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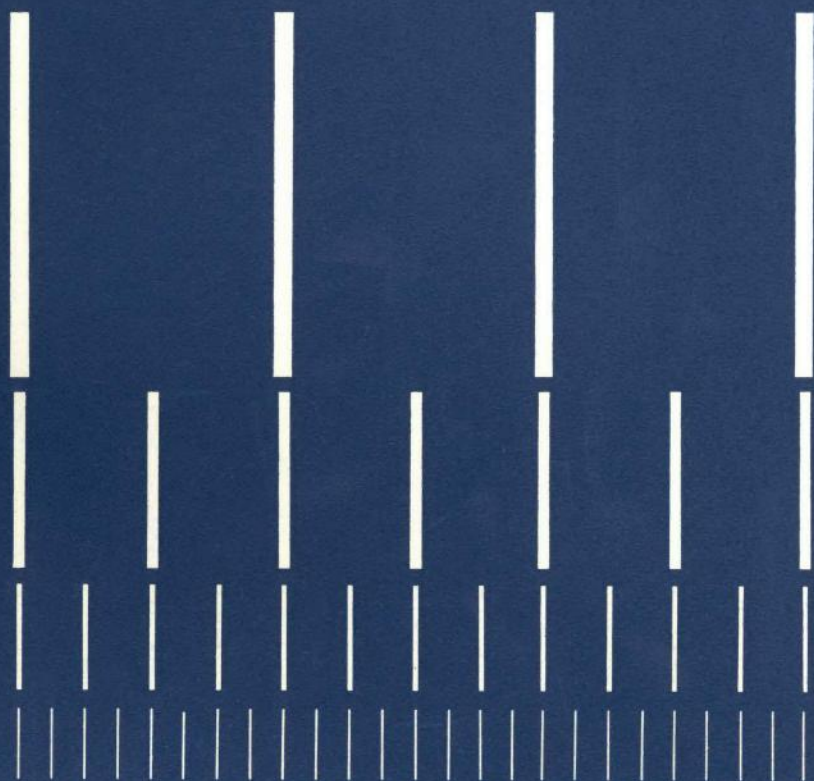


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Educational planning and human resource development

F. Harbison



Unesco: International Institute for
Educational Planning

Fundamentals of educational planning—3

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Fundamentals of educational planning

The booklets in this series are written primarily for two groups: those engaged in—or preparing for—educational planning and administration, especially in developing countries; and others, less specialized, such as senior government officials and civic leaders, who seek a more general understanding of educational planning and of how it can be of help to over-all national development. They are devised to be of use either for self study or in formal training programmes.

The modern conception of educational planning has attracted specialists from many disciplines. Each of them tends to see planning rather differently. The purpose of some of the booklets is to help these people explain their particular points of view to one another and to the younger men and women who are being trained to replace them some day. But behind this diversity there is a new and growing unity. Specialists and administrators in developing countries are coming to accept certain basic principles and practices that owe something to the separate disciplines but are yet a unique contribution to knowledge by a body of pioneers who have had to attack together educational problems more urgent and difficult than any the world had ever known. So other booklets in the series represent this common experience, and provide in short compass some of the best available ideas and experience concerning selected aspects of educational planning.

Since readers will vary so widely in their backgrounds, the authors have been given the difficult task of introducing their subjects from the beginning, explaining technical terms that may be commonplace to some but a mystery to others, and yet adhering to scholarly standards and never writing down to their readers, who, except in some particular speciality, are in no sense unsophisticated. This approach has the ad-

vantage that it makes the booklets readily intelligible to the general reader.

Although the series, under the general editorship of C. E. Beeby, has been planned on a definite pattern, no attempt has been made to avoid differences, or even contradictions, in the views expressed by the authors. It would be premature, in the Institute's view, to lay down a neat and tidy official doctrine in this new and rapidly evolving field of knowledge and practice. Thus, while the views are the responsibility of the authors, and may not always be shared by Unesco or the Institute, they are believed to warrant attention in the international market-place of ideas. In short, this seems the appropriate moment to make visible a cross-section of the opinions of authorities whose combined experience covers many disciplines and a high proportion of the countries of the world.

Foreword

These two essays on human resource development are written by one of the world's leading authorities on the subject. Frederick Harbison is professor of economics at Princeton University, a nationally known labour economist, and a member of the IIEP's Council of Consultant Fellows. He has had exceptionally wide experience in human resource development in emergent countries. He has served as a consultant to Unesco, ILO, OECD, AID, the World Bank, and the Pan-American Union, besides assisting in manpower and education surveys in several African and South American countries. He is chairman of the Committee on Education Planning and Human Resource Development of Education and World Affairs in New York.

Mr. Harbison does not write from the point of view of any special discipline. He has learnt to see the manpower and educational problems of developing countries in the round, and part of what he has to say may be as novel to some of his fellow economists as it will be to the many educationists, administrators and politicians to whom the planning of human resource development has always been something of a mystery. He manages to clear the subject of its mystery without robbing it of any of its interest.

C. E. BEEBY
Center for Studies in Educations and
Development, Harvard University

Priorities and choices
in human resource development

Planning and strategy building

When we consider the various kinds of educational planning which are in use today, we can distinguish three main types.

The first is planning with adequate facts, backed by rather voluminous statistics. This type is certainly the most desirable, but it is the one least likely to be carried into effect simply because, in practice, the necessary facts and statistical data are seldom available.

The second type of planning can perhaps best be defined by the title of a book written by Wolfgang Stolper, who spent two years drawing up the development plan for the Federation of Nigeria. His book is to be called *Planning Without Facts*, a very realistic title, because it corresponds to a very realistic type of planning. In many cases, it is simply impossible to ascertain all the facts ideally necessary for perfect planning.

At the meeting of the Inter-American Regional Project in Mexico City in October 1963, Pitamber Pant of India defined the third type as planning without purpose or planning for the sake of planning. Unfortunately, there is a good deal of such planning going on today, particularly the kind which makes use of the more questionable techniques of highly theoretical mathematical models and in which the basic objectives get lost in a display of methodological fireworks.

But whatever planning is used, whether it be with or without facts, the importance of strategy building is fundamental to the process. In the context of educational planning, this involves, first, the setting of targets. This means not projections and most emphatically not forecasts, but the imparting of directions which are to govern subsequent actions.

The targets can, certainly, be modified from time to time in accordance with experience gained in the course of the planning process.

Reaching the targets implies a plan, a programme for action based upon a choice of priorities. Priorities are then the second vital element in strategy building. No country can have all the education which it thinks necessary or desirable. Rather, any country must promote or emphasize programmes which have high priority and discard or tone down programmes which have low priority.

Strategy building thus involves the making of assumptions, which may only sometimes be correct and which often must be based on intuitive judgements. It involves, above all, the making of choices, sometimes very difficult choices, and planners, particularly educational planners, often fail to realize that the choice of one objective implies the rejection of others. If you choose to put your resources into one area, you thereby choose not to put them in other areas.

As far as educational development is concerned, six such critical areas of choice will be outlined here, without indication, however, of what the actual choice should be, as this depends largely on real conditions in any country.

The choice between the levels of education

The first choice is between the levels of education. What emphasis should be made on primary, secondary, and higher education when making investments in education? You can give top priority to universal primary education, but only at the expense of secondary and higher education. Or top priority can be given to secondary education, second priority to primary education, and third priority to higher education, but you cannot give top priority simultaneously to primary, secondary, and higher education. No strategy of educational planning is complete until this choice has been made.

The choice between quality and numbers

The second and even more fundamental choice is that between quality and numbers. Which is to be emphasized? In the field of primary education, for instance, do you aim at compulsory universal schooling, with few textbooks, poor teaching methods, and teachers who will necessarily have very low qualifications? Or do you want well-qualified teachers, better textbooks and better teaching methods? If you choose the second

alternative, economic necessities may force you to sacrifice numbers in order to achieve quality, that is, to sacrifice the ideal of universal primary education.

There is a difference between schooling and education, and the choice between quality and numbers arises throughout the whole educational system. Latin American universities, for instance, with some notable exceptions, have part-time professors, part-time students, and poorly equipped laboratories and libraries, because not enough money is spent on teachers and equipment. These universities provide inexpensive education, mass education, which may, at this stage of its development, be the right kind for Latin America, but there is also another kind of education, which emphasizes excellence and high standards, full-time teachers and students, well equipped laboratories and well appointed libraries. The question is, what kind of balance do you strike between these two types of higher education, since you cannot have both numbers and quality? The clamour for higher education has become so great and so general that, politically, it has become almost imperative to sacrifice quality to numbers. In one developing country, for example, there are 100,000 full-time university students, a higher proportion of the population than in the Federal Republic of Germany or in the United Kingdom! This is a typical case of overemphasis on cheap mass education, at least in certain areas of higher education.

Science and technology v. the liberal arts

The third choice, more particularly in the field of higher education, concerns the balance between science and technology, on one hand, and the liberal arts, on the other. What proportion of your students should attend science and engineering faculties, and what proportion should study the arts, humanities and law? This is not a question of the intrinsic value of these subjects, but rather one of the practical needs of the country. If you decide to increase the number of science and engineering students, you are immediately faced with a thorny financial—and political—problem. Education in science and engineering costs roughly four times more per student than education in the arts, humanities and law. Financial necessities may therefore compel you to balance any expansion in science and engineering studies by a fourfold contraction of liberal arts studies. It is easy to imagine the tremendous political and social pressures against such a move, particularly in the countries of Latin America.

In fact, the choice between science and technology and the liberal arts becomes to some extent a choice between quality and numbers. By and large, the lowest quality education is in law, humanities and the arts, because they lend themselves to the use of large classes and the employment of 'taxi' teachers. Science and engineering, however, require much higher standards of teaching, more expensive facilities, and many more full-time teachers. In the non-communist world, about 25 per cent of the student body is enrolled at science and engineering faculties, and in communist countries, the proportion varies between 45 and 50 per cent. Of all the continents, Latin America has the lowest proportion of students in science and engineering—somewhere around 15 per cent. The educational planner must keep such figures in mind when deciding on the proper balance between scientific and non-scientific education.

Formal education v. non-formal training

The fourth area of choice lies in the relative emphasis upon formal education, that is, education before employment, and training by employing institutions, or on-the-job training. This problem becomes particularly acute at the craftsman level. It has been amply demonstrated that pre-employment training of craftsmen in secondary vocational schools is a poor investment in most countries. It is far more advantageous to provide potential craftsmen with general secondary education and then develop their skills on the job. In other words, formal pre-employment education should aim at forming trainable people, while the task of developing specific skills should be the responsibility of employers, both public and private.

In some Latin American countries, an interesting arrangement has been worked out. Colombia, for instance, has a system of training related to employment in industry which is financed by a payroll tax on all employers who employ ten people or more. The funds thus provided support a training organization called SENA, completely independent of the ministry of education, which trains those who are employed or are about to be employed in the various industries. Similar arrangements exist in Venezuela and Brazil.

Shifting the job of training onto the shoulders of the employers makes more funds available for formal general education. However, the choice between pre-employment vocational education and training on the job is always a difficult one, and the balance between the two is struck differently in different countries.

The choice of incentives

The fifth area of choice, which is of great importance to the general planner as well as to the educational planner, is that of incentives. To get people into certain occupations, do you rely on the free play of the market or do you provide incentives and manipulate them constantly, as the situation demands, so as to create differential salary scales and raise the financial rewards and status of particular types of jobs? This is a vital and very difficult problem in many countries. In Iran, for example, the proportion of doctors to nurses is 10 to 1, where it should be about 1 to 10. The reason for this is that the salary and status of nurses are so low that nobody wants to enter the nursing profession. Similar considerations apply to technicians, engineering assistants and agricultural assistants in many countries. As a result, it is often more important for the educational system to produce nurses rather than doctors, or engineering and agricultural assistants rather than graduate engineers and agronomists.

Confronted with a situation of this kind you can leave the differentials in pay and status as they are, or you can work out a new system of remuneration which rewards the technician willing to dirty his hands in the factory as much as the graduate engineer who refuses to budge from his office, and the medical technician who goes into the bush to treat people with antibiotics and promote measures of public health as much as the doctor who refuses to move out of the urban centre. These are difficult choices to make, but unless they are made thoughtfully, great amounts of money will be wasted. The study of incentives is an integral and indispensable part of educational planning, and a planner who ignores the incentives structure of his society is like an ostrich hiding his head in the sand.

The purpose of education

The sixth and last area of choice is concerned with the very purpose of education. Should education aim at satisfying the needs, desires and hopes of individuals, or should it be directed towards meeting the needs of the state?

Countries professing the so-called liberal philosophy would naturally favour the first alternative, and those professing the communist philosophy would choose the second, but the problem is not nearly so simple in the new, developing countries.

In Malawi, formerly Nyasaland, there is no need for a high-level manpower survey. It is possible to know everyone in this category by his first name, because in 1965, there were only forty-five of them. Every year Malawi can send about twenty-five or thirty students to foreign universities, but there are some 720 government jobs open for university graduates and thirty jobs open to Malawi citizens in international agencies of the United Nations family. It is possible, therefore, for a Malawi citizen to be educated abroad at public expense and spend the rest of his life working for international agencies. In fact, it is possible for at least thirty Malawi citizens to take this course. Now, are you going to allow complete freedom of choice to such students sent abroad at public expense, on the theory that anything that is good for the individual is good for the country, or are you going to take steps in order to remedy such a critical situation?

Admittedly, the case of Malawi is extreme but similar situations, though less accentuated, arise in other countries. We know, for example, that there is a net export of doctors, scientists and engineers from the Latin American continent to the highly developed countries. Given the urgent needs of Latin America for high-level manpower, is this freedom of choice a good thing? This is a question which every country and every planner must answer individually, but it is not a question that can be avoided.

The essence of strategy building is thus the making of choices in the six critical problem areas described above, and it is difficult to make these choices so wisely as to strike the proper balance between priorities and so promote the social and political, as well as the economic, goals of the country.

Let us now consider, on the basis of what has been said above, the manpower needs of an imaginary country and the ways and means by which these needs can be met.

Meeting the needs and demand for education: a model

It is convenient to take an imaginary country as a model, you since can express yourself freely without insulting any particular country and still reveal a few truths of practical relevance to a number of countries.

The priorities of manpower needs

It is assumed that a manpower assessment, quantitative or qualitative, has been made for that country and as a result an order of priorities determined for increasing certain categories of manpower to meet social, political and economic goals.

The first priority seems to be an increase in the number of technicians and sub-professional personnel. Industrial development calls for engineering assistants and senior foremen. Land reform, which is to be carried out, requires a large number of agricultural technicians, not agronomists, to carry the ideas to the farmer. The state of the hospitals and health services makes it imperative to have many more nurses and medical technicians. This is then the category of manpower most urgently needed and requiring the greatest proportional increase.

The second priority in this particular country is an increase in the number of teachers at all levels, but especially teachers of science and engineering in universities. There is also a critical shortage of mathematics and science teachers in secondary schools.

The third priority must be given to graduate engineers and scientists. The progress of industry requires an expansion in research and development facilities, and agriculture, if it is to be developed according to plans, needs more agronomists, soil scientists and agricultural engineers. There is also a need for the 'soft-headed' scientists, the economists and sociologists, because the country in question has a planning organization and must deal with the economic and social problems of development.

The fourth priority is the provision of managerial and executive personnel. All countries need more personnel at this level, and though managers and executives are not necessarily trained in universities as such, they can be drawn from other professional sectors. It is assumed therefore that a certain proportion of graduate engineers, lawyers, and the like will eventually become managers, mostly by training on the job in private enterprises or in government services.

The fifth priority relates to clerical and secretarial personnel, of which there is a shortage in this particular country, though not a very great one.

The sixth priority must be given to craftsmen. Here the shortage is very great, but it is recognized that the consequently great needs can best be met by training on the job, rather than the creation of specialized pre-employment vocational training centres.

Near the end of the list are medical practitioners, seventh in our order of priority. Perhaps more doctors are needed, but the more severe problem is that the doctors at present available cannot be utilized to best advantage without a substantial increase in the number of sub-professional personnel, nurses and medical technicians. Moreover, in this particular country, the number of doctors is very high compared to other professions, because doctors enjoy high earnings and status.

Last on the list are the lawyers, those much maligned men, who find it difficult to get jobs in this country and are literally a drug on the market, though their country may need legal men of higher capacity and more unusual merit.

These, then, are the main findings of the manpower survey, which must now be translated into educational terms.

The educational priorities

In this instance, the educational planner will give highest priority to secondary general education on a free basis, because there are relatively few places in existing secondary schools, and their high fees constitute a financial and social bottle-neck, a barrier to general higher education.

The second priority will be given naturally to sub-professional and technical education, and the third to teacher training, also at the sub-professional level. The fourth priority will be given to the expansion of higher studies in science and engineering, to raise the proportion of students in these two fields from 15 per cent (the figure for the imaginary country) to 20 or even 25 per cent.

Fifth in the order of priority will be general adult education or basic education, because the population is largely illiterate, and some kind of adult education is indispensable for successfully carrying out land reform and bringing the mass of the people into the twentieth century. Primary education is next, followed by higher medical education and, finally, pre-employment vocational schools.

The manpower survey of this country has stressed the importance of non-formal education, out-of-school training, and training on the job. This includes part-time courses for those preparing for, or now in, managerial and executive jobs, training of craftsmen, perhaps along the lines followed by the SENA organization in Colombia, and in connexion with land reform, massive programmes of farmer training by agricultural extension services. Moreover, because of the rapid pace of technological development, old skills become obsolete, and there is need for a

continuous re-training programme. As John Gardner wrote recently, there should be 'provision made so that individuals have the capacity for continual self-renewal as they perform and grow on their jobs'.

By means of a table which we shall call an analytical sweat-box, we will now consider the needs, the demand and supply with regard to the various categories of manpower discussed above.

Occupation	Need	Demand	Supply facilities	Reasons
Technicians and sub-professional people	Very large	Very small	Very small	Low status and pay; few opportunities for advancement
Teachers	Very large	Small	Small	Low status and salary
Scientists and engineers	Large	Large	Very small	High status and pay, but high education costs
Managers and executives				
Clerical and secretarial	Large	Large	Small	Escape from drudgery for women
Craftsmen	Large			
Doctors	Small	Very large	Very large	High status and income
Lawyers	Very small	Very large	Very large	High status; overflow from other faculties

Needs, demand and supply

First of all, a clear distinction must be made between needs and demand in the context of manpower studies and education. Needs are determined by the manpower assessment and represent the country's manpower or educational requirements to meet specific social, political and economic goals. Demand reflects individual desires to prepare for a particular profession or trade, the desires for given types of education. There is no necessary connexion between the two; as will be seen, needs and demand can diverge very widely.

In fact, the first row in our table shows that whereas the need for technicians and sub-professional personnel is very large, the demand for this type of education is very small, and consequently the supply is also very small. The reason is that in this particular country, no one wants to be

a sub-professional, because such people have low pay, low status, and very limited possibilities for advancement. The educational planner's recommendation of larger facilities for the training of technicians and sub-professionals would be irresponsible, because these facilities would simply not be utilized. For example, in Nigeria by far the most critical need was for sub-professional personnel in agriculture, but when new facilities for training such people were made available, it was impossible to fill more than a quarter of the places, because there was no incentive to enter into this particular occupation. In such a case, the educational planner must first tackle the problem of incentives.

In the next row, it is clear that the need for teachers is very large, but the demand is small, again because of their low salary and status, and therefore the supply is also small. Here the planner must somehow increase the attractiveness of the teaching profession, at least in the most critical sectors. Only after that can he think of increasing the supply of teachers by putting more money into teacher-training institutions.

Where engineers and scientists are concerned, the need is large, though not as large as for technicians and sub-professional personnel, and here the demand is also large because of the relatively high status and pay of this category of professionals. However, the supply of this kind of education is very small because it is expensive. Here the educational planner need not worry about incentives; with the great need and demand, the obvious course is to expand the number of places, but the obvious difficulty is the high cost of scientific and engineering education.

The case of managers and executives illustrates the drawback of a chart: not everything fits into it. It has been shown that pre-employment business schools are not suitable for developing countries, because they tend to turn out clerks rather than managers. What is really needed is in-service training and manager development programmes for engineers, lawyers and liberal arts graduates, for people from all ranks who want and are able to become managers and executives. Managerial training is not specifically a job for the educational system, though the system should turn out people sufficiently qualified to become managers after suitable training. This, therefore, is one of those happy situations in which the educational planner can say that the solution lies outside the formal educational system, though not necessarily outside the planner's province.

In the category of secretarial and clerical personnel, the need is large, and the demand is large for this kind of education because it provides a good chance, for women especially, to escape from the drudgery of the

rural home to the glamour of the urban office. However, facilities for training are small, and training on the job is not very suitable for this kind of personnel. Here then is a good area in which to expand secondary vocationally oriented education.

Craftsmen, for whom the need is large, form another group that does not fit well into our chart because, like the managerial group, it does not fit well into the formal educational system. This is a *prima facie* case for training on the job.

The need for doctors is very small because the country has always produced a very large proportion of doctors; the demand for and the supply of medical education are both large, because of the high status and earnings of medical practitioners. Here the educational planner faces a very difficult political problem indeed. If he recommends a cut in medical school funds in favour of, say, the engineering schools which are needed much more, he will ensure the enmity of powerful social groups and may find himself and his plan in great trouble. (In certain countries of Latin America, for example, you simply cannot cut medical school funds.) What you may do, however, is not expand these schools until a more realistic balance is achieved in the supply of doctors.

Finally, the need for lawyers is very small, but the demand for legal education is very large, and so is the supply. This also applies to graduates in the liberal arts. In this particular country, people who seek high status, but cannot get into medical school or have not the brains to follow scientific or engineering studies, go in for the law and liberal arts. The political pressures in this area are even stronger than in the case of doctors, and our political planner may well conclude that he simply cannot solve the dilemma. A planner who publicly declared that a certain Latin American law faculty should be cut to half its size provoked a strike of all the students of that university, and in Latin America, students and recent alumni exert great influence in university councils. The solution lies perhaps in developing new incentives and attitudes, but this is by no means an easy task.

This exercise in manpower categories could be repeated with regard to levels of education, but this is hardly necessary. Such as it is, it enables us to draw certain conclusions.

Conclusions

The first conclusion is that the building of strategy is certainly not a process of getting accurate statistics, or even of uncovering real facts.

The central problem of the educational planner is to be able to identify on his intellectual radar set the really critical problems involved in human resource development, and this can be done with very meagre statistical information. If you have good statistical information, you will be all the better for it, but there is no excuse for refusing to define the problem because statistics are not available. Moreover, the educational planner should never wait for a complete manpower assessment before he begins to identify the problems, because he may have to wait a very long time.

The second conclusion is that some critical problems in education can be solved by increasing the output of educational institutions, by investment in particular sectors of the educational system, such as science and engineering faculties, free secondary schools, and so on.

However, this must be qualified by a third conclusion, which is that many of the critical problems in education can best be solved outside the system of formal education and as far away from the ministry of education as possible, by a policy of shifting wherever possible the burden of training from pre-employment educational institutions to employing institutions.

The fourth conclusion is that some problems of human resource and educational development involve fundamental changes in the incentives structure and even in the whole configuration and attitudes of the society, and that these basic changes may have to precede the actual investments in education. Indeed, the educational planner must never be confused by statistics which show a great need for a particular category of manpower if prevailing social and material incentives make people unwilling to enter into that category.

This leads to the last conclusion, which concerns the qualities an educational planner should have. First of all, his knowledge must be very broadly based. If he does not know the techniques and objectives of general social and economic development planning, he has no business planning education. If he is prepared to wait for the economist to tell him what the needs of the country may be in terms of high-level manpower, he openly acknowledges defeat, even before undertaking the job. The successful, effective educational planner must be fully conversant with the needs of industrial and agricultural development, know the problems of foreign exchange and those relating to the terms of trade, be able to integrate all these basic factors with human resource development, and should never, under any circumstances, assume that he must be subordinate and subject to the whim and fancy of the general economic development planner.

Systems analysis approach
to human resource development planning

A logical starting-point

The 'manpower approach' to education planning has long been a subject for heated debate among educators and economic development planners. Actually, manpower analysis is a new and evolving art which employs diverse media and methods of expression, and thus its conceptual framework is not yet frozen, and its methodology is neither orthodox nor rigid. Free thinkers with creative ideas in the field are not yet smothered by technical purists insisting on rigorous but narrow forms of analysis. To be sure, there is widespread confusion about the nature and scope of the 'manpower approach'. Many of the working hypotheses underlying manpower analysis need to be revised or discarded, and new concepts should be introduced in the light of evolving experience.

The major thesis of this essay is that the manpower approach should encompass much more than a tabulation of 'heads and hands' in precise occupational categories. It must go far beyond the construction of purely quantitative forecasts, projections or targets for formal education. It should be related to a broad strategy of human resource development rather than to a narrow concept of education planning. Finally, one should discard the notion that manpower needs are derived solely from requirements for economic development. No developing country is interested merely in the growth of its economy—in increasing its national product or income. All have broader aspirations for social and political modernization. Thus, manpower and education planning should be related to national development—a term which encompasses economic, cultural, social and political development in the building of national identity and integrity.

Without questioning the usefulness and importance of the kind of quantitative analysis which is characteristic of most manpower surveys, it may now be appropriate to use in addition some of the concepts of systems analysis. It should be possible to look at the various constituent elements of human resource development as a system which is somewhat analogous to a system for the generation and distribution of electric power. In using this frame of reference, one can identify skill-generating centres, such as for example schools, universities, training institutes, and employing organizations, which develop people on the job. The linkages between such centres are analogous to transmission lines. The manpower problems encountered by developing countries such as skill shortages and labour surpluses may be thought of as attributable to power failures in particular generating centres, ineffective linkages between these centres, or faulty design which results in the failure of the total system to carry the loads expected of it. A system of human skill generation, like a system of electric power generation, should be designed to carry varying loads; it must have built-in flexibility to meet such loads; it must be adequate in size; and above all its components must be properly balanced. The systems analysis approach makes it easier to identify in operational terms major problem areas, and it compels the analyst to examine the critical interrelationships between various manpower and education programmes. It provides a logical starting-point for building a strategy of human resource development.

Human resource problems in developing economies

Let us now identify the major human resource problems in developing societies. They are: (a) rapidly growing population; (b) mounting unemployment in the modern sectors of the economy as well as widespread underemployment in traditional agriculture; (c) shortages of persons with critical skills and knowledge required for effective national development; (d) inadequate or under-developed organizations and institutions for mobilizing human effort; and (e) lack of incentives for persons to engage in certain kinds of activities which are vitally important for national development. There are obviously other major human resource development problems such as nutrition and health, but these lie for the most part in other technical fields and are beyond the scope of this work.

Most manpower and education planning experts agree on the fun-

damental importance of an analysis of population distribution and trends. It is particularly important to have some conception of the annual rate of population growth (and whether this rate is increasing or remaining constant), the age distribution of the population (with particular reference to those under 14 years of age), and the approximate size of the active population. Some calculation of the probable size and composition of the labour force is also essential, although with rare exceptions reliable labour force statistics are non-existent in most developing countries. Here it is important to distinguish between the labour force in the modern or monetized sector of the economy and that in the traditional sector.

In nearly all of the developing countries, one can assume that population is growing at rates in excess of 2 per cent per year, and in most it is climbing toward 3 per cent or more. This suggests that in most cases, at least two-fifths of the population is likely to be less than 14 years of age and hence not considered to be in the labour force. It also means that a high proportion of the population is of school age—a matter of great consequence for education planners.

The manpower analyst, of course, is particularly interested in the present and future size of the labour force, its growth rates in both the traditional and modern sectors, and the factors which determine labour force participation of various groups. Of necessity he must also be concerned with the consequences of policies to limit population growth. For example, a reduction in birth rates will not immediately lead to a reduction in the labour force, but at the same time it will probably increase country's propensity to save and to invest in productive activities. Population control, therefore, in addition to its other obvious benefits, may contribute directly to greater labour productivity.¹ In the author's judgement, the human resource development strategist must now give closer attention to population problems and assume greater responsibility for proposing population control measures.

Mounting unemployment in urban areas is probably the most serious and intractable problem facing today's newly developing countries. Unemployment rates as high as 15 per cent of the labour force in the modern sectors are not uncommon, and even in rapidly industrializing countries, unemployment rates seem to be rising rather than falling. The reasons are fairly clear. Relatively high wages in the modern sectors act like a

1. For further elaboration of this point, see Ansley J. Coale, 'Population and Economic Development' in American Assembly, *The Population Dilemma*, Englewood Cliffs, N. J., Prentice Hall, Inc., 1964, pp. 46-69.

magnet drawing persons away from the rural, agricultural areas. Primary education raises the aspirations of rural youth to escape from traditional agriculture into the modern sector. Jobless immigrants to the cities can be fed and housed for considerable periods by relatives who already have employment. And behind all of these factors is a rapidly swelling labour force resulting from ever-increasing population growth.

As a rule of thumb, the rate of increase in the labour force in the modern sector will exceed the rate of increase in population growth. Thus, if a country's population is rising at 2.5 per cent annually, the increase in the labour force in the modern sector is likely to be 3.5 or even 4 per cent per year. On the other hand, the rate of increase in new employment opportunities is limited. At the very best, new jobs are created at a rate only half that of the increase in national income. Thus, if national income increases annually at a rate of 6 per cent, the highest possible increase in new jobs may be 3 per cent. Indeed, in most countries the rate of increase in new jobs is only a third of the rate of increase in national income, and in some, national income has increased substantially without any expansion of employment in the modern sector.

Unfortunately, greater investment and the building of more industries in the cities appear to aggravate rather than to alleviate the unemployment problem—the number of jobs increases, but the number of those seeking them increases even faster. The human resource development planner is thus faced with a dilemma: Where shall the surplus labour force be stored? Within the factories, by compelling employers to hire more workers than they need? Within the government establishments which is already overburdened with under-utilized personnel? In the urban ghettos and slums as 'permanent visitors' of employed relations? Or in traditional agriculture from which those with any education at all seek escape? The irony of this dilemma is that urban unemployment in newly developing countries is a consequence of modernization—a by-product of progress in lowering death rates, spreading education, investing in urban development, and building modern factories. Although he might wish that somehow or other the problem would 'go away', the human resource development planner cannot escape responsibility for considering ways and means of absorbing surplus manpower and directing it into productive activities.

The evaluation of occupational needs and skill-generating capacity has been a traditional concern of manpower specialists. Here, unlike the situation with unemployment, it is possible to suggest viable solutions for rather clearly defined problems. Manpower requirements can be deter-

mined; appropriate programmes of formal education and on-the-job training can be devised; and progress towards achievement of goals can be measured.

In setting targets for education and training programmes, the analyst is concerned with two related but distinct concepts—manpower requirements and absorptive capacity. 'Manpower requirements' may be defined as clearly evident needs for persons with particular education, training and experience. The assumption here is that such persons are necessary, if not indispensable, for achievement of a programme of national development. 'Absorptive capacity' is a looser term which refers to a country's capacity to provide some kind of useful employment for persons with certain educational qualifications. In effect, 'manpower requirements' should express minimum or essential needs; 'absorptive capacity' should express the maximum number of persons who can be employed without encountering redundancy or serious under-utilization of skill. The skill-generating centres, therefore, should produce trained manpower within the range between the maximum and the minimum; otherwise the skill generation system is distorted or unbalanced.

The demand for education or training must be distinguished from the allowable range between manpower requirements and absorptive capacity. Demand stems from social and political pressures for various kinds of education as well as from the willingness of people to pay fees to acquire it. Thus, for example, the demand for university education may be very high because of the status, prestige and pay enjoyed by graduates; but, in many countries this results in the production of graduates who cannot be effectively absorbed in the economy. When demand is clearly out of step with requirements or absorptive capacity, the country's educational system is clearly distorted or out of balance with the needs for national development. In using the systems analysis approach, a major task of the human resource planner is to detect actual and potential distortion and to consider measures for achieving a proper balance.

Another type of distortion in many countries is under-development, if not outright neglect, of appropriate measures of training persons in employment. A great deal of money is wasted in formal pre-employment craft or technical training which could be provided more efficiently and cheaply by employing establishments. Also the efficiency of skill-generating systems could be greatly improved by closer linkages between schools and universities and the employing institutions. For some reason, education planners have been inclined to think that on-the-job develop-

ment lies beyond their legitimate concern, and at the same time they appear to have ignored the task of building the necessary bridges between formal education and in-service training. The systems analysis approach tends to highlight this under-developed area of concern.

In the past, manpower analysis has centred on measurement of needs for various categories of high-level manpower, and in doing so it has usually overlooked the vital problem of organization and institution building. Successful development requires the building of effective government organizations, private enterprises, agricultural extension forces, research institutions, producer and consumer co-operatives, education systems, and a host of other institutions which mobilize and direct human energy into useful channels. Organization is a factor of production, separate from labour, high-level manpower, capital or natural resources. The essence of organization is the co-ordinated effort of many persons towards common objectives. At the same time, the structure of organization is a hierarchy of superiors and subordinates in which the higher levels exercise authority over the lower levels.

The successful leaders of organizations, or more accurately the organization builders, are in any society a small, but aggressive minority committed to progress and change. They feed the aspirations, give expression to the goals, and shape the destinies of peoples. They play the principal roles on the stage of history, and they organize the march of the masses.

A major problem in many developing countries is organizational power failures. Often government ministries, commercial and industrial organizations, or educational institutions simply fail to 'deliver the goods'. Usually, the trouble may be traced to a dearth of prime movers of innovation.

Who then are these prime movers of innovation? Certainly the entrepreneur who perceives and exploits new business ventures belongs to this group, as does the manager or top administrator in public establishments. He may not always have new ideas of his own, but his function is to organize and stimulate the efforts of others. He structures organizations, and either infuses hierarchies with energy and vision or fetters them with chains of conformity. But effective organizations also need other creative people. The agronomist who discovers better measures of cultivation, and the agricultural assistants who teach the farmers to use them, belong to the innovator class, as do public health officers, nurses and medical assistants. Engineers are in essence designers of change, and engineering technicians and supervisors put the changes to work. And

last but not least, professors, teachers and administrators of educational institutions in many countries may constitute the largest group of prime movers of innovation, as they are the 'seed-corn' from which new generations of manpower will grow.

Some innovators are 'change-designers' who make new discoveries, suggest new methods of organization, and plan broad new strategies. Others are 'change-pushers' who are able to persuade, coach and inspire people to put new ideas to work. Some innovators, of course, are at the same time change-designers and change-pushers. But whether they are designers, pushers, or a combination of the two, the prime movers of innovation must have extensive knowledge and experience. Thus, for the most part, they are drawn from the ranks of high-level manpower. But they need more than proven intelligence and thorough technical training. They should have in addition keen curiosity, a capacity for self-discipline, and an unquenchable desire for accomplishment. They should be adept at asking questions. They should have the knack of stimulating others to produce ideas and to activate the ablest minds about them; and they should be able to sell ideas to superiors, subordinates, and associates. The prime mover of innovation must be convinced that change can occur as a result of individual action, and he must have the drive within him to bring it about. This may stem from a desire to rise in social status, to build up material wealth, to acquire political influence, or to preserve an already established prestige position.

