performance and show how these are attained; it can bring its listeners into contact with places and personalities; and it can do all these things for young people however removed they may be from other facilities. We have already noted the use which might be made of broadcasting in the education of parents. Broadcasts for schools have reached a considerable stage of development and in the form of school life and curriculum which we have advocated there should be still further opportunities for useful co-operation between the B.B.C. and the schools. During the war the B.B.C. has made a number of interesting experiments in providing programmes specially intended for listeners in youth centres and clubs and we should hope that under peace-time conditions this special provision for the adolescent listener will be extended. We should recommend, in particular, that the B.B.C. should seek to bring to young people in the areas of scattered population some contact with as many as possible of the interests and activities which may otherwise be denied them. There should be the same close collaboration between broadcasting and all the agencies concerned with meeting the educational and recreational needs of youth as we have suggested in the case of libraries and cinemas. Three things will require to be developed, however, to make an effective collaboration possible: (1) better listening habits among the masses of young people; (2) better facilities for listening in schools, clubs and youth centres; (3) a lively relationship between the broadcast programmes and the other activities carried on in the school and the club. By "better listening habits" we mean a more selective and discriminating attitude to radio and the ability to focus critical attention for the necessary period on what is being broadcast. Radio plays so large a part in modern life that the encouragement of good listening has become as important a matter in education as the encouragement of good reading, and the development of better listening habits is obviously a task in the first instance for the schools. But the schools cannot undertake this without equipment which can be used under favourable conditions. Clubs are handicapped in making use of broadcasting by the bad listening habits of their members, lack of equipment, and lack of the right kind of comfortable accommodation. In every club and youth centre there should be a suitable "listening room." Up to the present, broadcasting programmes for youth clubs have concentrated mainly on providing material for use in discussion groups. Through these experiments the right relationship between broadcasting and the club is in course of being established. Broadcasting is being used to stimulate interest in a possible club activity, to provide inspiration and material, to enrich the club programme and raise the standards, not only of listening, but of execution. We should like to see a similar influence at work in the whole wide field of adolescent interests and activities, in music, arts and crafts, out-door activities, etc.

PROTECTION AGAINST HARMFUL INFLUENCES.

152. In Paragraphs 41 and 42 we commented on the time spent by many children and young people in cinemas in the viewing of films which were not intended for them, and on harmful influences to which young people are being exposed in other places of public resort, such as certain dance-halls, billiard-saloons and dog-tracks. The real remedy for any evils to which we have referred does not lie in protective and restrictive legislation but in providing children and young persons with other ways of spending their leisure and in

developing in them a positive impulse towards healthier interests and activities. Nevertheless, in the absence of alternative facilities, definitely harmful influences should not go unchecked. We recommend that:

(a) Young people under the age of 16 should be prohibited by statute from entering billiard rooms which are open to the general public and are being conducted for purposes of profit; also from entering any places of public resort where there is any form of betting or wagering or where, except in circumstances permitted under Sections 23-24 of the Betting and Lotteries Act, 1934, prizes are being offered on results outwith the personal skill and control of the prize-winner.

(b) Every possible means should be taken of guarding against breaches of the licensing law and also of warning the young against the dangers to them of alcoholic stimulation.

(c) Cinema proprietors and managers should be brought into national and local counsels regarding the education and welfare of children and young persons.

(d) A similar opportunity should be offered to owners and managers of dance-halls frequented by young people so that their co-operation can be obtained in the removal of deleterious features.

Youth's Responsibilities.

153. In this chapter we have recommended that much should be given to young people because they are young and because of what they may become if they can use their leisure to good and enjoyable advantage. But we do not propose that nothing should be asked of them in return. On the contrary, we consider that one of the most important needs of young people is to feel that many opportunities of valued service lie open to them and that much is expected of them by the community to which they belong.

OBLIGATIONS OF PRIVILEGE.

154. They should be encouraged to regard themselves as having obligations—to co-operate willingly and unselfishly in home and family life, to put their best endeavours into their work and play at school, to be loyal and responsible members of any organisations to which they belong, to seek to perfect themselves in their employment and to give conscientious service through it to the community. They should be taught to look upon them, however, as obligations of privilege, matters of honour, of duty in the sense of the soldier and the saint rather than in the (to them) humdrum sense of the moralist, a form of service to a cause and of discipline and preparation for the larger responsibilities and services which they will undertake as they grow older.

SERVICE TO THE COMMUNITY.

155. They should also be given specific opportunities of devoting part of their leisure time to voluntary work in the service of their neighbours and fellow-citizens and for the benefit of the community at large. We have in mind that young people might assist in their free time in constructing under skilled supervision many of the facilities for their own use which have been referred to in this chapter—playing spaces and fields, camps, club rooms and youth centres. We have already mentioned the service which older boys and girls might give in leading and coaching younger children in their games and play and we should like to see a more extensive use being made of adolescents of 15 and upwards as leaders and instructors in the children's organisations. The services for the sick, the aged and the handicapped which have been a feature of the work of some of the youth organisations could also be extended. There are

many ways, such as the removal of disfigurements or the local landscape, the planting and care of trees and flowers, and other jobs of construction, decoration, and maintenance, by which children and young persons could add to the amenities of their own localities and cultivate both an appreciation of the value of beauty and grace in community life and a sense of responsibility towards community property. Consideration might be given to the possibilities of enlisting the services of youth in the preservation of all kinds of property against careless and malicious damage and in the prevention of delinquency. Another form of voluntary work which might be undertaken by groups of young people is the making of neighbourhood surveys and the assembling of information required in the consideration of various kinds of community projects. While much of this work could be carried out by youth organisations independently of one another, we believe that there would be definite advantages to be derived from the establishment in every locality of a co-ordinating and planning agency for the services performed by all the local organisations and groups. The work should be done by young people themselves and as much as possible of its management should rest in their hands.

THE IMPORTANCE OF VOLUNTARY SERVICE.

156. It may be advisable to make it clear that when we speak of "voluntary" service we are using the word in both its senses. The service should be undertaken by young people of their own free will and it should be unpaid. It is unfortunate that the principle of service without reward which youth organisations have tried to foster among their members should have been undermined to some extent by subsistence and other payments which have been made to young people in war-time for such services as fire-watching. We should like to see this honourable principle re-established as soon as possible. In making these suggestions we are not overlooking the difficulties which lie in the way of the development of any large-scale and permanent schemes of voluntary work of the kind we have described. We must repeat, however, that, until a community overcomes these difficulties and provides its young people with opportunities of service which will appeal to their imaginations and allow them to feel that they are making a vital and visible contribution to the progress and well-being of the community, an important need of youth will not be met, and youth will not be able to give the service which it will wish to offer in return for what it may receive.

Pre-Service Training.

157. During the latter part of the war a large number of boys have devoted much of their leisure time to the pre-service training offered by the Sea Cadets, the Army Cadet Force and the Air Training Corps. Forms of pre-service training for girls have been provided by voluntary organisations. In Paragraph 50 we ascribed the appeal which the pre-service training organisations have had for young people to the opportunity which these organisations have given them to prepare themselves "for a future near enough, big enough, exciting enough, and general enough to appeal greatly to their imaginations." During the war, pre-service training offered a banner, an adventure, a crusade of a type which youth could understand and to which it readily responded because in doing so it was able to feel that it was serving a great common purpose. Pre-service training for the Navy, Army and Air Force will not of itself meet this need and exercise this appeal under peace-time conditions. The great common purpose must be found in other fields than preparation for war, and in the following chapter we state our view of a direction in which it might be sought. The part which pre-service organisations will play in the peace-time leisure lives of young people will depend on the degree of military preparedness which

national policy and the state of the world may require, on the methods by which preparedness is to be achieved, and on the public attitude towards personal preparation for possible war. So far as we are concerned, these are all things which can only be subjects for speculation. Whatever the situation may be, however, we think the following principles should be observed:

(1) Young people under the age of 18 should not be compelled to undergo any form of training, either full-time or part-time, which is specifically intended to prepare them for service in His Majesty's Forces.

(2) The minimum age of enrolment into any organisation whose schemes of training include specific preparation for combatant service in the Forces should be 16 years.

(3) Pre-service organisations should co-operate with other agencies providing for the needs of young people with a view to widening and diversifying the use which their members make of their leisure time and to introducing them to interests and activities which will help towards their all-round development.

(4) Pre-service organisations should be regarded as a part of the general service of opportunities provided by the community for the recreation and development of young people and a close liaison should be maintained nationally and locally between those responsible for their management and the Education Departments and Authorities.

Continuity of Development.

158. We should be omitting one of the most important needs of youth if we neglected to consider how young people should be assisted to continue in their adult lives the development of their powers and abilities and the cultivation of worth-while activities and interests with which so much of this report has been concerned. Young people who have benefited by all the opportunities of education and recreation which we have recommended will demand widely extended facilities for comparable types of adult education and recreation. All planning to meet the needs of childhood and youth will remain a body without a head unless we expect and prepare for this result. If we regard education as ending for the masses of the community at eighteen, we shall be taking as false a view of its nature and purposes as we took when we allowed it to end at fourteen, and our failure to reap the full rewards of what we have sown will be even greater, for we shall have spent much more on the sowing. Education should be viewed, without further hesitation, as a lifelong process and it should be our national policy to provide a complete continuity of facilities for all who may be inspired to take advantage of them at any age. We are living in a rapidly changing world: The only means by which we can keep the education of our citizens up to date is to give them the habit of coming back for more. The demand for widespread adult facilities is already being created by the formal and informal educational work of many kinds now being carried on in the Services. The Services education and the Youth Service work which has been in progress during the war have together prepared a new public for adult education, a public many times larger than has ever been tapped before. The Services and the Youth Service have explored and developed new material and new methods. The Services have produced considerable numbers of a new type of teacher and leader for adult education work. We have before us, therefore, a unique opportunity of launching in the immediate post-war years an adult education scheme which can have a new content, new methods, new teachers and a new clientele. This opportunity must not be lost.

AN ADULT "YOUTH SERVICE" REQUIRED.

159. What would seem to be required is an adult form of the present Youth Service—with the same wide appeal, the same informality of setting and approach, the same experiments in techniques and methods, the same study of the needs and interests of different groupings of the population, and the same objective of enabling every individual to use his leisure in ways which he will find personally satisfying and rewarding and which will also help him to contribute to the general enrichment of the social life of the Community to which he belongs. Four broad types of adult education should be available: (1) for citizenship; (2) for work; (3) for parenthood; and (4) for personal culture and individual living. Courses should be provided in all these categories ranging from something approximating to university or central institution standards down to the most informal type of group. Whenever half a dozen people are prepared to come together under any auspices and in any place to learn a little more about anything, adult education can begin. The same State and Education Authority assistance should be available for this wide range of adult education facilities as is at present available for Youth Service facilities, and under no more stringent conditions. The Scottish Education Department and the local Education Authorities should accept the same responsibilities for the development of adult education as for the Youth Service and they should be prepared to use similar methods of development. Full use should be made of all the modern aids to learning, including the cinema, the radio, discussion groups; brains trusts, etc., and an intensive campaign of popularisation of adult education should be instituted. Means should be sought of facilitating movement upwards from the informal to the more formal but there should be no suggestion that those who prefer the less formal and academic ways of developing themselves are receiving an inferior article. There should be easy transference, too, from one category of subject matter to another. It is highly important that no dividing line should be drawn between recreation and education. Both should be obtainable in clubs and community centres, and the latter should be built with facilities to enable them to carry out both functions. In this way the young adult need never lose his contact with education and it will be an easy matter for him to embark on further experience of it at whatever age the impulse may affect him.

The Needs of Rural Areas.

160. Broadly speaking, the recommendations made in this and earlier chapters apply to the country as much as to the town. Nevertheless, we should like to stress the importance to the national well-being of adequately providing the young people of the country areas with the right kind of facilities and opportunities for education and recreation. In view of the needs of rural areas and the excessive drift of youth to the towns, we should like to see special study being made of the best ways and means of—

- (1) Providing appropriate educational and recreational facilities and services for the young people of country areas, including the maintenance of interest in the history, customs, industries, plant and wild life, games and sports of their localities;
- (2) teaching town youth more of country ways and country needs and encouraging them to seek happiness in country pursuits and rural industries.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE PREVENTION OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY.

Observations regarding the sound development of character and the prevention of anti-social conduct and delinquency.

161. In (f) of our remit we are asked to consider "the influences leading to a sound development of character and to the prevention of anti-social conduct and juvenile delinquency." It might be claimed that the whole of this report is concerned with these matters. Character is a product of biological heredity, social inheritance, education, environment and self-effort. There can be no absolutely fixed criterion of soundness in character. A man's character is the sum of his qualities. Soundness is measured by what we believe to be desirable and the desirable standards may vary in certain details according to the ideals and habits of the society and time in which we live. In Chapter III. we have set out our conception of the physical, mental, moral and spiritual qualities which seem to us to be desirable in our time. In considering the young of to-day we have to accept their biological heredity and social inheritance. We can try to give them an education which will conduce to the development of the qualities we desire; we can try also to give them in their homes, schools, and in the community at large an environment which will be sustaining and helpful; and we can encourage them (by example, it is to be hoped) to self-effort. Through these means we can endeavour to influence the biological heredity and social inheritance of future generations and our duty towards sound character development will be done. In disposing of character development in these summary terms we have no wish to dismiss an important matter lightly. It is simply that we view the problems of character development as involving all the subject-matter of our report—the treatment of the child in the home, at school, at work, in the community, his moral and religious upbringing, his sex education, the influences to which he is subjected in his leisure, the extent to which his needs are met, the circumstances of his growth as an individual and as a member of society—and we have already presented all that we feel we can profitably say under these heads.

SEEKING THE CAUSES OF DELINQUENCY.

162. Anti-social conduct and delinquency in young people have been ascribed to original sin, heredity, psychological maladjustments, inadequate home life and training, unsatisfactory school life, insufficient religious and moral instruction, absence of suitable outlets for the energies and interests of the adolescent in his leisure time, the opportunities and temptations existing in certain environments, the incitements offered by modern ways of living, the influence of the cinema, and "the social malaise of the whole body politic," as one recent report on the problem has put it. In Paragraphs 2-5, 25-32, 39-43, and 50-51 we have described features of modern adolescent life which all bear on the causation of delinquency. Delinquency rarely, if ever, results from one of these causes operating in isolation, however, and the real nature of the problem is obscured when, as frequently happens, one of these factors is singled out and made to bear the blame. Of the really serious cases that find their way into the records it would be nearer the truth to say that each is the result of a different combination of several of these causes. Even when half a dozen boys, living in the same street, are convicted of the same offence committed

at the same time, it is generally found on close inquiry that there are considerable differences in the causes of their misbehaviour, and that the root causes in some may go back to an early stage in their development.

THE NEED FOR MORE SCIENTIFIC INVESTIGATION

163. We should like to draw attention to the need of more scientific research into the facts of delinquency in Scotland and also of the adoption of improved methods in the collection of official statistics. The police in different areas have widely differing practices in making charges against juvenile offenders and a comparison of the figures even of two neighbouring towns is inconclusive. The published delinquency statistics do not give a true picture of the number of individual delinquents or of the extent of their delinquencies. For instance, a person against whom a charge is proved is counted a second time if another offence is proved against him in the course of the year. On the other hand an offender against whom half a dozen offences on one charge sheet are proved is counted only once as for a single offence. The statistics also include minor offences, such as playing football in the streets, as well as more serious ones. Further, young offenders who may have received a Police Warning are not included in the statistics. Again, prostitution by girls under 16, which is a serious aspect of juvenile delinquency, is rightly treated as a matter of "care and protection," but on this account no evidence of its extent can be obtained from any published records. Statistics showing the results achieved are available only in the case of certain methods of treatment, namely, probation, approved school treatment and Borstal detention, and even there only for a limited period or to a limited extent. Information as to the proportion of first offenders and recidivists—of vital importance in deciding on a general policy of treatment—is not obtainable for the country as a whole from the published statistics. Delinquency is discussed, therefore, without the statistical material required for a full analysis of the problem. The problem is, however, too human to yield its secrets through statistics alone. Research into such matters as the effect on delinquency of under-privileged homes in under-privileged environments—in fact, the whole complex of social and psychological influences to which we have referred above—is urgently necessary. We strongly recommend therefore, that skilled scientific assistance should be brought in to survey the field of juvenile delinquency without further delay.

POVERTY AND DELINQUENCY.

164. Most of the graver delinquencies have their root causes in psychological and emotional maladjustments and disturbances which can occur at any social level. The incidence of delinquency is greater in the lower economic levels because these maladjustments and disturbances are more likely to arise in families living in unfavourable circumstances and, once the root cause has begun to work, the child of poor parents is very prone to be affected by other factors that contribute to the making of delinquents, such as inadequate facilities for play and other defects of environment.

PREVENTING THE SERIOUS DELINQUENCY.

165. In the last analysis the prevention of serious delinquency requires that every child should receive the benefit of individual study in the home and in the school by the means which we have recommended in Paragraphs 72 and 73 and that when something is discovered which is known to be a potential cause of delinquent behaviour a remedy should be sought. As we have already suggested, all teachers should be trained in the principles of child guidance, and the special advice and treatment which can be made available through child guidance clinics should be readily accessible to all parents and children who are found

to have need of them. We should also like to see the institution of clinics and training centres at which parents should be compelled to attend in all cases where the transgressions of the children can be attributed to parental indifference, ignorance, or neglect.

THE LESS COMPLEX CASES.

166. A high proportion of delinquency cases are less serious in their origins but there is always the danger that serious consequences may follow from a first misdeed. For the prevention of these types of delinquency we need a more responsible standard of parenthood, better living conditions in homes, an improved form of community living, and the influence of higher ideals in every aspect of the national life. We need smaller and better-equipped schools and curricula more suited to the needs and abilities of the great majority of children to whom things will always be more understandable than ideas and actions more welcome than words. Not a few juvenile crimes are traceable to the frustrations and grievances that result when a practically-minded child is given a low place in his school simply because he has failed to display academic gifts. We need more imaginative study, inside and outside school, of the needs and possibilities that arise in the different stages of child and adolescent development. We need ways and means of enabling the young to satisfy their legitimate desires for release of energy, for excitement, for personal adventure. All these things have been dealt with very fully in the earlier chapters of this report. There are many pointers to the causes of delinquency to be found in Chapters I and II, and the means of prevention are exactly those which we have recommended in all that follows.

THE RAW EDGES OF UNDER-DEVELOPMENT.

167. There is no short and immediate cure for juvenile delinquency. Anti-social conduct and juvenile delinquency are, in large part, the visible raw edges of the under-development of the population which is resulting from our neglect of so many of the needs of childhood and youth and which we have analysed in some detail in our second chapter. If adequate steps are taken to put an end to this under-development we shall be taking the prevention of juvenile delinquency, as it should be taken, in our stride. We shall never, of course, wholly prevent the possibility of children being affected by some of the types of psychological and emotional strains and stresses which have been ultimately responsible for many of our delinquents. These may occur in any society. But there is no reason why they should continue to result in delinquency. We must be as much on our guard against their appearance as we are against transferable diseases. We must learn to recognise them quickly and then bring all our expert knowledge and skill to bear on them as soon as they have been detected.

CHAPTER IX.

YOUTH AND SOCIETY.

An examination of certain needs of youth which are inseparable from some of the larger problems of social life to-day.

168. The needs of youth are not fully covered by the foregoing recommendations, wide-ranging though they are. Throughout all our deliberations we have been very well aware that the problems of youth are inextricably bound up with many of the wide problems of society as a whole. A need of childhood and youth to which we feel this report has not yet given sufficient consideration is the provision of a sound environment in which the child and young person may grow to full physical, mental and spiritual stature. This environment is partly provided by the home, the school, the church, the leisure organisation, regarding all of which we have made certain recommendations with this end in view. But around the young person, permeating his home, school, and work, colouring his leisure, is the atmosphere of the community in which he lives.

THE INADEQUACIES OF MODERN COMMUNITIES.

169. The past hundred years have seen much legislation for the protection of child life, the development of many social services of benefit to children and young people, and a scheme of compulsory education. But against these must be placed the sprawling growth of towns, the frequent banishment of sun and air, the exchange of fields for wildernesses of stone and lime, the flight of the rich from contact with the poor and the growth of one-class aggregations of population, the lack of opportunity for children and young persons to make close acquaintance with the life and work of the adult community, the loss of any real sense of a shared life among people who dwell in an industrial town of any size, the disappearance of widely-accepted standards of belief and conduct. The social consequences of these phenomena have spread even to the villages. We have no illusions that earlier centuries were Golden Ages for children, but there was a neighbourhood quality, almost a family quality, about community life in the past which was a better atmosphere for them to grow up in than the cold "depersonalisation" of our present days. The knowledge that all the men and women they encountered were not entire strangers had a warning and a salutary influence over them. It contributed to their need of security and affection and prevented their desire for adventure from expressing itself in conduct that might bring a wronged neighbour to their homes. Children and young people benefited, too, from more social mixing. The amenities enjoyed by one were generally at the doorstep to be enjoyed by all.

RESTORATION OF NEIGHBOURLINESS.

170. The clock cannot be put back but it should be our aim to restore to our children some of the lost advantages of the older and more neighbourly way of life. Neighbourliness arises not from the simple resolve to stop ignoring the existence of our neighbours but from the possession of common interests, responsibilities and sentiments, out of which may be developed common purposes and a sense of social responsibility. One way in which we could re-vitalise our community life would be to foster in every street, in every ward, and in every parish, a sense of common responsibility for meeting the needs of children and young persons, for ensuring that they have the means necessary

to their all-round development and that they are conscious of belonging to a community family in addition to that within their own homes. And this might well be no disproportionate ambition at the present time. For if a community were determined to make itself fit for children and young people to live in, much else that is good and necessary in all aspects of its life, spiritual and material, political and economic, might readily follow.

WORLD-WIDE SECURITY NEEDED.

171. But the community in which we must develop a wholesome environment for the children and young people of to-day and to-morrow is nation-wide and world-wide. It is sufficient to refer to the havocs of war and the economic and political distresses which preceded them to show that the modern world provides a woefully insecure environment for most of its children. The good parent can do nothing by himself to protect his children completely against a bomb, an economic blizzard, or the consequences of misfortunate acts of government.

ENTERPRISES AND ADVENTURES.

172. There is another problem which must be faced. The needs of youth are not fully met by the acceptance of any environment which their elders may prepare. Youth now as always must find ambitions to strive for which will engage the creative impulse, the urge to adventure, the desire to serve. The significance of this need in our time should not be underestimated. In earlier days it was experienced mainly by the enterprising and purposeful and could be satisfied according to individual choice and largely by means of individual exertions. So was the world explored, so empires were built, churches and religious orders founded, industries and businesses created. But two things have happened which require to be noted. First, the enterprising and purposeful can still make ways for themselves but not so easily in many of the directions which have appealed most readily to adventurous youth. There are no longer alluring blank spaces on the map, the emigrant must queue up for a number in a quota, and in a world which has shrunk and whose economics are delicately balanced the would-be founders of new businesses are liable to find themselves regarded as public menaces. It is true that new fields of adventure, such as the air, have been opened up in recent years, but even in the air the young adventurer cannot escape from the multitudinous social and economic, national and international, circumscriptions with which any kind of modern enterprise has inevitably to contend. Even the adventure of war cannot now be obtained without all civilisation being threatened. The opportunities open to the young person who seeks to make his individual way are somewhat restricted, therefore. Many of the best forms of ambition, service, adventure have to be sought in the context of the group, the nation, the international community.

ASPIRATIONS AND FRUSTRATIONS.

173. The second matter to be noted is that the number of young people with needs of this nature to be satisfied has been enormously increased by the whole circumstances of modern living. The masses of modern youth are all more or less under the influence nowadays of the sensitivities and urges which produced the adventurous few of the past generations. It is of secondary importance whether they are all capable of adventurous achievements, although the record of the war will have something to say on this point. What is important is that they are all capable of experiencing frustration and that the conditions of the world to-day are impelling them more and more to seek a *collective* expression for both their aspirations and their frustrations. In Paragraph 50 we referred to the sense of common purpose which develops in time of war and remarked that youth may feel the lack of this common purpose in the adventure of living

when peace returns. We should be refusing to face the hard facts of life if we were to think that this common purpose, this collective adventure of youth, could be dissociated from the adaptation of national and international, social and individual living to the kind of world with which technical progress is presenting us. Youth found banners to follow in this adventure in Germany and in Russia. The youth of our country will seek a banner also when peacetime living is resumed and many strange devices may be fluttered before them.

PREPARATION FOR WHAT KIND OF LIVING?

174. The problems which we are raising in this chapter are all closely related to one another, of course, and have a very direct bearing on certain questions which are implicit in some of our earlier observations on education. We have recommended that education should seek to provide an all-round preparation for adult living. We have said that the school and club should be miniature communities. For what kind of living are we to prepare? Of what ideal community should we provide miniatures? Surely the kind of living which will produce a sound environment for children to be brought up in, which will give a prospect of safety from war, and the effort to achieve whose common purposes will provide youth with a satisfactory collective adventure.

THE RAPIDITY OF SOCIAL CHANGE.

175. We have no desire to indulge in Utopian fantasies or to extend our remit to include prescriptions for the actual form and substance of a society which would meet the above requirements. In the modern world the process of adapting the fundamental principles of our civilisation to the changing social scene has been made increasingly difficult by reason of the rapidity of social change. Scientific discovery and the work of invention create new social conditions that compel readaptation. Steampower is harnessed and the industrial town arises. In such situations either the traditional principles and practices of social relationship are abandoned and a new civilisation is born or an attempt is made to adapt the persistent ideals of the old civilisation to the new needs. It seems probable that as scientific research progresses and its products are made available through invention and organised industry, the accompanying social changes will be accelerated. In these circumstances it would be the wildest folly to try to shackle the loyalty of youth to the pattern of society designed by middle age.

A BASE FOR NEW ADVENTURING.

176. If we cannot forecast the structure of society in which the young will spend their adult lives, can we hope to plan educational experiences that will be of value to them? We have said that education should prepare for adult living: must we now admit that the nature of that life is unknown, that the only certainty on which we can build is that life to-morrow will be different from life to-day? We have said that the school and club should be miniature communities: must we say that this is an empty resolve since we possess no advance design of future communities to serve as pattern for the miniatures? Three main answers must be given. First, the communities of which we speak are communities of human beings: they grow out of human needs and desires. The means may change from generation to generation but the ends of health and well-being are in their essentials the same. The community of the future cannot be wholly alien to the community of the present. Second, every civilisation, as we have already suggested, has its own traditions and principles of social living and these afford guidance in planning the future. If we would influence the young by precept or example we must begin with what we ourselves know and do. Third, we must so train the young that they will

have the vision, the will, and as much wisdom as their age and experience will enable them to acquire, to choose for themselves a way or ways of living suited to their own times and conditions and to their own needs, outlooks and ideals. They must have the courage to go on and we must have the courage to inspire and not restrain them. The problem is to make the past not a prison but a base for new adventuring.

A CLAMANT NEED OF OUR TIMES.

177. Youth may amend or reject the ideals revered by the parental generation but that does not absolve any generation from the duty of passing on the benefits of its experience and reflection. The need for guidance is especially clamant in our times. The warfare which has encompassed the globe for the past years is, in large measure, a conflict of conceptions of society. Totalitarian philosophies are hard and clear-cut, easy to apprehend, easy to teach to the young. Our philosophy has been clear in the opposition it has offered to the threat of the enemy, but in other respects it has remained vague and unstated except in catch-phrases. There are strengths in this vagueness which we do not deny. But there are also grave weaknesses in it, especially for the young, and, most especially of all, at this juncture in our history. Humanity stands always at the crossroads but there have never been so many or so momentous choices open to it as will greet us at every turning of our post-war lives. The signposts are many but confusing, and never was our sense of direction so muddled. The situation is a critical one for all of us. At each succeeding crossroad, of course, the power of choice will rest more and more with those who are young to-day. That is as it should be. We seek no view of society for the purpose of indoctrinating our youth and committing them to an unalterable future of our making. But we must help them to choose wisely and we must offer them the best that we have inherited and acquired.

COMMON SOURCES OF SOCIAL IDEALS.

178. During our discussions it became apparent that there were certain casts of thought and sentiment which were, broadly speaking, common to all of us and that in our search for judgments on the many issues before us we turned to much the same social ideals in the hope of finding a touchstone. It was noticeable that these social ideals could be traced either to precepts and practices which are associated with the outlook traditionally regarded as Christian or to the view of human relationships which, for lack of a better term, we commonly describe as democratic. This is hardly surprising since these have been the two main influences in our national thought for generations, and any ideals which develop naturally and win general acceptance will inevitably be derived from them.

THE IDEALS DEFINED.

179. "Christian" and "democratic" are vague terms, however, and can be of little assistance for the purpose in hand without clearer definition. We are agreed that when we suggest that there is a Christian approach to the problems of society we are thinking of the application in all departments of personal and community life of the ideals of conduct, of values, and of human relations which can be drawn from the recorded sayings and doings of Jesus Christ. To many these ideals have a special validity because of their view of the relationship of Christ to God. On the other hand, the ideals are accepted by many quite independently of the religious belief. Too often in the past the profession of Christianity has been used to cloak actions that are the reverse of Christian. In our view, a community which is really endeavouring to base itself on the Christian ideal would be one which moves in a practical way towards the

brotherhood of all men and actively pursues the deep-reaching consequences to its religious, moral, social, economic and political life which should follow. We view it as a community whose members endeavour in all their relations with their fellows at home and abroad to act as if they loved their neighbours as themselves. We see a community which prefers spiritual to material values and genuinely pays the greatest honour and reverence to those who give the most disinterested service. To change the language somewhat but not the standpoint, we visualise a community in which the personality of every man is a sacred trust to himself and to his fellows and in which all men are afforded equal opportunity of developing their potentialities of service to their fellows; in which health, environment, education, work, and social security are all matters of common concern and common obligation; and in which every man seeks the will, the courage, and the power at all times to take the steps necessary to produce a world free from want, free from fear, and dedicated to the active development by living men of Christ's teaching of the Kingdom of God on earth.

A WAY OF LIVING TOGETHER.

180. Democracy, in our view, is something more than a method of producing a legislature and controlling its actions. It is a way of living together, the projection into the organised life of the community of the conception of the brotherhood of men, involving the right of every man and woman to be consulted regarding the policies by which the community should direct its actions and to have a voice in the making of all major decisions. We see this right operating in the future, in every department of our organised life. It follows, of course, that any spreading of rights must be accompanied by an equal spreading of responsibilities and obligations. A democratic community is one in which the members entertain a respect for one another which simultaneously nourishes individuality and checks its abuse. Democracy implies a constant interplay of freedom and submission, of independence and co-operation, of assertion and compromise, and it imposes as great an obligation on the majority to go some way to meet the minority and be mindful of their existence as on the minority to accept a compromise when it has been achieved. The democratic way of life and its realisation will call for many virtues towards which we are only struggling as yet.

A GREAT HUMAN ADVENTURE.

181. These are the thoughts and sentiments about social ideals which we—a mixed committee with a variety of social and educational backgrounds and with wide diversities in our personal, religious and political histories—feel that we would lay before the young in fulfilment of our duty to offer them the best guiding ideas that our inheritance of wisdom and tradition would seem to be able to supply. To what extent do they meet the needs of youth and society which have been raised in this chapter? We should say:

(a) A community which is animated by the ideals we have outlined would certainly attach a reasoned importance to the needs of children and young persons and do all it could to try to meet them;

(b) Through the adoption of the social ideals which we have outlined we see a possibility of the emergence of a safe and sound environment for children and young persons. Insecurity cannot be removed overnight, but a world which is consciously animated by and striving towards such ideals will be infinitely more secure for children and young persons than one which is not;

(c) If the education of our young people for citizenship is to bear any honest relationship to modern life and problems—and it will be a rather barren fig-tree if it does not—it is hard to see where the educator can find

acceptable guiding principles, satisfactory for his purpose, except by basing them on these traditional influences in our national life and giving them the applications and relevances to modern life which our definitions suggest.

(d) If a determined effort were begun to build up a society inspired by these ideals, we believe that youth could find in the application of the ideals to all the constructive and reconstructive opportunities of the post-war world, and the possibilities which that would offer for the active employment of all manner of talents and abilities, a common purpose and a collective adventure which would meet its needs in this direction for a long time to come. We believe that the imagination and energy of the young could be enlisted in such a cause. It would provide a background, an incentive, a motive for their training and preparation and bring to all the aspects of their education a very necessary moral and spiritual inspiration. It would give them a sense of high purpose in their work. It would support them against cheapness and insincerity and harmful influences in their leisure and inspire them to make an effective use of their time. We believe that youth would respond readily to the demands which the effort would make on all sections of the population and that they would be prepared to accept the sacrifices of privilege, comfort, and convenience which would be involved, treating these as a small price to pay for conscious participation in what would truly be a great human adventure.

A DECLARATION OF FREEDOM.

182. In case our intentions should be misunderstood, perhaps we should declare that we have had no thought in what we have been saying of drawing up a confession of religious or political faith to which we should expect all teachers and workers among youth to subscribe. Nor are we suggesting that any special pattern of thought or practice should be imposed on youth or that there is any fixed type of society which would best express our social ideals and which youth should consequently be trained to live in or to work for. The ideals which we have in mind demand no inevitable social pattern. They can be expressed in social structures and institutions that vary widely. No political group can claim any exclusive title to them and the ethical outlook on which they are based is not a monopoly of the Christian religion. It would certainly be a contradiction of all our earlier views regarding the place of voluntary organisations in the life of a free democratic community and the contribution which youth organisations should be making to the development of the young in catering for a great variety of individual needs and interests, if we were to give the impression that we should look askance at any organisation which is not prepared to set about guiding its members in the directions which we have indicated or which sees no need to guide them consciously and deliberately in any direction at all. Freedom is a fundamental ideal of our civilisation and the last thing we want to do is to put limits to the potentialities of youth by prescribing restrictively what it should think or do. There is, and must always be, room for all men and women of goodwill, regardless of their creeds and convictions, to help young people in their schooling and their leisure. We believe, however, that there are many teachers, youth workers and others, of all religious and political outlooks, who share our concern with the problems of youth and society and who are conscious of voids requiring to be filled, and it may be that these will find some value in the observations which we have made. If the loyalty of youth is to be engaged to a better way of life, it must be won, not by coercion or preaching, but by the powers of attraction which that way of life can exercise on youth and by the compulsive force of good example. We shall not be able to do much to guide youth by the light of our wisdom until we begin to try to live in the light of that wisdom.

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

A New Conception Wanted.

1. The analysis made in Paragraphs 2-21 suggest that if the interests and possibilities appearing in each phase of adolescence were suitably encouraged, a young person could expect to arrive at adulthood with all his potentialities reasonably well developed and with a physical, mental, spiritual, social and cultural experience which would be very useful to him in adult life.

All who come into intimate contact with numbers of young men and women are aware that in a great many cases this expectation is not being realised. In Paragraphs 25-51 we have indicated the main reasons which account in our view for the disparity between the level of development actually achieved by large numbers of the population and the level which our first chapter has suggested as being possible to them.

2. We consider that the under-development which is resulting from neglect of the needs and possibilities of adolescence and also the forced development arising from such features of modern life as we have described in Paragraphs 39 and 47 are matters calling for urgent and determined remedy. (Paragraph 52.)

Forms of under-development which were not incompatible in the past with a stable order of life now threaten to produce serious social consequences. (Paragraph 54.)

The responsibilities and opportunities facing all nations call for a high degree of social and political ability in all sections of the populations. If a peaceful and civilised world is to be obtained, the mental, moral and spiritual levels of the masses of all peoples must be raised as speedily as possible, and in our own country as much as in any. If we are to hold our own in any respect as a nation, we cannot afford to allow any of the potentialities of any of our young people go to waste. We must endeavour to obtain the maximum contribution *from* all by providing the maximum possibility of development *for* all. (Paragraph 53.)

A new conception of the purposes of the education and training of youth and a new care for the needs of childhood and adolescence seems to be required if we are to adjust ourselves satisfactorily to new ways of living. (Paragraph 54.)

An Equipment for Adult Living.

3. We outline in Paragraphs 56-63 our own view of what that new conception should be—an equipment for adult living which we believe to be necessary in its entirety to all young people.

This equipment is made up of:

(i) rights of human entitlement, such as health, reasonable opportunity to discover and develop talents, access to the storehouses of knowledge and pleasure, the enlargement of personality, and the vision and hope of a future which satisfaction of these rights produces in youth. These are things which every thoughtful parent who is possessed of the means to make them possible considers to belong to his child's entitlement;

(ii) possibilities of making use of and benefiting by the wisdom which human experience has gathered and is still gathering together in regard to the more essential ways and means of doing and living. The timelag between what is known and what is practised should be reduced by an improved education of the young so that all may live as wisely and as well as informed humanity knows how;

(iii) moral and spiritual attitudes, outlooks, and values.

In our opinion all the items listed in the chapter are vitally relevant to the well-being of a modern society. Until such a preparation is provided for every young person, mankind must continue to fall short of the stature of which it is already capable. (Paragraph 64.)

The Home.

4. If young adults are to possess the attributes which we have described, their acquisition of a large part of these will have to begin in the home. The most clamant need of Scotland is a building and reconstruction programme which will give to every child desirable living conditions. These should be provided in accordance with a plan which should have behind it the same sense of national emergency and urgency and the same co-ordination of all human, material, and financial resources as has been brought to the provision of the munitions of war. In the making of housing policies, long-term or short-term, the predominant consideration should be that in the houses and communities children will be reared. (Paragraphs 67-68.)

5. There is need for an immediate campaign for the education of parents in all that appertains to the bodily health and fitness of children and young persons, and to an understanding of their psychology and the influence of the home on their general development. Broadcasting, the press, the cinema, talks and demonstrations should be used and skilled technical and propagandist personnel employed by local and national authorities. Local authorities should be given a special responsibility in this connection. (Paragraph 66.)

6. The adequate economic support of family life should be adopted as a national policy and the best ways and means of enabling all parents to provide fully for the needs of their children should be explored. (Paragraph 69.)

The School and the Home.

7. In the training of teachers increasing attention should be paid to the study of the home circumstances and social conditions of the child. (Paragraph 73.)

8. Consideration should be given to the framing of a scheme under which Education Authorities would be required to establish nursery schools. Through the nursery schools mothers should have access to skilled medical advice, to child guidance clinics, and to all statutory and voluntary services which can be of help to them in maintaining and developing the all-round fitness of their younger children. (Paragraph 71.)

9. The primary school should continue to provide a centre in which the child is under competent observation, from which his parents can obtain or be offered advice, instruction and assistance in his upbringing. It should be the first aim of the school, treating each child as an individual case, to reduce whatever gap there may be between the actual conditions of the child and the standards of attainment which the staff of the school consider to be reasonable in the light of the child's natural endowment. Whatever may be necessary for the reduction of the gap—advice for the parent or for the child, healthier living conditions, better feeding, medical treatment, individual or small group tuition—the teachers should be able to turn to certain agencies to get something done about it. (Paragraph 72.)

10. An increase in the number of doctors, psychiatrists, educational psychologists and other specialised workers will be necessary. (Paragraph 73.)

11. All the above facilities and services are required in rural areas, and means should be devised for their provision. (Paragraph 74.)

The School as a Community.

12. The whole scheme of organisation, management and discipline of the school should provide a miniature society that the child can participate in and observe as one of the principal reasons for his being at school. (Paragraphs 75-76.)

13. A new type of school building will be required but the function of the school to provide a community life is too important and urgent to wait upon the ideal building. The best-equipped schools should be developed as centres for research into methods and techniques and the results of these researches introduced into the schemes of training colleges and made the subject of vacation courses and summer schools. (Paragraph 77.)

14. Certain members of the staff of every school will probably require to devote a major part of their time to welfare and recreative work. It will be necessary for all the members of a school staff to work as a team. Both classes and schools will require to be smaller. (Paragraph 73.)

15. Life in the secondary school should take on more and more the form of a miniature community at each successive stage, and in the 15-16 year a marked degree of self-government should be reached. (Paragraph 90.)

The Adolescent at School*.

16. The raising of the school-leaving age and the institution of compulsory continued education must be regarded as affording an opportunity for a new review of adolescent education as a whole, its purposes, methods, and relationships to the rest of education and to social life, and for the preparation of a boldly comprehensive plan which is calculated to meet all the educational needs of youth in these times and to which each of the stages can be carefully and purposefully related. (Paragraph 110.)

17. The problems of providing a longer period of secondary education for all young people should not be considered in terms of their probable occupations alone. If we are too ready to divide young people at an early age into groups such as brain-workers and hand-workers and proceed to educate them separately for different walks of life, we shall run a risk of increasing social differences and jeopardising the possibilities of closer social unity in the future. We tend to favour an omnibus type of secondary school which could be attended by all young people up to the age of 16—a school with a common community life and common instruction in those subjects which should be within the general knowledge and experience of all, but offering a variety of courses from which choice can be made around the age of 14. (Paragraphs 91-95.)

18. Arising out of our analysis of adolescent development, we suggest that post-primary courses should be treated as falling into two parts of two years each. A course for 12-14's should make use of a "team" approach to learning, should provide interesting and instructive contacts with a range of activities and occupations, aesthetic and cultural as well as practical and vocational, and should allow young people to do things which appeal to their imaginations. Important elements of the equipment outlined in Paragraphs 56-63 should be included. Part of the course should be conducted in a residential school in the country or at some form of camp school. Instruction directed towards preparing a young person for a particular industry should not be included in a course for the 12-14's but pupils should be given opportunities of vocational experimentation as part of a scheme of vocational guidance. (Paragraphs 82-86.)

*The ages and age-ranges mentioned in these recommendations should be regarded as shorthand references to the stages in the physical, mental and emotional development of the adolescent which we have described in Chapter I and not as marking rigidly chronological divisions.

19. Use should be made of psychological and performance tests to supplement the young person's own discovery of his vocational aptitudes by the opportunities we have suggested. (Paragraph 89.)

20. In the second stage—14 to 16—the pupil should be given the option of courses with different vocational trends. The first year of this stage should give him opportunities of discovering more about the possibilities within the broad field he has chosen. In the second year he could receive a training designed to give him a suitable equipment for starting work. His general education in this stage should take into consideration his growing powers of grasping ideas and of reasoning, his developing individuality, and his deepening emotional life. (Paragraphs 87-88.)

Vocational Guidance.

21. A satisfactory scheme of vocational guidance presupposes (1) an intimate knowledge of a young person's intelligence, special abilities and attainments, and of his interests, temperament, and character development over a considerable period, and (2) the widest possible use of objective measurements. The Scottish Education Department and the Ministry of Labour should institute, as soon as may be practicable, a joint inquiry into the machinery which would be necessary, locally and nationally, to enable the schools and the local offices of the Ministry to co-operate in the development of methods of vocational observation, experimentation, selection and training, and to add to these a nation-wide scheme for the placing of all types of young people in suitable work. (Paragraph 97.)

Bursaries and Scholarships.

22. The raising of the leaving age should be accompanied by the abolition of fees in all schools under the control of Education Authorities and by a considerable increase in the number and value of bursaries and scholarships. There should be full equality of opportunity, regardless of the part of the country in which a potential student may reside. (Paragraph 96.)

23. An inquiry should be instituted into the best means of developing a scheme by which young people can obtain financial aid to enable them to continue their education by entering suitable employment. (Paragraph 98.)

Youth at Work.

24. Until the age of 18 a young person should be under educational care. (Paragraphs 97 and 99.)

25. All employers should accept a responsibility to provide their workers under the age of 18 with as much as possible of the technical training which their work may require or which they may seem to be capable of profiting by. There should be technical schools in all Education Authority areas equipped to provide the training required for the major occupations of each area and arrangements should be developed under which employers are persuaded to release young workers to attend these technical schools for part of the working week, in addition to their attendance at compulsory day continuation centres. The technical schools should also be open in the evenings to meet the needs of young people who may be anxious to qualify themselves either for advancement in their own occupations or for other employment than they are immediately engaged in. (Paragraphs 102-104.)

26. Steps should be taken to safeguard the health of adolescents and protect them against the risks of physical strains, postural defects, etc. (Paragraph 100.)

Compulsory Continued Education.

27. All centres for compulsory continued education should be co-educational, with separate instruction for the sexes in certain subjects, and the students should be drawn from mixed areas of population. All centres should be under the complete control of Education Authorities and only in very exceptional circumstances should they be set up on premises belonging to or associated with an employing firm. (Paragraph 108.)

28. Programmes of instruction for compulsory continued education should be based on the three themes of society, home and work. The young person should be given some conception of the place of his work and his industry in the business and industrial scheme of things as a whole and also of his relationships to his fellow-workers, his managers and employers, and to society and the world—in short, all he should know about work if he is to be a responsible and informed worker-citizen. This knowledge is as important and necessary as technical instruction which should be provided by other means. A considerable part of the time-table should be devoted to preparation for home-life and parenthood. Attention should be given to physical fitness, knowledge of health, straight thinking, clear expression, moral and spiritual development, preparation for community living. The purpose of this last stage of compulsory education should be to relate all these to a social background and establish their social values. (Paragraphs 101-107.)

29. An unemployed young person should automatically be required to increase his day-time attendance at a centre of compulsory continued education or a technical school. (Paragraph 109.)

Religion.

30. In Paragraph 59 we have outlined the scope of the knowledge and experience of religion and the spiritual life which we should like all young people to possess. In our opinion, it is not the function of a school or a youth organisation to accomplish the full religious education of a young person. An important part must be undertaken by the home and by the church of which a young person may be a member. We recommend study by the churches of the psychology and needs of youth; special training for divinity students; the development of forms of worship in which young people can take part and which will more fittingly express their aspirations and emotions; also consideration of ways and means of introducing them to the practical expression of religion in their daily lives. (Paragraph 111.)

31. The churches must have the means to play an active part in the life of youth. Sites adequate in size and position should be allotted to them in planning schemes for post-war housing development. Churches should be equipped with modern and attractive facilities which will allow them to gather together their young people. (Paragraph 112.)

Sex.

32. Steps should be taken to develop a more informed and responsible attitude to sex in the children and young persons who are now passing through our schools and youth organisations. More direct methods of instruction will be necessary as a short-term policy but it should be borne in mind that factual knowledge alone will not breed the desire to reach a high level of personal conduct. The emotions must be trained and sentiments associated with worthy living must be carefully fostered if there is to emerge a personally accepted ideal of purity and self-control. We stress the importance of the home and are of opinion that any long-term educational policy should not envisage sex

instruction as a special subject of the curriculum. Factual information should be collected regarding methods of sex instruction and guidance which have already been the subject of experiment. A recognised central body should be able to give information and guidance and keep further experiments under observation. Opportunities should be provided in schools and leisure organisations for boys and girls to associate in work, play and community life. (Paragraphs 113-117.)

Handicapped Youth.

33. Scottish local authorities should be given full powers to provide for the treatment and welfare of the handicapped. Education Authorities should be asked to review the provision for the handicapped made in their areas. More attention should be given to the problems of maladjusted and dull and backward children. An inquiry should be instituted into the needs of the handicapped population as a whole and special attention should be given in this inquiry to means of ensuring that all handicapped young people will be afforded every possible opportunity of achieving all the development of which they may be capable. As a first step, in view of the need to obtain accurate information regarding the numbers of defectives in the various groups and their distribution throughout the country, we recommend the establishment of a register of all handicapped persons similar in character to the register provided for in the Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, 1944. (Paragraphs 118-122.)

Leisure.

34. Young people should be free to spend their leisure in any wholesome way they wish. (Paragraph 126.)

35. They should have opportunities of engaging in all kinds of hobbies, pursuing lines of study, acquiring skills, training for special purposes, giving service to others, living their own lives and building up creative individualities. (Paragraph 124.)

36. All young people between school-leaving age and 18 should be given 28 days holiday in the year with pay, inclusive of local and statutory public holidays, and should be entitled to take fourteen of these days consecutively between the beginning of May and the end of September. Compulsory attendance at continued education centres and at technical and vocational schools should be included within the working hours permitted by statute. (Paragraph 127.)

37. One of the most urgent needs of youth is closer co-operation among the agencies of education, work and leisure with a view to making their contributions to the lives of young people complementary to one another. (Paragraph 125.)

Voluntary Organisations.

38. Voluntary organisations are indispensable to the healthy life of a democratic country and are a vitally important element in the education of young people. (Paragraph 129.)

39. Young people should be encouraged to form and to join voluntary groups and organisations. Any group within the community which may consider that it has a contribution to make to the healthy and lawful education and recreation of young people should be entitled to offer it to them in their leisure time. A wide variety of such groups and organisations should be available in every populous locality. (Paragraph 133.)

40. Where a voluntary organisation is meeting the needs of youth adequately and well, it should not be faced with the fear of a State-aided or rate-aided authority competing in the same plane. (Paragraph 131.)

41. Where an Education Authority finds that any part of its area is inadequately provided for in the matter of leisure-time activities, it should consult with the voluntary organisations in order to see how the needs can best be met. (Paragraph 131.)

42. Local Authorities should make generous use of their powers to assist voluntary groups and organisations. The members of a community should be concerned to see that voluntary groups and organisations are helped to obtain suitable leaders, workers and money. (Paragraph 133.)

43. In all organisations, clubs and youth centres young people should be encouraged to take more responsibility for "running their own shows" and choosing and organising their own activities. The spontaneous association of young people in clubs and societies which they form among themselves for their own chosen purposes should be given a recognised place in any extension of leisure-time activities. (Paragraph 126.)

Indoor Facilities.

(We have undertaken a special remit to inquire into the accommodation and other facilities required for the leisure of young people and we hope to present a detailed report in due course. We have mainly indicated for the present our view of the broader requirements.)

44. In all populous areas there should be suitably equipped play centres, perhaps in schools, which can be used by younger children in winter and wet weather. (Paragraph 137.)

45. The units of voluntary organisations should be encouraged and assisted to have homes of their own wherever the necessary premises can be provided. (Paragraph 135.)

46. There is a need for the provision of facilities, such as recreation halls, halls with stages, gymnasia, library and reading rooms, craft rooms, canteens, and the like, which could be available for the use of organisations whose own premises are insufficient for their purposes. All the special equipment of schools—gymnasia, showers, swimming baths, playing fields, art and craft rooms, music rooms, workshops, assembly halls, etc.—should be available for the use of organised youth groups. (Paragraphs 135 and 138.)

47. If a voluntary organisation sees its way to provide premises of a comprehensive character, and can show that there is a need which can be met by this means, help should be forthcoming from public funds. (Paragraph 136.)

48. Public youth centres open every evening of the week can meet a real need by developing facilities, such as games rooms, reading rooms, libraries, hobbies rooms and canteens which can be used by young people on any evening when they have an hour or two to spare. Skilled leadership should be provided and the members should be encouraged to take part in well-conducted programmes of activities suitable to their ages. (Paragraph 137.)

49. Where a youth centre or a suite of rooms for the use of youth groups is provided on school premises it should form a separate block or wing. An adequate number of suitably furnished rooms reserved for leisure activities is essential. (Paragraph 138.)

50. Local authorities should consider the provision of attractive and well-conducted facilities for dancing and restaurants which should be run with a view to meeting the social needs of young adults and older adolescents. (Paragraph 138.)

Outdoor Recreation.

51. In every residential area there should be playing spaces near to their homes for children under 10 years of age; separate playgrounds, also near to their homes, which can be used during their short periods of play by young adolescents between the ages of 10 and 14; properly equipped playing fields for a variety of team games. Swimming pools should be included, wherever possible, in the development schemes of local authorities. Substantial State grants should be available and no child or young person should be precluded from using these public facilities because of fees or charges. (Paragraphs 139-141 and 143.)

52. Play and games leadership schemes should be organised. (Paragraph 140.)

53. Suitable areas should be established as national parks. Voluntary organisations should be assisted to obtain sites for camping and buildings as hostels for hikers and cyclists. Education Authorities should co-operate with voluntary bodies in running holiday camps. (Paragraph 144.)

54. Opportunities of foreign and Empire travel, sea-cruises, adventurous work and expeditions should be available. (Paragraph 145.)

Town and Country Planning.

55. A duty should be laid on Education Authorities to secure that adequate facilities are available in their areas to meet the leisure-time needs of children and young persons. Suggestions are made to ensure that these needs will be adequately considered in Town and Country Planning Schemes. (Paragraph 146.)

Culture and Entertainment.

56. Reading rooms and libraries should be provided in schools, play centres, youth centres and clubs; public libraries should study the reading interests and needs of the different age-groups of children and young people; the present limitations on the amount of the library rate in Scottish burghs should be removed. The Scottish Education Department should bring together publishing and other interests to consider how the needs of children and young persons in regard to books and periodical literature can be more adequately met. (Paragraph 147.)

57. Teachers and youth workers should collaborate in the wider extension of schemes for the better use of museums and art galleries. (Paragraph 148.)

58. The Scottish Education Department should consult with the film industry regarding ways and means of developing the production of films more suitable for young audiences; special performances for children and young people should be organised; efforts should be made by schools and youth organisations to raise the standards of film appreciation. (Paragraph 149.)

59. Theatrical entertainments and concerts should be organised under central auspices and sent on tour. Education Authorities should employ organisers of music and drama. (Paragraph 150.)

60. There should be the same close collaboration between broadcasting and all the agencies concerned with meeting the educational and recreational needs of youth as we have suggested in the case of libraries and cinemas. Three things will require to be developed to make an effective collaboration possible: (1) better listening habits among the masses of young people; (2) better facilities for listening in schools, clubs and youth centres; (3) a lively relationship between the broadcast programmes and the other activities carried on in

the school and the club. The B.B.C. should seek to bring to young people in the areas of scattered population some contact with as many as possible of the interests and activities which may otherwise be denied them. (Paragraph 151.)

Harmful Influences.

61. Young people under 16 should be prohibited from entering public billiard rooms conducted for profit and also from entering places of public resort where there is any form of betting or wagering. (Paragraph 152.)

62. Every possible means should be taken of guarding against breaches of the licensing laws which have been passed for the protection of children and young persons and also of warning the young against the dangers to them of alcoholic stimulation. (Paragraph 152.)

63. Proprietors and managers of cinemas and dance-halls should be consulted nationally and locally regarding the education and welfare of children and young persons. (Paragraph 152.)

Service to the Community.

64. Young people should be given specific opportunities of devoting part of their leisure time to voluntary work in the service of their neighbours and fellow-citizens and for the benefit of the community at large. A co-ordinating and planning agency should be established in every locality. (Paragraphs 153-156.)

Pre-Service Training.

65. Young people under eighteen should not be compelled to undergo full-time or part-time training for the Forces; the minimum age of enrolment in a pre-service training organisation should be sixteen; pre-service organisations should co-operate with other agencies providing for the needs of young people with a view to widening their programmes; there should be close liaison nationally and locally between those responsible for the pre-service organisations and the Education Departments and Authorities. (Paragraph 157.)

Continuity of Development.

66. Young people who have benefited by the opportunities of education and recreation which we have recommended will demand widely extended facilities for comparable types of adult education and recreation. A very much broader conception of adult education is called for. The Scottish Education Department and Education Authorities should accept the same responsibilities for the development of adult education as for the present Youth Service, should use similar methods of development, and furnish the same assistance. No dividing-line should be drawn between education and recreation and both should be obtainable in clubs and community centres. (Paragraphs 158-159.)

Needs of Rural Areas.