Many of the persons holding commanding positions in organizations are conformists or even obstructors of innovation. They must be systematically replaced by more creative innovators. The human resource development planner should be able to locate the critical points of power loss in organizational structures and to suggest remedial measures.

A final problem area in human resource development is incentives. It is one thing to estimate the needs for manpower of various qualifications but quite another to induce persons to prepare for and engage in occupations which are most vital for national growth. In most developing countries, it is incorrect to assume that relative earnings and status reflect the value of the contribution of individuals to development. Pay and status are often more related to tradition, colonial heritage, and political pressures than to productivity. Characteristically, for example, the rewards of sub-professional personnel and technicians are far from sufficient to attract the numbers needed; the pay of teachers is often inadequate; the differentials in compensation between the agricultural officer and agricultural assistant are too great; and the earnings of

scientists and engineers, in comparison with administrative bureaucrats in government ministries, are too low. The preferences for urban living, the forces of tradition, and historical differentials all tend to distort the market for critical skills. It follows then that the demand for certain kinds of education, particularly at the university level, is inflated relative to the country's absorptive capacity. The human resource development planner must therefore consider deliberate measures to influence the allocation of manpower into high-priority activities and occupations. Such measures may include major changes, scholarship support for particular kinds of education and training, removal of barriers against upward mobility, and in some cases outright compulsion. As many developing countries have learned to their chagrin, investments in education can be wasted unless men and women have the will to prepare for and engage in those activities which are most critically needed for national development.

These then are the problems and tasks which face the human resource development planner—the consequences of population increases and the measures for controlling them; underemployment and unemployment in both the traditional and modern sectors; skill shortages and the processes of developing high-level manpower to overcome them; organizational weakness and the need to find prime movers of innovation for institutional development; and provision of both financial and non-financial incentives in order to direct critically needed manpower into productive channels. Some of these are subject to quantitative analysis; others are purely qualitative; and a few are subject only to intuitive judgement. But, they are all interrelated. The systems approach forces the analyst to look at them as a whole as he searches for the weak spots—the points of power failure or the major areas of distortion—in a country's over-all effort to effectively develop and utilize its human resources.

This approach in reality is not new; it is little more than a logical framework for looking at problems which are almost blindingly obvious to those concerned with development problems.

Conclusions

The systems analysis approach used in this work does not suggest that the more traditional manpower surveys are outmoded. On the contrary, it assumes that they must be made in order to arrive at a first approxi-

mation of manpower requirements. The systems approach, however, goes beyond traditional manpower requirements analysis by examining operational relationships between a broad range of factors involved in human resources development. It forces the analyst to take a broad view of education planning and to examine its relationship to an even broader area of in-service development of skills and knowledge. It stresses the identification of causes of power failure and structural faults in design of skill-generating institutions. It is a way of looking at elements as functional parts of an over-all constellation. It is, in effect, an attempt to apply the principles of balanced growth to the field of human resource development.

The use of this approach may lead us to question some of the concepts and slogans which often were employed in the past. In conclusion, a few of them can be mentioned.

First, there is the notion that all developing countries should increase the proportion of their resources devoted to education. Actually, there is no clear-cut causal relationship between the volume of investment in education and successful national development. Indeed, under some circumstances, education of the wrong kind may impede growth. And poorly balanced educational systems can and do waste resources which could be used more productively for other purposes.

Second, there is the idea that human resource development planning should be integrated with and subordinated to economic development planning. To be sure, manpower requirements can be derived in some cases from sectoral growth plans. But manpower considerations—such as, for example, unemployment—may necessitate major changes in emphasis and orientation of the entire programme for economic development. It is, therefore, often just as logical in national planning to start with a broad plan or strategy of development and utilization of human resources as to begin with a plan to maximize economic growth. In other words, we might consider whether economic planning should be integrated with human resource planning rather than vice versa.

Finally, we should question the widely held belief that aid to the developing countries for human resource development is always beneficial. For example, some kinds of external aid for development of secondary and university education can seriously distort skill-generating systems. More often, the ultimate cost consequences of pilot or demonstration projects financed by well-meaning donors are overlooked, thus committing the recipient countries to programmes which they cannot afford. And some programmes of student fellowships and exchanges may cause

a major drain of precious brainpower from the less developed to the more advanced countries.

The urgent need in the human resources area is for comprehensive planning based upon an integrated examination of all major constituent elements. In that case, the systems analysis approach could make a significant contribution.

Suggestions for further reading

- HARBISON, F.; MYERS, C. A. *Education, manpower and economic growth*. New York, McGraw-Hill, 1964.
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- PARNES, H. S. *Forecasting educational needs for economic and social development*. Paris, OECD, 1962.
- SKOROV, G. *Integration of educational and economic planning in Tanzania*. Paris, IIEP/Unesco, 1966.
- TIMÁR, J. *Planning in the labor force in Hungary*. White Plains, N.Y., International Arts and Sciences Press, 1966.

Other IIEP publications

The following publications are obtainable from Unesco and its national distributors throughout the world:

Educational Planning: a Directory of Training and Research Institutions
1964. Also available in French

Educational Planning: a Bibliography
1964. Also available in French

Educational Planning: an Inventory of Major Research Needs
1965. Also available in French

Problems and Strategies of Educational Planning: Lessons from Latin America
1965. Also available in Spanish

African Research Monographs.

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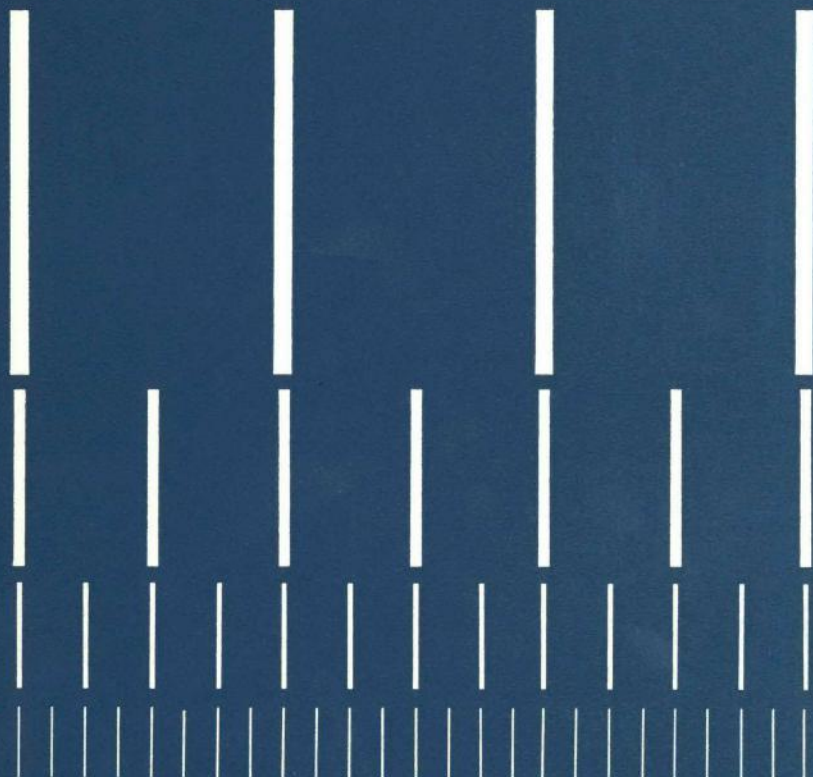
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C. E. Beeby



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Fundamentals of educational planning

The booklets in this series are written primarily for two groups: those engaged in—or preparing for—educational planning and administration, especially in developing countries; and others, less specialized, such as senior government officials and civic leaders, who seek a more general understanding of educational planning and of how it can be of help to over-all national development. They are devised to be of use either for self study or in formal training programmes.

The modern conception of educational planning has attracted specialists from many disciplines. Each of them tends to see planning rather differently. The purpose of some of the booklets is to help these people explain their particular points of view to one another and to the younger men and women who are being trained to replace them some day. But behind this diversity there is a new and growing unity. Specialists and administrators in developing countries are coming to accept certain basic principles and practices that owe something to the separate disciplines but are yet a unique contribution to knowledge by a body of pioneers who have had to attack together educational problems more urgent and difficult than any the world had ever known. So other booklets in the series represent this common experience, and provide in short compass some of the best available ideas and experience concerning selected aspects of educational planning.

Since readers will vary so widely in their backgrounds, the authors have been given the difficult task of introducing their subjects from the beginning, explaining technical terms that may be commonplace to some but a mystery to others, and yet adhering to scholarly standards and never writing down to their readers, who, except in some particular speciality, are in no sense unsophisticated. This approach has the ad-

vantage that it makes the booklets readily intelligible to the general reader.

Although the series, under the general editorship of C. E. Beeby, has been planned on a definite pattern, no attempt has been made to avoid differences, or even contradictions, in the views expressed by the authors. It would be premature, in the Institute's view, to lay down a neat and tidy official doctrine in this new and rapidly evolving field of knowledge and practice. Thus, while the views are the responsibility of the authors, and may not always be shared by Unesco or the Institute, they are believed to warrant attention in the international market-place of ideas. In short, this seems the appropriate moment to make visible a cross-section of the opinions of authorities whose combined experience covers many disciplines and a high proportion of the countries of the world.

Foreword

As general editor of this series of booklets, C. E. Beeby has expressed to me some mild embarrassment at having himself written one that so deliberately sets out to describe educational planning from the sectional point of view of one of the professional groups now engaged in this complex activity. This, of course, is just what we hoped he would do, because one of the main purposes of the series, as we envisaged from the start, was to enable specialists of all kinds to discuss educational planning from their particular background and outlook. In this instance, the outlook is that of a top educational administrator, such as the man in charge of a ministry of education, which is a familiar role for Dr. Beeby.

The author pays valuable attention to the need for mutual understanding and good working relationships between educational authorities and planners on the one hand, and those (often economists by training) who are responsible for the planning of over-all economic and social development on the other hand. This is admittedly not always an easy relationship, especially at first, because the difficulties of communication which arise among professional groups that are reared on different concepts and semantics die slowly.

The experience of the Institute over the past three years, however, has convinced us that any such differences concerning educational planning are relatively superficial, and that a reasonable and tentative pegging out of claims in this new and rapidly growing field will reveal a wider area of agreement and common interest than at first appeared to be the case.

The author is now a research associate in the Center for Studies in Education and Development of the Graduate School of Education at

Harvard University. He was for twenty years director of education for New Zealand with some responsibilities also for education in that country's Pacific Island dependencies. Dr. Beeby was at one time Assistant Director-General of Unesco, and was later a member, and then chairman, of its executive board, while serving at the same time as New Zealand's ambassador to France. He has acted as educational consultant in a number of developing countries and to several international organizations. He served the IIEP well, apart from being general editor of this series, by planning and co-chairing its Symposium on the Qualitative Aspects of Educational Planning in summer 1966. Good background for this was his latest book, 'The Quality of Education in Developing Countries' (Harvard University Press).

PHILIP H. COOMBS
Director, IIEP

Planning and the educational administrator

The definition of terms is usually the dreariest method of opening any statement, but on this occasion I can see no alternative. Educational planning is still in that amorphous state where there is no agreement even as to its boundaries. Each of us comes to it from a different direction, and the track we have followed determines in no small measure the shape and content of what we see before us. And there is little point in running to the dictionary for a definition; educational planning has taken on new dimensions over the past decade, and its perimeter cannot be mapped from theory alone, but has to be painstakingly pegged out in practice before it can be enshrined in a verbal formula that most people will accept.

In the meantime, every specialist evolves the definition that best suits his purposes, his past experience, and, if you like, his prejudices. The fact that definitions vary does not necessarily mean that some of them are wrong in any logical sense. They expand or contract the boundaries of the subject and lay different emphases on elements within it, but what educational planning is, in fact, in any country will be decided by the politicians and by the interplay of powers. It must not be assumed from this that, intellectually speaking, educational planning can continue for all time to be all things to all men, or that it is of no significance what definition we accept. In an area as complex as this, politicians must lean heavily on professionals, and the kind of definition the experts adopt will influence the administrative mechanism that is set up to do the planning. For example, if the making of a plan is regarded as something that can be separated intellectually from its implementation, this will affect the educational administrator's place in the planning hierarchy. A cynical outsider might have some basis for assuming that any

individual's definition of educational planning reflects in some degree his judgement of the part that specialists of his type should play in it. I see nothing wrong in this. Such competing claims, if made by reasonable men with the humility their present state of ignorance demands of all who are engaged in planning, should lead to a better working partnership between specialists who, up till now, have had little experience on a common task. The definition that appears on page 13 differs in emphasis, and perhaps even in material respects, from those given or assumed by the writers of other booklets, since it is written quite openly from the point of view of an educational administrator. This calls for no apology, and other booklets in the series will correct any imbalance.

The educational administrator

It does call, however, for a clearer statement of just who the 'educational administrator' is, whose part in planning is to be discussed. In this essay the term is used in a restrictive sense to denote the few senior administrators in a ministry or a state department of education who come closest to the people who are responsible for over-all economic and social planning. Even with this restriction it covers some very different types. Unless otherwise stated, no distinction is made between politicians and career administrators, between ministers and permanent secretaries or directors-general of education. In addition to his policy-making functions as a member of cabinet, a minister of education shares with his officials a complex set of administrative duties the allocation of which varies with the country and with the personalities involved. Since officials in most cases exercise their executive powers in the name of the minister, it would be unreasonable to exclude him from the category of administrators. In the eyes of the public, indeed, the minister and his most senior official should be one and indivisible.

The minister's own knowledge of education cannot be taken for granted. In Africa, where, in the days before independence, teaching was the first channel of employment open to educated Africans, many ministers have themselves been members of the profession, but in many other countries the minister of education, whatever his skill as an administrator, will have little or no direct professional knowledge of education. Even some of the senior administrators in the ministry or department of education will lack professional training in education. For example, in some of the countries that were formerly under British rule, it is cus-

tomary to have as the senior civil servant in the ministry of education a permanent secretary who is a member of an élite corps of general administrators, who move from one ministry to another. Within this kind of system, the next man in line will normally be a director or director-general of education who is the chief authority on professional matters, but, in countries where a whole group of officials change with the government or the ministry, it is not unusual to find several of the most senior posts held by persons whose training in education is lacking or minimal.

Although the pattern varies so widely, at some level in any ministry there will be found officials who have come up through the teaching profession or an allied service, and who are employed as general administrators, inspectors, curriculum specialists, or controllers of such activities as teacher training or vocational guidance. Whatever the qualifications of the minister and his most senior official, in a well-organized ministry they will have constant need for these specialists. The essence of a good administrator at the top level is that he rarely acts alone. He is surrounded by officials and advisers, and, whether or not he follows their advice, he would be stupid to act before hearing it. After spending most of my life as one, I find it difficult to think of the senior administrator as being quite an individual when he makes a decision or advises his government. He has at his command the accumulated experience and wisdom—and of course, the prejudices—of all his colleagues, and though he is something more than the spokesman for the group, he is also something more than an individual. If this smacks too much of bureaucratic mysticism, the administrator can be regarded as a man who is constantly and profoundly influenced by a number of experienced people on whom he is dependent for most of his facts and at least some of his judgments.

It is in this sense that the term educational administrator is used here. In any other sense some of the claims made for him would sound inflated. Administrators are rarely supermen, but they do represent an experience wider than any man could achieve alone.

Who then is the 'planner'? Any country that is moving towards educational planning in the modern sense tends to develop the operation at two different levels, one within the ministry and the other national. There is usually a unit (or units) in the ministry of education—and sometimes in other ministries as well if control is divided—which concerns itself with planning activities, or, at the very least, with the preparation of the material on which plans will be built. Some members of this unit will almost certainly have come up through the school system and

may be extremely knowledgeable both on planning procedures and on professional policy. The functions and status of the unit vary widely from place to place. In some ministries the head of the unit may be little more than a high-level technician providing facts and figures called for by an educationally sophisticated director or permanent secretary, who himself co-ordinates them for presentation to the minister and the government. In other cases, where the top officials are lethargic or lacking in real knowledge of the school system, the energetic head of a planning unit, with direct access to the minister, may come to exercise an influence on policy that goes far beyond mere techniques.

It would be useful to analyse for a number of countries, the respective roles in the process of planning of the different officials in a ministry or department of education. In some of them it might be possible to pick out one person in the ministry—ranging from the minister himself down to the head of the planning unit—who might be called ‘the planner’ in the sense that he had the predominant influence on the plan finally presented, but the picture is so kaleidoscopic that, in any generalized statement about the work within ministries of education, the term is better avoided. So I have fallen back on the concept of ‘the administrator’ as a composite figure who represents the planning as well as the organizational skills within the ministry. It will, I trust, be for another booklet in the series to tease out the lines of authority in the complex organization coming under the minister of education and to suggest ways in which it can most effectively contribute to planning in various circumstances. For present purposes, I shall ignore this problem entirely and shall concentrate on the relations between the ministry of education as a whole (‘the administrator’), and whatever mechanism the government has set up for over-all national planning. This also takes many forms, but there will normally be two elements, an expert body—whether it be treasury, or a planning commission, or some other *ad hoc* group—and cabinet or the chief executive who will make the final decisions. Within the expert group there will usually be one or more individuals who will concern themselves specially with the planning of education and kindred activities. These are the people referred to when ‘planner’ or ‘planning expert’ are used in this essay. In a well-knit system there will be constant communication—as well as a little inevitable tension—between these ‘planners’ and the officials of the ministry, just as the minister will play his own part in the deliberations of cabinet on the over-all economic and social plan. In a federal state or in one with decentralized control of the schools, there may be other politicians or officials who come into

the planning process at one stage or another.¹ It is against this background of delicately balanced powers and influences that one must seek a realistic definition of educational planning.

DEFINITION Educational planning is the exercising of foresight in determining the policy, priorities and costs of an educational system, having due regard for economic and political realities, for the system's potential for growth, and for the needs of the country and of the pupils served by the system.

This is obviously a much wider definition of planning than is often given, and reflects the administrator's inability to draw demarcations in a process that, in practice, seems to him to be continuous. It differs from some other recent definitions in several respects: (a) while stressing the importance of the new economic dimension to planning, it still covers processes that went on long before the economists became actively interested in the planning of education; (b) it draws no sharp line of distinction between the making of a plan, the adoption of a plan, and its implementation; (c) it lays stress on the political realities, on the balance of forces affecting the adoption of a plan; (d) it mentions the needs both of the country and of the children; (e) it gives special consideration to an educational system's capacity for growth.

The special point of view of the administrator—or, since we are a mixed lot, it might be safer in this context to say *an* administrator—can conveniently be discussed under five headings:

New dimension to planning

There has been educational planning of a sort ever since education came to be regarded as a national responsibility. No administrator worth his salt could control an educational system without exercising some degree of foresight and struggling for some measure of consistency. At its worst such 'planning' was pretty feeble and might consist of little more than an annual scramble to put together a budget. At its best it produced some vigorous and far-seeing reports that influenced national education systems for decades. Government commissions, consultative committees, national conferences, universities, and independent research organiza-

1. In some countries, education and the planning of education are not regarded as primarily the responsibility of the central government, and local or regional administrators have more real power than might appear from the brief references to them here. There is, however, a growing tendency for central governments to include education in their national planning. For the sake of simplicity, I am assuming that this practice is more widespread than in fact it is.

tions have all, in their time and place, produced sweeping schemes for the reform of education, and overworked administrators in dusty offices have not infrequently turned out plans that were down-to-earth and yet not without vision. To be sure, many of these schemes and plans have slipped untimely into some quiet pigeon-hole, but this scarcely distinguishes them as a class from sophisticated, modern educational plans.

What then is the new dimension in educational planning that marks it off from the classical type of planning carried out by consultative committees and others over the past hundred years? The most obvious difference lies in the modern planner's intense interest in economic growth, in human resource development, and in what the economist calls 'macro-planning', the simultaneous consideration of all a country's interlocking development plans. The old-fashioned educational planners can hardly be blamed for not having been interested in these, for, with rare exceptions, nobody else was either. They could not gear their planning to national economic plans that did not exist, and as for the country's manpower resources, these were supposed to be looked after by the play of the free market. In theory—in so far as there was a theory—the educator met the demand as it arose, or, because of the time-lag in the provision of educational facilities, some time after it arose. This is not a completely fair picture, as the educators did, on occasion, blaze the trail. In my own country, for example, in the years immediately following the war, the department of education and the technical schools, without the benefit of a national economic or manpower plan, did as much to create the demand for technicians as they did to satisfy it when industry belatedly took it up.

Nor can it be justly said that the educational administrator is not interested in finance. No one who has tussled with treasury for the annual budget for education or, in a decentralized system, has wheedled the taxpayer into a new bond issue for schools can ever forget that the funds for education are not unlimited. Every scheme he puts up to the government for approval has to be costed, and its acceptance or rejection may hinge on the economies he can make in it. Yet somehow there is a subtle difference between the attitude toward finance of the average educational administrator and that of the economist working on the economic plans for the country as a whole.

The contrast shows most clearly between an economic planning commission and the classic type of education commission, a combination of administrators, theorists, teachers, and laymen, to which many countries have been in the habit of referring major problems of policy. A

common procedure has been for an education commission to draw up sweeping recommendations for reform within its terms of reference, and then either to present them to the government uncostered or to sketch out a generalized estimate of costs *after* the recommendations on policy have been decided. This is not to say that all education commissions have blissfully ignored economic realities—though some have. The administratively sophisticated members of most commissions have had an idea of at least the order of magnitude of expenditure to which their recommendations would commit the government, but the commissions have not commonly regarded it as part of their function to make rigorous costing of alternative solutions to a problem *before* deciding on the policy they will recommend. I have myself asked of a commission during its deliberations, ‘But how much will this proposed measure cost?’ only to receive the reply, ‘Let us decide the policy first, and we can give you the costs later’. The costing of schemes before coming to a decision on recommendations of policy seems to me to be of the essence of modern planning, for, without it, a rational consideration of priorities becomes difficult, if not impossible.

Here again it is easy to be unfair to the educator. (In this still hazy realm it is hard to make any generalization without being unfair to someone.) The idea of carefully costing alternative proposals before putting one up to the government for approval is nothing new to the good educational administrator. He has normally done this with specific proposals he has submitted on the policy for such varied things as buildings, pupil transport, free textbooks, and new schemes for child guidance or teacher training, and his usual method of handling the global recommendations of an education commission has been to break them down into their components and to present these over a period as a series of separate costed proposals. What he has rarely done—and this is the crux of the argument—is to cost a global scheme in advance with a constant eye on the country’s economic plans and potential and on its manpower needs. This is the new dimension which the educational administrator will ignore in the future only at the risk of losing his rightful place in the process of planning.

The administrator may continue to be sceptical of some of the techniques of long-range economic and manpower planning and of the results that they achieve, and he will suspect that, however global the planning of education may appear on paper, a great deal of it will, in fact, continue to be done piecemeal in response to political pressures and half-expected crises. He knows too that, however enthusiastic treasury may be for

macro-planning, in other moods it will drag its feet on certain sectors of the educational plan in order to spread the rise in expenditure over a number of years.¹ But, whatever his doubts, the administrator must accept the fact that, after the discovery of education by the economists, the business of planning, however it may be defined, will never be quite the same again even in advanced countries, while, in developing countries, it may begin to look very different indeed from what was acceptable in the past. It is natural that the economists, breaking into an established field with new techniques, should exaggerate the novelty of what they have brought, and it is equally understandable that the educator should respond by stressing the planning he has always done. A fertile marriage of the two sets of skills will come only when each side recognizes the value of what the other has to offer and the limitations of what either can do alone.

Planning, adoption, execution

It is understandable that a specialist interested in the theory of planning should draw a sharp distinction between the preparation, the adoption, and the execution of a plan, and should insist that they be kept 'analytically separate'.² The intellectual analysis of each process is made easier if the untidy interactions between them are temporarily ignored. But one wonders if theory is not bound eventually to concern itself with these very interactions. The practitioner certainly must, for a plan becomes workable only when the sharp edges of theory have been ground down by the play between the technical experts who make the first draft of the plan, the politicians who amend and approve it, and the administrators who carry out its parts and in so doing inevitably alter them. Too great insistence, even in theory, on the purity of the planning process could result in the setting-up of a planning mechanism that made it unduly difficult for the mutually abrasive action between the ideas of these three groups to take place.

The danger of this purer-than-life concept of planning is that it might lead some people to assume that the approval of a plan is a single, cli-

1. For that matter, when national development planning does not come directly under the minister of finance, there is sometimes tension between treasury and whatever *ad hoc* body has been set up to handle over-all planning.
2. Y. Dror, 'The Planning Process', *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, Brussels, Vol. 29 no. 1, 1963, p. 51: 'Planning is substantially—and, in most cases, also formally and legally—a process of *preparing* a set of decisions to be approved and executed by some other organs. Even if the same unit combines planning functions with authority to approve and execute, these are distinct, though interdependent, processes which must be kept analytically separate.'

mactic event rather than the culmination of a long series of adjustments and compromises, in which those who have to give the final stamp of approval and those who have to carry out the plan must be involved. There are few who would contest the right of a government to be regularly consulted during the preparation of a country's over-all economic plan. Such consultation is usually inherent in the structure of the planning organs that it sets up; even if the chief executive or one of his cabinet colleagues is not the nominal chairman of the planning commission¹ an official or adviser very close to him will normally be its working head.² Whether the minister of education is included in these consultations will depend upon his standing in the government and on the weight given to education in the planning process.

Curiously enough, the traditional consultative commission on education, although it will almost always have official members, is often less directly influenced in its deliberations by the government than is the average planning commission. This is not necessarily a sign of strength; a government is most likely to try to influence the decisions of those bodies that it regards as of prime importance. It may expect the education commission to express its recommendations in such general and qualitative terms that they can either be side-stepped with ease or adopted with a flexible time-table. As educational plans begin to mesh more closely with general economic and manpower planning and to be costed and phased before they are presented for adoption, it will become more than ever important that ministries of education be somehow involved in the whole planning process from the start.

Countries vary greatly in the extent to which the educational administrator is called into consultation before approval is given to the government's over-all economic plan. In some cases there is an educational sub-committee officially linked with the planning commission, in others a member or officer of the commission acts as the liaison with education and a related group of departments, and sometimes the relations, though real, are quite informal. In what seem to me to be the best systems, there is also a planning unit within the department of education which, either directly or through the permanent head of the department, is in regular contact with the central planning commission. There are some countries, however, where the educational administrator's only function is

1. A planning commission is not set up in all countries that do planning; the term is used here as a convenient expression for whatever planning mechanism is established on a national scale.
2. In India, for example, the Chief Secretary of the Cabinet is also Chief of Staff of the Planning Commission.

to provide the figures for which he is asked, and to carry out his part of the plan when it is presented to him. It is amongst this group of countries that one finds the least effective examples of over-all educational planning, where the alleged plan for education is so vague as to be virtually useless or so out of touch with reality as to be dangerous.

No one would suggest that the top officials of government departments should sit in when the sums to be allocated to each under the plan is being decided,¹ although the planning authority would be very unwise not to have heard them fully beforehand on the problems likely to be created by the various possible levels of expenditure. (In all honesty it must be admitted that the authority would be equally unwise not to discount the estimates of each administrator by a percentage determined by a knowledge of his judgement, his temperament, and his past record.) If the central plan proceeds to allot, within the total sum proposed for education, the amounts to be made available within each major division, for example, to primary, secondary, technical, or higher education, it becomes essential that the educational administrator play an active part in the process. Only he is in a position to know the delicate balance between the parts of a school system, and the effects that the sudden expansion or the starving of one part may have upon the rest. This knowledge is only in part the result of a study of the statistics that anyone could undertake; it flows in some measure from his 'feel' of the living and complex system he controls, and his understanding of what the human beings who compose it can do and will stand. This is all so obvious as not to need mentioning were it not for the fact that it is sometimes forgotten both in theory and in practice.

Even those who admit that the preparation of an educational plan and its adoption are, in practice, inseparable, and that the collaboration of the administrator is essential in its formulation might still maintain that the business of putting the plan into operation is no part of the process of planning. This view seems to me to rest upon an oversimplified concept of the formation of policy. In theory, the government determines the policy and adopts the plan, and the administrator's job is to carry it out. But anyone who has worked at a high level within a national system knows that the true picture is often very different from this. It is true that any good educational plan will be firmly based on certain broad political and social principles that have either been formally propounded

1. The minister of education, however, will obviously take part in any cabinet discussion on the allocation under the plan of funds to the various departments, and of certain resources to private industry.

by the government or are taken for granted in that particular society, but at a more immediately practical level, the educational sections of many long-range national plans contain more than their share of the pious hopes that spring up so readily when education is mentioned, and the administrator often finds himself given a general indication as to direction rather than a programme laid down in terms of speed and cost.

This is particularly likely to be the case when the point at issue is an improvement in the quality of the work in the schools rather than a mere quantitative extension of existing institutions and services, where reasonable projections can be made on the basis of current practice. No one knows enough about the problems of raising the standards of a whole school system to be able to predict with accuracy the date at which a particular level of excellence will be reached or how much it will cost to get there—even if we knew with certainty how to define the level in the first place. Educational plans, for example, sometimes lay down goals for reducing the number of 'drop-outs' or 'repeaters' who are the bane of many under-developed school systems, but we know so little about the causes of drop-outs or about the effects upon quality of speeding up the flow of pupils without improving the training of the teachers that a statement of a fixed goal within a given time is rarely better than an inspired guess and may be simply misleading. The situation is made even more difficult when the goals that are set are dictated in part by election promises, hasty decisions made on political grounds, or idealistic commitments entered into in the first exhilarating days of a country's independence. The educational plans of some countries are complicated, for instance, by their governments having committed themselves publicly to the achievement of universal primary schooling by a date that they now know to be unrealistic but which they cannot openly renounce.

Whatever the reason, long-term educational plans are notoriously difficult to express in terms definite enough for their implementation to be no more than the carrying out of fixed instructions; and where they are as definite as this, experience frequently shows that major adjustments have to be made, and the administrator either has to make them himself or to go back to cabinet for fresh guidelines. Even if he is not free to act on his own authority, he is expected to make recommendations for amendments and so comes back again into the main planning stream. Governments have frequently only an emergent purpose that becomes altered in the very process of moving towards the goal, and policy not only determines ways and means but is, in some measure, itself determined by the ways and means chosen to put it into operation. This is

not always a conscious process. An administrative decision may be made on an apparently minor point and a precedent created without anyone realizing that this is a significant new departure in policy. Public pressure and the irresistible logic of individuals and organizations applying the new precedent to their own slightly different cases may, within the period of a plan, produce unforeseen results no less significant than those brought about by conscious purpose.

There are, needless to say, instances where policy decisions can be given from above in a form that leaves no room for doubt or gloss, and the administrator is certainly not free to exceed the total sum allotted to him in the budget. But it is just at the point where his annual budget is being prepared that the administrator can exercise a great effect on policy. Even in those cases where the plan for education has been phased and costed for the full five-year period, there are a myriad factors that can alter the annual allocations foreseen by the most determined planning expert. Changes in the volume of foreign exchange, a drop in revenue, or a rise in expenditure due to unexpected demands in some other sector may reduce the education vote in any year (an unexpected rise is, unhappily, less frequent), and anything from a bottle-neck in the building industry to sheer political expediency before an election can advance or retard the rate of expenditure under sections of the budget.

This means that the administrator, in preparing his annual budget for presentation to the government, must make a partial review of the long-term educational plan. If the plan has been loosely drawn he may have considerable room for manoeuvre, and if it is too tight and restrictive, he may have no small influence in determining where the cuts and substitutions shall be made. A shrewd administrator who knows how to point up the unfortunate social or political implications of certain cuts in expenditure may, on occasion, secure from a reluctant minister of finance an increase in his total vote.

All of which adds up to the view that educational planning is a continuous process and that the educational administrator must be in it somehow from the beginning to the end if he is to help make it realistic in the first place, and help mould it to changing conditions as it unrolls.

Political realities

Political judgement is at the heart of planning in the sense in which the term has been used here. Even the theorist who sees planning primarily as a technical exercise leading to the presentation to the government of

a logical and statistically satisfying plan would not deny the right of the politician to make the final decision. He might, however, be shocked at a suggestion that some 'political' element enters into almost every phase of the planning process in the sense that a choice of priorities at any level normally involves vested interests, material or intellectual, and some degree of tension between their proponents; and that in the resolution of this tension, compromise, personalities, and pure logic are liable to be inextricably intertwined.

It is commonly admitted that this tension between divergent views operates when choices are being made between priorities at the highest level. For example, when a government is deciding what aid it shall give to private schools, or whether it shall check the expansion of primary schools in order to improve the quality of the existing ones, men of good will, starting from the same set of facts and apparently using the same rules of logic, will arrive at very different conclusions. The process by which the government comes to its decision may conform much less to the pattern of the syllogism than it does to the 'parallelogram of forces' by which (if I remember aright my physics of half a century ago) the movement of a body is determined when it is subject to external tensions in different directions at the same time. As an administrator, I have come to believe that the same mechanism, involving the resolution of contending forces that are not necessarily entirely rational, frequently plays a part in official deliberations well below what is normally considered the political level. Even the most objective of planning experts are not completely isolated in practice from the tensions within the parallelogram of forces.

Political forces, in the broadest sense of that term, may be considered as operating in three different modes. In the first, some of the forces may be so widely diffused as to escape identification. No government is completely free to decide on any list of priorities that it likes. Its choices are circumscribed not only by the political and social philosophies for which it openly stands but also, more subtly and powerfully, by the 'Weltanschauung'. For example, in this decade, when the right to education has been so universally acclaimed and demanded, a government would have to be very powerful or very rash to announce a policy of steadily reducing the number of schools. In the phrase so often heard in political circles, 'the country wouldn't stand for it'; the official, no less than the politician, is influenced by the prevailing mood of the country and by the values it takes for granted, and, unless he is enormously insensitive, he is unlikely to make a major recommendation that runs counter to them. Because

of the relative unanimity, real or apparent, between those involved in decisions at this level of generality, the resolution of tensions may not be very obvious.

It is in their second mode of operation that political influences tally most closely with the forces to which the term is commonly applied, and where opposing tensions demonstrably result in compromises. Pressure groups and the tenets of party programmes compete, in the minds of a government, with one another and with the cooler advice cabinet receives from officials. The official, in turn, knows that his views will have scant hope of being accepted if they run head-on against some massive or cherished political force, and he seeks some way of impinging on it more obliquely. This does not mean that the career administrator or the planning technician should become involved in issues of party politics. In most developed countries they are forbidden to do so, and they may often feel impelled to throw their weight on the side of principle and reason against political expediency of any kind. One thinks, for example, of the cases where, for the planning expert, the development of technical education or the improvement of the quality of existing schools is clearly preferable to the rapid expansion of low-quality primary schools to which the government is being pressed by parents or party. The point I wish to make is that it is the *weight* of reasoned argument they are throwing against the weight of other demands, and that the result is likely to be a compromise more or less attuned to the competing forces.¹

Even when the career administrators and planning experts are closeted in their committee room they are still not insulated from the clash of opinions and the play of personalities. Unless some are the narrowest of technicians, there is at the back of every mind a feeling for what 'the country will stand' and some understanding of the political pressures to which the government will be subjected while it is considering their recommendations. These factors will carry different weights with the various people around the table, and this in itself will introduce, though in a weakened form, some of the tensions of the outside world into the official meeting. No less important are the personalities and attitudes of the officials themselves. In the making of any major plan, economic or educational, men with no obvious party bias can advocate so many divergent paths that the judgement and social philosophies of the members of a planning commission or committee can be as important as their

1. The whole of this argument applies only to nationals of the country and not to foreign experts, who may be aiding them, and whose position demands that they be most circumspect where the exercise of pressure of any kind is involved.

technique, and the skill and weight of advocacy may determine whether marginal funds are spent on capital works or consumption, on education or roads, on universities or primary schools. In an expert group one has a right to expect that the cruder political pressures, though they cannot be completely ignored, will not be the major factors determining its recommendations, but it would be naïve to assume that another group of experts, with the same facts before them, would necessarily come to the same conclusions.

If it be admitted that planning is not a purely logical process, that, when all the facts are known, much still depends upon the balance struck between competing views and interests, and upon the tenacity and skill of the men who defend each of them, the implications for the educational administrator become tolerably clear. He must be something more than a pawn in the planning game. It is not enough that he merely hand over the facts and figures as they are demanded of him. It is his duty, within the bounds of official propriety and good taste, to see that their full implications are understood by those who are to make the next decision, and that the claims of education for funds and facilities are pressed no less assiduously than those of competing services. I shall deal later with the points at which the administrator can properly exercise such influence as he has.

Whether all this is a part of planning depends on the definition of the term that one accepts. It is certainly a part of administration, and the administrator who holds himself aloof from any attempt to influence the nature of the plan is likely to find his department at a disadvantage compared with those of his peers who take a less detached view of their function. Conversely, the administrator who, in his enthusiasm, overreaches himself will, in the long run, also lose out. In this, as in most of his activities, the administrator walks a knife-edge.

Needs of the country and of the children

There is no need to labour further the obligations of the educational administrator to seek to adapt the school system to the economic and manpower needs of the country; this aspect of planning is covered by other booklets in the series, as well as in the general literature. Nor should it be necessary to stress that economic criteria are not the sole measures of the schools' contribution to society, that a plan for education must take account of other social values than those of the market-place. The educational administrator has no right to assume that, of all the people

involved in planning, he is the sole guardian of these wider values, although he may, with others, have to recall them to mind in a group of specialists if educational planning in any place shows signs of being too tightly dominated by narrower goals and techniques.

There is one respect, however, in which the educational administrator is set apart from other specialists in a committee on planning: he is the only one there whose professional duty it is to think first of all of the interests of the child. The others, the politicians, economists, statisticians, in their capacity as parents and citizens, may be as interested as he is in the welfare of the children, and even in their professional roles they are unlikely to treat the growing generation simply as a means to an end. But each has his dominant professional interest, and, struggle as they may to be objective, it is inevitable that, when they sit around a table to hammer out a plan, every man will tend to lay special stress on the sets of values and the principles with which he finds himself most at home. It would be arrogant of the educational administrator to regard himself as the only guardian of the rights of the child, but, within the official planning establishment, he may quite properly be expected to be their chief expositor.

What is at issue here is something less than the formidable question whether there can indeed be a conflict between the needs of the country and the needs of a generation of its citizens. The question, as it usually arises, is whether some measure that is proposed to help satisfy an economic or social demand will result in undue hardship to a group of children. It might, for example, be a proposal to introduce fees for secondary schooling or to insist on very early specialization for one type of child to meet the need for a particular kind of worker. (I have myself heard a secretary of treasury suggest to a planning committee in a developing country that the Bachelor of Arts degree be abolished and that the first degree for every student be in science.) In each of these cases society as a whole might, in the long-run, suffer as much as the individual, but it would be certain classes of pupil who would bear the brunt of the change in the first place. In many instances the politician will be quick to sense the political effects of such innovations, but in others it will take a professional educationist to see all the implications for categories of pupils, and he will be doing less than his duty if he refrains from making his views known as early as possible in the proceedings. The new techniques in planning have, if anything, intensified the need for the educational watchdog.

Capacity for growth

There has been no dearth of plans that have proved in some major respect unworkable, but no competent planning expert would put forward a plan unless he had taken some steps to see that it was feasible. This does not absolve the educational administrator from his special responsibility to study every plan affecting education to see if it can in fact be carried out in the time proposed and at the estimated cost. The difference here between the national development planning expert and the educational administrator is partly a matter of inside knowledge and partly one of emphasis. The essence of the expert's job is to look into the future, to balance the claim of education against those of other services, to propose targets, and to suggest the disposition of resources that will best enable the country to reach those targets in a given time. He may himself have first-hand knowledge of some of these resources, probably in the realm of finance, in which case he may make a shrewd assessment of the capacity of these portions of the system to achieve the target. In the case of education he will rarely have enough personal experience to do this adequately and must either rely on the advice of the educational administrator or make a guess based on such figures as he has been given. In any event, the general planning expert will have determined the target for education on the basis of a complex set of factors going far beyond the school system,¹ and he of all people must not lose sight of the target.

The educational administrator may perhaps take account of the same set of factors, but his emphasis is different. He is acutely aware that, once the plan is approved, his is the main responsibility for seeing that it works. He will bear most of the blame if the target is not reached by the end of the plan, but equally will he be criticized if the educational system is disrupted this year in order to meet a deadline five years hence. Plan or no plan, the system must work today and tomorrow, and the endless committee meetings and the flow of letters from anxious parents and angry politicians do not cease just because an exciting new five-year plan has landed on the administrator's desk. So he is acutely conscious, perhaps too conscious, of the demands of the present and of the limits imposed on the growth of his school system by its existing de-

1. In countries where sections of even formal education (for example, medical, agricultural, technical) fall outside the province of the ministry of education, the experts in the national planning agency may be the persons who suggest how the plans of the various ministries involved in education should be co-ordinated and balanced.

iciencies—of teachers, buildings, books, ideas, special skills, and administrative personnel. He knows better than anyone else the ways in which a plan can drop behind schedule; experience has taught him that financial approvals get lost for months in the maze of governmental procedures, that buildings take longer to plan and erect than even the pessimist had feared, that the gestation period for a set of good new textbooks is more protracted than any layman can understand, and that an increase in the number of primary teachers is dependent upon providing more secondary schools and teachers, and this again on additional universities and better salaries for professors.

It is essential then that the opinion of the administrator be sought, early in the planning operation, on the capacity of the educational system to meet the demands made on it by any proposed plan. This is not to say that his judgement will necessarily be accepted by the government without question. A vigorous and imaginative administrator is no less likely than the national planning expert to pick on a target that will stretch the system to the limit, but not all administrators are in this class, and many will operate more effectively if someone sets for them a goal that is a little ahead of the best they think they can achieve. If it is too far ahead, the result will be disappointment and confusion.

Balance of influences in planning

This conception of educational planning as involving, from the beginning to the end, a complex interplay between the politician, the national development planner, and the administrator¹ is not without its dangers for the administrator. It deliberately blurs lines of distinction that are kept beautifully clear in the 'purer' concept of planning advocated by Dror, 'the process of preparing a set of decisions to be approved and executed by some other organs'. If he is to play a part in the evolution of plans and policies as well as in their implementation, it is important that the educational administrator understand just what his role is at each point and the limits beyond which it would be unwise or improper

1. In this section the term 'administrator' is used in rather a narrower sense than in the earlier part of the booklet where it included the political administrator (minister). Only the career administrator is referred to here. Since the purpose is, in part, to show the relation between the administrator and the government, it would only complicate matters to include the minister, who combines administrative with overt policy-making functions. The administrator is still thought of, however, as a composite figure rather than as an individual.

for him to seek to extend his influence. Conditions will vary from country to country and even for the same individual as the result of a change of minister or of government, and so it is impossible to lay down fixed rules for the administrator as he picks his way delicately over very uncertain ground. What he can do, however, is to extend his normal code of professional ethics to cover the relatively new function of medium and long-range planning. Even this is not a 'code' in the sense of a universally accepted set of rules whose application is immediately obvious in every situation, but there are certain broad principles that the majority of good career administrators in most countries would try to observe in their relations with their ministers and their governments. I see nothing in the new educational planning that makes those principles less applicable there than in more routine operations, although, as in all administration, the less routine the activity the more burden it throws on the judgement and professional conscience of the administrator. These principles are so much a part of the experienced administrator's daily life as to make it unnecessary to recall them to his attention, but unless some of the more important are specifically stated, the definition of educational planning adopted in this booklet will lie wide open to misinterpretation, particularly by those not versed in administration.

The basic principle is obvious: the final overt decisions on plans and major policies lie with the government. No responsible administrator would doubt that it is his duty to carry out the decisions of the government, whether or not he agrees with them. If his disagreement is profound enough to make this impossible, his only alternative is to resign. Were this the whole story the administrator's life would be easy, though dull, but it has already been said that the government's policy on education may have been expressed in terms so vague and general as to leave to the administrator a decision between alternatives that itself makes policy. He can, in case of serious doubt, go back to the chief executive or cabinet for a ruling, but he will not necessarily be thanked if he constantly pesters them, or even his minister, for rulings on problems that they feel he could be expected to solve himself.¹ On other occasions, as was suggested earlier, not even the administrator himself may realize that new policy has been made until he sees the consequences that

1. This, it must be said, assumes that both the minister and the official are fairly mature and experienced persons working within a tolerably stable system. Some of the statements on this and succeeding pages would need to be modified in cases where the minister jealously guarded the power of making all but the most routine decisions and where the official was so insecure as to be afraid to speak his mind.

follow from his having set some apparently innocuous precedent.

In making an important decision within the tenuous limits of a loosely worded plan, the administrator is not free to come to the conclusion that he personally would find most satisfying. He is under an obligation to choose the alternative that he feels the government would have made if it had been faced with the decision and had known all the facts. This may appear to contradict what I said earlier about the capacity of an administrator to make modifications to a plan in the very act of implementing it, but there is no contradiction if one is aware of the real relations between a competent and trusted senior administrator and the government he serves. No government that is doing its proper job of laying down general policy covering all national affairs can have the time or the knowledge to determine the application of its policies in every set of circumstances, and, even when it is making crucial decisions itself, it must often lean heavily on the advice of its top officials. So the administrator, in deciding what the government would have done in any particular instance, is, in nine cases out of ten, estimating what its decision would have been *after listening to his advice*. There may sometimes be only a hair-line between this and making the decision on the basis of his own beliefs, but it is a line no administrator should cross. Much depends on the peculiarly subtle relationship between the senior administrator and his minister. The minister often has quite a wide discretion even on matters of policy, and, if the relationship is one of mutual trust, the administrator can exercise, under him or through him, a considerable influence on the formation of the plan for education and also on the modifications that become necessary in the course of its execution. But what he exercises here is still influence and not power, which continues to reside in the government. So the heading of this section is the 'balance of influences in planning', and not the 'balance of power'.

If the duty of the administrator is to obey, no less basic is his duty to warn and advise, even if his advice is unpopular with those to whom it is given. Since this is a more demanding function than mere obeying, it is more likely to be neglected, especially by the timorous and the uncertain. It sometimes takes a great deal of courage on the part of the administrator and of understanding in the politician to accept the fact that the offering of unpleasant advice is no less a sign of loyalty than is the carrying out of instructions. It is a function that has special significance in long-range planning because of the lasting effects of every decision. Stated baldly, this is all very obvious, but not every country has set up the type of mechanism for planning that makes it easy for the educational

administrator to give advice and warnings at the times when they are most likely to be effective.

The issues on which the administrator's advice will most readily be taken are those of a professional nature, such as the probable effects on the quality of the work in the schools of an increase in the size of classes or a reduction in the length of training of teachers in order to meet an urgent demand for more school places. Here the educational administrator's judgement is more likely to be correct than anyone else's, though he should not be allowed to forget that it *is* a judgement, and so open to question by intelligent laymen; there are few situations in education comparable to the engineer's calculation of the stress under which a girder will break if its diameter is reduced. When the point at issue is one of finance, buildings, or school transport, the career administrator still has behind him the accumulated experience of the department, but the minister will begin to feel himself on surer ground, and on matters touching politics he will almost certainly assume that he is the authority. Nevertheless, the administrator, because of his daily dealings with teachers' organizations, parents' groups, and regional, local and private educational authorities,¹ is in a privileged position to gauge the probable effects of any proposal in the plan upon these powerful bodies, and is, I believe, under an obligation to pass his judgements on to the government, while realizing that the minister, with his trained politician's ear to the ground, may be even more sensitive to such group reactions. The point at which an administrator will stop concerning himself with the political implications of a proposed plan will depend upon the traditional practices in the country, his personal relations with his minister, and his own professional code of ethics.

The educational administrator's relations with the other administrators and specialists involved in devising the national plan are less subtle than this. The representative of every department or agency knows that he is in competition with the rest for monies that come from a limited pool, and the amount of pressure he brings to bear, by argument and persuasion, will depend, in part, upon the effort others are making and, in part, on a shrewd estimation of the point at which additional pressure begins to arouse irritation and resistance in planning commission, treas-

1. To simplify the argument I have, throughout this essay, made too little reference to these bodies. Whether or not they play an active part in the planning process will depend upon government policy and upon local conditions, but the administrator, be he minister or official, would do well, in any event, to consult them, to the extent that his obligations to the government permit, on all matters directly concerning them.

ury, or whatever body has the next decision to make. Since the final decision will be made in cabinet or by the chief executive, the administrator knows that he will probably exercise his greatest influence by working through his minister and he should obviously be perfectly frank about this with the officials of other departments with whom he may be negotiating. All that needs stressing at the moment is that, in practice, the administrator's part in planning is seldom a purely passive one, and that he may operate at several different levels in making the case for a given amount of expenditure on education over the planning period or for a particular distribution of funds within the service for which he is responsible.

At whatever level he is operating, the degree of authority with which the administrator can speak and the weight he may reasonably expect to carry will vary greatly from phase to phase of an extended planning operation. In another place¹ I have, with a deplorable mixture of military terms with medical, considered his participation in planning under three headings—diagnosis, strategy, and tactics. The first two are not in any chronological sense distinguishable from each other, but from the administrator's point of view they are very different activities because of the greater authority he carries in the diagnostic phase. The same headings will serve as a framework within which to summarize the varying functions of the administrator under the definition of educational planning suggested in this booklet.

Diagnosis

The administrator's function in this phase of planning is to assess the capacity of the school system to achieve the goals set for it in any draft plan, within the limits of time and cost proposed in the plan. All ministries of education do this already, however inadequately, in preparing their annual budgets, and any good ministry has a unit for co-ordinating the estimates of the numerous divisions involved. So it would appear reasonable, in any general planning operation, to place the responsibility for estimating a school system's potential for growth on the ministry of education. This becomes all the more necessary when what is in question is not only the capacity to expand the number of institutions and services but also to improve their quality. Raising the quality of the product of the school is becoming increasingly important in the plans of developing

1. C. E. Beeby, *The Quality of Education in Developing Countries*, Chapter VII. Boston, Harvard University Press, 1966.

countries, and for most purposes the educationist could claim to have more knowledge than any other specialist when this is at issue. There is no direct and obvious link between an increase in the amount of money spent on education and the quality of the products, no formula the layman can apply without an intimate knowledge of the capacity of the existing teachers to adopt new methods and achieve new standards and of the problems involved in raising the level of the teaching profession.

So there are good grounds for regarding the educational administrator, with the usual assistance he gets from statisticians and other specialists, as the leading authority during the diagnostic phase of planning. He must, however, remember two things. Like every specialist in the planning game he must be prepared to justify his conclusions to others whose range of interests may be wider than his own. Secondly, his status as the leading authority lasts only so long as he is dealing with the feasibility of a particular proposal; he takes his place with other specialists when its desirability is under discussion, for this will be determined as the result of a balance between educational, manpower, political, and financial factors that go well beyond his field of professional competence. It is at this point that diagnosis shades over into the making of policy and the determination of strategy, though specialists may continue to shuttle between the two phases, since every new strategy tentatively suggested sets off another round of studies in feasibility.

Strategy

This is the phase in which facts and opinions bearing on each major issue are assembled and weighed one against the other, and decisions made, tentatively or finally, that will determine the general direction of all activities coming under the plan. Judged by the amount of influence the educational administrator may expect to exert on them, these decisions fall into two classes, those which fix the total allocation for education over the planning period and those concerned with priorities within the vote for education.

When decisions of the first type are being made the educational administrator must accept a subsidiary role. In making up its mind what proportion of the national budget to devote to education the government is not likely to regard him as its final adviser any more than it would accept without question the partially competing recommendations of the director-general of health or the engineer-in-chief concerning expenditures on hospitals or roads. It will probably seek counsel at

this stage from the treasury official, the economist, or the planning expert, who, whatever their ignorance of education, health, or public works, may be expected to base their judgements on a wider range of considerations than would the normal departmental head. And, when it has weighed the opinions of all its specialists—departmental, financial, or planning—the government may throw into the scales some political argument that will, for good or ill, do more to determine the issue than the technical calculations of any one of them.

The educational administrator comes back a little nearer to the centre of the stage when the priorities and the allocation of funds within the education vote are under discussion, although even here he must realize that, if any choice of priorities is important enough to claim the attention of the top planning authorities, the decision will depend only in part on educational considerations. The question at issue will cover such topics as: alternative target dates for achieving compulsory primary education and the effects of each on the extension or improvement of secondary education; the priority to be given to adult literacy campaigns; the relative weights of technical and humanistic studies in secondary and higher education; the language of instruction; the respective responsibilities of central and of local authorities for education at each level; and, in a backward but rapidly developing country, the perpetual problem of the balance between quantity and quality in the school system. None of these issues can be decided on purely technical grounds within the four walls of a school system. Politicians, economists, manpower specialists, employers, trade unions, teachers' organizations, parents, and press—all must have their say, and every man, at his moment, is an authority on education.

In this maelstrom of opinions and pressures, the administrator is not entirely helpless or without influence on the course of events. No plan starts with an empty page. When any planning commission begins its work there will be educational schemes half finished that must be completed, political commitments that must be honoured, vested interests that cannot be ignored, and obligations imposed by law or custom that cannot be flouted. When he presents to the over-all planning authority his estimates for education over a five-year period, the administrator will give first priority to keeping the machine rolling and meeting the unavoidable escalation that will result from increasing population, rising costs, and the like. However, even in computing these apparently inevitable rises he will find gaps in his facts and figures and will have to rely from time to time on his own judgement, so that the final draft bud-

get he produces will bear, however faintly, some impress of his personal views and values, and the onus will be on any national planning specialist who disagrees with him to prove him wrong.

When he turns from the maintenance of the *status quo* to the costing of the new schemes to be inaugurated during the period of the plan, the educator has rather more elbow room. Some of these schemes may have originated with him or his colleagues, and for most of the others, whatever their origin, he will probably be called upon to put flesh on to the bare bones of a project suggested by a layman. Even if schemes arrive on his desk fully formed he will almost certainly have to cost them, and may well be given the opportunity to comment on them. However minor his authority in particular cases, this constant involvement with the strategy of the plan puts the administrator in a privileged position, and may even give him some slight influence on the total amount of money to be allocated to education. It might appear the logical procedure for a government to determine this total first, and then proceed to distribute it among the various broad divisions of the education service, but one of the factors to be considered in coming to this global decision is the education department's estimate of the cost of maintaining and expanding existing services and of financing the new ones which it seems likely the government will approve. However determined the effort to base the plan upon over-all economic goals, there will always be a marginal area where the quality of the schemes put forward, their political appeal, and the skill with which they are presented will affect the final allocation.

It may be unnecessary to repeat that, whatever influence he exerts in the select company of those who determine strategy, the educational administrator remains, if not the sole champion, at least the professional spokesman for a whole generation.

Tactics

'Tactics' is used here rather than 'implementation' to emphasize the point previously made that planning does not in fact cease with the adoption of a strategy. The difference between strategy and tactics is one of degree, of distance from the front line, rather than the blunt difference between making a decision and carrying it out under orders. It is a moot point, for instance, whether the making of an annual departmental budget should be classified under strategy or under tactics. It could be regarded simply as the application of a portion of a previously determined five-year plan, but, in another sense, the plan is an abstraction until it

is legally embodied in a series of annual budgets that determine the speed at which it shall be applied, the parts which shall be dropped entirely, and the amendments that must be made to adapt it to unforeseen conditions. In the making of the annual budget, where decisions concern means more frequently than ends, the opinion of the administrator normally carries more weight than in the strategic phase, though he is still far from being the government's final adviser.

It is only when attention turns to devising ways and means to carry out specific programmes or projects under the plan that the educational administrator again comes into his own as the central figure in what he regards as still a part of planning. (As one descends from the general national plan to its more specific applications, one finds that what specialists at one level consider to be tactics those at the next lower level may regard as strategy.) Most people would agree that the administrator, with his professional advisers, has more to offer than anyone else when the question at issue is the training of teachers, the inspection of schools, the reform of the curriculum, the place of examinations, the consolidation of rural schools, or the much discussed use of the new educational technology to compensate for a shortage of trained teachers. His opinions may be challenged, but they will be treated with more than average respect. He will occupy much the same position here that he did in the diagnostic phase.

Complexity of planning

This may be a somewhat idealized picture of the part played by the administrator in each phase of planning. It would certainly not be true of every country, much less of every administrator. The form and the traditions of government, the structure of the planning organization, and the play of personalities will create some conditions where the model does not, and perhaps should not, apply. The most that can be said with certainty is that, under any conditions, an experienced educational administrator has a unique contribution to make to planning, and a government would be wise to devise its planning procedures in such a way that he can give his counsel and exercise his influence at the points where he has most to offer. What this booklet has done is to suggest where those points are most likely to be found, and, in so doing, it has inevitably blurred the sharp outlines of planning presented by some other writers.

In an admirably clear article on the theory of educational planning,

Arnold Anderson and Mary Jean Bowman warn us that, although a 'continuing planning process with operational relevance will entail continuous feed-backs of experience', a failure to distinguish analytically between planning, on the one hand, and approving or implementing plans, on the other, can lead 'to endless disputes that confuse what is "really" planning with who does it, or with whether plans are accepted by the policy-making authorities'—and that we can end up in an 'area... entangled in politico-ideological controversies'.¹ I have done just that—and am unrepentant. For the purposes Dr. Anderson and Dr. Bowman had, they could take only the line they did, but for my purposes I did not wish to avoid the entanglements, because I wanted to show educational planning through the eyes of an administrator, who, unhappily, can never ignore them.

The administrator of the future

If this picture of the educational administrator's part in planning is in large measure true, and if, in most countries, planning is destined to be of increasing importance in education, it would seem that the preparation for the most senior posts in a ministry of education in the future must be rather different from what it has traditionally been. Those who come to administration through politics will, of course, continue to be especially sensitive to the political component of planning, and it is a moot point how far such political skills can be learned from books. The administrators who have risen through the ranks of the teaching profession will, for their part, always have the advantage of knowing the schools from the inside, and will, in addition, develop in the course of their work some feeling for political issues and an understanding of the year-to-year financing of a large educational system. Yet, even when administrators of both types combine their experience within a ministry of education, one component of good, modern administration may still be lacking. This is the set of skills involved in seeing the educational system as firmly embedded in the country's over-all plans for social and economic development. No educational administrator worthy of the name has ever been totally insensitive to the relation of his work to the wider interests of society, even before these were expressed in official

1. C. Arnold Anderson and Mary Jean Bowman, 'Theoretical Considerations in Educational Planning', *Educational Planning*, Don Adams (ed.), Syracuse, Syracuse University Press, 1964, p. 6.

plans, but his interest in economic growth has tended to be piecemeal and a trifle amateurish. He will need in the future a more rigorous and professional understanding of the part education can play in his country's economy, which will involve an equally acute perception of the limits beyond which economic criteria should not be pressed.

This does not mean that the man who aspires to be a general educational administrator must become, in the process, an economist, a demographer, or a manpower specialist, but he must know enough about their crafts, their vocabularies and their mode of thinking to understand at least their goals and their conclusions, if not the detailed techniques by which they arrive at them. In the corporate sense in which the term has been used in this essay, 'the administrator' will be the leader of a team that will include specialists who may be able to talk to over-all planners on a fully professional level, but this in itself is not quite enough. The individual administrator who is the chief adviser to the minister of education must understand enough about the techniques of modern planning to help to ensure that the conclusions of the planning experts, whether within his department or outside it, are given their proper weight—no less and no more—in the complex of competing forces from which will emerge the final plan for education. Some of this knowledge can be wrung from daily experience but some can come only from a study of disciplines that have not commonly been regarded in the past as essential to the job. If the educational administrator is to take his rightful place in national planning, he must be prepared to learn the rules of the game as other professions understand it, while still stoutly defending, whenever they be threatened, the values that seem to him proper to education.

Suggestions for further reading

- GROSS, B. M. *The administration of economic development planning: principles and fallacies*. New York, United Nations, 1966. (ST/TAO/series, M/32.)
- HANSON, A. H. *The process of planning: a study of India's five-year plans, 1950-1964*. London, Oxford University Press, 1966.
- KRIESBERG, M. (ed.) *Public administration in developing countries*. Washington, D.C., The Brookings Institution, 1965.
- RIGGS, F. W. *Administration in developing countries*. Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1964.
- SWERDLOW, I. (ed.) *Development administration: concepts and problems*. Syracuse, Syracuse University Press, 1963.
- WATERSTON, A. *Development planning: lessons of experience*. Baltimore, Johns Hopkins, 1965.

Other IIEP publications

The following publications are obtainable from Unesco and its national distributors throughout the world:

Educational Planning: a Directory of Training and Research Institutions
1964. Also available in French

Educational Planning: a Bibliography
1964. Also available in French

Educational Planning: an Inventory of Major Research Needs
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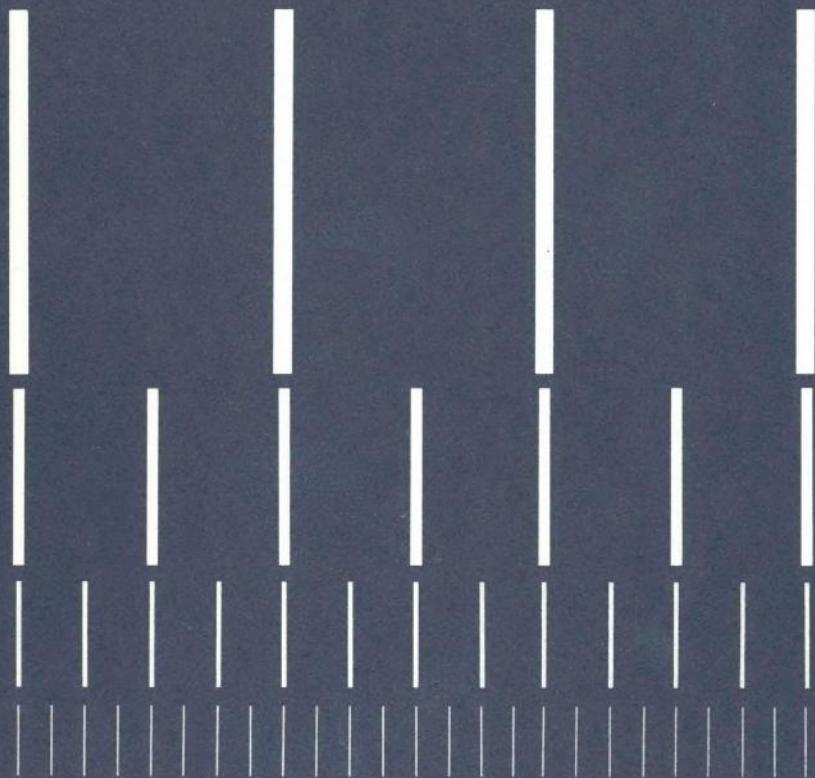
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The booklets in this series are written primarily for two groups: those engaged in—or preparing for—educational planning and administration, especially in developing countries; and others, less specialized, such as senior government officials and civic leaders, who seek a more general understanding of educational planning and of how it can be of help to over-all national development. They are devised to be of use either for self study or in formal training programmes.

The modern conception of educational planning has attracted specialists from many disciplines. Each of them tends to see planning rather differently. The purpose of some of the booklets is to help these people explain their particular points of view to one another and to the younger men and women who are being trained to replace them some day. But behind this diversity there is a new and growing unity. Specialists and administrators in developing countries are coming to accept certain basic principles and practices that owe something to the separate disciplines but are yet a unique contribution to knowledge by a body of pioneers who have had to attack together educational problems more urgent and difficult than any the world had ever known. So other booklets in the series represent this common experience, and provide in short compass some of the best available ideas and experience concerning selected aspects of educational planning.

Since readers will vary so widely in their backgrounds, the authors have been given the difficult task of introducing their subjects from the beginning, explaining technical terms that may be commonplace to some but a mystery to others, and yet adhering to scholarly standards and never writing down to their readers, who, except in some

particular speciality, are in no sense unsophisticated. This approach has the advantage that it makes the booklets intelligible to the general reader.

Although the series, under the general editorship of Dr. C. E. Beeby, has been planned on a definite pattern, no attempt has been made to avoid differences, or even contradictions, in the views expressed by the authors. It would be premature, in the Institute's view, to lay down a neat and tidy official doctrine in this new and rapidly evolving field of knowledge and practice. Thus, while the views are the responsibility of the authors, and may not always be shared by Unesco or the Institute, they are believed to warrant attention in the international market-place of ideas. In short, this seems the appropriate moment to make visible a cross-section of the opinions of authorities whose combined experience covers many disciplines and a high proportion of the countries of the world.

Foreword

C. Arnold Anderson is professor of sociology and director of the Comparative Education Center of the University of Chicago. He has acted as a consultant to Unesco on many occasions, is a member of the IIEP's Council of Consultant Fellows, and took part in the World Bank mission to Kenya. He is the author of numerous books and papers on educational planning and on the sociology of education.

'The purpose of this work', says the author, 'has not been to question the utility of educational planning but rather to question the way it is usually done and to emphasize the importance of many societal factors usually ignored by the planners.' Starting from a firm belief in the need for educational planning, he challenges assumptions and easy generalizations on which practice has often been based. It is too much to expect everyone to agree with all the points he makes, but no one who is interested in the relations of the school to society can read this booklet without being driven to take a closer look at some of his own cherished assumptions. Writing as a sociologist, Mr. Anderson sets out the limits within which he thinks educational planning can be effective, and the limits also to the use of the school system as an instrument of economic and social change. His treatment of these contentious themes will be of particular interest to those who already have some acquaintance with planning in developing countries, but, read in conjunction with other booklets in this series, it should also be of value to the layman who wants to know more about the interplay of theory and practice in this new and rapidly growing field.

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Introduction

Difficulties in educational planning result in large part from exaggerated expectations of what schools can be expected to contribute to national development. High expectations for social benefits from formal education have some common social and intellectual roots with the ideology of formal social planning and reliance upon planning as a technique for social engineering. The expectations persist because too little attention is paid to the complex ways in which schools are connected with the other institutional structures in actual societies. Much the same criticism of educational planning results, moreover, from a rigorous scrutiny on economic grounds of the manpower aspects of education.

In this very brief discussion of some of the sociological limitations on educational planning, conclusions based on more complete analyses are set down briefly and with few supporting illustrations.

Seven topics have been singled out for emphasis:

- Ambiguities in the conceptualization of educational planning
- The multifunctionality of formal education
- Effective training for occupational goals
- Socio-political constraints on educational planning
- Issues of equity and quality
- Schools as instruments for value reorientation
- The social context of education determines its effect.

Ambiguities in the conceptualization of educational planning

The following definition of planning (marking off the logically distinct aspects) is borrowed from Dror: 'The process of preparing / a set of decisions / for action in the future / directed at achieving goals . . .'¹

There are certain key elements in this or related definitions: (a) there is orientation to the future; (b) the focus is on action (rather than, for example, on acquiring knowledge); (c) in that something is being designed, there is deliberative endeavour; by implication, (d) there is interdependence among a set of interlocked decisions; and (e) within this bounded realm of decision, consistency is sought among the elements; finally (f) there is, inescapably, a need to allocate scarce resources among various possible combinations of actions (i. e., costs are always involved).

Planning can be thorough and astute even though implementation of the plans is very poorly done. Obviously a competent planner will allow for probable inefficiencies or tardiness by the agencies responsible for implementation; a plan made without considering such probabilities would hardly deserve the name. Yet to regard implementation as integral with planning confuses the latter with the operation of the educational system. Accordingly, the search for criteria of decision and for congruence among the action-oriented decision factors should be emphasized. Planning is not writing recipes for specific actions. Implicitly, then, one ambiguity has already been stated: confusion of planning with implementation. Certain others will be mentioned briefly, for they are discussed later.

There can be incompatibility between fitting the outputs of schools to manpower aims and striving for social benefits from schooling when both aims are to be embraced within one integral plan—especially when it is also to form part of a more comprehensive plan. One can view educational planning as a component of general economic planning or education can be taken as a separate focus of planning, and in the latter case the goals can be as manifold as the functions education is expected to perform. As should be apparent, one cannot arrange an educational plan for social ends that would

1. Y. Dror 'The Planning Process', *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, Brussels, Vol. 29, No. 1, 1963, p. 51.

also be fitted neatly to such quantitatively elaborated targets as those of manpower planning.

A third ambiguity arises out of the multifunctional character of education. Though many would have schools prepare people for certain specific tasks (as embodied in occupational skills), schools will and must bring about many other kinds of changes in pupils, such as building flexibility in responding to new opportunities. Sometimes an effort is made to escape this dilemma by restricting educational planning to setting outputs by levels only (so many secondary graduates) with only the broadest of specialities on each level. But while this view of the problem may actually lead to the ultimate productivity goals of the planners, it is not consistent with specific schedules of skills to meet manpower targets.

Once definite manpower expectations for a nation's school system are set aside there is a tendency to talk in very broad terms. Thus schools are expected to be adapted to the local society, yet to transform that society into a more developed one. Schools, like other agencies in the society, however, will foster (or at least not uproot) many undesired characteristics in their products; for example, schools encourage individuals to escape from the drudgery of farming and of menial labour—whether or not there are jobs for them. A society must put up with many such undesired outcomes once it puts its faith in formal education, and neither indoctrination of pupils nor manipulation of curricula will dramatically change those outcomes. National leaders hope that modernization will be accompanied by an increase in the proportion of citizens who know how to adapt to new conditions. Schools alone cannot create that kind of men unless other social policies create opportunities and incentives for many individuals to plan for themselves within the broad framework of national goals. But such goals for schools are too broad to be aligned with definite manpower plans; it is virtually impossible for such plans to be converted into specific requirements for schools or courses of study.

One cannot derive definite educational programmes from a set of economic aims for a nation. Only in very broad terms is the adapting of schooling to forecasted jobs the task of the educational system. That responsibility, rather, lies with the employing agencies. It is easier to work out new ways of combining diverse skills, or skills with material resources, than to repeatedly reconstruct a school system. In broad terms one can specify more science, less language,

and so on. In actuality, most statements of national needs for this or that kind of skill are highly unreliable and misleading as regards their implications for specific educational programmes. Moreover, most translations of such needs into specific school plans entail inconsistent specifications for the work of pupils. But even if school work could be more closely tailored to economic specifications, nations would be disappointed because the creation as well as the utilization of human resources depends upon 'know-how'—a quality little fostered in even the best school systems.