67. Special study should be made of the best ways and means of (1) providing appropriate educational and recreational facilities and services for the young people of country areas, including the maintenance of interest in the history, customs, industries, plant and wild life, games and sports of their localities; (2) teaching town youth more of country ways and country needs and encouraging them to seek happiness in country pursuits and rural industries. (Paragraph 160.)

Character Development and Juvenile Delinquency.

68. Character is a product of biological heredity, social inheritance, education, environment and self-effort. We view the problems of character development as involving all the subject-matter of our report—the treatment of the child in the home, at school, at work, in the community, his moral and religious upbringing, his sex education, the influences to which he is subjected in his leisure, the extent to which his needs are met, the circumstances of his growth as an individual and as a member of society. (Paragraph 161.)

69. Delinquency rarely, if ever, results from one cause operating in isolation and the real nature of the problem is obscured when, as frequently happens, one factor is singled out and made to bear the blame. (Paragraph 162.)

70. Skilled scientific assistance should be brought in to survey the field of juvenile delinquency in Scotland and more information should be made available through the adoption of improved methods of collecting official statistics. (Paragraph 163.)

71. The prevention of serious delinquency requires that every child should receive the benefit of individual study in the home and in the school. We should like to see the institution of clinics and training centres at which parents should be compelled to attend in all cases where the transgressions of the children can be attributed to parental indifference, ignorance, or neglect. (Paragraph 165.)

72. For the prevention of the less serious types of delinquency we need a more responsible standard of parenthood, better living conditions in homes, an improved form of community living, and the influence of higher ideals in every aspect of the national life. We need smaller and better-equipped schools and curricula more suited to the needs and abilities of the majority of children. (Paragraph 166.)

73. Anti-social conduct and juvenile delinquency are, in large part, the visible raw edges of the under-development of the population which is resulting from our neglect of so many of the needs of childhood and youth. If adequate steps are taken to put an end to this under-development we shall be taking the prevention of juvenile delinquency, as it should be taken, in our stride. (Paragraph 167.)

Youth and Society.

74. The problems of youth are inextricably bound up with many of the wide problems of society as a whole. Children and young people need a sound environment in which to grow up. There was a neighbourhood, almost a family quality about community life in the past which offered a better atmosphere for children to grow up in than the cold "de-personalisation" of present days. It should be our aim to restore some of the lost advantages of the older and more neighbourly way of life. (Paragraphs 168-170.)

75. The community in which we must develop a wholesome environment for the children and young people of to-day is nation-wide and world-wide. (Paragraph 171.)

76. The needs of youth are not fully met, however, by the acceptance of any environment which their elders may prepare. Youth now as always must find ambitions to strive for which will engage the creative impulse, the urge to adventure, the desire to serve. The significance of this need in our time should not be underestimated. The masses of modern youth are all more or less under the influence nowadays of the sensitivities and urges which produced the adventurous few of the past generations, and the conditions of the world are impelling them more and more to seek a collective expression for

their aspirations and frustrations. This collective adventure of youth cannot be dissociated from the adaptation of national and international, social and individual living to the kind of world with which technical progress is presenting us. (Paragraphs 172-173.)

77. These problems bear closely on some questions which must be faced by the educator. For what kind of living are we to prepare children and young persons? Of what ideal community should we seek to provide miniatures in our schools? (Paragraph 174.)

78. It would be folly to try to shackle the loyalty of youth to a pattern of society designed by middle age. But the community of the future cannot be wholly alien to the community of the present and we have a duty to help youth to choose wisely by passing on to it the best traditions and principles of social living that we have inherited and acquired. (Paragraphs 175-177.)

79. We have, therefore, set down certain thoughts and sentiments about social ideals which we, a mixed committee with a variety of social, educational, religious and political backgrounds, would lay before the young as the best guiding ideas that our inheritance of wisdom and tradition would seem to be able to supply. (Paragraphs 178-180.)

80. We have not drawn up a confession of religious or political faith to which we should expect all teachers and workers among youth to subscribe. The last thing we want to do is to limit the potentialities of youth by prescribing restrictively what it should think or do and there must always be room for all men and women of goodwill, regardless of their creeds and convictions, to help young people in their schooling and their leisure. If the loyalty of youth is to be engaged to a better way of life, it must be won by the compulsive force of good example and not by coercion or preaching. (Paragraph 182.)

81. In our opinion, a country which is endeavouring to translate these ideals into terms of everyday living would offer a wholesome environment for children and young persons, and the effort of translation would adequately meet the need of modern youth for worthy common adventures. (Paragraph 181.)

We have the honour to be,

Sir,

Your obedient Servants,

(Signed) JAMES KEITH, *Chairman*
 WM. QUIN, *Vice-Chairman*
 HARRY BELL
 MICHAEL G. BLACK
 WM. BOYD
 W. E. BROWN
 T. EDWIN CALVERT
 J. DICK
 WINIFRED A. DONALDSON
 JAS. B. FRIZELL
 W. A. F. HEPBURN
 ANDREW HOOD
 W. B. INGLIS
 MARGARET JOBSON

SAM. McDONALD
 WM. L. MCKINLAY
 MAY J. MCKINLAY
 B. MARTIN STEWART
 MURIEL M. MONTEITH
 STANLEY NAIRNE
 S. H. PEARSON
 WM. PEAT
 EFFIE J. PORTER
 WM. D. SCOTT
 DENIS E. TAYLOR
 JANET B. N. THOMSON
 W. M. WIGHTMAN
 JOHN WISHART

C. H. DAND, *Secretary*.

St. ANDREW'S HOUSE, Edinburgh, 1.
 31st March, 1945.

EDINBURGH

PUBLISHED BY HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE

To be purchased directly from H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE at the following addresses:

13a Castle Street, Edinburgh, 2; York House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2;

39/41 King Street, Manchester, 2; 1 St Andrew's Crescent, Cardiff;

80 Chichester Street, Belfast;

or through any bookseller

1945.

Price 1s. 6*d.* net.

Printed under the authority of His Majesty's Stationery Office
by A. Learmonth & Son, Stirling

(E19) 71030/250 6/45 G21/1
(E32) 73167/40 12/45

S.O. Code No. 30-91

Youth Service
in an
English County

313



REPORT PREPARED FOR KING GEORGE'S
JUBILEE TRUST

By

L. J. BARNES

Lecturer in Education, University of Liverpool

Maps and Diagrams by
J. F. HERRABIN



1945

TWO SHILLINGS AND SIXPENCE

F o r e w o r d

The pages which follow seek to carry out a commission accepted from King George's Jubilee Trust and defined in these terms :—

“ To enable the Trust, through a survey of a particular area, to obtain guidance as to how the objects for which it was founded can best be furthered in the post-war period. ”

“ To survey in the County and City of Nottingham the existing provisions made and opportunities afforded for the beneficial use of leisure time by young people, and, in particular, to evaluate the contributions—actual and potential—of the various youth organisations.”

L. J. B.

ERRATUM

Appendix 10, page 120, 4th column, for
King George's Jubilee Trust read
King George's Fields Foundation.

Printed in Great Britain by Odhams Press Ltd., Long Acre, W.C.2
and published by King George's Jubilee Trust, 166. Piccadilly, W.1.

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Chapter I

Youth Service

Provision: -

Its Setting

The Geographical Setting

1. The kind of upbringing which a human society gives to its successive generations varies with changes in its own cultural condition. In turn, cultural condition varies with the use made of the features of the geographical setting in which social life goes on. Geographical features have, in particular, a primary influence on the territorial and occupational distribution of population. Hence they affect what people need to do with their leisure, what they care to do with it, and what they are able to do with it.

2. As seen on the map, Nottinghamshire bears a rough resemblance to an egg, balanced Columbus-fashion on its end. The egg is marked off into three lengthwise strips, of which the western is the narrowest and the eastern the widest. Following a north to south course at the top and in the middle, these strips curve and converge lower down towards the point on the river Trent occupied by the city of Nottingham (see Fig. 1).

3. The narrow western strip represents the historic Nottinghamshire coalfield. It is bounded on the west by the Derbyshire border and on the east by a line running from Harworth in the north through Worksop, Warsop, and Mansfield to Hucknall and the western outskirts of Nottingham in the south. To the east of the coalfield lies a wider strip of sandstone, bounded on the far side by a line running from Bawtry and Everton in the north through East Retford and Ollerton down to Nottingham's eastern fringes. This sandstone belt includes what remains of the ancient Sherwood Forest. The soil is poor and thin, and there is a shortage of surface water. Eastwards again of the sandstone occurs a broad area of heavier and more fertile soil, clay-loam in texture, known to geologists as Keuper Marl. This zone, together with the Trent valley, comprises the main farming districts of the county, and extends, broadly speaking, to the eastern and southern boundaries. It is intersected and drained by innumerable small streams.

4. Inevitably the coal districts of the western fringe, together with Nottingham itself and its satellites, form the centre of economic gravity for the whole county. Here three-quarters of the population are concentrated upon one-eighth of the land. Outside this zone there are only two towns of significant size, Newark (20,000) and East Retford (14,000). Within it are Greater Nottingham (350,000), Mansfield and Mansfield Woodhouse (60,000), Sutton-in-Ashfield (37,000), Worksop (26,000), and Kirkby-in-Ashfield (18,000).

5. The coal districts are slowly but steadily edging eastwards into the sandstone belt. The coal measures are tilted in such a way as to plunge deeper below the surface, the further they are followed to the east. The "visible" coalfield along the Derbyshire border between Trowell and Teversall, where seams occur at or near the surface, has been worked

for more than seven centuries. Between Nottingham and Mansfield the coal measures dip below a covering of newer rocks to form a "concealed" field which has only been extensively exploited in the last seven decades. The first of these "concealed" workings was opened in 1859 at Shireoaks, near Worksop, where the Top Hard Coal, the most valuable seam of the field, was reached at 1,500 feet. This was followed, especially between 1870 and 1890, by the sinking of a series of important mines around Mansfield and along the Leen valley towards Nottingham, where the Top Hard seam was reached at lesser depth (Linby 1,300 feet, Hucknall 1,160 feet, and Cinderhill 650 feet.) Since 1920 yet a further series of mines have been developed across the sandstone belt east and north-east of Mansfield. Mansfield is the business centre of this new coalfield also, and is thus probably marked out for more rapid growth in the generation ahead than any other part of our region.

6. The tendency is thus plain for the sandstone belt, formerly forest and "marginal" farming country, to become gradually assimilated, socially, industrially, and even scenically, to the older mining districts further west. One consequence is that land is lost to agriculture by reason of building and industrialisation generally. But the effect on farming interests is not wholly destructive. Many agricultural holdings are maintained by the demand set up in neighbouring mining populations. And the income from coal has often enabled larger landowners to develop agricultural estates which, without it, might have remained forest and heath.

7. The long-term trend in the County, however, is unmistakable. There has been a slow diminution of the agricultural area over the whole period for which records are available. Fifty years ago there were 8,000 farms occupying 451,000 acres; to-day, there are 5,225, occupying 403,000 acres. Correspondingly, the numbers employed on the land tend to dwindle year by year, and there is a gradual drift of population from the agricultural east and south to the industrial west. The proportion of farm labourers to all employed males is 26 per 1,000, a figure which affords some index of the extent to which Nottinghamshire has become industrialised. It compares with 30 and 22 per 1,000 respectively for the adjoining counties of Leicestershire and Derbyshire. In more fully industrialised counties such as Lancashire and Durham the proportion is 10 per 1,000; whereas in predominantly agricultural areas such as Holland (Lincs.) and Cambridgeshire, it is 307 and 128 per 1,000 respectively.*

8. Yet it must not be supposed that the farming interest here is just a poor relation of mining, manufacture, and commerce. This could hardly be true of a region nearly 80 per cent. of whose entire surface is given over to agricultural use, particularly when in addition it houses the

* For a fuller account, from which these figures are drawn, see *The Land of Britain*, Part 60, Nottinghamshire, by K. C. Edwards (published for the *Land Utilisation Survey of Great Britain*, by Geographical Publications, Ltd. 1944).

Midland Agricultural College (at Sutton Bonington) and supports many herds of cattle hardly to be surpassed in quality anywhere in Britain. For all its industrial strength, Nottinghamshire remains very much an agricultural county also. Indeed, with 60 per cent. of its farms classified as mixed, it ranks among the leading counties for mixed farming. It seems possible that, given some re-arrangement of holdings, even more promising prospects for farming might be opened up in the future. At present the average size of holding is appreciably smaller in Nottinghamshire than in the country as a whole ; 72 per cent. are under 100 acres, and only 5 per cent. more than 300 acres.*

9. Turning now to the City of Nottingham and the satellite industrial and residential areas grouped immediately around it (Arnold, Carlton, West Bridgford, Beeston and Stapleford), we meet a region with a richly diversified pattern of industry and commerce. Some impression of this is given by Fig. 2. The diagram shows the percentage distribution of the working population according to occupation, first for the County on the left side of the vertical line, and then for the County and City together on the right side.⁽¹⁾

“ The variety of Greater Nottingham’s industries shows itself in every way, in raw material produced and used, in type of manufactured commodity, in stage of production (primary, secondary, etc., final or consumers’ goods), in type of organisation of manufacturing and marketing. She extracts agricultural produce (including sugar beet), coal, clay, sandstone, limestone, gypsum. She produces beet sugar, milking products, iron pipes and boilers, pottery and bricks, artificial silk ; machinery (cycles and textile machines particularly), electrical equipment, telephones, typewriters, textile fabrics (lace, net, lace curtains, warp goods, embroidery, hosiery, milanese), leather, furniture, clothing (especially women’s and children’s light clothing), printing, tobacco products, and chemicals (heavy and fine), bleaching and dyeing.

“ This variety of material, product, and process (along with the building, transport, commercial, financial and professional activities) has two very important consequences for the area. In the first place there is an outlet for every type of ability, manual, managerial, administrative, technical, scientific, and artistic, and there is scope for

* The following passage from *The Economist* of December 23, 1944, has a bearing on this position : “ Even were capital easy to obtain, the size and lay-out of British farms are ill-suited to its proper application. The average farm is very small, half of the total land belonging to farms of less than 150 acres. Farms of less than 150 acres are too small for the use of many kinds of modern machinery, although the extent to which this is a handicap depends upon the type of farming. Dairying, for instance, can still be conducted on 100 acres with reasonable efficiency. But, even in dairying, a herd of at least 30 cows is desirable for the introduction of a milking-machine, and a unit of some 60 cows for the employment of the Hosier open-air system, and most dairy farms fail to meet even these standards. The advantages of large farms are still more obvious in other respects, such as specialisation of labour, opportunities of promotion for the farm worker, and cheap and efficient marketing. Probably a minimum of 200 to 300 acres is necessary for fully efficient farming.”

(¹) Notes are to be found in the Appendix at the end of the Report.

most kinds of occupational interest. . . . In the second place the variety of industry contributes to the maintenance of a more or less even keel in passing through the fluctuating economic weather. The mixture of final goods production with primary productions keeps the district from the most violent movements up and down.”*

10. Thus our region comprises an agricultural sector, a mining sector, and a manufacturing and commercial sector. Each sector is fairly well defined geographically, and, as each has its own texture of social life, in each the problems of youth service assume a somewhat different shape. In considering the provisions made for the leisure of the young⁴ therefore, it is well to be continually mindful of the three-sector grouping. But to over-emphasise its significance would be as mistaken as to ignore it. The differences between the three sectors are not equally relevant to all phases of youth work. Moreover, there must always be something arbitrary in drawing lines of demarcation across the flow of a very real interdependence.

11. Again, even in the western fringe mining and agriculture are intimately mingled together, and a smallholders' movement has been extensively developed among the miners themselves. In the neighbourhood of Mansfield 45 per cent. of all the holdings consist of units of less than five acres worked by miners, “who sometimes find them more profitable than their main occupation.”† There is a similar intermingling of mining and manufacture ; it is a marked characteristic of our region that “the heavy male-absorbing industry of mining dovetails with textile industries which absorb large numbers of females.” It is perhaps arbitrary also to class Mansfield as falling within the mining sector, when it has a developed manufacturing economy of its own.

12. But in spite of such reservations it remains true that there are parts of our region where agriculture is the dominant economic interest, others where mining is, and others again where secondary industry, commerce, and finance are. Important social differences, germane to the service of youth, accompany the passage from one dominance to another. It is therefore desirable for the present purpose to distinguish the three sectors from one another, and to sketch approximate boundaries between them.

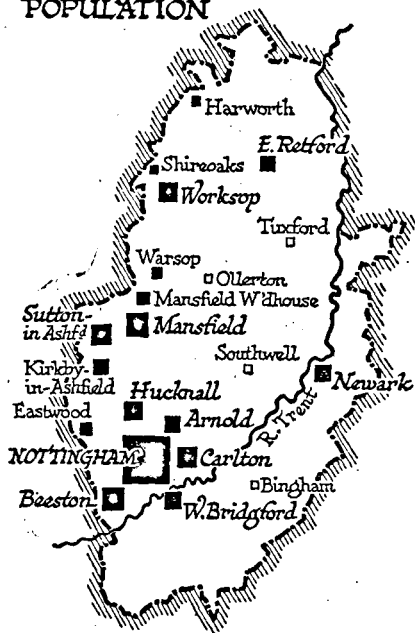
13. Very roughly, we may take the agricultural sector to mean the Keuper Marl area on both sides of the Trent, together with additions at the fringes. The mining sector means the strip west of a line drawn from Harworth, through Worksop, Warsop, and Mansfield, to Hucknall and Nottingham ; here, too, there are extensions, notably those east and north-east of Mansfield into Sherwood Forest. The industrial sector means Nottingham and its immediate satellites (apart from Hucknall, which is included in the mining sector).⁽²⁾

* A Scientific Survey of Nottingham and District. Prepared for the British Association for the Advancement of Science, 1937, pp. 40-42.

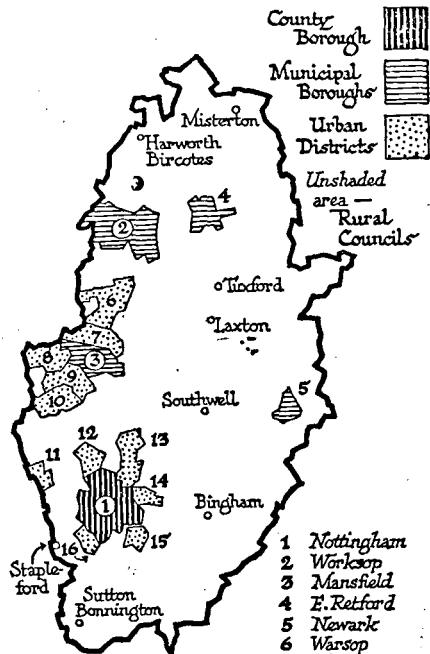
† K. C. Edwards, *op. cit.*, pp. 476, 513.

Fig. 1. Nottinghamshire.

URBAN CENTRES OF POPULATION



Population Centres.

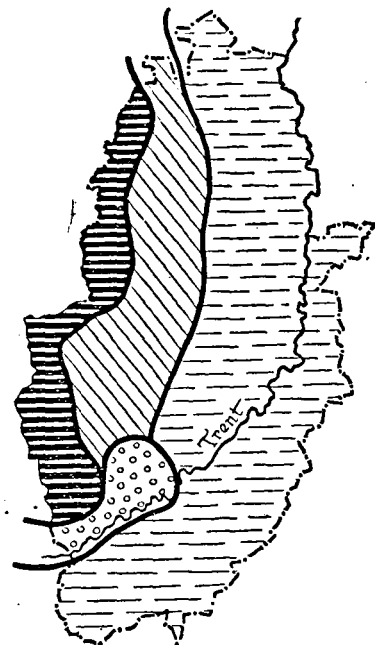


County Borough
Municipal Boroughs
Urban Districts
Unshaded area — Rural Councils

- 1 Nottingham
- 2 Worksop
- 3 Mansfield
- 4 E. Retford
- 5 Newark
- 6 Warsop
- 7 Mansfield Woodhouse
- 8 Tversall
- 9 Sutton-in-Ashfield
- 10 Kirky-in- "
- 11 Eastwood
- 12 Hucknall
- 13 Arnold
- 14 Carlton
- 15 W. Bridgford
- 16 Beeston

- 12 Hucknall
- 13 Arnold
- 14 Carlton
- 15 W. Bridgford
- 16 Beeston

Administrative Divisions.



Industrial area
Coalfield
Sheep and arable
Mixed farming

Economic Areas.

The Social Setting

14. The numbers of young people employed in the various occupations are shown in Fig. 3. Sixty per cent. of the whole 14-18 age group are employed in three types of industry—textile, engineering, and distribution,—textile employing about as many as the other two together. Most of the rest of the age-group are in mining and building (boys) and catering and chemical (girls).⁽³⁾ In these industries they encounter particular conditions of employment and of work and of travel to and from the place of work,—conditions which are important determinants of their leisure needs and which no one engaged in the service of youth can afford to ignore. The present survey, however, has no direct concern with working conditions. Our interest here is in more general determinants which differentiate the agricultural sector from the mining sector and both these from the industrial sector, and impart a characteristic social flavour to each.

SECTOR A (Agricultural) :

15. The countryside has found a quaint cushion against many disturbing effects of the war in the thinness of its own population. The rural people have not had to be directed into essential work, being for the most part normally engaged in it, either in connection with the land itself or in small local workshops now turned over to war production of one kind or another. Consequently the proportion of reserved occupations is high. In general the call-up has not greatly affected the fathers of adolescent children. The people drawn off by war are rather the young men of 18 to 30, eldest sons of parents in middle life and fathers of small children. Even among these the percentage called up is lower than it is in the towns.

16. Not many mothers have been directed into industry from the countryside, except on a part-time basis when they happen to be living near a local factory. The result is that home conditions have remained more normal than in the towns, and family influences a surer stabilising factor in the lives of young people. Moreover, war has abolished poverty. The countryside has never made higher earnings than it is making to-day. And this is particularly true of the earnings of juveniles.

17. But if the rural districts have, on the whole, not gone off to the war, the war has come, and come in strange guises, to some at least of the rural districts. Ordnance factories, aerodromes (some manned by Polish airmen), a huge U.S. Army depot with a large staff of Negro soldiers, camps of Italian prisoners of war, hostels for munition workers and for girls of the Land Army, an oilfield now producing 100,000 gallons of oil a day,—all these portents, unimagined in peace, have appeared among the quiet Nottinghamshire villages since the war began.

18. Their presence has brought rude shocks to the village people, some no doubt salutary, others less so. In any case, since few village parents are away in the Services, the new intrusive influences have not split up the family units. There has been no collapse of village morale. Church witnesses seem agreed that moral conditions are on the whole good. Proportionately to population, for example, drinking and thieving are less common than in the towns, among juveniles and adults alike. The evidence here suggests that the quality of family life is the key to the true service of youth.

19. In the agricultural areas employment has been fairly stable for 30 years or more. Long-term unemployment and deep cyclical fluctuations have not drained the vitality of the rural people. In this period the village population has changed little, except for a slow loss of complete family units to the mines and the towns. The same families tend to replace themselves in the same villages for generations. There is little permanent immigration.

20. It is usual for an appreciable percentage of young people to go in daily to the nearest towns to work in shops and factories. The rest are employed in shops and post-office in the village, and in local workshops where these exist. Very few work on the land. A generation back young people were content to follow their parents into farm work. To-day there is a feeling that a boy is making better headway in the world if he has a job in the post-office or on the railway, where he is likely to be tested by examinations and to receive a grading according to his capacity and attainments. And, in spite of the great war-time rise in agricultural wage-rates, it remains true that earnings and prospects in the public utilities are on the whole better than on the farms. Until a few years ago, domestic service claimed a number of girls as they left the village school. Work in factory, shop, or office is, however, regarded as a step higher than domestic service, and such work is to be had in war-time within range of a practicable bus journey.*

21. Complaints are made, for instance by country clergy, that these village "commuters" acquire muddled standards of judgment, and allow the best of country life to slip by them unremarked. Girls especially, it is said, are in danger of looking on their sisters and brothers who work in the village as too devoid of contemporary significance to qualify for anything better than menial tasks. For many of its young inhabitants the village becomes little more than a dormitory; the sleepers accept, casually and as of right, all that it has to offer, without admitting a duty to put something of their own back into the common life of the place. Some girls testify to this kind of outlook by a flashy taste in clothes, a make-up of crude emphasis, and an attempt at heavy up-to-the-minute sophistication, designed to impress upon the stay-at-home how sadly he or she has been outpaced by the march of time.⁽⁴⁾

* For this and other information in this section acknowledgment is gratefully made to an unpublished report on Youth Work in Rural Areas, prepared by Miss E. M. Baines for the Southwell Diocesan Youth Committee.

SECTOR B (Mining) :

22. The mining settlements vary greatly from place to place, and do not lend themselves readily to generalised description. It should be noted first that, when they are viewed from the standpoint of local government, the great majority of them fall within the boundaries of Municipal Boroughs or Urban Districts. A small minority only, and those chiefly in the new mining areas in Sherwood Forest, form part of a Rural District.

23. With that preface, it is probably best to subdivide the mining areas under three headings :—

(i) Urban areas based on mining of long standing, in which a fairly diversified industrial superstructure has now been built on the mining foundation. Examples are Mansfield, Worksop, Sutton-in-Ashfield, Kirkby-in-Ashfield, Hucknall.

(ii) Villages or small townships which until recently were mainly agricultural, but in which the agricultural interest has become overlaid by the mining interest. Examples are Harworth, Edwinstowe, Ollerton, Blidworth, and Linby. In such cases a new colliery village springs up alongside an old agricultural one, and there ensues a certain antagonism, or at least disharmony, between two different bodies of social habit. Relative homogeneity eventually supervenes as a consequence of increasing industrialisation.

The process can be illustrated from the experience of New Ollerton, a mining area with a present population of 4,000, lying between the villages of Old Ollerton and Broughton, which, when the mining began, were both agricultural. Mining development involved the immigration of miners and their families from outside, and at the same time it sucked in some of the local male labour (not so much into mining itself as into other work arising in consequence of mining development). Thus a fund of unoccupied female labour was created in the mining area. To take advantage of the fund, manufacturing enterprise set up a hosiery works on the spot, and offered employment to the wives and daughters of the mineworkers. Soon the hosiery business began to attract girls from the neighbouring agricultural villages also. Assimilation had begun,—the blurring of distinctions and conventions based on farming and mining as separate ways of life. In this Ollerton exemplifies a tendency common to the Nottinghamshire coalfield as a whole,—the tendency to attract textile factories to employ the women of the miners' families.

(iii) New mining settlements, that is to say, colliery villages founded with the opening of a new pit at places not previously settled. They may come into existence on what was once good grazing or corn land, but they are never rural in the proper sense. They quickly become urbanised in character and outlook.

24. Within these three groupings there is naturally room for a wide variety of social conditions. The range of variation can be briefly indicated by the following comments from clerical observers on two mining villages in different parts of the County. The observers are speaking from the viewpoint of Anglican churchmen and in their capacity of professional censors of morals.

25. The report from one village says: "Generally speaking, home conditions are good. Miners in this area are of a good class, and a proportion of them live in houses they have built for themselves. They are a superior type of workmen, and there is little drink or crime here." The report from the other village says: "On the whole, the public-houses are good, and they are not patronised overmuch by the young folk. The clubs with a licence are our chief menace. For the most part the publicans are good and will co-operate in village life. We have one good road-house, which is well run and far superior to the Miners' Institute, which is badly managed and a menace to the village. Dances are run here, but there is a great deal of drink, rowdiness, and some immorality."

26. A report from a third clerical source emphasises the highly localised differences of cultural provision that are sometimes found in mining villages, even when they are near neighbours of one another. Of three villages which form one parish and a single self-contained geographical area, this observer states: "Village X is very socially minded, and they are fond of dances, whist drives etc. Village Y is more politically minded, and village Z, which has been more under the local squire, does not seem very interested in anything."

27. The plight of village Z is, of course, paralleled in the agricultural sector too, where it is frequently remarked that cultural enterprises succeed only when they are sponsored by local notabilities. Within the mining sector this feature, in a slightly different form, is more emphatic. In the process of mining development, the operating company acquires surface land around the pithead,—land whose area varies proportionately with the depth of the shaft. When the pit is deep and the surface area large, all the land most accessible to the pit tends to be owned by the company. The tendency becomes more marked the further east coalmining moves, since with coal measures here to be further east is to lie deeper underground.

28. The consequence is to place in the hands of some companies and their local managements a certain power of veto over all development, cultural as well as economic, within a convenient radius of the pit. In practice, many colliery villages are "tied" to mining companies, much as public houses are "tied" to brewery companies. No doubt the arrangement has advantages and disadvantages from the general standpoint of the service of youth. It certainly puts a heavy responsibility for youth work on the Miners' Welfare Institutes.

29. The pre-service organisations receive a ready welcome from the colliery managements.

30. Other factors at once characteristic of the mining sector and relevant to youth work, are :

(i) The population is increasing and likely to increase further. Much of the increase arises and will arise from immigration. For example, Harworth, a mining area near the County boundary eight miles north of Worksop, had 811 inhabitants in 1921 ; to-day it has 6,000 : while Norwell (six miles north of Newark), which has remained purely agricultural, had 352 in 1921 and has 361 to-day. This typical contrast between the mining and the agricultural sectors will repeat itself in many places in the coming 20 years. The rate of increase is not rapid, and it can be forecast for any given place with reasonable accuracy for planning purposes. It implies that the age-distribution of the population in mining areas, involving the ratio of juveniles to adults, will differ significantly from those characteristic of Sectors A and C.

(ii) As in Sector A, the family as a group and the home as an institution remain relatively intact, and have not been subjected to the battering they have had to endure in many cities. Moreover, juveniles, particularly boys, on the whole live nearer to their work than in either Sector A or Sector B, and so waste less time and energy in travelling to and fro.

(iii) The powerful comradeship and occupational loyalty of the miners themselves are well known. These sentiments are so much stronger than in less dangerous and less arduous trades that they rise to a new qualitative level. They suggest to some observers, including the officer of the Miners' Welfare Commission specially concerned with youth work in the Nottinghamshire coalfields, that, if the service of youth is to develop there with success, the mining population itself will somehow have to play a leading part. In Sector A the cry goes up "Country-bred clergy for country parishes ; country-bred teachers and youth leaders for rural villages." Similarly, in Sector B the need is to draw from the mining people the men and women who are to be responsible for the organised care of local youth.

(iv) The mining settlements, though treated officially as for the most part urban districts, are really a special kind of social hybrid, neither town, village, nor good red neighbourhood. What mules are among beasts of burden, the mining settlements are among human groupings. Their dreary and laborious existences are lit, in the cultural sense, neither by pride of ancestry nor by hope of posterity. Having lost the graces of the villages from which they descend, they have small prospect of developing the balanced amenities and the civil atmosphere that belong to town life at its best. Physically, the mining districts straggle along main roads without shape or vision or design, so that it is impossible for him who runs to read where one community begins and

another ends. Only the pit itself and the common danger of work underground have power to impose any moral compactness, any neighbourly feeling, upon such sprawling chaos. For the rest, the ruined countryside stands as a monument to adult skill in the manufacture of meanness, well calculated to nullify all attempts to ennoble the young.

31. Happily, there are signs that the present leaders of the mining industry are wiser than their fathers. The newer collieries are often planned on a larger scale than the old, and can consequently be located further apart. Moreover, the best of them are electrically driven, and hence comparatively free from smoke. The housing that accompanies them is more compact, and its layout shows signs of following a pattern not entirely haphazard. The phase of blind destruction has, we may hope, been outlived.

SECTOR C (Industrial) :

32. The City of Nottingham, together with the adjacent suburbs, affords almost all the cultural amenities, the urban allurements, and the tempting vanities that modern industrialism can boast. Libraries and pubs, churches and fun fairs, parks and dance halls, drab old streets and smart new housing estates, prisons and colleges, splashes of beauty and drifts of ugliness, flowered embankments by the riverside and railway yards diffusing grime. In entertainment Nottingham is well equipped, with one seat in cinema or theatre to every six of its inhabitants. By current standards a handsome, thriving city, it knows how to be busy and how to be gay,—a city where there is no call to be sombre in order to be useful, and where buildings, movements, and men can be serious without smugness.

33. Town planning as a conception, and even as a policy, was early received with honour there, and in consequence the City has managed to keep pace with its civic problems. In few places has the varied configuration of its fine natural site been irretrievably spoilt ; in many, art and contrivance show it off to more advantage than nature alone could have given. Overcrowding and malnutrition, though they exist, have been kept in hand and are less widespread than in many industrial centres.⁽⁶⁾ Nottingham has not suffered any severe loss of housing accommodation from bombing. The movements of population inwards and outwards, arising from the call-up, evacuation, billeting of troops, and other war-time measures, have approximately balanced.⁽⁶⁾

34. Nor has the war upset the working of the elementary schools as gravely as it has in some parts of the country. In 1939 the average attendance at Nottingham schools was 90 per cent. of the enrolled strength. In 1940 (the worst year from this standpoint) average attendance fell to 84 per cent. From there it rose to 88 in 1942, and 89 in 1943. By June, 1944, it was back to 90.

35. In point of housing, nutrition, and education Nottingham in war has been nearly as good a place for youth to grow up in as Nottingham in peace. War damage to youth has come in other ways. Inevitably, but perhaps most notably, it has come through the call-up. It is reckoned that the demands of national service have withdrawn some 30,000 men and women from their homes in Nottingham. One effect has been to confuse and impoverish the home life of thousands of boys and girls now reaching and passing through adolescence. Another has been to weaken the example and influence on adolescents of the age-groups next above them. A third has been to modify the whole relationship between adults and youngsters by placing it more on a coercive and less on a familial basis:

36. War-time changes in industry have further re-structured the social field for young people. The concentration of war production, the suspension of non-essential industries, the dislocation of professional business, and the relaxation of the Factory Acts and other legislation affecting the employment of juveniles—all these make a formidable total of consequences in the lives of individuals. They involve, among other things, a sharp limitation of the choice of employment and, therefore, also of the possibilities of vocational guidance and selection, a lack of adequate training and supervision, and a shortage of apprenticeship schemes. They mean, too, an increase in jobs which are merely temporary—blind-alley jobs in the sense of being likely to come to an end with the end of the war. On the other hand, there is probably less drifting now from one job to another than there was in peace. Such we may presume to be the effect of the Essential Work Orders which, in many cases, prohibit job-to-job movements unless they are officially sanctioned. Nevertheless the movements go on, though probably less extensively to-day than, for example, in the year ended July, 1942, when of all juveniles placed in employment 42 per cent. had been in three or more jobs since leaving school.*

37. The increasing regulation of private and family life by official edict is not confined to industry and the labour market. Black-out, rationing, curtailment of public utilities, civil defence requirements, compulsory registration, semi-compulsory savings, separation allowances, pay-as-you-earn taxation—these and a host of similar commands and prohibitions have a profound influence on the present generation of young workers. The psychological complications which group themselves around this factor are not indeed peculiar to the city. But they are much more conspicuous and pressing in big centres of urban industry than they are in the mining sector or in the countryside. It is, above all, in the city that the province of the optional is *felt* as dwindling away to nothing. At school, in the place of work, on the journey to and fro, even in the very equipment and provisioning of the home, many of the activities normally possible to human beings are either forbidden or

* Report of Juvenile Employment Bureau, 1942.

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE
without the City of Nottingham,

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE & CITY
of NOTTINGHAM together

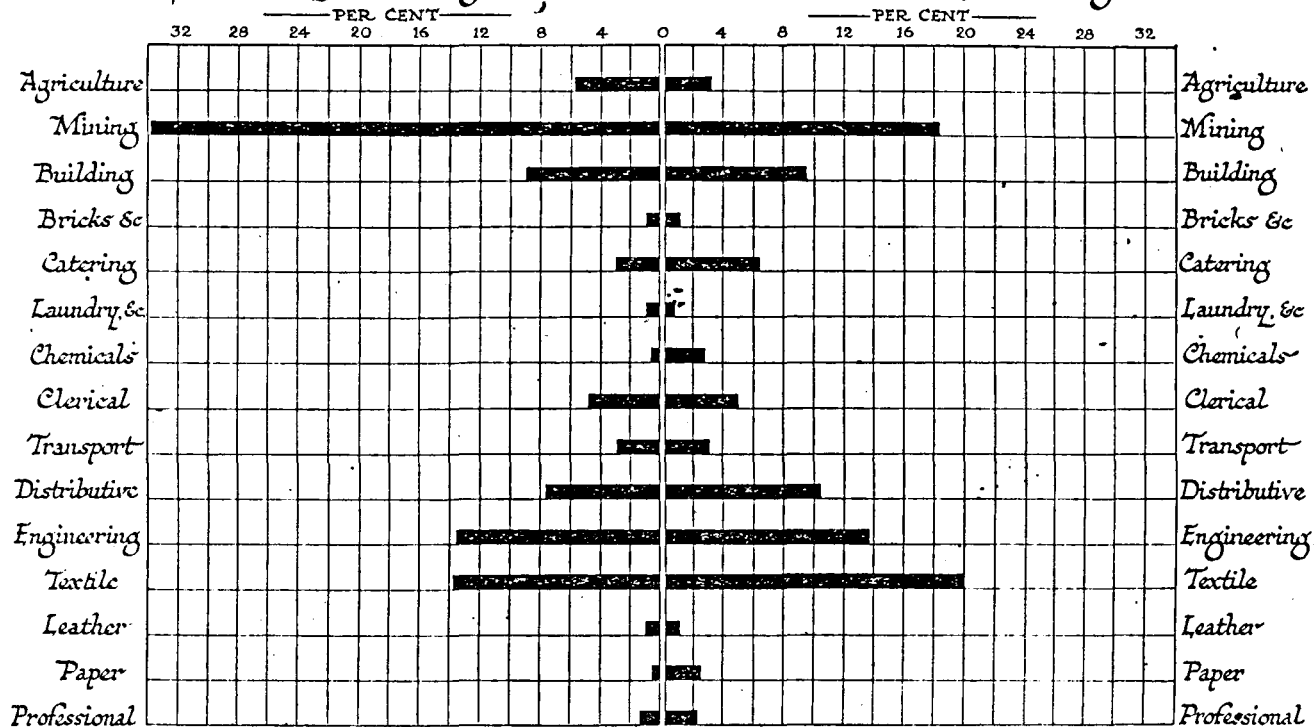


Fig. 2. Percentage Distribution of Workers (males and females together) according to occupation.

enjoined. Special agencies, called Citizens' Advice Bureaux, are set up to steer the bewildered through the forest of rules, and to indicate to the persistent the rare permissive clearings where a private person may still make a choice.

38. It would be pointless to criticise the process of regulation-encroachment. Doubtless each "Thou shalt" and "Thou shalt not" is severally and jointly indispensable. But it is relevant to take note of the process, because it differentially affects the outlook of urban youth and confronts with special difficulties those engaged in youth service in the city. Thirty years ago the town lad was more alert, adaptable, and capable of looking after himself than the country bumpkin or the pit-boy from the colliery village. To-day such superiority is no longer his. Character and mind alike seem to have lost muscular tone. His perceptions are less sharp, his imagery less vivid. He is less of a person and more of a type. He is conditioned not to lift a finger without referring mentally to the book of words first. A time-budget of an ordinary city youth for an ordinary working day would show that he spends great stretches of his waking hours in going through motions that have been predetermined for him by directives in whose framing he has had no part, whose precise intention he seldom comprehends, and of whose appropriateness he cannot judge.

39. Experience of this kind, repeated day after day, cannot make for responsible behaviour and considered initiative any more than for spontaneity and poise. Adults frequently complain that urban youth is irresponsible. And there is plenty of evidence for that view. For example, the great bulk of juvenile delinquency in Nottinghamshire as a whole occurs in the two big industrial centres of Nottingham itself (with environs) and Mansfield. But the inference that what the city lad needs is more discipline and tighter control is too hasty. It would be nearer the mark to say that he is suffering from a chronic overdose of control already. The capacity for responsibility is like any other human capacity ; it comes at health and strength through exercise. If urban youth is irresponsible, a main reason is that the adult world accords it few chances of shouldering responsibility.

40. The town-bred juvenile discovers little in his experience as member of a family to counterbalance the experience he meets in his own distinct person. Surveying his parents and his older brothers or sisters, he finds them as regulation-bound as himself. He sees them so acclimatised to that state that they seldom plan and carry out under their own steam any new social excursion or enterprise. He thus looks forward to no future period at which a sinewy faculty of responsibility is likely to be of service to himself or to others. For, while the home undoubtedly retains an emotional hold over urban youth, the texture of family life in the city tends to be looser than it is among the mining and rural populations. In the city the family rarely behaves as a unit. The activities of its members are, as a rule, no less separate in leisure than they are in work.

The difference between the family's collective responsibilities, in which he shares, and the personal responsibilities that are exclusively his own, is not large enough to strike the juvenile as significant, or to stir him to additional spontaneous effort. In a word, the incentives to responsible action are as inadequate as the opportunities for it are rare.

41. It seems probable that here is the root of the negativism which their elders so often notice in town-bred youngsters. Urban youth, they say, is awkward to handle ; it shows an ingrained "cussedness," a lurking rebelliousness, a cynical suspicion of officialdom in all its forms, an evasiveness in the face of anything that bears the taint of authority. In its case adult suggestion has largely failed to effect the translation of social requirements into sentiments felt as self-generated. By such young people all authorities are seen as the everlasting, unchanging *they*,—always external, always arbitrary, always interfering. One can bow down before *them* (if one is a Good Boy) ; one can challenge *them* (if one is a Mug) ; or one can diddle and dodge *them* (if one is a Wise Guy). What is impossible is to identify oneself with *them* and *their* purposes, and so transform *them* into a part of *us*.

42. From the same psychological source as negativism springs the marked preference for leisure activities "that can be taken up or left off at will, that impose no obligations and demand no continuity of effort."* Leisure with many of these young people seems to have been deliberately casualised. Casual is the key-word in describing the recreations they choose ; the street game, the dropping in at the flicks, the endless, aimless fog of giggling talk, the twiddling of the radio knob, the pick-up parades. Adults are apt to think of all this as merely proving the triviality of juvenile interests. A more daunting reflection is that psychologically the young people may be right. They are obliged to stomach so much external and, as it seems to them, meaningless control that they seek escape and recuperation in an absence of discipline as complete as they can make it. This extreme of spiritual relaxation may really be the best refreshment open to them in all their circumstances. Psychologically they are not in active enjoyment of leisure at all ; they are resting. They are recovering from two kinds of fatigue—one that comes from hard work, the other that comes from being ceaselessly ordered about. At any rate, it is clear that those who wish to alter their response will do best to tackle first the stimulus that evokes it.

43. Most youth service agencies are so placed that they must address themselves to the response, while leaving the stimulus alone. That is their handicap. The pre-service organisations have been able to exploit the massive alteration of the stimulus brought about by the war.† That

* See, in this context, H. E. O. James and F. T. Moore : *Adolescent Leisure in a Working Class District.—Occupational Psychology*, vol. 18 (i) 1944.

† The term "pre-service organisations" is used to cover the Sea Cadet Corps, the Army Cadet Force, and the Air Training Corps. The National Association of Training Corps for Girls, now incorporating the Women's Junior Air Corps, also provides some general pre-service training, without, however, being sponsored by any of the Service departments.

has been their advantage. It is slipping through their fingers now. For with the end of the European war coming into view, the character of the stimulus is radically changing once again.

The Administrative Setting

44. The administrative framework within which the youth service is organised does not coincide with the three-sector grouping just described. It follows the framework devised for the public system of education. The service of youth is officially regarded as falling within the field of higher education. The Government Department responsible is thus the Ministry of Education, and the responsible Local Authorities are those which provide higher education,—namely, the Part II authorities set up by the Education Act of 1902. In our region there are two Part II authorities—the County Borough of Nottingham and the Nottinghamshire County Council—referred to in what follows as the City L.E.A. and the County L.E.A. respectively. The writ of the City L.E.A. runs in the Parliamentary borough of Nottingham (population 270,000) ; that of the County L.E.A. in the whole of the rest of the County (population 472,000), including the satellite towns on the fringe of the City.

45. With the exception of the Evening Institutes and the social activities connected with them, the education authorities do not, on the whole, engage in the actual management of clubs or other organisations of young people. Their policy is to leave this work in the hands of voluntary bodies, while furnishing the bodies themselves with all the material support and assistance for which they care to ask and which can properly be supplied out of public educational funds. This support is remarkably varied and extensive.

46. The broad picture of the working arrangements of youth service is of a numerous and active group of voluntary organisations, many religious, some not, and others, again, linked with the Miners' Welfare Commission, the Fighting Services, and the Civil Defence Service. These organisations undertake to gather and to hold together the young people of both sexes whose leisure and welfare are to be catered for. Their work is done within the shelter afforded by two official pillars representing the two L.E.A.s and under an official roof representing the Ministry of Education. The voluntary bodies themselves are often, though not always, joined in federal associations on a regional and even a national basis. The accompanying sketch attempts to express these relations diagrammatically. (Fig. 4.)

47. The Ministry of Education acts as a central directing, co-ordinating, and stimulating agency. It makes grants to L.E.A.s for youth work (independently of the grants for elementary and secondary education), the present basis being, in effect, that the total grant may cover half the total approved net expenditure incurred by the L.E.A. The Ministry

may also make grants direct to voluntary organisations "for the provision or maintenance of facilities for social and physical training, including the payment of leaders, instructors and wardens, and the hiring and equipping of premises, for the training of leaders, and for incidental expenses of organisation and administration." The Ministry further arranges courses of training for those engaged in youth service, and subsidises training courses arranged by local authorities, by universities, by the associations of boys' and girls' clubs, and by other bodies.

48. The L.E.A.s have devised special machinery for discharging the direct responsibility, placed on them by the Board of Education in 1939, for all young people in their areas between the ages of 14 and 20. First is the Youth Committee, which advises the Education Committee on all matters concerning youth welfare and acts as a co-ordinating body for the inspiration and general guidance of youth activities. In the case of the City L.E.A. the Youth Committee is a sub-committee of the Higher Education Committee ; in that of the County L.E.A. it is organisationally on the same level as the Higher Education Committee. In both cases members of the Youth Committee are appointed for their knowledge of and interest in youth, and not as representatives of particular organisations or localities.

49. Affiliated to their respective Youth Committees are a number of Area Youth Committees (City), and Local Youth Committees (County) which submit periodical reports and statements of account to their parent committees, and serve partly to represent them in the localities and partly as a link between the general public and the local youth organisations. The Area or Local Youth Committees are in close contact with the management committees of the clubs, etc., in their districts, though, like the main Youth Committees, they do not directly organise youth activities themselves. The club management committees are not appointed or selected by the L.E.A. or its subordinate organs ; but financial assistance from public funds would not be given to a club of whose management committee (or of whose aims and purposes) the L.E.A. had reason to disapprove.*

50. Such is the chain of official responsibility, as it runs down from the Ministry of Education at the centre, through the L.E.A.s and the Area Youth Committees, till it establishes touch with individual clubs at the circumference,—clubs for whose day-to-day management there is, however, no official responsibility and whose voluntary character and essential independence are not impaired by the acceptance of grant-aid from

* Mention may also be made here of the Youth Councils. These have been set up in certain areas by the local Youth Committees. They consist of representatives of the young people themselves from various organisations. Their purpose is to make the voice of youth heard. They have no direct share in administrative responsibility. But they are instrumental in bringing about a useful liaison, for members of the Youth Committees are frequently invited to attend their meetings, and thus acquire first-hand knowledge of how young people's minds are moving. They form perhaps the embryo of self-government in the service of youth.

public funds. None the less, it is inevitable that, where a great part of the resources of a club are drawn from public authorities, there should be a tendency towards some measure of public supervision. Both L.E.A.s reserve the right to ask for a report from any club which they assist financially.

51. The County L.E.A. requires that where grants of £50 or more are made, the receiving organisation should submit quarterly reports, giving a record of activities and attendance, and, in the case of grants for salaries, a diary of the work done by the leaders concerned.

52. The corresponding requirements of the City L.E.A. are : (a) that units receiving help by provision of instructors or leaders, or of equipment to the extent of £20 per annum or more, should supply weekly returns of attendances, and (b) that units having use of premises only, should supply monthly returns of attendances. In each case units are asked to keep in the club a register of attendances.

53. How varied and thorough is the assistance open to the voluntary bodies from the L.E.A.s can be understood from the following list of the County L.E.A.s undertakings in respect of youth work. The list is illustrative rather than exhaustive.

- (a) As members of the staff of its Education Department it employs two full-time Youth Organisers and a Drama Adviser. The appointment of an additional organiser specially concerned with the development of Young Farmers' Clubs has been approved. It also pays the salary of the Secretary of the Nottinghamshire Rural Community Council, the salaries of two full-time rural Youth Organisers seconded for work with the Council, and the salary of the Nottinghamshire County Secretary of the National Association of Girls' and Mixed Clubs.
- (b) In approved cases it pays, in whole or in part, the salaries of club leaders, assistants, specialist instructors, pianists, etc.
- (c) It offers the free use—(1) of school premises and playing-fields ;
(2) of camping sites, tentage, and other camp equipment.
- (d) It offers free tuition for club, etc., members in its Evening Institutes, and provides classes within the clubs, etc., in almost any subject for which there is a reasonable demand.
- (e) It makes grants towards the cost of :—
 - (1) hire of premises ;
 - (2) furniture, apparatus, and equipment ;
 - (3) heating and lighting of premises ;
 - (4) black-out of premises ;
 - (5) administrative expenses of Local Youth Committees and voluntary organisations ;
 - (6) attendance at training courses for leaders.

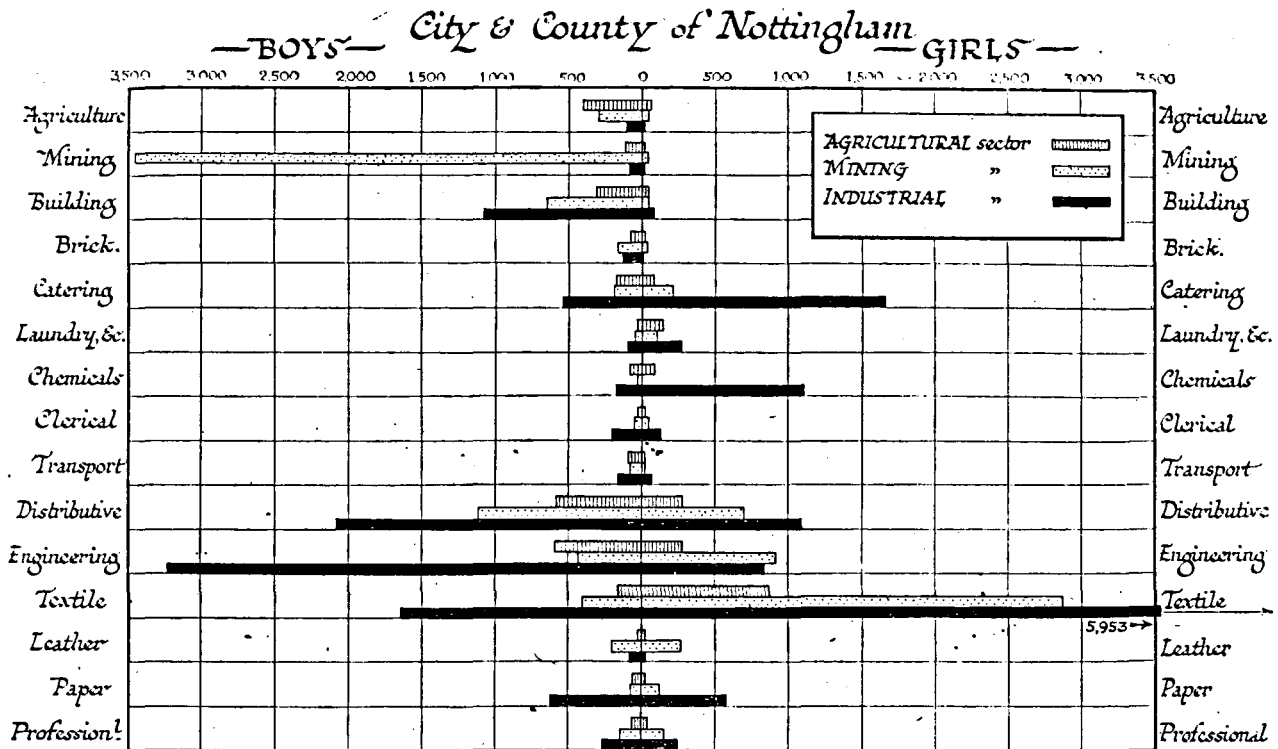


Fig. 3. OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF INSURED JUVENILES (14—18 YEARS).

Ministry of Labour figures revised to June 26, 1944	}	Agricultural Sector ..	Boys. 2,622	Girls. 1,884	Total. 4,506
		Mining Sector ..	7,301	5,435	12,736
		Industrial Sector ..	10,304	12,071	22,375
		Total ..	<u>20,227</u>	<u>19,390</u>	<u>39,617</u>

(f) It further provides :—

- (1) canteen facilities through the Local Food Office ;
- (2) swimming facilities through the Baths Committee ;
- (3) games centres, covering cricket, football, and general athletics under specialist coaches ;
- (4) training courses, conferences, and rallies ;
- (5) an extensive service of County Library books to clubs ;
- (6) a panel of voluntary speakers (L.E.A. paying travelling expenses) ;
- (7) a picture-circulating scheme for youth groups ;
- (8) facilities for acquiring indoor and outdoor games equipment, physical training footwear, and materials for handicrafts.

54. The above list relates to the County L.E.A. The undertakings or the City L.E.A. are similar in kind and extent. Besides the assistance on offer from official authorities, voluntary organisations may also receive grants " towards initial or additional equipment of a permanent nature " from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust.* Carnegie grants are not given for maintenance or replacement of equipment, or in respect of premises. The Trust is precluded by its Charter from aiding pre-service organisations.

55. The present survey does not cover the entire range of activities of the several pre-service organisations, but only their " open cadet units,"—that is to say, units which are not attached to particular schools or restricted in their recruitment to the pupils of particular schools. Such open pre-service units are eligible for assistance from the Ministry of Education and from the appropriate L.E.A. in the same way as any other voluntary organisation of young people. They also receive grants from the appropriate Defence Ministry in respect of service training and service equipment.

56. The provision of an open unit is thus a markedly composite affair. Practice is not, of course, uniform everywhere. But typically a unit will be found using school buildings and school grounds for training parades and for social activities, and often it will have to share such premises and grounds with other organisations. It will look to the L.E.A. also for :—

- (a) facilities for technical classes in Evening Institutes ;
- (b) supply of equipment for physical training, sports, and games ;
- (c) supply of furniture and equipment for social and recreational activities ;
- (d) supply of instructors in special subjects.

* There has recently been a change of policy in this respect, and " The Trustees will cease to aid the provision of equipment for local Youth Clubs as from March 31, 1945."

In practice, the assistance received from all official sources is said to cover about half the total cost of administering a unit. The other half, and, in the case of individual units, sometimes more, is raised by voluntary effort. This is done partly on a local basis with the help of committees of prominent local people, and partly on a national basis through agencies such as the British National Cadet Association, the Navy League, and the Air League of the British Empire.

57. Two important unofficial, or semi-official, auxiliaries to the administration of the youth service in the City of Nottingham have been set up during the War. One is the Nottingham Standing Conference of Youth Organisations, founded in the summer of 1942. The other is the Nottingham Christian Advisory Committee for Youth, founded in the summer of 1941. Both receive an annual grant from the City L.E.A.