The multifunctionality of formal education

In many discussions, even when not in mathematical terms, education is treated as a parameter in an abstract equation. The more common practice, of course, is to narrow education to manpower terms—with a polite bow to its social results. One can have only compassion for leaders of new nations who seek desperately to break the vicious circle of poverty; much of the oversimplification in expectations about education stems from anxiety to obtain rapid development. Looking at real pupils in actual class-rooms we get a more heartening but also a more chastening conception of what schools can do for pupils. Educational planning will remain imprecise just because economic statistics 'capture' few of the capabilities that youth acquire from school. Yet, however indirectly, each of the following functions of schools contributes to economic development.

1. Schools always do play some part in preparing individuals to earn a living and to participate in an evolving occupational structure. They do more to identify who will be eligible for particular occupations than to give specialized preparation for performing in them. General education is the principal preparation for employment, mainly through equipping individuals to absorb specific training.
2. Everywhere schools help introduce the child to his society's culture and they widen his participation from local to national bounds. Most important among these common features—and of increasing importance as technological advance becomes a salient national purpose—are the local variants of the three R's. In much of the world today children must learn new language and number systems and science for which there is no precedent in their parents' lives.

These competencies are as important for knitting a society into a polity as in readying individuals for mechanized production or for accepting the cues to new behaviour mediated by print. In the process schools always indoctrinate pupils, but more important is their widening of children's comprehension of novel situations. Indoctrination may include specific political ideologies, but even the least tendentious stories supply new views.

3. Schools also create individuality. They set the person apart in some or many respects from the culture of most of his fellow citizens. The child learns to explore new worlds imaginatively and to think about and react to new situations and objects. In this process he acquires new loyalties to various groups and ideals. He becomes acquainted with new human models with which to identify. By no means least, children develop new conceptions of their own identity and of their potentialities. They accept new rules of conduct. They acquire confidence for entering into new kinds of experience, often very private ones. Pupils discover that they can cope with intellectual tasks, discovering that there are objective standards of what is correct apart from personal preference. He who learns to see himself in these new ways becomes the more productive worker and the more responsible citizen. Any view of educational planning that does not seek these boons from schooling is myopic.
4. Schools, jointly with other agencies, select and mould the élites who will carry the heaviest responsibilities, local and national. The selecting is more important than the identifying, for few can achieve high positions aided only by school lessons. A modernizing society generates a lengthening roster of roles of varying difficulty and prestige; selecting or identifying persons for different strata of positions and allocating men among the specialities on each level require participation by schools. Therein, of course, lie issues about equal opportunity and fairness.
5. Finally, much of what goes on in schools is designed to perpetuate and improve the educational system itself, to preserve old and introduce new intellectual systems. The schools do this by identifying and producing competence to persist to higher levels of school and by cycling personnel back into the expanding system as teachers. In its higher reaches this cultural function of the schools creates and supports a national 'high culture' and the competence to share in a world culture, whether of diplomacy or

of science. Schools in an advancing society are continually making the competence of previous cohorts of pupils obsolete. Through absorbing new cognitive maps of the world and new affective responses toward both old and new, youth are enabled to acquire the material and non-material marks of modernization.

Most of us would like to believe that a certain increase in the percentage of youth finishing secondary school will be accompanied by a definite increase in national income. But such correlations always turn out to be loose and ambiguous, in part because of this multifunctionality of formal (or non-formal) education. These functions must be seen as supportive of and supported by the social milieu surrounding the schools, a milieu that is also inducing similar or complementary attitudes and skills in people. The school's role in the creation of alert and enterprising individuals is essential yet also only modest. Hence we ask not what is the contribution of education to development but in what ways does education become knit into development processes? The school can be a powerful influence when it is surrounded by a 'development milieu'.

Now it is a simple matter of fact that in all societies individuals' schooling, occupations, and incomes are only moderately correlated—except at the extremes of the occupational scale. Many individuals have certificates from a school but learned little beyond rote lessons; others with less or no formal schooling have by other means become enterprising persons. In part, of course, this situation reflects the fact that some individuals have greater native ability. But also some individuals acquire more of one and others more of another of the various outcomes of schooling.

It is the multifunctionality of schooling that makes the usual specifications for developmental education so unhelpful. One reads that schools should have a 'balanced' curriculum—yet what each pupil learns is quite unbalanced. Education, so it is said, should be adjusted to the needs of the developing society; the curriculum should transmit specifically those skills and attitudes needed to transform the society in the prescribed direction. But when one steps outside the manpower framework—itsself of illusory definiteness—one can find no clear consensus on what national needs are. Even if we could, we cannot specify what particular lessons or methods of teaching would arouse in pupils specifically those needed capacities. One pupil will be drowsy except in the lessons that interest him. The grinding pedant may become an accurate laboratory tech-

nician; the dunce becomes a prospering trader. Schools affect different pupils in bewildering ways. Neat formulas for what schools should accomplish and predictions of how much the growing cadre of secondary graduates will contribute to gross national product are often nullified by events.

Pupils' learning can be sufficiently balanced if the curriculum is diversified and if classes are stimulating. Schools will be adjusted to their society if alert graduates are turned out. One could not prevent schools from being in large measure adjusted or accommodated to the surrounding society, but they need not be wholly so. If the culture is stagnant and hostile to the wished-for technological society, 'unadapted' schools are more likely to lead pupils to become alienated from traditions and receptive to novelty. Certainly also, miserably staffed schools will bring few pupils except the most brilliant or rebellious to new aspirations for their lives. The norm of 'adapted' has little utility for evaluating schools; as often as otherwise it would mean adapting them not to the culture of the pupils' parents but to a way of life that is barely envisaged by a few national leaders. And few schools in so sluggish a society will leave much mark on their pupils' lives unless those lives are also being moved in new directions by other progressive influences around them.

Effective training for occupational goals

Any country that can put a growing proportion of its people to work in productive jobs will have a rising *per capita* income. Unfortunately, training men for new kinds of work does not put them to work. Nor does it bring either the more subtle capabilities for productive work or the non-human factors of production into existence. The most frustrating handicap of under-developed countries is that they lack the resources with which to train a labour force or the men who will know how to use those who are trained. Effective training and useful employment presuppose experienced instructors and a core of men already busy in the new kinds of production. Even when places for use of new skills are at hand, however, there remains the question of the most suitable places in which to provide training.

Several conditions must be met if a country is to have an adequate supply of trained labour. These conditions are difficult to bring about and schools are related differently to each condition: (a) there must

be opportunities for men to use skills and those opportunities must be clearly visible to the potential workers; (b) there must be a differentiated structure of incentives impelling individuals to prepare for the jobs, and these incentives must be proportioned to the importance of the different kinds of jobs in the development process; (c) schooling or training, in sufficient amount and variety, must be provided to turn out the numbers and kinds of skilled men wanted; d) there must be incentives for employers to provide job-linked training for new workers; (e) the social climate must support these conditions by stimulating people to use their competence in a more than routine mood.

A major deficiency in the usual form of manpower planning is that it is carried out in physical units; often this virtually forces officials to fall back upon coercion to obtain compliance with the plans. Technicians draw up lists of supposed needs for various skills without taking any account of how the prices of skills will affect the numbers who will be employed. An associated omission is failure to compare how workers will be used and what they will produce with the cost of training them. The implicit coercion entailed in implementing such prescriptions may be softened by being concealed behind rationing of places in schools combined with rigid educational specifications for each job. Consequently errors in forecasting are aggravated and waste multiplies. The greater the extent to which diversities in outcomes of training or schooling are taken into account, however, the more flexible will be the adjusting of available skills to actual offers of employment.

If plans for schools are tightly linked to projected estimates of skills wanted, the previously mentioned misapprehension that occupation and kind or level of schooling must be closely linked is encouraged. But if the more prudent assumption is made that in most occupations there is a wide range of schooling, training, and ability, the projections for opening schools will have to be in very broad terms. This allows educational planning to go forward more autonomously, gearing into economic ends more on its own terms.

Planning in terms of specific schedules of needed skills leads to exaggeration of the need for the middle and higher levels of skill. This occurs partly because planning procedures were worked out by men from the advanced nations who have forgotten how crude was the labour force that built their own economies. Virtually never does a manpower plan get formulated in terms of how few individuals

with the scarcer skills the developing country can get along with during the next few decades. No doubt, also, the academic bias of advisers to developing countries fosters inflation in the estimates of high-level manpower needs. Few planners, one suspects, have any realization of how adept employers are in utilizing half-trained men. Gearing plans for schools precisely into estimates of needed skills fosters the very rigidity that would prevent flexible adjustment by workers to changing economic circumstances.

Failure to seek flexibility in plans for training and utilizing men in production is associated with a common propensity to think in terms of goals rather than in terms of the steps by which an economy grows. One protection against this bias is to think first in terms of the services to be performed and then estimating the training that will suffice. For example, if the aim is to reduce illness in the population at the least cost, a country needs many sanitarians and nurses but very few physicians. The aim for a poor country is to maximize the flow of services, not the numbers of highly skilled men.

From the foregoing considerations it is clear that determining the variety and place of training for occupations requires a more subtle analysis than the estimating of the amount of trained competence needed. It is fallacious to argue that because development requires human capital, which requires education, a country must set up numerous technical schools. If the skills are standardized, needed in considerable numbers, and widely used, it is efficient to establish trade schools to train men in them. Similar considerations plus the large admixture of science support the establishment of polytechnical schools for the sub-professional occupations. For the very rare specialities that require extended formal education it is wasteful to provide programmes within a country's universities until development is well along. With comparatively few exceptions that reflect special local circumstances, technical streams or schools on the secondary level have low priority. The more vulnerable such skills are to obsolescence, the more wasteful and inefficient it will be to train for them in schools. (The kind of education most likely to suffer from over-investment in technical schools is that for prospective teachers of science.) For most members of the labour force the function of schools is to make them ready to learn specific vocational skills.

By shifting as much of the direct occupational training as possible to programmes run by employers (including public agencies such

as railways), adjustment of the supply of skills to genuine demands for them is more assured. It is the men who will pay for the skills who judge how many and which kinds of trained men are needed. Moreover, there is an enormous saving on teachers since many of them can be senior workers in firms or government offices. Still another advantage is that training is given to committed workers rather than to potential workers; attrition and unnecessary shifting among occupations is minimized. Not least, this approach to manpower training allows the regular schools to concentrate on what they can do best, and most schools in developing countries have all they can do to teach a simple curriculum. The general rule, then, is: locate vocational training whenever possible near the point of use.

Socio-political constraints on educational planning

Education in many of the developing countries may become an exclusively public service. The merits of this arrangement are not debated here, but there are some implications for educational planning. To be sure, by that arrangement all of the educational system is brought within the jurisdiction of the educational planner. On the other hand, the possibilities of the private schools adjusting for the shortcomings of the public system or filling in the gaps are foreclosed. The flexibility and innovation in schools and other training that played so central a part in western economic development cannot operate freely in most countries today.

In a wholly public educational system, though efforts are made to orient schools toward economic development, political criteria often outweigh economic ones in shaping educational policy. On the one hand, high levels of literacy and luxurious universities may be sought for their prestige value in the international scene—even though less ambition in these spheres would release large resources for other development projects. In countries with widespread suffrage, electoral rivalries may encourage spreading educational resources thinly over apathetic populations as well as in areas eager for schools. Thereby the rewarding linkage between local economic advance and local educational progress is weakened. There may be ethnic favouritism in offering places in schools. Rapid expansion may so lower standards that later stages of schooling are handicapped and stu-

dents in local or overseas universities must spend a year or more in remedial work.

However defensible or desirable some of the political accommodations may be, they undermine the congruence between economic planning and educational planning that supplies much of the rationale for the latter. The task becomes one of manœuvring the available resources so as to minimize political unrest. Attention is turned from planning the educational system to implementing decisions taken on neither educational nor economic grounds. Nor do political considerations yield aims as definite as those derived from economic or educational considerations. We may acquiesce in particular political goals for education, and the planner must always take those into account. But when combined with economic goals for education, it may prove exceedingly difficult to meet the planning criteria of congruence, consistency and continuity.

It is primary education that is relied upon to prepare youth to read newspapers, understand national symbols or the allusions of leaders, and participate in electoral and party work. This unifying effect has always been one of the main outcomes of popular education. By comparison, direct indoctrination in political ideologies has rather minor effects; indeed, indirect political socialization may well be most effective. Unquestionably, national consensus does contribute to a developmental plan but that consensus is probably more certainly produced by the normal curricula than by blunt imposition of political dogmas. Moreover, once national leaders come to view schools as captive audiences for exhortation, they will press for more and more time to be given to it. If the argument that schools form a citizenry more effectively by indirect routes is persuasive, educational planners may be more ready to set forth the view that time used for explicitly political teaching would be better used for science or other pragmatic subjects.

Those nations that have strong local or tribal cultures contending for dominance face an additional political complication. Or there may be the task of starting all pupils off in their vernacular tongue. If emphasis is given to 'localizing' the school lessons rather than to focusing mainly upon the universalistic three R's and other foundations of a technological society, leaders face a dilemma. Commonly the only truly local material is the tribal; yet inclusion of such lore in lessons may subvert the drive for national consensus. Official encouragement of traditional materials (beyond a modest extent in

literature, geography, or history courses) will make it difficult for educational planners to reach any firm estimates of what competence graduates of the schools will have in mathematics, science, or other subjects assumed to prepare for vocational life.

Education is effective, to reiterate, largely to the degree that it leads people to use newspapers, books, advertising, agricultural leaflets, and other forms of print. Hence the common practice of rationing and controlling newspapers (especially the local ones) and discouraging advertising by business firms diminishes the enjoyment individuals receive from their literacy. Most of the infinity of activities that make up development go on within very local settings. To relate himself to the opportunities or demands of development requires that an individual be able to interpret local events he can understand within a wider context. This presupposes local as well as national printed information, explanation, and debate. The alertness that is expected to flow from schooling will not appear if men are expected to act where they live yet to receive information mainly from a centralized press and mostly in a national context. Thereby much of the anticipated pay-off from schooling in terms of practical competence will be lacking; consequently the projections of competence for economic roles upon which the planner was counting will prove wildly exaggerated.

Within the administrative sphere also there are some serious political hindrances to educational planning. Where the overwhelming proportion of educated men are employed in the civil service, their potential contributions to policy are in large part neutralized by the convention of civil service neutrality. Both the emergence of innovation and its conversion into practice become blocked when virtually all decisions must pass through the meandering corridors of government offices. Centralized decisions lengthen the distance of the decision-maker from the circumstances about which decisions must be made. If decisions are taken away from the local habitat of activities, the net contribution to growth processes per secondary or university graduate diminishes. It is not without significance that many more countries provide courses in public administration than in business management—thus, incidentally, increasing their need for expatriate managers.

Hence the projections of correlations between outputs from schools and rates of economic growth will prove disappointing, because so few of the highly trained men have a chance to make autonomous

decisions regarding the activities on which they have the most intimate knowledge. Within the economic sphere in both free-enterprise and socialist systems, the problem of decentralizing decisions to effectively smaller and more local centres is a challenge.

A vigorous nation needs to have continua of communication throughout its parts rather than a hiatus between citizens and decision-makers. Ideas and information must flow between local and central areas and among local areas. A long chain of intermediary individuals is needed in both public and private spheres; this is the less often mentioned theme in the repeated lament that developing countries cannot find enough middle-level personnel. If these networks of communication are too thin, the anticipated pay-off from an expanding educational system will be less than in societies that spread educated men more evenly among communities and along the hierarchies of communication and control.

Issues of equity and quality

In order for a society to obtain and operate a modern economy its people must acquire the necessary skills, but the quality of those skills can be ensured by more than one means. As remarked at several places, the readiness of employers to efficiently use and improve their workers is one important means. Maintaining standards in schools is another means; this is discussed at length below. Third, efforts can be made to widen educational opportunities so that progressively larger parts of the population become the recipients of programmes to improve human resources. But this last policy gives rise to bothersome questions, for a country in the earlier stages of development cannot offer schooling impartially to all categories of people and to all localities and at the same time obtain the maximum flow of skills at tolerable levels of cost. We proceed first to explore some of the different and often incompatible conceptions of equity and efficiency in schooling. (When educational planning is brought into the picture we must consider also the question of freedom of choice in education and jobs.)

There are at least four distinct conceptions of equity:

1. Give each child the same amount of schooling. No country seriously follows this policy; where it seems to approximate such a situation qualitative distinctions are introduced.

2. Give a certain minimum schooling to each child—eliminating the persistent local pockets of complete ignorance—but allow the more responsive areas or families to obtain more schooling.
3. Assure each individual sufficient education to reach his potential for mental development. No country has ever seriously striven for this goal unless it defines 'potential' in traditional academic terms that tacitly exclude most children. All school systems rest on assumptions as to which potentials (and whose) it is most worth while to invest in.
4. Give each child schooling so long as his gain in learning (for given inputs of money or teachers' time) reaches some agreed upon amount. In practice the norm is defined usually in terms of passes on examinations. This is equity among those children possessing the appropriate talent. Those judgements likewise rest on conventional notions of what it is worth while for children to learn in school. There is an alternative criterion that manpower and educational planners are curiously reluctant to use: continue educating children so long as their projected life-production value exceeds (by an agreed amount) the costs of their training. (Much of the cost is for teachers, especially the opportunity costs represented by what those teachers could contribute in a different employment.)

The equity criteria shade into the efficiency ones; thus the first norm listed below is an alternative version of the fourth one above.

1. Admit pupils beginning with those judged to have the greatest potential for learning and proceed to the point at which obtainable resources to support schools are used up. (This implies choosing pupils rather than districts for subsidy.) Some children learn more than others, and the higher skills do not need to be so plentiful as the lower ones. The fourth equity norm above is really an efficiency norm in that ability to learn becomes defined narrowly. Developing countries may be tempted to focus mainly upon that learning which is assumed to be most closely related to productivity. Yet to offer educational opportunities on the basis of talent is no more equitable—however much more efficient it may be for the society—than to allocate opportunities by sex or race.
2. Provide schools mainly or first to those subpopulations or localities from which a given educational investment will evoke the largest response: persistence in school, good marks, and demand for still more schooling. Where there is the most interest in schools,

as we know, the extra-school environment is also most supportive of schools. By favouring the already leading districts or social groups, however, equity norms are violated. Yet this second efficiency norm appeals to planners because public interest in schools varies with the level of economic dynamic in an area.

3. Priority investments in schools should be in the levels and locations where returns in productivity most exceed costs. And such investment should be extended so long as the excess of benefits over costs of schooling equals or exceeds that from alternative investments. Clearly this third efficiency criterion is the most definitely economic. While it is difficult to make accurate application of this criterion, the attempt must be made if educational planning is to be more than a shibboleth. The second efficiency norm is the one most closely linking intra-educational allocation with economic development, but the third one is most useful in setting the total investment for schools.

Questions about freedom of choice arise with any governmental system of education. Free choice among publicly subsidized schools combined with freedom to establish private schools could resolve some of the dilemmas here. But other problems could be aggravated; thus in some developing countries permissive policies on opening schools have multiplied inferior schools beyond justifiable limits. Moreover, a country would still have to face questions of selection for schools by ability, and schooling would be distributed in part by families' willingness and ability to pay for them. (It is uncertain how much different that distribution would be from the existing one in most developing countries.)

Some manpower planners and other writers favour authoritative direction of pupils or students into what are judged to be the priority fields. And surely it is easier to believe that equity has been harmonized with efficiency if assumed manpower requirements are used as the guide, provided one can ignore the fact that many qualified individuals are being rationed out of the kind of schooling they prefer and for which they may be better qualified. Restriction on freedom of choice always has severe reactions upon motivation. Much of the tortuous effort to balance supply with estimated requirements for different kinds of skills could be avoided if heavy investments were made in supplying pupils with abundant information on occupations. What is stipulated here is information, not guidance; the latter requires a large staff of scarce specialized teachers. It

presupposes also that the counsellors are good social psychologists, that they really have reliable knowledge about occupational opportunities, and even that they are able to determine the effects of their actions upon future demand-supply relationships.

Within the context of the considerations being explored in this section, it is important to notice that the prevalent practice of working out educational plans on the national, aggregate level ignores innumerable inequities and inefficiencies within and among the districts of a country. Yet if some kind of harmonization between those two norms is attempted for each district, the over-all national congruence between educational and other plans will be reduced. It was remarked earlier that combining non-economic with economic aims for education in planning eliminates much of the seeming definiteness that appeared to inhere in the manpower forecasts to which school plans were to be adjusted. In the same way, the attempt to harmonize equity with efficiency considerations will produce incongruence. In both examples, part of the maladjustment represents inconsistency between short and long-run plans, but a larger part reflects the impossibility of achieving unambiguous programme specifications when more than one goal on the benefit side is considered. (Only at an advanced state of affluence can a society achieve a reasonably good balance among these opposed goals.)

Considerations of equity versus efficiency are linked in turn with problems about the quality of schools. Until a fairly advanced stage of development, the spread of education through a population increases the gaps in schooling among subpopulations: villages and cities, less and more prosperous districts, upholders of old and of new values, poor and rich. It is often said, in the face of these imparities, that at least the country can make sure that those who graduate from its schools meet satisfactory standards even if few can become graduates. Where the local culture does not appreciate the importance of quality in school performance, policing of minimum standards can be defended. But fidelity to 'high' academic standards can also give rise to serious dilemmas.

Schools are expected both to select pupils for advancement in the system and to allocate them among types of school or curriculum on any given level of the system. Selection may rely in varying mixture upon teachers' estimates, external examinations, ability to pay, or interest. Using the same sorts of indicators, often combined with largely mythical assumptions about 'types of minds', pupils are ad-

judged capable of finishing the grammar stream or as most suitably directed into a vocational or other course. Clearly, selection and allocation are interlinked. And of course the criteria used in either process may vary in validity and reliability.

If the means of selection are very narrow (or bookish), for example, allocation among kinds of schooling must be inefficient since most of the potential range of pupils' capabilities have not come under scrutiny. This consideration is crucial for those who desire that schools prepare youth for other than academic sorts of jobs. Seldom is the validity of these criteria tested by examining the adult vocational success of pupils with different amounts or kinds of schooling. Yet if qualifications for occupations are stipulated narrowly or preponderantly in terms of formal education, the congruence between schooling and anticipated productivity of these individuals in their employment will be lowered. Indeed, to make entry to jobs depend closely on certificates is to put an undue part of the task of both selection and allocation of individuals among adult roles upon the schools. After all, formal schooling is only a moderately good predictor of economic performance apart from the highest and lowest categories of jobs. If educational planning is carried out in terms of definite specifications of school certificates fitted precisely to predicted indexes of productivity for various classes of workers, the very definiteness that is assumed to inhere in educational planning will be frustrated. In countries with too few school places to satisfy existing aspirations, it is also a widespread practice for individuals to take a vocational course, for example, as second choice but to use it to move into a different sort of employment—a very costly way of producing poor clerks.

Thus, basing educational policy or plans preponderantly upon certificates and examination results violates both efficiency and equity norms. The examination marks are commonly very unreliable. Elaborate systems of examinations encourage narrow conceptions of talent and competence. They are mediocre predictors of vocational performance except in very similar kinds of behaviour. The standards they do in fact uphold often have little relevance to the need of developing countries for innovative men or the prime need to improve the utilization of available manpower. Examination systems commonly discourage flexibility and reinforce conservatism. Combined with the planner's penchant for copying Western standards of competence for occupations, formal schooling is usually prolonged beyond necessity.

It is overlooked often that a high rate of wastage in schools (especially elementary) may be in part the price a country pays for the search process to identify pupils ready and aspiring for further education. An efficient and honest examination system is also costly. If that cost is to be justified and the search process improved, some of the familiar effects of external examination systems have to be combated, though where places are fewer than applicants by a wide margin most of these deleterious effects must be suffered.

Efforts to maintain standards in school systems create tensions among teachers on different levels of the system. Each teacher is supposed to instruct the pupils in certain matters that are useful to all citizens, but at the same time a certain proportion of pupils must be qualified for advancement to the next grade or level. Thus, an elementary teacher may try to use real-life materials to make her classes interesting and to encourage pupils to venture outside the standardized syllabus. Although she has little voice in choosing the pupils who will be accepted into secondary school, she knows that she will be judged by how well her pupils do in the next class or school and in the leaving examination. Naturally she hesitates to depart from the beaten path even if she is so fortunate as to know how to do so. Thus, the mechanism that is set up to validate certificates of competence for graduates operates to narrow and aridify the content of lessons, however broad the syllabus. The multifunctionality latent in schools (spoken of in an earlier section) is attenuated by the efforts to build an orderly school system turning out certified and hopefully standardized graduates.

It may help to see schools against the broader socialization process that works in every society toward both homogenizing individuals and differentiating them from each other. The historic emergence of formal schools has systematized that dual process. Schools diffuse a common culture among the growing generation, but they also identify individuals to be trained for specialized functions. The equity norm is more suited to the homogenizing function of schools, while efficiency norms relate more to creation of specialized persons, though both norms are relevant to each task.

Children's aspirations to persist in school reflect individual appreciation of opportunities to rise above the populace, but continual extension of schooling throughout the population reflects social determination not to allow privileged élites to consolidate their position. Extension of schools into districts displaying little readiness

to use them will lower the correlations between schooling and occupation upon which the planner relies. Strict examination standards and close articulation among levels of schools on the basis of those examinations (i. e., selection) will raise the correlations. Yet, at the same time, a highly selective school system relying upon academic examinations may diminish the total influence of schools upon individuals' lives, and it will diminish the aggregate effect of schools upon economic growth.

Schools as instruments for value reorientation

Only if schools give individuals more than simple skills in literacy and a few rudimentary vocational operations will those individuals be able to participate fully in development. Schools make their largest contribution by widening the horizons of youth, by giving them a capacity to empathize with new human situations, and by preparing them to share in innovative activity. We know all too little about how to bring about these kinds of learning or even how to find out whether schools have done so. The basic developmental changes are not the introduction of steel mills and airlines but the sprouting of thousands of new small enterprises and farms.

The most challenging task is not to introduce one or another sort of school system into a society, though some kind has to be implanted as the base for other changes. The essential task of the educational planner is to root the educational system in a complex matrix of influences making at once for change and also for new kinds of stability-influences related more to appropriate use of trained men than to projecting how many need to be trained. Schools conserve new along with old values; they stabilize new social patterns at the same time as they foster receptivity to change. The planners' task is not to find out what schooling has contributed to growth in some advanced country during the past half century or so but to calculate the pay-off in his own country from the kind of graduates his school system can turn out. He has to figure out what is the change-potential built into the graduates in his country.

Preparing pupils for practical activities has been an issue about which much controversy has swirled in development circles. It is widely assumed that by implanting new values in pupils, particularly by means of some kind of vocational education, the proportion of

educated but untrained graduates can be reduced. This argument is linked often with the contention that a new nation must have a new kind of education, quite different from the one implanted by colonial rulers or a former ruling group. Only brief reflexion is needed, however, to realize that independence supplies no recipe for education. Perhaps, even, with independence a country can more freely copy specifically the kind of education that seemingly brought development to the advanced countries. Understandably, leaders of new nations or of those newly determined to modernize wish to have an educational system adapted to their own customs and aspirations. Indeed, schools are always coloured by the surrounding society, and a school system that is functioning effectively in a society will be localized to its milieu.

But leaders wish also to produce a technological society, and that aim forces them to rely largely upon models created in the more developed societies. Obviously a useful education will be adapted to the society in which it operates. But it does not follow that literary sorts of schooling must be avoided. It is not easier, and no more contributive to development, to teach carpentry than arithmetic; neither is intrinsically the more practical. The economic and social needs of a developing society are numerous and diverse. It profits us little to try to inventory such needs and then deduce the most appropriate kinds of school lessons.

Another misleading slogan is that lessons should deal with objects instead of words. Though objects clearly have priority over words, the most important outcome of schooling is ability to conceptualize and to manipulate symbols. A sounder variant of this position is to call for increased attention to science, as the foundation for modern technology and efficient social organization. Yet science can be taught as bookishly as Latin; when laboratory work consists of demonstrations by a menial assistant, pupils will gain little respect for the pragmatic and experimental aspects of science.

Most arguments about adapting schools to the local society and its needs are fallacious or equivocal. To be sure, if graduates held poorer jobs typically than non-graduates, we would suspect the school system was of little or even negative utility. But the usual situation is the opposite. It is always difficult to decide whether schools are congruent with the society; we are in fact unable to make that judgement about our own Western societies. Schools can undergird a renaissance of local traditions but prepare pupils poorly for participat-

ing in modernizing changes. Those citizens longest in contact with the West may be served well by the schools while the mass of the population are little affected by such schooling as they receive. The 'fitness' of schools can change without any alteration in them because local people come belatedly to appreciate how schools can serve their aspirations.

When one tries to think out what effects schools can exert on pupils' values, the fundamental question is: to what society are schools to be adapted? The ways of life of pupils' parents supply few clues for what should be taught, if technological progress is the aim. The children are being prepared to live in a society that as yet can be found in only a few localities of their nation. Except in the 'growth nodes' of the society, the efforts of schools to give that preparation will receive little support from influences outside the schools. And this means, to return to the planning context, that the productive potential of graduates must be given lower weights than for formally similar graduates in more advanced societies. Yet the individual who finishes university, for example, can in a developing society earn much more relative to a secondary graduate than his counterpart in Europe. The last two statements are not inconsistent.

School officials can legitimately object to being judged preponderantly by how well graduates function in the world of work. For all the reasons given throughout this paper, the efficiency with which graduates are utilized depends mainly upon decisions and operations outside the schools. Moreover, unemployment of graduates may occur because political decisions have overexpanded the schools. Unrealistic wage structures may have been imposed on employers who therefore hire fewer men, or employers may not yet have learned how to use the better labour force that is being made available to them by the slowly improving schools. Graduates may be ineffective also because the peripheral learning that so permeates schools in advanced countries has not yet taken root; this again is a reason for being sceptical of the employment significance of school certificates.

When vocational education is under discussion, there should be as much concern for implanting attitudes of workmanship as in teaching specific skills, for attitudes and motives determine how skills will be used. In planning vocational training on the secondary level, for example, a ministry can choose among policies or combinations of them: (a) schools can be set up to train in specific crafts (tractor-driving or carpentry); (b) schools can focus on teaching

science (including having pupils construct their own apparatus); (c) pupils from the first year in school can be given mechanical toys and science kits (graded to their maturity); learning that is play may be the most effective; (d) various sandwich courses and on-the-job programmes can be encouraged—though these are most useful at post-secondary ages; (e) a few, including the writer, come out strongly for putting large educational investments into provision of information about occupations.

The choices range from turning out men with definite skills ready for employment to relying upon schools to prepare people to receive specific training. The latter alternative expresses a view heard more often from employers than from others; from most employees effective learning for work begins with taking a job. General and vocational education are not substitutes but complements. This leads to policies that encourage flexibility in utilization of men. It also is to say that individuals should postpone occupational choice as late as the society can allow them to remain out of employment. Needless to say, it simplifies the planner's task while making it also less essential, for he is not then obliged to forecast and schedule particular curricula (below a fairly high level of school). He can turn much of the scheduling, forecasting, and training over to employers. The problem becomes as much or more one of inducing employers to hire men and making it worth while for employers to provide training than of central planning of programmes in practical education.

But it is over the appropriate kind of schooling for village children of peasants that the fiercest controversy has raged. There is widespread advocacy for orienting curricula in village schools mainly toward work on the land and increasing respect for farming as a way of life.

However, the percentage of rural children who will be drawn into non-farm jobs varies widely over a country and changes quickly in any given locality. It is wasteful to teach the craft of farming to children who will go to towns; what they need is readiness to absorb other kinds of training. Even those who remain in villages will benefit little from imitating their parents' tillage practices in school gardens; in fact they will be repelled by the drudgery. If it is an improved farming that is to be taught in the village schools—assuming peasant parents would tolerate that 'waste' of time—how will a country find teachers who will know which improved farm practices are suitable for the particular locality to which they happen to be posted?

At the same time, the village teacher—who usually is less well educated or trained than other teachers—must struggle to make sure pupils learn the simple three R's.

It is futile to blame schools for the flow of youth to towns; the accusation was proved groundless in the West decades ago. It is education as such, not particular lessons, that motivates pupils to migrate—assuming that push prevails over pull. One can imagine lessons that hold agriculture in respect, but not to the degree that migration would be restrained. One would like schools to teach respect for physical labour, though no school system and few individual schools in any society succeed in that aim. The function of education in general and the appeal of schooling for individuals is that it supplies an escape from physical labour.

In the political domain, pupils can come to share certain bases of consensus and possibly even certain ideologies; there we are concerned with common values. But in the vocational domain, the individual is concerned with his private and separate career. His success depends upon his capacity to calculate and to decide as an autonomous agent—particularly the majority of individuals who are self-employed. Schools can seldom implant vocational preferences that run counter to opportunities that are visible to the individual. But, once more, this argues for flexible allocation of individuals to training and for planning in broad categories of education and work rather than in terms of specific occupations.

The interrelated problems that have been under discussion in this section must be viewed from within the schools as well. First of all, there is the familiar shortage of qualified teachers—a shortage that will persist into fairly advanced stages of development or even longer. In most countries, few teachers can instruct in more than rudimentary topics of the basic syllabus. With all the handicaps in teaching the core subjects, for schools to attempt also to try to manipulate attitudes would quickly overload the curriculum. The quality of education in most schools will long be so low that all suggested new tasks for the schools must be viewed with reserve.

In the last analysis, individuals are prepared for living in a new and more open and changing society not by indoctrination in values but by learning the skills that will prepare them to continue to learn in the new society.

The social context of education determines its effect

Social scientists who study education differ as to the importance of formal education for social change, and even the same writer takes different positions according to the particular issue. Is schooling, in the short-run and in the long-run, more determined by than determining of the main features of a society? Obviously, until a society has developed over generations an elaborate system of formal education and auxiliary training, together with the other cultural influences of complex societal life, it will not possess a complex technology and a highly productive economy. But development consists of a succession of short-runs. As in walking, it may be education that leads out the first step, or it may be the economy or the polity; at any moment it will be difficult to decide which 'foot' brought the country to its present spot. In sustained development all these factors support each other. The question as to the effect of education is thus circular and really unanswerable.

If one turns this another way, the effect of education on a society depends largely upon the readiness of non-educational institutions to make use of the capacities that schools have implanted in pupils. All adults in an oil-rich country could be secondary graduates, yet be unable to carry out complex production except under guidance of expatriates. In countries without that special natural resource, a high level of average education cannot be achieved unless the population produces most of the resources to support schools step by step along the way. There is not a high correlation between countries' level of schooling and their *per capita* incomes—and the latter may be the prior factor. Skills function only as incorporated in broader patterns of behaviour; whether this behaviour will be learned and used well is only in small part determined by formal education. It follows that it is misleading to try to keep education and economic processes closely in balance; to the extent that this can be accomplished, the adjusting element will seldom be the school.

It is asserted often that peasants' children in developing countries reject farming as an occupation and that sons of manual workers strive single-mindedly for white-collar jobs. Actually, as studies in Africa and elsewhere show, farming ranks among rural youth ahead of many white-collar jobs. If peasants' sons can count on getting some land with capital and credit in localities with good market

opportunities, many will view farming favourably. Yet, if the often-recommended indoctrination of rural pupils actually succeeded, too many would be kept in rural areas and opportunities would be even scarcer than now. At the age when vocational choices are made, moreover, few pupils will be both interested in becoming modern farmers and confident that they succeed in doing so. Where market incentives are expanding, schools can be useful auxiliary influences. Urban youth are no less realistic; however strongly they crave the more attractive jobs, they adjust their expectations to the shifting job markets.

All these considerations set forth in this section constitute a plea for making school systems flexible. Vocational qualifications should not be tied to a particular course of study or certificate. Secondary schools should normally have only a broad differentiation of curricula. General education should predominate heavily on the secondary level—including therein a strong emphasis on science. Pupils should be able to take varied courses and shift easily among curricula. Educational careers should not be determined at a young age nor by one or two tests. There should be more than one academic road to most vocations and diversified linkages between formal schooling and specialized training at work. A fluid society will be fostered by a fluid educational system.

Education has to be linked to the interests that are the stuff of development. Where people are demanding schools—at least where they keep their children in school—we can usually be confident that development is already occurring. Wastage is least in the areas with highest average rates of enrolment. Appreciation of schooling is mainly a reflexion of experienced or directly observed opportunities to use what the school offers in activities that will contribute to development. This is why educational planning needs to be done for local areas as well as for the whole nation, but it is also why planning will be imprecise.

Few Westerners realize how modest was the independent contribution of schools to economic development in their own countries before the most recent decades. Though the network of schools was thin and their quality poor, there were nevertheless many other inducements to accept new ideas and to enter into new kinds of production. There were many living models of success for youth to emulate. The cultural impoverishment in this broader sense in most developing countries (outside the capitals) is difficult to com-

prehend. Even when observed, its importance as a hindrance to development is often underestimated. In frontier United States, for example, there were newspapers; some lawyers, physicians, clergy, teachers; and there were many educated mothers. Often there were libraries, lyceums, workingmen's institutes, and the like. Few developing countries have begun as yet to acquire these for the hinterland communities. In the West, those influences rested on a spreading literacy but they also made literacy functional. Schools under such conditions had to assume only a modest socialization task, for the bulk of the stimuli to change were outside schools.

The concentration of the best-educated men in central cities and in official positions in developing nations reduces the impact of each of them upon the society. There are few vigorous economic, political, and cultural activities in local areas linked in with the élite groups of the capital. Hence the importance of encouraging local newspapers, devolution of economic decisions, and active organs of local government as nourishment for vigour in local life—where most people live. Only when these amenities—as they are so inadequately labelled—have spread, will formal education yield most of its potential benefits. Educational planning is an inevitable feature of complex societies that are attempting to establish a large, diversified, and integrated educational system. The planning may be done by a central government bureau, solely by local officials acting under national legislation, or even by responsible private groups. The purpose of this work has not been to question the utility of educational planning, but rather to question the way it is usually done and to emphasize the importance of many societal factors usually ignored by the planners.

In its conventional form educational planning is linked too intimately with manpower planning; for that and other reasons it takes on a too subordinate place in over-all national policy. To conceive of educational planning as mainly the implementation of forecasts of numbers of men who need to be trained for different occupations is at the same time to overlook other important effects of education and to tie educational programmes to unreliable and often misperceived development priorities. Educational planning is less concerned with ensuring the proper flows of men into occupations than with establishing effective linkages of schools to programmes for the utilization of trained men and to other social forces contributing to modernization.

There will always be a large statistical component in educational planning. But that part of the work should focus on tracing the 'flow dynamics' of pupils and teachers of varying kinds through the educational system. These analyses are fully as complex as manpower forecasts, but they are more pertinent to the crucial decisions that must be made in expanding or shrinking and in articulating different educational programmes. As pointed out often in the preceding pages, many operations that will root schools firmly in their societal milieu are unrelated to or even opposed to most of the considerations dealt with by manpower planners.

This booklet has opposed many popular proposals to add to the work of schools in developing countries made for the laudable purpose of making pupils more practical in their outlooks. In some cases it was contended simply that ill-prepared pupils and teachers could not carry a heavier burden than the core items of the curriculum. In other cases the argument was that the suggested policies would introduce too much rigidity into the educational system. The plea was to allow schools more autonomy. If schools are allowed to concentrate on 'their proper work', they will turn out a more broadly educated generation ready to enter into practical training programmes. This permissive approach is more likely to bring the much-desired 'social' benefits of schools, and at the same time contribute more surely to economic development while not being smothered by narrowly conceived economic demands.

Suggestions for further reading

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Other IIEP publications

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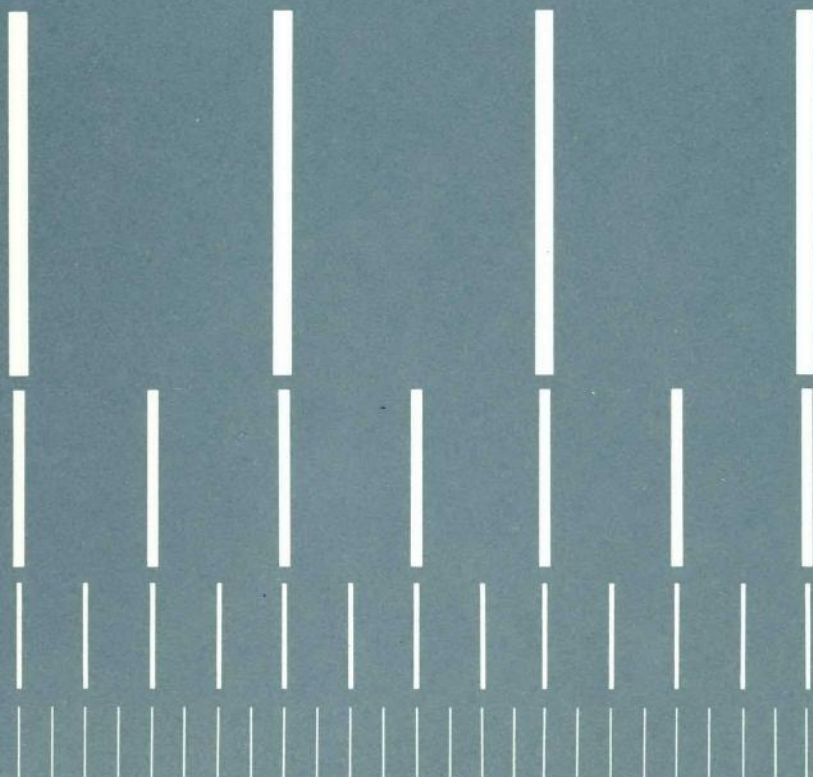
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Fundamentals of educational planning

The booklets in this series are written primarily for two groups: those engaged in—or preparing for—educational planning and administration, especially in developing countries; and others, less specialized, such as senior government officials and civic leaders, who seek a more general understanding of educational planning and of how it can be of help to over-all national development. They are devised to be of use either for self-study or in formal training programmes.

The modern conception of educational planning has attracted specialists from many disciplines. Each of them tends to see planning rather differently. The purpose of some of the booklets is to help these people explain their particular points of view to one another and to the younger men and women who are being trained to replace them some day. But behind this diversity there is a new and growing unity. Specialists and administrators in developing countries are coming to accept certain basic principles and practices that owe something to the separate disciplines but are yet a unique contribution to knowledge by a body of pioneers who have had to attack together educational problems more urgent and difficult than any the world had ever known. So other booklets in the series represent this common experience, and provide in short compass some of the best available ideas and experience concerning selected aspects of educational planning.

Since readers will vary so widely in their backgrounds, the authors have been given the difficult task of introducing their subjects from the beginning, explaining technical terms that may be commonplace to some but a mystery to others, and yet adhering to scholarly

standards and never writing down to their readers, who, except in some particular speciality, are in no sense unsophisticated. This approach has the advantage that it makes the booklets intelligible to the general reader.

Although the series, under the general editorship of Dr. C. E. Beeby, has been planned on a definite pattern, no attempt has been made to avoid differences, or even contradictions, in the views expressed by the authors. It would be premature, in the Institute's view, to lay down a neat and tidy official doctrine in this new and rapidly evolving field of knowledge and practice. Thus, while the views are the responsibility of the authors, and may not always be shared by Unesco or the Institute, they are believed to warrant attention in the international market-place of ideas. In short, this seems the appropriate moment to make visible a cross-section of the opinions of authorities whose combined experience covers many disciplines and a high proportion of the countries of the world.

Foreword

John Vaizey is professor of economics at Brunel University, London, Director of the Acton Society Trust, and a member of the Institute's Council of Consultant Fellows. He has taken an active part in many conferences and meetings on educational planning organized by Unesco and OECD, and has been a member of Unesco missions to developing countries. He is a member of the United Kingdom National Commission for Unesco. He is author of a large number of books and papers, and his 'The Costs of Education' and 'The Economics of Education' are standard works on the subjects.

John Chesswas spent nineteen years in the education service of Uganda; he spent a long time as Provincial Education Officer, Buganda, and finished as Officer in Charge of the Educational Planning Unit within the Ministry of Education. He is now an associate staff member of the Institute, and recently took part in one of its missions to Africa.

These writers represent the two streams of experience that have merged to create modern educational planning. The most prolific writers in this field, understandably, are men whose home base is a university or other institution in a developed country. Many of them have had extensive experience as advisers, consultants, or research workers in a variety of places, but, with few exceptions, it is a different group of men who have struggled, over a long period of years, with the day-to-day problems of administering and planning educational systems in developing countries.

Obviously, both groups have a great deal to offer to the theory and practice of educational planning, and to the training of a new generation of planners whose experience should eventually be less

patchy than that of the pioneers. This is the first booklet in the series to be published in what might be termed a 'double-decker' form, in order to present both points of view on a specific problem within two covers. The first essay is a generalized treatment of costing by an authority whose experience specially fits him for the task; the second is a description of the costing of plans as it actually occurred in a developing country. It is not, be it noted, simply a matter of confronting the 'theorist' and the 'practical man'. Anyone reading John Vaizey's contribution must sense the wealth of practical experience that lies behind it, and John Chesswas is no stranger to the theory of planning. What are being brought face to face here are two different kinds of experience.

Nor is the second part designed to be, in the text-book sense, an illustration of the theories or generalized statements made in the first. That would have involved the trimming or tailoring of one part or the other to ensure a proper 'fit', which would have thwarted the whole purpose of the publication. Mr. Vaizey's article is no high-flown theorizing but a generalized guide to practice, but Mr. Chesswas makes it clear in his opening paragraph that, while practice conformed to the general lines of the theory, there were many respects in which it diverged. In that particular setting, some problems in Part I did not arise; others, as he frankly states, 'were simply never thought of', and sometimes, when facts were lacking, intelligent guessing took the place of calculation. Mr. Vaizey would have expected this to be so, and Mr. Chesswas makes no claim that the particular bit of costing he describes is an ideal model. He himself suggests ways in which it might have been improved, and also shows how the costing was simplified (and thereby limited) by 'making the assumption that the education system would remain basically the same as that which existed'. The virtue of this contribution is that it is a straightforward account of how an able and experienced ministry of education in a developing country did in fact cost its plans.

It seemed to the International Institute for Educational Planning that the two statements would both gain from being presented side by side. The booklet is offered primarily for the training of planners, but, since most of us still stand in need of training in one branch or other of educational planning, it may be of interest to the seasoned as well as to the young.

C. E. BEEBY
Center for Studies in Education and
Development, Harvard University

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Part One

by John Vaizey

The importance of costing

An essential tool for an administrator who is running an educational system is a knowledge of the costs of alternative courses of action. Any person who takes decisions about extending or establishing an educational system has to decide whether to add to existing facilities, to complement them, or to substitute something different from what he already has. He may build a new secondary school on an existing model; he may add a recreational centre to his school system; or he may replace a series of scattered village schools by a central secondary school. He will want to know the educational and social benefits from these actions; but essential to his task is an understanding of the costs of doing one thing rather than another. There is no administrator in the world who has more resources than he can use; and when resources are limited, choices have to be made. It is essential that these choices are based on an accurate assessment of the cost situation.

An understanding of the principles of costing educational programmes, therefore, underlies the major part of the task which the educational administrator and planner has to undertake. By an analysis of the problems involved in costing, and an understanding of the techniques which have been developed for the best methods of costing, the formulation and implementation of educational plans will be substantially improved. This part of the booklet is concerned primarily with a substantial number of practical problems which the educational planner will face.

In order to understand these problems, however, a certain amount

of theoretical formulation is necessary. The theory, however, is kept to a minimum because, in educational planning in the developing nations, highfalutin approaches to problems are often not suitable—the data with which the administrator has to work are crude and the methods he has to use are necessarily rough and ready. Consequently the formulations presented here are simple and not complicated, and the suggestions that are made for meeting the problems are those which will be easily available and may be used in any country.

In any short period in which educational planning is being undertaken, the greater part of educational costs are fixed. In the immediate future—in a year or so—the range of choice which the policy-maker has before him is necessarily very limited. He has to pay for the upkeep of his buildings, he has to pay the salaries of his teachers, he has to pay for school transport, he has to pay for educational materials and for innumerable other incidentals which running an educational system involves. He will be lucky if more than 5 per cent of his annual budget is available for any new kind of departure. Of course, the longer ahead he looks, the greater the range of choice which he has available. Over a period of several years he can hire more or fewer teachers, he can use to a greater or lesser extent new techniques like television, he can build new buildings of different types for a multiplicity of purposes and he can design different kinds of school systems. And from the point of view of the nation also, the allocation of resources as between education on the one hand and, say, health and welfare on the other becomes far more a matter of choice. We shall indicate later on the limits and constraints which are imposed by the imperatives of social and economic development on the choices which are available. But here the point which is being made is a simple one that the further ahead an administrator looks, the greater is his range of choice.

Perhaps, indeed, this idea can be stood on its head. Whenever an administrator makes a decision, however trivial, he is in fact limiting the number of choices that he can make in the future because he will be committing some of his resources to a given path of development; a policy once inaugurated is hard to reverse; commitments entered into cannot easily be got out of. It therefore follows that the educational policy-maker should have a long-term strategy in mind whenever he takes a decision which involves in any significant

respect the long-term commitment of resources. It is the aim here to try to present some of the problems that face an administrator and a planner when he is trying to devise a long-term strategy, and to suggest to him the use of tools which will enable him to make wise choices.

How to cost—choosing the basis

First of all, then, how does one cost an educational programme? The main devices may be, and probably are, familiar. A unit is chosen, either the number of teachers or the number of pupils or perhaps the number of schools, as a basis for costing. On this basis, a range of data is provided—that is to say the cost of providing the given unit is derived from experience, and then the national unit cost is multiplied by the total number of units in the system to derive the total cost. Basically, this is the device which is used by governments and businesses throughout the world for their costing procedures.

It will immediately be obvious that there are a number of major problems which the administrator or planner has to think carefully about before he adopts his unit. Do costs vary with the number of pupils? To some extent they do. If maintenance grants are given to pupils or fees are paid to private schools on a per pupil basis, then obviously if the number of pupils increases so will the number of grants. If the school administration pays for the books used by the pupils and each pupil has a given number of books, then obviously expenditure on books will also rise with the number of pupils. But the administrator will immediately be aware that many educational costs are not associated with the number of pupils. They are associated rather with the number of teachers. (Incidentally, the definition of a 'teacher' is often not as simple as it seems at first sight.) If the number of teachers increases then the major part of educational outlay—which is teachers' salaries and incidental associated expenses like superannuation—will also increase. Thus it may well be that the item to look at most carefully, when costing is being undertaken, is the number of teachers and their salaries. No one unit, however, is suitable for all purposes. For costs other than teachers' salaries the unit to look at may well be the number of square metres of building space, because the cost of heating and

cleaning and interest charges are associated more with the number and size of educational buildings than with the number of pupils or the number of teachers. Of course there is a link between the number of pupils, the number of teachers and the number of buildings. Roughly, for educational costing purposes, it is fairly safe to assume that the crucial variable is the number of teachers. It would be unsafe, however, to assume that this is the only variable. The safest procedure is to divide educational costs into three parts—those related to pupils, those related to teachers and those related to buildings—and to adopt units for each. In a fairly steady situation where things are not altering much, a composite unit, including all three, could be adopted; but most educational planners do not find themselves in steady situations. Their craft is embarked on stormy seas where change is the order of the day.

What is the scope of educational costs?

Having decided what our units are to be — and we shall come back later to them in greater detail — we want to find out what the total costs of an educational programme are likely to be. To know where we are going, we have to know where we are now. What is spent at present? To know that we have to decide whether or not the figures which commonly appear upon the educational vote are all the costs that have to be considered. First let us take current outlays. If we look at these carefully it is fairly obvious that the main items which cost most—teachers' salaries, the upkeep of buildings, the incidental cost of furniture, books, stationery, etc.—can be identified. But are the figures in these budget tables appropriate for our purpose? It may be difficult to assign expenditure to the appropriate year because there may be a difference, for instance, between the budgetary year and the school year. (Things like this, which may seem minor points, actually make costing procedures extremely complicated.) Again, there may be differences in the dates at which supplies are bought and supplies are used. This may make a difference to costing, because the valuation of stocks in a period of rising or falling prices gives accountants nervous breakdowns. But taking one year with another, such problems can eventually be overcome by adopting a set of sensible rules and sticking to them. On the other hand there are other difficulties which are not so easily over-

come. The budgetary authorities may be interested only in those costs which fall directly on them, yet in many school systems some parts of educational costs are borne by the central government and other parts of the costs by local communities. In drawing up an educational plan it would therefore be necessary to identify expenditure undertaken both by central and by local government and to add them up. This may not be such a simple task because the regulations under which grants are paid by central governments to local governments may be exceptionally complicated. In Northern Ireland, for example, until recently some grants were paid according to the number of pupils, others to supplement teachers' salaries, and others to meet certain other costs. These grants would appear under several headings in the accounts, and to assign them to any particular sector of education would be a very complicated task. Double counting could easily occur; both the grants paid by the central government and those received by the local authorities would appear as disbursements, and they would have to be 'netted out'. Then there may well be private receipts in the educational system which may be of considerable importance. These private receipts may be school fees paid by families, or fees paid by private corporations for the industrial or other training of their employees. There may be payments by parents or pupils for books, special lessons, meals, accommodation and other purposes which at all times ought to be included in total disbursements, but which may in fact be paid through separate accounts. There are certain types of services which may be provided to the educational system free by other departments. For example, if there is an extensive national education television service, it may not appear on the education vote, but it may appear instead under, say, the broadcasting corporation vote, or the Ministry of Cultural Affairs. Yet, properly speaking, it is a cost of education. In addition, large parts of the educational system proper may not appear under the education vote at all, but under other votes. For example, most countries have systems of agricultural extension work which are financed by the Department of Agriculture. Education of soldiers and soldiers' families is often borne under the defence vote, and the education provided for nurses and doctors may well appear under the medical vote. If the true cost of an educational plan is to be assessed, then two things are necessary. All these expenditures have to be identified and brought together in one major central table, and then consistent definitions have to be adopted of

what is to be included and what is to be excluded from education. At the same time there may be a number of items appearing under the education vote which have nothing directly to do with education. For instance, in some countries, museums, art galleries and a number of other extraneous matters (including, for example, the national broadcasting system) may be the responsibility of the Minister of Education. These services are not necessarily more related to education than they are to any other form of social activity. In all probability these costs should, therefore, be subtracted from the grand central table.

At this stage we have a grand national table of educational expenditure by all authorities—public and private—which we think ought to be included in education. We have tried to assign expenditures to the year in which they actually took place. We have sought to avoid double counting. We have sought to exclude non-educational items. This is the basis for our global projection of educational costs. So far as possible we should try to divide the expenditure under different headings (teachers' salaries, other wages, maintenance of buildings, educational materials, etc.) and by different levels (primary, secondary and higher, for example). These will be basic exercises that we can go into later.

Some internal problems—especially capital

Before that, however, there may well be a number of purely internal accounting problems which have to be solved, for example, the repayment and servicing of loans which have been raised for the building of schools. These should be subtracted from current costs if calculations are also to be made of real capital outlays, otherwise there would be a double counting. The point is that capital yields its services over a long period. The 'services' of a loan represents the yields to the community of the current age of the buildings. But if we are interested in the burden of the capital expenditure, we are also interested in the total spent this year on school building and equipment. If we include the one in our accounts, we should exclude the other.

The division between capital and current expenditure is, of course, arbitrary and depends on the accounting conventions in use at the time and place in question. (A book bought for a library may be

classed as capital expenditure whereas a book bought for use in a class-room would be current expenditure.) All of the problems which have been described as being relevant to the current costing of educational programmes arise also on the capital side. The identification of capital outlays is frequently an exceptionally complex and difficult task, particularly if there is a large system of voluntary and independent schools, because often records of this expenditure are only kept centrally in a very sketchy way. It may well be possible to reconstruct the total of capital outlay on private education by using the unit amounts which are known to be involved in the public system and multiplying them by the number of capital places known to have been provided in the independent sector, but of course the standard of cost may be very different in the two cases.

Assigning costs

Let us now assume that on the current and capital side we have accumulated as much evidence as possible of what the actual outlays are at present, or were in a recent year. We have excluded irrelevant expenditure and included as much relevant expenditure as we can think of. The next problem is to assign each of the large global totals to particular parts of the educational system, because what we want to have is an idea of the unit cost of education at different levels, and different types of education. For example, if the education of boys and girls is conducted in separate schools, it is useful to know whether we spend more money on boys than on girls. We will want to know whether the education of 12-year-olds is two, three or four times as expensive as the education of 6-year-olds. To discover the answer to this sort of question is frequently a task of great difficulty as the expenditure is not necessarily broken down and recorded conveniently either by age group or by school. For planning purposes the usual technique for making judgements is to try to identify those costs associated with a particular age group and to construct a kind of mock accounting system for the education of a particular group of children.

How are we to do this? Frequently, a number of schools may be chosen as a sample to give us some idea of the expenditures involved and, provided that due care is taken to see that they are not too untypical of the system as a whole, this can give an indication of

expenditures which is not terribly inaccurate. After all, let us remember that the purpose of this exercise is to discover what the trends of cost are likely to be, and as long as our errors are all in the same direction it does not really matter if our unit costs are a little wrong. If the errors begin to grow, of course, the figures will be useless. When changes take place, the degree of error will change. For example, it may well be that the development of new kinds of school will involve different types of expenditure. It has been found in England and Wales that the new schools built in the last twenty years have been cheaper in capital costs, but have cost more to heat and light and clean than the older schools. (This is because the amount of space per pupil has increased compared to thirty or forty years ago.) Rather than seeking for exactly accurate data, it is things like this that have to be carefully watched if the costing of educational programmes is not to go hopelessly wrong.

The complexity of the abnormal

The illustrations which have been given refer largely to a conventional school system and, of course, the problem of devising unit costs becomes increasingly difficult the more we move away from the well-understood and accepted systems of ordinary school education of school children. The problems of costing programmes of technical training are very much more complex because, for example, in a factory where some training on the job is being given, it is difficult to decide whether at any point in time a man is being taught or is taking part in production. Is his wage a cost of production or a cost of training? There may be no formal part of the factory set aside for the training; people may be given training on machines which are used at other times for ordinary production. What, then, is the capital cost of training? The people who give the instruction may be for most of the time ordinary supervisors and foremen. What are the costs of training? The allocation of costs inside any productive enterprise is an exceptionally complicated process and comparing the costs with the unit costs of instruction given inside a technical college becomes a matter of considerable complexity.

Here, too, we get in an acute form a problem which inside the school system particularly affects secondary education. This could be presented as the system of the unit adopted for costing. In a primary

school where the level of student wastage, especially in a more developed country, may be quite low, it may be convenient to take the student, or the student-year, as a unit of costing—'How much does it cost per year to educate a child?' But where there is wastage on a serious scale, as in technical education and secondary education throughout the world, and in primary education as well in some developing countries, it may be more appropriate to take costs per completed student (or per graduate) and this may completely change the comparative schedule of costs which has been derived from the raw data assembled. Some of the apparently cheaper forms of training may be revealed on this basis as the most expensive in terms of completed students.

International comparisons

Let us suppose, however, that we have solved, or at least coped with as best we may, the problems of identifying the units we are going to use for costing and collecting the data. We have made all our calculations. Where are we? Of course, many of the data which we put into our system of accounts will necessarily be rough and ready estimates. In many countries, the number of students is itself a somewhat vague concept and the idea of calculating expenditures on education in the often very large private sector is necessarily something which involves a great deal of estimation on the part of the planner ('estimation' is the word used by administrators for 'guess'). Now we want to know whether or not our costs seem reasonable compared with the costs in other education systems with which we are familiar. The game of international comparisons in all fields is becoming more popular than it used to be, and international comparisons provide a great deal of guidance to administrators in many fields of activity. Here we have to be exceptionally cautious. Our purpose in accumulating these data has been to estimate the real costs of education in terms of its true burden on the national economy. When we compare two countries, what we are interested in is to compare the real burden of education in both countries. But the tools that we have for making this comparison are necessarily limited. For example, we usually make comparisons in money terms and use the conventional rate of exchange. But in a world of monetary restrictions, such as we have, the rate of

exchange itself is a highly artificial concept. Consequently, the reduction of all unit costs to dollar terms on the basis of the official exchange rate may considerably distort the true picture. In addition, in some countries teachers may be relatively well paid compared with other professions while in other countries they may be poorly paid. It would follow that the country that paid its teachers relatively well would appear to devote more of its resources to education than the country which paid its teachers comparatively poorly. In one sense this would be true because the teachers would get more of the national product for their own consumption. But in another sense it would be quite untrue, because whether or not the teachers were well paid, the children in each country would still get the same amount of teaching from the teachers. Consequently, for most purposes of comparisons we have to standardize the salaries of the teachers in the two countries. In other words, we have to calculate a special rate of exchange for teaching. This is a familiar economic device which has been used in a number of fields. (It has been developed particularly by Mr. Milton Gilbert and his collaborators at the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.)

Deciding priorities—who does it?

Once we have assembled the data for costing a plan we then can use them to help decide priorities. Most priorities of a major kind would have been fixed on political or other grounds before the plan begins. Nevertheless, the choice of priorities will obviously be determined to a considerable extent by the cost of various policies and the accurate costing of possible projects will therefore play an important part in the process of choosing which projects to adopt. The costing of alternative programmes as accurately as possible over the longest possible period as a basis for reasonable comparisons is one of the fundamental purposes of the costing procedures. Far too frequently, decisions are taken in education on grounds of what is pedagogically desirable without any prior consideration of what the costs are. The costs of doing something are the costs of not doing something else. That is the important thing to remember. Of course, what priorities are chosen and the extent to which costs will affect the priorities is partly determined by who does the costing. In a highly centralized system it will usually be the minister of edu-

cation, whereas in a highly decentralized system it will be a local unit of authority. The task, of course, in either case is to make sure that the statistics used for any one part of the system are compared on a uniform basis with the cost of activities in other parts of the system. Further, it will be essential to have some co-operation between different governmental departments if the full range of statistics is to be made available to the planner. School building may be undertaken by the ministry of public works; the ministry of labour will probably have the up-to-date statistics on the trend of salaries and wages of the people who are not teachers; and expenditure on other departments (mainly defence, agriculture, health and welfare) will be necessary for the completion of costing returns. It is essential, therefore, for the authority concerned with the costing of educational programmes to have free access to relevant statistics in other departments.

It is important that the data should be presented simply and systematically. A decision-maker is not interested in costs to the nearest penny; and often to get the highest degree of accuracy in accounts takes so much time and labour that the up-to-date data are never ready. An over-all picture which draws attention is the most useful one. Yet, oddly enough, this is the most difficult thing in the world to get hold of. Clerks have been used to totting up tiny amounts. It takes an experienced planner to simplify masses of financial data, and to present it on a comparative basis.

The period of costing—the main variable factors

The scope of costing has already been dealt with in terms of the range of choice of alternatives. But for most educational administrators the annual budget is what determines what they can spend; in local systems they will be strictly limited by the amount of taxes that can be raised in the coming year. As we have already argued, the costs of education are largely fixed in the short run, so that the real issue that has to be faced is the problem of making cost projections for the middle and long range when choices are more open. A problem indeed, because, of course, the longer ahead that costs are estimated the more hypothetical the figures become. The amount that can be spent on education will depend upon the rate

of economic growth that will take place, which is exceptionally difficult to determine. The way in which teachers' salaries will vary will depend upon factors in the labour market which very frequently cannot be at all accurately foreseen. The development of capital costs is also exceptionally difficult to forecast. Consequently we have to be prepared to present ranges of estimates for the longer term under different hypothetical assumptions that ought to be clearly spelt out. What are the factors which are likely to affect future costs in education? Of course there are many. But they can be put roughly under six headings.

In the first place there will be changes in the price level—and mostly we are interested in real costs, not in purely monetary costs. The changes in the price level will affect the actual figures that we use at any point of time, but for forecasting purposes we have to standardize the price changes. The costs of items bought in education will not necessarily change in the same direction or at the same rate as the cost of other goods. The general price index is heavily weighed, for example, with the cost of food and accommodation, neither of which enters heavily into educational costs. The major item in educational costs is teachers' salaries—and teachers' salaries may not move in the same direction as goods in general, or even wages in general. Initially, therefore, if we are to standardize costs, it is important to devise a price index for education which is separately calculated from the price index used for the economy as a whole. This is a fairly simple task with which the economists in the planning bureau will be familiar.

The second factor which affects educational costs is the changes in the relative proportions of the goods and services that enter into education, of which the chief item is teachers' salaries. In school systems which are at a fairly primitive level of development, teachers' salaries are a very high proportion of the total outlay—perhaps as much as 90 per cent—whereas in the more developed systems they fall to between 50 and 60 per cent on average. Even in the more developed countries, at the elementary level of education the proportion of teachers' salaries is much higher than at the secondary and university levels. Consequently, when we look at the future trends of educational cost we have to decide how far we think teachers' salaries will remain a constant proportion of total outgoings on education, or see in which direction and how fast we think a change may take place.

The third factor which affects educational costs is the increase in the child population. This is an aspect of projection work which is full of pitfalls. As is well known, demographic forecasting is a difficult and complex art and it becomes more difficult in countries where the statistical services are as yet relatively poorly developed. The major item affecting educational outlays in many countries is the rapid rate of growth of the child population. This is a subject which merits much more detailed consideration than the space of this booklet allows; here it is enough to mention that it is not only the total size of the child population which is relevant but its distribution between various age groups. A persistent trend towards a higher proportion of older children at school will raise costs far more than a simple increase in the number of younger children.

The fourth factor affecting educational outlays in the future is the rise in educational standards and in the demand for education. As soon as a school system has been established there are demands from parents, teachers and some politicians for more favourable conditions; for additions to the variety and scope of schools; and requests for a whole range of social amenities without which education is socially and pedagogically unsatisfactory. The pressure for increased educational outlays per child is very great and particularly so at times of rapid social change. A prudent administrator or planner who is making a forecast of educational costs will therefore allow a substantial weight to the demand for improvements in educational standards.

The fifth point which the administrator or planner who is undertaking costing procedures should bear in mind is the raising of the school-leaving age (and possibly the lowering of the age at which compulsory attendance occurs). In the developing nations the main drive in recent years has been to enrol all children in the elementary age group, but as soon as this has been done the demand for the raising of the school-leaving age to 14, 15 or 16 becomes very strong. The education of older children is more expensive than the education of younger children (both because the teachers of the higher-age-group children tend to be paid more and because the techniques of education used for older children are more expensive) so that extending the length of school life itself raises the costs of education per child-year.

This becomes especially clear, of course, when the rates of enrolments in higher education are accelerated. This is the sixth point

that needs much emphasis. The unit costs of higher education are many times those of elementary education and, as has been frequently argued, the development of higher education is an integral part of the development of the whole education system. Therefore, when costing educational plans for primary and secondary schools it is essential to bear in mind the rapid development of higher education and its effects on the total cost picture.

In making long-term forecasts, therefore, we have both pressure on the total number of pupils to be educated and rising unit costs. These increasing unit costs originate from the fact that the standards of education rise, that older children cost more to educate and also at the same time a shift in the cost structure of education occurs because of changes in price levels. (The changes in price levels can be analysed by use of price indices which have been described fully elsewhere.) The purpose of the operation described here is to get at the real costs of education as opposed to the money costs and these six factors will be found to be a necessary part of the whole analysis.

Finance and accounts

So far we have considered outlays. But double-entry book-keeping suggests that we should check one side of the ledger with the other; we should look at receipts—at the sources of finance. Let us recapitulate some of our problems in interpreting accounts. In considering the financing of education a number of points have to be borne in mind. In the first place, governmental budgets and financial statements are drawn up for a particular administrative and political purpose, according to the constitution and to the various relevant statutes, usually to ensure that the legislative and accounting authorities have an adequate control over the expenditure of public money.

A further consideration is the avoidance of graft and speculation of all kinds. But accounts drawn up with these considerations mainly in mind are not necessarily those which are most suitable and convenient for people using them for administrative purposes connected with strategic decision-making and planning, any more than the statistics of school attendance, which are drawn up with the purpose of seeing that pupils are in regular attendance at school and for

determining the payment of teachers' salaries, are necessarily suitable for the planning of education. Consequently, the governmental statistics themselves have to be analysed with great care in order to put them in the appropriate categories for planning purposes and for economic analysis. To take a particular instance, the planner of education will be particularly interested in the division between capital and current expenditure. These categories in governmental accounts are largely a matter of convention, since the basis of the division in capital expenditures is not normally subject to annual voting by the legislative or budgetary authorities, whereas, of course, current outlays are. But the distribution between capital and current outlays which is drawn up for administrative accounting purposes is not necessarily that which is appropriate to a consideration of capital and current expenditure in the economic sense. In the economic sense capital expenditure is that outlay which yields a flow of benefits over a long period of time, whereas current expenditure is something which yields its benefits as soon as it is undertaken. Therefore, the planner may have to juggle with the accounts in order to get a proper allocation of current and capital expenditure for his purposes.

It is in this sort of reallocation of the figures in the accounts that it is useful to check expenditure figures against receipts. The receipts which go into the (usually national) fund from which education expenditures are made arise from diverse sources. Some of them have already been enumerated: central government grants, local government grants, fees, loans, payment for services rendered, deferred payments and payments in kind are some of the main examples. It is necessary to analyse the sources of receipts in order to match them against the expected pattern of future expenditure, both in order to see that the pattern of receipts is sufficient to meet the outgoings that are expected, and also to see whether the pattern of receipts in the education sector of the economy is what is socially and economically desirable.

In developing nations there is a particular problem that the societies are usually divided into two main parts—the monetized sector and the non-monetized sector. In the monetized sector, receipts and outgoings are more in cash, whereas in the other sector a high proportion of expenditure and of receipts may be in kind. Consequently, it may be necessary to have two completely different sets of accounts for different sectors of the economy.

To summarize: we may say that any analysis of the pattern of educational expenditure now and in the future has to be set carefully against the costs that are imposed on the community by this expenditure. For this purpose a careful analysis of the sources of educational receipts is necessary.