58. The Standing Conference consists of two representatives from each of the main youth organisations at work in the City. It holds a general meeting once a month, and committees meet for particular purposes at other times. Its main functions are : (a) to act as a mouthpiece of the voluntary organisations as a whole in discussions and negotiations with the City Youth Committee ; (b) to eliminate overlapping, friction, and harmful rivalry between the organisations themselves ; and (c) to form a central clearing-house of information about new experiments and extensions of work which the various organisations may undertake. Nottingham is enviably known for the harmony of the relations between the many agencies engaged in youth service. Though that reputation dates from long before 1942, there can be little question but that the reciprocal interest and friendly understanding of these agencies has been furthered by the Conference.

59. A similar Standing Conference for the County exists in name. But the war time difficulties of bringing its members together from over the whole county area are great, and, in fact, the Conference has not met for some while. The co-ordinating function which it might in other circumstances have fulfilled is being left to the Local Youth Committees formed under the ægis of the L.E.A.

60. The Christian Advisory Committee, which also meets monthly, is drawn from the Church of England and the Free Churches. It aims at directing special attention to the spiritual welfare of young people, and at working out schemes for the practice of religion in youth clubs, etc. It arranges quarterly conferences of youth leaders and clergy and ministers for the strengthening and refreshing of leaders in their work. It has also gathered together a panel of speakers on religious subjects and prepared a syllabus of religious instruction for use in youth organisations.

Chapter 2

Youth Service

Provision :

Its Extent

61. Up to the outbreak of the war the service of youth in our region was, in effect, the preserve of purely unofficial voluntary bodies. Some official backing there was; but it amounted to little. The policy of the L.E.A.'s was to allow the free use of school premises to approved youth groups and to provide instructors in various subjects—especially in Physical Training. In the year 1939–40 the City L.E.A. made grants under these heads to the amount of £500. Expenditure by the County L.E.A. began with £300, in 1940–41.

62. The issue by the Board of Education of Circular 1486 (“ The Service of Youth ”) on November 27, 1939, was the signal for a systematic effort to apply official machinery to the expansion of the service. Youth Committees were formed in each area, and area needs surveyed. Gradually the formation of new clubs and units began, and with it a flocking of young people into the fold. As Fig. 5 shows, in Nottingham the process rose to a peak in 1942. Of 200 clubs and units registered with the City L.E.A., in 1944–45, about one-quarter had been in existence before the war. The pre-war quarter was made up of units of the Boys' Brigade, the Boy Scouts, and the Girl Guides, together with a few non-denominational Lads' Clubs. There was also some work being done by the denominations which would nowadays be classed as youth work; it was mainly subsidiary to the effort to keep a Sunday School population together.

63. A preliminary survey undertaken by the City L.E.A. during 1940–41 suggested that about one-third of the boys and girls between 14 and 18 years of age were members of some youth organisation or another. By July 31, 1942, the total membership of all youth organisations in the city comprised 48 per cent. of the 14–18 age group; it included 4,589 boys and 2,882 girls; or 7,471 persons in all. The corresponding percentage at July 31, 1944, was 61, covering 5,490 boys and 4,265 girls; or 9,755 persons in all. To a questionnaire sent out in connection with the present survey, replies were received covering 170 city clubs and units.⁽⁷⁾ These claimed a total membership of 8,155 at October, 1944. It consisted of 3,973 members of boys' clubs and units; 2,431 members of girls' clubs and units; and 1,751 members of mixed clubs. This total, representing 54 per cent. of the age-group, is lower than that just given for the previous July. The difference is accounted for by the fact that 30 groups did not reply to the questionnaire; it does not measure a real decline in over-all membership.

64. The above picture corresponds fairly well with information brought to light when the 16-year-olds registered under the Registration of Boys and Girls Order, 1941. In the 12 months ended August 31, 1944, there were registered in the City 1,923 boys and 1,974 girls; 59 per cent. of the boys, and 41 per cent. of the girls claimed to be engaged in “ approved ” leisure activity at the time of registration. By approved activity is meant full-time education, or membership of a recognised youth organisation, or attendance at Evening Institute Classes.

65. Interviews at registration carried out by the County L.E.A. afford similar evidence. Before the war some 10 to 15 per cent. of the 14-18 age group in the County area were estimated to be members of youth organisations. When registration began, in the Spring of 1942, 46 per cent. of the boys and 17 per cent. of the girls were attached to some youth organisation or educational establishment, the fourfold increase on the boys' side being due mainly to enrolment in pre-service units. These figures have been gradually raised until by October, 1944, they reached 52 per cent. for boys and 46 per cent. for girls. Evidently a determined effort has been made to organise the girls. There are now said to be something like 700 registered youth groups in the whole County area, with an aggregate membership that fluctuates seasonally on either side of the 13,000 mark. The figure of 13,000 relates to separate individuals, and does not count more than once persons who are members of more than one group.

Tricky Counting

66. Much that is arbitrary is bound to be involved in these enumerations. It would, for instance, be a mistake to suppose from what has just been said that the youth service under the County L.E.A. is broken up into 700 distinct and self-contained units, with an average membership of under 20 persons. It frequently happens that several groups will together make up a single organisation. An Army Cadet Force unit will, let us say, be formed inside a Y.M.C.A. youth section or a company of the Boys' Brigade. A Girls' Friendly Society group or a company of Guides will be set up, it may be, as part of the total activity of an Anglican Youth Fellowship. To take a concrete example, the Westfield Folk House at Mansfield is properly reckoned as a unitary organisation; but it comprises, among its many and varied components, a Junior Boys' Club, a Ranger Company, a Guide Company, two Brownie packs, a St. John Nursing Division, a St. John Ambulance Cadet unit, and a company of the Girls' Training Corps. Whether one regards these companies and clubs as separate entities affiliated to one centre or as differentiated activities within a parent institution is to some extent a matter of taste.

67. A set-up of this kind is full of pitfalls for the investigator. Cases of overlapping membership are sometimes hard to detect, and even when they are detected, the extent of the overlap may still be hard to measure. It would be surprising indeed if errors of double-counting were completely avoided. On the other hand, the present survey confines itself to such clubs and units as are on the books of either the County or the City L.E.A. Any tendency to swell the totals by double-counting is therefore offset and perhaps outbalanced by the existence of unregistered groups which have been left out of the reckoning. Such omissions relate chiefly to Church groups, the smaller among which, particularly in rural areas, do not always register with the L.E.A. Consequently, the picture here drawn represents the youth work of the Church of England certainly, and perhaps also that of the Free Churches, at something less than its real effective strength. Thus no claim to precision or finality is made for it.

68. The broad outline, however, is clear and reliable enough. It can be said with assurance that among the 14-18 age-group in City and County alike 50 to 60 per cent. of the boys and 40 to 50 per cent. of the girls were, in October, 1944, attached to some youth group.*

The Financial Cost

69. The expansion of provision can be measured by increased expenditure as well as by increased membership. Fig. 6 shows the cost of the youth service to the education authorities since the war, how much has been spent in the County and the City respectively, and, broadly, what it has been spent on. This public spending, which now totals over £30,000 a year, does not, of course, cover all spendings on the service of youth. We may, perhaps, leave aside the training grants made by the defence ministries to the cadet organisations, since such grants form part of the cost of national defence rather than of youth service. But sums amounting in the aggregate to several thousand pounds are collected each year by the voluntary bodies as subscriptions and donations from well-wishers. It is probable that there has been some increase in such collections during the war, especially since cadet units, whose social activities (as distinct from training programmes) are, in the main, privately financed, have been able to tap sources of revenue not so responsive to appeals from non-uniformed organisations. If a complete tally were being made, we should also have to include grants to voluntary bodies from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust and King George's Jubilee Trust, together with any contributions to local groups from the national headquarters of the various youth organisations. For the purpose in hand, however, such detail is superfluous. It is enough to state that in our region at least the main share of the cost of the youth service is now borne by public funds.

70. On the other hand, it should be remembered that the youth service is not a spending service merely. Youth groups, particularly denominational ones, are sometimes themselves sources of net revenue to their parent bodies. One organisation, for example, in answering the question "Does a company make much demand on the funds of the church or school?" says: "No, the company should be self-supporting. Indeed, annual returns show that each year companies have contributed some hundreds of pounds to church and missionary causes." This phenomenon is not widespread, but its existence complicates the grant-making policy of the education authorities. A further way in which youth groups provide funds for uses other than their own is war savings. Saving clubs formed within youth groups in our region contributed well over £15,000 in the year ended March 31st, 1944.

* One important group not included in these percentages is the Youth Hostel Association. In the City and County it has a membership of some 1,500 between the ages of 14 and 20. But it seems unsafe to add this figure to the totals in view of the probability that a high proportion of Youth Hostellers are also members of other organisations in whose membership they will have been counted.

A Measure of Use

71. Figures of membership and expenditure give but a crude presentment of effective provision. Some measure is needed of the extent to which the provisions made are actually used. The first step towards constructing such a measure is to calculate the number of member-evenings purveyed. This is done by multiplying the average attendance per session by the number of sessions per week when the given club or unit is actively functioning. Thus a club which is open two nights a week and has an average attendance of 35 members purveys 70 member-evenings ($ME=70$). If we know the value of ME for any given club and its enrolled membership, we can calculate its use-rate (UR).

$UR = \frac{ME}{7m}$, where m stands for the number of registered members.

72. The highest value possible for $\frac{ME}{7m}$ is 1, since in that case the attendance is 100 per cent. of the enrolled membership on all seven nights of the week. No one, of course, supposes that it is either practicable or desirable to bring UR up to unity. But it is convenient to take unity as a theoretical limit, and to express each concrete case of UR as a fraction of it. Proceeding on this basis and using the questionnaire data, we find that 170 City youth groups with their total enrolled membership of 8,155 purvey 16,711 member-evenings a week. UR , therefore, has a mean value of .29 in their case. Among the individual clubs and units the spread of UR is from .09 at the bottom of the range to .83 at the top.⁽⁸⁾ Fig. 7 supplements this information by showing that most members of youth groups in Nottingham (the actual percentage is 58) attend group meetings less than twice a week.

73. The usefulness of the UR measure consists in its succinct expression of the relationship between three variables—enrolled membership, average attendance, and number of active sessions per week. It is a way, handy for certain purposes, of comparing different youth groups with one another, or one group with itself at different times. It would, indeed, be a blunder to imagine that when a series of youth groups have been arranged in order of UR , they have thereby been arranged in order of all-round merit. None the less, UR does within limits furnish a pointer to the effectiveness of a group. When UR comes within striking distance of unity, it is time to ask whether the social experience of the membership concerned ought not to be widened by putting more of their leisure to extra-club uses. When UR tapers off towards zero, the question arises whether the group affected would not do better to join forces with some other group or groups. In general, the measure will be of service in considering the pressing issue of the immediate future—whether further development should take the form of increasing the total membership of youth organisations, or that of stepping up their mean UR while keeping total membership constant at about the present level. Hitherto official

policy has tended to favour quantitative extension as against quantitative maintenance at a rising qualitative level. The youth service may now be passing out of the phase in which that policy was appropriate.

Has the Peak been reached ?

74. What, in any case, are the prospects of numerical increase, assuming that the optional basis of membership is to be retained ? It is not easy to tell what the over-all tendencies are. Seasonally membership rises and falls within wide limits. But at all times the actual significance of belonging to a youth group has its own wide variations. Different organisations differ in their practice as to the obligations of membership and as to the period of non-fulfilment necessary before membership is regarded as having lapsed. In some groups records of enrolment and attendance are not kept with precision. Statistically speaking, efficiency in office work is not the most salient virtue of the youth leader. On the whole, however, the indications seem to be that some kind of numerical peak, relative to the existing foundations and working conditions of the service, is being or has been reached. Wastage is fairly high, but losses are still offset or a little more than offset by new intake. Apart from seasonal ups and downs, most organisations are pretty steady in numbers, with still a slight tendency for the general aggregate to rise. Only two organisations show a serious drop in membership. They are the very ones whose popularity at an earlier stage of the war was highest—the Air Training Corps and the Girls' Training Corps.

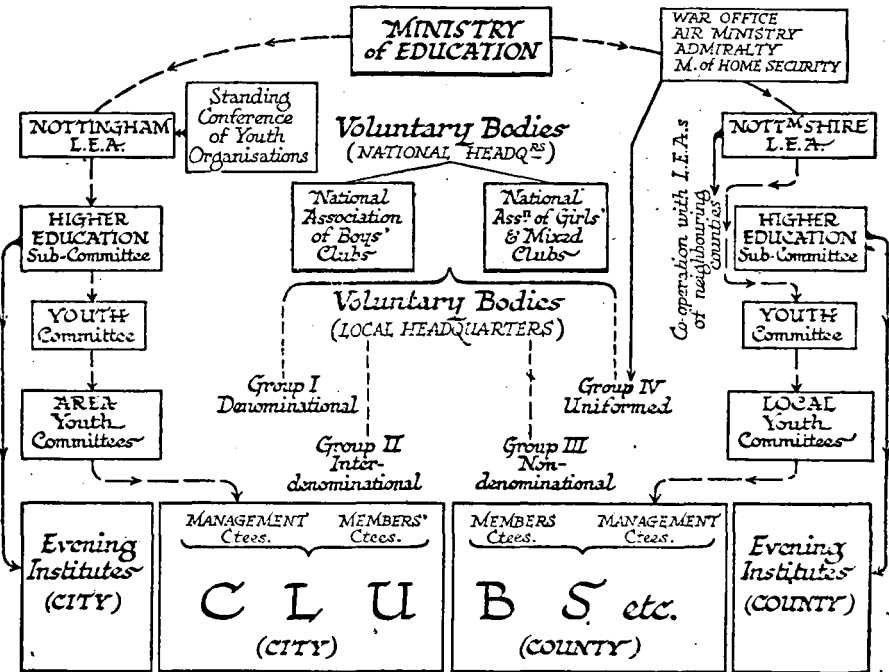


Fig. 4. Youth Service Provision: The Administrative Framework.

75. Exact measurement of this falling trend has been made for the County squadrons of the A.T.C. Their peak strength was reached in the Summer of 1942, when there were 24 squadrons with a strength of 2,400. There has been a continuous decline since the Spring of 1943, and it has been accentuated since membership of the A.T.C. ceased to carry with it a guarantee of entry to the R.A.F. By the end of October, 1944, the County squadrons had been reduced to 15, and their strength to approximately 1,200. In the single quarter from August 1 to October 31, 1944, they showed a net loss of over one-fifth. Recruitment was equal to a mere quarter of the gross loss⁽⁹⁾. Were the trend to continue at the same rate, the A.T.C. would cease to exist in the county before the end of 1945. The experience of the City A.T.C. squadrons has not been dissimilar. And the position of the Girls' Training Corps, both in the County and, to a less extent, in the City, is causing the same anxiety for the same kind of reasons.

76. If these signs of decline were to spread to all uniformed organisations whose activities have a special war-complexion, the outlook would be somewhat serious, since the expansion of such units during the last three or four years represents a high proportion of the total war-time expansion of the youth service. The membership of all city youth groups is reckoned to have increased by some 3,500 since 1940; and approximately five-sevenths of the increase is concentrated in uniformed organisations with a war-appeal. If such organisations are going to suffer a general fading of prestige and drawing-power, the service of youth will be obliged to undertake a considerable regrouping of its forces.

Outdoor Provision

77. A detailed statement, which sets out the playing fields facilities in City and County and which cannot well be summarised here, is included in the Appendix⁽¹⁰⁾. There is a perennial shortage of playing space with adequate layout and equipment. This remains true in spite of the efforts, fairly well sustained over the dozen years preceding the war, of the local authorities and the Nottinghamshire Playing Fields Association in respect of public sports grounds; of the Miners' Welfare Commission in respect of grounds for the mining population; and of a number of industrial firms in respect of grounds for their employees. In this period, the P.F.A., for example, assisted in the acquisition of a further 430 acres of grounds at a cost of £50,000, made up of contributions from the Treasury under the Physical Training and Recreation Act, 1937; from the Carnegie Trust; and from King George's Jubilee Trust; as well as from the P.F.A. itself. But there is still much congestion on the available fields—congestion reflected in a tendency for adult teams to secure preferential treatment over juvenile teams, and boys' teams over girls'.

78. On the fields which they control the local authorities do what they can to ensure that all claimants get a square deal. Registered youth groups are allowed to use pitches and other facilities in the public parks

at half the normal rates. The L.E.A.s draw up games schemes for boys and games schemes for girls. In the city the scheme for boys is spread over eight playing-fields capable of absorbing 1,500 to 2,000 youths ; at these fields fully-qualified specialist coaches are in charge of the various activities, such as cricket, football, athletics, and pre-service training⁽¹¹⁾. For the girls also certain fields are earmarked, on the principle that each club or unit should, as far as possible, have one period a week for a games session. The girls attend not as unattached individuals, but as groups of members of recognised organisations. The L.E.A. provides equipment, etc., for netball, stoolball, rounders, and in some cases, tennis. There is alternative indoor accommodation in case of wet weather. An experienced Physical Training teacher is in charge of each field, assisted by other P.T. staff and volunteer-trainees from courses organised by the Central Council for Recreative Physical Training. The County L.E.A. operates similar schemes in which 13 games centres are provided for members of youth organisations. In 1944, the attendance per centre at each opening averaged about 75.

79. Such arrangements are admirable as far as they go. Nevertheless, there is a widespread feeling—shared often by club leaders themselves—that the young people, especially the girls, do not take as much open-air exercise as would be good for them. The critics charge the clubs with being “too indoor-minded.” There is little doubt that the main ground of this condition is the difficulty of securing the use of proper playing fields at convenient times.

80. The L.E.A.s also provide and maintain several camps and a hostel, intended mainly for young people between 14 and 20. The County L.E.A. has three camping sites—one at Staunton Hall, another at Walesby, and a third—(shared with the Derbyshire Education Committee)—at Overton Park. Each accommodates about 60 campers. The City L.E.A. has a hostel at Whatton-in-the-Vale, consisting of a house, garden, and paddock, together with camping equipment. It has proved very popular among members of youth organisations and has been in constant use. In the year ended July 31, 1944, 228 boys and 737 girls spent a week-end or longer at the hostel. No charge is made for the use of site, accommodation, and equipment, but visiting organisations are responsible for their own catering and transport. At Overton Park, which may be taken as generally typical of the camps, the permanent camp buildings consist of (a) a large dining and recreation hut, with kitchen ; (b) a bath house, with showers and baths and hot and cold water ; (c) a hut with 6 w.c.s. The campers sleep in bell tents erected on concrete bases over which movable wooden floors are placed. Each camper is issued with a waterproof ground sheet, straw mattress, calico sleeping-bag, and at least three blankets. Cooking is done by a paid cook and assistant. All other duties devolve on the campers. Indoor games are provided, and a piano and radio set are installed. Out-of-doors is a playing field for football, cricket, netball, etc.

81. The total facilities for adventurous open-air holidays in pleasant country surroundings are greatly enhanced by the provisions made under the auspices of the Youth Hostels Association. The Nottinghamshire Sub-regional Group of the Association is an energetic body with a rapidly increasing membership which had reached 2,789 by October 1944. The group works in active alliance with the Nottinghamshire Council of Outdoor Organisations, which interests itself in many matters affecting catering, camping, and the preservation of the countryside. The number of Youth Hostels open is steadily rising. At the end of 1944 there were six within a radius of 30 miles of Nottingham, a further ten within a 30-40 mile radius, and 14 more within a 40-60 mile radius. A feature of the Nottinghamshire Sub-region is that members, in addition to meeting in the hostels on their rambling holidays, tend to develop a club life of their own in the towns where they reside. Town groups have sprung up in Mansfield and Worksop, as well as in Nottingham. These town groups take part in the administration of hostel business, besides providing social activities and comradeship for local members. Each town group has its own programme of activities, including club nights, talks, shows, and week-end excursions.

THE QUESTION OF ADEQUACY

82. Such, in its main features, is the extent of the provision for the service of youth in our region. Is it to be regarded as deficient, or as adequate, or as excessive, or as now one and now another, according to the aspect in which it is viewed? Such questions are not made any easier to answer by the circumstance that there is no agreed measure of adequacy. Youth service differs from schooling in this as in so many other ways; it is impossible to reduce essential provision to a simple numerical statement. One cannot say that a club-place is needed for all young persons between specified ages, or that so many club-evenings a week must be provided for them. Adequacy in the service of youth has to be judged not by reference to some ideal standard of completeness, but by reference to such things as the composition of the adolescent age-group, present and prospective, to any foreseeable variations in the net leisure time of adolescents, and to the observable effects of youth work on adolescent behaviour and attitudes.

83. First of all, then, is the existing provision excessive? This is not quite the idle speculation it may appear. In our region it is not uncommon to hear youth workers speak of a danger that the service may become over-organised. Young people, it is sometimes said, have not enough evenings to go round if they are to attempt everything their leaders propose for them. Long hours of work, abnormal conditions in the home, and, in the case of girls especially, exacting domestic duties are still often given by young people outside the youth service as reasons why they cannot join, and by young people inside it as reasons why they cannot put in more club-attendances. The Youth Advisory Council itself remarks that the leisure hours of many young workers are now so

few "that at first sight the whole paraphernalia of the youth service seems irrelevant and perhaps undesirable."* Another widely representative committee makes the similar comment that "many young people are so occupied with the claims and interests of their pre-service unit or youth club, in addition to their ordinary amusements and recreations (pictures, dancing, hiking, and the various kinds of sport) that they have practically none of their leisure time left to be spent quietly at home."†

Probable Increase in Total Leisure

84. If, however, there is at the moment some over-provision relatively to disposable juvenile leisure, that is chiefly due to conditions peculiar to war-time, and to the fact that the pattern of provision and the pattern of leisure are not well matched. (See Chapter 3.) On a long-term view few signs of excess are visible. First, the size of the adolescent age-group in our region is not likely to change significantly over the next dozen years. The number of children born in the four years 1940-43 was only $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. smaller than the number born in the four years 1927-30. As the survivors of the latter make up the 14-18 age-group in 1944, so the survivors of the former will make up the 14-18 age-group in 1957. The difference of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is not in any case important for the planning of provision, and there is a chance that it may be partially or wholly cancelled by improved conditions of health and standards of living among the lowest-income groups in the decade following the war. We may take it that 12 years hence there will still be plenty of juveniles available to make use of a youth service provision at least as comprehensive as the present.

85. Second, net leisure time per head appears likely to increase. At the end of 1944 the 14-16 age-group in our region was, on the average, working a 47-hour week, and the 16-18 group a 50-hour week. It is safe to assume that these working hours will quickly drop to 44 and 48 respectively on the cessation of hostilities, and the broad peace-time trend may well be towards a 40-hour week for all juveniles. With the raising of the school leaving age to 15, some 20 per cent. more adolescents will be working a 28-hour week in school, and correspondingly fewer will be working a 40-odd hour week in industry. If the Youth Advisory Council have their way, adolescent employees will have a minimum annual holiday of 24 working days.‡ And it is perhaps not over-sanguine to hope that better town and country planning and improved passenger transport may tend to reclaim for leisure some of the hours at present wasted in travelling to and from work. On all these grounds the post-war market for youth service should be an expanding one, if indeed it is proper to measure demand by net disposable leisure.

* Board of Education : The Youth Service After the War, 1943, para. 37.

† Yorkshire Council for Further Education : A Policy for the Service of Youth, 1945, para. 29.

‡ The Youth Service After the War, para. 37.

The Unattached Group

86. Demand for youth service amenities must be related in some way to amount of juvenile leisure. But it cannot, of course, be assumed that every quantitative increase in leisure time will be reflected in an increase of effective demand. There is always the problem of the indifferent boy or girl; and youth organisations vary widely in their ability to interest and hold new members. Particularly relevant here is the evidence from the follow-up of registration interviews. The technique of this follow-up plays powerfully on the suggestibility of the "unattached" 16-year-olds with a view to roping them into clubs or pre-service units. It involves much laborious effort on the part of the interviewing panels and the staffs of the Education Offices,—effort with which the additional recruitment actually secured seems incommensurate. To illustrate from the experience of the City L.E.A., in the first four months of 1944, 861 boys and 817 girls registered. Of the boys, 329 (or 38 per cent.) were invited for interview as being unattached to any youth group; the corresponding figure for the girls was 442 (or 54 per cent.). Only 77 of the 329 boys and only 43 of the 442 girls were eventually cajoled into accepting membership of a club or unit. This represents an additional, but seldom very durable, recruitment of 9 per cent. of the boys who registered, and 5 per cent. of the girls who registered.

87. The County L.E.A., whose experience has been very similar, sums up its conclusions as follows,¹ after discussions with many leaders of youth organisations :—

(i) A small number of boys and girls, probably not more than 10 per cent. of those interviewed, will join an organisation without any further encouragement.

(ii) Quite a large group of boys and girls are working too long hours or spending too much time on domestic duties to allow them to join any organisation, but are persuaded at their interviews to say that they will do so.

(iii) There are a few boys and girls who say that they will join without any intention of doing so.

(iv) A number of boys and girls who have joined organisations as a result of interviews have attended once or twice only.

(v) A number of boys and girls have opted for organisations which do not exist and which it has been impossible to bring into being, or for organisations which will not accept them as members.

88. One would infer from this evidence that juvenile demand for the amenities offered by the existing types of youth organisation is at or near saturation-point. Yet 40 per cent. of adolescents are still outside the shelter of the youth service. As long ago as the Summer of 1942, the County L.E.A. was reporting that of the 16 and 17-year-old boys who were interviewed after registration "few were interested in or anxious to

join a youth organisation ; most preferred the more generally recognised pre-service training offered by a junior service unit." To-day, while the popularity of some pre-service units shows signs of a decline which may extend to all when the war ends, there is not much counterbalancing rise in the popularity of the non-service youth organisations. The problem of the 40 per cent. may soon become the problem of the 50 or even 60 per cent., unless prompt means are found to take up the slack represented by the sagging pre-service membership.

The Need for New Experiments

89. In peace time, it may be, the same importance as in war will no longer be placed upon keeping the highest possible proportion of adolescents within the fold of the youth service. In any case, there seems to be a need for continuous and systematic experimentation in new forms of youth work and new kinds of organisation, based on a scientific analysis of the "unattached" group. Of the present composition of that group we know that it includes (a) most of the adolescent delinquents ; (b) the solitaries who, often for unexceptionable reasons, prefer their leisure unorganised ; (c) the rejects and discards of the existing organisations (most units, rightly in one sense, pride themselves on being selective) ; and (d) those who are working abnormally long hours in their jobs or at home. There must be others, too, as yet not properly classified.

90. Evidently no standardised appeal can expect to be equally successful with all of them ; though the guess may be hazarded that any successful appeal will always have to offer, no doubt in varying guises, two basic inducements—apprenticeship and social recognition. A widely acknowledged prestige, at least equal to that enjoyed by the Air Training Corps in 1942, will have to be attached to membership of youth organisations in general, and membership must be felt by the young people themselves to provide an effective initiation into some serious department of adult life.

What are the Effects of Youth Work ?

91. Sufficiency of provision cannot be estimated merely by the success of the youth service in evoking a demand from young people and in meeting it. Regard must also be had to the effects on the young people of their association with the service. Reliable evidence, whether of individuals or of statistics, is very scanty on what these effects are ; how permanent they are ; at what rate they are obliterated by extra-club experience ; and under what conditions that rate is speeded up or slowed down. Even assuming that club activities are well and truly aimed at their targets in the personality-development of young people, we are almost wholly ignorant of how much club-experience is necessary to produce a given result in a given person.

92. The need, it may be presumed, is for so much club-experience as will secure some workable transfer of club standards, attitudes, and aspirations to situations encountered outside the club. On this view, the art of

youth work would consist in manipulating experience within the club so as to help in the selection of favourable influences in as many other phases of experience as possible. How does a conception of this kind appear in the light of the use-rate values current among youth groups in our region? On general psychological grounds the expectation would be that two club-attendances a week are not enough to ensure a transfer of much durability, unless (a) they are repeated without interruptions over a long period; (b) club-experience is very condensed and highly charged with favourable emotion; (c) club-experience is consistently reinforced, and not countered, by extra-club experience. Whether such expectation holds in the conditions of the youth service to-day cannot be said with any confidence in the present state of our knowledge. There is an important field here for investigation and experiment.

93. Another method of measuring the effects of youth work would be to find a statistical correlation between, say, the number of member-evenings purveyed and the behaviour of juveniles in some specific field, such as delinquency or sex. But once again we know too little of the facts to draw any safe conclusion.

Sex Behaviour and Drinking

94. On the point of sex behaviour the most significant data would seem to be figures showing (a) the sales of contraceptives to young people, (b) the incidence of venereal disease among them, and (c) the incidence of illegitimate births among juvenile mothers. No information at all is available under heading (a). But the Medical Officer of Health for Nottingham states that venereal disease figures have soared so high during the war as to mask all relevant effects of social work among young people. There has been "a very great increase" also in the number of illegitimate births,* and the figures for juvenile mothers show a corresponding increase. Here again "any results of youth work would be completely stifled statistically by the huge general increase owing to war conditions." The Medical Officer of Health for the County, within whose area fall the satellite towns immediately adjacent to the City, notes that "the incidence of venereal disease in both sexes and at all ages has markedly increased in the area of the County which would be readily served by the Venereal Diseases Treatment Centre situated in the City of Nottingham."

95. There is, however, reason to think that the picture descriptive of Nottingham and its suburbs does not hold for the County in general. At the end of 1944 the County Medical Officer undertook an analysis of statistics at one of his Venereal Diseases Treatment Centres, with a view of ascertaining the effect of the six war years on the incidence of venereal disease in young persons. The population within reasonable

* In 1941 they were 34 per cent. above 1940; and in 1942 they were 53 per cent. above 1940. No public statement relating to years later than 1942 appears to have been made.

treatment-range of the Centre concerned is given as over 150,000 ; it lives beyond what one may call the gravitational field of the City of Nottingham, is mainly industrial and mining by occupation, and extends residentially over the border into Derbyshire. The analysis brought to light no evidence that venereal disease in the 14 to 20 age-group living in the area had significantly increased since the war.

96. For young males the figures were very small, only 24 cases in the whole six years (excluding congenital syphilis) ; and they showed no year-to-year increase. In young females there was a small increase, and the total of cases for the six-year period was larger than that for the boys ; but even so the total was no more than 116, which gives an average of less than 20 cases a year. Practically it may be said that, apart from congenital conditions, there is no venereal disease in males before the age of 16 ; among females 37 cases were diagnosed at the ages of 14 and 15.

New Youth Clubs and Units formed in the City of Nottingham

97. Some juvenile patients attend this clinic who upon examination are found *not* to be suffering from venereal conditions. Their number shows a marked annual rise over the six years. For boys the six-year total is again small, namely 85 ; but in 1939 there were 5 such cases, whereas in 1944 there were 25. For girls the six-year total was 136, and the annual figures show a progressive increase. From this it would appear that a steadily rising number of young persons are visiting the clinic for fear they may have contracted the disease. This fear may be grounded in some sexual experience of their own or in that of either of their parents. In both males and females the age-group showing the highest figure for seeking advice while not being infected is 14 years and under. The majority of such cases are children of parents who, being under treatment themselves, bring their young families forward for examination. Similarly the appearance of some of the adolescents at the clinic may be due to parental pressure.

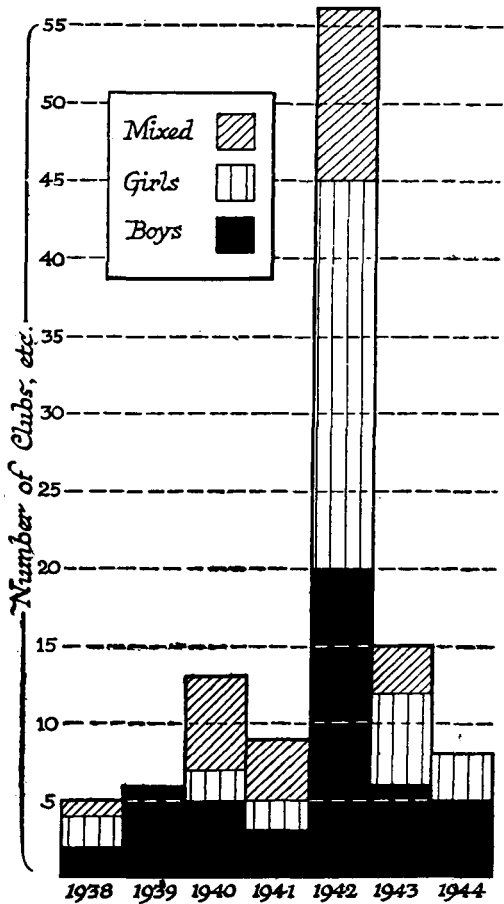


Fig. 5.

98. The County Medical Officer further examined a sample of 383 recent case papers of pregnant women admitted to maternity wards in the county area. From among these pregnancies there resulted 23 illegitimate births. In 17 cases the mothers were within the age-range 18 to 25, and in the remaining 6 cases, within the age-range 26 to 38.

99. These investigations, essential as they are for any understanding of the influence of war conditions on adolescent conduct, are remarkably unrevealing from the particular standpoint of the youth service. They appear to warrant only three tentative and even platitudinous conclusions:—

(i) Sex experience is in 1944 commoner among juveniles, especially girls, than it was before the war.

(ii) There has been an increase in venereal disease among juveniles, and in illegitimate births to juvenile mothers. The bulk of both increases appears in figures relating to the City of Nottingham and its immediate surroundings. This does not, however, necessarily imply that a similar proportion of the individuals affected are normally resident within the Greater Nottingham area.

(iii) There emerges no clue to any bearing of the club-experience of juveniles upon their sexual behaviour.

100. From time to time accounts appear in the Press of the drinking habits which many young people are said to have formed during the war. That adolescents spend more time than they used to on licensed premises is a matter of common observation, in industrial centres at least. Nottinghamshire is not exceptional in this respect. In the County areas, however, no juveniles have been prosecuted for drunkenness since the war began. In the City there were only four prosecutions of juveniles between January 1938 and December 1944,—one in 1940, two in 1943 (joint charges), and one in 1944. All these were girls. The police keep a sharper eye than they used to on the sale of liquor to juveniles, and it is customary for them to visit licensed premises once a week now, as against once a month before the war. The psychology of juvenile drinking is not disposed of—it is scarcely broached—by the mention of these few facts. But the facts tend to show that the practical problem has been kept within manageable limits. Again, we have no means of telling whether youth work has had any direct influence on the position.

Delinquency

101. There is a widespread belief that the youth service can act as a preventive of juvenile delinquency. Chief Constables and Probation Officers often speak of the need of organised leisure-time activities for children who show delinquent tendencies. It is the business of the police to catch the young delinquent, and of the Home Office to cure him. The Ministry of Education and the L.E.A.s appear to be the only statutory bodies with power to give constructive assistance in fore-

stalling his impulses to illegality. When we learn, on the authority of the Principal Probation Officer for the County, that less than 5 per cent. of delinquents are attached to social or religious organisations, it sounds as though we may at last have found a point at which the youth service is actually producing a measurable effect on juvenile behaviour.

102. In practice, however, delinquency, like sex and drink, fails to afford a good measure of the results of youth work. In the first place, we do not know how far young delinquents are such because they have not joined a club, or how far they are excluded from clubs because they have been in trouble with the police. In the absence of this knowledge we cannot claim club-membership as an eradicator of delinquent tendencies. Again, of all juvenile offences in our region nearly two-thirds are committed by youngsters under 14.* Apart from the cases of a handful of girls charged with shoplifting or sex misdemeanours, practically all offences committed by the 14-18 age-group are the work of boys, and, moreover, of boys in the most densely populated industrial areas.

103. The great bulk of non-indictable offences are committed at weekends, and comprise three chief categories: (1) offences under the Road Traffic Acts (*e.g.*, hanging on to the backs of lorries, riding two on one cycle, cycling after dark without lamp, etc.); (2) wilful damage (*e.g.*, stone-throwing and breaking trees when stealing fruit); (3) trespassing. Of the indictable offences well over 90 per cent. consist of breaking into premises and various kinds of stealing. Nor is the increase in criminality peculiar to juveniles. In the County in a representative year before the war 177 juveniles and 928 adults were arrested for indictable offences; the corresponding figures for 1943 were 493 and 2,974 respectively. Thus the increase for juveniles was 178 per cent., and for adults 220 per cent. In the City, adult arrests rose less steeply than juvenile arrests, but they rose—and by 57 per cent. between 1939 and 1941.⁽¹²⁾

104. To establish any functional link between youth work and a field of behaviour so mixed in its social aspects and so ill-defined in its psychological as delinquency, is not a hopeful project. It may be, indeed, that in no field will the results of youth work prove capable of satisfactory measurement, so long as they are viewed from the standpoint of prevention. We do the service of youth some injustice in treating it as a countervailing factor. We shall, perhaps, savour its real efficacy when we regard it as acting less to neutralise tendencies that are disapproved than to draw out, cultivate, and develop those that are valued. To understand these positive influences we shall have to pass beyond the consideration of youth service provision in its mere extent, and scrutinise its pattern and its quality.

* The term "juvenile" as used by the police in connection with indictable and non-indictable offences refers to persons over 8 and under 17 years of age. As used by the Ministry of Labour in connection with employment matters, and by the Ministry of Education in connection with the youth service, it refers to persons over 14 and under 18 years of age.

Chapter 3

Youth Service

Provision :

Its Pattern

105. The field of youth service has not yet been properly charted by the statistician. It is open to anybody, without let or hindrance or special licence, to start a youth group at any time in any place. There is no central point to which the formation of a group has to be reported. The consequence is that the L.E.A.s, who are responsible for the official side of the partnership between Government and club bodies, may for long remain unaware of the existence of groups actively at work in their areas. The period of unawareness naturally terminates in respect of any group which applies to its L.E.A. for financial or other assistance. But it is anomalous that at present such an application is the one certain means of bringing a group within the official ken.

106. In a compact space such as the City of Nottingham it is not difficult for the L.E.A. to keep itself informed of all the youth work going on, even when some of it is being done by bodies with which the L.E.A. has no official relations. For the County L.E.A. the matter presents greater difficulties, because of the wide geographical dispersion of the population with which it is concerned. In point of fact, a complicated process of formation of new groups and disintegration of old groups goes continuously forward in the County without the cognizance of the L.E.A., which is apt to be effectively in touch only with units receiving its recurrent assistance. In some ways this appears inconvenient. It is not suggested that L.E.A.s should exercise any power of veto over the formation of youth groups. But it would be in the public interest that when groups come into existence or pass out of it there should be official knowledge of what is happening. The need for a registrar of births and deaths of youth groups is genuine enough. Such vital statistics would be useful administratively and significant socially.

The Belief-Pattern

107. The present gaps in our knowledge make it as impossible to give a precise account of how youth service provision is patterned as it was to measure accurately its extent. But, having ventured to assume that there are in County and City together some 900 groups with an approximate membership of 24,000, we may offer an impressionist picture of their distribution among the several types of organisation, as in the following table (summarised from a fuller tabulation in the appendix) ⁽¹³⁾ :—

Type of Organisation.	No. of Units in County.	No. of Units in City.	Total.
Denominational	194	46	240
Inter-Denominational ..	18	8	26
Non-Denominational ..	146	47	193
Uniformed	342	99	441
• Total	700	200	900

108. This classification distinguishes two main types of organisation—the uniformed and the non-uniformed ; the latter being further subdivided according to what a sympathetic observer might call kinds of

religious interest, and an unsympathetic one degrees of sectarian exclusiveness. Logically it is a poor classification, because one organisation may qualify formally for two categories. The Boys' Brigade, for instance, and the Scouts, and the Guides are alike inter-denominational and uniformed ; the Church Lads' Brigade is both uniformed and denominational ; the units of the British Red Cross Society and St. John Ambulance Brigade are non-denominational, but uniformed. For the purpose of this report the distinction between wearing uniform and not wearing it is taken as primary ; the distinctions between shades of religious interest are taken as secondary. The primary distinction is material, not formal, and it is vindicated on psychological, not logical, grounds. These grounds are further discussed in paras. 156-158 below. Here it is enough to note that the aggregate of units is almost equally divided between uniformed and non-uniformed, and that this proportion holds both for County and for City. (In the City the *membership* of the uniformed organisations is 45 per cent. of the membership of all organisations.)

The Sex-Pattern

109. The distribution of youth clubs and units according to the sex-composition of their membership is shown as follows :—

Sex.	No. of Units in County.	No. of Units in City.	Total.
Boys	196	71	267
Girls	262	72	334
Mixed	242	57	299
Total	700	200	900

The chief comments to be made on the table, seen in the general context in which it has to be read, seem to be these :—

(i) The increase in the number of girls' clubs and units has been greater than in that of boys' clubs and units.

(ii) Since there are more girls' clubs and units, and since the total girl-membership is smaller, the average size of clubs and units for girls is smaller than for boys.

(iii) There has been a great increase in mixed clubs. The increase is practically confined to the non-uniformed organisations. The proportion of mixed clubs tends at present to be higher in the denominational category than in the non-denominational. It is a question how long this tendency will last. There are a number of organisations now in the field, among which mixed membership is a principle. Examples are the Co-operative Youth Clubs, the Young Farmers' Clubs, the Pioneer Clubs, and the Youth Hostels Association. Some youth organisers and Local Youth Committees are already advising that new clubs formed should be mixed, whenever possible.

(iv) Apart from the increase in mixed clubs, there has been a great increase in mixed activities in clubs which are nominally composed of one sex. The above table reveals nothing of this second increase. But the practice of forming "twin" clubs is becoming quite common, especially in the larger centres of population. A typical example of "twins" is where a group of boys and a group of girls, being separately organised, share the same premises; and where the premises are used by the boys alone on, say, Mondays and Wednesdays, by the girls alone on Tuesdays and Thursdays, and by both groups together for the remaining nights of the week.

(v) Mixed activities also take the form of "Guest Nights" in clubs and units whose membership is of one sex only, when members invite their friends of the opposite sex to join them for the evening in social and recreational diversions, such as dancing, dramatics, music, or debates.

110. The rapid spread of mixed clubs and mixed activities appears to be a necessary accompaniment of large-scale organised provision for the leisure of girls. For the older single-sex organisations it has not been easy to adjust themselves to this major change in the field of youth work. At first the Associations of Boys' Clubs, in particular, reacted to the development with perplexity not unmixed with distaste. But the adjustment, though hesitating, seems to have been made, and the National Association of Boys' Clubs will now affiliate mixed clubs, provided they make satisfactory provision for separate activities for boys. The National Association of Girls' Clubs, in whose eyes the new situation held fewer elements of the unwelcome, has been still readier to accept the affiliation of mixed clubs. It has also marked its sense of the permanence of the new developments by altering its own title, and is now known as the National Association of Girls' and Mixed Clubs.

The Time-Pattern

111. The striking feature of Fig. 8 is the great drop in the number of youth clubs and units in action at week-ends, compared with the active provision from Monday to Friday. The drop is equally characteristic of County and City. It is sharpest on Saturday, with a partial recovery on Sunday accounted for in the main by the Sunday morning parades of pre-service units.⁽¹⁴⁾ This pattern of provision, so far from matching the pattern of disposable leisure, is the very reverse of it. For while club provision is concentrated into the first five weekdays, disposable leisure is concentrated into Saturday and Sunday. If we reckon one unit of leisure per head per day from Monday to Friday, it would be reasonable to score $1\frac{1}{2}$ units per head for Saturday and 2 units per head for Sunday. The tendency is for the week-end concentration of leisure-time to become more marked. For example, the working hours of girls in certain big textile firms fell at the end of 1944 from $46\frac{1}{2}$ to 44 hours a week. At the same time, Saturday morning work was dropped. Hence the 44 hours now all go into the five days from Monday to Friday, days on which the 14-16 group do not leave the works until 6 p.m., and the 16-18 group do not leave until 6.35 p.m. By the time the girls have travelled home, washed and brushed up, and had a meal, to say nothing of a rest, there is not much of a possible club-evening left. Many clubs close at 9 p.m.

CITY & COUNTY of NOTTINGHAM — Youth Service Expenditure by Ministry of Education,
City L.E.A., and County L.E.A.

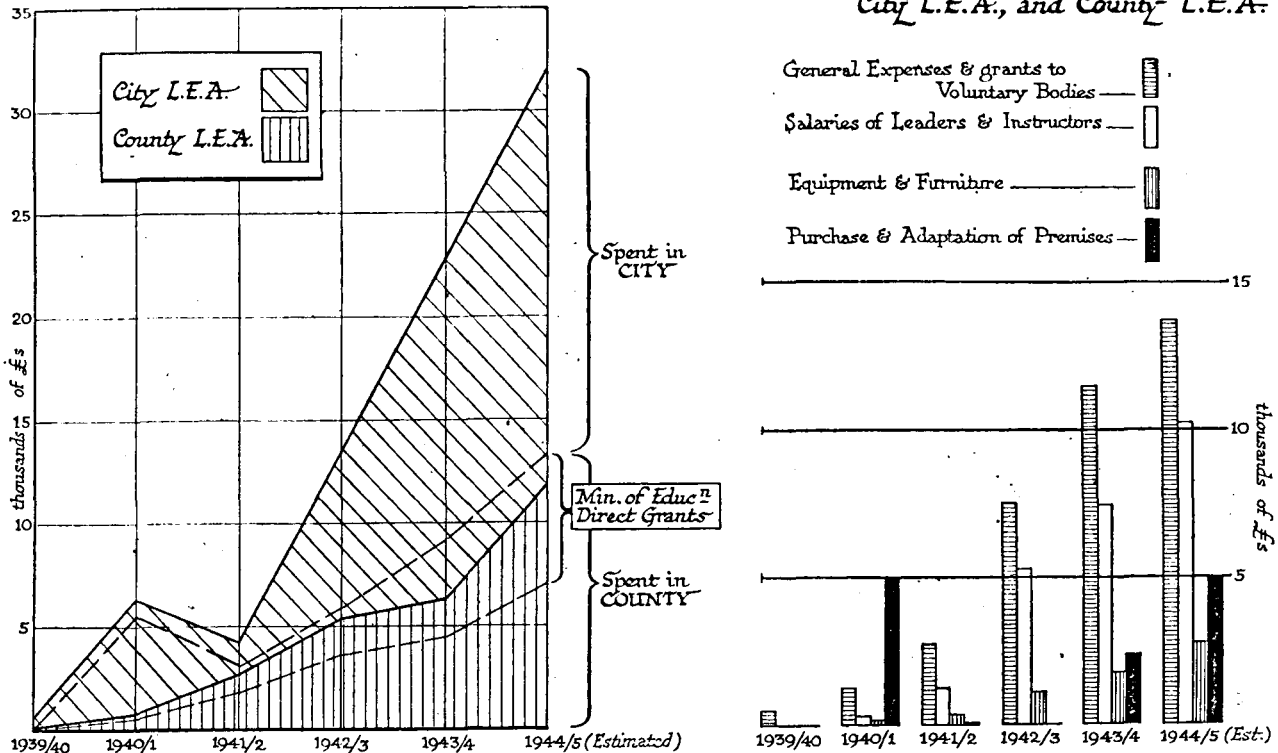


Fig. 6. N.B.—The figures given for the County L.E.A. include salaries of Leaders, but not of Instructors. In the County, unlike the City, the latter are not met from Youth Service funds, but from Higher Education funds.

112. At first sight it would appear that the youth service could be strengthened by a better dovetailing of club times with the net leisure of juveniles. Some experienced youth workers, however, deny this, insisting that there is no demand from young people for the opening of clubs at week-ends and that the clubs would be little frequented then if they were open. On the other side, there is the fact already noted in para. 103 that most of such juvenile behaviour as the law regards as delinquent takes place over the week-end. There is also the fact, familiar to all who have much contact with adolescents, that the week-end, particularly Sunday, is a time when young people feel themselves painfully exposed to the attacks of boredom. Both facts point to a need for some additional provision beyond what is at present available. The whole question will become more pressing in proportion as the pre-service units, many of which now parade on Sundays, lose membership and come to show a dwindling UR. It should not however be forgotten that Fig. 8 relates to the month of October. It is possible that there is a significant difference between winter and summer programmes in respect of week-end provision.

113. There is reason to think that, where adolescents living in our present cultural conditions are concerned, the problem of week-end leisure is sharply distinct from that of weekday leisure. The orthodox tradition of boys' clubs and girls' clubs has been built up in response to the demands of weekday leisure. It is possible that different techniques and different types of provision are required for dealing with the leisure at the week-ends. When James and Moore were investigating adolescent leisure in Manchester just before the war, they found that Saturday and Sunday separated themselves off from the rest of the week in being more completely given up to pleasure, especially in the afternoon and evening, and in being more "sexual" in character,—in other words, more devoted to mixed activities. This was especially true of employed adolescents, as distinct from adolescents still at school. From school-leaving age onwards there was for both sexes a rapid rise in the amount of leisure given at week-ends to talk and dancing, and a tapering off of all leisure activities other than talk and dancing. This tapering did not appear in the weekday records of either sex.*

114. In the district studied, the week-end was sacred to the cultivation of friendships and the sharing of diversions with the opposite sex, to the learning of new methods of address and the practising of new mutual adjustments. To have a girl friend or a boy friend is an acknowledged hall-mark of approaching maturity, and such attachments are highly valued, perhaps more for social than for sexual reasons, by adolescents conditioned to desire to seem as grown-up as possible. Thus leisure on Saturday and Sunday, besides being more abundant and more continuous than leisure during the week, is earmarked for activities that admit of pairing with the other sex. In the circumstances of the most

* See H. E. O. James and F. T. Moore : *Adolescent Leisure in a Working Class District*. (Occupational Psychology, vol. 18 (i), 1944.) "Talk" is described as "a comprehensive category covering various gregarious activities accompanied by or consisting chiefly of conversation. It includes walking or standing in a group in street, park, indoors, or in a doorway. It excludes purely incidental talking and talking that lasts only a brief time. It includes a great deal of 'sex' activity."

numerous of our social groups, dancing and talk are conspicuous among such activities. Activities less adaptable to "sex" purposes diminish. James and Moore found that on Sundays about 60 per cent. of gross leisure time was spent by boys on play and talk, * *i.e.*, between 6 and 7 hours. If one excludes time taken by meals, travel, household duties, and personal hygiene and adornment, as not representing "true" leisure activity, then play and talk in the case of boys absorbed some 90 per cent. of net leisure time. For girls over 16 the proportions were much the same; for those under 16 they were smaller, mainly owing to the claims of housework, which are harder for the younger girls to set aside. But the rule held for girls, as for boys, that when duties decrease, talk increases.

115. Findings derived from pre-war Manchester cannot be applied bodily to war-time Nottinghamshire. But it is probable that in both places and at both times the convention reigns among adolescents of reserving the week-end for their heterosexual interests. If so, it is easy to understand how Saturdays and Sundays register little demand for single-sex clubs. It is also easy to see that, if it is desired to extend youth service provision to cover week-end leisure, single-sex clubs are not the appropriate instruments of the extension. Any new week-end provision would have to take mixed activities of some kind as its foundation.

116. In the City the Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A. have worked out a successful method of catering jointly for mixed activities at week-ends, and there is scope for the further pairing of boys' clubs with girls' clubs for joint week-end meetings. It is widely agreed, too, that there is great need for more country houses, hutments, and camping sites in the neighbouring countryside which organised parties from the towns can use for open-air holidays at week-ends. Such accommodation should be open to mixed parties; or if that is thought too venturesome, the boys' accommodation and the girls' accommodation should be so located that boys and girls can freely share their time together. The Youth Hostels Association is doing invaluable work of this kind in its own sphere; but it does not cater primarily for large organised parties nor for parties who wish to stay several days in one place. There is room for a great growth of properly equipped permanent camping sites, and of provision such as that at Conery House, the small country house with garden and paddock, which the City L.E.A. has rented for three years for the use of youth organisations. (See para. 80.)

The Location-Pattern

117. Figs. 9 and 10 show in a rough fashion the territorial distribution of clubs and units in County and City respectively. The County diagram is not very informative, as it is impossible on the basis of the facts at present available to relate youth service provision to juvenile population in the several areas. The broad impression given is that in the towns

* The finding relates to a period when cinemas and dance halls were closed on Sundays.

provision is fairly complete, when judged from the standpoint of the location of clubs. In the rural districts, while there are admittedly some patches still unprovided for, the distribution is remarkably even and thorough, considering the inherent difficulties of organising a population so thinly spread over so wide a space. On the whole, it would appear that provision is weak in the mining villages, and particularly so for the girls in them.

118. We know from other sources that the youth service has met with many obstacles to its efforts to penetrate effectively into the mining areas. On the admission of the Youth Officer of the Miners' Welfare Commission adolescents have been neglected, in comparison with the very young and the aged. Attempts have been made to extend youth work among the mining population by means of a tripartite alliance between the L.E.A., the Miners' Welfare Commission and the Nottinghamshire Associations of Boys' Clubs and of Girls' and Mixed Clubs. This alliance has some successes to its credit, but it would be idle to pretend that it has achieved all that might have been hoped.

119. The kind of troubles that arise and the ways in which they are dealt with may be illustrated by some extracts from a report prepared by the Nottinghamshire Association of Girls' and Mixed Clubs :—

Township A.—A girls' club was formed here in March 1941. It met in the Miners' Welfare Hall and had an average attendance of 25 to 30. During the summer of 1941 the Hall was taken over by the military, and the club had to move to the Skittle Alley. Since then, the attendance has steadily declined and is now under double figures.

The club leader reports her main problems as follows :—

- (a) The nature of the premises and their position in the town.
- (b) The difficulties of sharing premises with a boys' club.
- (c) Lack of co-operation from the local Miners' Welfare Committee.

It was stated that the only committee meeting regularly was the Finance Sub-Committee, and this was mainly concerned with the profits from the bar and from dances run in the Miners' Welfare Hall.

The leader recommends (i) better accommodation, separate from the boys' club, and near the centre of the town, not at the colliery end ; (ii) a club management committee not responsible to the local Miners' Welfare Committee.

Village B.—The girls' club premises are not ideal, but the splendid co-operation of the Colliery Company has made it possible to overcome almost all difficulties. An excellent club spirit exists at this club. The average attendance is 30 to 35. The club leader reports that both here and in *Village C* she finds opposition to the Miners' Welfare. The people say the colliery tends to interfere. There is a cleavage between the old and the new village, and difficulty and misunderstanding exist with other organisations.

Village D.—Very good co-operation here, and consequently few difficulties. Colliery Company very helpful; also the Women's Institute. Good premises. Average attendance 18 to 20.

120. The report summarises the difficulties of youth work in mining areas in this way: (i) premises, (ii) lack of interest and, in some cases, opposition locally, (iii) lack of understanding owing to inadequate preparation of the ground when the work was first started. And it asks three questions:

- (a) whether the Miners' Welfare are really interested in girls' clubs and genuinely want to go ahead with them in the same way as with boys' clubs?
- (b) whether they would be prepared to grant-aid the Nottinghamshire Association of Girls' and Mixed Clubs, in order that the work among girls might be left in the Association's hands?; and
- (c) if not, whether they would grant-aid local committees?

121. In such a situation as is here disclosed, it would seem that new experiments by new agencies might produce a beneficial effect. It may be, for example, that there is an opening for Young Farmers' Clubs, based on the flourishing smallholders' and gardeners' movements among the mining people, and adapted judiciously to the special character of their social life.