Part Two

by J. D. Chesswas

Introduction

1. This part of the booklet describes costing procedures in a developing African country, about two-and-a-half years after independence. As will be seen, some of the principles and factors outlined in the first part were considered, and some of the possible difficulties were pertinent and had to be faced. Other points did not pertain: the refund of loans given specifically for education was not due to begin until some ten years afterwards; at the second level both public and private-aided schools were financed in the same way, for both capital and recurrent costs; there was no organized scheme of on-the-job education; the age-ranges at all levels were so wide that it was inappropriate to use age as a factor affecting costing—the levels and types of education were more important factors; likewise there was no 'school-leaving age'; and the value of services rendered by communities, mainly at the primary level, was virtually impossible to assess. Other points made by John Vaizey were simply never thought of, such as: the results of the differences in dates of buying and using stock; costs of educational television; possible changes in the costs of running schools; and the possibility of a public demand for improvement in standards (the overriding current demand was for greater quantity). Different methods of achieving the same objects were discussed, but never reached the costing stage; costs of the development plan concerned were calculated on the assumption that the education system would remain basically the same as that which existed.

The administration of education and its development

2. Primary education was administered by local governments and those of federated states, usually through education committees. Second-level and non-university third-level education was administered by the central government, with the exception of that in one state, which administered both primary and second-level education in its area.

3. Over-all planning of educational development, other than university, and detailed planning of second-level and non-university third-level education was conducted by the central government, which consulted the state government on the details of development of second-level education in its area. Local governments, through their education committees, where they existed, planned the detailed development of primary education within the over-all figures given to them by the central government, and those details were subject to central approval. University expansion was planned by the university council.

4. Educational planning for the central government was carried out by a planning unit within the Ministry of Education, which worked closely with a working party dealing with 'education and manpower', one of ten working parties which were drawing up plans for different sectors of public life to be moulded into an over-all development plan with a final fifteen-year objective and a first-phase five-year target for which detailed plans were to be made. The working party consisted of representatives of various ministries and of bodies, including the university, concerned with this area.

5. The development plan was based on an estimated rate of increase in the gross domestic product (GDP). Calculations were made of the high-level manpower needed to achieve this objective, and the working party was required to draw up over-all enrolment projections for each sector of the education system so as to achieve the manpower targets at the end of the first five-year period, being allocated a proportion of the GDP and a share of the investment capital.

The financing of the education service

6. The greater proportion of the finance for the education service, both capital and recurrent, came from central government sources. Funds which the central government gave to local or state governments to assist with recurrent expenses of education formed part of over-all statutory or block grants, which passed through the votes of ministries other than that of education, and possible duplication of accounting did not, therefore, arise.

7. The financial year of the central government started on 1 July, but that of local and state governments, as well as the academic year, started on 1 January. In addition to this complication, there were no audited accounts of local and state governments available for any period after independence, when they had all finally taken responsibility for the administration of local education services. Audited accounts for the central government were available up to the most recent completed financial year.

8. Government estimates and accounts for education, both central and local, were cast in a form which made extraction of expenditure on various levels and types of education easy. Votes for capital and recurrent expenditure were kept separate.

9. Income to meet the recurrent costs of running the schools came from public funds and fees (the latter being sometimes paid in the form of a scholarship or a bursary). Any other income, such as gifts, was negligible. Teachers' salaries and allowances were paid from public funds. Other recurrent expenses were paid, for the first six years of education, completely from fees, and for subsequent education (upper basic course, second-level and third-level non-university education) from a combination of fees and block, course and *per capita* grants, all of which grants came from public funds. University education was financed by direct grants from the central government to the university, and scholarships and bursaries given by both central and local governments; income from these two sources covered virtually all costs, i.e., university education could be deemed 'free', as also could the two-year upper stage of the secondary course, for which local government scholarships and bursaries were automatic. Fortunately, votes for scholarships and bursaries were kept separate, and duplication of accounting could therefore easily be avoided.

10. The central government gave local and state governments

small grants to help with capital costs of expansion of primary schools, and some of the richer local governments supplemented these grants from their own funds, but the main burden of capital development at the primary level fell on communities, who contributed either money or labour towards the provision of premises which could at the best be described as semi-permanent. Funds for capital development at levels above the first came almost completely from central government or external aid sources.

11. Capital costs were deemed to cover: (a) initial payments in respect of the site (e.g., compensation to evicted tenants); (b) survey, design, drawing and supervisory charges for site, buildings and works; (c) contract costs for all buildings and works, including labour and materials; (d) furniture and all equipment which was deemed to serve for more than the first year (thus an initial capital grant would be given for such things as a vehicle, a projector, and library and textbooks for additional classes—it was considered that textbooks should have an average life of at least three years, and the school was expected to set aside funds from its recurrent income for the purchase of replacements as they became necessary).

12. Depreciation of premises, as distinct from routine repair and maintenance (which was included in recurrent expenditure), was not taken into account. If it became necessary, say, to replace a building, the central government normally sought additional funds for the purpose.

The unit

13. The unit on which costs were based was the 'pupil' for recurrent expenditure, and the 'place' for capital (the possibility of using the 'teacher' or 'class', as suggested in the first part of this work, was never raised). Pupil and place are not necessarily the same; places may be under-utilized or overcrowded. Erection of buildings is a commitment to accept the numbers which they can accommodate, and it is wise to be prepared for a full enrolment. Foresight is most important when commitment to a permanent structure is being made.

The content of unit costs

RECURRENT

14. The country's over-all development plan was costed at rates which pertained at the beginning of the development period. A proportion of the estimated GDP for the first target year (year 5) was allotted for recurrent expenditure on education, and this represented the sum, at those rates, which would be actually spent in that year. Thus, for instance, pensions payable to teachers who would be on retirement in that year would be chargeable against that allocation, but the pension element theoretically earned by local teachers still in service during that year would not; the 'fringe' benefits for expatriate teachers, which would be actual expenditure, would have to be included (see paragraph 26). Funds set aside for replacement of furniture and equipment would enter the costing; depreciation of buildings would not, but the costs of their routine maintenance and repair would have to be taken into account. In the allocation of shares of the GDP, there was a 'public services' head; it was assumed that the administration and inspection of education services came under that head, and their costs were not therefore taken into account in assessing unit costs for the schools.

CAPITAL

15. The content of these costs has already been listed in paragraph 11. It was proposed to establish a Ministry of Education architectural and works section and it was therefore assumed that the costs of survey, design, drawing and supervision would be included in the 'public services' head.

MATERIAL AVAILABLE

16. Audited accounts of the central government for the financial year 1963/64 were available. For local and state governments only estimates (the latest were those of 1964) could be obtained. The school statistics for 1963 and 1964 had been summarized; those at the second and third levels of education were considered to be good; at the primary level there was more room for doubt, but it was felt

that any margin of error was likely to be smaller than margins which might arise in other factors affecting the development plan.

17. The major difference in the availability of material was therefore as between the centrally and locally administered services. To illustrate the methods used to calculate recurrent costs, the following detailed explanation will therefore concentrate on primary schools as a locally administered service, and secondary schools as a centrally administered service. No material is available for university education, because economies were still the subject of discussion with the university authorities.

18. The main capital expenditure was to be on secondary schools, and this section of the education system is therefore used to illustrate the method of calculation of capital unit costs.

Annual recurrent costs: basic course (primary) schools

19. These costs were made up of teachers' salaries and allowances and capitation grants for the pupils, both paid by local governments, and fees paid by the students. It could be assumed that income was equal to expenditure, as the teachers were paid directly by the authorities, and fees and capitation grants, which met other recurrent costs, were normally fully spent.

20. There were two main problems: only estimates of expenditure by local authorities were available, and there was no firm information about the actual collection of fees. It was known that the standard of enforcement of collection varied from area to area, and since the rates also varied very considerably, the total amount collected was largely a matter of guesswork. At the beginning of 1964 the administration of these funds had been centralized in the hands of area education officers, and when their first audited accounts become available, much more accurate calculations can be made. In the meantime, the figure had to be guessed (the 'estimation' mentioned on page 19 of Part One of this work). From the experience of administrators it was assumed that the average fee collection would come to about £1.3 per pupil per annum.

21. The form of local authority votes allowed administration costs and funds for the running of the schools to be extracted easily. The total of the local government votes for the school costs for 1964

(i.e., estimates of public expenditure only) was about £3,510,000; the total enrolment in the schools was 528,646. Thus the average cost from local government votes for the running of the schools was £6.6 per pupil, to the nearest 0.1 of a £. To this was added £1.3 for fees, giving a total of £7.9 per pupil per annum at 1964 rates.

22. This was the unit cost for the running of the schools, which was required for the development plan, but as a matter of interest, the exercise can be carried a little farther. The total local administration costs were about £177,000, which gives a rate of £0.3 per pupil, making a total, including local administration, of £8.2 per pupil. In addition, a revision of salaries and allowances at 1 July 1964 (the funds for which came from the central government, and were not therefore included in the local government estimates) added about £380,000 to the annual bill, or £0.7 per pupil, making the cost at the new rates £8.6 without local administration, and £8.9 with it.

Annual recurrent costs: secondary schools

23. The expansion of secondary education formed a major part of the development plan, and for this section of the education system fairly full and detailed information was available. For the calculations, it was decided to use only those schools administered directly by the central government, which formed about three-quarters of the service, as final accounts were available for public expenditure on these schools for the financial year 1963/64, whereas only estimates were available for the remaining quarter which were administered by a state government (see paragraph 2).

24. The secondary course was divided into a four-year lower stage (grades 9 to 12) and a two-year upper stage (grades 13 and 14); only a proportion of students leaving the lower stage entered the upper. At the lower stage, most of the schools had double sections; a few urban day schools, which ran sessions for two sets of pupils each day, had up to twelve sections. Upper stage classes were added to the top of some of the lower stage schools, usually as double or treble sections. (In 1964, seventeen out of a total of forty-three schools had upper classes.)

25. The teaching staff consisted of a majority of graduates and a minority of non-graduates. There were few local teachers, owing to counter-attractions in other occupations, and the bulk of the

staff were therefore expatriates, most of them serving under external aid schemes. In the development plan it was proposed to produce a large number of local secondary teachers with the ultimate object of replacing all expatriates by the end of the over-all fifteen-year programme.

26. Local teachers were paid a basic salary, and those in certain designated posts received in addition a responsibility allowance; expatriates were paid only a basic salary on a different scale, and many of them also received an overseas allowance paid by their own governments.

Fortunately the local teacher's salary plus allowance was quite close to the expatriate's basic salary, and since the overseas allowance was not a charge on the local economy, and did not therefore enter the calculations, the replacement of expatriates by local teachers did not introduce, on this score, any modifying factor into the costs. However, the local teacher was on pensionable terms, and the expatriate on contract terms, with certain 'fringe' benefits such as passages, medical expenses and terminal gratuities, paid at the end of two years irrespective of whether the teacher renewed his contract. Since the cost was to be based on actual expenditure in 1971 (see paragraph 14), it had to be assumed that the costs of an expatriate included these benefits, which amounted to about 40 per cent of the salary.

27. As the proposed teacher-training scheme fed the system, there would be an increasing proportion of teachers on the lower points of the scale; it was anticipated that by 1971 about half of the teacher force would be local teachers with less than six years' experience (see paragraph 33(b)); would this have any effect on the rate of teacher costs? In 1963/64 the average pay of a teacher, excluding expatriate allowances, was equal to about the fifth point on the graduates', or the tenth point on the non-graduates' scale. The effect of the increasing number of local teachers on lower points would tend to lower this average, but it was presumed that the expatriate section of the teaching force would have a counter-effect, and that the result might be a lowering of the average by only a point or so on the scale; the increment at these levels is about 4 per cent of the salary. It was decided not to let this factor affect the calculations.

28. In the allocation of teaching duties, the non-graduates teach mainly in the lower classes, and graduates in the upper. Would

it therefore be possible to differentiate between teacher costs per pupil at the two levels? The schools were run as completely integrated schools; teachers who normally taught in the upper section often gave some lessons in the lower section, especially in the last (examination) year. Again, non-graduate teachers often took pupils of all levels in such extra-curricular activities as games, singing, scouting, and societies; in boarding facilities, all staff supervised pupils of all levels. To allocate costs of individual teachers according to the class levels which they normally taught would therefore be to base costs on only part of their services, and in view of the integrated nature of the schools it would be impossible to allocate teachers' services to any one sector. Average teacher costs per pupil were therefore allocated for the secondary system as a whole.¹

29. It was possible, however, to differentiate non-salary costs at the two stages. In particular, books and equipment at the upper stage were more expensive than those at the lower, a fact which was reflected in differing rates of capitation grants. As in the case of primary schools, it could be assumed that expenditure was equal to income, as schools usually spent virtually all they received, and it was therefore safe to assume that capitation grants and fees were spent on the pupils for whom they were paid.

30. Another factor which would have an effect on over-all costs was the change in the proportion of boarding and day enrolments. For reasons which need not be explained in this booklet, it was planned that the 49 : 51 boarding to day enrolment ratio in 1964 would be changed to 70 : 30 by 1971. This would not have any effect on the rates of teacher costs, because staffing ratios and qualifications were the same for both kinds of schools, but it would affect the average of capitation grants and fees, which were higher for boarding schools than for day schools.

31. Such then were the factors influencing unit costs. There were four main elements in the financing of the schools: teacher costs, capitation grants, and block grants for established non-teaching staff, all paid from government funds, and fees paid by pupils. The fee and capitation and block grant rates per pupil were all known; it remained to calculate the teacher cost per pupil, which was done by a residual process. There was a small complication due to the

1. However, see footnote 2 on page 37.

fact that a dying secondary modern system was paid from the same vote, but it was so small, and the average teacher quality so little below that of the secondary schools, that it could be assumed that teacher costs for the secondary modern averaged the same as those for ordinary secondary.

32. The basic facts necessary for the calculations were as shown in Tables 1 and 2.

In secondary schools a block grant at an average of £4 per pupil was given for established non-teaching staff costs.

TABLE 1. Enrolments

Year	Grades 9-12			Grades 13-14			Totals of grades 9-14			Secondary modern Boarding
	Boarding	Day	Total	Boarding	Day	Total	Boarding	Day	Total	
1963	3 444	3 517	6 961	155	261	416	3 599	3 778	7 377	481
1964 ¹	4 299	4 422	8 721	324	336	660	4 623	4 758	9 381	547
Average 1963/64 ²	3 871.5	3 969.5	7 841	239.5	298.5	538	4 111	4 268	8 379	514
Projected 1971 ³	18 940	8 117	27 057	2 239	959	3 198	21 179	9 076	30 255	—

1. Of the day pupils in 1964, 230 were living in urban hostels detached from schools.
2. Since the financial year ran from 1 July 1963 to 30 June 1964 (see paragraph 7), the enrolments for the two years had to be averaged, so as to correspond to the funds expended on them.
3. The 1971 projections were based on manpower forecasts made in accordance with the principles of the over-all fifteen-year development plan until 1981. The estimated manpower needs for the first phase, 1966/71, were converted into enrolments, taking repeating and drop-out rates into account, and the resultant totals for 1971 were as shown in the table.

TABLE 2. Annual rates of recurrent income for non-teacher costs

Type of income	Grades 9-12		Grades 13-14		Secondary modern Boarding
	Boarding	Day	Boarding	Day	
	£	£	£	£	£
Capitation grant	22.5	5	40	20	10
Fees (average)	25	17	25	17	25

The annual rate of grant for an urban hostel resident was £17.5.

Total expenditure on teachers' salaries and allowances, capitation grants and block grants by the Ministry of Education from 1 July 1963 to 30 June 1964 was £638,378. This did not include gratuities and other fringe benefits for expatriate teachers, which were paid from other votes.

Calculation of unit costs

33. The calculation of unit costs may be broken down into three part: (a) teacher cost per pupil in 1963/64; (b) teacher cost per pupil in 1971 at 1963/64 rates; (c) total annual recurrent cost rates in 1971.

(a) Teacher cost per pupil in 1963/64

In 1963/64 the following capitation grants were made:

3,871.5 grades 9-12 boarding at £22.5	=	£87,108.75
3,969.5 grades 9-12 day at £5	=	£19,847.50
239.5 grades 13-14 boarding at £40	=	£9,580.00
298.5 grades 13-14 day at £20	=	£5,970.00
514 secondary modern at £10	=	£5,140.00
230 hostel residents at £8.75 ¹	=	£2,012.50

together with block grants of £4 to 8,379 secondary students (£33,516.00), giving an over-all total of £163,174.75.

The total ministry expenditure was £638,378. Thus, by deducting the above total, the expenditure on salaries and allowances is found to be £475,203.25.

Dividing this figure by the total number of students, 8,893 (8,379 secondary plus 514 secondary modern) gives £53.4, the average teacher cost per pupil in respect of salaries and allowances.²

As the teachers were virtually all expatriates, this figure must be raised by 40 per cent to allow for their fringe benefits, giving a final figure of £74.8.

1. This figure is for six months only, the annual grant being £17.5.

2. These were the calculations which were used at the time. In subsequent variations of the plan, it became necessary to look closer at the comparative lower and upper teacher costs per student on an enrolment basis (not on the

(b) Teacher cost per pupil in 1971 at 1963/64 rates

The planned output of local teachers for secondary schools up to the end of 1970 was 825. Statistics enabling wastage of teachers to be calculated were not available in sufficient detail, and it was therefore necessary to guess the expected loss. It was assumed that 770 local teachers would still be in service in 1971.

The total number of classes planned for 1971 was: 813 for grades 9-12 and 110 for grades 13-14, a total of 923.

The staffing ratio at the grade 9-12 stage was thirteen teachers for eight classes, and at the grade 13-14 stage three teachers for two classes.

Therefore the number of teachers needed in 1971 for grades 9-12 would be $813 \times 13/8$, i.e., 1,321; and for grades 13-14 would be $110 \times 3/2$, i.e., 165. There would be 68 supernumerary heads for 68 schools; therefore the total number of teachers needed would be 1,554, of whom 770 local teachers, leaving 784 expatriates.

There would therefore be 770 teachers at the cost without expatriate fringe benefits, and 784 with them. This means that the average teacher cost per pupil would be

$$\frac{(770 \times 100) + (784 \times 140)}{(770 + 784)}$$

i.e., 120 per cent of the cost without the benefits, which is 120 per cent of £53.4, giving £64.1,¹ at 1963/64 rates, in 1971.

Thus the teacher cost per pupil, at the same rates, would drop from £74.8 in 1963/64 to £64.1 in 1971, owing to the increasing localization of the teaching force in secondary schools.

basis of allocation of teachers of different qualifications to different sections). At a student-teacher ratio of 21.5 for the lower section, and 13.3 for the upper, the establishment of teachers would be 7,841 divided by 21.5, i.e., 365, for the lower section, and 538 divided by 13.3, i.e., 40, for the upper. One could therefore theoretically allocate the £475,203.25 for teachers proportionately, as £428,269.59 to lower, and £46,933.65 to upper. Dividing £428,269.59 by 7,841 (average total enrolment, 1963/64) gives £54.6 per student at the lower level, and dividing £46,933.65 by 538 (average total enrolment, 1963/64) gives £87.2 at the upper level. This method would allow for different rates of development for upper and lower stages.

1. The principles of the previous footnote apply equally here. One would also have to make an assumption about the proportions of expatriates and local teachers in each stage.

(c) Total annual recurrent cost rates in 1971

The annual rates for each level of student, both boarding and day, would therefore be as shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3. Annual rates

Stage	Type of student	Teacher cost	Capitation grant	Fees	Block grant	Total
		£	£	£	£	£
9-12	Boarding	64.1	22.5	25	4	115.6
	Day	64.1	5	17	4	90.1
12-13	Boarding	64.1	40	25	4	133.1
	Day	64.1	20	17	4	105.1

34. These final figures can now be rounded to the nearest pound. Finally, Table 4 (p. 40) shows the net result of the factors influencing the comparative over-all unit costs as between 1963/64 and 1971. Increasing localization of the teaching service reduces current expenditure, but this is nearly counter-balanced by increases due to an increase in the proportion of boarders, and faster development of the upper section of the course, and the final result is only a small reduction of less than 4 per cent in the average cost per pupil. (This result would be a little different if the principles shown in footnote 2 on pages 37-38 were applied. Assuming an even distribution of expatriates and local teachers between the upper and lower sections in 1971, the over-all average cost per teacher would be £69.6, which would make the total figure for 1971 in the last section of Table 4 £115.2, compared with £114.3 for 1963/64, an increase of less than 1 per cent.)

TABLE 4. Comparison of recurrent unit costs for 1963/64 and 1971

Item	1963/64		1971	
	Explanation and/or notes	Compared figure	Compared figure	Explanation and/or notes
Teacher cost per pupil	Virtually all teachers receive fringe benefits	£ 74.8	£ 64.1	Only about half of the teachers receive fringe benefits
Cost per pupil grades 9-12 boarding	£ Teacher cost 74.8 Capitation grant 22.5 Fee 25 Block grant 4	126.3	115.6	£ 64.1 Teacher cost 22.5 Capitation grant 25 Fee 4 Block grant
Cost per pupil grades 9-12 day	Teacher cost 74.8 Capitation grant 5 Fee 17 Block grant 4	100.8	90.1	64.1 Teacher cost 5 Capitation grant 17 Fee 4 Block grant
Cost per pupil grades 13-14 boarding	Teacher cost 74.8 Capitation grant 40 Fee 25 Block grant 4	143.8	133.1	64.1 Teacher cost 40 Capitation grant 25 Fee 4 Block grant
Cost per pupil grades 13-14 day	Teacher cost 74.8 Capitation grant 20 Fee 17 Block grant 4	115.8	105.1	64.1 Teacher cost 20 Capitation grant 17 Fee 4 Block grant

Over-all average cost per pupil grades 9-12	Capitation grants	£		Capitation grants	£
	3,871.5 boarders at £22.5	87 108.75		18,940 boarders at £22.5	426 150
	3,969.5 day at £5	19 847.50		8,117 day at £5	40 585
	Fees			Fees	
	3,871.5 boarders at £25	96 787.50		18,940 boarders at £25	473 500
	3,969.5 day at £17	67 481.50		8,117 day at £17	137 989
	Total (capitation plus fee) for 7,841 pupils	271 225.25		Total (capitation plus fee) for 27,057 pupils	1 078 224
		£	£		
	Average (capitation plus fee) per pupil	34.6	39.9	Average (capitation plus fee) per pupil	
	Teacher cost per pupil	74.8	64.1	Teacher cost per pupil	
	Block grant per pupil	4.0	4.0	Block grant per pupil	
		113,4	108,0		
	Proportion of boarders to day, 49 : 51			Proportion of boarders to day, 70 : 30	

Over-all average cost per pupil grades 13-14	Capitation grants	£		Capitation grants	£
	239.5 boarders at £40	9 580.00		2,239 boarders at £40	89 560
	298.5 day at £20	5 970.00		959 day at £20	19 180
	Fees			Fees	
	239.5 boarders at £25	5 987.50		2,239 boarders at £25	55 975
	298.5 day at £17	5 074.50		959 day at £17	16 303
	Total (capitation plus fee) for 548 pupils	26 612.00		Total (capitation plus fee) for 3,198 pupils	181 018

TABLE 4. (continued)

Item	1963/64		1971		
	Explanation and/or notes	Compared figure	Compared figure	Explanation and/or notes	
		£	£		
Over-all average cost per pupil grades 13-14 (cont.)	Average (capitation plus fee) per pupil	49.5	56.6	Average (capitation plus fee) per pupil	
	Teacher cost per pupil	74.8	64.1	Teacher cost per pupil	
	Block grant per pupil	4.0	4.0	Block grant per pupil	
	Total cost per pupil	128.3	124.7	Total cost per pupil	
	Proportion of boarders to day, 45 : 55			Proportion of boarders to day, 70 : 30	
Over-all average cost per pupil grades 9-14	Total capitation plus fees	£		Total capitation plus fees	£
	7,841 pupils grades 9-12	271 225.25		27,057 pupils grades 9-12	1 078 224
	538 pupils grades 13-14	26 612.00		3,198 pupils grades 13-14	181 018
	8,379 pupils grades 9-14	297 837.25		30,255 pupils grades 9-14	1 259 242
			£	£	
	Average (capitation plus fee) per pupil		35.5	41.6	Average (capitation plus fee) per pupil
	Teacher cost per pupil		74.8	64.1	Teacher cost per pupil
	Block grant per pupil		4.0	4.0	Block grant per pupil
	Total cost per pupil		114.3	109.7	Total cost per pupil
	Proportion of pupils grades 9-12 to 13-14, 94 : 6				Proportion of pupils grades 9-12 to 13-14, 89 : 11

Capital costs: secondary schools

35. Although capital works of various kinds had been undertaken at schools for many years, it was not considered appropriate to use this experience as the basis for the calculation of unit capital costs because nearly all the works had been carried out as additions to, or adaptations of, the premises of existing schools, and there was therefore little or no experience of building up the system with new schools. Also, there had been no standardization; schools had employed private architects, and, although the designs were subject to approval by the ministry, there was considerable variation in space, design, standards and cost rates between schools. Furthermore, concern had been expressed at rises in costs of school buildings, and it was considered necessary to try to reverse this trend.

36. It was therefore decided that all secondary-school buildings should be built from standard plans. Arguments were raised for allowing variations in the style of buildings in different schools, but the major objective was to achieve the maximum expansion possible with the funds available, and the principle of variety as an aesthetic objective had to be sacrificed.

37. Decisions were therefore made on: (a) the rooms, buildings, furniture and equipment which were necessary for the efficient running of a secondary school; (b) the scales on which sizes of rooms and buildings should be based and furniture and equipment supplied; (c) a set of standard plans for the various buildings drawn up on the basis of those scales. The buildings were designed to achieve the scales laid down with as simple a structure as possible, in reasonably cheap materials, without going to the extreme of cheapening the construction at the risk of too short a life for the buildings.

It is not proposed in this booklet to go into the details of the various points which were discussed in the attempt to achieve the above objectives, although a description of such discussions might have been of some help to others seeking to arrive at the same ends; the purpose here is rather to show how unit costs were calculated on the basis of the scales laid down.

38. As already stated in paragraph 24, the secondary-school system was divided into a four-year course followed after selection by a two-year course. The four-year course was a general course, which was being broadened to include agricultural biology, commercial

TABLE 5. Scales of rooms, buildings and furniture and equipment for secondary schools

<i>Building or works</i>	<i>Unit basis</i>	<i>Scales of units</i>
1 Offices	Complete	One per school
2 Staff room	Established teacher posts	× number of approved teacher posts
3 Library	Lower school place	× number of lower school places
	Upper school place	× number of upper school places
4 Class-room	Complete	× 75 per cent of number of approved classes
5 Class-room stores	Class-room	× number of approved class-rooms
6 Geography room	Complete	One when upper school geography begins
7 Art and craft room	Complete	One per school; a second when third stream begins
8 Laboratory	Complete	{ One per stream lower school
	Per single group of laboratories offering physics, chemistry and biology	{ One per science stream upper school
		{ 1st year lower school
		{ 2nd year lower school
		{ 3rd year lower school
		{ 1st year upper school
9 Home economics combined practical room	Complete	See note
10 Home economics model house	Complete	See note
11 Home economics extra practical room	Complete	See note
12 Workshop	Complete	One of each (woodwork and metalwork) per double stream taking subject
13 Technical drawing room	Complete	One per double stream taking subject
14 W.C.s (day school)	Place	× number of approved places
15 Class-room W.C.s (boarding school)	Place	× number of approved places
16 Dormitory	Place	× number of approved places
17 Laundry drying area	Place	× number of approved places
18 Students' common-room	Place	× number of approved places
19 Sick bay	Place	× number of approved places
20 Matron's quarters	Complete	One per school
21 Dining hall	Place	× number of approved places
22 Kitchen	Place	× number of approved places
23 Assembly hall	Place	× number of approved places
24 Stores, maintenance of premises	Up to 280 places	One per school of up to 280
	Above 280 places	One per school of above 280
25 Head's house	Complete	One per school
26 Teacher's/Bursar's house	Complete	× number of approved teacher/bursar posts
27 Subordinate staff housing	Approved post	× four (two cooks, one driver, one quartermaster)
28 Water supply	} (3)	
29 Sewage		
30 Electricity		
31 Other site works		
32 Initial textbooks	Lower-school class	× number of approved lower school classes
	Upper-school class	× number of approved upper school classes
33 Other initial teaching equipment	School	One per school
34 Vehicle	School	One per school

N.B. *In items 1 to 9, 11 to 13, 16, 19 to 21 super area and costs include 6 ft. wide verandah. Items 2, 3, 18, 19, 21 and 22 should always be designed for a minimum of 280 places, and should later be expanded as the school grows. All costs exclusive of fees for architects.*

Works				Furniture and equipment	
Area (sq. ft.)		Costing		Nature	£ per unit
Floor	Super	£ per sq. ft.	£ per unit		
470	790	1.4	1 110	Furniture and equipment	220
29	49	1.4	69	Furniture	3
5	6.45	1.15	7.42	Furniture and equipment	0.6
				Books	2.86
7	9.11	1.15	10.48	Furniture and equipment	1.2
				Books	10
665	910	1.1	1 000	Furniture	190
10 per cent of class-room	10 per cent of class-room	1.1	10 per cent of class-room	—	—
997	1 321	1.225	1 620	Furniture and equipment	450
997	1 321	1.225	1 620	Furniture and equipment	450
(1 150)				Gas installation	270
1 380	1 843	1.525	2 810	Furniture	450
				Teaching equipment	500
				Teaching equipment	500
				Teaching equipment	800
				Teaching equipment	3 300
	1 824	1.4	2 550	Furniture and equipment	1 010
	1 482	2.0	2 964	Furniture	100
	1 824	1.4	2 550	Furniture and equipment	240
810	1 186	1.1	1 305	Furniture and equipment (woodwork)	450
				Furniture and equipment (metalwork)	3 650
997	1 321	1.1	1 453	Furniture and equipment	450
	0.8	3.0	2.4	—	—
	0.4	3.0	1.2	—	—
Sleeping (1) 45	74.67	1.45	108	Furniture	12
7	7.35	1.0	7.35	—	—
4	5.20	1.15	6	Furniture	0.65
Sleeping (2) 2 (2)	3.88	1.45	5.63	Furniture and equipment	0.6
500	729	1.45	1 060	Furniture and equipment	150
10	12.37	1.5	26.7	Furniture and equipment	3.5
5	5.42			Furniture and utensils	0.85
				Cooking equipment	(2)
10	10.54	1.25	13.175	Furniture, equipment, stage lightings and fittings	2.15
200	231	1.25	290	—	—
400	441	1.25	550	—	—
	1 600	2.0	3 200	Furniture and equipment	400
	1 400	2.0	2 800	Furniture and equipment	300
	250	1.75	440	—	—
				Books	250
				Books	300
				Teaching equipment	500
				Vehicle	1 300

(1) In addition, there are ablutions, W.C.s, etc.

(2) That is, one bed, occupying 50 sq.ft. floor area, per 25 places

(3) To be separately approved according to circumstances

subjects, or woodwork and metalwork for boys, and commercial or homecraft subjects for girls. At the upper stage, students specialized, and the course was split into two broad divisions: arts and science. The planned size of a class in the lower section was thirty-five, and in the upper, thirty. All upper-stage classes were organized as 'tops' to lower-stage schools (see paragraph 24), and the staffing ratio was thirteen teachers for eight classes in the lower section, and three teachers for two in the upper. Woodwork, metalwork and homecraft subjects could be taught only to half a class at a time, and since these subjects were confined to the lower course, this had a slightly higher teacher-to-class ratio. Each school had a supernumerary head. At the time of planning most schools were double section at the lower stage (see also paragraph 24); it was policy that, as far as the degree of expansion would allow, schools should be raised to a minimum of treble stream at the lower level.

39. All teachers had to be housed; the majority were expatriates, and they were likely to remain in the majority for some years [see paragraph 33(b)]. In any case, the national housing situation was such that the housing of local teachers also could not be avoided, especially if there was to be any stability in the staffing of schools!

40. The scales are shown in Table 5 (pages 44-45), which was issued with detailed explanatory notes of no concern to us in this work. The costs were those which were estimated to be reasonable at the time the scales were issued. Possible variations will be dealt with later (see paragraph 46). Furniture and equipment are given in terms of money. These again were the estimated costs, at the time, of purchasing the items which were considered necessary.

41. Table 6 summarizes all the unit costs calculated in Tables A to F (see Appendix). Tables A to F show examples of how these scales could be used to calculate the unit cost, i.e., cost per place, for selected typical schools of different sizes and for different sexes.¹ Table A shows a comparison of the costs of the buildings and works for boys', girls' and mixed double-section schools at the lower stage only; Table B shows the costs of the furniture and equipment for the same schools. Tables C and D show a similar comparison for treble-section lower-stage schools. Tables E and F show the costs of three possible schools combining lower and upper stages.

1. Table 6, as well as Tables A to F in the Appendix, should be read in conjunction with Table 5; the figures in parentheses in these tables refer to the 'Scale of units' column in Table 5.

TABLE 6. Summary of capital costs per place

Sections: lower + upper		2 + 0			3 + 0			2+2	3+2	3+3
Sex:		Boys	Girls	Mixed	Boys	Girls	Mixed	Mixed	Mixed	Mixed
		£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
<i>Boarding</i>										
Buildings and works		433	467	462	417	436	426	441	418	417
Furniture and equipment		89	82	94	88	73	81	94	84	82
TOTALS		522	549	556	505	509	507	535	502	499
<i>Day</i>										
Buildings and works		260	294	289	248	267	258	271	251	251
Furniture and equipment		67	59	72	67	52	59	72	63	61
TOTALS		327	353	361	315	319	317	343	314	312

42. A study of Table 6 reveals some interesting points. If a school has only two sections at the lower stage, the existence of girls in the school makes the capital cost per place about 5 per cent more expensive in a boarding school and about 9 per cent more in a day school; Table A shows that this is due to the costs of the buildings for the teaching of homecraft, which are not fully utilized in a school of this size; the difference disappears if the lower stage is of three sections, because these premises are then more fully utilized (the cheaper rate of furniture and equipment for the girls' school, as compared with the boys' and mixed schools, is due to the heavy weighting of the equipment for the metal workshop in the total costs of boys' practical work). Building and equipping a three-section school, as compared with a two-section school, is about 7 per cent cheaper per place for boarding schools and about 9.5 per cent for day schools. The addition of upper places reduces the over-all average very slightly, which means that the extra upper-stage place cost arising from more expensive teaching facilities and additional housing for staff at a higher teacher-pupil ratio is slightly more than set off by the costs arising from practical subjects in lower classes, which are not taught in upper classes.

43. This close proximity of the costs per place in an integrated lower and upper school and those in a school which has only lower classes makes place costing for the purposes of a plan easier. From these figures it is reasonable to say that a secondary-school place

in a development plan can be costed at £500 for a boarding place and £315 per day place, on the assumption that the plan was to be costed for new three-section schools.

44. If, however, one were expanding, say, a two-section mixed boarding school to three sections, the costs would work out as follows:

Three-section: buildings and works, £179,104; plus furniture and equipment, £33,901; a total of £213,005.

Two-section: buildings and works, £129,428; plus furniture and equipment, £26,365; a total of £155,793.

The extra cost thus is £57,212, which, for 140 additional places, would work out at £409 per extra place. This is based on the assumption that the buildings to be added are separate from the existing buildings, and that the original two-section school is fully built and equipped. It often happens that it is not!

45. Having gone through the maze of these calculations, let us now ask ourselves exactly what we have achieved and for what purpose. It is most important to realize the limited functions of these cost figures, and how they fit into the scheme of planning and implementing development.

These figures give an approximate cost per unit which can be used in projecting over-all enrolments and provision of places. We could say, for instance, that a plan envisaging the addition of 185 lower-stage and 40 upper-stage secondary classes in new treble-section schools, an enrolment of 6,150 at the lower stage and 1,170 at the upper, would result in the following costs (assuming all are boarding):

Additional recurrent costs per annum when development is complete would be: lower stage, $6,150 \times £116$, i.e., £713,400; upper stage, $1,170 \times £133$, i.e., £155,610; a total of £869,010; or, in round figures, about £870,000.

Capital cost of developing the places ($185 \times 35 + 40 \times 30 \times £500$) would be £3,837,500, i.e., one could talk in terms of £3.8 million.

46. This is as far as these figures go, and it should not be thought that they can give any more accurate information than this. All sorts of factors can affect them: teachers' salaries, for example, may be revised at rates which change their real value in relation to the economy of the country. An important factor in capital expenditure is the possibility of variations in building costs, depending on the changing relationship between the total construction work being

carried out in the country and the capacity of the building industry; a few large building projects falling at the same time could saturate the capacity of the industry and raise tenders by appreciable percentages; equally, a dearth of contracts available at any one time could, at least temporarily, pull prices down. These costings must therefore be reviewed at least annually, in the light of experience, and the whole plan, which might itself be changed in other respects, must be re-costed. Calculations of this nature can only be used to assess the order of magnitude of the cost of a plan. There are so many assumptions made in building up a plan that it would be deceptive to give too much precision to the final figure; hence the choice of, say, the round figure of £500 for the capital cost of a secondary-school boarding place. Each year the sums of money required must be estimated on the basis of the schools, teachers, and pupils known to exist; and the actual cost is not known until the last pound is spent.

Appendix to Part Two

The costing of educational plans

TABLE A. Costs of buildings and works for double-section lower-stage schools¹

		Boys	
Sections: lower + upper		2 + 0	
Classes: lower + upper		8 + 0	
Places: lower + upper		280 + 0	
Sex:		Boys	
Item	Building or works	Boys	
		Boarding	Day
		£	£
1	Office	1 110	1 110
2	Staff room	(+ 13) 897	(+ 13) 897
3	Library	2 078	2 078
4	Class-rooms	(6) 6 000	(6) 6 000
5	Class-room stores	600	600
6	Geography room	-	-
7	Art and craft room	1 620	1 620
8	Laboratories	5 620	5 620
9	Home economics combined practical room	-	-
10	Home economics model house	-	-
11	Home economics extra practical room	-	-
12	Workshops	(1 + 1) 2 610	(1 + 1) 2 610
13	Technical drawing room	1 453	1 453
14	W.C.s. (day school)	-	672
15	Class-room W.C.s.	336	-
16	Dormitories	30 240	-
17	Laundry drying area	2 058	-
18	Student's common-room	1 680	-
19	Sick bay	1 576	-
20	Matron's quarter	1 060	-
21	Dining hall	7 476	-
22	Kitchen		-
24	Stores, maintenance of premises	290	290
25	Head's house	3 200	3 200
26	Teacher's/Bursar's houses	(14) 39 200	(14) 39 200
27	Subordinate staff houses	1 760	-
28	Water supply	4 000	3 000
29	Sewage	4 000	3 000
30	Electricity	1 000	500
31	Other site works	1 500	1 000
TOTALS		121 364	72 850
Average (cost per place)		433	260

1. Items 28 to 31 are estimated as average.

Girls		Mixed	
Boarding	Day	Boarding	Day
£	£	£	£
1 110	1 110	1 110	1 110
(× 13) 897	(× 13) 897	(× 13) 897	(× 13) 897
2 078	2 078	2 078	2 078
(6) 6 000	(6) 6 000	(6) 6 000	(6) 6 000
600	600	600	600
-	-	-	-
1 620	1 620	1 620	1 620
5 620	5 620	5 620	5 620
5 100	5 100	2 550	2 550
5 928	5 928	2 964	2 964
2 550	2 550	2 550	2 550
-	-	(1 + 1) 2 610	(1 + 1) 2 610
-	-	1 543	1 453
-	672	-	672
336	-	336	-
30 240	-	30 240	-
2 058	-	2 058	-
1 680	-	1 680	-
1 576	-	1 576	-
1 060	-	1 060	-
7 476	-	7 476	-
290	290	290	290
3 200	3 200	3 200	3 200
(14) 39 200	(14) 39 200	(14) 39 200	(14) 39 200
1 760	-	1 760	-
4 000	3 000	4 000	3 000
4 000	3 000	4 000	3 000
1 000	500	1 000	500
1 500	1 000	1 500	1 000
<hr/> 130 879	<hr/> 82 365	<hr/> 129 428	<hr/> 80 914
467	294	462	289

The costing of educational plans

TABLE B. Costs of furniture and equipment for double-section lower-stage schools

		Boys	
Sections: lower + upper		2 + 0	
Classes: lower + upper		8 + 0	
Places: lower + upper		280 + 0	
Sex:		Boys	
Item	Type of furniture or equipment	Boys	
		Boarding	Day
		£	£
1	Office	220	220
2	Staff room	(× 13) 39	(× 13) 39
3	Library:		
	Furniture and equipment	168	168
	Books	800	800
4	Class-rooms	(6) 1 140	(6) 1 140
6	Geography room	-	-
7	Art and craft rooms	450	450
8	Laboratories:		
	Gas installation	270	270
	Furniture	900	900
	Teaching equipment	1 800	1 800
9	Home economics combined practical room	-	-
10	Home economics model house	-	-
11	Home economics extra practical room	-	-
12	Workshops	4 100	4 100
13	Technical drawing room	450	450
16	Dormitories	3 360	-
18	Students' common-room	182	-
19	Sick bay	168	-
20	Matron's quarters	150	-
21	Dining hall	980	-
22	Kitchen:		
	Furniture and equipment ¹	238	-
	Cooking equipment	1 200	-
25	Head's house	400	400
26	Teachers'/Bursar's houses	(14) 4 200	(14) 4 200
32	Initial textbooks	2 000	2 000
33	Other initial teaching equipment	500	500
34	Vehicle	1 300	1 300
	TOTALS	15 015	18 737
Average (cost per place)		89	67

1. The cost of cooking equipment has been assessed at about the average of the various types available.

Girls		Mixed	
Boarding	Day	Boarding	Day
£	£	£	£
220	220	220	220
(× 13) 39	(× 13) 39	(× 13) 39	(× 13) 39
168	168	168	168
800	800	800	800
(6) 1 140	(6) 1 140	(6) 1 140	(6) 1 140
-	-	-	-
450	450	450	450
270	270	270	270
900	900	900	900
1 800	1 800	1 800	1 800
2 020	2 020	1 010	1 010
200	200	100	100
240	240	240	240
-	-	4 100	4 100
-	-	450	450
3 360	-	3 360	-
182	-	182	-
168	-	168	-
150	-	150	-
980	-	980	-
238	-	238	-
1 200	-	1 200	-
400	400	400	400
(14) 4 200	(14) 4 200	(14) 4 200	(14) 4 200
2 000	2 000	2 000	2 000
500	500	500	500
1 300	1 300	1 300	1 300
22 925	16 647	26 365	20 087
82	59	94	72

The costing of educational plans

TABLE C. Costs of buildings and works for treble-section lower-stage schools

Sections: lower + upper		3 + 0	
Classes: lower + upper		12 + 0	
Places: lower + upper		420 + 0	
Sex:		Boys	
Item	Building or works	Boarding	Day
		£	£
1	Office	1 110	1 110
2	Staff room	(× 19) 1 311	(× 19) 1 311
3	Library	3 116	3 116
4	Class-rooms	(9) 9 000	(9) 9 000
5	Class-room stores	900	900
6	Geography room	—	—
7	Art and craft room	3 240	3 240
8	Laboratories	8 430	8 430
9	Home economics combined practical room	—	—
10	Home economics model house	—	—
11	Home economics extra practical room	—	—
12	Workshops	(2 + 2) 5 220	(2 + 2) 5 220
13	Technical drawing room	2 906	2 906
14	W.C.s. (day school)	—	1 008
15	Class-room W.C.s.	504	—
16	Dormitories	45 360	—
17	Laundry drying area	3 087	—
18	Students' common-room	2 520	—
19	Sick bay	2 365	—
20	Matron's quarters	1 060	—
21	Dining hall	11 214	—
22	Kitchen		
24	Stores, maintenance of premises	550	550
25	Head's house	3 200	3 200
26	Teachers'/Bursar's houses	(20) 56 000	(20) 56 000
27	Subordinate staff houses	1 760	—
28	Water supply	4 500	3 250
29	Sewage	5 400	3 250
30	Electricity	1 250	500
31	Other site works	2 000	1 250
	TOTALS	175 103	104 241
	Average (cost per place)	417	248

3 + 0 12 + 0 420 + 0 Girls		3 + 0 12 + 0 420 + 0 Mixed	
Boarding	Day	Boarding	Day
£	£	£	£
1 110	1 110	1 110	1 110
(× 19) 1 311	(× 19) 1 311	(× 19) 1 311	(× 19) 1 311
3 116	3 116	3 116	3 116
(9) 9 000	(9) 9 000	(9) 9 000	(9) 9 000
900-	900	900	900
-	-	-	-
3 240	3 240	3 240	3 240
8 430	8 430	8 430	8 430
5 100	5 100	2 550	2 550
5 928	5 928	2 964	2 964
5 100	5 100	2 550	2 550
-	-	(1 + 1) 2 610	(1 + 1) 2 610
-	-	1 453	1 453
-	1 008	-	1 008
504	-	504	-
45 360	-	45 360	-
3 087	-	3 087	-
2 520	-	2 520	-
2 365	-	2 365	-
1 060	-	1 060	-
11 214	-	11 214	-
550	550	550	550
3 200	3 200	3 200	3 200
(20) 56 000	(20) 56 000	(20) 56 000	(20) 56 000
1 760	-	1 760	-
4 500	3 250	4 500	3 250
4 500	3 250	4 500	3 250
1 250	500	1 250	500
2 000	1 250	2 000	1 250
183 105	112 243	179 104	108 242
436	267	426	258

The costing of educational plans

TABLE D. Costs of furniture and equipment for treble-section lower-stage schools

Sections: lower + upper		3 + 0	
Classes: lower + upper		12 + 0	
Places: lower + upper		420 + 0	
Sex:		Boys	
Item	Type of furniture or equipment	Boarding	Day
		£	£
1	Office	220	220
2	Staff room	(× 19) 57	(× 19) 57
3	Library:		
	Furniture and equipment	252	252
	Books	1 200	1 200
4	Class-rooms	(9) 1 710	(9) 1 710
6	Geography room	—	—
7	Art and craft rooms	900	900
8	Laboratories:		
	Gas installation	270	270
	Furniture	1 350	1 350
	Teaching equipment	1 800	1 800
9	Home economics combined practical room	—	—
10	Home economics model house	—	—
11	Home economics extra practical room	—	—
12	Workshops	8 200	8 200
13	Technical drawing room	900	900
16	Dormitories	5 040	—
18	Students' common-room	273	—
19	Sick bay	252	—
20	Matron's quarters	150	—
21	Dining hall	1 470	—
22	Kitchen:		
	Furniture and equipment	357	—
	Cooking equipment	1 500	—
25	Head's house	400	400
26	Teachers'/Bursar's houses	(20) 6 000	(20) 6 000
32	Initial textbooks	3 000	3 000
33	Other initial teaching equipment	500	500
34	Vehicle	1 300	1 300
	TOTALS	37 101	28 059
	Average (cost per place)	88	67

Girls		Mixed	
Boarding	Day	Boarding	Day
£	£	£	£
220	220	220	220
(× 19) 57	(× 19) 57	(× 19) 57	(× 19) 57
252	252	252	252
1 200	1 200	1 200	1 200
(9) 1 710	(9) 1 710	(9) 1 710	(9) 1 710
-	-	-	-
900	900	900	900
270	270	270	270
1 350	1 350	1 350	1 350
1 800	1 800	1 800	1 800
2 020	2 020	1 010	1 010
200	200	100	100
480	480	240	240
-	-	4 100	4 100
-	-	450	450
5 040	-	5 040	-
273	-	273	-
252	-	252	-
150	-	150	-
1 470	-	1 470	-
357	-	357	-
1 500	-	1 500	-
400	400	400	400
(20) 6 000	(20) 6 000	(20) 6 000	(20) 6 000
3 000	3 000	3 000	3 000
500	500	500	500
1 300	1 300	1 300	1 300
30 701	21 659	33 901	24 859
73	52	81	59

The costing of educational plans

TABLE E. Costs of buildings and works for some integrated lower- and upper-stage schools

Sections: lower + upper		2 + 2 (1 arts, 1 science)	
Classes: lower + upper		8 + 4	
Places: lower + upper		280 + 120	
Sex:		Mixed	
Item	Building or works	Boarding	Day
		£	£
1	Office	1 110	1 110
2	Staff room	(× 19) 1 311	(× 19) 1 311
3	Library	3 336	3 336
4	Class-rooms	(9) 9 000	(9) 9 000
5	Class-room stores	900	900
6	Geography room	1 620	1 620
7	Art and craft room	1 620	1 620
8	Laboratories	8 430	8 430
9	Home economics combined practical room	2 550	2 550
10	Home economics model house	2 964	2 964
11	Home economics extra practical room	2 550	2 550
12	Workshops	(1 + 1) 2 610	(1 + 1) 2 610
13	Technical drawing room	1 453	1 453
14	W.C.s. (day school)	—	960
15	Class-room W.C.s.	480	—
16	Dormitories	43 200	—
17	Laundry drying area	2 940	—
18	Students' common-room	2 400	—
19	Sick bay	2 252	—
20	Matron's quarters	1 060	—
21	Dining hall	10 680	—
22	Kitchen		
24	Stores, maintenance of premises	550	550
25	Head's house	3 200	3 200
26	Teachers'/Bursar's houses	(20) 56 000	(20) 56 000
27	Subordinate staff houses	1 760	—
28	Water supply	4 500	3 250
29	Sewage	4 500	3 250
30	Electricity	1 250	500
31	Other site works	2 000	1 250
TOTALS		176 226	108 414
Average (cost per place)		441	271

3 + 2 (1 arts, 1 science)		3 + 3 (1 arts, 2 science)	
12 + 4		12 + 6	
420 + 120		420 + 180	
Mixed		Mixed	
Boarding	Day	Boarding	Day
£	£	£	£
1 110	1 110	1 110	1 110
(× 25) 1 725	(× 25) 1 725	(× 28) 1 932	(× 28) 1 932
4 374	4 374	5 002	5 002
(12) 12 000	(12) 12 000	(14) 14 000	(14) 14 000
1 200	1 200	1 400	1 400
1 620	1 620	1 620	1 620
3 240	3 240	3 240	3 240
11 240	11 240	14 050	14 050
2 550	2 550	2 550	2 550
2 964	2 964	2 964	2 964
2 550	2 550	2 550	2 550
(1+1) 2 610	(1 + 1) 2 610	(1 + 1) 2 610	(1 + 1) 2 610
1 453	1 453	1 453	1 453
-	1 296	-	1 440
648	-	720	-
58 320	-	64 800	-
3 969	-	4 410	-
3 240	-	3 600	-
3 040	-	3 378	-
1 060	-	1 060	-
14 418	-	16 020	-
550	550	550	550
3 200	3 200	3 200	3 200
(26) 72 800	(26) 72 800	(29) 81 200	(29) 81 200
1 760	-	1 760	-
5 000	3 500	5 500	3 750
5 000	3 500	5 500	3 750
1 750	750	1 750	750
2 500	1 500	2 500	1 500
225 891	135 732	250 429	150 621
418	251	417	251

The costing of educational plans

TABLE F. Costs of furniture and equipment for some integrated lower- and upper-stage schools

		2 + 2	
		8 + 4	
		280 + 120	
Sex:		Mixed	
Item	Type of furniture or equipment	Boarding	Day
		£	£
1	Office	220	220
2	Staff room	(× 19) 57	(× 19) 57
3	Library:		
	Furniture and equipment	312	312
	Books	1 600	1 600
4	Class-rooms	(9) 1 710	(9) 1 710
6	Geography room	450	450
7	Art and craft rooms	450	450
8	Laboratories:		
	Gas installation	270	270
	Furniture	1 350	1 350
	Teaching equipment	5 100	5 100
9	Home economics combined practical room	1 010	1 010
10	Home economics model house	100	100
11	Home economics extra practical room	240	240
12	Workshops	4 100	4 100
13	Technical drawing room	450	450
16	Dormitories	4 800	-
18	Students' common-room	260	-
19	Sick bay	240	-
20	Matron's quarters	150	-
21	Dining hall	1 400	-
22	Kitchen:		
	Furniture and equipment	340	-
	Cooking equipment	1 500	-
25	Head's house	400	400
26	Teachers'/Bursar's houses	(20) 6 000	(20) 6 000
32	Initial textbooks	3 200	3 200
33	Other initial teaching equipment	500	500
34	Vehicle	1 300	1 300
TOTALS		37 509	28 819
Average (cost per place)		94	72

3 + 2 (1 arts, 1 science)		3 + 3 (1 arts, 2 science)	
12 + 4		12 + 6	
420 + 120		420 + 180	
Mixed		Mixed	
Boarding	Day	Boarding	Day
£	£	£	£
220	220	220	220
(× 25) 75	(× 25) 75	(× 28) 84	(× 28) 84
396	396	468	468
2 000	2 000	2 400	2 400
(12) 2 280	(12) 2 280	(14) 2 660	(14) 2 660
450	450	450	450
900	900	900	900
540	540	540	540
1 800	1 800	2 250	2 250
5 100	5 100	5 100	5 100
1 010	1 010	1 010	1 010
100	100	100	100
240	240	240	240
4 100	4 100	4 100	4 100
450	450	450	450
6 480	-	7 200	-
351	-	390	-
324	-	360	-
150	-	150	-
1 890	-	2 100	-
459	-	510	-
1 800	-	2 000	-
400	400	400	400
(26) 7 800	(26) 7 800	(29) 8 700	(29) 8 700
4 200	4 200	4 800	4 800
500	500	500	500
1 300	1 300	1 300	1 300
45 315	33 861	49 382	36 672
84	63	82	61

Suggestions for further reading

EDDING, F. *Methods of analysing educational outlay*. Paris, Unesco, 1966.

HALLAK, J.; POIGNANT, R. *Les aspects financiers de l'enseignement dans les pays africains d'expression française*. Paris, Unesco/IIEP, 1966.

KNIGHT, J. B. *The costing and financing of educational development in Tanzania*. Paris, Unesco/IIEP, 1966.

ODDIE, G. *Schoolbuilding resources and their effective use*. Paris, OECD, 1966.

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT. *Financing of Education for Economic Growth*. Paris, OECD, 1966.

Other IIEP publications

The following publications are obtainable from Unesco and its national distributors throughout the world:

Educational Planning: a Directory of Training and Research Institutions
1964. Also available in French

Educational Planning: a Bibliography
1964. Also available in French

Educational Planning: an Inventory of Major Research Needs
1965. Also available in French

Problems and Strategies of Educational Planning: Lessons from Latin America
1965. Also available in Spanish

African Research Monographs
Certain titles in the series in French only. Full current list available on request

New Educational Media in Action: Case Studies for Planners
Three volumes

The New Media: Memo to Educational Planners
W. Schramm, P. H. Coombs, F. Kahnert, J. Lyle
Also to be available in French and Spanish

Librairie de l'Unesco
Place de Fontenoy
75 Paris-7^e
France

The International Institute for Educational Planning

The International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) was established by Unesco to serve as an international centre for advanced training and research in the field of educational planning. Its initial basic financing was provided by Unesco, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and the Ford Foundation and its physical facilities by the Government of France. It has since received supplemental support from private and governmental sources.

The Institute's aim is to expand knowledge and the supply of competent experts in educational planning in order to assist all nations to accelerate their educational development as a prime requirement for general economic and social development. In this endeavour the Institute co-operates with interested training and research organizations throughout the world.

The Governing Board of the Institute (August 1966) is as follows:

Chairman

Sir Sydney Caine (United Kingdom), Director, The London School of Economics and Political Science.

Ex officio members

Dr. Gabriel Betancur-Mejía, Assistant Director-General for Education, Unesco.
Mr. David Owen, Co-Administrator, United Nations Development Programme.
Mr. Richard H. Demuth, Director, Development Services, International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

The representative of the Director-General, United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization.

Dr. N. Prasad, Director, Asian Institute for Economic Development and Planning.

Elected members

Professor Hellmut Becker (Federal Republic of Germany), President, German Federation of Adult Education Centres; Director, Institut für Bildungsforschung, Berlin.

Dr. Carlos Cueto Fernandini (Peru), Minister of Education.

Mr. J. Ki-Zerbo (Upper Volta), President, National Commission of the Republic of Upper Volta for Unesco.

Dr. D. S. Kothari (India), Chairman, University Grants Commission.

Professor S. A. Shumovsky (U.S.S.R.), Head, Methodological Administration Department, Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized Education, R.S.F.S.R.

Inquiries about the Institute may be addressed to:

The Director, IIEP, 7 rue Eugène-Delacroix, 75 Paris-16^e

[B.2284] \$1.50; 8/-(stg); 5,50 F



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5GB/1
Paris, 29 December 1966
Original : English

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD

Paris, 3-4 February 1967

Item 1 of the Agenda

PROVISIONAL AGENDA

- Item 1 - Adoption of the Agenda (document 5GB/1)
- Item 2 - Report on the revision of Statutes (document 5GB/5)
- Item 3 - Revision of the Rules of Procedure of the Board (document 5GB/6)
- Item 4 - Report of the Director (document 5GB/4, paras 1 to 26)
- Item 5 - Financial reports :
 - (a) Third financial period (1 January to 31 December 1965)
(document 5GB/4, Appendix IV)
 - (b) Interim report for fourth financial period (1 January to
31 December 1966) (document 5GB/4, Appendix V)
- Item 6 - Programme and Budget for fifth financial period - 1 January to
31 December 1967 (document 5GB/4, paras 27 to 63)
- Item 7 - Physical facilities for the Institute (document 5GB/4, paras 61
and 62)
- Item 8 - Election of four members of the Executive Committee
- Item 9 - Election of three members of the Nominating Committee
- Item 10 - Election of the Vice-Chairman and of nine members of the
Council of Consultant Fellows (document 5GB/7)
- Item 11 - Consultation on staff matters
- Item 12 - Place and date of the sixth session of the Board
- Item 13 - Other business.

5GB/2
Paris, 29 December 1966
Original : English

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD

Paris, 3-4 February 1967

Item 1 of the Agenda

PROVISIONAL TIME-TABLE

Note: All meetings will be held at the Institute's Headquarters,
7, rue Eugène-Delacroix, Paris (16^e)

FRIDAY, 3 FEBRUARY

10 a. m. to 1 p. m. : FIRST MEETING

1. Adoption of the Agenda (Item 1 of the Agenda; document 5GB/1).
2. Opening remarks by the Chairman.
3. Report on the revision of Statutes (Item 2 of the Agenda; document 5GB/5).
4. Revision of the Rules of Procedure of the Board (Item 3 of the Agenda; document 5GB/6).
5. Report of the Director on 1966 progress (Item 4 of the Agenda; document 5GB/4, Part I).
6. Financial reports (Item 5 of the Agenda) :
 - (a) Third financial period (1 January to 31 December 1965) (document 5GB/4, Appendix IV).
 - (b) Interim report for fourth financial period (1 January to 31 December 1966) (document 5GB/4, Appendix V).

3 to 6 p. m. : SECOND MEETING

Programme and Budget for 1967 (Item 6 of the Agenda; document 5GB/4, Part II).

6.30 to 8 p. m. : RECEPTION for the Board by the Director (at his home, 94, Quai Louis Blériot, 2nd floor).

8.30 p. m. : DINNER offered by the Chairman (details will be given later).

SATURDAY, 4 FEBRUARY

10 a. m. to 1 p. m. : THIRD MEETING

Programme and Budget for 1967 (continued).

3 to 6 p. m. : FOURTH MEETING

1. Programme and Budget for 1967 (continued).
2. Physical facilities for the Institute (Item 7 of the Agenda; document 5GB/4, paras 61 and 62).
3. Election of four members of the Executive Committee (Item 8 of the Agenda).
4. Election of three members of the Nominating Committee (Item 9 of the Agenda).
5. Election of the Vice-Chairman and of nine members of the Council of Consultant Fellows (Item 10 of the Agenda; document 5GB/7).
6. Consultation on staff members (Item 11 of the Agenda).
7. Place and date of the sixth session of the Board (Item 12 of the Agenda).
8. Other business (Item 13 of the Agenda).

5GB/3
Paris, 29 December 1966
Original : English

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING
FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD

Paris, 3-4 February 1967

Item 1 of the Agenda

LIST OF DOCUMENTS

- | | |
|-------|---|
| 5GB/1 | Provisional Agenda (Item 1 of the Agenda) |
| 5GB/2 | Provisional Time-Table (Item 1 of the Agenda) |
| 5GB/3 | List of documents (Item 1 of the Agenda) |
| 5GB/4 | The Director's Fifth Report to the Governing Board
(Items 4, 5, 6 and 7 of the Agenda) |
| 5GB/5 | Report on the revision of Statutes (Item 2 of the Agenda) |
| 5GB/6 | Revision of the Rules of Procedure of the Governing Board
(Item 3 of the Agenda) |
| 5GB/7 | Election of the Vice-Chairman and of nine members of the
Council of Consultant Fellows (Item 10 of the Agenda) |
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5GB/4

Paris, 29 December 1966

Original: English

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD

Paris, 3-4 February 1967

Items 4, 5, 6 and 7 of the Agenda

THE DIRECTOR'S FIFTH REPORT TO THE GOVERNING BOARD

1. It is my honour to submit this Report to the Governing Board for consideration at its Fifth Session on 3-4 February 1967. Part I summarizes the activities of 1966, Part II presents the Proposed Programme and Budget for 1967, and Part III includes other items requiring the Board's attention.
2. First, I wish to welcome the new Members of the Board and to express my sincere thanks to the United Nation's organizations that have contributed so much as ex-officio Members of the Governing Board during the Institute's first three years. I very much hope that they will continue this fruitful co-operation by sending official observers to future Board meetings, as provided for in the recently revised Statutes.
3. I take this opportunity also to thank the many other individuals and organizations who have aided the Institute's work in 1966. They are too numerous to name here, but I should like to mention specifically the Director-General and Deputy Director-General and their Unesco colleagues who have found time despite their busy schedules to help the Institute in many ways.

PART I. REVIEW OF 1966 ACTIVITIES

4. In its third full year of operation the Institute carried out virtually all the items in the large programme authorized by the Board a year ago, except for some delays in publications and the completion of some research reports. In this period the Institute approximately trebled its training activities, completed two large research projects, progressed on other research, produced 8 new publications and sent others to the printer, and considerably expanded its direct services to Unesco. The main activities are summarized below under (A) Training, (B) Production of Training Materials, and (C) Research.

5.

TABLE 1 - SUMMARY OF 1966 ACTIVITIESA. TRAINING

1. Intern Programme - Certificates awarded to 8 interns completing 10 months experimental First Cycle. In October 1966, 15 new interns began the Second Cycle (to run through July, 1967).
2. Senior Visiting Fellows - During 1966, 5 fellows spent one month or longer at the Institute on advanced studies and research; 5 others came for shorter periods.
3. Summer Interns - 5 graduate students spent two months as trainees and temporary staff assistants.
4. Seminar for Unesco Experts - 14 participants (mostly Unesco planning advisors to developing countries) spent two weeks studying selected problems and methodologies of educational planning.
5. Seminar on Statistics and Methodology - Two weeks duration; 18 participants, including professors from Regional Centres and universities; devoted to improving the teaching of statistics and methodology in educational planning training programmes.
6. Seminar for Senior Officials of Member States - 9 high level planning officials from Africa and Asia spent two weeks examining selected problems and methodologies of educational planning.
7. Workshop on Training Educational Planners - 23 participants, including Directors of Unesco Regional Centres and university professors, devoted two weeks to examining training problems and reaching conclusions on ways to strengthen educational planning training programmes (report in process).
8. Visits to Unesco Regional Centres - IIEP provided 8 weeks of staff time to planning and giving lectures and seminars at regional courses of the Dakar Centre in Tanzania and Senegal. Further staff time was involved in visiting and lecturing at the Beirut Centre, participating in the Simla meeting of the New Delhi Centre, and visiting the Santiago Centre.

TABLE 1 (cont'd)

9. Briefings for Unesco Educational Experts - One day briefings were provided for approximately 25 Unesco experts going to developing countries. The Institute also participated in briefings of Unesco Literacy teams.

10. Other Training-Related Activities - Several short seminars were provided for visiting university groups; IIEP members gave lectures and participated in meetings sponsored by several other organizations (e. g. UNICEF, OECD, universities, Finnish and French Unesco National Commissions, The Turkish Economic and Social Studies Conference Board.

B. PRODUCTION OF TRAINING MATERIALS

11. Instructional Booklets on "Fundamentals of Educational Planning" - First four booklets sent to the printer, for release in early 1967.

12. Experimental Tape-recorded Instructional Units - Several units (including tape-recorded IIEP lectures and integrated mimeographed readings) were sent to Regional Centres and co-operating universities for trial use.

13. Quantitative Methodologies - Correa manuscript further revised; first draft of Chesswas book one-third completed.

14. Mimeographed Lectures and Working Papers - More than 20 IIEP selected working papers and transcribed lectures were distributed to Regional Centres and selected universities for training use.

C. RESEARCH

15. African Case Studies - First 8 research Monographs published; 4 others at printers; remaining 6 in process.

16. New Educational Media Study - Final Report and three volumes of (21) case studies completed and being prepared for printer; publication scheduled for early 1967.

17. Second Edition of Directory of Research and Training Institutions - Manuscript completed; scheduled for reproduction in 1967.

TABLE 1 (cont'd)

18. Manpower Aspects of Educational Planning - Symposium held 23-25 May 1966 with 21 participants; book length report being finally revised for printing.
19. Qualitative Aspects of Educational Planning - Symposium held 20- 24 June 1966 with 19 participants; book length report three-quarters edited for printing.
20. Study of Educational Planning in the USSR - Progress made but delays encountered on Final Report; now scheduled for completion, Spring 1967.
21. Study of Educational Planning in France - IIEP International Team of Experts visited France 17 - 29 October 1966; basic manuscript nearly completed; report of Visiting Team being prepared, for publication in 1967.
22. Other Research-Related Activities: (a) One staff member contributed a paper and participated in Unesco Seminar on Costs and Finance in Latin America; (b) assistance provided on revision of Unesco "Draft Asian Model"; (c) preliminary working papers completed on "Education as an Investment in National Growth" and on Planning methodologies.

Observations on 1966 Programme

Training-Related Activities

6. During 1966 a total of 102 persons participated, for periods ranging from one week to several months, in the Intern and Visiting Fellows Programmes and in IIEP seminars and workshops; another 34 received instruction from IIEP staff members at Regional Centre courses, making an over-all total of 136. This compares with 57 in 1965 and 27 in 1964.

7. These 1966 training-related activities were largely handled by 7 staff members, who also carried workloads of research, administration etc. According to estimated allocations of staff time and expenditures in 1966, training-related activities accounted for approximately half of the Institute's total effort, an increase over 1965.

Intern Programme

8. This programme has been considerably revised and strengthened, on the basis of experience with the First Cycle and conclusions reached in the Workshop on Training. More subjects are covered, more seminars held (usually 5 per week, 2 to 3 hours each), more short papers and specific readings are assigned. The tutorial emphasis remains, however, and will be increased in the spring when interns undertake the preparation of major papers.

9. This enlarged and more intensive Intern Programme has placed a considerably greater load on virtually all staff members. The Institute has received assurances from all Interns (and where appropriate their governments also), that they will return to responsible positions relating to educational planning. On the average, this year's new interns are older, more experienced and at a higher level than the first group, due partly to the greater opportunity the Institute had to identify and select candidates further in advance.

10. The 1965-66 and 1966-67 interns have come from the following countries: Afghanistan, Belgium (2), Brazil, Cameroons, Chile, Colombia (2), Ecuador, Finland, Malagasy Republic, Mali, Mexico, Nigeria (2), Spain (2), Togo, Turkey, U.A.R., U.S.A., Venezuela (2).

Visiting Fellows

11. Each one has pursued an individual programme fitted to his particular needs, interests and job requirements, including frequent consultation with staff members, participation in relevant seminars at the time, considerable reading, listening to tape-recorded lectures, preparation of analytical papers. The 1966 Fellows who spent at least one month came from the following countries: Australia (Western Region), Jamaica, New Zealand, Pakistan, Turkey.

Instructional Materials

12. The Netherlands Grant has enabled the Institute to expand its efforts in this area. The work is now organized to ensure a substantial flow of useful teaching materials in 1967. The main strategy is to use the Institute's Seminars and other meetings, in addition to their immediate purpose, as a vehicle for generating subject matter that can help overcome the worldwide shortage of good teaching materials in educational planning.

Research

13. Much of the 1966 research effort was devoted to finishing the new media study on schedule and the African Research Monographs, to organizing and conducting the International Mission to study French educational planning, and to arranging and following up on the Symposia on manpower and qualitative aspects of educational planning. All this plus progress on the Soviet study and miscellaneous other activities connected with research placed a very heavy load on the staff, resulting in a few delays. On the whole, however, schedules were fairly well maintained and substantial work was completed. It is, of course, too early to judge what reception the Institute's research reports will eventually receive, but initial reactions, for example, to the first 8 African Research Monographs and two drafts of the new media reports have been encouraging.

Library

14. The Institute's documents collection continues to grow in size, richness and utilization. A number of visitors have remarked favorably not only on the useful contents of the Library but on the efficient and courteous services provided by the library staff.

Co-operation with Unesco and Regional Centres

15. There was a large increase in 1966 in services rendered by the Institute to Unesco and its Regional Centres, usually in co-operation with the Secretariat's Office of Educational Planning. Two seminars plus a workshop of two weeks each were organized for Unesco personnel; short briefings were provided to more outgoing education experts and Literacy Teams; the Institute participated in various Unesco technical meetings, both in Paris and the field; Regional Centres were provided with numerous lectures by IIEP staff members and with working papers, instructional materials, library accession lists and IIEP publications.

Publications

16. The completion of a large number of research reports and training documents in a relatively short space of time placed a severe strain on the Institute's limited capacity to process manuscripts for printing and to see them through to final publication and distribution. Unesco's Documents

and Publications service provided very useful technical advice but was not in a position to take on much of the actual workload. Hence the burden fell on the Institute's own staff, which was augmented (to the extent possible) by temporary personnel for copy preparation, proof-reading, cover design, etc. These practical production problems are now on the way to solution, but a serious problem remains of whether the Institute's publications will get satisfactory distribution under present arrangements. This matter is currently under review with Unesco.