122. The City diagram (Fig. 10) indicates a good general correspondence between club provision and population density. In the early days of the war the L.E.A. laboured to frame a location policy by means of local surveys carried out by the Area Youth Committees. At that time apprehension must often have been felt lest the new clubs should tend to spring up at the points where well-intentioned persons offered themselves for the running of them, rather than at the points determined by the requirements of the juvenile population. In the event, the marriage between voluntary effort and area needs appears to have been suitably arranged. It seems now to be agreed that the problem of the 40 per cent. of adolescents still outside the youth service is not primarily a problem of the siting of new clubs or the re-siting of old ones. It is primarily a problem of increasing the membership and the use-rate of existing clubs in their present locations. But "present locations" do not mean "existing premises in their present condition."

* The corresponding curve for the County is unfortunately not available, the questionnaire data being too incomplete in respect of County clubs and units. This applies equally to County data relating to attendance and activities. (See paras. 125—128.)

The Membership-Pattern

123. If we plot a distribution-curve of the City* clubs and units according to the size of their enrolled membership (as in Fig. 11), we find (a) that the smallest clubs and units have a single-figure membership, while in the largest membership rises to about 200 ; (b) that there is a marked tendency for clubs and units to bunch together towards the lower end of the range. Nearly two-thirds of them show a membership of less than 50 ; on the other hand, only 15 have one of more than 90. The modal membership figure is 20-30, there being a cluster of as many as 50 clubs and units at this point in the range.

124. The picture presented by Fig. 11 is a little out of the true, because the data on which it is based relate to the 14-20 age-group. It therefore does not show the part of any unit's membership which is under 14 years of age. In the case of the Boys' Brigade, for instance, which accepts members between the ages of 12 and 18, this entails the recording of their companies as smaller than they actually are. The Boy Scouts, whose age-limits are 11-17, are similarly affected ; so, too, are the Girl Guides. The general effect is a slight squeezing of the whole diagram towards the bottom end of the range. But when full allowance has been made for such distortion, the fact remains that mean membership and modal membership are both surprisingly small. It is also remarkable that, in relation to the grouping as a whole, a club with more than 100 members must be regarded as a "giant." All this raises sharply a difficult question to which further reference is made in para. 148—the question of what is the optimum size for a club.

The Attendance-Pattern

125. Distribution by size of average attendance gives, in the case of the City clubs and units, a curve of the same general shape as the curve of distribution by size of enrolled membership. The main difference is that the range, as would be expected, is much narrower (Fig. 11). The highest average attendance, in fact, lies between 80 and 90 members. The most striking feature of the distribution is the great number of clubs and units having average attendances of between 10 and 20 members. Again there is no doubt some distortion, since units with an under-14 membership do not score it here : their normal sessions are better attended than this diagram shows. But the diagram reflects as faithfully as may be the average attendance of members aged from 14 to 20. And it brings forcibly before the mind how small the group meetings tend to be.

126. The pattern of attendance can be studied from a second angle—that of the frequency with which individual members attend the sessions of their clubs and units. Fig. 12 exhibits the grouping (under the headings A, B and C) of the members of the City clubs and units in respect of such frequency. (See also Fig. 7.) It will be seen that some three-fifths of the young people score attendances that average less than two a week. Only in the pre-service units and the inter-denominational clubs do more than

half the members attend on the average twice a week or more. One reason for the pre-eminence in this respect of these two types of organisation is that they both happen to be particularly strong on Sunday opening.

The Activity-Pattern

127. Finally, Fig. 12 also offers some information about the activities in which members engage during the sessions of their clubs and units. Here the young people are grouped (under the headings X, Y and Z) according to the number of "serious activities" per week which they undertake on their club premises. A serious activity is defined as one undertaken in a group under adult guidance. The chart thus affords a rough measure of the relative dependence of the various types of organisation on adult leadership. It will be noticed, for instance, that in the pre-service and other uniformed organisations alone is the number of members engaging in three or more serious activities a week higher than that of the members engaging in only two or in only one.

128. It will also be noticed that in all types of organisation the number of members shown under all three headings (X, Y and Z) is less than the total membership. This indicates that there is always a proportion of members who either do not visit their club at all for long periods or who use it only for purposes of amusement and recreation. In Nottingham during October, 1944, this proportion appears to have been about one quarter.

Chapter 4

Youth Service

Provision :

Its Quality

129. The preceding chapters have disclosed how many tributary streams of energy and devotion, of wisdom and kindness from how many different sources now meet to form the river of youth service. No praise can be too high for the "old contemptibles" of clubland, who, through the baffling days of an uneasy peace and the taxing days of a protracted war, have steadily fought their difficulties and exploited their opportunities in this most searching of causes. And the newcomers who have stepped forward to fill the gaps in the ranks caused by the call-up of many experienced youth leaders, those, too, who are carrying out the many fresh extensions of the work—of them it is fitting, and it is enough, to say that they have proved themselves worthy successors and colleagues of the old-timers.

130. The student of the work these dedicated public servants do among young people may strive to watch with critical eye and appraise with dispassionate judgment, as he visits the clubs and units evening by evening. But he will be less than human if he is not touched to deep humility and high admiration by what he sees. The best of faith and friendship are here, and before them a man can only bow the head in homage and thanksgiving. Neither the reward they seek, nor the reward they find, gleams in the light of common day.

131. The men and women who organise and lead the service of youth are not a complacent race. There is a gulf between their aspirations and their achievements, and they are very conscious of it. The deficiency most keenly and universally felt is that of trained and temperamentally suitable leadership. The next most cramping factor is probably inadequate premises. After that comes a vexed problem that by its nature admits of no definitive solution—the problem of programmes. Finally, there is the most far-reaching issue of all, that of adjusting to changing conditions and to developing needs the current types of approach to the younger generation.

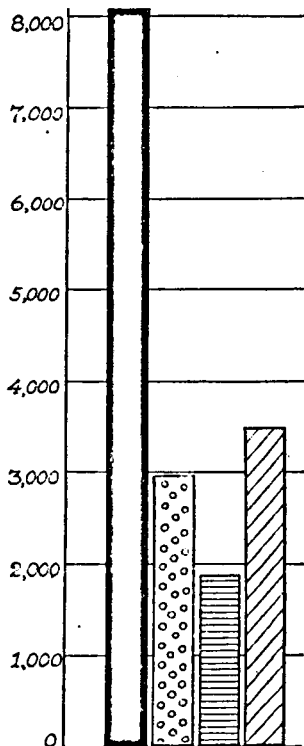
132. Before considering these matters in turn, it should be said that there seems to be little adverse criticism of the administrative machinery of the service of youth in our region. Friction there has been, of course. Not all agencies have proved equally co-operative. When co-operation takes place, and it is close, continuous and, in general, remarkably friendly, it is co-operation and nothing more. It shows no sign of tending towards coalition. Smoothly as it works, it emphasises rather than masks the fundamental separatism of the several voluntary bodies. The youth service is still at an atomistic stage of development.

133. Some voluntary bodies regard the financial and other assistance proffered by the L.E.A.'s as Greek gift to be avoided as long as possible. The feeling evidently is that to go short of some things one would like to have is preferable to running a risk of "dual control." It is apt to be a strong feeling.* Those who share it freely admit that it has no basis

* Fear of dual control, in a somewhat different form, sometimes operates even against affiliation to unofficial bodies such as the National Association of Boys' Clubs and the National Association of Girls' and Mixed Clubs.

in the actual policies or behaviour of either the City or the County L.E.A. Both authorities have, in fact, been just as jealous guardians of the independence of voluntary bodies as the voluntary bodies themselves. But, it is said, there is no telling what may happen in future as a result of a swing of the political pendulum on the Councils or of changes in personnel in the Education Offices. Meanwhile, the only safe rule is: "Keep clear of the official clutches."

134. In spite of these teething troubles in the relationship between statutory authorities and voluntary bodies, it is agreed that in many







-  Total enrolled membership
 Members with attendances averaging one or less per week
 " with attendances averaging between 1 and 2 per week
 " with attendances averaging 2 or more per week

Fig. 7.

CITY OF NOTTINGHAM.
YOUTH CLUBS AND UNITS.

Distribution of membership by average attendances.

respects a valuable partnership is being built up. If at times opportunities are let slip, the fault lies, not with the administrative machinery itself, but with the way in which it is used—and used by its potential beneficiaries. In any case, such occasional aloofness does not count for much against the total of effective and congenial collaboration.

LEADERSHIP

135. Shortage of tested and well qualified personnel, especially full-time organisers, wardens, club leaders, and unit commanders, is one of the inescapable war time shortages. It has undoubtedly impaired the quality, as well as restricted the extent, of the work undertaken by many organisations. This damaging understaffing has been cheerfully accepted here as in numerous other spheres, on the presumption that those who might have been serving as youth leaders are meeting an even more pressing national need elsewhere. But it has made those who remain reflect anxiously upon the means of recruiting and training leaders after peace is restored.

136. The unanimous cry of all responsible workers in the field is for the right people properly trained. Unanimity evaporates, however, upon the attempt to define rightness in people and propriety in training. Sometimes the right person is narrowly interpreted as a devoted adherent of

one's own organisation ; and proper training means thorough conditioning to enthusiasm for the organisation's aims, methods, and slogans. More generally the right person is taken to be someone of good all-round capacity who has close acquaintance with the whole setting of the lives of the young people among whom he is to work. Here resides the force of the demand for country-bred leaders for rural districts, leaders having first-hand acquaintance with mining conditions for the colliery districts, and so on. There is widespread agreement, too, that the need is for systematic education of approximately university or training college standard extending over at least two, and preferably three, years. No one seems disposed to quarrel with the list of qualifications to be desired in a youth leader, which was given in the McNair Report.*

137. On the point of recruitment it is seen that most of the best leadership material of the next 20 years is in the Forces now, and will have to be mobilised for youth work immediately on release from war service, or a golden opportunity will pass and may never return. Many people consider that this task of mobilisation for youth work on demobilisation from the Forces calls for special machinery, probably of an official character, and cannot prudently be left to the unaided efforts of the voluntary organisations. Inquiries are sometimes made about the possibility of an initiative by King George's Jubilee Trust here. Much interest is shown in the large-scale scheme for training leaders which the National Association of Boys' Clubs is understood to have in preparation.

138. A further suggestion is that there is an urgent need for a new type of youth organiser, who should have no concern with the administrative matters that continuously engross so much of an organiser's attention at present. His responsibility should relate solely to the planning and development of club programmes and to the training of senior club members and other voluntary helpers for the carrying out of such programmes. The point is not that programme work is overlooked by organisers now, but that it is jumbled up in their day's work with a number of other heterogeneous duties, and that the quality of youth service could be improved by a clear subdivision of labour in which administration and programme-planning are treated as separate jobs to be done by different persons. King George's Jubilee Trust might help, it is hoped, to make the appointment of the new type of organiser possible, both by contributing to salaries and expenses and by co-ordinating a policy with L.E.A.s and possibly also with the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. The view appears to be that personnel whose appointment might thus be provided for should be selected and employed by existing voluntary bodies. The Trust might, in giving any grant-aid, attach conditions designed to encourage close co-operation between participating organisations.

* See Board of Education : Report on the Supply, Recruitment, and Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders, 1944, paras. 345-46.

PREMISES

139. The chief factors responsible for the present unsatisfactory position in regard to premises are—

(a) The Ministry of Education seldom makes direct grants in connection with premises, either for their purchase, or rental, or repair and redecoration. In our region, the six years since 1939 show only six examples of such grants.

(b) The L.E.A.s, while not ruling out purchase and adaptation, have also moved cautiously during the war. No expenditure under this head appears in their accounts until 1943-44, and then only on a small scale.

(c) The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust does not make grants for the provision of buildings or for structural alterations.

(d) In some cases club premises of the better kind have been requisitioned for military use.

(e) Even when voluntary organisations have had funds available for the purchase of premises, it has been difficult to find premises suitable or convertible, and difficult to get the labour and materials needed for conversion. (In our region the Y.M.C.A. has managed to do this in two cases, and there are other isolated examples ; but such success is exceptional.)

(f) War restrictions have placed an effective ban on new building for club purposes.

140. The reluctance of public authorities to buy premises for youth clubs in war time can easily be understood. Indeed, there is no mystery about any of the six factors catalogued above. Their consequences are not mysterious either. The rarest thing in youth work is to find a club functioning in a building designed for the purpose. Make-do and mend, more frequently perhaps make-do without mending, has been raised from an expedient to a principle. In point of its accommodation the youth service is strictly an "emergency" job, a thing of shreds and patches. The Director of Education for Nottinghamshire is using only measured terms when he declares "It is, on the whole, abominably housed."

141. In the County areas some 40 per cent. of all registered clubs and units meet in school buildings, another 34 per cent. in church halls, institutes, etc., and the remaining 26 per cent. in premises of other types, which are sometimes more suitable than schools and church halls, sometimes less. In the City area 43 per cent. meet in schools, 26 per cent. in church halls, etc., and 31 per cent. in premises of other types. The latter term covers magnificent and entirely appropriate buildings such as the Central Y.M.C.A., all other premises owned by club bodies, factory premises, Miners' Welfare Institutes, drill halls, hutments, river bases of Sea Scouts, and even odd rooms in pubs and private houses.

142. It is clear that in every sector of our region the war-time expansion of every kind of youth work would have been impossible, if the long-suffering school buildings had not been ruthlessly pressed into service. School premises have in a sense saved the situation. And yet few types of building could be more unsuitable as centres for the leisure-time

activities of young people whose schooldays are still a recent recollection. The following extract from a memorandum (dated February, 1944) on the working of Pioneer Clubs in the rural districts is both revealing in itself and illustrative of a widespread feeling about school premises.

“ Most villages have no adequate accommodation for Youth Clubs. Seven clubs (out of a total of 32 Pioneer Clubs) are now meeting in buildings that have neither water nor w.c.s, and two in buildings having water but no w.c.s. In general the village hall seems more suitable than the village school, and most of the clubs, as they have gained the confidence of the village, have moved out of the school and into the hall. Only five are now meeting in school premises.”

Moreover, if on the one hand school premises are unsuitable for youth work, school staffs on the other are mightily inconvenienced by the intrusion of youth clubs into their quarters. The record of the process by which the clubs “ muck in ” with the schools is, as one would expect, dotted with mutual recriminations and what each party always describes as “ unfounded charges ” by the other.

Premises affect Attendance

143. It is no doubt true that the human spirit, when powerfully inspired, can rise above the limitations imposed by bricks and mortar, or even by wood and corrugated iron. It is also true that the average level of youth work will fall with every decline in the average standards of its housing, and will rise with every improvement in them. In short, the siting, design, and lay-out of buildings are as crucial in club work as they are in schooling. Frequent testimony to this effect is volunteered by workers in the field. Two examples must suffice.

- (i) From O.C. Mansfield Woodhouse Platoon, Army Cadet Force.

Present premises : Central school with hall and class-rooms, lecture hall and stage. Limited P.T. equipment. Shared with Girls' Training Corps and Evening Institute Classes.

Leader's Comment : For one month we had proper premises for our own use at Home Guard headquarters, where full equipment was available. Increase in membership and attendance most noticeable.

- (ii) Radford Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A., Nottingham. (Founded October, 1942.)

Present premises : Hall (seating 150), lounge, games room, canteen, leader's office, cloakrooms for both sexes, use of neighbouring school gymnasium and class-rooms when desired. Premises are an old chapel and hall purchased, converted, and equipped at a cost of £4,000. Used jointly by Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A. : alternate boys' and girls' nights, with mixed activities at week-ends.

Leader's Comment : The first year of work, when we were in school buildings, caused endless anxiety. Since the new premises were acquired, no trouble has been found.

144. Fig. 10 shows how common is the sharing of premises by different youth organisations. The sharing of school premises is nearly always a *faute de mieux* arrangement. But some types of sharing of premises are natural enough, and even desirable. For instance, the Nottingham Catholic Youth Association consists of a series of semi-autonomous groups all covered by the same denominational umbrella. There is a Girls' Training Corps unit, a Ranger company, a Scout and Cub Troop, a Girls' club—and so on. No doubt some individuals are members of more than one of these groups. In such a situation it is not surprising to find all the groups housed in the same building, with certain rooms in common use by all groups and certain others reserved for G.T.C., Rangers, and Scouts respectively. Similarly, the Central Y.M.C.A. in Nottingham has, in association with its Youth Section, forming part of its membership, and meeting on its premises, a Scout and Cub Troop and an Army Cadet Force unit. And in the Radford area, as we have just seen, Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A. use the same premises on alternate evenings. Again, a company of the Boys' Brigade, being founded in connection with a particular place of worship, may quite naturally hold its meetings and parades on church premises, which it will share with the usual church classes, socials, etc. All these arrangements are unobjectionable, in the sense that they do not impair the efficient working of any group; they may even deserve encouragement as tending to variegate loyalties which might otherwise remain too simplified.

145. But the case is not always thus. Here are two instances of a different kind :—

(a) A mixed club : registered membership, 55 ; meets three evenings a week. Premises : " Sunday-school room which is in the partial occupation of a local Food Centre. We also have to use the church vestry and an empty shop which is the property of the church. We have to clear away the tables and chairs and replace these on each club night. Besides sharing the hall with church, Sunday-school, and British Restaurant, we share the shop with a Citizen's Advice Bureau."

(b) A Y.M.C.A. club in a suburban district : registered membership, 100 ; meets three evenings a week. Premises : " Use of infants' school hall and class-rooms. Premises are most unsatisfactory, but unfortunately there are no others available in the district. Not only are the rooms and equipment not what one would desire, but the demand by other groups for use of the rooms is so great that we cannot obtain as much use of them as we should like."

Is Rationalisation Possible?

146. There is evidently a formidable task of rehousing to be undertaken on behalf of the youth service when peace returns. A small number of the present premises are shining successes. But over most of the range the position is gravely unsatisfactory. Not only is attendance itself adversely affected by the poor accommodation ; the same cause faces the youth leader with desperate toil in bringing the young people that do attend to a frame of mind in which they can best profit by their club experience. A muffled stimulus can arouse only a blurred response.

On the other hand, when regard must be had to a multitude of small units with an average attendance of under 20 on one, two or, perhaps, three nights a week, it is plainly impossible to provide each separate unit with anything like fully adequate quarters of its own.

147. If none but the arithmetical aspects of the problem had to be taken into account, the general lines of a solution would not be far to seek. Whenever three distinct units were found to be meeting two evenings a week, each in different premises within a radius of half a mile, a merger would be arranged. One properly designed and equipped building would replace the three separate sets of premises, and the three units would use it turn and turn about for six nights, with a joint meeting on the seventh—or some similar variation on the amalgamation theme. But interest and purpose in youth work are at present so thoroughly fragmented that rationalisation of this sort is probably impracticable. Any attempt to press a policy of merger in which the needs of a region should override the claims of particular organisations to expand (or to resist contraction) might well result in many existing units flouncing off the field in a flurry of injured pride.

148. The whole question of premises is closely bound up with the questions (a) of the optimum size of club; and (b) of the differentiation and specialisation of function as between clubs. In the present state of knowledge no one can say what the optimum size is, or even within what limits it would fall, or how far it might vary with variations of function. A large work of research and discussion is called for here. It is doubtful whether clear ideas have yet been formed of what criteria—educational, diplomatic, administrative, financial—should be used in framing the conception of optimum size. As for functional specialisation, it is embryonic at present and chiefly confined to the pre-Service organisations, and to other units, such as those of the British Red Cross Society and St. John Ambulance Brigade, which offer specific training leading to proficiency awards. The general run of clubs, whether mixed or single-sexed, denominational or other, tend to follow activity programmes of much the same type with only minor shifts in bias, content, and method.

149. So ample are the scale and scope of this housing problem that the full range of public authority will be needed for its successful handling. It is not yet obvious at what precise points the limited resources of King George's Jubilee Trust could best be applied in harmony with official policy. It may, however, be suggested that the Trust, in giving voluntary organisations assistance likely to be used for the provision of premises, should be guided by certain principles—namely

(i) that the requirements of a particular locality should always be considered as well as the wants of a particular organisation.

(ii) that the Trust should form a view as to the optimum size of a club or group in specified conditions, and foster the development of units conforming to such optima.

(iii) that assistance should not be given in ways likely to increase the present haphazard fragmentation of effort.

(iv) that, where suitable opportunities offer, grants should be made to two or more organisations jointly for purposes to be jointly engaged in.

150. There are two further types of opportunity for which the Trust might well remain on the alert. The first arises from the probability that in the years following the war community centres of many kinds will be built in many parts of the country, often as war memorials dedicated to local Servicemen and women who lost their lives. To such a centre in town or village the Trust might add some wing or extension specially valuable to the service of youth—a swimming bath, it might be, or a laboratory for health overhaul, or accommodation for a club based on family membership, or indeed any other addition particularly favoured by the Trust. Such ingredients judiciously mixed into the main dish might upon occasion act as balancing factors, altering the flavour of the whole and transforming it from a mere skeleton of official provision into a live, flesh-and-blood, cultural institution.

151. Secondly, in rural or mining villages where the young people make so small a group that no sub-grouping by sex, age, or interests is practicable, there is much to be said for their refurbishing an old barn or even building *ab initio* a modest club-house for themselves. When such work is undertaken with their own hands, the results, material and moral alike, are apt to be preserved and gradually improved with quite extraordinary care, persistence, and responsibility. Here again the Trust could help by having on tap an architectural consultant, sympathetic to young people and knowledgeable about them, who would be prepared to advise such groups on questions of design, materials, methods of procedure, and so on. Arrangements of the kind might be made in alliance with Rural Community Councils, the National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs, the Miners' Welfare Commission, and other bodies concerned with village youth.

152. A word on the subject of equipment should be added here. Poor equipment as well as poor housing has undoubtedly lowered the quality of youth work in many places. The poor equipment, however, has been largely due either to inevitable war-time shortages or to premises themselves too inadequate to house the right equipment. When the war shortages are things of the past, and when youth organisations are worthily housed, the remaining problems of equipment will not be such as to engage the resources of the Trust in their solution. Such as they will be, they can be safely left to the club bodies, backed by the assistance already on offer from the Ministry of Education and the L.E.A.'s.

ACTIVITIES AND METHODS

153. Once a boy or girl has joined a club or unit, what sort of use does he or she make of membership? What do young people actually do during their periods of club attendance?

Their range of selection is wide. Indeed, it covers almost every activity of good report known or believed or hoped to be pleasing to youth. Activities are of four broad kinds, being concerned with

(a) prayer and devotion, (b) recreation and amusement, (c) motor skills and manual dexterities, technical information, and artistic expression and appreciation, and (d) war service. The proportions in which the kinds are blended in the programme of any given club or unit vary with a number of variable factors, of which the following are, perhaps, the most important :—

- (i) the type of organisation (denominational, non-denominational, or uniformed).
- (ii) the season of the year.
- (iii) the geographical and social milieu.
- (iv) the sex-composition of the membership.

154. Programme-building is traditionally the field of free choice and democratic self-government within the club movement. It shares this distinction with the framing and enforcement of the club rules. So here we probably have as clear an index as is available of what juvenile preferences really are. There appears to be a fairly general shift in the direction of mixed activities and away from separate-sex activities. The best club leaders on the whole strive for some coherent development of programmes, in place of haphazard chopping and changing. They also prefer to work with small groups even when they have a large membership to handle ; they try, in other words, to steer their charges towards more small-group activities and fewer general and diffuse social evenings. Often this is an uphill struggle. Fig. 12 illustrates the fact that "serious activities," by which are meant activities in a group under adult guidance, do not greatly thrive. Many are the complaints of the difficulty of getting young people to engage in them. The units which show most of them are those in which they are compulsory—namely, the pre-Service ones.

COUNTY & CITY of NOTTINGHAM

Number of Youth Clubs and
Units open on each evening
of the week

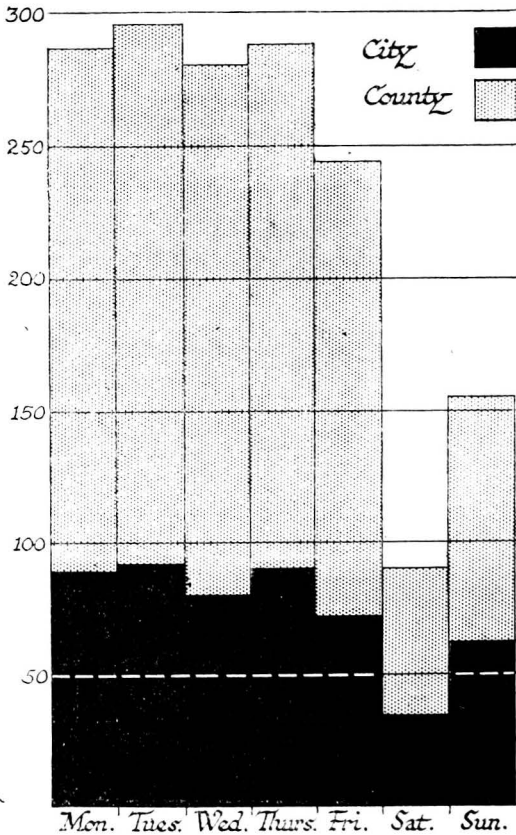


Fig. 8.

155. It would be tedious to catalogue every activity engaged in by members of every type of club or unit. The following selection gives a summarised picture :—

I. GIRLS' CLUBS

(i) The most popular indoor activities, in order of popularity, appear to be

- Ballroom dancing.
- Handicrafts.
- Play-reading and drama.
- Keep-fit and P.T.
- Music.
- Folk-dancing.
- Film shows (other than the commercial cinema).
- Lectures and discussions.

Popular outdoor activities are

- Netball and other games.
- Walking.
- Youth hosteling.
- Swimming.
- Cycling.
- Camping.

In the way of war service girls' clubs have

- Helped with harvesting.
- Raised money for charities.
- Helped with flag days.
- Knitted for the Forces.
- Made toys for war nurseries.
- Done shopping for mothers at work.
- Formed War Savings groups.
- "Adopted" prisoners of war.
- Entertained Allied soldiers at club evenings.
- Attended courses in first aid and nursing.

(ii) In the Girls' Training Corps a cadet's training, to which a minimum of four hours a week is required to be devoted, comprises instruction in certain basic subjects—namely,

- Dispatch carrying.
- Drill.
- Firefighting and anti-gas measures.
- First Aid.
- Handywoman's course.
- Hygiene and P.T.

Attendance at Evening Institutes and other approved classes may be accepted as part of the training ; and instruction of this kind has been arranged in the following subjects:—

- Aircraft recognition.
- Book-keeping.
- Care of children.
- Citizenship.
- Comptometer operation.
- Home nursing.
- Indexing and filing.
- The internal combustion engine.

Signalling.
Shorthand.
Swimming and lifesaving.
Tailoring.
Telephone and switchboard management.
Typing.

(iii) The Nottinghamshire Association of Girls' Clubs, in arranging a Spring Festival planned as the climax of the winter's work in all affiliated clubs, provides seven sections for individual entries and four for team entries. The individual events are

Literary.
Handicrafts.
Make and mend.
Art.
Nature study.
First Aid.
Cookery.

The team events are

P.T.
Folk dancing.
Drama.
Singing.

II. BOYS' CLUBS

(i) Some idea of the range of sporting activities going on in Boys' Clubs may be gleaned from the programme of inter-club competitions arranged by the Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire Association of Boys' Clubs. It includes

Drama festival.
Boxing championship.
Cross-country competition.
Six-a-side football competition.
Mystery cycle run.
Athletic sports.
Swimming gala.

In addition there are League Competitions running throughout the season and covering,

Football.
Cricket.
Basket ball.
Table tennis.
Indoor games.

(ii) The *Young Men's Christian Association* is, perhaps, exceptional in the emphasis it lays on club buildings, which it regards as an integral part of its effort "to win youth to Jesus Christ, and to help them in the development of Christian character. . . . It seeks to achieve its aim through the provision of club buildings in which, in addition to Lounge, Library, Rooms for Lectures and Recreation, Chapel or Quiet Room, Gymnasium, and, in the larger centres, Café and Hostel accommodation,

there is organised a fourfold programme of activities—religious, educational, social, and physical.”

(iii) The *Boys' Brigade* units meet, as a normal minimum, twice a week—for drill on a week-night and for Bible Class or other form of religious instruction on Sundays. Some of the larger units, however, which have their own permanent premises and open them, perhaps, seven nights a week are in the full sense clubs. But in unit and club alike the following activities are “used as a means of banding the boys together and promoting among them such habits as the Brigade is designed to form” :—

Drill.
Bible class.
P.T.
Gymnastics.
Football.
Cricket.
Indoor games.
Bands.
Ambulance.
Swimming.
Life-saving.
Signalling.
Camping.
National service.

III. MIXED CLUBS

(i) *Pioneer Clubs*. These clubs well illustrate both the difficulties of youth work in rural districts and some of the ways in which they can be successfully met. Pioneer Clubs are formed under the auspices of the Nottinghamshire Rural Community Council in country (not mining) villages. All are in comparatively small villages and their membership totals range from 10 to 50. Their distribution in February, 1944, was as follows :—

40-50 members	1 club
30-40	„	5 clubs
20-30	„	14 „
10-20	„	12 „

The average membership was 22. None of the clubs has a paid leader.

Members are of both sexes and all ages between 14 and 20, and they differ widely in home background and educational attainments. Fourteen of the clubs meet on only one night a week and their weekly meetings are primarily social in character. Efforts are made to plan the evening's programme in detail and to see that it is known to members in advance. The other 18 clubs, besides their weekly open “Club Night,” have additional meetings for special activities. These are distributed between subjects as follows :—

Drama	9 groups.
Handicrafts	8 „
First Aid	4 „

P.T.	3 groups.
Woodwork	3 "
Ballroom dancing	2 "
Needlework	2 "
Cookery	1 group.
Discussion and Lectures	1 "

(ii) In the *Co-operative Youth Movement* the clubs are all mixed clubs, and the usual group activities are

Indoor.

- Handicrafts.
- Keep fit.
- First Aid.
- Drama.
- Music.
- Discussion.
- Radio listening.
- Public speaking and debating.
- Publicity and journalism.
- Literature.
- International affairs.
- Film appreciation.

Outdoor.

- Hiking.
- Cycling.
- Sketching.
- Photography.
- Nature study.
- Camping.
- Swimming.
- Boating.
- Football.
- Hockey.
- Cricket.
- Netball.

(iii) The *Torchbearer Group Movement*, under the ægis of the Salvation Army, fosters any or all of the following activities :—

- Hobbies,
- Recreations—outdoor and indoor.
- Literary classes.
- Discussion circles.
- Bible classes.
- Classes to teach Christian ethics.
- Personal service.
- Torchbearer Witness groups.
- Circles for the study of self-expression.
- Lectures on group interests and perplexities.
- The yearly pilgrimage.
- Group libraries.
- Magazine clubs.
- Camps and rallies.
- The Prayer-room—a place for silence.

The Significance of Uniforms

156. In distinguishing the special quality of work done by different youth organisations, we may study them under several different principles of arrangement. We may, for example, divide them into religious and secular, following the dominant interest of their sponsors. We may label them boys', girls', or mixed, using sex as the basis of the grouping. Or we may divide them into uniformed and non-uniformed. On any of these vertical lines of cleavage we may superimpose a horizontal division according to age. The value of each method of grouping will usually depend on the particular context in which it is used. But there is one—the division into uniformed and non-uniformed—which must, on psychological grounds, be regarded as important in every context.

157. The uniformed organisations may be religious or secular; when the former, they may be denominational or inter-denominational. Their basic concern may be with the morals of the young, as in the brigades, or with national defence, as in the pre-service Cadet units. But underlying such secondary differences, they all have one primary feature in common—the rather comprehensive segregation of their members. Members of uniformed organisations are all segregated from the rest of the community (a) by age; (b) by sex; (c) by clothing; and (d) by esoteric ritual and symbolism (including in some cases religious belief).

158. Much investigation would be needed before any confident statement could be made about the more subtle psychological effects of this fourfold segregation. But there is reason to think that the effects are far-reaching. The very reliance upon drill and ritualism goes far towards committing uniformed organisations to a particular educational method. Its outcome would normally be the building up of linked sequences of conditional responses. Such habit-systems, while often leading to effective action in the stimulus-situations in which they are acquired or in recurring situations of a similar kind, have the shortcomings of all stereotypes. They lead to a muscle-bound pattern of response in situations that are not familiar, a response now fumbling, now bludgeoning. What is more, they make it peculiarly difficult for the individual to attain the sort of insight that can perceive the relation between his motives and his behaviour. The hypothesis which research would be required to test is that such methods tend to place a general faculty of flexible and integrated adjustment beyond the individual's reach.

159. If the hypothesis were confirmed, that would merely show, of course, that the uniformed organisations have the defects of their qualities. Whether or not the defects are there, the qualities are obvious enough. Probably the pre-Service units reveal most clearly what are the actual effects of membership and training, and how long they last—no doubt because the stimulus-situations made familiar during training closely resemble the stimulus-situations met with later in the Forces. The Cadet organisations have beyond question proved a valuable resource during the war for the reasons: (a) that a high proportion of the expansion of the youth service as a whole is represented by the war-time intake of these units; (b) that they have been able to operate in areas previously rather undeveloped by youth service agencies*; (c) that they have prepared large numbers of youths psychologically, and to some extent technically, for Service life, and given them a flying start upon entering into the Forces; and (d) that they have administered to the Forces an injection of likely lads, partly predigested, some of whom make useful N.C.O.s and officers. These are notable achievements. At the same time, it would appear that their usefulness, like the vigour of the Cadet Movement itself, depends on Cadet membership opening up a direct avenue to membership of the appropriate adult fighting Service.

* Cf. an unscientific but illuminating comment made "off the record" by a racy observer: "The Cadet units are doing a useful job in the mining villages. For there we have had little but the Welfare Centres where the lads play billiards, make up their betting lists, and watch their elder brothers getting 'tiddly' and their fathers getting tight." It should not, of course, be supposed either that the characteristics here indicated are common to all Miners' Welfare Institutes or that they exhaust the qualities of any.

160. A report prepared for the County L.E.A. on the follow-up of interviews in connection with the registration of 16-year-olds observes that "the direction of so many boys to pre-Service organisations may be a mistaken policy ; over two-thirds of the older boys and over half the younger boys have been persuaded to put their names down for pre-Service units." But this possibly over-enthusiastic adult pressure does not alter the fact that, at least throughout the years 1942 and 1943, the Cadet units exerted an attraction on adolescent boys a good deal more powerful than any other type of youth organisation had ever exerted before. The Cadet units had no need to "run after boys"; the boys offered themselves in numbers greater than the units could absorb. There are lessons here from which the non-uniformed organisations may profit when the pre-Service star is no longer in the ascendant.

The Problem of Incentives

161. The basis of the Cadet units' success appears to have been a wide-awake appreciation on the part of the boys themselves of the urgency of the nation's need. The prime impulse was a clear youthful patriotism sharply conscious of the ardours and endurance of fathers and elder brothers in the field, and proudly eager to steel itself for the same testing. To his amazement the young patriot found that the adult world had for the moment stopped trying to do him good and was asking for his help. For the first time in his life he was publicly wanted; he was actually invited to put his powers at full stretch on behalf of the community.

162. He had been accustomed to think of the usual youth club as a glorified play-centre—a roping-off for children for purposes of recreation. By contrast his Cadet work was a real initiation into adult life. True, it required him to study—and study hard ; but it bore little resemblance to school. For he found in it an atmosphere where there was both mutuality and seriousness ; the teachers wanted to teach and the pupils wanted to learn. In a word, he found conditions which offered some satisfaction to at least three of his primary psychological needs—needs which the world as he had hitherto known it appeared to go out of its way to thwart. They were the craving for social recognition, for membership of an admired group, and for fresh and challenging adventures. The youth service of the future will have to offer incentives to match these same fundamental urges.*

* For further details relating to the pre-Service units and their courses of training, see Board of Education : *The Youth Service After the War*, 1943, Appendix II ; and Douglas Cooke : *Youth Organisations of Great Britain*, 1944-45. (Jordans, 1944).

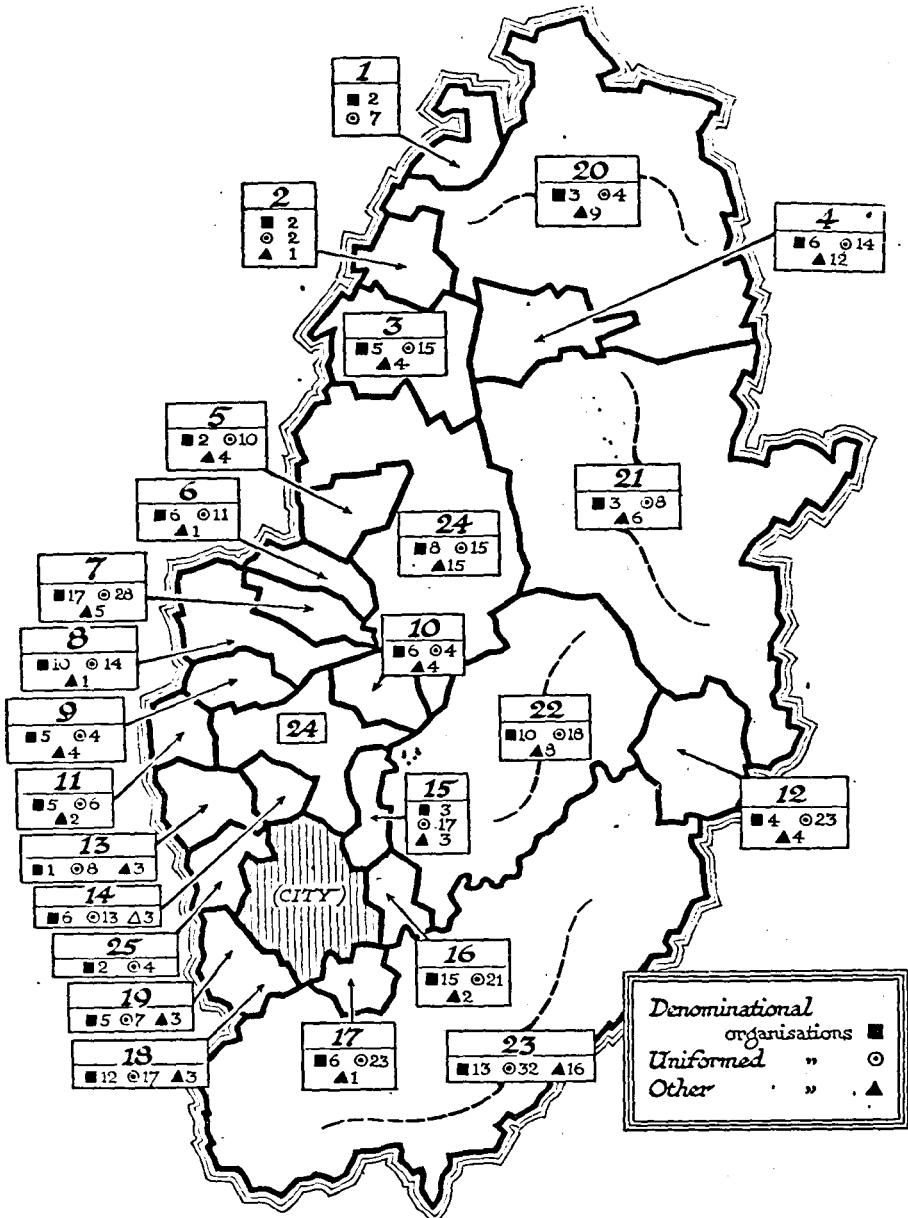


Fig. 9.

Distribution of Youth Clubs and Units in the various Local Youth Committee areas into which the County is divided for the administration of the Youth Service.

AREAS.

- | | | |
|------------------------|---------------|------------------|
| 1. HARWORTH-BIRCOTES | 9. E. KIRKBY | 17. W. BRIDGFORD |
| 2. LANGOLD | 10. BLIDWORTH | 18. BEESTON |
| 3. WORKSOP | 11. SELSTON | 19. STAPLEFORD |
| 4. E. RETFORD | 12. NEWARK | 20. N. NOTTS |
| 5. WARSOP | 13. EASTWOOD | 21. TUXFORD |
| 6. MANSFIELD WOODHOUSE | 14. HUCKNALL | 22. SOUTHWELL |
| 7. MANSFIELD | 15. ARNOLD | 23. E. TRENT |
| 8. SUTTON-IN-ASHFIELD | 16. CARLTON | 24. MINING AREAS |
| 25. KIMBERLEY | | |

THE EXPANDING OUTLOOK

163. The error must be avoided of discussing the quality of youth service as though it were a static thing. We cannot pluck the heart out of it by listing the characteristics of particular organisations. Quite apart from the joys and sorrows of juveniles, the entire army of youth workers themselves are in a ferment. They know that they and the social meaning of their task confront a moment of major transition. The service of youth, friend and guide of adolescents, is caught in a turbulent adolescence of its own.

164. At such a time it is both a privilege and a fascination to watch the play of thought and effort among the workers in the field, as they square up to the coming onrush of events; sparring as it were for an opening, and seeking at once their own proper adjustment and a measure of control over external change. From H.M. Inspectors of Schools and Directors of Education down to the canteen helpers in a back-street lads' club, one and all, according to their lights and their angle of vision, are feeling a way forward to new conceptions, taking new bearings, planning to fan out from the bridgehead they have won.

165. It can be discerned plainly enough that the projected modern schools, county colleges, and community centres are destined, as the McNair Report puts it, "to affect the pattern of organisation and the content and standards of the youth service." From the standpoint of organisation, indeed, the reciprocal relations of these three institutions are the crux of the next 20 years in youth work. Again, the implications of town and country planning, of rehousing, and of industrial location are that our population will become less and less sharply divided into slum-dwellers on the one hand and inhabitants of "good" residential areas on the other. Instead, there will gradually come into existence constellations of balanced neighbourhood units where all income-groups will be living together within a radius of a thousand yards. More and more, therefore, the youth service will come to cater, not for the underdog nor even for the elementary school-leaver (since all are to have secondary schooling), but for every adolescent irrespective of economic status.

166. Under a handful of enthusiastic volunteers the youth service started 60 years ago as rescue work. Thence it grew slowly to a point where its labours were mainly preventive. Only now is it beginning to discard the pathological approach, and cautiously to enter the final, the positive, stage of cultivation. In all this its path runs parallel to that of the proposed universal health service and of the proposed service of universal social insurance. It follows in the more leisurely footsteps of the education service itself, whose advance from the Ragged Schools of the early industrial revolution to the universal secondary schooling contemplated by the Education Act of 1944 traces the same broad curve. The trend towards full comprehensive provision of all the main social services is too clear to be misread, and there is no reason to think that the service of youth either wishes or is able to swim against the stream.

167. With the movement towards universalism in organisation is linked a corresponding movement towards naturalism in outlook. Youth service in Britain being traditionally religious in impulse and content, its approach to young people has been moralistic in temper. The main pre-occupation has been to secure that their conduct should conform to approved standards and follow conventional patterns. To-day subtle inner modifications are taking place in this attitude. It is not that anyone supposes a concern with religion and morals to be harmful or superfluous in youth work. Rather is that concern now seen to be insufficient. It calls for addenda which youth service would have made nothing of in its early "ambulance" days, which in its preventive period it would have regarded as other people's business, but which to-day it is coming to recognise as indispensable for its own purposes. These addenda are the assumptions and the methods of science.

What Science Contributes

168. In the last 40 years the practical problems of handling very young children in school, together with those of devising forms of education suitable to the diverging interests and capacities of adolescents, have greatly widened the experience of teachers. They have also given a sharp stimulus to psychological experiment and research. Between them the experience and the experiment have transformed the practice of school-teaching, from the infant school to the sixth form. Concurrently, experimental psychology has profoundly affected the work of courts of law in dealing with juveniles. In its industrial specialisation it has even begun to modify the care and management of labour, including juvenile labour, in workshop and in office. But the infiltration of similar influences into the youth service proper has been surprisingly retarded. The theory and practice of Scouting, as developed by Baden-Powell and his associates in the years before the war of 1914-18, drew indeed, and with memorable results, on some of the findings of the psychology of that time. The effort, however, was not methodically followed up, and the youth service in general continued to stand outside this particular stream of change. In programme-building there were, of course, all kinds of concessions to the vagaries of fashion and youthful taste. But in its essential procedures youth work in 1940 was very much where youth work had been in 1910.

169. Now the tide is turning. A rough measure of the kind and the size of the shift can be got by considering a statement such as the following. "If physical and mental health are to be positively developed, the whole growing period from conception to the far side of adolescence must be viewed and treated as a single whole. It is a continuous process in which the interplay of the child's capacities and experiences is either shaping an integrated personality or giving rise to maladjustments that deny integration and distort personality." The statement is scientific in the sense that it uses no concepts but such as belong to natural science. To-day few leaders of youth organisations, whether specifically religious or not, would make any bones about endorsing it, as far as it goes. Their predecessors of a generation back would have viewed it with horror as either blasphemous or, at the best, heathenish and heretical.

170. The view prevailing at that time treated youth work as a Christian "mission," as one among a range of charitable enterprises known as slumming. The world was held to be a vale of tears and of soul-making, in which mortals grew up as God made them. Pain and thwarting were sent to try us, and were part of a high design both to mould us each to our proper pre-ordained shape, and to test the soundness of the workmanship. It was indeed the duty of the fortunate to show charity and to hold out a helping hand to the ill-to-do. But it was equally the duty of the ill-to-do to embrace material wretchedness and triumph over it in their lonely souls. To seek escape from misery, except by spiritual means; was to desert one's post and throw over God's charge. For human forethought and contrivance to attempt to settle the course of personality-development, especially among the unfortunates of the social order, was to usurp the divine prerogative.

171. The change of outlook visible to-day does not imply that the religious tradition is in decay or undergoing supersession. Far from it. There is no ousting or humbling of religion by science. But new branches are, as it were, putting forth from the stem of the older tradition and a certain cross-fertilisation with the scientific attitude is taking place. Naturally, this happens at the level of the blossoms not at the level of the roots. Or, to vary the metaphor, the religious tradition in youth work, like most human movements that have been a long time on the march, consists of vanguard, main body, and stragglers. Perhaps only the van is as yet in direct touch with the new influences.

The Driving Power of Religion

172. At any rate, the driving power of religion can be observed in action on more than one cultural plane. At one extreme it expresses itself in symbols of forced piety, mawkish religiosity, and uncomfortable supernaturalism. Some hymns and more hymn tunes are notable offenders in these ways. One meets also with coloured prints, hanging on club walls, that fail pictorially as the hymns fail musically and poetically. Such prints, for example, often represent the Saviour laying an encouraging hand upon the shoulder of some almost comically radiant youth. The theme is apt enough; what is objectionable is the stale and lazy symbolism in which it is treated. Such products have no place in the youth service of to-day because they are shoddy work, poor of their kind. We owe the young people nothing but the best that we have and are or can be and do. If, to spare ourselves trouble, we fob them off with *ersatz* goods, the youth service will reap a harvest of *ersatz* results.

173. Altogether happier is the impression made by religious agencies at the level of practical personal contacts—in their club routine and day-to-day intercourse with young people. The massive competence, nourished by a world-wide experience, of the Y.M.C.A. and its sister-organisation; the practised art with which a good Boys' Brigade unit will blend the tender and the manly, the sensitive and the sturdy, self-expression and

self-command, and then pervade with the virtue of this compound all the relationships of all its members ; the masterful appeal which the Salvation Army knows how to make to rough diamonds whom other agencies seem unable to touch ; a brief act of worship at the end of a club evening in a Church Army approved school for girls ; the plain and homely devotion of a hundred Youth Fellowships of church or chapel—no one who has once witnessed these things will be tempted to undervalue the flexibility and force of the religious motive in general or of the religious tradition of the frontiersmen of youth service in particular. Our region is rich in them all.

174. Further evidence for the vitality of the religious interest is probably to be seen in the new unity which various Christian denominations are finding as they collaborate in the service of youth both with one another and with agencies not professedly religious. In our region the energy, the good will, the absence of friction and faction, are impressive. To be sure, there are hard-faced observers who interpret this growing unity as a sign of waning vigour, or at least of increasing difficulty in marketing the goods that religion has to offer. The analogy with familiar commercial practice, the suggestion runs, is close. For example, the brewing interest, when competition for the loose shilling in the pocket of the man in the street intensifies beyond a certain point, will combine to proclaim in one united voice that BEER IS BEST. While this harmonious chord is being sounded, the comparative merits of Worthington and Bass are not expressly canvassed. Similarly, in a time of fading prestige and influence for churches and chapels of every hue, agreement will sooner or later be forced upon the rival sects to glorify religion in general, without mention of the particular virtues of this or that confession.

175. So far as our region is concerned, this "realistic" reading of the position appears to be largely mistaken. Certainly the closing of the religious ranks is not regarded as a defensive manœuvre by those who are executing it. On the contrary, it is to them a regrouping for a fresh initiative, an expression of a robust self-confidence and of the good hope that, precisely in the sphere of the service of youth, they may find "the spearhead of the Ecumenical Movement."* For they agree with the Youth Advisory Council that "one of the principal reasons why so many young people are indifferent to the claims of Christianity lies in the lack of unity between the different Christian denominations."†

Religious Outlook and Scientific Method

176. There is a yet more striking feature, full of promise for the future alliance of religious outlook and scientific method. This is the readiness of many church workers to put into provisional cold storage some venerable dogmas relating to ethics and the development of personality, and instead to make use, as a working hypothesis, of newer views with an empirical foundation.

* Report of Nottingham Advisory Committee for Youth, 1941-43.

† Board of Education : *The Youth Service After the War*, 1943, para. 28.

177. Religion, for all its power to shape the lives of men, has always been prone to two educational weaknesses. The first is to suppose that the educator, as moulder of character, starts his work with a plateful of fixed subject-matter in one hand and the problem of how to get it absorbed by his pupils in the other. The second is to sentimentalise about the sacredness of human personality, to the neglect of the material conditions in which high personal values are realised. Both these weaknesses are of crucial significance in that segment of the circle of education which we know as the service of youth. Many religious-minded youth workers are to-day busy correcting both—in themselves and in one another. In doing so they quite happily avail themselves of suggestions offered by science.

178. Clearly the first weakness is almost unavoidable for any institution which believes itself to be the privileged receptacle of ultimate truth. From such a standpoint teaching can only consist in handing on this assured knowledge, and learning only in dutifully accepting it. Hence the plan governing the early development of youth service (and still often found surviving in it) was to train working-class lads and girls to practise prescribed loyalties and to give obedience to scheduled authorities. On the same type of plan a dog can be trained to take food from no one but its master. Given sufficient application equally convenient and remarkable results may be produced in children. But when this procedure is followed the ethical conceptions of right and wrong are equated with the legal conceptions of enjoined and forbidden. The questions by whom and to what end are not raised ; indeed, to raise them would in itself be “ wrong.”

179. From drill along these lines no genuine moral insight or education emerged, since the problems of conduct were settled mechanically by a formula. The young mind was left not with a responsible grasp of moral issues, but with the mere attitudes of acceptance or rejection which the labels right and wrong happened to touch off. To use the terms that C. K. Ogden has made familiar, right was reduced to a lure-call and wrong to a danger-cry. Morality signified a seeking reaction to the one and an avoiding reaction to the other. A radical flaw in such an educational method is that, while it may maintain current norms of behaviour in a society, it cannot raise them. In staking everything on the prevention of human deterioration, it jeopardises the prospect of human improvement. It is the ancient error of Plato.

180. Religious-minded youth workers are gradually switching over to other ways of influencing the conduct of the young. The view is gaining ground that the educational process has to start neither from moral absolutes nor from fixed subject-matter of any kind, but from the young person himself, with the stock of interests and attitudes discovered in him at the given moment. The task of education is to help him, from this starting-point, to build himself up into a personality ever more adequate, balanced, and unified. To learn is not to swallow neatly and without demur someone else's prescriptions ; it is to embark on creative and

responsible self-activity. Right and wrong are for working purposes defined mainly by reference to the social consequences of action—not to metaphysical abstractions.

181. In short, a little miracle is happening. Organised religion, for so many centuries the world's schoolmaster, is beginning both to learn and to admit that part of its job is to go on learning. The *major-domo* of the palace of eternal truth is taking a refresher course. There has been nothing like it since Christianity was founded. With regained self-confidence in action is joined a new intellectual humility. The long-despised and rejected voices of Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Dewey, though they may go by other names or by none, are at least accorded a hearing—sometimes puzzled, sometimes enthusiastic, almost always deferential. The old formulation that the times are out of joint and youth adrift, because people do not listen carefully enough to the churches, is seen to be too crude. The admission comes that organised religion is as much in need of reform as any other aspect of our disordered culture. The physician sets out to heal himself.

The Ecological Approach

182. Collaboration with all and sundry in the service of youth is inclining organised religion to pay critical attention also to its second traditional weakness—an idealistic individualism peculiarly unsuited to educational and social work. The love-intoxicated poet may insist that stone walls do not make a prison nor iron bars a cage, and that from the concentration camp of his nutshell he can operate in comfort as king of infinite space. Statistically speaking, however, human beings exhibit a tendency to be cramped and thwarted by walls and bars. If one wants a society of mature and competent individuals it does not pay to proceed on the assumption that the growth of personality consists in some unfolding of God-given latency which can take place independently of material surroundings. Whatever may be the right account of inward and spiritual grace, there is an order of being at which the moral struggle is made appreciably tougher by overcrowded and insanitary housing, by want of any kind of praise or social recognition, by poor food, by ceaseless noise, smoke, congestion, squalor, and lack of privacy. That is why the Youth Advisory Committee, in the same breath in which they declare their determination to serve religion, place at the head of their list of post-war priorities an immediate building programme "which will guarantee healthy conditions of living to all young people."*

183. It is, of course, no novelty that churchmen should show a concern for the people's housing. What is novel is that they should give to housing reform the first precedence in their plans for constructing an educational service. Nor is this urgency a bee in the bonnet of a single committee; it is widely endorsed throughout the youth service, and in

* *Youth Service After the War*: paras. 7 and 68. Cf also the injunction of the late Archbishop Temple:—"The Christian social witness must be radically dissociated from the idealism which assumes men to be so free spiritually that aims alone are decisive."

our Nottingham region no less than elsewhere, notwithstanding that the housing problem is not locally in so sorry a case as in some other parts of the country. No doubt good housing is valued thus highly not on any narrow hygienic grounds, but because a house may be the location of a spiritual home; and the intimate connection between home conditions and youth work has come to be generally grasped.

184. Here is seen the first step towards an ecological approach to youth work. It appears to concede in principle the claim of science that "we cannot separate the influence of the environment, since environment belongs to the unity which we perceive as life." This is a far cry from the old habit of singing solemn anthems about the sacred significance of the person, while at the same time turning young people loose to devour or be devoured in conditions violently destructive of personality; and then, when we discover the inevitable casualties battered and bleeding by the wayside, giving first-aid and explaining to them that their misfortunes need never have occurred if they had consistently regulated their behaviour in accordance with tolerance, mercy, and love.

185. Youth workers often sound a warning against the dangers of regarding girls and boys in the abstract, as mere items in an age-group. Statistical classifications, they urge, are ghostly figments. Our real business is with flesh-and-blood persons, this actual John—this actual Mary. Now they are going a step further and reminding themselves that even this John and this Mary are abstractions, if viewed in isolation from their social context. What we have to understand and to manipulate is hardly John and Mary as persons; it is rather the whole psychological field of force within which John and Mary are vectors expressing the potential at specific point-regions—a potential which varies with every change in the structure of the field.

186. The interest in ecology, the treatment of individual and environment as constituting a single living unit, the concern with function in a field of force rather than with the metaphysical substance or ultimate structure of personality—all this has far-reaching implications which are scarcely yet being worked out at any level in the youth service. But one thing is already obvious. The ecological approach, without in the least entering into conflict with ethical valuations, is creating a tendency to formulate the aims of youth work in biological rather than in ethical terms. The emphasis is less on goodness of the moral agent and more on completeness or maturity of the organism. Morality is not, indeed, belittled; but maturity is seen as the more comprehensive conception. To be a satisfactory person, it is hardly enough to be good; one should also grow up. One can practise all the proper loyalties from the cradle to the grave, and still, as one totters into senility, discover that one has by-passed maturity on the journey.

The Measure of Maturity

187. Finally, a forecast may perhaps be ventured. If the service of youth is to be understood as helping adolescents along the road to functional completeness or maturity, youth workers will be driven to define function and to say in what its completeness consists. Doubtless a part of the content will be health, which after all simply means wholeness. Another part is likely to be something in which youth organisations have so far shown small interest—namely, the power to distinguish between fact and fiction.

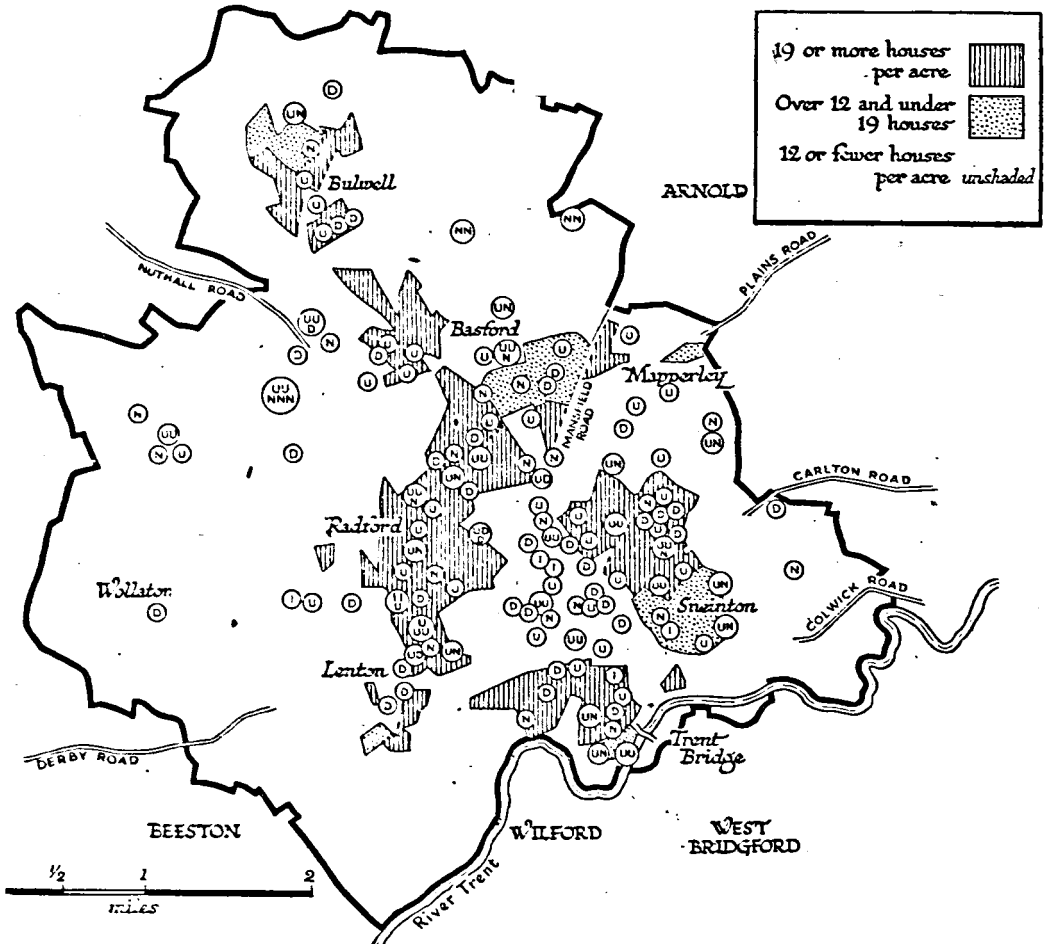


Fig. 10.

CITY OF NOTTINGHAM.

Location of Youth Clubs and Units in relation to Population Density.

- D=Denominational.
- I=Inter-denominational.
- N=Non-denominational.
- U=Uniformed.

188. The extent of this power is the measure of maturity. It is the mark of the child to be aware of persons and things only as affecting his own needs and desires ; he lives in a world that is a reflection of the fluctuating tissue-demands of his own organism. As he develops and sets out to explore his surroundings along an ever-lengthening radius, his perceptions come to include elements supplied by the state of affairs outside himself. The approach to maturity involves a progressive refinement of discrimination in sorting out the desire factors from the objective factors in perception. Intellectually, this means a growing competence in the pursuit of truth. Morally it means an advance beyond the pleasure principle to the sense of a more general good, a good-of-others, whose superior claims are acknowledged. In Freudian terms, it means the reclamation of the *id* (emotional impulse) by the *ego* (the self that knows and perceives). Such reclamation is the basis of all sensitive consideration for other people, as it is the main gateway to the good life. The Nazi belief in the omnipotence of the will, and in the virtues of fanatical brutality (you can get anything you want if you will it ruthlessly enough), exemplifies the opposite process of using the *id* to destroy the *ego*. Nazism is a methodical regression to the infantile condition, followed by the raising of infantilism to the highest power.

189. The youth service of the coming years will recognise this coincidence of the pursuit of truth with the achievement of maturity. It will note also that both are functions of self-knowledge. And self-knowledge is insight into one's own real situation and one's own real ingredients of physique, temperament and intelligence. As fellow-traveller and boon-companion of such insight marches humour. A man is full-grown indeed when he can jump clear of the " egocentric predicament," and see himself consistently as the behaving organism he is—the seven veils of bluff and make-believe all torn away ; when he can laugh at everything that is spurious, incongruous, and absurd in himself, and even (hardest challenge of all) join with others in laughing at it.

190. Maturity, we may say, is the power of self-objectification. Time must pass before it can come within the reach of the developing organism ; but no mere passage of time will place it in his grasp. Before we can weed out the desire factors from our perceptions, we must have begun to think. For to think is to verify—to prove an objective reference for some of our concepts and sentiments, and to disprove it for others. Hitherto a main concern of youth service has been to give young people advice about what to believe. Now it addresses itself to the more advanced task of explaining to them how to think. Discussion groups, " To start you talking," and the rest represent the first steps along the new path. But no Scout Law, no Code of Chivalry, no emblazoned scroll of youthful duties yet includes " Get Understanding " among its requirements, or recommends the exercise of thought as a valuable educative process. The stress is still all on honour, loyalty, and obedience—so much more soothing to the adult world than the yapping and scampering of puppies at the heels of truth.

Chapter 5

Evaluation

191. The observer of the war-time expansion of youth work can hardly fail to be impressed first with the magnitude of the effort made by the relatively small group of officials and unofficials who toil in this field with sadly inadequate resources; and second with the far-reaching changes in outlook and organisation that have transformed a labour of love undertaken by a few private societies into a new branch of the public service.

192. It is no less plain that, regarded as a public service, the service of youth is still in its first infancy. Organisationally it is made up of minute particular elements which do not readily form compounds, and which uncompounded remain too small and too little specialised for efficient working. It has not yet arrived at any considered division of labour between its constituent agencies. Each such agency, while clear enough as to its own aims, is vague about their relation to the aims of its allies and colleagues. And the entire service is short of reliable knowledge of the effects which its efforts actually produce on the young people themselves. When, therefore, we view the youth service in perspective—when we grasp it as part of the psychological whole which it forms together with the influences of home, workplace, and commercial entertainment, we cannot well insist that the leisure-time provision at present on offer is either appropriately balanced in itself or coherently related to the non-leisure experiences of the young. It is a multitude of strands and pieces not yet woven into a fabric.

Is Co-ordination Possible?

193. The British dislike of uniformity and centralised control, the clutching at variety for its own sake, are no doubt valuable safeguards against the regimentation and the *Gleichschaltung* of youth. The instinct in our people which sets them suspiciously on guard against all tendencies towards a unified Youth Movement is wholesome as well as shrewd. Not all of its consequences, however, are equally happy. So far, for instance, it has entailed a separatism and want of articulation that impair the force and cloud the meaning of youth work as a whole. It has confused unification on the organisational plane with integration on the psychological plane. Rightly steering clear of the first, it has needlessly rejected the second.

194. If the notable progress made by the youth service during the war is to be maintained and improved upon in peace, policy will be obliged to concentrate on certain main lines of development. Existing organisations must be helped to discover and to reach the ever-ascending levels of effective working towards which they are groping their way. Fresh types of organisation with a distinctive contribution to make will have to be called into being. Perhaps most important of all is to adjust the mutual relations of a rather amorphous crowd of small units and weld them into a co-ordinated scheme of provision for healthy culture. None of these three lines is independent of the others. None requires the imposition of new central controls or need involve any weakening of the voluntary principle. All imply the furnishing of new opportunities, incentives, and continuities.

195. The problem of co-ordination itself has several aspects. There is need (a) to establish continuity between the interests of the adolescent and his or her interests in the pre-adolescent and post-adolescent stages; (b) to establish a harmonious balance between the experience of the adolescent as a member of a youth organisation and his or her experiences in the home and in employment; (c) to co-ordinate the work of youth organisations *inter se*; (d) to co-ordinate the work of youth organisations with that of other agencies aiming at the welfare of young people.

196. On what principle of integration can these new inter-connections be set up? The answer we give will depend on how we conceive the function of leisure in our society. It is doubtful whether any clear view of the proper uses of leisure now prevails among us. But perhaps some relevant inferences may be drawn from more general social attitudes that are accorded wide approval.

Leisure now Universal

197. One thing is not in dispute, and that is that in our time leisure has become a possession common to all members of society, even though not distributed among them equally. "Leisure is no longer the privilege of the few. The diversions of leisure are now enjoyed by all classes, for mass production, first used to supply man's needs, is now used to supply his pleasures. The columns of our newspapers, the scenes at a Test Match, the crowded cinemas, the radio talking, singing, or acting in every street, these, the chief phenomena of our social life, will give to posterity the impression of a society with universal leisure, depending no longer on the taste or judgment of the few for its guidance, but using universal suffrage in its manners as in its politics, in the choice of its culture as in the choice of its Parliaments."*

198. The fact of universal leisure is everywhere acknowledged, but not welcomed everywhere. The same may be said of the probability that leisure will play a part of increasing importance in the social life of the future. Some people feel alarm when standards of taste and cultivation visibly slip out of the keeping of a specially equipped minority, accustomed to breathe an atmosphere of relative elegance and refinement. There are even those who repeat with foreboding the question posed by the historian of the Roman Empire "Is not every civilisation bound to decay as soon as it begins to penetrate the masses?" Others speak of the democratic illusion that reason or any other power can *educate* the masses in any genuine way. Such pessimistic views of popular culture sometimes spring from a Christian sense of sin, sometimes from a simple spiritual pride in would-be oligarchs. If one focuses attention on the current behaviour of boys and girls who leave school at 14, it is doubtless possible to select data which appear to endorse pessimism.

* J. L. and B. Hammond : "The Bleak Age." London. 1934.

199. Nevertheless, the pessimistic view must be presumed to have been rejected by an authoritative public opinion. In so far as British society has an agreed ideal, it aims, we may safely say, at popular responsibility rather than at mass-obedience. To borrow once more a fine phrase from the Hammonds, it attempts "so to educate its citizens as to give them independent qualities of intelligence and temper, seeking a unity that is not merely the unity of the closed mind." The aim is not restricted to the children most favourably placed in respect of social standing or even of mental ability. It embraces all non-defective children. The country's post-war education policy is now declared to be founded on the need for developing to the full, in the interests of individual and community alike, the general and specific powers of intellect and emotion with which each child may be endowed.

200. Such an educational conception can hardly confine itself to the schoolroom alone. It is obliged also to comprehend the child's leisure time, if only because of the fact, now well established experimentally, that otherwise the results of schooling are largely and quickly lost. Loss can be minimised only when the material presented in school is related to the child's out-of-school experience closely enough to obtain support from that source. It is extremely wasteful to tolerate a pendulum-movement in which the process of education in school is followed day in and day out by a process of dis-education in the home and in the street. Many teachers are aware of the extent to which this takes place to-day, and nothing could be more disheartening for them. If the purpose of school provision is to lay foundations for the full development of every child, purpose of leisure provision can only be to build on these foundations and to help the school-leaver along the path that leads to competent, mature, and well-adjusted personality. A really fruitful relation of school to club has yet to be worked out, and much investigation is needed into the effects of school training on the use of leisure after leaving school.*

201. Even a perfect relationship between the school service and the service of youth cannot guarantee achievement of so wide an educational aim. Cultivated taste, moral discernment and scruple, imaginative consideration for others, power to see things and persons as they are, unclouded by a fog of self-centred preconceptions and desires—there is no process of maturing and no refinement of public provision which will automatically ripen these fruits from a raw mass of mind and emotion. The untrained response of such a mass is rather towards "effects that are sensational, immediate, astonishing, and crude"; and that type of response is apt to become habitual under the vigilant encouragement of a commercialised entertainment industry. If we want responses of more civilised quality, the whole burden of eliciting them cannot fairly be laid on professional teachers and youth leaders. The intelligent co-operation of the entire community will have to be enlisted.

* See the paper by O. J. Morgan in *British Journal of Educational Psychology* vol. xiv. (i) 1944 p. 51.

Youth as Guardian of Culture

202. In a society, then, where on the one hand leisure is possessed by all in common, and which on the other hand, steers its course by reference to a democratic purpose, the mass of boys and girls between the dependence of childhood and the settled responsibilities of adult life must needs be guardians of the general standards of culture and civilisation. If those standards are to slip or fall, here is the point at which breakdown is likeliest. But the adolescents do more than guard our standards—whether well or ill. They embody the main factor of possible improvement of them. That is why it is important not to clamp too tightly on their developing personalities the conventional outlooks and valuations of their elders. The cultural variability of the young can alone serve as trustee for a better human life. In the effort to ensure that young people shall not fall below the standards we cherish, we must not make it impossible for them to rise above them. We do well to hold up exemplars for their guidance ; but we should leave them free to find and use new models of their own. And with them, not with us, lies the decision whether the new models shall supplement or supplant the old.

203. According to what precise formula freedom and discipline should be blended in the child-adult relationship—this is at all times the central problem for any system of public education which sets store by social progress. The special circumstances of our own day make the problem more crucial than ever. For defeat in war may scotch—but will not kill—totalitarianism and its ubiquitous challenge. Contemporary democracy, therefore, finds it difficult simply to stand on the defensive ; an attitude of combative affirmation is being forced upon it. This fact in turn entails that youth should have a certain pioneering function to perform. In the past, youth has rarely been encouraged to contribute to the dynamics of society. Grown-ups have rather sought to pour it, like a quick-setting fluid, into the moulds they thought appropriate. It is an old custom of ours to neutralise youth as an independent social variable.

204. Our forbears could treat youth as of small account because it was plentiful. In consequence of that treatment it has become scarce. In acquiring scarcity-value youth establishes a title to be given a positive charge in the social process. No new world can be built and no new social purpose adequately served without a distinctive contribution from young people. There can, indeed, be no harm in their declaiming “ Let us now praise famous men and our fathers that begat us,” if that is how they spontaneously feel. But it will be happier if they can warrantably add, with Homer’s heroes: “ Verily, we claim to be better men than our fathers were.” Happiest of all if the fathers admit the claim both as valid and as evidence of their own success as educators ; counting it their proudest boast when they can cry :—

“ I am the teacher of athletes ;

He that by me spreads a wider breast than my own proves the width of my own ;

He most honours my style who learns under it to destroy the teacher.”

205. To be sure, considerations such as these do not imply that the immature members of society should be invited to share in the great decisions of public policy. Nor is it suggested that immaturity possesses some special kind of wisdom and enlightenment. The suggestion is simply that our society and our posterity will gain if each new generation, when it comes of age, shows a psychological patterning materially different from that of its predecessor; and if that difference represents a practical adjustment to the advance in scientific knowledge which has taken place in the interval. In their pre-occupation with the problem of youth, adults themselves sometimes come to constitute a problem of age. The problem of age springs from the neurotic tendencies of tradition, in respect of which the harsh judgment is not seldom justified that "its overgrown fear of deviation from its own fortuitous standards conforms to all the usual definitions of the psychopathic." A "Service of Age" would comprise the efforts of young people to moderate such fears in their elders, to secure from them a finer discrimination in handling such deviations, and to induce a reasonable tolerance for deviations that in objective fact are not merely socially harmless, but actually calculated to lift man's associated life to a higher level. The aim of the Service of Age would be to preserve society from the disasters attendant upon cultural lag.*

Culture Expressed in Leisure

206. If the special importance of adolescents lies in the fact that they express the improvement-potential of society as a whole, the realisation of social improvement depends on the ways in which they spend their leisure. A person is trained *for* leisure by the product (not merely by the sum) of his experience at home and at school and at work. The quality of his performance in leisure is conditioned throughout by the quality of the influences coming from these three sources. He is concurrently trained *in* leisure partly by his actual leisure activities, and partly by the extent to which they form a unity or a harmony both with themselves and with the influences of work, school, and home. It is the connection between adolescent leisure and the healthy cultural advance of the whole community which should determine the future shape of the youth service.

207. A hundred and fifty years ago Archdeacon Paley was able to argue that "all the provision which a poor man's child needs is contained in two words—industry and innocence." Leisure here is regarded as the Tempter's Opportunity, the phase in which young folk get into mischief, unless prevented by their betters. The general population followed the routine of eating, drinking, working, and sleeping; it was dangerous if they had any time left over from these pursuits. Throughout the Nineteenth Century the notion died hard that hooliganism and brutalising

* Cultural lag is "the failure to apply the findings of science to the production of human happiness when they are made available by scientists"—or "the failure of society as a whole to re-adjust to its own potentialities of progress." See J. F. Brown: "Psychology and the Social Order." New York. 1936, p. 215.

excesses were the natural relaxation of the poor. "Open a school and you close a prison" proclaims the chief motive of many an educational pioneer. Working lads' clubs began as in some sort societies for the suppression, or at least for the forestalling, of vice.

208. To-day we have travelled far indeed from Paley. Even the Nineteenth Century recedes into the distance. An outlook which seemed natural then has long since been repudiated by the enlightened leaders of the club movement, who now expressly cry out against the notion of a club "as a mere refuge from the streets, an alternative to the pictures or the street corner, where leisure may be whiled away in innocuous amusements designed to keep boys out of mischief." Yet in the field of youth work, pockets can still be found where the old view survives, if not as an avowed conviction, at any rate as an underlying attitude. The club may not be regarded as an alternative to the street corner; but it is often what goes on at street corners that impels men and women with a social conscience to active participation in club work. Not a few club workers still appear to think of youth as a special kind of heathen that has to be converted to acceptance of prevailing orthodoxies in respect of certain crucial aspects of behaviour.

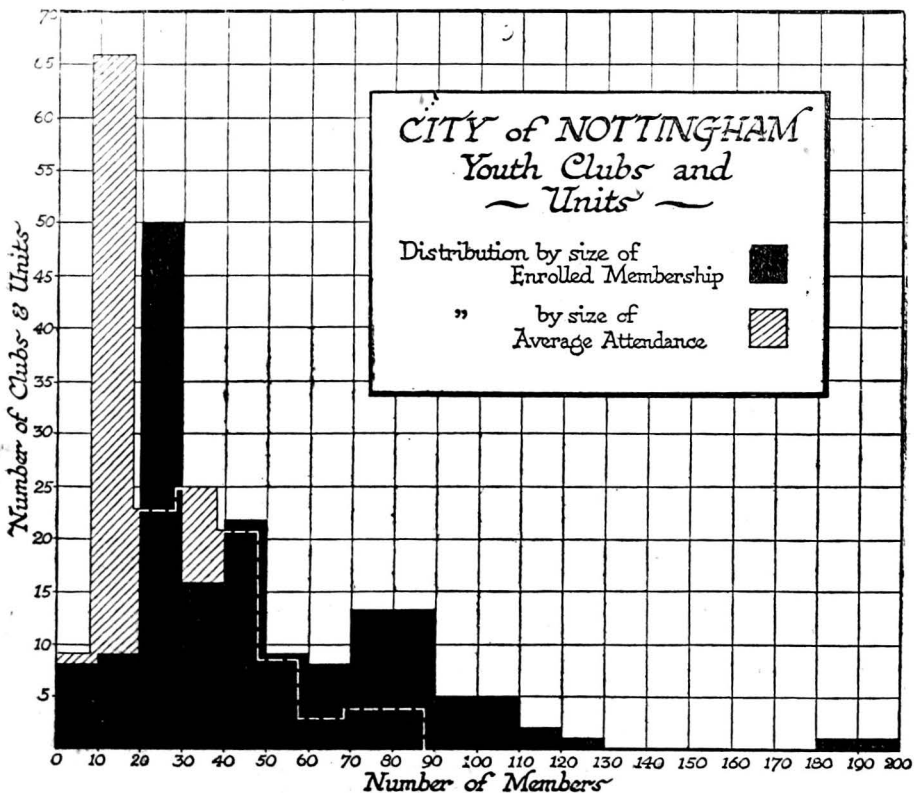


Fig. 11.

209. All this is encouraging evidence of the power of humane feeling among us. It also shows that we have incompletely adapted ourselves to a situation governed by the conjunction of democratic aims and universal leisure. The mass production of cheap amusements and crude excitements does of course furnish unprecedented opportunities for corrupting reason and feeling in young people ; and it is well that not merely youth workers but all responsible citizens should obstruct the exploitation of those opportunities in every possible way. At the same time, it has to be realised equally clearly that the very conditions which make mass corruption possible also furnish unprecedented opportunities for a great rise in the standards of public mental health, for new vitality in thought, for new sensibility in perception, for new altruism in conduct. This aspect of the matter has received relatively little attention. Whether the inventions that spread leisure and the inventions that universalise the ways of using it are to be employed to degrade the public mind or to enlarge and ennoble it is a CHOICE that lies before us. It is a free choice ; but one way or the other it must be made. There is nothing inevitable in cultural degeneration.

Home, School, and Work

210. Cultural degeneration is preventible when home, school, work and leisure all re-inforce one another in the experience and widening understanding of the country's children. Before any question can arise of the cultivated use of leisure, and consequently of social improvement, there must be provision for proper physiological maintenance and growth. Eating, drinking, keeping clean, sheltering from the weather, and sleeping—these are the foundations of all culture. The precise ways in which they are done in any human group go far to determine the group's cultural condition. In our society these foundations are in the main provided by the home, though in respect of some of them some homes may receive assistance from public authority. It is taken to be the business of the home also to furnish a general atmosphere of security and affection in the absence of which a child's natural development is apt to become warped. Again, it rests primarily with the home to form in the child various basic habits of personal and social hygiene, and to secure a certain minimum of conformity with group standards in other fields of behaviour. If the home fails in any of these tasks, there is a proportionate drop in the child's potential performance at school, in employment, and at leisure.

211. In a social system which aims at the cultural development of the masses, schooling is obliged to have regard partly to the child's leisure and partly to his probable employment. It must seek to give children command over the rudimentary symbols of speech and calculation, without which no effective work can be done and no rewarding leisure enjoyed. Sometimes it may seek also to impart specific techniques which are later to be used and extended in factory or farm, mine, or office. More fundamentally than this, it will seek to unfetter imagination, to refine taste and judgment, and to deepen insight. For its concern will be with the cultural values enshrined in science, art, and history. In the

best of our schools the specific technical skills themselves are already so taught that the principles underlying them become a permanent and flexible personal possession of the pupil, not restricted in their application to routine activities carried on under the supervision of others, but available for transfer to an unlimited range of novel situations.

212. Without therefore belittling the significance of the connection between schooling and working for a living, it may fairly be said that the crown and completion of the educational process is the beneficial use of eisure. Naturally there is a distinction to be observed between rest or ease on the one hand and leisure on the other. Rest is relative inactivity ; it is a cure for fatigue and a means to renewed labour. Leisure is activity engaged in for its own sake. It covers all the attempts that human beings make to control the social process in the interests of community. For work concentrates always upon proximate objectives ; in leisure alone is account taken of the ultimate *raison d'être* of human groupings. On this view leisure is what one is educated *for*. In a democratic world of universal leisure we must needs be Aristotelians to this extent. We may even add, with Aristotle, that no Spartan knows how to use leisure.

213. Conditions of employment in the place where young people earn their living can greatly help or hinder the preparation of their minds for the fruitful use of leisure. To many young workers the most conspicuous, and the most attractive, feature of leisure is its freedom from the constraint of "must." They regard their daily work as the recurrent servitude by which this fugitive freedom can be bought. To an outlook so divided leisure can seem no easier to use well than it is to buy cheap. A semblance of mutually destructive opposition between work and leisure is typical enough in the conditions of to-day, and all too readily follows from the mechanical and repetitive character of many procedures in workshop and office. But it can only lower the quality of performance both on the job and in the field of cultural interests outside it.

214. If a lad does his job simply for the sake of the wage earned, he cannot be said to do it intelligently or even freely. For he is not viewing his working output as the end of his own activity ; he is viewing it as the end of the activity of his employer. It is this fact which renders his activity illiberal from the standpoint of personality-development, and the illiberality, according to its degree, unfits him for a socially constructive use of leisure.

215. The difficulty is not insuperable. In principle it is overcome when the young worker achieves (a) insight into the social aims embodied in his job and (b) direct personal interest in advancing those aims. "In the degree in which men have an active concern in the ends that control their activity, their activity becomes free or voluntary and loses its externally enforced and servile quality, even though the physical aspect of behaviour remain the same."* Those who set out to organise the

* J. Dewey : "Democracy and Education." London, p. 304.

leisure activities of young people lose sight of this aspect of the problem at their peril. It resembles a stream which, rising indeed outside the province of their direct responsibility, none the less flows through it, and has power to make or mar their work.

THE INTEGRATION OF LEISURE ACTIVITIES

216. Some such conception of leisure and its relation to the other chief influences that shape personality seems to be demanded by the circumstances of our time. If, however, it is to inspire and construct the measures actually taken for the well-being of young people, means must be found for giving a certain coherence, both cultural and psychological, to the individual's varied leisure activities. We are in search of some governing interest capable of imparting this kind of harmony to the whole range of individual experience; or rather governing interests, for there is no reason to think that only one is discoverable. Indeed, at least four such interests are even now to a great or less extent in operation—the religious interest, the community interest, the family interest, and the health interest.

Religion

217. There are evident attractions in the notion of building leisure upon a religious foundation, in the same kind of sense in which the Education Act of 1944 seeks to found schooling upon religion. As we have abundantly seen, the religious interest has long been and remains a powerful impelling force over a wide section of the service of youth. A glance through a list of the chief youth organisations shows at once that a majority of them acknowledge a religious motive, of one kind or another, as the mainspring of their effort. From the standpoint of the promoters of youth work one can almost say that the religious interest is already its foundation.

218. Again, to view the matter from the standpoint of the young people themselves, religious experience is well understood to be a frequent and important concern during adolescence. It can offer, in forms at once peculiarly elevated and peculiarly satisfying, the blend of security and adventure for which youth craves. It can profoundly deepen insight into the reality of personal relations. Amid all the emotional ferment and intellectual thick-sightedness of the awkward age, it can furnish the growing mind with a star to steer by. In affording some kind of unified reading of life to floundering personality, it can effect a timely rescue from what is often felt as threatened disintegration. It can serve as a serene axis of meaning in the vortex of youth's bewilderment. No wonder some are tempted to think that, parallel with this integrative function in personality, religion may have an integrative function in the organisation of youth work too.

219. Only exceptionally, however, does the religious interest develop to so telling a point even in personal life. It has been found by some of those who interview boys and girls on registration* at the age of 16 that the common attitude to religion is one of indifference. Another study shows that by far the commonest age-period for discontinuing church attendance is between 15 and 19 for both sexes.† True, a Liverpool questionnaire for young people received an overwhelmingly affirmative response to the inquiry "If you had a home of your own, would you think it essential that your children should attend worship regularly at home and/or at church?" But a "Yes" answer here is not incompatible with personal apathy towards the claims of divine service. It is very human to feel that we have outgrown obligations which are nevertheless salutary enough for those younger than ourselves.

220. Other evidence from the same investigation is that religion is rarely discussed by young people at their place of work. As a topic of discussion in leisure time it ranks at the bottom of a list of six—the others being (in order of descending popularity) sport, the cinema and other amusements, the opposite sex, employment, and politics.‡ James and Moore in their Manchester inquiry also found that religious activities taper almost to nothing by the age of 20 in both sexes; though on the whole the religious percentage of gross leisure time is higher among girls than among boys. None of this, of course, is conclusive as to the general feeling of young people in all parts of the country for or against what the churches have to offer, and still less as to their feeling for or against religion as a type of personal experience. But the trend of recent systematic investigation is undoubtedly to support the belief that forms of worship have commanding attraction and significance for only a small minority of young people to-day.

221. The Rev. J. Butterworth, founder and head of Clubland, Walworth, makes some forthright comments in this context. "We cannot," he says, "waste time on side-issues such as 'Will young folks go to church?' They won't, because they are just not interested . . . A youth centre must not be run only on tramlines laid down by adults. Its primary motive must not be to fill empty pews because all else has failed, and certainly not to recruit adherents to the political, social, or religious fancies of mature believers."§

222. It is not surprising, then, that signs sometimes appear of an awkward difference of outlook between sponsors and leaders of clubs on the one hand, and the club members on the other. In order to avoid cross-purposes the former may seek to present religious material in diluted or

* See e.g. Memo. on the Registration of Young Persons prepared by the Wallasey Youth Committee under date June 17, 1943.

† F. E. Moreton: Attitudes to Religion among Adolescents and Adults, *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, vol. xiv (ii), 1944.

‡ "See Youth in the Changing World." (Report prepared by the Liverpool Youth Organisations Committee, 1944).

§ *Sunday Times*, October 29, 1944.

camouflaged or sugar-coated forms. This coaxing of the dainty humours of the young can be a humiliating phase of youth work. One organisation, for instance, issues a propaganda leaflet which sets out to dispel the hesitations of possible recruits. A "prospect" is represented as nibbling, but not yet hooked; and he observes: "I hope this is not a catch to push religion down my throat." To this, the front-bench official reply is given: "Not at all. It is true that we sing a hymn which has been specially written for us, but if you think of our closing ceremony as an Epilogue, you will have the right idea." Here the notion of the youth group as a religious trap baited with alluring social amenities is expressly repudiated.

223. In another pamphlet, prepared by the same organisation for the guidance, not of recruits, but of its own responsible youth workers, the same point is taken up, and accorded a different treatment. "Now that education is making a great use of self-expression work, games, etc., we must also adopt methods which will allow youth to express itself, believing that, after the young people have found friendship and happiness in our midst, we shall then be able to lead them to Christ." Here, by contrast, the suggestion is that games and other social amenities are to be used as a lure to induce the fly to walk into the spider's parlour; and that, once decoyed inside, the fly can readily be involved in the toils of a Christianity whose claims it is impolitic to state openly or in advance.

224. Such a manipulation of the mechanism of the conditioned response is not flattering either to young people or to Christianity. It may even set up a relation between club leader and club member which, in human terms, is somewhat false. The member soon suspects that he has been enticed inside in order to "be done good to"—a prospect superlatively distasteful to him. In the effort to find a way past this sales-resistance the leader has recourse to bluster or sleight-of-hand. The result is the one we always meet when we try to warm others at our fires before their own are kindled.

225. Such attempts to give Christian faith a surreptitious recommendation succeed in many cases in arousing only antipathy to it. A proportion of young people imagine that in the sphere of belief they are being urged to force their thoughts and aspirations into an antique mould both alien to them and devoid of topicality. In the sphere of conduct, what is required of them, they gather, is conformity to predetermined abstract standards. Situations in their personal lives which they feel as calling for a tricky psychological adjustment, will often be seen by their leader as embodying a plain moral or spiritual issue. Then they are apt to be handed the stone of admirable precept (and perhaps also of admirable example) while inwardly they cry for the bread of sensitive understanding of their specific emotional tensions and for flexible help in discharging them.

226. There are leaders, of course, whose own religious experience is varied enough, and who have added to it enough psychological insight, to surmount these difficulties without losing their own candour or the young

person's trust. Nevertheless, the fact remains that religion, as it normally operates in youth work, tends to be more a stimulus-field prepared by the adults than a response-pattern spontaneously adopted by the young.

227. Finally, there is the circumstance that so much of the youth service is undertaken by denominational and inter-denominational bodies. As we have seen, this kind of set-up has genuine all-round advantages. It also involves the introduction of a certain proselytising factor into the total picture. Each denomination tends to hold that no influence can be called religious in the full Christian sense unless it leads up to and prepares for membership of a Christian church. There is a corresponding tendency therefore, for youth work to be regarded as a branch activity providing re-insurance for the fortunes of the parent churches. There is nothing objectionable in this. A religious communion, in seeking to safeguard its own future by enlisting the loyalty of young people, displays an entirely natural and legitimate form of self-interest. But, unobjectionable and in some ways positively advantageous as such self-interest may be, it makes it difficult to use religion as a means to the closer integration of the youth service in general.

228. On all these grounds, it appears that the main overall effect of the religious interest will be to compartmentalise youth work rather than to unify it. We should not lament this, since the work needs organising in compartments just as much as it calls for some principle of unification. Our conclusion is merely that the religious interest, as we know it at present, is unlikely to carry out both tasks. Of the vital contribution which both the religious interest in general and denominational effort in particular have to make and are making, there can of course be no question.

Community

229. Much valuable work has been done in attempts to give youth work a balanced articulation on the basis of neighbourhood. The community centres set up in modern housing estates under the auspices of the New Estates Community Committee, and the village colleges established by the Cambridgeshire Education Authority, are well-known examples of such work. Community Centres of this type have received the blessing of the *Scott Report* as being "very near the ideal for a large village or group of villages." And they have equal importance for the urban areas. Recently the Ministry of Education has prepared a pamphlet in which detailed plans are given for joint establishments comprising Community Centre and County College or Community Centre and Youth Centre.* The success of some of these enterprises has lent colour to the hope that similar institutions may become in time a universal feature of the social landscape. Discussion begins to postulate the creation of one such centre for every neighbourhood unit of 5,000 to 10,000, until the country is studded with communal meeting-grounds where people can foregather with their friends and enjoy a sense of belonging to a community. The centre typically provides recreational, cultural and educational amenities

* Ministry of Education : *Community Centres*, 1944. Appendix I. of the pamphlet outlines the history of the development of these centres.

for juveniles and adults in one building (though sometimes in separate rooms), and may include any or all of the following list : Church or chapel, library, theatre, music room, art gallery, restaurant, dance-hall, child welfare and other clinics, rooms for classes and discussion groups, games rooms, gymnasium, swimming bath, and playing fields for outdoor activities.

230. Thus a community centre is founded on the fact of neighbourhood and the pursuit of neighbourliness. It proceeds by pooling at some central spot the various cultural interests which the neighbourhood displays. It may be closely linked with a secondary or central school-

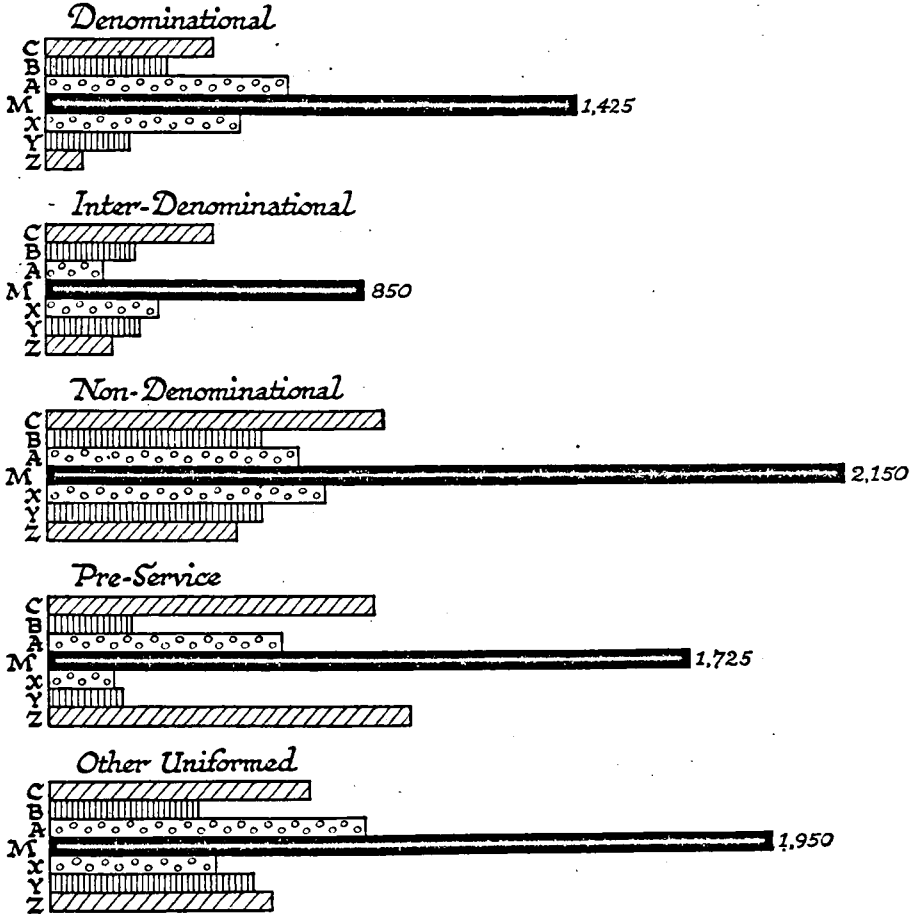


Fig. 12.

**CITY OF NOTTINGHAM YOUTH CLUBS AND UNITS.
DISTRIBUTION OF MEMBERSHIP BY ATTENDANCES AND
ACTIVITIES.**

M=Number of enrolled members on Oct. 29, 1944.
 Number of enrolled members who, between Oct. 1 and Oct. 29, 1944, had attendances
 Averaging one or less per week A
 Averaging between one and two per week .. B
 Averaging two or more per week C
 Number of enrolled members who, between Oct. 1 and Oct. 29, 1944, engaged
 in only one serious activity per week .. X
 Only two serious activities per week .. Y
 Three or more serious activities per week .. Z

and may share with it certain facilities and equipment. In its more comprehensive forms a community centre may include some part of the official medical and health services of the locality. The National Council of Social Service, one of the bodies that have pioneered the development of such centres, defines a community centre as a building which :—

Serves a community organised in an Association which is responsible for the management of the building ;

Provides facilities for the development of the recreational, cultural, and personal welfare of the members of that community ; and

Constitutes a meeting-place for voluntary organisations or other groups in the community which need accommodation.

231. Here again, as in the case of religion, we meet a principle which evidently has a distinctive and essential contribution to make. The problem of integrated leisure will not be solved without the invocation and full employment of the conception of community based on neighbourhood. The Ministry of Education's pamphlet calls for a large-scale development of community centres, particularly on new housing estates after the war. If such development were successfully carried through, it would go far towards surmounting the troubles with which youth workers are at present plagued by reason of unsuitable and under-equipped premises. By sharing the facilities afforded in a good community centre, youth clubs would be able to enjoy the use of many things they could not severally acquire for themselves, such as complete gymnasium, hall fitted with stage and film-projector and wired for sound, fully-equipped hobbies' rooms and work rooms, library, playing fields, perhaps swimming bath, and so on. And they would be able to do this without losing their identity as youth clubs or impairing their autonomy as voluntary organisations.

232. The kind of centralisation of cultural provision now contemplated by the Ministry has further advantages. It is not committed, or is only partially committed, to the segregation of adolescents by age and sex which many people are beginning to think of as one of the weaknesses of the older tradition in youth work. Again, it emphasises the continuity of communal education in the widest meaning of the term. "If young people see older people voluntarily seeking further education, they will be encouraged to believe that education is really worth their own while, and is not just a meaningless burden which their elders have gladly shed."* Finally, in some cases, it introduces into cultural provision, if only in tentative and unconsidered fashion, the all-important interest of health, which is further discussed below. (Para. 247).

233. All this is much; and it opens up many a new possibility in youth work. There are aspects, however, in which the current conception of a community centre seems to need filling out with some vital supplement. The typical centre is a bundle of facilities. An answer is required to the question : "In what precise conditions does a bundle of facilities come

* Report of the Wilmslow Community Centre Committee, September, 1944, p. 11.

alive?" Such a bundle can indeed be invaluable to people in whom relevant interests have already been independently aroused, and who are already accustomed to go out after what they want. To them the centre is as food to the hungry. The motive (hunger) and the incentive (food) are present and perceived together; the organism accordingly moves towards its goal. But matters are different when the incentive is spread out with regard to the type of motivation at work in the organism which it is intended to attract—regardless even of whether the organism is relevantly motivated at all. In such a case we may find ourselves tempting cats with carrots and donkeys with saucers of milk.

234. It is right that facilities should be provided for those who wish and know how to use them. That is one part of the task, and a good community centre is well adapted to fulfil it. But there is another part, too—namely, to coax out those who suffer from social and cultural starvation, and who are so far devitalised as to subsist without hope or desire of extending the radius of their social and cultural experience. What is needed here is some means of breaking down the serried and ingrained inhibitions betrayed in the cry: "Oh, I couldn't do that!" The mere tying up in one parcel of a bundle of facilities can hardly be a sharp enough solvent.

235. If a community centre is likely to have small success in calling forth new motives, we may expect its success in cancelling established ones to be smaller still. Will it, for instance, display the drawing-power to lead the population away from the present widespread misuse of commercial entertainment? What influence will it have on people inured to four visits to the cinema every week, or to daily dealings with the betting tout? Will it ever force any modification in the character of commercial entertainment itself? There is a disproportion between the semi-official and as it were passive provision of higher-grade cultural facilities on the one hand, and the formidable labour of reducing the morbid popular appetite for cheap sensation on the other.

236. Again, it is not always clear whether a community centre is presumed to call a community spirit into existence, or to express one that already exists, or to do both by some reciprocal inter-action between the people who frequent the centre and other dwellers in the neighbourhood. In any case, any arrangement which bases itself primarily on the development of a neighbourhood spirit is uncomfortably at the mercy of the nomadism—the labour migration—which is a feature of our time and which is not likely to become less prevalent with the implementation of a policy of full employment. "People who expect to stay no long time anywhere tend naturally to care little and do little for the places in which they happen to find themselves."*

237. On the whole, then, the discussion leads to a point similar to that to which we were led in considering religion. As religion, in its relation to the leisure of young people, is a culmination, not a starting-point, so a live sense of community arising out of geographical propinquity is a

* Church Assembly : *The Church and the Planning of Britain*. London, 1944, p. 7.

superstructure, not a foundation. It does not bring integration about; it reflects it, if and when it has been brought about by other agencies. Obviously youth work, like any other concrete activity, must have a local habitation; and in this sense we can say, if we like, that it is based on a neighbourhood. But that is a different thing from saying that it springs from the self-consciousness of a local community or that such self-consciousness can initially be used to give it co-ordination and articulated purpose.

238. Such reflections suggest that some middle term is missing from the argument as conducted so far—some bridge leading from the individual to the local community whose cultural interests the community centre is to express. It is commonly held that such a bridge, or better perhaps, such a transformer sub-station, is the family. And the view now for consideration is that the neighbourhood, if it is to exhibit active neighbourly feeling, must function as a federation of families rather than as an assemblage of individuals. Support for this view may be found in the way in which a localised community-sense has grown out of the shared activities of war-time in towns exposed to bombing—out of service at air-raid warden's posts, on firewatching duty, in rescue and ambulance squads, or perhaps in working a war-savings' group.

239. There is evidence that in groups formed for such purposes the feeling of what constitutes the neighbourhood is often surprisingly narrow, extending, it may be, no further than a single street or even one side of a street. But the fact that local residents do accept spontaneously a measure of responsibility for what they regard as their area undoubtedly shows how a mere locality can, in certain conditions, transform itself into an organic community. Here we may have hit on a valuable clue to the proper organisation of post-war leisure. It seems safe to infer from war-time experience that these small neighbourhood-communities spring up (a) because whole families participate and are felt to be involved in the stress of common danger; and (b) because all are swayed by the governing interest of safety. The moral for leisure provision in time of peace would appear to be this. If, with the disappearance of the danger-stimulus that brought them forth, such incipient communities are not to revert to inorganic localities again, the principle of family participation should be retained for leisure-time activities, and the governing interest of safety should be replaced by its peace-time equivalent of health.

Family

240. It was remarked above that, if any one characteristic can be said to be common to young people of every sort and condition, it is a passionate desire both for adventure and security; and that some of them find a unity of these opposites in religion. At a different level of experience, others find it in relationships of which the home and the circle of family acquaintance are the focus. In the happiest homes adventure and security, in a flexible and dynamic equilibrium, are directed towards some relatively stable goal and modulated in accordance with a relatively fixed

interest. Authentic religious experience is a privilege of the few. Family life of some kind is the lot of the great majority—at least until the end of adolescence. Yet in spite of all that religion and the family can do, large numbers of adolescents plough their way through a welter of purposeless perils, set against a background of boredom and resentment. Since the human organism can boast an astonishing toughness, they survive ; but at a cost in stunted and devitalised existences that we are fortunate in being unable to measure.

241. No doubt such facts reflect gravely on the average quality of home life in our society. On the whole, parents appear to be the weakest link in the chain of responsibility for the upbringing of the young. There is, at least, unexampled unanimity that the crying need is to seek the welfare of youth not exclusively in youth work as such, but in family work—in the reconstruction of the hearth and the rehabilitation of the home.* Magistrates, police, probation officers, medical officers of health, educationists, psychologists, biologists, ministers of religion, welfare workers—all agree perhaps on no other single point than this: That somewhere in the home and the parent-child relationship is hidden the master-key to “the problem of youth.” More impressive even than this unwonted concord is the fact that those parents who are able to make what arrangements they think best for their children, choosing from the full range that our civilisation affords, in practice take the hearth and the home as the key-point in their parental policy. They lavish the best of their care upon the organisation of that key-point ; and the lives of their children develop as a planned expansion about its central stability.

242. The cardinal features of these fully-elaborated hearth-homes will repay close attention from youth workers. They may be summarised as follows :—

(a) Companionship and privacy are equally provided for. Opportunities for society abound ; so do opportunities for withdrawal. Playmates are on tap, when required ; and there is always the satisfying solitude of a room of one’s own, to which one can retire when the mood prompts. One selects the playmates ; equally the furnishings of one’s private quarters are chosen to express one’s idiosyncrasies of interest and taste.

(b) Material equipment is varied and profuse ; food and drink, toys and games, nurseries, luxurious bathroom and toilet apparatus, handsome furniture and stimulating décor, gardens, fields and woods, animal pets, multiple means of transport, high mobility for excursions and sight-seeing, travel at home and abroad.

(c) Emphasis is laid on training both as host and as guest. Visitors of all ages come into one’s house to share a meal or stay a night ; one makes equally frequent visits to other people’s houses for similar purposes.

* Since these terms are often used ambiguously, it is well to explain the signification attached to them in the text. “Family” means the parent-child group, the biological unit of human community. “Hearth” means the material equipment at the disposal of family life for the purposes of nourishment, shelter and private enjoyment, and includes the particular location at which such equipment is brought together for use. “Home” means the psychological field of force bounded and structured by the family function.

It would be hard to exaggerate the importance of such experiences from the standpoint of character-training. For, while to offer hospitality and to accept it both involve alert and subtle consideration for others, the consideration due as host is sharply differentiated in type from the consideration due as guest. The elementary school-leaver is, on the whole, a stranger to either; thereby missing, if we may trust the insight of Max Beerbohm, something distinctively human, something won by man in his age-long struggle for self-development, something not shared with the rest of the animal creation. "Lions do not ask one another to their lairs, nor do birds keep open nest."*

(d) For children nurtured at these fortunate hearths there comes, early in adolescence, a progressive association with adult activities, especially in the spheres of hospitality, travel, æsthetic and intellectual interests, games, and field sports such as hunting and shooting: a fairly thorough *tirocinium fori et militiae*.

(e) As an accompaniment of the *tirocinium*, there is planted in the child's mind a general sense that parents and their friends are persons of consequence and power, who are keeping the seat of authority warm against his own eventual succession. This confident expectation of inheriting social influence as of right is of great psychological importance. The feeling of being well looked after does not always lead to dependence and lack of initiative. There are conditions in which it brings a comfortable assurance that chances can be taken without courting disaster—the spirit of Palmerston's "England is strong enough to brave consequences."

243. In these conditions hearth and home *are* security; and adventure, while not conterminous, is in truth contiguous and continuous with them. Adventure is the hinterland, home is the port-base from which it is explored. Leisure activities either take place within the home circle, or represent brief excursions beyond it. In the latter case they are projects moving along a radius that has the home for centre; they are enlargements of the context of family life. Boarding-school is smoothly included in the nexus, increasing the adventure without lessening the security, and bringing the child up against more searching forms of life without marooning him. In such a system the young are never wholly segregated either by age or by sex, by belief or by costume, from the circle of family acquaintance or indeed from the adult world in general. They hive off temporarily for some particular activity with particular groups of friends. But their activities have no tendency to isolate them from other members of the family, or to divorce their experimental interests from the abiding interests of the home.

244. Things cannot, of course, be managed in just this way in every family in the country. Among many of the poorer families the material means for so elaborate and delicately poised a balance simply do not exist. Housing space, gardens, transport, money, equipment—all are

* King George's Jubilee Trust might well work out and sponsor hospitality schemes by which one youth club entertains another.

inadequate if the individual family is taken as the unit. But there is surely a useful hint that we may take from the practice of those families in which material means are not a limitation. The "problem of youth" is not so much to set up separate institutions and organisations for adolescents treated in isolation from their families. It is rather to provide, on a co-operative basis which will include many families, the advantages the most favoured families already enjoy on a private basis.

245. The practical example of well-to-do families is not our only guide. At several points it is reinforced by a mass of clinical evidence as to the origins of maladjusted and neurotic conditions. These are commonly traced to a specific moment or period in childhood when some false or distorted relationship between child and parent (or parent substitute) imparts distortion to the child's emotional development. Thus many of the forms of behaviour that we deplore in adolescents are rooted not merely in the pre-adolescent experience of the individuals concerned, but also in the character of their family life. It is not easy to eradicate them by any influence brought to bear during adolescence, though this can sometimes be done when sustained treatment is available. But if prevention, as distinct from cure, is the aim, it can only be attained by the suitable modification of family life throughout its course.

246. Many hygienists would push the problem further back than childhood, urging that even the moment of birth is too late to begin the continuous care of the new generation; it should begin when growth itself begins—that is to say, from the moment of conception. On this view, the youth service merges with the child service, and ultimately with the embryo service; an effective service of the younger generation will have to include in its target not only the new organism at every stage of development, but the parents also, and indeed the man and wife at the stage of prospective parenthood. The real unit on which we should be working is not the child at all, but the child-adult group.

Health

247. Such a view of the issue before us points unmistakably to the organisation of leisure activities on the basis not of individual membership, but of family membership. And in fact experiments have been made with family clubs. Perhaps the best known of them is the Peckham Health Centre, which is actually a *health* club that makes the family its unit-member, treats the individual at all ages as a component part of a family, and does not admit him or her to membership in his or her own right. In the words of its sponsors, "it offers to *families* a *health* service constituted on the pattern of a Family Club, with periodic health overhaul for all its members, and with various ancillary services for infants, children, and parents alike."*

* This Health Centre is a valuable object-lesson for all youth workers to-day, both because of its intrinsic interest as a pioneering venture, and because its experience has been fully described and documented in a series of studies, viz. :—

The Case for Action. (Faber & Faber. 1931.)

Biologists in Search of Material. (Faber & Faber. 1938.)

The Peckham Experiment. (Allen & Unwin. 1943.)

248. It is noteworthy that such success as this centre has had (and it is acknowledged by most observers to be striking) is ascribed to the setting up of positive health—total health of body and mind—as the governing and architectonic aim in whose service all cultural activities are undertaken. To the crucial question “What interest is to bring and hold families together as members and managers of a club organisation?” the Peckham experiment has provided one answer. Its answer is: “Interest in the health of the family group, functioning through a live and growing home.” Health in this context has little to do with the quenching of disease; it means the kindling of the fire of life—health as a positive, constructive aspect of culture. “Health is more, not less, infectious and contagious than sickness—given appropriate circumstances in society for contact.” The specific cultural preferences of individuals and even the community spirit itself find expression as accompaniments of this self-realisation of the family function.

249. A zone of mutuality is formed among the member-families. As each family develops biologically, socially, and culturally, so the mutual zone expands with it. Eventually each family has for its social environment an organised community of families. “Just as our own body is made up of cells, so this community is made up of homes, whose interfacial surfaces are absorbing material and experience that is in circulation throughout the whole social body, that body being modified the while by the synthesis of each and all of its component homes.”* We have seen that all manner of eminent authorities agree in attributing the main shortcomings of young persons to “lack of parental control” or “bad home conditions” or “the lost supremacy of home.” What has been lacking hitherto is a practical, working demonstration of how leverage can be exerted on the intimacies of home life in such a way as to secure the discharge of the family function at a continuously rising cultural level. It is the distinction of Peckham to have supplied this lack. In principle the club becomes, for each family, a part of the home, integral and organic with it. There is no conflict between the cultural aim and the health aim. The pursuit of health will lead to comprehension of the facts of mental and physical hygiene; and as hygienic conditions are achieved, they will be manifested in higher cultural interests and attainments.

250. It is evident that a conception of this kind has far-reaching social implications. Its bearing on what the Church Assembly in a recent discussion calls “political health” is close.† “Political health,” the Church Assembly report observes, “is itself dependent, to a degree far greater than is generally realised, upon the health of those ‘pre-political’ elements in the social life of a people which fundamentally determine the character of a civilisation. It has been well said that

‘ Good politics require that he (man) must be able to count on a certain settlement in religion, cultural, and economics. It is also necessary that the forces in this more indeliberate part of a man’s

* See *The Peckham Experiment*, p. 298.

† See *The Church and the Planning of Britain*, p. 6.

life should work with and not contrary to the more conscious aims which make up politics . . . An integrating principle for the pre-political sphere which includes family, culture, livelihood, must be found. For man cannot be a self-conscious citizen all along the line, all the time. The alarming problem of our time is that when man is called to exercise vast political responsibility, he is at the same time torn away from the pre-political basis of his life.'**

Those who have conducted the Peckham Experiment might claim that the integrating principle demanded in this passage is found in the pursuit of family health in a family club:

251. The Peckham literature is sometimes critical of the aims and methods adopted in youth groups of our customary type. The main burden of the criticism is that the older tradition in youth work, based on the segregation of adolescents under "professional" adult leadership, may sometimes be suitable as a repair-process for young people who have sustained psychological or physiological damage in early life; but it is powerless to prevent such damage; moreover, to apply remedial techniques to cases that are not pathological may often be dangerous.† Both the general outlook and the specific criticisms show that in this experiment and its literature we are confronted with a new school of thought which is likely to have a deep and disturbing effect on current conceptions about the welfare of the younger generation. Some of its ideas are controversial and will be hotly disputed. Such controversy, however, is healthy, and in the general interest much to be welcomed as an entirely natural feature of the transition through which the service of youth is passing—the transition from the phase of pathology to the phase of positive cultivation (para. 166). In the past the youth service has suffered from a want of such fundamental argumentation.

252. It would be a pity if this vital debate were hushed up or soft-pedalled as likely to prove diplomatically inconvenient. The fruitful way of handling it is for all participants to face their differences frankly, to bring the new ideas out into the full light of critical scrutiny and proof, and to arrange for the widest discussion of them at all levels in the youth service, including the level of the young people themselves. The Peckham claims and hypotheses are at present grounded in experience gained at one institution in one part of London. Before they can be accepted with assurance as having more than local application, they need to be tested in a number of other geographical areas and social settings. Such testing can best be carried out by founding more health clubs based on family membership at selected points up and down the country. Some of these might profitably be used as research stations, perhaps in conjunction with universities, in the interests both of young people's welfare in particular and of social science in general.

* Dr. V. A. Demant : " The Theology of Politics " in *Christendom*, September, 1943.

† See esp. : *The Peckham Experiment*, pp. 270 ff.

Chapter 6

*Summary and
Suggestions :*

Chapter 1. THE SETTING

The appropriate division of our region, for the purpose of a survey of youth work, is into three sectors, having different economic bases and different social textures. These are (a) a sector in which the agricultural interest predominates; (b) a sector in which the mining interest predominates; and (c) a sector in which manufacturing and commercial interests predominate.

The socio-economic differences between the three sectors give rise to parallel differences in the needs and outlook of young people, and hence in the character and problems of youth work.

Very roughly, the agricultural sector lies to the South and East of the river Trent, with some extensions west and north-west of the Trent valley; the mining sector lies between the county's western border and a line drawn southwards from Harworth in the north, through Worksop, Warsop, and Mansfield, to Hucknall and Nottingham (here too there are extensions—east and north-east of Mansfield); the industrial sector covers the City of Nottingham and its manufacturing and residential satellites.

The sectors thus indicated, however, do not tally with the official divisions used in administering the service of youth. That service is treated as a part of higher education. There are two Part II authorities in our region—the County Borough of Nottingham, responsible for the City of Nottingham, and the Nottinghamshire County Council, responsible for all the rest of the County beyond the City boundaries. The central co-ordinating and stimulating authority is the Ministry of Education.

The general picture of the youth service is of a multiplicity of clubs, groups, and units, organised, managed, and partly financed by voluntary societies, but receiving varied help, if they desire and merit it, both in money and in kind from the LEA's and from the Ministry.

The pre-service organisations, while eligible for this same assistance in respect of their social, recreational, and cultural activities, are controlled and grant-aided in respect of their service training by the appropriate defence Ministry.

Chapter 2. THE EXTENT

In October, 1944, there were some 900 youth groups known to the LEA's in our region, with a total membership of 22,000 to 24,000. The membership fluctuates seasonally within fairly wide limits. But it is safe to say that, among the 14 to 18 age group, 40 to 50 per cent. of the girls and 50 to 60 per cent. of the boys are in 1944-45 attached to some group. This represents approximately a three-fold expansion since 1939.

Before the war no public funds were spent on youth service in the present meaning of the term. For the year 1944-45 public spending in the County and City of Nottingham amounts to over £30,000, exclusive of service training grants to pre-service organisations.

Youth groups differ in the frequency of their active sessions and in the ratio of average attendance to total membership. If we give the highest possible use-rate of a club the value of 1, the use-rate actually shown by individual clubs and units in Nottingham during October, 1944, varied from .09 at the bottom of the range to .83 at the top. The average use-rate for all Nottingham groups at that time was .29.

In Nottingham nearly three-fifths of all enrolled members seem to attend sessions of their organisations less than twice a week on the average. Corresponding figures for the County are not available.

There is a chronic shortage of playing-fields, camping grounds, and holiday hostels.

The total membership of youth groups probably still shows a slightly rising tendency, though this is not certain, as records are imperfect. Membership of most types of organisation was fairly steady during the autumn and winter of 1944-45, but in two it was declining rapidly—the Air Training Corps and the Girls' Training Corps.

There are indications that, with 40 per cent. of the adolescent group still "unattached," juvenile demand for admission to the existing types of organisation is at or near saturation point. There also looms ahead the problem of taking up the slack represented by the sagging pre-service membership.

Chapter 3. THE PATTERN

For the purposes of this report the most significant classification of youth organisations is taken to be the classification into uniformed and non-uniformed. The total of youth groups in our region is almost equally divided between these two categories; and this proportion holds for County and City separately, as well as together. In the City the uniformed *membership* is 45 per cent. of the whole.

There has been an important increase in mixed clubs and mixed activities. It seems that this follows of necessity from the large-scale organisation of the leisure of girls.

In some respects club times and juvenile leisure do not appear to fit well together. Leisure is concentrated into Saturday and Sunday; club openings are concentrated into the first five week-days.

The territorial spacing of club premises and meeting-points seems to be even and thorough in the big urban centres. In the rural districts it is much less patchy than might have been supposed, in view of the difficulties of organisation among a thin and scattered population. On the whole, the ground appears to be covered least completely in the mining villages; and an impression is gained that there the boys tend to be better provided for than the girls.

The size of youth groups tends to be small. In the city two-thirds of all groups have a membership of less than 50. The modal membership figure is 20 to 30. Large numbers of groups show average attendances of 10 to 20. Some distortion must be allowed for in these figures owing to special features in the count on which they are based. But even when due correction is made, the increase in the figures given is only slight. Both membership and average attendance figures tend to be lower for girls' groups than for boys'.

According to returns recording how often young people engage in "serious activities" during club sessions, 25 per cent. of the total membership in the city show no "serious activities" and another 25 per cent. show only one "serious activity" per week.

Chapter 4. THE QUALITY

There are few complaints of the administrative machinery of the youth service, and in our region it operates with enviable smoothness. Although, for fear of official control, some club bodies still fight shy of assistance from public funds, a genuine partnership is being built up between statutory authorities and voluntary organisations.

The outstanding handicap of the service at present is shortage of man-power, of leader-strength. Consequently the workers in the field are giving much anxious thought to the recruiting and training of leaders when war ends. The question is not simply to find the requisite numbers at a given level of general capacity; the cry is for country-bred leaders in the rural districts, pit-bred leaders among the mining people—and so on.

Nearly three-quarters of all youth groups meet in schools or in Church halls; and most of the remainder in buildings less suitable than these. Hardly any meet in buildings designed for youth work. This arrangement, besides being lowering for youth groups, is highly inconvenient for others, especially school staffs. The fact is inescapable that the siting, design, and layout of premises are as crucial in youth work as in schooling. The question of rehousing the youth service is closely bound up with the difficult questions (a) of the optimum size of club; and (b) of differentiation and specialisation of function as between clubs.

The great majority of youth groups, whether mixed or single-sex, denominational or other, tend to follow activity programmes of much the same type, with only minor variations in bias and content. Activities fall into four broad groups, being concerned with (a) prayer and devotion; (b) recreation and amusement; (c) motor skills, technical information, and artistic expression; (d) war service.

There is little information about the psychological and other effects of different methods of presenting and carrying out activity programmes. Uniformed organisations, for example, seem to be committed to a particular educational method, relying as they do upon drill, ritualism, and segregation by age, sex, and costume. The question whether this makes for or against a general faculty of flexible and integrated adjustment does not seem to have been studied.

The relative popularity of pre-Service organisations during war probably has useful lessons for the youth service in times of peace. There is reason for thinking that it was grounded in the ability of pre-Service units to satisfy certain fundamental psychological urges in young people —e.g., the craving for initiation into forms of activity regarded by adults as important, for social recognition, for membership of an admired group, for responsibility, and for fresh and challenging adventures.

The quality of the youth service is not static. As the service moves towards universalism in organisation, so it moves also towards naturalism in outlook. Signs are visible of a promising alliance between the impulse of religion and the attitude of science. There is a growing willingness to treat individual and environment as constituting a single living unit. Nowhere, indeed, is there any attempt to make light of morality or to set religion aside. But, in so far as youth workers are conscious of ultimate aims, the emphasis seems to be shifting from conventional goodness in the moral agent to completeness or maturity in the human organism.

Chapter 5. EVALUATION

Youth work, having begun piecemeal, remains fragmentary. If there is to be coherent provision, some co-ordination of the present diffuse effort is called for. The principle of integration to be selected for use will depend on how we conceive the social function of leisure.

We cannot avoid a "democratic" conception (a) because the employment of leisure has to harmonise with the general way of life the country has chosen, and this aims at popular responsibility; and (b) because leisure is already the common, if not the equal, possession of all.

Such a conception entails the belief that all non-defective children can in a suitable environment develop into competent and mature personalities, capable of standing on their own feet emotionally and intellectually, of managing their own affairs, and of playing a responsible part in the management of the nation's.

The fact of universal leisure entails that cultural standards cannot rest in the keeping of an élite acting as general *arbiter elegantiarum*. They become the care of all. Cultural patronage already belongs to the millions.

Adolescents occupy a position of unique importance in relation to cultural standards, just because they are not yet fully involved in adult society nor obliged to assume responsibility for its past mistakes. Adults may maintain standards; youth embodies the main prospect of raising them. The condition of youth is an index of the proximate improvement-potential of society as a whole.

The key to popular cultural advance lies in the ways in which adolescents spend their free time. How they spend their free time in turn depends on their experiences in the home, the school, and the place of work. Leisure activities express the confluence of these three streams

of experience. The beneficial use of leisure is the culmination of this triple process of upbringing. It is that for the sake of which we learn and work. The ends of leisure, therefore, should govern the ends of schooling and of work.

The co-ordination of leisure activities in accordance with this view of the social function of leisure does not demand more centralised control of cultural organisations, or trench upon the voluntary principle in leisure-time provision. By "the ends of leisure" is meant simply some overriding purpose which will impose psychological balance and coherence on leisure activities.

Such an overriding purpose will not, of course, be the same for all. At present there seem to be in operation four main purposes of this kind. They are furnished by the religious interest, the community interest, the family interest, and the health interest.

All four are not of equal potency as integrators; but all four have some essential part to play in the future care of the younger generation. The last three are finding direct institutional expression as community centres and family health clubs.

The religious interest has always been the prime motive force in much youth work; it remains, and is likely to remain, a pervasive and dominating influence. It has its own institutional forms not only in the denominational bodies, but also in many kinds of inter-denominational associations and alliances. It will continue to conduct under its own auspices the multiform labours for the welfare of the young which have distinguished it in the past. No doubt it will also turn its hand increasingly to new intra-mural work inside family health clubs and community centres.

These four interests, operating within the broad administrative framework provided by the Ministry of Education and the Local Education Authorities, constitute the task-force of all arms available for the attack on the problems of juvenile leisure. Given close and ungrudging co-operation, they are a force of great power. It should not, however, be supposed that such co-operation will be automatic or even easy.

At least two schools of thought can be distinguished within this set-up, and they appear, at first sight at least, to differ in rather fundamental ways on how the welfare of the young should be pursued. The seeds of controversy are here; and controversy is to be welcomed if it can be so conducted as to lead all parties forward to new and valid positions, with a minimum of sterile bickering.

But the relative weight to be attached, for the practical purpose of youth work, to the apparently opposed ideas cannot be settled by argument alone. Argument must be accompanied by systematic experimentation and research. This is practicable, because the cleavage is not between the religious impulse and the spirit of science; it is between different kinds of educational method.

SUGGESTIONS

The terms of reference within which this report is written do not call for recommendations for action by King George's Jubilee Trust; accordingly, no formal recommendations are made. But in the process of evaluation, for which the terms of reference do stipulate, it has seemed natural, at various points in the text, to indicate some of the new needs that are making themselves felt, and some of the ways in which workers in the field are hoping that the Trust may help to meet them. It will be convenient, therefore, to resume here such suggestions of this kind as seem to fall within the range of practicability for the Trust. What is offered is not a balanced programme of action, but simply a short list of possible contributions, any of which might strengthen and improve the service of youth.

(1) *Fewer Clubs, but open all the time.*—The efficiency of the service would be raised if it were organised in fewer clubs and units, with larger memberships and more frequent times of meeting. It is suggested that the policy of the Trust should be directed generally towards fostering co-operation between organisations and amalgamation among smaller units. This would involve estimating requirements in terms of the needs of particular neighbourhoods as well as in terms of the wants of particular organisations (para. 148).

(2) *Programme Organisers.*—The Trust might assist the appointment of a new type of youth organiser, to be concerned with the planning and development of club programmes; and with the training of senior club members and other voluntary helpers for the carrying out of such programmes. The services of such organisers would presumably be shared by different organisations within specified localities (para. 138).

(3) *Playing Fields.*—No effort directed to providing further well-equipped playing fields could possibly be wasted. There is great need for fields in the use of which youth clubs, and especially girls' clubs, can expect first preference (paras. 77-79).

(4) *Holiday Camps, hostels, and week-end cottages.*—Heavy emphasis is laid by youth workers on the need for much further provision of this kind, particularly for holiday accommodation that can be used by mixed parties (para 80). Such provision is a pre-condition of the solution of the problem of week-end leisure (paras. 112-116). Hopes are often expressed that some industrial hostels and large and small country houses may be thought suitable for adaptation to this purpose after the war.

(5) *Club Premises.*—These, on the whole, are perhaps the weakest feature of the youth service at present. But the re-housing of the service is a vast enterprise, of which the limited resources of the Trust cannot shoulder any conspicuous share. Two kinds of contribution are perhaps possible: (a) to add to projected community centres and similar types of building some wing or extension specially valuable to the service of youth (para. 149); (b) to encourage and assist small groups of young people, especially in the villages, to repair and convert or even to build anew premises of their own (para. 150).

(6) *Theatre : Film Unit.*—Some youth workers stress the need for Young People's theatres, in which plays specially written for young audiences would be acted by young people under producers of good professional standing. Similarly, the need to find some counter to unedifying commercial films has suggested the formation of a special film unit for the production of young people's films in which the actors should be mainly juveniles. It is hoped that the Trust might take the initiative in these matters, and endeavour to secure the co-operation of other agencies such as C.E.M.A., the Pilgrim Trust, and the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust.

(7) *International Contacts.*—A further suggestion is that the Trust should, with the return to peace, sponsor the development of international contacts, including holiday cruises, foreign visits, and the entertainment in this country of young visitors from abroad.

(8) *Investigation and Experiment.*—Systematic inquiry is needed into a large number of problems arising out of the new trends in youth service. Lack of factual knowledge and of flexible scientific concepts is a real handicap to the service's development. The incentives to be offered to young people to join a youth group; the effects of club-experience on them; the function and the place of adult leadership; these are examples of the many large questions about which we are much in the dark (para. 168).

There appears to be a need for some central research station to which these and similar problems can be referred for investigation—an Institute of Cultural Psychology. It is sometimes suggested that research of this kind could be best carried on by an institution following the general model of the Peckham Health Centre and working in conjunction with a university. Several university departments would be likely to feel a professional interest in work of this kind—*e.g.*, schools of social science, education, psychology, medicine, architecture, and civic design.

(9) *Imponderables.*—The youth service needs assistance not merely in money and material provision, but just as much in the more imponderable sphere of social valuation. Perhaps no agency is so well placed as the Trust for rendering this second kind of help.

(a) *Prestige.*—It is suggested that the Trust might give special attention to the problem of raising the prestige of the youth service, both as a profession for leaders and organisers and as a mode of cultural interest and activity for adolescents. Prestige is not a quality of the service itself; it is a quality of people's opinion of it. The public estimation in which the service is held closely affects the readiness of young people to identify themselves with it. They will make this identification when a youth organisation becomes an admired group, membership of which brings social recognition (para. 162).

(b) *Hospitality*.—The practice of giving and receiving hospitality provides character-training of a specially valuable kind. One who is well grounded in the two related and yet in a sense opposed arts of being a host and being a guest has already travelled far along the road to social competence and assurance, and to social enterprise coupled with kindly thought for others. By systematically developing opportunities for this kind of experience within the framework afforded by youth organisations, the Trust would be filling what is at present a serious cultural void in the lives of most young people (para. 242).

(c) *Fun*.—It is usual and distressingly easy, as this report bears witness, to put on a preternatural solemnity in dealing with the problems of youth. This is a misfortune, since long faces sort ill with the deepest currents of youth's own experience. Certainly adolescence is a time of restlessness, violent fluctuations of emotion, crudity of thought, clumsy handling of people and things, painful inadequacy and self-consciousness. It is right to study the difficulties that spring from these peculiarities. But it does not do to become obsessed by them. The most hateful thing to young people is the thought that their elders merely want to correct their faults.

We should not forget that youth, whenever it is healthy, is also full of fire and gaiety, a time when April dances in the blood, a time sprinkled with golden moments where life and joy meet, a time of madcap pranks and intoxicating laughter, and of that other divine intoxication that goes with laughter, the love of friends. No one can hope to do much with youth or for it, who discards the sense of fun. Gaiety, the companion of healthy intelligence at all ages, is the best ground—at times the only ground—for youth and adults to meet on and like and understand each other.

It would be a happy plan for King George's Jubilee Trust to act as remembrancer of this royal fact, and to find means of ensuring that it is duly honoured throughout the service of youth.

Appendix

Note 1.—Explanation is needed of some of the headings in this catalogue of occupations, since their scope is not always sufficiently indicated by a one-word label. For example :—

MINING includes quarrying stone and slate, and digging clay, sand, gravel, and chalk.

BUILDING includes woodworking and sawmilling and the construction and repair of coaches, lorries, carts, railway carriages, tramcars, trolley-buses, and the manufacture of furniture and upholstery.

BRICKS, etc., includes pottery, cement and glassmaking.

CATERING includes grain milling, the manufacture of bread, biscuits, cakes, tobacco and cigarettes, cocoa, chocolate, and confectionery and food and drink industries in general.

CLERICAL includes commerce (other than wholesale and retail dealing), banking, insurance, finance, the Civil Service and the Local Government service.

LEATHER includes the manufacture of boots and shoes, ropes, carpets, oilcloth, linoleum, table baize, brushes and brooms.

PAPER includes printing, publishing, book-binding, and photography.

PROFESSIONAL covers professional services, entertainments, sports, etc., and industries and services not separately specified.

Note 2.—In more precise terms the delimitation is as follows :—

INDUSTRIAL SECTOR.—Nottingham City, Arnold, Carlton, West Bridgford, Beeston, Stapleford.

MINING SECTOR.—Eastwood, Brinsley, Greasley, Selston, Underwood.

Hucknall, Annesley, Bestwood Park, Linby, Newstead, Papplewick.

Mansfield, Mansfield Woodhouse, Bilsthorpe, Blidworth, Boughton, Budby, Clipstone, Eakring, Edwinstowe, Farnsfield, Haywood Oaks, Kirton, Lindhurst, Ollerton, Ompton, Perlethorpe, Rufford, Sookholme, Walesby, Warsop, Wellow.

Sutton-in-Ashfield.

Worksop, Blyth, Carburton, Carlton - in - Lindrick, Cuckney, Holbeck, Hodssock, Nether Langwith, Norton, Styrrup, Wallingwells, Welbeck.

AGRICULTURAL SECTOR.—All parts of the County not specified above.

Note 3.—The chief employments may be summarised thus, in order of numerical importance :—

Sector A (Agricultural).

<i>Boys.</i>	<i>Girls.</i>
Distributive.	Textile.
Engineering.	Engineering.
Agriculture.	Distributive.
Building.	

Sector B (Mining).

<i>Boys.</i>	<i>Girls.</i>
Mining.	Textile.
Distributive.	Engineering.
Building.	Distributive.

Sector C (Industrial).

<i>Boys.</i>	<i>Girls.</i>
Engineering.	Textile.
Distributive.	Catering.
Textile.	Distributive.
Building.	Chemical.

Sectors A, B, and C (combined).			
<i>Boys.</i>		<i>Girls.</i>	
Engineering	4,216	Textile	9,587
Distributive	3,697	Distributive	2,192
Mining	3,643	Engineering	2,032
Textile	2,203	Catering	1,966
Building	2,071	Chemical	1,145
	<hr/>		<hr/>
	15,830		16,922

(or 78 per cent. of all employed boys : 14 to 18).

(or 86 per cent. of all employed girls : 14 to 18).

Sectors A, B, and C (combined).			
<i>Boys and Girls (combined).</i>			
Textile	11,790		
Engineering	6,248		
Distributive	5,826		
	<hr/>		<hr/>
	23,864		

(or 60 per cent. of all employed juveniles : 14 to 18).

Note 4.—Some additional light on conditions of life among young people in agricultural villages is thrown by a self-survey carried out by 56 girls and 70 boys who attended a camp for members of Pioneer Clubs, at Overton Park, in July—August, 1944. These 126 girls and boys were drawn from 28 Nottinghamshire villages :—

Hours of Work :—

55 were working	40—50 hours a week.
20 " "	50—60 " "
5 " "	60—70 " "

Travelling :—

44 were spending	1 hour a day in travel between home and workplace.
24 " "	1½ hours " "
10 " "	2 " "
4 " "	2½ " "
2 " "	3 " "

Earnings :—

64 were earning	£1 10s. to £2 10s. a week.
12 " "	£3 to £4 a week.
7 " "	£4 to £5 " "

Personal Spending (on non-essentials) :—

64 were spending	5s. a week or less.
31 " "	5s. to 10s. a week.
19 " "	10s. to 15s. "
5 " "	15s. to £1 "
5 " "	£1 to £1 10s. "

Work :—

In industry	41	At school	31
In offices	24	On land	9

Village and Town :—

Living in villages ..	126	Working in town ..	72
Born in villages ..	87	Would prefer to live in town ..	14

(Figures from memorandum prepared by Nottinghamshire Rural Community Council, September, 1944).

Note 5.—Percentage of schoolchildren showing slightly sub-normal or bad nutrition : 14.29, in 1939 ; and 14.24, in 1942.

Percentage of schoolchildren unclean : 9.96, in 1938 ; and 11.67, in 1940.

Average density of population : 16 persons per acre (1943).

No. of inhabited houses : 80,000 (giving an average of 3.5 persons per house).

At outbreak of war 692 families, comprising 5,266 persons, were living in overcrowded conditions, as defined by Housing Act, 1936.

(Figures from Annual Reports of Medical Officer of Health and School Medical Officer).

Note 6.—The population of the County and City of Nottingham, at the end of 1944, appears to be approximately 742,000, of which 270,000 represents the City :—

For the County area (i.e., excluding the City of Nottingham) the broad movements can be indicated thus :—

1931 (Census figures)	443,930
1939 (including evacuees received)	486,925
1944 (after return home of most evacuees)	472,300
The 1939 figure was made up as follows :—	
Municipal boroughs and urban districts	339,771
Rural districts	147,154
	486,925

The following table shows how the population of the City of Nottingham has fluctuated during the war : The figures express a balance of (a) Natural increase ; (b) Evacuees received and troops stationed in the city area from outside ; (c) Persons leaving the city on call-up for National Service or on transfer to employment elsewhere (Figures supplied by Food Executive Officer).

CITY OF NOTTINGHAM.
War-Time Fluctuations in Total Population.

<table border="0" style="width: 100%;"> <tr> <td style="width: 10%;">SEPTEMBER, 1939</td> <td style="width: 10%;">.. ..</td> <td style="width: 10%;">264,603</td> <td style="width: 10%;"></td> <td style="width: 10%;"></td> <td style="width: 10%;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td>+</td> <td>27,153</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>—</td> <td>23,395</td> <td></td> <td>+</td> <td>3,758</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td style="text-align: right;">268,361</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>+</td> <td>18,589</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>—</td> <td>16,984</td> <td></td> <td>+</td> <td>1,605</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td style="text-align: right;">269,966</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>+</td> <td>7,063</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>—</td> <td>9,145</td> <td></td> <td>—</td> <td>2,082</td> </tr> <tr> <td>At 30th June, 1941</td> <td>.. ..</td> 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Note 7.—The questionnaire consisted of 11 questions, framed as follows. It was sent out to all registered clubs and units in the City and County. They were asked to deal in their replies only with such of their members as fell within the 14 to 20 age group :—

- (1) What was the total number of members on register :—
(a) At October 1st, 1944 ? and (b) at October 29th, 1944 ?
- (2) What was the average number of registered members in attendance per meeting of your Club or Unit between October 1st and October 29th, 1944 ?
- (3) On how many evenings (including afternoons) per week was your Club or Unit actively functioning between October 1st and October 29th, 1944 ?

- (4) How many registered members had, between October 1st and October 29th, 1944 attendances averaging :—
 (a) One or less per week ?
 (b) Between one and two per week ?
 (c) Two or more per week ?
- (5) How many registered members engaged, between October 1st and October 29th, 1944, in :—
 (a) One serious activity* per week ?
 (b) Two serious activities per week ?
 (c) Three or more serious activities per week ?
- * By "serious activity" is meant activity undertaken by a group under adult guidance.
- (6) On what date was your Club or Unit formed ?
- (7) How many registered members have been in your Club or Unit :—
 (a) For one year ?
 (b) For two years ?
 (c) For three years ?
 (d) For four years ?
- (8) Please describe briefly your present premises and the extent of accommodation available in them
- (9) Do you own your present premises ?
 Do you have free use of your present premises ?
 Do you rent your present premises ?
- (10) Do you share your premises with any other organisation ? If so, with how many ?
- (11) What are the main fluctuations your Club or Unit has experienced in respect of
 (a) membership ; (b) programme ; (c) premises ?

Note 8.—The following table gives the mean values of UR for the main types of youth organisation in the City during the month of October, 1944 :—

ORGANISATION.	UR (mean value).
C. of E. Youth groups27
R.C. Youth groups20
Free Church Youth groups25
Jewish Youth groups .. 4, 518
Y.M.C.A. Youth sections36
Y.W.C.A. Youth sections51
Non-Denominational Youth groups33
Sea Cadets29
Air Training Corps29
Army Cadet Force24
Civil Defence Cadets18
Girls' Training Corps25
Boy Scouts24
Guides and Rangers12
Boys' Brigade64
Girls' Life Brigade13
British Red Cross Society24
St. John Ambulance Brigade12

Comparable figures for the youth organisations in the County are not available, as not enough replies to the questionnaire were received. One County organisation, however, has supplied the necessary data—the Boy Scouts. In their case the value of UR for October, 1944, works out at .15.

Note 9.—Air Training Corps (Notts. County Squadrons) : Changes in membership during three months from August 1, 1944, to October 31, 1944 :—

	Per cent.
Discharged for non-attendance	10
Had not attended for long periods	7
Left for their own reasons	6
Entered Army	4
Entered R.N.	1.75
Entered R.A.F.5
	<hr/>
	29.25
Deduct new recruitment	7.5
	<hr/>
Net loss	21.75

Note 10.—Playing Fields facilities in Nottinghamshire : In September, 1944, a questionnaire on this subject was sent to all Parish Councils, Urban District Councils, Borough Councils and City Councils in the County.

The following information is based on replies received up to mid-December, 1944 :—

PARISH COUNCILS.			
<i>Parish</i>	<i>Population</i>	<i>Present provision</i>	<i>Action proposed</i>
Aversham ..	200	None..	None.
Awsworth ..	1,276	3½ acres, including bowling green and children's corner.	Possible extension.
Babworth ..	670	None. Cricket and football grounds available.	None.
Balderton ..	5,000	17 acres, including bowling green, football, cricket, and hockey pitches, tennis courts and children's corner.	Building pavilion, plus Village Hall.
Barton-in-Fabis	182	None.	None.
Besthorpe ..	120	2 acres, including football and cricket pitches, tennis courts and children's corner.	None.
Bilsthorpe ..	2,000	(?) including football, cricket and hockey pitches, tennis courts and bowling green.	None.
Blidworth ..	7,500	1½ acres, including football pitch and children's corner.	New playing field in connection with Community Centre scheme.
E. Bridgford ..	856	None.	Negotiations for site proceeding.
Brinsley ..	1,900	10 acres, including football pitch and bowling green.	None.
Broadholme ..	85	None.	None.
Broughton Sulney	266	None.	None.
Bunny ..	650	None.	Under consideration.
Burton Joyce ..	2,000	None.	Under consideration.
Calverton ..	1,200	None.	Negotiations for site proceeding.
Car Colston ..	(?)	Has large Village green.	None.
Coddington ..	600	None. Cricket ground and tennis courts available for members.	Under consideration.
N. Collingham	(?)	1½ acres various sports clubs available in South Collingham.	Development and equipping of present site.
S. Collingham	580	(?) Cricket, football, tennis and bowls available.	None.
Cossall ..	1,150	1 acre, including children's corner.	None.
Cotgrave ..	700	None.	None.
Cropwell Bishop	666	3 acres, including football and cricket pitches, children's corner.	None.
Cropwell Butler	600	None.	Under consideration.
Elston ..	350	None.	New Village Hall ; scheme provides for tennis and bowls.
Everton ..	600	None.	None.
Farndon ..	1,100	None.	Under consideration.
Colston Bassett	270	None ; but children allowed to play in field (4 acres), adjoining school.	None at present.
Flawborough ..	61	None.	None.
Flintham ..	300	None, but cricket pitch available.	Under consideration.

<i>Parish</i>	<i>Population</i>	<i>Present provision</i>	<i>Action proposed</i>
Girton ..	150	None.	None.
Gotham ..	1,500	11 acres, including football and cricket pitches and bowling green.	Re-laying and re-equipping.
Greasley ..	(?)	5 acres, including football and cricket pitches and children's corner.	Under consideration.
Hawksworth ..	100	4 acres, grass field.	None.
Kelham ..	250	None.	None.
Keyworth ..	1,000	None.	Negotiations for site proceeding.
Kimberley ..	5,000	5 acres, including football pitch, tennis courts, bowling green and children's corner.	Under consideration.
Kneesall ..	450	None.	None.
Laneham ..	230	None.	None.
E. Leake ..	1,080	1 acre, children's playground, now derelict.	Under consideration.
W. Leake ..	140	None.	None.
N. Leverton ..	290	None.	None.
Linby ..	200	None.	None.
Lowdham ..	1,100	None.	Under consideration.
Misson ..	640	1 acre, village green.	None.
S. Muskham ..	220	None.	Under consideration.
Newstead ..	1,650	(?) including cricket and football pitches, tennis courts, bowling green and children's corner.	None.
Normanton-on-Soar.	300	None.	None.
Nuthall ..	3,000	None.	Negotiations for site proceeding.
Papplewick ..	1,500	None.	Negotiations for site proceeding.
Radcliffe - on - Trent.	4,000	4½ acres not laid out or equipped.	None.
Ranskill ..	450	None.	None.
Rempstone ..	(?)	Field size unspecified.	Under consideration.
Rufford ..	850	None.	None.
Scaftworth ..	90	11 acres, including cricket and football pitches.	None.
Shelford ..	(?)	Use of two fields.	None.
Southwell ..	3,000	9 acres, including cricket and football pitches and children's corner.	Needs levelling.
Staunton ..	150	(?) Cricket ground.	None.
Sutton ..	314	None.	None.
Sutton Bonington	1,100	½ acre, children's corner.	Under consideration.
Sutton-on-Trent	1,200	None.	Negotiations for site proceeding.
Thorney ..	160	None.	None.
Thoroton ..	90	None.	None.
Thorpe ..	60	None.	None.
Tithby ..	120	None.	None.
Trowell ..	1,500	None.	Under consideration.
Tuxford ..	(?)	None.	None.
Tythby ..	60	None.	None.
Wellow ..	400	2 large village greens.	None.
Weston ..	270	None.	None.
Whatton ..	330	None.	None.
S. Wheatley ..	(?)	None.	None.
Wigsley ..	60	None.	None.
Widmerpool ..	150	None.	None.
Wiseton ..	110	None.	None.
Woodborough	630	None.	None.

BOROUGH AND URBAN DISTRICT COUNCILS.

MANSFIELD.—Population, 47,410.

172 acres of public parks and recreation grounds and 2 private sports grounds—additional provision under consideration ; application to be made to P.F.A.

ARNOLD.—Population, 19,500.

24 acres of public parks and recreation grounds, and 4 private sports grounds. Additional provision under consideration.

WEST BRIDGFORD.—Population, 23,000.

37 acres of public parks and recreation grounds and 12 private sports grounds. Additional provision under consideration.

WORKSOP.—Population, 30,000.

66 acres of public parks and recreation grounds and 7 private sports grounds. Land ear-marked for additional provision.

BEESTON AND STAPLEFORD.—Population, 18,000.

60 acres of public parks and recreation grounds and 17 private sports grounds. Well ahead with plans for additional provision of 400 acres, and in touch with P.F.A. on this.

NOTTINGHAM.—Population, 282,000.

1,584 acres of public parks and recreation grounds ; no particulars given re private sports grounds.

Additional provision under consideration.

GRANTS OBTAINED AND SCHEMES ASSISTED BY THE NOTTS. PLAYING FIELDS ASSOCIATION, 1927-39.

Centre.	Acreage	Carnegie Trust.	King George's Jubilee Trust.	P.T. and R. Act.	National P.F.A.	County Branch
		£	£	£	£	£
Annesley Woodhouse ..	7.0	500	—	—	—	—
Arnold	5.5	150	—	—	50	—
B.A. Collieries :						
Bassford	58.8	—	—	20,500	—	—
Bestwood	—	—	—	—	—	—
Calverton	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mapperley	—	—	—	—	—	—
Balderton	16.0	350	—	—	50	150
Beeston	7.5	400	—	—	100	—
Besthorpe	2.0	—	150	—	—	50
Bramcote	11.035	—	750	—	—	—
Carlton (Nottingham) ..	6.8	—	—	75	250	—
Carlton-in-Lindrick ..	2.942	—	50	—	—	5
Cropwell Bishop	3.75	75	—	—	25	50
Eastwood	5.5	170	—	—	50	—
East Bridgford	6.0	—	600	—	—	60
Farnfield	15.0	125	—	—	40	—
Gotham	11.0	30	—	—	10	—
Huthwaite	18.5	775	—	—	75	—
Kirkby-in-Ashfield ..	12.0	250	—	—	250	200
Mansfield :						
(Racecourse)	26.0	1,165	—	—	5,585	—
(Berryhill)	27.0	—	2,500	—	—	—
Mansfield Woodhouse..	12.5	75	—	—	25	100
North Wheatley	2.0	—	—	280	—	20
Retford	6.2	—	500	—	—	—
Ruddington	10.0	260	—	—	80	—
Stapleford	1.0	35	—	—	—	—
Sutton-in-Ashfield :						
Five Old Schemes ..	30.0	375	—	—	125	—
Kings Mill Reservoir	65.0	—	—	6,000	—	—
Stanton Hill	13.743	280	—	650	170	—
Warsop	3.0	93	—	—	32	—
West Bridgford	21.75	650	—	—	200	4,300
Worksop	26.0	550	—	—	150	—
Acres	433.5	£6,308	£4,550	£27,505	£7,267	£4,935

Note 11.—The following particulars illustrate the scale on which these games' schemes are operated. They relate to the City L.E.A.'s Summer Games' Scheme for Boys (1944). The scheme lasts for a session of 13 weeks from May 1 to July 29. Over 1,000 youths participated in each week :—

<i>Ground.</i>	<i>Instructor-hours.</i>	<i>Boy-hours.</i>
Bells Lane	132	2,907
Cinderhill	46	758
Blyth Street	110	2,108
Forest	50	946
St. Alban's	113	1,898
Trent Pool	284	4,822
Valley	22	674
Wollaton Park	219	4,208
	976	18,321

Note 12.—*Juvenile Offenders* (aged 8 to 17) :—
(Figures supplied by Chief Constables).

	PROSECUTED FOR MINOR OFFENCES.		ARRESTED FOR INDICTABLE OFFENCES.	
	<i>City.</i>	<i>County.</i>	<i>City.</i>	<i>County.</i>
1938 ..	76	573	201	282
1939 ..	47	494	200	306
1940 ..	46	505	464	496
1941 ..	60	615	497	439
1942 ..	80	608	345	418
1943 ..	144	581	273	493

Note 13.—*Distribution of Youth Clubs and Units among Different Types of Organisation* :—

<i>Organisation.</i>	<i>No. in County.</i>		<i>No. in City.</i>		<i>To</i>	
C. of E.	95		20		115	
Free Churches	90		21		111	
R. C.	9		4		13	
Jewish	—		1		1	
TOTAL DENOMINATIONAL ..	194		46		240	
Salvation Army	14		—		14	
Y.M.C.A.	1		4		5	
Y.W.C.A.	3		4		7	
TOTAL INTER-DENOMINATIONAL ..	18		8		26	
Co-operative Youth	8		6		14	
Other Non-Denominational ..	138		41		179	
TOTAL NON-DENOMINATIONAL ..	146		47		193	
Boy Scouts and Rovers	88		7		95	
Girl Guides and Rangers	114		23		137	
Boys' Brigade	22		13		35	
Girls' Life Brigade	3		—		3	
Sea Cadets	4		2		6	
Army Cadet Force	27		12		39	
Air Training Corps	15		7		22	
Civil Defence Cadets	—		6		6	
Girls' Training Corps	25		14		39	
Women's Junior Air Corps	6		4		10	
British Red Cross Society	12		7		19	
St. John Ambulance Brigade	26		4		30	
TOTAL UNIFORMED	342		99		441	
	700	700	200	200	900	900

Note 14.—Number of Youth Club and Units Open on Each Evening of the week :—

I.—CITY OF NOTTINGHAM.

Organisation.	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.	Fri.	Sat.	Sun.	Total unit-evenings.
C. of E.	7	7	5	4	5	2	9	39
Free Churches ..	7	10	7	10	4	3	8	49
R. C.	1	4	2	3	2	1	3	16
Jewish	—	1	—	1	—	—	1	3
Boys' Clubs and Army Cadets	16	12	12	15	15	7	8	85
Girls' Clubs	12	17	16	16	10	9	7	87
Mixed Clubs	4	6	3	5	4	4	1	27
Boy Scouts and Rovers	4	1	4	2	5	2	—	18
Girl Guides and Rangers	9	4	5	3	2	—	—	23
Boys' Brigade ..	10	11	9	10	13	5	10	68
Sea Cadets	—	1	—	1	—	—	1	3
Air Training Corps ..	4	3	4	6	2	—	5	24
Girls' Training Corps and Women's Junior Air Corps	6	5	6	5	3	—	7	32
British Red Cross Society	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	21
St. John Ambulance Society	1	4	3	3	1	1	2	15
TOTAL UNIT-EVENINGS	89	92	81	91	72	35	63	523

II.—COUNTY OF NOTTINGHAM.

Organisation.	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.	Fri.	Sat.	Sun.	Total unit-evenings.
C. of E.	18	27	21	22	16	6	20	130
Free Churches ..	18	18	19	23	10	7	12	108
R. C.	1	—	2	3	—	—	—	6
Salvation Army ..	1	2	4	1	3	—	—	11
Boys' Clubs	10	8	10	10	11	7	5	61
Girls' Clubs	10	10	8	11	4	3	4	50
Mixed Clubs	19	25	18	23	21	5	10	121
Evening Institutes ..	27	27	27	27	27	—	—	135
Boy Scouts and Rovers	25	16	26	16	25	9	4	121
Girl Guides and Rangers	28	23	19	16	18	6	—	100
Boys' Brigade	10	8	11	12	11	3	10	65
Girls' Life Brigade ..	—	1	1	—	—	—	1	3
Sea Cadets	—	4	—	3	1	1	3	12
Army Cadet Force ..	6	4	10	6	4	—	8	38
Air Training Corps ..	8	8	6	9	4	2	11	48
Girls' Training Corps and Women's Junior Air Corps	12	11	10	8	13	1	3	58
British Red Cross Society	4	4	3	4	2	—	—	17
St. John Ambulance Society	2	7	4	4	2	5	1	25
TOTAL UNIT-EVENINGS	199	204	199	198	172	55	92	1,109



BOARD OF EDUCATION

Principles of Government in Maintained Secondary Schools

*Presented by the President of the Board of Education to Parliament
by Command of His Majesty
May 1944*

LONDON:

PRINTED AND PUBLISHED BY HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE

To be purchased directly from H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE at the following addresses:
York House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2; 13a Castle Street, Edinburgh 2;
39-41 King Street, Manchester 2; 1 St. Andrew's Crescent, Cardiff;
80 Chichester Street, Belfast;
or through any bookseller

1944

(Reprinted 1945)

Price 2d. net

PRINCIPLES OF GOVERNMENT IN MAINTAINED SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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PRINCIPLES OF GOVERNMENT IN MAINTAINED SECONDARY SCHOOLS

I. INTRODUCTION

1. Under Clause 16 of the Education Bill every county and auxiliary secondary school is to have an instrument of government providing for the constitution of a body of governors, and is to be conducted under articles of government, which shall in particular determine the functions to be exercised in relation to the school by the local education authority, the body of governors and the head teacher respectively.

2. Hitherto in the sphere of the education of pupils over eleven years of age there has been a clear distinction between Secondary Schools falling within the field of Higher education and Senior or Central Schools falling within the field of Elementary education. So far as schools of Higher education are concerned there is no statutory provision in the Education Acts relating to the constitution and powers of governing bodies and head teachers. In a certain number of schools, however, the governance of the school is regulated by a Scheme made under the Endowed Schools or Charitable Trusts Acts, and all Secondary Schools are required as a condition of grant to "be governed and conducted under adequate and suitable rules." So far as Elementary Schools are concerned the constitution and powers of the body of managers are regulated by Sections 30-36 of the Education Act, 1921, and by rules made by the local education authority.

3. The recasting of the education system under the Education Bill extends the term "secondary" to include all schools for senior pupils. This will bring into the same administrative field a very large number of schools of a different character and different traditions from the present Secondary Schools. The development of a coherent and consistent way of life for this greatly increased number of schools of varying origins and conditions will not necessarily be on uniform lines. The Bill, indeed, recognises this fact by requiring the Minister, in exercising his functions under Clause 16, to have regard to all the circumstances of the school and the manner in which it has been conducted heretofore.

4. Another important change is the classification of schools into categories of County, Controlled, Special Agreement and Aided Schools. Hitherto schools have been divided into provided and non-provided schools, and one implication of the change is that the powers and duties of the local education authority and the governors need to be clearly defined in each case. To some extent this is done in the Bill itself; in other respects it is left to the articles of government. But it must be recognised that any division of functions laid down in the articles of government is subject to the overriding provisions of the Bill for each class of school.

5. Nevertheless it would be wrong to lay too much emphasis on the statutory difference between one school and another or one type of school and another. Every school of whatever type or category must have an individual life of its own as well as a place in the local system. The fact that aided schools are assured under the Bill of an independence hardly, if at all, less than that which they enjoy at present, makes it the more desirable to seek means to secure that reasonable autonomy is enjoyed also by county, controlled and special agreement schools. Independence implies, not freedom from proper control, but freedom to exercise legitimate and appropriate functions; and it is on this principle that Clause 16 of the Bill recognises for the first time the need for defining the functions which should be exercised by each of the parties concerned in the governance of schools of all kinds.

6. In fact there are certain general principles which might apply, subject to necessary variations of detail, to all secondary schools; and it was with the object of ascertaining how far such principles can be explicitly stated that the President of the Board of Education invited the various interests concerned to take part in conversations.* The results of these conversations, the general effect of which is stated in the following paragraphs, represent a broad measure of agreement, though they do not commit the bodies concerned. They are issued for general guidance when instruments and articles of government come to be prepared.

7. One important factor which must be borne in mind is the difference between rural and urban areas and, to some extent, between the larger and smaller urban areas. A procedure which is possible and desirable in one area may well be inappropriate or impracticable in another. The machinery laid down in the Bill provides, in the case of auxiliary schools, for consultation by the Minister with the local education authority and other persons concerned; moreover it would undoubtedly be wise for local education authorities to consult various interests in the area before the articles of government for county schools are framed. In this way an opportunity will be given for a necessary variation to meet the different circumstances of individual areas and schools.

8. It should be noted that under Schedule I of the Bill schemes of divisional administration are to be drawn up, which will be approved by the Minister. These schemes are to define the functions which the divisional executives are to exercise on behalf of the local education authority. The nature and extent of this delegation will naturally have reactions on the government of secondary schools; but it will not affect the determination of functions to be exercised by the governing body and the head teacher. Consequently, when in the following paragraphs, the term "local education authority" is used it includes divisional executives exercising delegated powers and duties on behalf of the authority.

9. The main issues which have been the subject of conversations can be grouped under the following five headings:—

Governing Bodies.

Finance.

Appointment and dismissal of teachers and other staff.

Internal organisation and curriculum.

Admission of pupils.

In the paragraphs which follow no attempt is made to deal with all the matters to be included in articles of government. Thus, under the first heading, there will necessarily be rules regarding the qualifications and terms of appointment of governors on which there is no disagreement and which would normally find a place in all articles of government. Similarly no reference is made to religious education, in regard to which explicit directions are included in the Bill. The matters dealt with in this memorandum are those which bulk most largely in the problem of school government and in regard to which the formulation of general principles is consequently most necessary.

II. GOVERNING BODIES

10. *Constitution*.—All secondary schools are to be governed by governing bodies specially constituted for the purpose. In the case of county schools

* Those consulted included representatives of the various associations of Local Education Authorities, the London County Council, the Association of Directors and Secretaries for Education, the National Union of Teachers, the Governing Bodies Associations, the London Aided Schools Association, the Aided Schools Committee and the Joint Four Secondary Associations.

the governing body is to consist of such number of persons appointed in such manner as the local education authority may determine; in the case of auxiliary schools the governing body is to consist of such number of persons as the Minister may determine, subject to compliance with the prescribed proportions of foundation governors and of governors appointed by the local education authority.

11. *Composition*.—In all schools it may be assumed that the governing body will include:—

(i) Adequate representation of the local education authority;*

(ii) Other persons whose qualifications are such as to enable them to play a useful part in the government of a secondary school.

The practice of allowing a limited number of co-opted members nominated by the governing body has proved of advantage and might be continued in appropriate cases.

In the case of girls' and mixed secondary schools a proportion of women should be included on the governing bodies.

Among the persons referred to under (ii) above it would be appropriate to appoint a representative of a University or University College—particularly of the local University where one exists; and the inclusion of one or more persons associated with the commercial and industrial life of the district is desirable.

There is general agreement that the interests of the teaching staff of the school or schools, as well as of parents and old scholars, should be reflected in the composition of the governing body. The majority of bodies consulted hold that this can be secured without the staff or parents' and old scholars' associations having the right to nominate governors for the purpose.†

12. *Size*.—No precise guidance as to the size of the governing body can be given. In the past governing bodies have sometimes tended to be too large and in consequence their transactions have in some cases been formal and stereotyped. The governing body should be large enough to ensure that the various interests are adequately represented, but small enough for the effective conduct of business in such a way that all members can play an active part.

13. *Grouping*.—Clause 19 provides for the grouping of schools under a single governing body and there can be no doubt that, with the great increase in the number of secondary schools, such grouping will frequently be necessary. In some cases the schools of a particular foundation or of a particular denominational character will most conveniently be grouped together, and it should be noted that an auxiliary school cannot be grouped with another school without the consent of the governors. Usually, however, there will be solid advantages in grouping schools on a geographical or regional basis, schools of all types finding a place in an individual group. In this way experience will be brought to bear on the problems of self-government in the newer types of secondary schools, while community of interests, sharing of teaching staffs and transfer of pupils between the various types will be facilitated. Some fear has been expressed that under such an arrangement the individual character of each type of school might tend to be blurred, and the suggestion has been made that a nucleus of governors might be formed for the group with one or two additional members for each separate type of school, who would attend only when the affairs of their particular schools were being considered.

* The authority's representatives will not necessarily be in all cases members of the authority.

† One section holds that governors should be specially nominated by the teaching staff and by parents' and old scholars' associations.

III. FINANCE

14. The practice will no doubt generally obtain by which governors prepare estimates covering a suitable period and submit them to the local education authority. Within the broad headings of the approved estimate the governors should have latitude to exercise reasonable discretion. It may be desirable that a small margin for contingencies should be allowed, particularly under the heading of "Books, apparatus and stationery"; in any case the allowance under this heading, which is commonly calculated on a capitation basis, should not be too rigidly defined and a school should be entitled to present a case for a higher rate to meet special difficulties and developments. There is general agreement that the school library, the special needs of which have often been overlooked in the past, should be given a separate allowance.

IV. APPOINTMENT AND DISMISSAL OF STAFF

15. *Teaching Staff.*—Under the provisions of the Bill the appointment of teachers in county controlled or special agreement schools is, with certain reservations, placed under the control of the local education authority. In a controlled school the authority are obliged before making an appointment of head teacher, to inform the governors as to the person proposed to be appointed and to consider any representations made by them. The dismissal of teachers rests with the local education authority. In aided schools the functions of the authority and the governors in regard to the appointment and dismissal of teachers are to be regulated by the articles of government, subject to certain mandatory or discretionary rights reserved to the authority and governors.

16. The appointment and dismissal of teachers, other than reserved teachers, may be conveniently considered separately for head masters or head mistresses and assistants:—

(a) *Appointment of head master or head mistress.*—In schools provided by local education authorities the practice has in the past varied very considerably. In some areas the appointment has been made by the governing body subject to confirmation by the authority; in others the authority has appointed in consultation with the governors. It is desirable that, so far as possible, some uniform practice should obtain and there is a wide measure of agreement in favour of associating the governors and the authority both at the stage of drawing up the short list and also of making the final appointment. The following two alternative methods appear to command acceptance:—

(i) Under the first method the governors consider the applications, a representative of the authority being present, and submit three names to the authority. The appropriate committee of the authority then makes the final appointment, a member of the governing body being present;

(ii) Under the second method, the merits of which are being increasingly recognised, a joint committee is set up of an equal number of members of the governing body and the authority, under the chairmanship of a person nominated by the authority, to draw up the short list and, at a second meeting, to make the appointment.

One or other of these two methods would be suitable for county, controlled or special agreement schools and, with modifications, might be appropriate also in the case of aided schools. In the case of aided schools the proportions of members on a joint committee would no doubt be varied and the nomination of chairman be given to the governors at one or both stages of the appointment.

(b) *Dismissal of head master or head mistress.*—The normal procedure in the case of dismissal would be as follows:—

(i) The resolution would be taken by the governing body who would also have power to suspend in the case of misconduct or for other urgent cause;

(ii) The resolution would be passed at two meetings, held at an interval of not less than fourteen days, by not less than two-thirds of the governing body present and voting;

(iii) The resolution could not take effect (except as otherwise provided in the Bill), until it had been accepted by the local education authority in the case of county, controlled or special agreement schools, or the consent of the authority had been obtained in the case of aided schools. It would be usual to provide that the head master or head mistress should have the right of appeal to the local education authority in cases where the authority's approval or consent was required;

(iv) The local education authority should have the power of dismissal on their own motion (except as otherwise provided in the Bill) in county, controlled and special agreement schools, and to require dismissal in aided schools;

(v) It would be usual to provide that the head master or head mistress should be entitled to appear accompanied by a friend at any meeting of the governing body or the local education authority, at which his or her dismissal was to be considered, and should be given full notice of such meetings;

(vi) Except in cases of misconduct or other urgent cause dismissal would be subject to notice under the terms of appointment.

(c) *Appointment of assistant masters or mistresses.*—The appointment of assistant masters and mistresses in county, controlled or special agreement schools is to be under the control of the local education authority; in aided schools it is to be made by the governors, with the consent of the authority where so provided. The usual practice will be for appointments to be made, within the financial limits of the approved estimates, by the governors in full consultation with the head master or head mistress subject to confirmation by the local education authority. Vacancies should generally be notified in the first instance to the local education authority, in order that a multiplicity of advertisements may be avoided. The local education authority should be in a position to secure interchangeability of staff and appointment from a pool, particularly in the case of junior posts.

(d) *Dismissal of assistant masters or mistresses.*—The procedure would be generally similar to that in the case of the head master or head mistress. It need not, however, necessarily be so elaborate, provided that opportunity is given for the assistant to appear before a meeting of the governors accompanied by a friend and to appeal to the local education authority.

17. *Non-teaching staff.*—The appointment and dismissal of staff other than teachers fall under two headings—(a) Caretakers and maintenance staff and (b) Clerks to governing bodies.

(a) *Caretakers and maintenance staff.*—In county, controlled or special agreement schools appointments and dismissals are to be made by the local education authority; in the case of aided schools the authority may give directions to the governors. In practice the actual selection of

persons to be appointed would no doubt rest with the governors on the advice of the head master or head mistress, subject to the approved estimates not being exceeded and the conditions of appointment being in accordance with the usual conditions for the area as regards wages and other matters. The authority should be in a position to require, 'at any rate in the case of county, controlled or special agreement schools, that the appointment be made from a pool.

(b) *Clerks*.—In county, controlled or special agreement schools it would be usual for the chief education officer or his representative to be the clerk to the governing body, and, in view of the growing complexity of school business and the need for close co-operation with the authority, there are advantages in following the same practice in aided schools, particularly where the circumstances do not justify the appointment of a full-time clerk. The governors would, however, appoint their own clerk for foundation work and in some cases it may be found desirable, as at present, for the foundation and school work to be entrusted to the same person.

V. INTERNAL ORGANISATION AND CURRICULUM

18. *Division of functions*.—The local education authority would have the right, in framing the development plan for the area and subsequently, to settle the general educational character of the school and its place in the local system. Subject to this general responsibility the governors would have general direction of the conduct and curriculum of the school. The head master or head mistress would control the internal organisation, management and discipline of the school, and would also have the power of suspending pupils subject to a report being made forthwith to the governors and the local education authority.

19. *Relations of governing body, head master or head mistress and chief education officer*.—A particular aspect of this problem concerns the relations which are to exist between the head master or head mistress, the governing body and the chief education officer. The general lines should be as follows:—

(i) There should be free consultation at all times between the head master or head mistress and the chairman of the governing body;

(ii) All proposals and reports affecting the conduct and curriculum of the school should be submitted formally to the governing body, which should meet at reasonably frequent intervals. The chief education officer or his representative should be informed as long as possible beforehand and furnished with a copy of the proposals or report;

(iii) Decisions by the chairman of the governing body should be limited to urgent matters and should be reported without delay to the governing body;

(iv) The head master or head mistress should be entitled to attend throughout all meetings of the governing body, except on such occasions and for such times as the governing body might for good cause decide otherwise;

(v) Free consultation and co-operation should exist between the head master or head mistress and the chief education officer on matters affecting the welfare of the school;

(vi) Suitable arrangements should be made for enabling the teaching staff to submit their views or proposals to the governing body through the head master or head mistress.

20. *School holidays.*—The fixing of school holidays is a matter of some importance, particularly in view of the provision that pupils who attain any age during the term of the school are deemed not to have attained that age until the end of term. In order to secure the necessary uniformity it will no doubt be necessary that the local education authority should fix the school terms, but the governors should be empowered to grant a limited number of occasional holidays at their discretion.

VI. ADMISSION OF PUPILS

21. *Procedure.*—The abolition of tuition fees in all maintained schools will call for a re-examination of the method adopted for deciding the type of secondary education which individual pupils are to receive. It is important that the wishes of parents should continue to be taken into account and effect given to them, in so far as is compatible with the attainments and promise of their children and with the claims of other children. The local education authority alone will have all the data on which to reach a decision on these matters and the ultimate responsibility for deciding which type of secondary education an individual pupil should follow must therefore rest with them. It is, however, generally agreed that the governors and the head master or head mistress should play an essential part in the selection of all pupils for their particular school. While it is not possible at present to dogmatise on methods of procedure, in regard to which a variety of views have been expressed, it is possible to indicate two solutions upon one or other of two lines according to the nature of the area concerned.

In the more compact type of area the local education authority might undertake centrally the task of deciding the broad type of education for which individual children are suited. Account would have to be taken of school records, teachers' reports, and parents' expressed wishes. When a decision on this question had been reached, parents should be free within reasonable limits to choose the particular school of the appropriate type, which they desire their children to attend, and governors should be given an opportunity of expressing any views they might have as to the admission of pupils desiring to enter their schools.

Alternatively, in the more scattered areas the local education authority might refer pupils on leaving the primary schools to a district board consisting of the heads of primary and secondary schools of the various types, assisted by one or more representatives of the local education authority. This board, on the basis of school records and other available information (including the parents' wishes), would advise the authority both on the general type of education most suitable for the child and on the particular school to which, subject to any views expressed by the governors, he or she should be admitted.

22. *Extra-district pupils.*—Special arrangements may well be necessary to meet the case of pupils who may desire admission to a school within the area of another authority. There are within the county and municipal systems certain schools which have built up a tradition of boarding education for pupils drawn from a wide area of the country. In view of the importance of meeting the reasonable wishes of parents and of preserving so far as possible the traditions of particular schools, local education authorities will no doubt be ready to co-operate in facilitating the admission of extra-district pupils, whether as day pupils or boarders, and to make the necessary financial adjustments, for which provision is made in Clause 99 of the Bill.

VII. INTERPRETATION

23. The chief object of articles of government will be, as has already been stated, to determine the respective functions of the local education authority, the governing body and the head teacher in relation to the school. But however carefully the determination is made, disputes are liable to arise and this raises the question of interpretation. It has been customary in the past to include in articles of government a clause dealing with question arising under the articles. In view of the provisions of Clause 64 of the Bill relating to disputes between local education authorities and governors this clause will no longer be appropriate. It is, however, to be hoped that, given the co-operation which is essential to any successful scheme of school government, disputes on the determination of functions will be of rare occurrence.



MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE AND FISHERIES

The Provision in Secondary Schools of Courses Preparatory to Agricultural Employment

A REPORT OF THE ADVISORY COMMITTEE
JOINTLY APPOINTED BY THE MINISTER OF
AGRICULTURE AND FISHERIES AND THE
MINISTER OF EDUCATION TO ADVISE THEM
ON ALL ASPECTS OF AGRICULTURAL EDU-
CATION TO BE PROVIDED BY LOCAL EDUCATION
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* Mr. R. Macdonald joined the Committee in September, 1944.

NOTE

The estimated gross cost of the preparation of the appended Report (including the expenses of the Witnesses and Members of the Committee) is £55-17-6, of which £12-12-0 represents the estimated cost of printing and publishing this Report.

**JOINT ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION
TO BE PROVIDED BY LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES**

**REPORT ON THE PROVISION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF
COURSES PREPARATORY TO AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT**

FOREWORD

The prosperity of the agricultural industry, which is one of the main aims of His Majesty's Government in the field of home policy, will depend largely on its efficiency, and this in turn will depend largely on the efficient training of its workers.

It is, therefore, difficult to over-estimate the importance of the problem of devising the most suitable form of education for boys and girls who will find their living in work on the land. It will fall in the main to Local Education Authorities to solve this problem, and it may well be that no single universal solution will emerge, but that different solutions will be found best suited to different local circumstances.

We commend this Report to the careful consideration of all those concerned with finding the solution of this problem, and particularly to the attention of Local Education Authorities in framing their Development Plans under Section 11 of the Education Act, 1944.

It will be understood of course that, in recommending the Report generally, we do not wish to be regarded as necessarily committed to agreement with all its details.

R. Butler

R. S. Butler

April, 1945.

REPORT OF THE JOINT ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION ON THE PROVISION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF COURSES PREPARATORY TO AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT

To the Rt. Hon. R. A. Butler, M.P.,
Minister of Education,

and the Rt. Hon. R. S. Hudson, C.H., M.P.,
Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries.

Gentlemen,

You appointed us on 1st July, 1944, to advise on all aspects of agricultural education to be provided by local education authorities and particularly on the educational policy and methods of training to be adopted at farm institutes. Soon afterwards we were asked by the Ministry of Education to give immediate consideration to the question whether courses designed to prepare boys and girls for work on the land or in rural industries should be provided in technical schools in rural areas and, if so, what should be the nature and content of such courses. Since it seems to us that the kind of education to be provided in technical schools cannot be satisfactorily considered in isolation from other branches of secondary education, as defined by the Education Act, 1944, we have interpreted the question referred to us in the wider sense of what provision should be made at the secondary stage of public education in preparation for life and work on the land. The question is urgent because local education authorities are required by the Act to prepare and submit to the Minister of Education before 1st April, 1946, development plans setting out the provision which they propose to make for primary and secondary education and must be given in good time any necessary guidance on the provision to be included for pre-agricultural education.

2. *The Evidence.* Our early meetings have been almost wholly devoted to this problem. We have had access to the relevant evidence submitted to the late Lord Justice Luxmoore's committee on post-war agricultural education, including the views expressed by those education authorities who were, or had been at the outbreak of war, making plans for the provision of agricultural courses in secondary schools. We have had informal discussions with several directors of education. We have visited four of the five publicly provided schools at which pre-agricultural courses have now been initiated and we have talked with members and officers of the local education authorities concerned, with teachers and with pupils. Short particulars of the schools and courses are set out in the following table,

Local Education Authority	Name of School	Employment for which the course prepares	Number of pupils admitted annually	Age of admission	Whether provision is made for boarders as well as day students	Date on which the first course began
Carmarthenshire County Council	Pibwrlwyd Junior Technical School	Agriculture (Two years course)	20	13	Yes	September, 1943
Denbighshire County Council	Llysfasi Junior Technical School	Agriculture (Two years course)	25	13-15	Yes	January, 1942
Kent County Council	Maidstone Technical Institute	Agriculture and Horticulture (Three years course)	20	12.1-13.1	No	September, 1943
Canterbury County Borough Council	Canterbury Technical Institute	Agriculture (Three years course)	20	12.8-13.8	No	September, 1943
East Sussex County Council	Haywards Heath Senior School	Agriculture and Rural Crafts (One year course)	20	14	Yes (at the County farm institute)	September, 1943

The two schools in Wales were established expressly for the provision of pre-agricultural courses and provide no others. Each of them is remote from any large town and is housed in a farm institute temporarily released from its normal function owing to war conditions. The pre-agricultural courses in Kent have been introduced into technical schools which are situated in country towns with industrial as well as agricultural interests and which already provide a normal range of technical courses. The course in East Sussex makes combined use of a large modern school situated in a small town and a farm institute some distance away, which is for the time being available for the accommodation of the pupils and the practical part of their training.

3. *Limitations imposed by the evidence.* These five courses show sufficient variety amongst themselves to suggest useful lessons, but they do not provide in total a foundation of practical experience adequate to sustain any universal rule as to the form in which pre-agricultural education should be provided in secondary schools. None of the courses has been running for more than two full years and only one for more than one full year; the arrangements made for them have been wholly improvised in premises which were not designed for the purpose and each of the courses is regarded by its authors as experimental. We must needs confine ourselves therefore to stating the general principles which should in our view govern the provision of such education, the conclusions which follow as to its content and the advantages and disadvantages of each of various methods by which it could be provided.

4. *General Principles.* The general principles can be stated very simply. First, the Education Act established the principle of training according to need. This principle may be harder to apply in the countryside with its relatively sparse population than in the densely populated town, but the problem must be as squarely faced by rural as by urban authorities if country children

are to enjoy, as Parliament clearly intended, equal educational opportunities with children living in the town. Secondly, we believe that it is vital to the economic and social welfare of the countryside that agriculture and the allied rural industries should get their fair share of the abler and more intelligent pupils passing through the secondary schools. The grammar school, with its tradition of training for the professions, often tends to draw away the ablest boys and girls from the land. In the town the technical school is to an increasing extent offering pupils of a practical turn of mind courses designed to prepare them for employment in urban trades, but, over the country as a whole, no corresponding provision is at present made preparatory to employment in agriculture and the rural crafts. We do not mean to imply that pre-agricultural education must necessarily be provided in the same form as education leading to employment in other industries, but only that, both in their own and in the national interest, boys and girls with the appropriate bent have a right to whatever type of education is best fitted to equip them for a useful and happy life on the land.

5. *Rural Bias and Pre-Agricultural Education.* Up to a point the need will be met by the general adoption in country secondary schools of what is commonly called rural bias in education. We understand by that expression the use, wherever it is appropriate, of examples drawn from the natural features, history, culture, crafts and general work and life of the countryside to illustrate teaching and so to give it the greatest possible significance and interest. We are convinced that this is the right kind of education for country children in general and that it constitutes a sound preparation for their later development as intelligent and skilful workers in rural occupations, whilst it does not place at a disadvantage those who wish to take up other work. But we also believe that a more advanced course of training, similar in character but differing in depth and scope, can and should be provided, as an alternative to the academic education of the grammar school, for the abler boys and girls of a practical bent who wish to make a career on the land and who may reasonably aspire, with or without training at a higher level, to a more responsible post than that of the ordinary farm worker.

6. *Specific aims of Pre-Agricultural Education.* The type of education which we recommend is not vocational in the sense of being so narrowly focused on training pupils for work in one industry or small group of industries as to make them unfit for any other occupation. We believe that it was this kind of training that the Luxmoore Committee had in mind in condemning vocational training before the age of fifteen. We understand that such training is now widely recognised to be against the best interests of the child and that vocational, or to use a less ambiguous term pre-vocational, education is no longer conceived as a narrowly specialised preparation for one particular kind of work. In any case we feel sure that any attempt to mould the education of rural children in a form designed to tie them to the land would be a sorry service to agriculture. So far from ensuring a steady supply of skilled workers for the industry it would drive the most promising pupils away and lower the standard of intelligence and capability amongst the remainder. The object of pre-agricultural courses in secondary schools should not be to turn out semi-skilled farmers or farm workers at the age of fifteen or sixteen but to fit those who will in future hold responsible posts in the industry to be intelligent, useful and happy members of the rural community.

Many of the pupils will seek no further full-time education; some will wish to enter the farm institute after a period of employment on the land; a few may go on to college or university, although the normal approach to higher education will continue to be through the grammar school. What they

all need in common is a good general education, making due provision for cultural subjects as a means of personal satisfaction and a training for good citizenship, developing an intelligent understanding of the fabric of country life, instilling a sound general knowledge of the scientific foundations of agriculture and providing practice in the use of tools and the care of animals. Performance of the routine operations of farming would not play a major part, although pupils must acquire some first-hand experience of those operations as the starting-point for study of the underlying principles. After such an education pupils would be well fitted to acquire practical skill in their working life, to rise above rule-of-thumb methods, to adjust their practice to changing conditions and to keep a receptive attitude of mind towards technical advice. Those who went on to a farm institute or a centre of higher education would be able to get the full benefit without wasting time on elementary subjects which ought to have been learned at an earlier stage in their education.

7. *Duration and timing of Pre-Agricultural courses.* Under the provisions of the Education Act pupils will pass from the primary to the secondary stage of education between the ages of eleven and twelve. We understand that in the first two years of secondary education the curriculum will be substantially the same in all types of school and that specialization will not begin until the third year, when pupils have reached the age of thirteen. It will thus be made easier than at present for children to be transferred from one type of secondary school to another and, where residential schools have to be provided, parents need not be faced with the sometimes unwelcome necessity of letting their children leave home at so early an age as eleven. We are in agreement with this policy in holding that the pre-vocational element in the course of training which we propose should not be introduced before the age of thirteen, although there will be no break in the method of teaching if, as we hope, full use is made throughout the child's education of material drawn from his environment. We recommend that the pre-agricultural course should be a three-year course for pupils from thirteen to the ultimate leaving age of sixteen. Until full-time attendance up to sixteen becomes compulsory, parents should be encouraged, as for grammar school courses at present, to enter into voluntary undertakings to allow their children to complete the course, but attendance for only two years of the course would be worth while and should not be discouraged.

8. *Content of the proposed curriculum.* The course should be planned as a coherent whole. It cannot be built up by the arbitrary substitution of blocks of "practical farm and garden work" for periods normally given to other subjects in a secondary school course. The subjects to be studied would be those taught in any school which claims to give a good general education: English (and in Wales, Welsh), spoken and written, literature, history, geography, current affairs, art, music, religious instruction, physical exercises and games, health and hygiene, mathematics, science, and practical work in the workshop, on the farm and in the garden. They may be divided into two groups: subjects of more general cultural value the teaching of which is unaffected or at most only slightly coloured by the vocational aim of the curriculum, and subjects such as mathematics, science and practical work, in which the selection of material for study is largely governed by the vocational aim. The time allowed for subjects placed in the general group should be comparable with the allowance made for them in the grammar school. Rather less than half of the total working time would probably be enough for the whole group but it might be found desirable to shift the balance between individual subjects during the three years of the course. The remainder of the school time would be given to mathematics, science and practical work. Any adjustment of time-table necessary to change the relative emphasis laid on the different

branches of the work should be made within the vocational group of subjects and not at the expense of the general group. In the first year one half-day a week of workshop practice and one half-day of farm and garden practice would be enough. Towards the end of the course the time given to farm and garden practice would naturally tend to increase, but it should never be more than one day a week, and that only in the third year.

9. *Method of treatment.* The material and treatment of the general subjects would be much the same as in any secondary school course. In English and likewise in Welsh, however, some attention would be paid to works in the literature relating to the countryside which are regarded as classics. In history and geography the inclusion of such topics as the history of agriculture and the influence of physical geography on types of farming, combined with local surveys, would provide links with the vocational side of the curriculum. In science and mathematics the syllabus should represent a logical development of the subject and should not be merely a collection of individual topics connected only by their vocational significance. The science of the first year should be a sound course of general elementary science (continuing the work of the two previous years), based on the natural phenomena of the countryside and the familiar applications of science to farm and garden. On this foundation the more specialized aspects of biology and chemistry which concern agriculture and horticulture could safely be developed in the second and third years. The mathematics should include the arithmetic of farm accounts and mensuration, appropriate elementary algebra and geometry, and simple trigonometry and surveying. The standard in science and mathematics should be comparable with that of parallel forms in the grammar school.

The practical work in wood and metal should follow ordinary workshop practice, but the exercises should be related to the needs of agriculture and the countryside. In view of the gradual mechanization of farm operations, study of the internal combustion engine and its applications to agriculture should be included. Some instruction in cement work and in brickwork should if possible find a place in the course, if only on a small scale. Instruction in tillage had best be started in the garden: when some knowledge of the principles of plant growth and the relationship of the plant to soil conditions has been acquired, the teaching could be extended to the larger operations necessary in farm practice. This part of the work should go hand in hand with the appropriate biology and chemistry. In the same way instruction in the care of farm animals should be closely correlated with elementary lessons in animal anatomy and physiology. Every opportunity should be taken of visiting farms where up-to-date and progressive agricultural practice may be seen.

The development of the course, at any rate during the experimental stage, should not be hampered by an external examination.

10. *Application to Girls.* We believe that a course essentially similar to that suggested for boys would be equally beneficial for girls. When the war is over, the number of paid jobs in practical agriculture and horticulture open to women seems likely to remain relatively small for some time to come, but women, particularly as the wives of farmers or farm workers, play an important part in the economic side of country life. So long as the shortage of qualified teachers persists, we think that in any area where agricultural courses are provided at selective schools (see sections 13 to 18 below) the number of girls for whom provision is made should not exceed one half of the number of boys. Subject to that qualification, pre-agricultural courses should in our

opinion be open to girls equally with boys. Little difference should be made in the subjects taught in the first year of the course. In the second and third years the practical work for girls would be biased towards the domestic side of farm life and should comprise instruction in needlework, cookery, fruit and vegetable preservation, simple dairy work, poultry keeping and gardening, all to be correlated with the appropriate science teaching. Some girls however may be more interested in farming, gardening or workshop practice than in housekeeping, and boys may wish to learn some cookery. Opportunities for interchange should therefore be provided if possible. We would suggest that where possible a small portion of the time given to domestic subjects should be spent in surroundings which would give girls a better opportunity than do the ideal conditions of the domestic science room of learning to make the best use of the ordinary country kitchen. It is equally important that the teachers should be familiar with farmhouse and cottage conditions.

11. *Importance of providing suitable teachers.* We are well aware that teachers qualified to give instruction in the scientific and practical subjects included in the suggested courses are at present very scarce, and we recognise that this shortage will limit the practical possibility of providing many such courses during the next few years. We hope that every effort will be made to train suitable men and women in sufficient numbers. Meanwhile we feel it our duty to emphasize the need for extreme care in the choice of staff and particularly of head masters. However carefully a pre-agricultural course may be planned in any type of school, our object may be defeated by a head master of either of two types: the man who clings to the old conception of vocational education as a means of imbuing pupils with mechanical skill in the routine operations of a particular industry, or the man who is irked by living in the country, despises rural life and is naturally inclined to turn his pupils against it. Teachers who are in temperament and outlook sympathetic towards our ideal, as well as being technically qualified, are a necessary condition of success.

12. *The need for experiment: alternative possibilities.* We believe that a course of the kind we have outlined would satisfy the basic principles enunciated above (section 4) but we recognize that both the content and the method of treatment may need to be modified after further experiment. Moreover such courses might be provided in several different types of school, tried and untried, and, as we have already indicated, the experience so far accumulated is by no means sufficient to show which type is best. We set out below various possibilities, with their respective advantages and drawbacks as we see them, and we recommend that, in accordance with the traditions of English education, local education authorities should be encouraged to experiment with the provision of pre-agricultural courses in whatever type of school they consider best suited to local conditions. One school well staffed and equipped would offer opportunities for pioneer work which might be of great value to rural secondary education in general.

We realise that in some of the smaller counties the provision of even one such school might be uneconomic unless two or more counties combined together for the purpose.

13. *The Agricultural Technical School.* The purely agricultural technical school is the nearest counterpart of the junior technical school as it exists at present in the town. The Llysfasi Junior Technical School in Denbighshire and the Pibwrlwyd Junior Technical School in Carmarthenshire, though

differing widely in many ways, are both examples of this type of school. Variants of the same type were being planned in Devon and Somerset when the war intervened.

The outstanding advantage of this type of school is its closeness to the land, which tends to inspire teachers and pupils with enthusiasm for their task. The school can be placed in completely rural surroundings, near the farm institute, which it will largely feed and from which it may obtain help in the shape of practical teaching and material facilities. Llysfasi and Pibwrlwyd alike make full use of the premises of a farm institute, including a suitable farm, as does the otherwise different type of course provided in East Sussex. The school proposed in Somerset was likewise planned to be near the farm institute and to call on its technical staff for teaching. Provided that the school does not make too great a demand on the attention of the institute staff, a close relationship with the farm institute is not only convenient but in our view desirable. Whether a farm institute is available or not, however, we are of opinion that the school should not try to usurp the function of the farm institute, and it follows from our views on the character of the education to be provided that the school should not attempt to maintain its own farm. So long as pupils have access for purposes of demonstration either to the institute farm or to good private farms, it should be enough for a few acres of land to be attached to the school for gardening, simple field experiment and the keeping of livestock on a small scale.

Such a school must of necessity be predominantly residential, with perhaps a small minority of day pupils living in the immediate neighbourhood. We have already referred to the reluctance of some parents to send their children to boarding schools, but we think that a school which offers a compensating advantage in better opportunities for communal life. In any case, as the Education Act recognizes, residence is bound to become a more frequent feature of secondary education, especially in thinly-populated areas.

On the other side of the balance sheet, the agricultural technical school involves a greater degree of segregation than other possible methods of providing pre-agricultural courses, depriving its pupils, not only within ordinary school hours but throughout long periods of residence, of the stimulus of mixing with other children of different tastes, talent and interests. This weakness would be mitigated, though not avoided, in a large school. Both on this score and for economy of staff and equipment, no agricultural technical school should in our opinion be designed for less than a two-form entry.

The gravest danger inherent in this type of school is that, unless the responsible authorities and the head master have a clear vision of the true aim of pre-vocational education and a determination to pursue it, the school may easily degenerate into a trade school of the narrowest kind. Even if it avoids this danger, the school will have a hard fight to establish itself on a footing of equality with the grammar school. It was perhaps for this reason that, under the interesting scheme proposed in Devon, the school was to be called an "agricultural high school"; that boys were to be admitted from the age of eleven and allowed to stay on if they wished till seventeen or eighteen; that a foreign language was to be taught as an optional subject; that the course was to end with a certificate examination and that one class of pupils for whom the school was intended to cater was boys who aimed at the agricultural college or the university. We do not of course suggest that any one of these special features is essential to an agricultural technical school.

14. *The "Rural Junior Polytechnic."* The disadvantages of segregation would be much reduced in the type of school which, for want of a better term,

we call a "rural junior polytechnic", in other words a school which offers other pre-vocational courses alongside the agricultural course. No such school as yet exists, but we learn that the suggestion has been put forward (not as a criticism of present arrangements) that the Llysfasi Junior Technical School should be extended in this way.

We think that the appropriate additional courses would be the variant for girls which we have described above and a course designed to prepare boys (and perhaps also a few girls) for the rural crafts and constructional trades. The subjects taught in the first year would be common to all three courses and would provide a foundation for the more specifically vocational curricula of the second and third years. The mechanical and constructional course should not be specialised or subdivided but should aim at providing suitable educational preparation for employment in any of the rural trades. In the second and third years farm and garden work would be replaced by additional instruction in the workshops, consisting of woodwork and metalwork leading to simple agricultural engineering, building and constructional work. Some technical drawing should be included. The teaching of science would lean towards applied mechanics, engineering and electricity rather than biology and chemistry. In addition to full-time instructors in woodwork and metalwork, who should be competent to teach the elementary principles of constructional work and agricultural engineering respectively, the school should be able to call on skilled craftsmen for part-time instruction.

The mixture within the same school of prospective entrants into several different occupations would not only be beneficial to the agricultural pupils but would also give boys going in for jobs other than farming, but closely associated with it, some insight into the fundamental principles of agriculture. A school offering alternative courses would probably attract sufficient pupils from a smaller area than a purely agricultural school, so that, although residential accommodation would still be needed, boarders and day pupils would be more equally divided. The ideal situation would be within two or three miles of a market town which was a centre of trades and industries catering for the needs of the surrounding countryside. The minimum economic number of pupils for a school of this type would be a three-form entry.

15. *The addition of an agricultural side to an urban technical school.* Where a rural area abuts on a town of moderate size, whose activities are partly concerned with the agricultural or horticultural work of the neighbourhood, and which possess a technical school, much the same result can be conveniently and economically achieved by extending the scope of the school to include a pre-agricultural course. This is what has in fact been done at Maidstone and Canterbury. An advantage of this arrangement is that it offers town boys a ready opportunity of training for careers on the land. The chief danger is that of unsympathetic teachers. The interest of the staff might easily be concentrated on the other courses and the school might be too far away from the open country to create an agricultural atmosphere.

Large county boroughs which border on a farming district and even contain a considerable area of agricultural land within their own boundaries, might find it worth while, if they were contemplating the establishment of a new technical school, to include provision for a pre-agricultural course, but the school would have to be in open country, not in the middle of the town.

16. *An agricultural side in a rural grammar school.* The addition of an agricultural side to a rural grammar school would have the advantage of avoiding segregation and offering an easy solution of the problem of misfits, by providing two very different courses within the same school. The pre-agricultural course

would acquire ready-made the advantages of grammar school prestige, especially the prospect of attracting the best teachers and pupils, provided that it were treated as a genuinely equal partner and not overshadowed by the academic side. It would be fatal to success if the "agricultural class" were regarded as a dumping ground for those who could not hope to get the school certificate. To guard against this danger, the minimum strength of the agricultural side should be a full form in each year, but numbers would be of no avail unless the head master and the staff had sufficient breadth of interest and understanding to free themselves from the tradition of concentration on the academic type of pupil. If the difficulties could be overcome, the introduction of an agricultural side would benefit some small country grammar schools. They would be both enlarged and enlivened and their chances of achieving vigorous communal life and of getting first-class head masters would be increased.

It would be theoretically possible, as a variant, to add to the grammar school a side offering one or more other pre-vocational courses beside the pre-agricultural course.

17. *The Multilateral School.* A further theoretical possibility is a multilateral rural school combining the functions of a grammar school, a technical school and a modern school. This arrangement needs no comment except that it represents the antithesis of segregation. The minimum strength, however, would be a five-form entry, and a school of that size with three sides would probably be found unwieldy.

18. *Pre-agricultural and allied courses in chosen modern schools.* In some rural areas the most convenient arrangement may be to provide pre-vocational courses of technical school standard in chosen modern schools, different schools possibly offering courses preparatory to different kinds of employment. In that case a pre-agricultural course should be amongst those offered and courses of the two other types which we have recommended for rural junior polytechnics might also well be included. Residential accommodation on a larger scale than is likely to be required for the ordinary rural modern school would probably be needed, and possibly some additional land.

19. *Pre-agricultural courses for the "A" stream in rural modern schools.* The various arrangements which we have so far described for the provision of pre-agricultural courses are all selective. We conceive them as meeting the needs of the small minority of pupils intending a life on the land who combine a practical turn of mind with capacity to follow without undue strain a course of study equivalent in standard to that which the grammar school offers to pupils of the academic type. If this principle of selection is observed, we do not think that there will be ground for the possible objection that it will impair the prospects of the rural modern schools, many of which already have remarkable achievement to their credit.

The pre-agricultural course provides an education suitable for a selected few; the ordinary course with rural bias an education suitable for the "B" and "C" streams in rural modern schools. There remains the important problem of the curriculum suitable for pupils of good average ability (namely those in the "A" stream) who look forward to life on the land. We recommend that, in any rural modern school in which, either from its own neighbourhood or by concentration from a larger area, there is forthcoming a sufficient number of such pupils to constitute a whole form of entrants each year, a pre-agricultural course of the kind we have recommended, but somewhat simplified on the theoretical side, should be provided. No doubt in most schools pupils of the "A" stream, whom we are now considering, will aim at earning

their livelihood in a great diversity of ways. It is not for us to recommend a general course suitable for them all, but we suggest that the simplified pre-agricultural course may well be found suitable, as it will be a good general education, not unduly specialized, and congenial to the environment.

20. *Relevance of economic conditions.* We feel bound to mention that, whereas the value of rural bias and of the provision which we have suggested in the preceding Section is quite independent of economic conditions, the need for pre-agricultural courses of the higher standard (although they should not disqualify pupils for non-agricultural jobs) must to some extent depend on whether the agricultural industry is able to offer boys and girls so taught satisfactory employment with reasonable prospects.

21. *Interpretation and acknowledgments.* Throughout this report we have used the nomenclature which we understand will be generally adopted in future. Thus, except where the context requires otherwise, we have spoken of grammar schools rather than secondary schools and modern schools rather than senior or central schools.

We have been greatly helped in our enquiry by all those who have attended our meetings or given us facilities for seeing current experiments for ourselves and discussing on the spot the problems involved. We realise that in present conditions such assistance can often be given only at the cost of considerable effort and inconvenience.

Our colleague Mr. James Turner is unable to sign this report through unavoidable absence abroad. He has however taken part in our discussions and seen and approved a draft of the report. We have every reason to believe that he would assent to our final conclusions.

We have the honour to be, Gentlemen,

Your obedient Servants,

T. LOVEDAY (*Chairman*)
 F. BARRACLOUGH
 JAMES EWING
 I. M. JENKINS
 C. BRYNER JONES
 R. MACDONALD
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LONDON

PRINTED AND PUBLISHED BY HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE

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1945

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MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

HIGHER TECHNOLOGICAL EDUCATION

Report of a Special Committee
appointed in April 1944

LONDON: HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE

1945

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PREFATORY NOTE

The framework of Government policy for the future of Technical Education in this country is outlined in the 1944 Education Act. It now becomes a duty on the part of local education authorities to ensure the provision of adequate facilities in this field of education.

But Technical Education is not solely the concern of local education authorities: it is also the concern of industry and of universities, particularly in its higher forms. It therefore becomes necessary to take steps to link up very closely all the bodies concerned with technical education, so that the whole work may be closely co-ordinated.

Hitherto the development of technical education has not been systematically planned. It has been left to local initiative, often without regard to the provision made either by universities or by neighbouring authorities. Indeed, it was abundantly clear even before the war that the whole system requires overhauling if it is to play its part in assisting British industry to hold its own in foreign markets.

As a first step towards implementing the Government's new policy, the then Minister of Education, Mr. Butler, set up a special Committee under the Chairmanship of Lord Eustace Percy to advise him on the needs of higher technological education in England and Wales, with particular reference to the means required for maintaining appropriate co-operation between universities and technical colleges. The Committee have now completed their consideration of the matter remitted to them, and have presented their recommendations in the following Report. These recommendations will receive careful and detailed consideration by the Minister. In the meantime the Minister has decided to publish the Report, which she feels sure will command a wide interest. In so doing she wishes to express her indebtedness to the Committee and their Chairman.

M. G. HOLMES.

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- THE RIGHT HON. LORD EUSTACE PERCY (Chairman). Rector of the Newcastle Division of the University of Durham.
- DR. D. S. ANDERSON. Principal, Birmingham Central Technical College.
- SIR LAWRENCE BRAGG, O.B.E., M.C., F.R.S. Cavendish Professor of Experimental Physics in the University of Cambridge.
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Assessors to the Committee, appointed by the Minister of Education :

- MR. W. ELLIOTT.†
 MR. H. B. WALLIS, C.B.†
 MR. F. BRAY.*
 MR. H. J. SHELLEY.*

Secretaries to the Committee :

- MR. A. R. MAXWELL HYSLOP.
 MR. F. J. EDKINS.

Terms of Reference.

“ Having regard to the requirements of Industry, to consider the needs of higher technological education in England and Wales and the respective contributions to be made thereto by Universities and Technical Colleges ; and to make recommendations, among other things, as to the means for maintaining appropriate collaboration between Universities and Technical Colleges in this field.”

† From the appointment of the Committee until retirement from the Ministry of Education on March 31st, 1945.

* From April 1st, 1945.
 (SO 742)

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NOTE :—The estimated gross cost of the preparation of this Report is £581 4s. 2d., of which £71 2s. 6d. represents the estimated cost of the printing and publication.

HIGHER TECHNOLOGICAL EDUCATION

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I.—INTRODUCTION

To the Right Honourable Richard Law, Minister of Education.

Sir,

1. We were appointed to consider the needs of higher technological education in England and Wales and the respective contribution to be made thereto by Universities and Technical Colleges.

We have taken evidence from witnesses representing a wide range of industry, education, science and technology. Our original intention was to submit successive reports on the requirements of different industries and the educational provision which should be made to meet them. Our inquiries have, however, convinced us of the need for a standing organisation, both to survey industry and to co-ordinate education. We shall, therefore, direct ourselves in this Report, among other things, to recommendations for the constitution of such an organisation, and we shall illustrate our recommendations mainly by examples drawn from one broad field of industrial technology: that of Mechanical, Electrical and Civil Engineering.

2. The evidence submitted to us concurs in the general view: first, that the position of Great Britain as a leading industrial nation is being endangered by a failure to secure the fullest possible application of science to industry; and second, that this failure is partly due to deficiencies in education. The annual intake into the industries of the country of men trained by Universities and Technical Colleges has been, and still is, insufficient both in quantity and quality. We believe that the industrial demand for such men will increase in quantity after the war; and that the demand for higher quality, especially in certain categories, will become more insistent as the nation becomes more conscious of its need for technical efficiency. In particular, the experience of war has shown that the greatest deficiency in British industry is the shortage of scientists and technologists who can also administer and organise, and can apply the results of research to development.

3. These deficiencies call for the attraction to our Universities and Technical Colleges of more and better students; and this will require a substantial increase in teaching facilities and teaching staff. But neither of these results can be brought about automatically by legislation or by the expenditure of public money. The raising of salary scales will not of itself recruit good teachers of technology; nor the raising of the school-leaving age good candidates for posts of responsibility in industry. Both kinds of recruitment will require the co-operation of industrialists and educators in detecting ability and selecting it for appropriate education and training. At present too large a proportion of the best output of the schools goes into non-industrial occupations, and positive steps are necessary to counteract this drift. Technological education must be conceived in terms of a combined course of works training and academic studies; and both the course as a whole and the period allotted to academic studies must be long enough to give full scope to the student's development. Full co-operation between industrialists and educators must be based upon a recognition, by both parties, of the supreme importance of increasing the efficiency of manufacturing processes, and of initiating new branches of technology, as an essential means of expanding the nation's export trade and advancing its standard of living.

4. In any effective programme of action on these lines, it will be essential to distinguish between the functions of Universities and Technical Colleges; and it will also, we believe, be necessary to allot special functions to certain Technical Colleges as primarily concerned with higher teaching and research. And here arises a question which must form one of the main subjects of our Report. For certain categories of scientists and technologists, the division of function between Universities and Technical Colleges is clear enough.

Industry must look mainly to Universities for the training of scientists, both for research and development, and of teachers of science ; it must look mainly to Technical Colleges for technical assistants and craftsmen. But both Universities and Colleges must share the responsibility for educating the future senior administrators and technically qualified managers of industry ; and this joint responsibility is not at present defined by any clear principles, nor expressed in any joint arrangements for consultation and planning.

5. The needs of industry, which we have here briefly summarised, are many and changing. What industry therefore requires is a responsive and adaptable organisation of technological education. The existing national provision for such education lacks focus. Not only is it divided between Universities and Technical Colleges, but each University and College tends to act independently. Each has its own contacts with industry, but such contacts are rarely sufficient. The industrialist cannot easily find his way about among institutions so many and so various, and is uncertain how to make his requirements known to them. Regional Councils of Further Education, where they have been established, have done much, but not enough : and University education remains, for the most part, outside their purview.

6. We shall attempt in this Report to suggest an organisation of higher technological education which will be more responsive and adaptable to the needs of industry. But at the outset we must define those needs rather more closely. As we have said, we shall state this definition mainly in terms of Mechanical, Electrical, and Civil Engineering ; and, within these branches of engineering, mainly in terms of the " professional " engineer. We select this range of engineering because it forms the chief subject common both to University departments of Applied Science and to Technical Colleges ; and because, for that very reason, responsibility for it is peculiarly difficult to allot between the two types of institution.

II.—THE REQUIREMENTS OF INDUSTRY

7. The demands of the engineering industry for technically trained staff may be roughly classified in five groups : (1) senior administrators, (2) engineer scientists and development engineers, (3) engineer managers (design, manufacture, operation and sales), (4) technical assistants and designer draughtsmen, and (5) draughtsmen, foremen and craftsmen. This is an industrial classification, describing the demand for Mechanical and Electrical Engineers more accurately than for Civil ; and it is a classification in terms of large, rather than small, industrial units. But it is accurate enough for our present purposes.

8. Of the five groups (5) falls outside our terms of reference, and (4) outside the limits we have set ourselves in this Report. But the urgency of the industrial demand for them should not be underrated. The Institution of Electrical Engineers estimates the annual intake of electrical engineers alone required in group (4) at 1,800 and in group (5) at 3,200. The responsibility for meeting this demand rests with Technical Colleges, and these Colleges have no more important function to discharge.

9. The responsibility for meeting the demand for group (2), on the other hand, rests primarily with Universities. The academic education required is a good first degree in engineering science, which should be followed by post-graduate specialist study in technological subjects, either following immediately on the degree, or taken at a later stage after a period of experience in industry. Such post-graduate study is common in University Departments of Pure Science ; it has been too infrequent in most of their Departments of Applied Science.

10. Group (3) represents a varied demand, which must be met partly by Universities and partly by Technical Colleges. The academic education required is a sound engineering course leading to a University degree, or to a College Diploma, or to a Higher National Certificate or Diploma, with some instruction in the elements of industrial administration.

11. The education of men required in group (1) can hardly be differentiated at the undergraduate stage, for they will be drawn largely from groups (2) and (3), and their selection must depend not only on academic achievement, but on personal qualities. But there is a strong feeling in industry that in planning professional courses generally more attention should be paid to developing, not only technical knowledge and skill, but also a liberal outlook on life, some appreciation of the organisation of industry, and an interest in administrative problems. At the post-graduate stage, which, in their case, will usually follow on a substantial period of industrial experience, men suited to employments in group (1) should be given an opportunity to take a special course in administrative subjects.

12. An estimate of the total annual output of Mechanical, Electrical, and Civil Engineers required by industry to fill groups (1), (2) and (3) must be very largely guesswork; but the evidence given us by the three professional Institutions concerned suggests a rough annual figure of 3,000, equally divided between the three branches. Without looking too far ahead, we may adopt this figure as the desirable annual output during the next decade. Against this industrial demand, the pre-war educational supply may be summarised as follows:—

13. There are in England and Wale's, eleven Universities and two independent University Colleges in receipt of grant from the University Grants Committee, which provide degree courses in Engineering. Of these, the University of Wales comprises three, and the University of London four, distinct Colleges providing such courses. In addition, students of four of the London Technical Colleges, and of the Sunderland Technical College, take the internal degrees of the Universities of London and Durham respectively; and the Manchester College of Technology provides the Faculty of Technology of Manchester University. A list of these Institutions is given in the Appendix to this Report. The length of a first degree course at these institutions is ordinarily three years; and the period of full-time attendance required in each year varies from about 24 weeks at Oxford and Cambridge to 30 weeks or more in the other Universities. Students of Engineering usually take also a period of works training during the summer vacations.

14. The number of Technical Colleges giving courses in Engineering fluctuates and cannot, therefore, be exactly stated; but there are in England and Wales about 150 Technical Schools and Colleges which provide courses within the scope of our inquiry. The great majority of these courses are conducted in evening classes, for students employed in industry; but the number of students released by their employers for attendance during working hours is increasing. In addition, in 1937-8, 81 Colleges provided some full-time courses of at least one year's duration; but the bulk of these full-time courses were not in the field we are now considering. Some 27 of the Colleges—of which 10 are in the London area—provided full-time higher technological courses of as much as three years' duration for a substantial number of students.

15. Universities are independent institutions, governed in accordance with the provisions of Royal Charters or Acts of Parliament. Technical Colleges, generally speaking, are managed and financed by Local Education Authorities, under the regulations of the Ministry of Education.

16. The output of engineers from the two types of institution may be indicated as follows :—

(a) The number of University first degrees in Engineering, including Mining and Naval Architecture, but not Metallurgy, obtained in 1939 was in round figures 700, or about 9 per cent, of the total number of first degrees conferred by Universities in all subjects. This total includes external degrees of the University of London obtained by students of the two University Colleges, but not other London external degrees. The number of Higher Degrees or Diplomas obtained in this range of subjects (including Aeronautics) in the same year was 168.

(b) In the Technical Colleges the qualifications taken by part-time engineering students are the Higher National Certificates in Mechanical and Electrical Engineering, and a few full-time students take the National Diplomas. National Certificate schemes were instituted shortly after the last war; they are intended for part-time students employed in industry, and are designed to set a minimum national standard representing continuous part-time study for five or six years from the age of 16 or 17. There is an Ordinary Certificate taken after three years' study; and the Higher Certificate taken at the end of the course is a qualification of approximately first degree standard, but, being based on a part-time course, it necessarily covers a narrower field. The Diploma schemes are designed to set a similar standard for full-time students. An Ordinary National Diploma is awarded on two years' full-time study; the Higher National Diploma requires one further year, and here the field covered is approximately the same as for a University degree. The schemes are operated by Joint Committees of the Ministry of Education and the professional Institutions; and the examinations in the final year are subject to assessment by assessors appointed by the professional Institutions. The number of Higher Certificates awarded in 1939 was 1,053, but there were only 39 Higher National Diplomas. In 1939 about 140 students of engineering in Technical Colleges obtained first or higher internal degrees in Engineering of the Universities of London, Manchester and Durham (included in the University figures given above), and 100 obtained an external degree of the University of London. Not all these degree students were full-time students, and the figures show the very small part which full-time courses have hitherto played in Technical Colleges. It is impossible to quote a figure for students obtaining professional qualifications by directly taking the examinations of the professional Institutions; but the number will be small compared with those taking Higher National Certificates.

17. These statistics show an output just before the war of (in round figures) 2,000 from the Universities and Technical Colleges of England and Wales, of which 35 per cent. came from Universities. This figure does not include Scotland. The number of degrees and diplomas obtained at Scottish Universities (including the Royal Technical College at Glasgow) in the year 1938 in all branches of technology, including Architecture, was 305; but a figure of 2,300 for the United Kingdom would probably overstate the pre-war output. The Ministry of Labour estimates the total national average annual output of Mechanical, Electrical, and Civil engineers for the period 1926-39 at 2,100.

18. This output proved inadequate for the purposes of war and an intensive effort was made to increase it. In 1943 the national output reached the approximate figure of 3,000 made up as follows :—

Universities and University Colleges (including the Royal Technical College at Glasgow, the London Polytechnics and the Manchester College of Technology)	1,250
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Technical Colleges.—Higher National Certificates and Diplomas	1,300
London External Degrees 138
Professional Institutions and private venture Colleges 300

19. Our problem is to maintain this war output for at least the next ten years. The share of England and Wales in a national output of 3,000 may be estimated roughly at about 2,700. The war output has severely strained the resources of most of the University institutions concerned, but figures supplied to us by the Universities and University Colleges of England and Wales suggest that their future output capacity, after completing the extensions planned in their reports to the University Grants Committee, will not fall far short of 1,200 for all branches of engineering. This probably represents the limit of desirable University expansion in these branches of technology during the period in question; and it leaves to English and Welsh Technical Colleges the task of producing the balance of not less than 1,500.

20. This last figure may be an underestimate. The University figure of 1,200 has to meet demands not included in the total figure of 3,000: for instance, the demand from foreign and British overseas students for University engineering courses in this country; the demand for British engineers in overseas countries; and the greatly increased demand for teachers of technology which must result from any expansion in technological education. On the other hand our figures may be an over-estimate, for they are based on the assumption of prosperity. The pre-war output, which we regard as insufficient for our future needs, was based upon actual experience of the precarious demand under the conditions of the period 1926-39. What the situation requires, therefore, is an energetic programme of expansion, both in accommodation and staff, which will tax to the full the resources of Universities and the Technical Colleges, coupled with adequate arrangements for keeping a close watch upon the demand which this programme is intended to meet.

21. But, whatever reservations must be made in estimating future industrial demand in terms of volume, there is no doubt about the urgency of the demand in terms of quality. As we have said, it is especially a demand for men fitted for executive responsibility; and for men capable, not only of research, but of applying the results of research to development. In both respects, therefore, it is a demand for special qualities and for a high grade both of ability and character. At present this demand is not being met; and the whole reputation of our national system of higher education in this field depends upon the extent to which it can be met in future.

III.—COLLEGES OF TECHNOLOGY

22. We have seen that the requirements of industry in the comparatively narrow field we are considering will be met, in England and Wales, as to about 45 per cent. by Universities and as to about 55 per cent. by Technical Colleges. We believe that the output of our University schools of engineering and of the National Certificate and Diploma courses of our Technical Colleges has been reasonably satisfactory for their respective purposes, though the courses are, no doubt, susceptible of improvement. But we believe, too, that the education and training thus provided do not fully cover the ground. Industry needs also another class of entrant. The training of this class should be broader than that given in Higher National Certificate courses; it should be comparable with University degree courses; but it should be planned on different lines.

23. We can best explain the type of training we have in mind by drawing what we believe to be a necessary distinction between the functions of Universities and Technical Collèges. These two types of education have, indeed, one feature in common. Neither University nor Technical College courses are designed of themselves alone to produce a trained engineer. All such courses have to be considered as part of a longer course of combined academic study and works practice, extending over at least five or six years. The works practice should be as carefully planned as the academic study, and the whole should be planned by co-operation between the educational institution and the industry concerned. Universities, no less than Technical Collèges, should consider whether it may not be generally desirable that a period of works practice should precede, as well as accompany and follow, the period of academic study. Industry, on its side, should consider whether the period of academic study at both Universities and Collèges should not be generally lengthened, so as to give enough time for a full education.

24. But, considered in this setting, University and Technical College courses have hitherto been distinguished by the degree of concentration on academic study required of the student at some stage in the combined course. The University requires complete and continuous concentration on such study for at least three years, combined with only vacation experience in industry; and its students can have no industrial obligations or commitments which interfere with that concentration. Most Technical College courses, on the other hand, are normally interwoven throughout with concurrent works practice and require only part-time attendance from students whose major commitment is full-time industrial employment. This practical distinction in the relation between academic study and works experience roughly corresponds with a distinction of principle between two aspects of technological education. Every technology is both a science and an art. In its aspect as a science it is concerned with general principles which are valid for every application; in its aspect as an art it is concerned with the special application of general principles to particular problems of production and utilisation. Universities and Technical Collèges must deal with both aspects; but Universities have regarded it as their duty to select and emphasise the science aspect, and Technical Collèges the art aspect.

25. We believe that this distinction of principle between these two aspects of technological education is right; but the practical distinction deduced from it, in terms of relative concentration on academic study and works practice, can be exaggerated. It is probably right that, for perhaps two-thirds of the engineering students in Technical Collèges, academic study and works practice should be strictly concurrent. But, even for them, evening classes alone, which absorbed four-fifths of all the candidates for Higher National Certificates in 1937-8, are wholly inappropriate to higher studies so exacting as those demanded of the modern engineer. The restricted hours and the other inevitable conditions of such evening study are largely responsible for what is probably the main defect in present Technical College education for engineers: that it gives too small a place to the fundamental sciences in the earlier stages. And we believe that, for the remaining one-third of Technical College engineering students, even the degree of concentration on continuous study provided by attendance at classes in working hours on a day or so a week is altogether too slight.

26. For some 500 of the 1,500 trained engineers which Technical Collèges are to produce annually we recommend, therefore, a course of higher technological education which will require continuous *full-time* study over substantial periods. The opinions expressed to us as to the minimum length of such

periods have varied from three to six months ; and there are some who would wish to require that the period should be of approximately the same length as a University session. We prefer to leave this question open, but we recommend that: (a) the aggregate length of all the periods at the "post-intermediate" stage of the course should be comparable to the total length of a University degree course at that stage ; and (b) the remainder of the student's working year should be occupied by a planned course of works practice.

27. We assume that, for the present, about 150 of the 500 students will elect to work, as in the past, for the external degree of the University of London, although we regard the system of external University degrees as an anomaly. We should wish the recommendations we have made in the immediately preceding paragraph to be applied to external degree courses. We think that University degrees should not be granted purely on examinations, or in respect of courses conducted solely in the evening or on the basis of "part-time day release." We recognise, however, that there may be justifiable exceptions to this general rule.

28. For the remaining 350 students, we desire to see courses specially planned, without reference to existing anomalies. We would insist that such courses, whatever their length and arrangement, should be directed to the development to the highest level of the teaching of the art of technology, based on a sufficient scientific foundation. Such courses should have a status in no way inferior to the University type of course ; they should require equal ability in the student ; and they should afford a preparation for the most advanced post-graduate studies. But they will be different from University courses ; and their development should not, therefore, be hindered or deflected by University affiliations or by arrangements for the grant of University degrees, whether by existing Universities or—as some of our witnesses have suggested to us—by some new national technological University created purely for purposes of examination and standardisation. The practical defect of any external examination system, however disguised, is its inevitable tendency to rigidity and its consequent cramping of the teacher's initiative. Even in such a well-established technology as engineering, what is chiefly required of Technical Colleges is adaptability to changing techniques and to new combinations of techniques. This consideration applies with even greater force to other less well-established technologies, in which it is essential that the institutions responsible for teaching should be free to develop new standards by experiment. Such freedom implies not only freedom to plan their own syllabuses, but freedom also to award their own qualifications. This freedom of a teaching community to adapt its examinations to its teaching is now the characteristic mark of a University : it should equally be the characteristic mark of the institutions to which is to be entrusted the development of a type of higher technological education which is, for the most part, new to this country.

29. We recommend, therefore, the selection of a strictly limited number of Technical Colleges in which there should be developed technological courses of a standard comparable with that of University degree courses. The selection of these Colleges must be a matter for the Minister of Education ; but we suggest that, for engineering, up to six Colleges, exclusive of any in the Greater London area, might be selected in the first instance. While these technological courses would be a distinctive feature of such Colleges they would have many other activities. The conditions in any one College would obviously be adapted to suit local needs ; but one would expect to find, in addition to the special higher technological courses, a large volume of part-time work of an advanced character for Higher National Certificates and other qualifications

of similar standard. Further, a very important function of these Colleges would be the provision of post-graduate courses in special branches of technology; these courses might be either full-time or part-time, and would be intended generally for their own graduates or for graduates from Universities and for men who had been in industry for some time. We are of the opinion that far too little attention has been paid in the past to refresher courses and "new development" courses, both of which would come in this category. A College might also conduct as one of its activities a National School in a particular branch of technological study, such as Plastics, Rubber Technology, Foundrywork or Welding, in which the very highest grade of work for the whole country might be done. Finally a College would probably have an important part to play in conducting investigations for local industry into specific problems. While large firms with well-equipped research departments would not normally require such assistance, it must not be forgotten that the majority of firms are small, with few facilities for the proper conduct of investigations and research. We would regard this service to industry as a very important function of these Colleges.

30. The selected Colleges must be developed into responsible academic institutions, performing a national function. To that end we make the following recommendations:—

(a) They should be so organised as to provide for a considerable number of residential students.

(b) In government they should continue to be subject to the ultimate control of the providing local authority in matters of finance and general policy, but it is essential that each should have its own Governing Body, containing adequate representation of industry, and a Board of Studies, representing its teaching staff, which should be responsible for academic policy. This constitution should, we think, be defined by a scheme approved by the Minister of Education, which would give the College the greatest possible degree of self-government and responsibility.

(c) In finance they should be specially assisted by the national exchequer, as performing a national rather than a local function. We suggest that the providing authority should receive a substantially higher rate of grant in respect of revenue expenditure attributable to this function, and that the national exchequer should consider giving special assistance also by capital grants, in the same way as is now contemplated for Universities.

(d) The salaries and conditions of service of comparable teaching staffs should be similar to those of University teachers, and superannuation arrangements should be adapted to secure the greatest possible freedom of movement between Colleges and Universities. Subject, perhaps, to some special interpretations, the recent report of the Burnham Committee seems to provide a sufficient basis for this, as regards salaries; but we hope that there will be a suitable revision of regulations as to hours of teaching and the like which at present tend seriously to restrict the freedom of full-time teachers to promote the study of their subject by tutorial activities and research, as well as by formal instruction.

(e) They should so far as possible be relieved of elementary teaching duties.

31. The application of this general policy to the London and Home Counties area and to other branches of technology may be more difficult than to provincial Colleges of Engineering. The London area raises special problems owing to (1) the concentration in it of a large number of technical institutions; (2) the relation of some of them to the University of London, and (3) the policy

of rationalisation which already operates among them. Both in London and the Provinces it may be necessary to develop specialisation in a particular branch of technology in selected institutions whose other work may be of a less advanced standard. We deal with one aspect of this latter problem in paragraph 51. But these and other problems can be fully solved only by processes of regional and national consultation, for which an adequate machinery must be created. Before completing our recommendations as to Colleges of Technology we desire, therefore, to outline proposals for a standing advisory organisation which may provide a centre for such consultation.

32. We have another reason for turning to this subject at this point in our Report. We are most anxious that the selection of certain Technical Colleges for these special functions should not be taken to imply that Colleges not so selected will be relegated to an inferior status, or that their future development will be a matter of minor importance. The functions of Technical Colleges as Local Colleges of general adult education lie outside our terms of reference; but we may be allowed to express our opinion that these functions are of the first importance, and that academic freedom and responsibility are equally necessary to their proper performance. And in the field of technology itself it is essential that a new policy of full-time or semi-full-time study should not have the effect of de-valuing courses for National Certificates and for the training of craftsmen and foremen, or of de-grading the institutions which will be mainly responsible for such courses. Technical College education needs to be surveyed, planned, and elevated as a whole; and in the field of adult education as well as over the whole field of technological studies, it should be co-ordinated with University education. It is with that intention that we make the recommendations contained in the following section.

IV.—REGIONAL AND CENTRAL ORGANISATION

33. Our first recommendation is that Regional Advisory Councils should be established throughout England and Wales, on the general lines of those now in existence in some areas such as the West Midlands, Yorkshire and South Wales, although we do not suggest that these models should be exactly followed. The Regional Advisory Councils should be concerned with the co-ordination of technological studies in Universities, Colleges of Technology and the other Technical Colleges of the Region. It is therefore essential that all Regional Advisory Councils should provide fully for the representation of Universities and for consultation between the teaching staffs of Universities and Technical Colleges. Some existing regional bodies tend, perhaps, to be over-weighted on the administrative side, where University and municipality have least in common, and where their respective responsibilities are least easy to reconcile. It is on the teaching side, at the level of the Board of Studies, the Faculty, and the University Senate, that consultation on what are, after all, essentially teaching problems is easiest and most natural, and can provide the most direct stimulus to development.

34. We recommend, therefore, as an integral part of the regional machinery, that the Regional Advisory Councils should create Regional Academic Boards of Technology, composed of the academic heads of Universities and Technical Colleges and of members of their teaching staffs. It should be the function of such a Board to advise the Governing Bodies of the participating institutions and the Regional Advisory Council on the development and co-ordination of higher technological studies in each institution and in the region as a whole.

Representation of, and consultation with, industry is, of course, an essential purpose of the whole regional organisation ; but we think such consultation may be most effective if it is conducted largely through the agency of these Regional Academic Boards. The Boards should therefore be free to make their own arrangements, as academic bodies, for close consultation with industry in the region ; in addition to any representation of industry in the regional organisation as a whole.

35. The regional machinery should have its national counterpart in a central body. We suggest that this body should be entitled the National Council of Technology. This Council should be at least partly representative of Regional Advisory Councils and of the Regional Academic Boards ; but we do not wish to make any detailed proposals as to its composition, since we think its members should be appointed by the Minister of Education at his discretion. It will be responsible for considering the national aspects of regional policies, and for advising the Minister and the University Grants Committee upon them. We do not suggest any change in the administrative responsibilities of these two central authorities, nor any restriction of their freedom of communication with local education authorities and Universities and with the regional bodies. We believe that the right of direct access to central authorities is essential to the healthy working of all local bodies. We believe also that the division of responsibility between the Minister and the University Grants Committee should not prevent the fullest direct consultation and exchange of information between the Ministry of Education and Universities, either individually or collectively.

36. These are the essential outlines of the organisation we propose. We do not wish to make detailed recommendations as to the constitution of the Regional Advisory Councils themselves, but we suggest the following outline for the constitution of the Regional Academic Boards. Their membership might conveniently be divided into ex-officio, appointed and additional members. The ex-officio members should be the academic heads of Universities and Colleges, and the heads of certain departments within them. The appointed members, whose number might be limited to about one-half of the ex-officio members, should be teachers in the institutions, appointed by the Board at their discretion for a limited term, but eligible for re-appointment. Additional members should be any persons whom the Board may wish to co-opt from time to time. Their number should be limited, but should be large enough to include Chief Education Officers whose Authorities are principally concerned in the work of the Board. On the first constitution of the Boards, the component institutions should be designated by the Regional Advisory Council, who should also nominate the first convener of the Board. The Board thus initially constituted would designate the departments entitled to ex-officio representation, and elect the appointed and additional members ; and would thereafter be free to designate additional institutions and departments, to choose its chairman and officers, to appoint such sub-committees as it thinks fit, and generally to plan its advisory work. The provision for additional members of Regional Academic Boards is not intended to provide for consultation with industry, though such members may well include persons with industrial experience. The Boards must plan their means of consultation with industry on much broader lines. We hope that Research Associations will be brought into the closest possible relations both with the Regional Academic Boards and with the National Council.

37. We tentatively suggest eight regions : London and the Home Counties including the counties of Essex, Hertfordshire, Bedfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Middlesex, Surrey, Kent, and probably East and West Sussex ; the Southern and South-Western Counties, from Hampshire, Berkshire and Oxfordshire

westwards ; East Anglia and the East Midlands ; the West Midlands ; Yorkshire ; Lancashire and Cheshire ; the four Northern Counties ; and Wales. But we are anxious not to disturb existing organisations ; our point is that the chief industrial areas of the country should be effectively covered by some form of regional advisory organisation, and that the bulk of the technical institutions of the country should be effectively included in this co-ordinating machinery.

38. As already indicated, we attach special importance to the creation of such an organisation for London and the Home Counties. That step is long overdue, and until it is taken it will be impossible adequately to consider the special problems of that area, including the application to it of our general recommendations as to Colleges of Technology. We welcome the steps recently taken to establish a conference of authorities in this area ; but such a conference evidently cannot be effective until it makes provision for the representation in it of the University of London, of the Technical Colleges and of industry.

39. We are conscious of a certain unreality in representing a National Council for England and Wales alone as being an instrument for the national planning of technological education in response to the requirements of industry. On this point, we can only indicate the obvious importance of some arrangements for joint consultation between central bodies in England and Wales and in Scotland.

40. It is, we believe, to the new Academic Boards of Technology that the country must mainly look for advice on the steps necessary to meet the unsatisfied demand of industry on which we have insisted in paragraph 21 above : the demand for quality. This is a task which vitally concerns both Universities and Technical Colleges, and demands not only consultation between them, but better mutual arrangements for ensuring access by students to the facilities most suited to their ambitions and abilities. Before returning to the subject of Colleges of Technology, we wish to make some remarks and recommendations on this general question.

V.—RECRUITMENT OF STUDENTS AND MEANS OF ACCESS TO UNIVERSITIES AND TECHNICAL COLLEGES

41. Failure to meet the demand of industry in the past has, no doubt, been due partly to deficiencies in courses of education and training, and partly to faults of industrial organisation. University undergraduate courses may have been both too short and too specialised, and University life too little residential ; in courses for the Ordinary and Higher National Certificates there may have been too little of that early scientific grounding which is as necessary to the art, as it is to the science, of engineering or of any other branch of technology. In industry, young men anxious for responsibility may have been given too little opportunity for exercising it. While however we recognise that both educational institutions and industry may not have handled their material to the best advantage, we cannot resist the conclusion that the best material is not being offered to either in sufficient quantities. In a word, industry, and educational institutions training for industry, are not getting their fair share of the national ability.

42. For this, there are probably two main reasons : on the one hand full-time secondary education up to the age of 18 has tended to direct the attention of boys of first-rate ability away from " factory " employments ; on the other hand such boys who leave school for industry at from 14 to 16 years of age have not been given sufficient opportunities to return later to University or other full-time education.

43. On the first point, there is urgent need for a national campaign to increase the prestige of the technical professions and to counteract the impression that the road to responsible executive posts in industry does not lie through those professions. Such a campaign should, we think, be specially directed towards public boarding-schools, whose bias is often overwhelmingly against the technical professions, and for most of which the Universities of the industrial Midlands and North hardly exist as possible places of education for their scholars. But the same bias against factory employments exists also in the great majority of secondary schools. It is evidenced, for instance, by the marked increase of University students of Civil Engineering, at the expense of both the Mechanical and the Electrical branches. So long as careers are pre-determined at schools, the supply of information to schools is a vital need with which, we suggest, Regional Academic Boards should concern themselves closely. They should have regard to what is being done in this connexion by the Ministry of Labour and its Appointments department, and they should utilise such agencies as the Juvenile Employment Bureaux and the machinery built up in recent years by secondary schools. They should work in close touch also with University Appointments Boards. Industry itself should join in this supply of information. Industrialists who attach value to higher education have been too apt to expect that institutions of higher education will produce graduates for them unaided; they should assume a greater share of responsibility for recruiting from the schools apprentices capable of profiting from higher education, and for sending them to Universities or to Technical Colleges at an appropriate stage of their industrial training.

44. We recommend also a continuance, both for Universities and Technical Colleges, of the special State Bursary system, with improved methods of selection, and the extension of the benefits of this system to candidates from industry as well as from secondary schools. Indeed, we would represent strongly that the whole question of scholarships for students of technology needs thorough reconsideration. At present, the student entering full-time or semi-full-time education from industry, instead of up the normal ladder of full-time secondary education, tends to fall altogether outside the national scholarship system. Industry itself does something in this field, and might do more; but the State should do much more. Unless it does so, the whole idea of full-time or semi-full-time courses in Colleges of Technology must break down. We hope that the State, having discovered during the war that special bursaries and cadetships can attract a new supply of able students, will not neglect to apply that experience to the hardly less urgent problems of peace.

45. We hope that a campaign on these lines, with the active collaboration of industry, may arrest some of the present leakage of good brains from secondary schools at the age of 16; and the expansion of free secondary education envisaged in the new Education Act will, of course, do more. But many good brains will continue to leave full-time education for industry at that age, and it is right that they should do so. Such early practical experience is suited both to some branches of industry and to some types of natural ability. Indeed, the need for active recruitment into productive industry at this age may be as great as the need for recruitment into full-time higher education at a later age; especially in areas where secondary education has tended to be regarded rather as a way of escape from industrial apprenticeship than as an avenue to it. For the best of such early recruits, at least, there should be a recognised path back to full-time education through the part-time courses of Technical Colleges. For some, this path will lead to the new Colleges of Technology or to other Technical institutions; for some it should lead

to the University. This raises the whole question of adjustment between Technical College and University courses, as parts of one coherent system of higher technological education. Their respective courses must not be distorted by a mere striving after equivalence; but the factors common to the two methods of approach must be recognised and made clear.

46. There are three stages at which transfer from Technical Colleges to Universities should be possible: matriculation, intermediate, and post-graduate. Matriculation raises few difficulties; and we need only recommend to the consideration of Universities the recognition of Technical College examinations, in whole or in part, for this purpose. We know and appreciate the desire of Universities to maintain the standard of their own matriculation examinations, and to reduce rather than to extend the practice of granting exemptions from them. But so long as such exemptions are recognised, we suggest that the claims of Technical College students deserve special consideration; and we therefore welcome the recent amendments of regulations for "industrial matriculation" which have been made by some Universities and University Joint Matriculation Boards.

47. At the intermediate stage it is highly desirable that a place should be made, within the course for the Ordinary National Certificate, for the fundamental sciences, so that an examination taken by a Technical College student at about the age of 19 could be recognised by Universities, like the Higher School Certificate, as equivalent to their own intermediate examinations. At present perhaps the weakest feature of the National Certificate system is the narrowness of the Ordinary course. As we have pointed out already in paragraph 25 above, this narrowness is largely the result of the dominance of evening classes; and, even so, the conditions of evening study result in the failure of a large proportion of the students to "stay the course." Wastage during the Ordinary course is very high indeed; and even with this wastage 40 per cent. of the candidates for the Ordinary Certificates in Mechanical and Electrical Engineering fail to pass the examination. Moreover, even with these failures, about 50 per cent. of those who proceed to the Higher Certificate course drop out of it in their first year; and even after this drastic selection, Universities have, perhaps, been justified in hesitating, until recently, to give general recognition to a National Certificate course as exempting from their intermediate examinations, though they have recognised it in individual cases. Academic curricula cannot be planned by a Departmental Committee; and we are doubtful whether to recommend a general upgrading of the Ordinary Certificate and the relegation of the weaker elements to a more elementary type of course, or a bifurcation in the course, leading to a qualification intermediate between Ordinary and Higher, or to an Ordinary "with distinction." Whether one of these alternatives is adopted or another variant of them, it is, we think, essential to any scheme of higher work in Technical Colleges that they should offer, at a fairly early age, a broad and thorough grounding in the fundamental sciences; and we gather that this is the growing view of the professional institutions, as evidenced by the recent revision of their own examination schemes.

48. We have been told that we cannot expect the path from Technical Colleges to Universities to be well-trodden at the undergraduate stage; and this may be true. In areas, however, where the path has already been regularly trodden by a few, it is highly valued; and its interruption by Ministry of Labour regulations in the war period, coming at a moment when the traffic on it was increasing, has been strongly felt both as a personal hardship and as a loss to the engineering industry. We cannot help suspecting that, in some areas at least, Universities have been content to recruit their departments of

applied science too exclusively from full-time schools ; and that however much this source of supply may be stimulated, they will need, for a good many years to come, to draw an increasing proportion of their best students from Technical Colleges. We have already indicated the importance of this consideration in any scheme of State scholarships. We believe, also, that in any well co-ordinated system of technological education there should be recognised modes of transfer for University students to Technical Colleges. We do not enlarge upon this point, only because such transfers do not seem likely to be hindered by Technical College regulations.

49. While we attach importance to transfer at this second stage, we attach more importance to mutual freedom of access to Universities and Technical Colleges at the third or post-graduate stage. Here, again, access from Universities to Technical Colleges raises no particular difficulties ; but freedom of access by men trained at Technical Colleges to courses for the higher degrees of a University has been impeded in some Universities by the requirement of a University Bachelor's degree as a preliminary to admission to studies for a higher degree. Such regulations are now, we think, giving way to a recognition that admission to research studies should depend exclusively upon the candidate's ability to contribute to the discovery of new knowledge. There remains, however, the impediment that Universities very generally require longer " residence " for a higher degree from non-graduate candidates. We hope that each University will in future be prepared to recognise Technical College qualifications of degree standard on an equal footing with the first degrees of other Universities, for the purposes of the term of " residence " required from candidates holding such qualifications.

50. The free movement of post-graduate students, on a basis of equality, is essential to any coherent planning of technological research, and this is, perhaps, a convenient place in our Report for a brief indication of our views on such planning. Research is a necessary concomitant of all higher teaching ; in that aspect, freedom is essential to it ; and in that sense it cannot be planned. But in technology, such free research is not sufficient to provide for the continuous development of industry, if only because the equipment required is often beyond the reach of individual teaching institutions. For instance, a high-tension laboratory of medium size may be a necessary part of the equipment of every University Engineering Department and College of Engineering Technology ; but research at the highest voltages must be concentrated in one or two institutions, deliberately selected for the purpose. The institutions thus selected as special research centres may be Universities, or Colleges of Technology or, in some cases, other Technical Colleges. It should not, however, be supposed that any special research centre can absorb all research affecting its particular field ; in ceramics, for instance, Stoke may be the obvious centre both for teaching and research ; but much fundamental research relevant to that field will continue to be done at Universities and other institutions, as well as in the laboratories of individual firms and Research Associations. What is required in each such field is a deliberate plan concerted with industry both at the national and the regional level, and making full use of Technical Colleges as well as of Universities.

51. A special problem, both of research and of teaching, arises in the development of certain branches of technology of great national importance, but requiring the training of only a relatively small number of technicians, so that the industries concerned tend to look to one or two such Colleges only to meet their needs. Training in some of these technologies may be carried to a very high level in certain Technical Colleges whose other work may be of a less advanced standard ; horology, scientific instruments and

rubber technology are examples of this. It may, therefore, sometimes be found desirable to select a single institution for specialisation in a particular branch of technology in which it will serve as a centre for the whole country; and in that case it may well be that the special department charged with this duty should be supported wholly out of national funds.

VI.—QUALIFICATIONS TO BE AWARDED BY COLLEGES OF TECHNOLOGY

52. We have now to complete our recommendations on the special subject of the new Colleges of Technology. The chief question to be considered is that of the qualifications to be awarded by these Colleges to students who successfully complete their courses of full-time or semi-full-time study. From the strictly educational point of view this may seem to be a secondary question; but it bulks very large in all current discussion of the future of higher technological education and must, therefore, be carefully considered.

53. For the reasons indicated in paragraph 28, we recommend that the Colleges should, in principle, conduct their own examinations and award their own qualifications. But it has been represented to us that industry would be unable to attach a definite value to new qualifications awarded by a number of independent Colleges on a new type of course unless such qualifications were guaranteed by some national body as conforming with national standards. Assuming that some such body is required, the question remains what exactly should be its constitution and functions and what qualifications it should confer.

54. We are unanimous in recommending that any qualifications must be guaranteed as conforming with national standards. We think that they should be State awards and that the appropriate national body for this purpose will be the National Council of Technology proposed in paragraph 35, acting through an Academic Board representing the Colleges of Technology, but containing also independent members. We are, further, agreed that the Board should not act as an external examining body. It should not prescribe syllabuses or set examination papers, but should approve and moderate courses of study leading up to its awards, should suggest standards of staffing and equipment, and should ensure an adequate examination standard by selecting or approving the external examiners to be associated with the academic staff of a College in the conduct of final examinations.

55. We are agreed in thinking that the conferment of these functions on the National Council of Technology will strengthen that body in advising on the development of higher technological education in the coming years. It is extremely difficult to forecast the scale of the need for more highly trained men in industry in future or the new industrial developments which will demand courses of new types. It is important to have elasticity. We may have made far too modest an estimate of the demand in this Report; but if an organisation is set up through which the Technical Colleges can in future realise their ideals and build up their reputation, plans can be adjusted as the need arises. The surest way to raise the whole standard of technical education in this country is to devolve upon the Colleges of Technology, through some organisation such as we are proposing, the responsibility of setting their own standards and making their own plans.

56. We have not, however, been able to reach agreement regarding the title of the technological qualification which will correspond with the University first degree. Some of us feel that its equivalence of standard should be emphasised by a similarity of title, others that a different title is needed in

order to emphasise the difference in content of the courses on which it is awarded. Paragraphs 57 to 61 set out the arguments which have been adduced by those who favour the first alternative; namely, the conferment of a degree, corresponding with a University first degree, which they suggest may appropriately be styled Bachelor of Technology (B.Tech.). Paragraphs 62 to 65 present the views of those who favour a different title.

57. It has been emphasised in paragraphs 41 to 45 that industry and educational institutions training for industry are not getting their fair share of the national ability. If students of the required personal qualities and potential academic achievement leaving the Grammar Schools are to be attracted to Colleges of Technology, thus enabling them to provide industry with its needs, the title of the award they will gain after courses of study equivalent in time and in intellectual demand to University courses should be a degree. The tradition of the degree, whether it is the external degree of the University of London or the degree which is associated with a prescribed period of "residence" at a University, is so deeply implanted in the minds of Grammar School students, their parents, and, it may be added, the school authorities that there is very little hope of a diploma taking its place. Students will continue to seek a title which has national and international estimation and recognition, and which indicates that their technological qualification is equivalent to the award which their fellows studying Medicine, Law, Science, or the Humanities can acquire. It is suggested that these views are well supported by the fact referred to in paragraph 16 (b) that relatively few full-time students have taken the course for Ordinary and Higher National Diplomas. This confirms that this type of award has not proved an attraction in the past.

58. Arising from the transfer of Junior Technical Schools to the secondary school system of the country there is developing a new type of secondary school, the Secondary Technical School, which it is hoped will be equal in status and public estimation to the Grammar Schools. An important contribution to industry's needs should come from students from the Secondary Technical Schools, who proceed to Colleges of Technology. Indeed, this new avenue to higher education is an essential part of the plans necessary for supplying to industry in future a steady flow of recruits of high quality. The success of this important experiment in secondary education will be very seriously handicapped if there is the impression that the ultimate award which students who follow this avenue can obtain is inferior in public estimation to the award which will normally be given to a student proceeding to a University.

59. There is, further, the real danger that the award of a diploma by Colleges of Technology will stamp the Colleges themselves as institutions inferior to Universities and will prevent their establishing a reputation nationally and internationally as institutions of status equivalent to Universities.

60. Many of the industrialists we have met, together with representatives of educational interests and administrators, have emphasised the need for an award which will have a status of general validity, and they have reminded us that the award, whatever its title, should have international currency. They have pointed out that in the years after this war young men trained in technology in this country will proceed abroad to the Dominions and to other parts of the Empire, as well as to foreign countries, and that their qualifications will need to be readily recognisable and assessable. We must also look forward to young men from other countries coming to our own Universities and Colleges of Technology for their training, and they, too, will wish to acquire a qualification which will have national status and international

currency. For these reasons it is felt that no award other than that of a degree would meet this demand.

61. As the award of the B.Tech. would refer to a number of technological studies not at the moment covered by any degree system, it is desirable that the National Council of Technology should be empowered to confer degrees in approved Colleges of Technology.

62. In contrast with these views other members of the Committee hold that to make the technological qualification a degree would obscure its most essential feature, namely, that it connotes a training different from what is given in Universities, though not inferior in status. They argue that our main reason for recommending full-time courses of a kind that (in this country) will be new, is the need of industry for a type of entrant that has not hitherto been available, a man whose technical training has been deeper, though less wide, than that of the University graduate; and that to give to this new product a label indistinguishable from the old would reduce the force and obscure the objective of our most important recommendation. Precisely those reasons which in paragraph 57 have been advanced in favour of a similar qualification, that the tradition of the degree is deeply implanted in the minds of students, who will continue to seek a title which indicates that their technological qualification is equivalent to the award which their fellows studying Medicine, Law, Science, or the Humanities can acquire, in their view indicate that the new qualification, unless its title is made distinctive, will come to be regarded merely as a substitute for University degrees, made available to students who for any reason have failed to gain admission to a University. In that event all students will continue to aspire to Universities, and the new technological courses will come to be regarded as a "second best."

63. Equally with the colleagues from whom they differ, they realise that the new courses will not attract students of high ability unless they culminate in a qualification having national and international estimation and recognition. But they cannot accept the conclusion that no award other than that of a degree would meet this demand, and they do not believe that a label like "B.Tech." (indistinguishable by laymen from the "B.Sc.(Tech.)" which is awarded by certain Universities) is the only means by which the status of the new qualification can be emphasised: in fact, for reasons which have been given, they think that such a label may defeat its purpose. They recognise that "Associateships" and "Diplomas" have in the past connoted widely varying standards, but they believe that a Diploma in Technology (connoting a distinctive type of training) would soon win national and international acceptance, if such a Diploma were awarded under State authority by a national body such as we have unanimously recommended.

64. Industrialists have told us that in engaging a man of the quality we are considering they attach little importance to the title of his qualifications; what matters to them is the training he has had. If so, it should not take them long to appreciate the connotation of the new State Diploma in Technology. It is confidently expected that such a Diploma, the award of which does not conflict with any established academic practice, would have as good a prospect as a B.Tech. of establishing itself on a parity with a University first degree; and would secure equal recognition by industry, by the chief professional Institutions, by local authorities, by Government Departments and the Services, and by Universities as an appropriate starting point for studies leading to a higher degree.

65. On all these grounds a Diploma in preference to a degree is advocated by those members of the Committee who have drawn up the immediately preceding paragraphs.

66. This concludes our discussion of the point on which we differ. We now proceed with recommendations on which both parties are agreed. Whatever be the title of the qualification granted on completion of the new full-time courses in technology, it will connote, as we have stated in paragraph 28, a training comparable with the courses which lead to University first degrees. We are all agreed in thinking that a second and higher qualification will be needed, connoting in technology attainments comparable with those of a University Ph.D.; that is to say, two or three years' post-graduate study, culminating in a piece of original research done under supervision. On the ground that it will (for the time being) correspond with the University Ph.D., we have thought that it might have the title Doctor of Technology (Tech. D.).

67. It may be that in future this higher qualification will come to connote something other than specialised research, for there have been indications lately of a readiness of English to move in the direction of American institutions, such as the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, which have adopted in regard to higher studies a standpoint somewhat different from what is customary in this country. In English Universities, Ph.D.s are usually awarded on a thesis prepared by the candidate: a viva is customary, but the questions put to the candidate relate to the field in which his problem lies. In the United States, although a thesis is usually required, the work for this is not expected to occupy more than half the student's time: the rest he utilises in attendance at post-graduate lectures, meant to avoid the dangers of excessive specialisation. Leaving that problem to be solved if and when the need arises, we think that the Tech.D. should be instituted now, to meet the needs of post-graduate students who may wish to prosecute technological research at one of the selected Colleges.

68. But we have said that we think it essential that systematic teaching in technology should be developed at the post-graduate level, and it should not take long to institute, at the selected Colleges, courses in specialised branches of technology, extending over one or more years after graduation, and not necessarily involving individual research. We do not think it necessary to provide for such studies any award except appropriate certificates.

69. Our Chairman wishes to state separately his views on the matters discussed in this Section (VI). A Note by him is therefore printed at the end of our Report.

VII.—CONCLUDING RECOMMENDATIONS

70. In conclusion, we desire to make the following recommendations on two special points which have been brought to our attention.

71. The chief of these is the question of training in what may be conveniently called Management Studies. We have been impressed by the statement made by several of our witnesses, that the highly trained technician is often ignorant of the principles of industrial organisation and management and that he often shows no inclination to accept administrative responsibility. Admittedly there is much in this field that can be learnt only from experience; but there is a body of knowledge awareness of which may greatly facilitate the process of learning. This body of knowledge should be made available both at the undergraduate and at the post-graduate stage.

72. At the undergraduate stage we do not suggest any elaborate study of such subjects as scientific management, industrial psychology, costing systems, methods of wage payments; but we are convinced that ignorance of the

main findings of these studies is a real handicap to men who would otherwise be highly qualified for administrative work. The practical difficulties are real, and we fully recognise them. The body of knowledge which we have in mind can be taught only by those who have a thorough practical and theoretical grasp of it ; and the present literature of the subject in this country is generally of a poor quality, lacking the intellectual content of a sound mental discipline. But these difficulties cannot justify the almost complete avoidance, in the academic courses of technicians, of subjects the ignorance of which is a severe handicap to them in later business life. It is an extravagant waste of talent to forgo this large potential source of able administrators.

73. Our first recommendation, therefore, is that all students of technology, whether at Universities or Colleges of Technology, should be introduced to these subjects during the final year or two years of their undergraduate course. Probably no more than an introduction can be fitted into the curriculum at this stage ; but the experience of Universities where such introductory courses have already been provided, indicates that they are of very real value. We hope, also, that such courses will be supplemented by instruction given to undergraduates in industry itself during their periods of vacation works training.

74. This, however, will not be enough, and our second recommendation is that at least one institution should be selected as a centre for post-graduate study of industrial administration. It should be the function of this centre to set standards in the teaching of the subject, to systematise it as a mental discipline, to conduct the necessary research, to develop the literature of the subject, and to train teachers of it.

75. In using the word "post-graduate" for the work to be done by this centre, we do not mean to imply that its students will necessarily be recruited direct from men who have just graduated. On the contrary, as indicated in paragraph 11, we expect that its students will often, if not usually, be graduates who have had a substantial period of industrial experience. This, however, will depend on arrangements with industry which will have to be worked out as the centre develops.

76. We add a third recommendation. Management studies should form a part of the courses, not only of Universities and Colleges of Technology, but also of all Technical Colleges teaching for the National Certificates and Diplomas ; and they should also form the subject of short or refresher courses organised jointly by teaching institutions and industry. A number of such courses are now being occasionally held, but their provision should be systematised, and we hope that special attention will be devoted to this subject by the Academic Board of Technology in each region.

77. The other matter to which we desire to draw attention is the special needs of teachers of technological subjects in Universities and Technical Colleges. Such teachers are faced with the special problem of keeping up to date in the industrial technique of their particular subject. The only really satisfactory way of doing this is for the teacher to return to industry for substantial periods. While this is possible under present conditions of teaching service, it is not easy ; and the extent to which the practice is followed is slight.

78. This is a matter which might well be dealt with by the Regional Academic Boards in collaboration with the industries in the region. The National Council of Technology could carry the matter a stage farther by an arrangement of exchanges with teaching institutions abroad. The possibility of teachers obtaining experience in industry abroad should also be considered. All such exchanges are of the utmost value in keeping the teacher fresh and up to date in his subject.

79. Something might also be done for teachers in the way of refresher courses of an academic character. The rate of advancement of knowledge in all branches of science and technology tends to increase; in most institutions teaching programmes are very heavy, and teachers have the greatest difficulty in keeping up to date in the most recent developments of their particular subjects. Universities and Colleges of Technology could be of great assistance to technical teachers in this respect by arranging for refresher courses.

80. One final point is that industry should be prepared to release senior members of staff to give advanced courses of lectures during the day. Some technological subjects are best taught by practising specialists and only by the release of such persons can the most efficient instruction be obtained. The practice is not uncommon on the Continent and we urge that industry should follow this example in spite of the inconveniences which may be involved. We would urge, also, the extension of a practice, already tried, of holding summer schools in industrial works.

81. We are greatly indebted to our Secretary, Mr. A. R. M. Maxwell-Hyslop, for the efficiency with which he has discharged his duties under the heavy pressure of other work; and we should like to record our warm thanks both to him and to our Assistant Secretary, Mr. F. J. Edkins, who has ably seconded him during the greater part of our deliberations.

(Signed) EUSTACE PERCY (*Chairman*).

D. S. ANDERSON.

W. L. BRAGG.

W. H. S. CHANCE.

C. G. DARWIN.

E. V. EVANS.

B. MOUAT JONES.

S. C. LAWS.

H. LOWERY.

H. S. MAGNAY.

GEORGE H. NELSON.

J. F. REES.

R. V. SOUTHWELL.

FITZHERBERT WRIGHT.

July 19th, 1945.

A. R. MAXWELL-HYSLOP (*Secretary*).

F. J. EDKINS (*Assistant Secretary*).

NOTE BY THE CHAIRMAN ON SECTION VI.

1. The Committee, unanimous in all its other recommendations, has been unable to reach agreement on one relatively minor point: the nature of the qualifications to be conferred on "graduating" students of the new Colleges of Technology. This disagreement is important only because, if our other recommendations are accepted, the issue we have left unsettled will be inherited by the proposed National Council of Technology as a troublesome legacy which will disturb their deliberations and delay the energetic action expected from them and from the Regional Advisory Councils and Academic Boards. The issue must, therefore, be settled by a Government decision.

I feel that neither of the conflicting proposals which are set out in Section VI of our Report will offer Government a sufficient basis for such a decision and that it therefore becomes the duty of the Chairman to give the Minister such independent advice as he can.

2. To begin with, I wish to put our disagreement in its proper perspective. It is not a disagreement between the University members of the Committee and other members; it is not a conflict of "interests"; and I hope that the discussion of this point by the public will be equally impartial. The truth is, I think, that the problem of qualifications is insoluble within the limits we have set ourselves in our Report; and, in so far as I have advised my colleagues so to limit themselves, I am responsible for their failure to find an agreed solution. Our Report, as a whole, is an attempt to cure immediate evils and secure immediate action. Our aim has been to lay the foundations for a single national policy of technological education within which Universities, Technical Colleges and the local authorities responsible for technical education may begin at once to work together. We have deliberately refrained from trying to predict the ultimate development of this co-operation, lest such speculations should arouse controversy and delay action. But the issue what qualifications are to be conferred on students of the new Colleges of Technology really raises the larger issue, what is to be the ultimate future of these Colleges. Since that issue has been thus raised, it must be faced and clarified.

3. If higher technological education is to be developed on the scale and with the intensity which we have been convinced are necessary to the well-being of the nation, it is natural to propose that such higher studies, wherever pursued, should lead to a Bachelor's degree. For, obviously, the aim of such a policy must be to ensure that such studies will be pursued only in institutions fully competent to conduct them. But experience shows that such competence, expressed in terms of the power to confer degrees, can be attained only by a deliberate effort with a definite aim.

4. In all civilised countries the power to confer degrees is the distinguishing mark of a University. In this country the power can be exercised only if it is granted by an act of Government, and Government has jealously restricted such grants. Government policy has been based on the principle that a University should be a fully self-governing community of teachers and students, working together in one place, with substantial endowments of its own, mature enough to set its own standards of teaching and strong enough to resist outside pressures, public or private, political or economic.

5. The consistency of this policy has been emphasised, rather than modified, by the single exception made to it in the grant to the University of London of external degree-giving powers, an early experiment in the extension of University education beyond the limits of Oxford and Cambridge, which

Government was careful not to repeat when creating a new University system for the English provinces and for Wales. All experience tends to show that Governments cannot safely entrust any large degree of independent control over educational standards at the University level to a body which is not self-controlled by the direct teaching responsibilities of its members towards the students whose courses they regulate.

6. A Government can have only one University policy at a time. The policy thus consistently followed in the United Kingdom has been inherited by the Dominions and has earned for British University degrees the high reputation which they enjoy both in British territory and abroad. The reputation of United Kingdom degrees would not long survive the suspicion that future grants of University powers in this country were to be governed by a dual standard—one for University Colleges which have to serve a long apprenticeship until they attain the requisite degree of maturity and independence, and another for municipal Colleges which do not claim maturity and do not even aspire to independence.

7. There is no escape from this issue in a proposal to grant University powers, not to the Colleges individually nor to an external examining body, but collectively to a "moderating" body, mainly representative of the Colleges. If the intention is to develop the Colleges into University institutions, there need, perhaps, be no great objection to temporary arrangements, however anomalous, designed to alleviate the hardships of their apprenticeship, as the hardships of University Colleges are alleviated by the anomaly of the external degrees of the University of London. If, on the other hand, it is intended that they shall remain municipal Colleges, with only such autonomy as is compatible with financial control by the representatives of the ratepayers, the privilege of thus exercising collectively University powers which cannot be entrusted to them individually could not be confined to them alone. The same privilege would have to be offered at least to University Colleges and to such institutions as the Royal Colleges of Art and Music and the Architectural Association; and I do not see how it could be logically withheld from institutions of "Further Education" generally. Indeed, the triads of Technical College, College of Art and College of Commerce maintained by some of the larger municipalities might claim to be specially entitled to such a privilege—and the Scottish Central Institutions would have an even stronger claim.

8. This issue is difficult enough, without being complicated by further refinements. I do not share the view of those who feel it necessary to emphasise the essential differences between courses at Universities and Colleges of Technology, or who object to the grant of University powers to "single-faculty" institutions. University institutions primarily devoted to technological studies should, indeed, provide for their students a wide range of such studies and should also provide teaching in the pure sciences and in such "arts" subjects as history, English, modern languages and economics; but it does not follow that they need be qualified to grant a B.A. or a B.Sc. degree. The degree of B.Tech. seems to me to be perfectly appropriate to Colleges of Technology which are otherwise qualified for the grant of University powers. The real question is: whether it is to be the policy of Government that they should become so qualified.

9. I have myself no doubt how this question should be answered. Not every College of Technology will be able to aspire to University status; but it should be the policy of Government to treat them as a group and to develop from among them some major University institutions. Some, situated in University cities, may become the Faculties of Technology of the neighbouring University—a relationship which (save in exceptional cases) might be unhealthy

for both parties if artificially created now, but would be perfectly appropriate when a new College has worked out its standards of technological education, and can therefore enter into equal partnership with a University on the basis of a mutual acceptance of each other's teaching. Others, geographically too remote from the nearest University to make a real union possible, may qualify for independent University powers. Others, again, may content themselves with a status similar to that of the Royal College of Art, whose A.R.C.A. has a commanding reputation in its own field. Subject to the unanimous recommendations of the Committee in paragraph 30 of our Report, this policy need not involve any brusque disturbance of the existing relations between any of the Colleges and their providing local authorities; and I think it important to avoid the disturbance which would result from a premature adoption of the B.Tech. If I may venture a suggestion which involves the Royal permission, I should prefer that, on the analogy of the institutions derived from the Exhibition of 1851, all the Colleges should be given the title of the "Royal Colleges of Technology" and that, for the present, each should be given power, subject to the moderation of the Academic Board of the National Council of Technology, to confer, at the graduating stage, an Associateship of the Royal Colleges of Technology and, at the post-graduate stage, a Fellowship.

10. I believe that the declaration of such a policy would do more than any premature imitation of University degrees to concentrate the attention of those responsible for the management and the technical efficiency of industry on a new experiment in education designed to meet their needs; I believe that the advice which they can give to their apprentices will be more influential than parental preferences in directing a satisfactory flow of students into the Colleges of Technology; and I believe that no policy would be more likely to enlist both their active co-operation and their financial generosity, than one deliberately aimed at the progressive development of a future system of fully self-governing University Institutes of Technology.

E. P.

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LONDON

PUBLISHED BY HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE

To be purchased directly from H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE at the following addresses
York House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2; 13a Castle Street, Edinburgh 2;
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1945

Reprinted 1946

Price 6d. net.

S.O. Code No. 27-269.



SCOTTISH EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

TECHNICAL EDUCATION

AN INTERIM REPORT OF A SPECIAL
COMMITTEE OF THE ADVISORY COUNCIL ON
EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND

*Presented by the Secretary of State for Scotland to Parliament
by Command of His Majesty*

EDINBURGH
HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE: 1945

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PREFATORY NOTE

THE following Interim Report of a Special Committee of the Advisory Council on Technical Education, submitted to the Secretary of State by the Advisory Council on Education in Scotland, is published in order that it may be available to all who are interested. The recommendations in the Report have still to be considered by the Secretary of State, and in the meantime he should not be regarded as in any way committed to accepting them.

J. Mackay Thomson -/.

29th December, 1944.

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NOTE

Under Article 7 of the Education (Scotland) Advisory Council Order, 1942, the Secretary of State may direct the Advisory Council on Education in Scotland to appoint a Special Committee to consider and report upon any remit which he may make to the Advisory Council, and may nominate such persons, whether members of the Advisory Council or not, as he thinks fit to be appointed to the Committee. In the exercise of this power the Secretary of State issued a direction to the Advisory Council to appoint a Special Committee to consider and report upon the following remit :—

“ Having regard to the prospective requirements of Trade and Industry and to the provision made for technical education in the Universities, to enquire into the provision, administration and finance of technical education outwith the Universities, and to make recommendations.”

The Secretary of State nominated the following persons to be appointed to the Special Committee :—

Sir WILLIAM HAMILTON FYFE, LL.D., F.R.S.C., *Chairman of the Council* ;

Lord Provost Sir GARNET WILSON, *Vice-Chairman of the Council* ;

WILFRID AYRE, Esq. ;

E. BRUCE BALL, Junior, Esq. ;

Miss JEAN CUNNINGHAM ;

JOHN DOUGLAS, Esq. ;

J. M. ERSKINE, Esq., D.L. ;

ROBERT HOWIE, Esq. ;

PATRICK McGEE, Esq. ;

R. C. T. MAIR, Esq., O.B.E., M.C. ;

RONALD M. MUNRO, Esq. ;

D. PENMAN, Esq., C.I.E. ;

J. CAMERON SMAIL, Esq., O.B.E., LL.D., F.R.S.E. ;

ALLAN WALTON, Esq.

together with

J. M. CAIE, Esq., C.B., *Deputy Secretary, Department of Agriculture for Scotland*, and

J. FERGUSON, Esq., *His Majesty's Inspector of Schools*, as assessors.

The Special Committee was duly appointed at a meeting of the Advisory Council held on 19th November, 1943, when Dr. Cameron Smail was appointed convener. In accordance with further directions by the Secretary of State Mr. W. G. Hampton was added to the Special Committee at a meeting of the Council held on 4th February, 1944, and on 28th April, 1944, Miss Annette G. Kelly was appointed in place of Miss Jean Cunningham, deceased.

INTERIM REPORT

To the RT. HON. THOMAS JOHNSTON, M.P.,
Secretary of State for Scotland.

SIR,

I. Procedure.

1. In view of the wide scope of the remit the Special Committee have considered it necessary to collect evidence from many quarters and to interview a considerable number of witnesses. They have also found it desirable to visit various industrial and educational establishments and to obtain evidence directly from those in close contact with the problems arising from the daily conduct of industrial operations. Their investigations are not yet complete; they have to obtain further evidence on special problems brought to their notice (including the problem of technical education in the Highlands), and to visit further works and schools of particular interest; and their consideration of the problems of agricultural education has been postponed until the Committee, of which Lord Alness is Chairman, are ready to discuss the position with them. In the meantime, however, they consider it desirable to submit an interim report upon various points arising out of the remit which have become urgent in view of impending legislation.

II. Technical Education.

2. The existing system of technical education in Scotland is the outcome of a gradual development since the beginning of last century from the Andersonian Institute in Glasgow and the School of Arts in Edinburgh, which began with evening classes for artisans and craftsmen and were the pioneers of the type of institution known as Mechanics' Institutes. For many years such institutions provided the only classes outside day schools and Universities. After the passing of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1872, the need to provide for the illiterate and to advance the education of the increasing number of educated pupils, led to the introduction of evening classes, a form of education in which there has since been a great expansion. Day courses were organized in the large technical institutions such as the Royal Technical College, Glasgow, and Robert Gordon's Technical College, Aberdeen, and gradually institutions providing instruction of an advanced type developed in other parts of the country.

3. At present there are three main groups of institution: (i) Central Institutions, (ii) Technical Schools, and (iii) Continuation Classes. Lists of Central Institutions and of Technical Schools are given in the Appendix. Continuation Classes are conducted by all Education Authorities at suitable centres throughout their areas. Owing to historical reasons the line of demarcation between the functions of these groups is by no means clear; they have grown up as the outcome of advances in educational thought and policy, of the requirements of industry, and of geographical conditions.

4. The scattered population in certain parts of Scotland and the wide distribution of industrial establishments provide problems in technical education which cannot be completely solved by local institutions. Co-operative action is necessary, and the educational organization now in operation appears, subject to necessary extensions and variations, to offer a reasonable basis for development. Central Institutions must be urged to plan on broader lines for more advanced work, and to leave preliminary and general work to local colleges. There are nascent and growing industries which may be of great importance to

the national welfare—new developments in such matters as textiles, plastics, aviation, water power and building all calling for technical education and research ; and it may not be possible for the Education Authority to provide the necessary educational facilities on an adequate scale. The survey of problems of this nature is a matter of great and pressing national importance, and there is no existing machinery for the proper investigation of such problems. Much that has been done in the development of technical education beyond the bounds of Scotland has received scanty attention at home, and there has been no systematic dissemination of information which might be of value in advancing this form of education. Even where advances have been recognized and their application to Scottish conditions considered, financial limitations have provided very serious barriers to development.

5. Governing bodies of Central Institutions should be representative of the industrial and educational functions of the Institution. The Special Committee do not consider that uniformity of constitution is necessary or desirable, but they think that adequate representation should be given to industry, commerce and special activities, as well as to the Education Authorities directly interested in the work of the Institution. Other interests such as Universities, scientific societies, employers' and employees' organizations should also be represented. The Special Committee regard satisfactorily balanced governing bodies as of vital importance for the full expansion of effort.

6. It has been represented to the Special Committee that Scotland is seriously deficient in technical education and has much leeway to make up. In considering this problem it is evident that growth and opportunities have been very irregularly distributed. In some places the long-established Central Institution has provided for developments on new lines ; in other places there has been reliance on the provision made elsewhere and students have had to travel outwith their home area. Some places have not made provision for technical training beyond the evening continuation classes conducted in day school premises. Even in the more advanced areas development has been erratic, and there has been an absence of systematic planning and provision for the requirements of modern life. Advancement has come by benefactions and the interest of generous donors, by the pressure of industry and commerce, by the enlightened outlook of individuals—employers or employees—and by suggestions and advice from the Scottish Education Department. But these advances have been unequal, and in many places no advantage has been taken of the grants which have been available for education of this type.

7. Financial considerations, as well as the want of an advanced outlook and recognition of what was happening elsewhere, have no doubt been responsible for inaction. The grants from central government sources have covered only part of the cost, and local contributions have been necessary. These might come from endowments, private donors, Education Authorities, industry, or the fees of students. Where the burden would fall on Education Authorities there was sometimes reluctance to provide for activities which were not a statutory duty.

8. If adequate opportunities are to be afforded in Scotland in the post-war period it is abundantly clear that a vastly increased effort will be necessary. The Special Committee recognize that while the work of technical education has been developed with considerable success in many directions, and has produced a large number of eminent men, many of whom have gone furth of Scotland, it has not been sufficiently widespread, and has failed to touch many branches of national life and industry. A technical school play~~ing~~ an

important part in the life of the industrial and commercial community is notable by its absence in many towns in Scotland, and the situation urgently calls for consideration in the interests not only of young people but also of the whole nation. Much attention has been paid to training in the higher reaches of education, but the artisan and the craftsman have not been offered corresponding opportunities. It is true to say that the literary and academic traditions of Scotland have tended to obscure the needs of a great section of the community.

III. Institutions for Technical Education.

9. The Special Committee envisage for the future a system which will not only provide for immediate needs but will be capable of expansion and growth on a national basis. They recommend that technical education for those who have left school should be organized as follows :—

(1) Central Institutions, serving a region or in some cases the whole of Scotland, should provide day and evening courses of an advanced type :

(2) Technical Colleges, serving local requirements, should provide day and evening courses of a less advanced type than those provided in the Central Institutions :

(3) Colleges for Compulsory Further Education for young persons should include technical education in their curriculum :

(4) Voluntary day and evening classes should be organized in places where the establishment of Technical Colleges is impracticable as part of the scheme of further education for the area, and these should include courses in technical subjects.

10. While the institutions, colleges and classes referred to in the preceding paragraph will usually be housed in separate buildings, for geographical and other considerations one or more of them may be organized in one building. For example, the Special Committee contemplate that in a town with a population of, say, 20,000 one building might house a Technical College, a College for Compulsory Further Education and voluntary day and evening classes ; it would thus become a focus of activity, with all the advantages of close co-operation and economy in staffing and equipment. The Committee, however, strongly deprecate the holding of classes in primary and secondary school premises, although they realize that in outlying places the use of such premises may provide the only solution if activities of any kind are to be developed.

11. Under this scheme Central Institutions should devolve their more elementary work on the local Technical Colleges and should concentrate on advanced work, specializing where necessary in particular fields of activity. They would thus be freed from an encumbering mass of elementary work which inevitably hampers higher development and prevents staffing organization for research and higher instruction. The activities of each Central Institution should be surveyed and their functions defined ; the activities of the Central Institutions and local Technical Colleges should be properly co-ordinated in order that adequate provision may be made for national and regional needs, both old and new.

12. The national requirements may be met in some cases by one institution providing a focus for a particular type of training, as, for example, the Scottish Woollen Technical College in Galashiels, and the Royal Scottish Academy of Music in Glasgow. In other instances, two or more Central Institutions may

be needed, as, for example, in mining at Glasgow and Edinburgh, and in art at Glasgow, Edinburgh, Dundee and Aberdeen. The larger Central Institutions should continue to have a variety of departments, and to differ from each other by reason of their regional organization.

IV. National and Regional Advisory Councils.

13. The Special Committee have been seriously impressed with the urgent need for national planning for technical education. They recognize that much admirable work has been done in certain places for particular industries, and that such efforts have been fruitful in stimulating action elsewhere. Such work, however, has generally been of local significance and similar or parallel developments have not necessarily followed elsewhere. As a result, the provision is unequal and irregular; some students have admirable facilities within easy reach, others have none. Institutions have generally co-operated to avoid unnecessary duplication of effort, but it is the absence of facilities rather than the duplication of provision that calls for criticism. The outlook of Education Authorities is necessarily conditioned by many factors, financial and other, and where a power is given by Statute, but a duty is not imposed, there may be a disinclination to proceed beyond immediate and pressing requirements.

14. The Education Act, 1944, imposes a duty on local education authorities in England and Wales to "secure the provision for their area of adequate facilities for further education" i.e. "for full-time and part-time education for persons over compulsory school age" and "for leisure-time occupation, in such organized cultural training and recreative activities as are suited to their requirements, for any persons over compulsory school age who are able and willing to profit by the facilities provided for that purpose." When called upon by the Minister of Education to do so, every authority must prepare and submit schemes of further education for their area, and in preparing such schemes must have regard to any facilities for further education provided for their area by Universities, educational associations and other bodies, and must consult any such bodies and the local education authorities for adjacent areas. The schemes, as approved by the Minister, may include provision for co-operation with such bodies and authorities.

15. The Special Committee assume that the forthcoming Education Bill for Scotland will contain similar provisions. They are strongly of opinion that such an enactment would immediately point to the need for adequate machinery for co-ordination on a regional basis and, taking a wider view, on a national basis. The formation of Regional Advisory Councils in Scotland was proceeding on a voluntary basis before the outbreak of war, but their progress was arrested. In view of the wider developments and increased activity, which the Special Committee assume will be as great in Scotland as in England, and also of the institution of Colleges for Compulsory Further Education, the Special Committee recommend that a National Advisory Council for Technical Education and four Regional Advisory Councils should be constituted. A fifth Regional Council for the Highland area may also be necessary. To give these bodies the status that will be necessary if they are to be successful the Special Committee recommend that specific power should be conferred upon the Secretary of State in the forthcoming Education Act to establish these Councils.

16. The National Advisory Council should be a small permanent body and should include representatives of Central Institutions, Education Authorities,

industry and commerce. Its duties should include the survey of national requirements in technical education and research, the co-ordination of the activities of the Regional Advisory Councils, and the making of recommendations to the Secretary of State as to the constitution of the governing bodies of the Central Institutions, and as to the financial requirements of the Central Institutions for the provision of buildings and equipment and for maintenance. It is the view of the Special Committee that the necessary impetus for development can most effectively be imparted through the work of a National Advisory Council. The Council will be able to survey the national position and requirements, and being representative in character to make recommendations to the Secretary of State designed to secure progress and prevent overlapping of effort and wasteful expenditure.

17. The Regional Advisory Councils should be constituted for regions based upon Aberdeen, Dundee, Edinburgh and Glasgow, and, if so decided, for the Highlands, and should include representatives of the Education Authorities, the Central Institutions, the Provincial Committee for the Training of Teachers and of industry and commerce. The Councils should survey the requirements of their regions in technical education and should assist the National Advisory Council in their work. They should advise the Governors of Central Institutions and the Education Authorities as to what forms of technical education are required and upon the distribution of work between the Central Institution and the Education Authority. They should in appropriate circumstances make recommendations to Education Authorities for combination and co-operation in the provision of particular forms of technical education.

18. The functions of the National and the Regional Advisory Councils will necessarily be wide, and will call for systematic and sustained effort. The services of a full-time organizer and secretary with the necessary clerical assistance will be required by each Regional Council. Great advantages will result from this expenditure, since systematic planning will provide effective co-ordination and adjustment of arrangements to the mutual advantage of all concerned.

V. Finance.

19. Under section 16(1)(c) of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1908, grants may be made to Central Institutions in respect of either capital or maintenance expenditure of such sums as the Secretary of State may determine. As regards capital grants, after the proposals of the Governors of the Institution have been approved, the Department intimate the amount of the grant which the Secretary of State is prepared to give, having regard to the total expenditure involved, and the grant is paid by instalments as the work proceeds. The amount of maintenance grant is calculated in accordance with the provisions of the Central Institutions (Scotland) Grant Regulations, 1923, as amended by the Central Institutions (Scotland) Grant Regulations (Amendment) Minute, 1943. Briefly stated, the regulations permit of a prescribed proportion of the maintenance expenditure as approved by the Department being met by grant. We have received representations from practically all the Central Institutions that the present system of grant is unsatisfactory and calls for review and adjustment; the financial details submitted by them bear out their contention. Central Institutions have been in large measure dependent on generous donors. Local aid has been irregular and very inadequate, so that developments have in many cases been made possible only by systematic begging, a method which is not only inefficient but is far from being dignified or worthy of a great national

service. In consequence, a number of Central Institutions have considerable indebtedness and are sorely hampered in providing adequate buildings and equipment, while desirable and necessary extensions of effort, which would be of great service to the community, have to be postponed. It appears to the Special Committee that these difficulties will persist so long as the present system of finance remains unaltered, and they therefore recommend that more ample and generous financial aid be given from the Education (Scotland) Fund, which will, it is anticipated, be augmented by reason of the development of technical education in England and Wales.

20. The Special Committee recommend that the National Advisory Council should from time to time visit each Central Institution and should discuss with the Governors and with representatives of the Regional Advisory Council the work and finances of the Institution and the desirability and cost of suggested developments and extensions. The National Advisory Council should make recommendations to the Secretary of State with regard to the capital expenditure—whether for buildings, new machinery or other equipment, or for other purposes—which the Council consider necessary, and the Secretary of State should make substantial capital grants towards this expenditure. The Special Committee make no recommendation as to the proportion of the capital expenditure which should be met by grant. That should be determined according to the circumstances of each case. But the Special Committee regard it as essential that necessary developments should not be retarded by requiring the Governors to raise large sums of money from local sources, a task which may often present insuperable difficulties. The Governors should be empowered to borrow, and the interest and sinking fund charges should rank as approved expenditure for the purposes of maintenance grant. As regards expenditure upon maintenance, the Special Committee recommend that the National Advisory Council should advise the Secretary of State as to the amount of the grant which they consider necessary to enable the Governors to carry on the Institution with full efficiency and reasonable economy. After considering their advice and obtaining all the information he requires, the Secretary of State should fix the amount of the maintenance grant which should continue to be payable until such time as the National Advisory Council make a further recommendation.

21. The cost of establishing and maintaining local Technical Colleges will obviously be heavy, and will be greater than the expenditure which has hitherto been made upon continuation classes. To secure the adequate staffing of the Colleges and the proper maintenance of equipment and laboratories, the Special Committee recommend that the expenditure upon this service should rank for a percentage grant of such an amount as will induce Education Authorities to develop this form of technical education to a satisfactory level. The Special Committee consider that existing financial methods will prove adequate where day and evening classes are organized apart from local Technical Colleges.

VI. Summary of Recommendations.

22. (1) Technical education for those who have left school should be organized as follows:—

(a) Central Institutions serving a region or the whole country should provide day and evening courses of an advanced type:

(b) Technical Colleges serving local requirements should provide day and evening courses of a less-advanced type:

(c) Colleges for Compulsory Further Education for young persons should include technical education in their curriculum :

(d) Where the establishment of Technical Colleges is impracticable voluntary day and evening classes should include courses in technical subjects. (Paragraph 9.)

(2) More than one type of institution may sometimes be housed in one building, but day school premises should be used only as a last resort. (Paragraph 10.)

(3) The functions of Central Institutions should be clearly defined, and their activities properly co-ordinated with those of the local Technical Colleges, upon which the more elementary work of the Central Institutions should be devolved. (Paragraph 11.)

(4) National planning of technical education is urgently necessary. (Paragraph 13.)

(5) A National Advisory Council for Technical Education and four (or five) Regional Advisory Councils should be constituted: specific statutory authority to establish these councils should be conferred upon the Secretary of State. (Paragraph 15.)

(6) The National Advisory Council should be a small representative body. Its functions should include :—

(a) Survey of national requirements in technical education and research ;

(b) Co-ordination of the work of the Regional Advisory Councils ;

(c) Recommendations to the Secretary of State as to the constitution of the governing bodies of Central Institutions ;

(d) Recommendations to the Secretary of State as to the financial requirements of Central Institutions for buildings, equipment and maintenance. (Paragraph 16.)

(7) The Regional Advisory Councils should be constituted for regions based upon Aberdeen, Dundee, Edinburgh and Glasgow (and possibly for the Highlands). They should assist the National Advisory Council, should advise the Governors of Central Institutions and Education Authorities as to the forms of technical education required and the distribution of the work, and should make recommendations to the Education Authorities for combination and co-operation in the provision of technical education. (Paragraph 17.)

(8) The Regional Councils should each be provided with a full-time organizer and secretary with the necessary clerical staff. (Paragraph 18.)

(9) More ample and generous financial aid should be given to Central Institutions from the Education (Scotland) Fund. (Paragraph 19.)

(10) After visiting a Central Institution the National Advisory Council should advise the Secretary of State on proposed developments and extensions involving capital expenditure and should recommend what capital grants should be made having regard to the circumstances of each case. Necessary developments should not be retarded by requiring the Governors to raise large sums from local sources. Where borrowing is authorized the interest and sinking fund charges should rank as approved expenditure for the purposes of maintenance grant. (Paragraph 20.)

(11) Maintenance grants to Central Institutions should also be paid on the advice of the National Advisory Council, who should indicate the amount they consider necessary to enable the Governors to carry on the Institution with full efficiency and reasonable economy. Maintenance grants of the amount fixed should continue to be paid until the National Advisory Council make a further recommendation. (Paragraph 20.)

(12) The expenditure of Education Authorities upon local Technical Colleges should rank for a percentage grant. (Paragraph 21.)

We have the honour to be, SIR,

Your obedient Servants,

(Signed) J. CAMERON SMAIL,
Convener
 W. HAMILTON FYFE
 GARNET WILSON
 WILFRID AYRE
 E. BRUCE BALL
 JOHN DOUGLAS
 J. M. ERSKINE

W. G. HAMPTON
 ROBERT HOWIE
 ANNETTE G. KELLY
 PATRICK MCGEE
 R. C. T. MAIR
 RONALD M. MUNRO
 DAVID PENMAN
 ALLAN WALTON

T. GRAINGER STEWART, *Secretary*
 ARCHD. DAVIDSON, *Assistant Secretary*

ST. ANDREW'S HOUSE, EDINBURGH, 1.

17th October, 1944.

APPENDIX

1. Central Institutions.

Robert Gordon's Technical College, Aberdeen.	Glasgow School of Art.
Dundee Institute of Art and Technology.	Glasgow Veterinary College.
Edinburgh and East of Scotland College of Agriculture.	Leith Nautical College.
Edinburgh College of Art.	The North of Scotland College of Agriculture, Aberdeen.
Edinburgh College of Domestic Science.	The Royal Technical College, Glasgow.
Heriot-Watt College, Edinburgh.	The Royal Scottish Academy of Music, Glasgow.
Royal (Dick) Veterinary College, Edinburgh.	The Scottish Woollen Technical College, Galashiels.
Glasgow and West of Scotland College of Domestic Science.	The West of Scotland Agricultural College, Glasgow.
Glasgow and West of Scotland Commercial College.	

2. Technical Schools.

(Technical Schools are conducted under the Code of Regulations for Continuation Classes in Scotland, 1936.)

A. Housed in Own Premises.

ABERDEEN BURGH.

Aberdeen Junior Nautical School.

EDINBURGH.

Leith Technical College.
W. M. Ramsay Technical Institute.

GLASGOW.

Decorative Trades Institute.
Stow School of Building.
Stow School of Engineering.
Stow School of Hairdressing.
Stow School of Printing.
Glasgow School of Nautical Cookery.

DUNBARTON.

Dumbarton Trades Centre.

FIFE.

Buckhaven Mining and Technical School.
Lauder Technical School, Dunfermline.
Fife Mining School, Cowdenbeath.

LANARK.

The Technical and Commercial College, Coatbridge.

RENFREW.

Watt Memorial School, Greenock.
Paisley Technical College and School of Art.

ROXBURGH.

Henderson Technical School, Hawick.

STIRLING.

The County Technical Institute for Mining, Falkirk.

B. Housed in Day School Premises.

EDINBURGH.

Bellevue Technical and Commercial School.

AYR.

Kilmarnock Technical School.

DUNBARTON.

Clydebank Technical School.

FIFE.

Kirkcaldy Technical School.

INVERNESS.

Inverness Technical High School.

LANARK.

Dalziel Technical School.
Hamilton Academy and Technical School.

RENFREW.

Greenock Technical School.

SELKIRK.

Galashiels Technical and Commercial School.

STIRLING.

Falkirk Technical School.

EDINBURGH

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1945

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Printed under the authority of HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE
by J. & J. Gray, Annandale Street, Edinburgh

(1319) Wt. 1498/816 3/45 J. & J. G. G. 170.
Wt. 112/353 5/45