Administration

Facilities

17. The provisional buildings of the Institute are being used to capacity. It has become necessary to redeploy space to meet growing needs - for example, to seat three Interns in offices meant for two and to use two meeting rooms instead for typists and publications processing.

Plans for New Building

18. The new French Five Year Plan provides \$1.4 million for the Institute's new facilities and architectural plans are being prepared in close consultation with the Institute and its own consultant architect. Construction is scheduled to begin next fall. The French Ministry of Education has been exceedingly co-operative in this matter, as in others.

Staff Changes

19. The staff assembled for the new media project has now been dismantled, but Professors Schramm and Lyle (back at their universities) and Dr. Kahnert (back at OECD) have continued to help on final revisions of the reports. Miss King is leaving after three years with the Institute, to serve as manpower advisor in Mauritius. Mrs. Roche-Rainhorn who served on the administrative staff for nearly 3 years has joined the World Bank.

20. Dr. Ta Ngoc Chau of Viet-Nam, former Assistant Professor of Economic Development at the University of Paris who assisted on one of the Institute's African studies, has joined the Institute as Assistant Staff Member. He is currently working on problems of cost and finance, demography and planning methodologies. Mr. Herbert Eisele of Germany has become Assistant Administrative Officer. He has a good background in finance, law, management

analysis and language interpretation. With the Director-General's approval, after consulting the Unesco Executive Board, the terms of two Senior Staff Members, Mr. Raymond Poignant and Mr. Raymond Lyons, have been extended by two years.

21. At the end of 1966, the Institute's regular staff includes 14 professionals (4 on administration and 10 on programme) and a support staff of 23. In addition there are 3 temporary copy-preparers and proof-readers to help meet the peak publications load.

Income and Expenditures

22. Estimated expenditures for 1966 total \$638,168 (see Table 2 below) as compared to \$533,530 in 1965. (Revised estimates will be presented at the Board Meeting). Resources available for expenditure in 1966 totalled \$777,594, leaving an estimated carry-over of \$139,426 for use in 1967. This carry-over reflects the postponement of substantial publications costs to 1967, but also a cautious policy of staff recruitment to avoid the necessity of a cut-back in 1967. Expenditures under the US/AID research contract are included in Table 2 as well as to meet them, which were advanced temporarily from other resources pending reimbursement by US/AID.

23. A breakdown of estimated Direct Programme Costs is given in Table 3. These included only the "out-of-pocket" costs of the activities shown, not the staff costs or general administration and services costs.

24. The respective rôles played by Basic Funds (mainly from Unesco and the World Bank) and Supplementary Funds (mainly from US/AID, Ford and the Netherlands) is as follows:

	Basic	Supplemental
General Administration and Services	68%	32%
Staff Costs	69%	31%
Direct Programme Costs	21%	79%
Total	54%	46%

25.

TABLE 2
1966 BUDGET

ESTIMATED FINANCIAL POSITION ON 31 DECEMBER 1966 BY SOURCE OF INCOME

Item	<u>Basic Funds</u>	<u>Ford Grant</u>	<u>Dutch Grant</u>	<u>French Funds</u>	<u>USAID</u>	<u>Total</u>
	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
A. General Administration and Services.....	41,436		1,424		18,232 ⁽¹⁾	61,092
B. Staff Costs.....	263,350	40,000	15,138		62,352	380,840
C. Direct Programme Costs....	41,213	60,000	15,369	12,400	67,254	196,236
	345,999	100,000	31,931	12,400	147,838	638,168
Resources available.....	477,356 ⁽²⁾	100,000	40,000	12,400	147,838	777,594
Carry-over into 1967.....	131,357	-	8,069	-	-	139,426

(1) Includes: \$5,795 indirect costs incurred in 1965, but reimbursed by USAID in 1966.

(2) Includes: \$175,000 from Unesco; \$175,000 from IBRD; \$127,356 carried over from 1966.

TABLE 3
1966 BUDGET

BREAKDOWN OF ESTIMATED DIRECT PROGRAMME
COSTS BY PROJECT AND BY SOURCE OF FINANCING

<u>Item</u>	<u>Basic</u> <u>Funds</u>	<u>Supplementary</u> <u>Funds</u>	<u>Total</u>
	\$	\$	\$
Interns and visiting fellows	11,000		11,000
Training Seminars and Workshops	10,000		10,000
Direct Supporting Services to Unesco	3,000		3,000
African Studies		26,000 ⁽¹⁾	26,000
Soviet Study		2,000 ⁽²⁾	2,000
French Study		19,000 ⁽²⁾	19,000
Research Meetings and Symposia	7,000	25,000 ⁽²⁾	32,000
Other Research Projects	2,000		2,000
Production of Training Materials	2,000	16,000 ⁽³⁾	18,000
Miscellaneous Documents	2,000		2,000
Documentation Centre	4,000		4,000
New Educational Media Research Project		67,000 ⁽⁴⁾	67,000
TOTAL	<u>41,000</u>	<u>155,000</u>	<u>196,000</u>

(1) Ford Research Grant: \$ 14,000; French Funds: \$ 12,000

(2) Ford Research Grant

(3) Dutch Grant

(4) USAID

PART II. PROPOSED PROGRAMME AND BUDGET FOR 1967

27. The Proposed Programme presented below fits available resources for 1967 and policies previously approved by the Governing Board. It also responds fully to the 1967 needs estimated by the Secretariat for the training and updating of Unesco experts and Regional Centre professors.

28. The proposed activities relating to training generally follow the 1966 pattern, but with increased emphasis on preparing future trainers and international experts of educational planning, and with enlarged production of instructional materials. Under Research, priority is given to completing work in process and to initiating new research along four main lines: general methodology, the educational planning process, financing education, and raising educational productivity.

29. This Proposed Programme should be viewed as a general framework, with sufficient flexibility to accomodate unforeseen opportunities and obstacles. It can be expected, however, that a programme of approximately the following shape and size, if approved by the Board, will be carried out.

30. TABLE 4 - SUMMARY OF PROPOSED PROGRAMME FOR 1967

A. TRAINING

1. Intern Programme - Complete Second Cycle with 15 Interns in July; begin Third Cycle with 15 participants in October 1967.
2. Visiting Fellows - Total of about 20 for the year including: 10 or more Unesco planning experts and Regional Centre professors (one month each), 3 or 4 Research Fellows preparing to become professors or international experts (9 months), and several Senior experts of Member States (3 or 4 months).
3. Summer Interns - 4 or 5 participants, 8 to 10 weeks, each with a special study plan and analytical assignment.
4. Seminar for Unesco Experts - 2 weeks duration, about 20 participants, possibly including some Member State experts accompanying Unesco experts.

TABLE 4 (cont'd)

5. Seminar for Professors of Educational Planning - 2 weeks duration, for staff members of Unesco Regional Centres and universities; with emphasis on economic aspects of educational planning; 15-20 participants.
 6. Workshop for Directors of Educational Planning Training Programmes - 2 weeks duration, for Directors of Unesco Regional Centres and university programmes; 12 to 15 participants; to follow up last summer's workshop on ways to strengthen training of educational planners throughout the world.
 7. Visits to Unesco Regional Centres - 2 or more Centres to be visited by IIEP members for lectures and consultation.
 8. Miscellaneous - Briefing of Unesco educational experts and literacy teams; organization of special meetings for visiting university groups; occasional visiting lectures and participation in programmes of other organizations.
- B. INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS
9. "Training Educational Planners" - Completion of Final Report based on 1966 workshop and other IIEP training experience.
 10. Booklet Series on "Fundamentals of Educational Planning" - 5 or 6 new titles to be added.
 11. Books on Quantitative Methodology - Chesswas book to be completed; Correa book in revised form to be reproduced for limited distribution.
 12. Tape-Recorded Instructional Units - If evaluation results warrant, 10 or more new units will be added to the experimental series.
 13. Transcribed Lectures - Approximately 20 selected lectures from IIEP Seminars to be reproduced and distributed for training purposes

TABLE 4 (cont'd)

C. RESEARCH: WORK IN PROCESS

14. African Studies - Remaining 10 monographs to be published.
15. USSR Study - Report to be completed and published.
16. French Study - Report to be completed and published.
17. New Educational Media Study - Final Report and 3 volumes of case studies to be published.
18. Manpower Aspects of Educational Planning - Book manuscript to be completed and published.
19. Qualitative Aspects of Educational Planning - Book manuscript to be completed and published.

D. RESEARCH: NEW STUDIES

20. General Methodology - Series of analytical papers on methodological problems encountered and alternative solutions employed by Unesco missions and others, based on available documentation.
21. Educational Planning Process - Construction of a conceptual framework and instruments for assessing and comparing the progress of the educational planning process in individual countries; examination of the organizational and administrative arrangements for formulating and implementing educational plans in a few sample countries.
22. Financing Education - Comparative study of the sources of educational finance in a sample of developing and developed countries, with a view to assessing trends and limitations and to revealing potential new sources of finance.
23. Raising Educational Productivity - an initial conceptual analysis of the meaning of "productivity" as applied to education; a study of practical approaches to raising educational productivity, including examples of successful efforts; experimental case studies applying cost-benefit analysis to such fields as teacher training and technical training; possible Research Symposium on this general subject.

TABLE 4 (cont'd)

24. Papers for 1968 International Conference - During 1967 the Institute will prepare one or more papers for the 1968 Unesco International Conference on Educational Planning on topics to be determined in consultation with the Office of Educational Planning.

25. Other Possible Research Topics - If additional resources should become available, new research could also be initiated on topics relating to the social, manpower, qualitative or international aspects of educational planning.

Discussion of Proposed 1967 Programme

31. The following comments relate only to policy questions or problems requiring the Board's attention, and to new programme items that need explanation.

Training Priorities and Fellowships

32. The Institute and the Secretariat have been agreed for some time that first priority should be given to preparing and updating teachers of educational planning, second priority to international experts, and third priority to senior experts of Member States.

33. After two years of experience these priorities still seem valid. The Institute can undoubtedly contribute most to expanding the world's supply of educational planners by enlarging the supply of competent trainers of such planners, to serve in Unesco Regional Centres, national programmes and universities. The creation of instructional materials for widespread use will contribute further to this objective. Next in importance is the preparation of international experts, particularly for Unesco but also for other international and bi-lateral organizations. In addition to giving advice and operational help, these experts can provide on-the-job training to local planning personnel.

34. The above considerations in no way reduce the importance of training national experts for individual Member States, but obviously the Institute can meet only a small fraction of this need; the bulk must be handled by regional and national training programmes, including on-the-job training.

Priority should be given by the Institute to those candidates who are personally well qualified and who come from countries that have already made a serious beginning on educational planning.

35. The Institute has had difficulty applying the first two priorities, in contrast to the third, mainly because Unesco has not found it practicable to send many of its planning experts and Regional Centre professors to the Institute for more than short briefings or for two week seminars. This situation will be improved by a recent ruling of the Director-General whereby every new Unesco planning expert or professor of planning who is going to the field for one year or longer must first spend one month at the Institute.

36. Still further steps are required, however, to build a strong career development system for Unesco planning personnel. Ideally, each should receive at least as much training at the Institute as any Intern before going to the field. Those already serving in the field should return to the Institute periodically for a period of refreshment and up-dating.

37. To move further in this direction, it is recommended that the Institute set aside \$20,000 for the recruitment and support of a few highly qualified Research Fellows who would spend nearly one year at the Institute preparing for careers as professors or international experts of educational planning. The Office of Educational Planning would be consulted on the selection of candidates, in the hope that preference would later be given to the Research Fellows in filling available Unesco posts. They might also, of course, find employment with other international or bi-lateral agencies.

38. Good candidates would be sought among younger faculty members of universities and promising educational administrators and planners in both developing and developed countries. They would require an adequate fellowship stipend to cover family living costs in Paris. (Unlike most UN fellowship holders, they would not continue to receive their normal salary at home). Each would follow a specially tailored programme incorporating pertinent elements of the Intern and Visiting Fellows Programme but also emphasizing direct participation in the Institute's research programme. If the Governing Board thinks well of this idea, the details can be worked out quickly and the new programme put into action by next fall.

39. Beyond this new programme it is proposed that stronger emphasis be given to selecting more candidates for the Visiting Fellows Programme and the Intern Programme who give promise of becoming professors or international experts of educational planning. This would reduce somewhat the proportion of Member State experts in these programmes, though overall they would still undoubtedly account for more than half the total.

40. There is prospect of a serious shortage of UN Fellowships tenable at the Institute in the 1967-68 biennium, due to the small number of educational planning fellowships requested by developing countries under their UN Technical Assistance Allocation. The problem is not simply one of limited numbers but of distribution by countries. Unless the Institute has a fairly wide range of choice, it cannot give full effect to its priorities and selection standards. Unesco is endeavoring to overcome this fellowship shortage, but at the moment the problem remains unsolved. It is hoped that certain advanced countries with bi-lateral aid programmes will also find it possible to contribute toward a solution. The Institute cannot divert many of its own limited resources to fellowships without seriously jeopardizing the quality and scope of its whole programme. The Governing Board's counsel on this important matter is requested.

Seminars and Workshop

41. These three meetings, requested by the Secretariat, are primarily for Unesco Experts and Regional Centre personnel though open to university people and selected Member State officials. This year several Member State experts will be invited to attend the Seminar for Unesco Experts. The Seminar for Professors of Educational Planning (devoted last year to statistics and methodology) will concentrate on economic aspects. The Workshop on Training will again bring the Regional Centre Directors together with university officials to explore ways to improve training of educational planners, though there may be difficulty persuading university people who came to similar meetings last year, at their own expense, to return again so soon.

Briefing of Unesco Experts

42. In the past the Institute has provided one-day briefings for miscellaneous Unesco educational experts enroute to field assignments. They have usually come one or two at a time and had talks with 3 or 4 staff members. The Secretariat has proposed a reduction of these briefings to one-half day.

While it is interesting to meet these people and no doubt useful for them to know about the Institute's work, it is clearly impossible for them to learn much about educational planning in so short a time. The Board may wish to consider what priority should attach to this activity, taking into account the substantial staff time and disruption of work schedules involved, per expert served.

Special Requests for Training

43. The Institute may possibly be asked by outside organizations in 1967 to organize one or more special training programmes, either in Paris or the field. For example, the Inter-American Bank, which is much interested in strengthening higher education in Latin America, has inquired whether the IIEP might be able to provide special training in university planning and management for a selected group of Latin Americans on a contract basis. A bi-lateral aid agency has raised a similar question about the in-service training of its own educational field staff. The Board's policy guidance on this matter would be appreciated.

Research

44. Priority will be given to completing and publishing research work in progress. Some follow-up will also be required; for example, the Institute has been asked to assist in an international conference of educational broadcasters at which the Institute's New Media research results will be examined. Beyond these requirements it should be possible to make a good start on the four proposed areas of new research described immediately below.

Planning Methodology

45. (1) The Institute has already given considerable attention to planning methodologies in its past research and training. It would be desirable to supplement this earlier work by a systematic examination of available documentation - particularly Unesco mission reports on various countries - aimed at identifying major methodological problems encountered in the field and the different methods employed to cope with them. This project would result in a series of working papers, useful for training experts and for making a broader synthesis of the best available methodological practices.

The Educational Planning Process

46. (2) Effective educational planning obviously requires not only appropriate methodologies but efficient organizational and administrative machinery for decision-making and implementation. The Institute's African case studies and its Soviet and French studies gave some attention to these matters, as have various Unesco mission reports and other documents. Thus the basis now exists for constructing a more general analytical framework for describing and appraising the educational planning process as a whole, including the pre-conditions for getting such a process initially underway and its evolutionary development thereafter from one stage to the next (taking into account differences according to level of economic and educational development). The aim of this work would be to provide better criteria and instruments for appraising the progress of educational planning in any particular country and for making inter-country comparisons. Time permitting, a start would also be made on studies of the organizational and administrative arrangements for educational planning in a few sample countries.

Financing Education

47. (3) There are growing indications that in many countries existing sources of finance for education will not yield as large annual increments in the future as in the past, thus putting a brake on educational expansion and improvement. This prospect places a premium on (a) searching for additional sources of revenue and (b) finding ways to raise the productivity of educational resources already available. With respect to (a) the Institute proposes to do a comparative study of the pattern of financial sources for education covering a sample of developing countries. This study, it is hoped, will suggest possible new sources of revenue to some countries. It will also bring into focus important policy issues concerning educational finance and show how some countries have dealt with them.

Educational Costs and Productivity

48. Along with identifying possible new sources of revenue, it is proposed that the Institute also examine the second approach to coping with economic constraints (namely, by raising efficiency and productivity) through the series of studies outlined below.

(a) A comparative analysis of recent trends in educational expenditures for a sample of developing and developed countries, showing their relationship to total public budgets and GNP, and changes in the pattern of resource allocations to different parts and levels of the educational system. This will provide some indication of the feasibility of redeploying available resources within the educational system.

(b) A preliminary general analysis of "productivity" as applied to education, designed to clarify different concepts and terminology and to identify a variety of possible approaches to raising productivity.

(c) A pragmatic study of ways to improve educational productivity, employing available documentary evidence and the judgements of experienced educational experts, and where possible giving examples of successful efforts. This study would follow the general analytical structure developed in (b) above.

(d) A comparative study of unit costs for different types and levels of education, in a sample of developing and developed countries, followed by a study of the main factors which account for significant variations of cost between countries.

(e) Experimental application of comparative cost analysis to alternative ways of achieving specific educational objectives (such as pre-service vs in-service teacher training; formal technical training vs on-the-job training; alternative ways of teaching a foreign language). Where practicable, such cost analysis would be coupled with evidence of educational results achieved, to provide a rough "input-output" gauge of "productivity". These pilot studies would require field work and close co-operation with local experts. If possible they would include some of Unesco's pilot literacy projects.

49. It should be noted that this important field of educational cost analysis and productivity is relatively unexplored and requires much more research than the Institute can handle alone. After further consultation with others interested in this field, it may be desirable for the Institute to convene a Research Symposium of experts on this subject during 1967. It would aim, (a) to achieve a consensus on priority research topics, (b) to establish co-operative arrangements that would enable the Institute to broaden its own research in this field, and (c) to stimulate other institutions to expand their research along complimentary lines.

Other Possible Research

50. The research outlined above is more than ample to keep the Institute fully occupied in 1967. But if new funds should become available or if special opportunities should arise, it would be desirable to initiate limited studies in one or more of the following general areas of major interest to educational planners:

(a) Social aspects of education: Much more needs to be learned about the circumstances under which education accelerates or, alternatively, inhibits social mobility and social changes of various sorts, and about what actually happens to the socio-economic composition of the student body at various educational levels in response to policies aimed at "equalizing" educational opportunity. A synthesis of existing (very limited) research on these questions and a few pilot studies would provide the foundations for broader work later.

(b) Manpower needs and employment opportunities: The Institute's 1966 Symposium on Manpower Aspects of Educational Planning revealed a variety of important topics on which there is a practical need for new research -- for example, on job classifications and related educational qualifications; on improvement of methodology for utilizing manpower data in making educational projections; on adjusting educational plans to anticipate transitional unemployment problems; and on the crucial problem of gearing educational plans to manpower requirements for rural and agricultural development.

(c) Qualitative Aspects: The Institute's Symposium on the Qualitative Aspects of Educational Planning also suggested a number of important research questions. Some of these lie in the field of pedagogy and educational tests and measurements, beyond the Institute's scope, but summary of past research results in these other fields might provide useful guidelines to planners. It might also yield valuable data for productivity analysis, when combined with cost analysis. Beyond this there is need to develop new instruments for appraising the "fitness" of an educational system to its environment, which was considered by the Symposium to be one of the most promising approaches to improving the qualitative performance and social efficiency of education systems.

(d) International Aspects: As soon as time and resources permit, it will be desirable to follow up the Institute's earlier exploratory work on how educational planning can help to raise the effectiveness of foreign aid and the productivity of overseas training (including a reduction of the "brain drain").

International Conference on Educational Planning

51. This 1968 Conference will be prepared by Unesco during 1967. It will bring together 200 to 300 planning experts from all over the world to consider (1) the progress and lessons of educational planning to date, (2) the problems and policy issues involved in formulating educational plans, and (3) strategies for implementing educational plans, in countries at various stages of development. The Institute is consulting with the Office of Educational Planning on how it might most usefully contribute to this Conference. The likelihood is that the Institute will prepare one or two special papers during 1967 for the Conference's use, as well as serving in a general advisory capacity.

Administration

Financial Resources

52. The resources available for **expenditure in 1967** are estimated at \$635,000 (compared to an estimated \$777,000 for 1966). Table 5 shows the breakdown by sources. If a pending request for revision of the US/AID contract is granted, \$30,000 or more would be added to 1967 resources. It should be noted that \$100,000 of the Ford Foundation research grant would remain for use in 1968, whereas the balance of the Netherlands grant would be exhausted in 1967.

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING
FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD

Paris, 3-4 February 1967

Item 6 of the Agenda

THE DIRECTOR'S FIFTH REPORT TO THE GOVERNING BOARD

CORRIGENDUM 1

PART II. PROPOSED PROGRAMME AND BUDGET FOR 1967

Paragraph 53 is revised to read as follows:

"53.

TABLE 5

AVAILABLE RESOURCES, 1966 and 1967
 (Estimated)

	<u>Source</u>	<u>1966</u>		<u>1967</u>	
		\$	\$	\$	\$
1.	<u>Basic Resources</u>				
	Unesco	175,000		325,000	
	World Bank	175,000		-	
	Carry-over from previous fiscal year	127,356		139,000	
	Miscellaneous income	-		<u>11,000</u>	
	Total basic resources.....	477,356		475,000	
2.	<u>Supplemental Resources</u>				
	Ford Research Grant	100,000		110,000	
	Dutch grant	40,000		60,000	
	AID Research contract	147,838		-	
	French Trust Fund (through Unesco)	<u>12,000</u>		-	
	Total supplemental resources.....	300,238		<u>170,000</u>	
	TOTAL RESOURCES.....	<u>777,594</u>		<u>645,000</u>	"

53.

TABLE 5AVAILABLE RESOURCES, 1966 and 1967
(Estimated)

<u>Source</u>	<u>1966</u>		<u>1967</u>	
	\$	\$	\$	\$
<u>1. Basic Resources</u>				
Unesco	175,000		325,000	
World Bank	175,000		-	
Carry-over from previous fiscal year	127,356		139,000	
Miscellaneous income	-		11,000	
Total basic resources	477,356			475,000
<u>2. Supplemental Resources</u>				
Ford Research grant	100,000		100,000	
Dutch grant	40,000		60,000	
AID Research contract	147,838		-	
French Trust Fund (through Unesco)	12,000		-	
Total supplemental resources	300,238			160,000
TOTAL RESOURCES	777,594			635,000

Paragraph 55 is revised to read as follows:

"55.

TABLE 6
1966 and 1967 BUDGETS
BREAKDOWN OF ESTIMATED COSTS BY APPROPRIATION LINE

<u>Appropriation line</u>	<u>1966</u>	<u>1967</u>
	\$	\$
1. General Administration and Services.....	61,092	66,000
2. Staff Costs.....	380,840	401,000
3. Direct Programme Costs ...	<u>196,236</u>	<u>178,000</u>
<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>638,168</u>	<u>645,000</u>

consultants printing costs into programme.

Paragraph 58: The table appearing at the end of this paragraph should read as follows:

"58.

<u>Direct Programme Costs</u>	
Training	\$ 47,700
Instructional Materials	\$ 44,800
Research	\$ 81,500
Other Activities	<u>\$ 4,000</u>
Total	<u>\$ 178,000</u> "

75,000 = finishing off of publication agency materials.

Proposed Budget for 1967

54. A comparison of the 1966 and Proposed 1967 Budgets, broken down by the three main appropriation categories, is shown in Table 6. These estimates are subject to modification in light of year end adjustments, the outcome of the pending request to US/AID, and other presently indeterminate factors.

55.

TABLE 61966 and 1967 BUDGETSBREAKDOWN OF ESTIMATED COSTS BY APPROPRIATION LINE

<u>Appropriation line</u>	<u>1966</u>	<u>1967</u>
	\$	\$
1. General Administration and Services	61,092	66,000
2. Staff Costs	380,840	401,000
3. Direct Programme Costs	196,236	168,000
<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>638,168</u>	<u>635,000</u>

General Administration and Services

56. This item (just over 10 per cent of the total budget) includes certain special costs for 1967, such as two Board meetings rather than one, and expenses relating to the new building. Normal items have been held to a bed-rock minimum and will have to be adjusted upward if unanticipated cost increases occur.

Staff Costs

57. The budget assumes substantially the same staff size and structure as in the last quarter of 1966, with fewer professional members than earlier in 1966 (when the new media project was fully staffed). Nevertheless, overall staff costs for 1967 will be somewhat higher than 1966 because of salary increments and a cost-of-living increase to the clerical staff. Some small savings in clerical staff may be possible after the publications peak has been passed, but it would not reduce overall staff costs appreciably.

Direct Programme Costs

58. Approximately half of the estimated Direct Programme Costs are required for the processing and publication of research reports and instructional materials already in process. The training item includes \$20,000 for Fellowships. Following is an approximate breakdown of the total:

Training	\$ 45,000
Instructional Materials	35,000
Research	78,000
Other Activities	10,000
	<hr/>
Total	\$ 168,000

Feasibility of the Programme

59. In order to test whether the Proposed Programme will fit available staff and financial resources, each set of activities has been "costed" in terms both of money and staff time required. Needless to say, such estimates must necessarily be quite rough because of the many contingencies involved, but since these are based to a great extent on actual 1966 experience they can be taken as reasonably adequate for the purpose. Details will be made available for discussion at the Board meeting.

60. Meanwhile the general conclusions are these:

(a) The available funds are sufficient to support a training and research programme of the size and type indicated, provided the Institute is not obliged to spend more than \$ 20,000 of its own resources on fellowships, and provided no major cost increases occur. It should be kept in mind that most new research undertaken in 1967 will carry over to 1968 or beyond for completion and publication of final results, though some initial reports will be produced in 1967.

(b) The main problems of feasibility, if any arise, will relate to staff capacity. The proposed training and research programmes would impose a maximum feasible workload for the present staff. Since the training activities are an inescapable commitment once they are scheduled, any unfavourable developments such as prolonged staff illnesses or resignations will necessarily force a curtailment of research. This is a very real cause for concern especially because the training programme will require more than half the total time of the present programme staff. Moreover, since the staff is diversified by field of specialization, one member cannot readily be substituted for another. A further limitation is that staff members whose salaries are partially financed by special research funds cannot be given an increased teaching load without creating a financial problem.

(c) In summary, the Proposed Programme can potentially be handled within present financial and staff limits, provided all goes well. But it must be recognized that any unforeseen loss of staff could seriously affect the programme. This risk is inescapable if the Institute, given its relatively small size, commits itself to a programme which takes its available staff and funds to a maximum.

Facilities

61. Plans for the new building are progressing well. Provision has been made in the new French Education Plan for its financing; the Government's architects have drawn preliminary plans; the Institute's consulting architect **has** given useful services in ensuring that the Institute's needs are well provided for in the plans.

62. Demolition of the present headquarters building (the villa) is scheduled to begin in September, 1967, when the occupants will be transferred to the old villa behind the prefabricated building, which will be modestly renovated to house them. The Institute will be exposed to considerable inconvenience, noise and dirt during the construction period, but the final result should justify the sacrifice.

Publications

63. The Institute has a very heavy publications schedule for 1967, totalling more than 40 titles (counting multi-language editions). Just over half of these are instructional booklets and research monographs of under 100 printed pages, but the rest are books of 200 or more pages. (See projected list in Appendix III.) Because of the heavy workload involved in processing these manuscripts, and the inevitable delays encountered in printing, it cannot be guaranteed that everyone of these will be published in 1967, but the large majority should be.

PART III. OTHER ITEMS REQUIRING BOARD ATTENTION

Financial Reports

64. The Board will receive at the meeting a Final Financial Report for 1965 and a Preliminary Financial Report for 1966.

Report on the 14th General Conference of Unesco

65. The Chairman and Director will report on amendments to the Institute's statutes and other pertinent matters concerning the recent Unesco General Conference. Action will be required on changes in the Institute's Rules of Procedure consequent to the statutory changes.

Council of Consultant Fellows

66. Expiration of the terms of the Vice-Chairman and 9 Members of the Council will require action by the Board to re-elect or replace the present incumbants. The Director will submit recommendations at the meeting in accordance with the usual procedure.

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING
FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD
Paris, 3 - 4 February 1967

THE DIRECTOR'S FIFTH REPORT TO THE GOVERNING BOARD

APPENDIX I

IIEP INTERNS AND VISITING FELLOWS (1966)

A. REGULAR INTERNS

1. January-July 1966

Mrs. Ruth Lerner de Almeida (Venezuela)
Mr. John Benton (U. S. A.)
Mr. Fabio Bustos (Colombia)
Mr. Baudouin Duvieusart (Belgium)
Mr. Antonio Hernandez (Spain)
Mr. N.P. Iloeje (Nigeria)
Mr. Franklin Ramirez (Ecuador)
Mr. Fritz-Marcel Voule (Togo)

2. October-December 1966

Mr. E. Aarynen (Finland)
Mrs. R. de Almeida (Venezuela)
Mrs. S. Diop (Mali)
Mr. E. Fiora del Fabro (Chile)
Mr. M. A. Ghaussi (Afghanistan)
Mr. A. M. Kida (Nigeria)
Mr. N. G. Mehedff (Brazil)
Mr. J. Ndzino (Cameroons)

Mr. G. Nihan (Belgium)
Mr. E. Ortiz (Colombia)
Mr. E. Rakotonomenjanahary (Malagasy Rep.)
Mr. H. Rushdi Omar (U. A. R.)
Mr. A. Sevinc (Turkey)
Mr. P. Viadero (Spain)
Miss Cintra Viveros (Mexico)

B. SUMMER INTERNS (1966)

Mr. John K. Bowers (United Kingdom), Oxford University - 10 weeks
Miss E. Rubin de Celis T. (Peru), University of Louvain - 10 weeks
Mr. Manfred Nitsch (Federal Republic of Germany), Munich University -
12 weeks
Mr. José Raul Noguera-Solarte (Colombia), University of Paris -
12 weeks
Mr. Michael Washburn (U. S. A.), Princeton University - 10 weeks

C. VISITING FELLOWS (1966)

Mr. R. Bodart (Unesco Regional Centre, Dakar, Senegal) - 2 weeks
Mr. A. Callaway, New Zealand, (University of Ife, Ibadan, Nigeria) -
20 weeks
Mr. Riza Dönmez, Turkey, (Section Director, Teacher Training
Department, Ministry of Education) - 12 weeks
Mr. R. Georis (Unesco Regional Centre, New Delhi, India) - 2 weeks
Dr. Carlos Malpica Faustor, Peru, (National Planning Institute) -
(has been ill ever since arrival)
Dr. I. N. Nour, Sudan, (Unesco Expert on Educational Planning in
Saudi Arabia) - 3 weeks
Mr. R. A. Shaw (British Council, United Kingdom) - 2 weeks
Mr. C. H. Smee (British Council, United Kingdom) - 2 weeks
Mr. K. Taylor (Head of Planning Unit, Ministry of Education, Jamaica) -
16 weeks
Mr. S. W. Woods (Senior Education Officer, Ministry of Education,
Western Region, Australia) - 21 weeks
Mr. W. M. Zaki, Pakistan, (Assistant Educational Adviser in the
Ministry of Education) - 9 weeks.

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING
FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD
Paris, 3 - 4 February 1967

THE DIRECTOR'S FIFTH REPORT TO THE GOVERNING BOARD

APPENDIX II

IIEP STAFF 1966

I. PROFESSIONAL STAFF

A. ADMINISTRATION

Director: Mr. Philip H. Coombs (U. S. A.)

Chief Administrative Officer: Mr. Charles Berkowitch (Belgium)

Administrative Assistants:

Miss Madeleine Alpert (France)

Mr. Herbert Eisele (Federal Republic of Germany)

Mrs. Monique Roche-Rainhorn (France) (separated, October)

Publications Officer: Mr. John Hall (United Kingdom)

B. PROGRAMME

Senior Staff Members:

Mr. Raymond Lyons (United Kingdom)

Mr. Raymond Poignant (France)

Mr. Gueorgui Skorov (U. S. S. R.)

Associate Staff Members:

Mr. John D. Chesswas (New Zealand)

Mr. J. L. Ferru (France) (on loan from Unesco)

Mr. Jacques Hallak (Lebanon)
Mr. Friedrich Kahnert (Federal Republic of Germany)
(separated, September)
Mr. Jack Lyle (U. S. A.) (separated, August)
Mr. Anthony C. R. Wheeler (United Kingdom)
Mr. Ladislav Cerych (full-time consultant, separated, July)

Assistant Staff Members:

Miss Jean Hollister (U. S. A.)
Miss Jane King (United Kingdom) (separated, December)
Mr. Ta Ngoc Chau (Viet-nam)

II. SUPPORT STAFF

Library (2)
Receptionist (1)
Documents Reproduction (1)
Administrative Clerk (1)
Secretaries (11)
Copy-preparer /proof-reader (1)
Typists (6)
Caretakers (2, part-time)

Temporary Help (December)

Publications (2)
Typists (1)

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING
FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD
Paris, 3 - 4 February 1967

THE DIRECTOR'S FIFTH REPORT TO THE GOVERNING BOARD

APPENDIX III

PUBLICATIONS SCHEDULED FOR 1967

- A. BOOKLET SERIES ON "THE FUNDAMENTALS OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING" (English and French editions).
- What is Educational Planning?
P.H. Coombs.
 - The Relation of Educational Plans to Economic and Social Planning
R. Poignant.
 - Educational Planning and Human Resource Development
F. Harbison.
 - Planning and the Educational Administrator
C.E. Beeby .
 - The Social Context of Educational Planning
A. Anderson.
 - The Costing of Educational Plans
J. Vaizey, J.D. Chesswas.
 - The Challenge of Rural Education
V.L. Griffiths.
- B. NEW MEDIA REPORTS - (Case studies dealing with French or Spanish speaking countries will also be available in their respective languages in offset form. The summary report will be in English, French, and Spanish editions)
- New Educational Media in Action : Case Studies for Planners, Vol. I.
 - New Educational Media in Action : Case Studies for Planners, Vol. II.

- New Educational Media in Action : Case Studies for Planners,
Vol. III.
- The New Media : Memo to Educational Planners (Summary Report)
W. Schramm, P.H. Coombs, F. Kahnert, J. Lyle.

C. AFRICAN RESEARCH MONOGRAPHS

- Les dépenses d'enseignement au Sénégal
P. Guillaumont.
- The Process of Educational Planning in Tanzania
A.C. Mwingira, S. Pratt.
- L'éducation des adultes au Sénégal
P. Fougeyrollas, F. Sow, F. Valladon.
- L'aide extérieure et la planification de l'éducation
en Côte d'Ivoire
L. Cerych.
- The Organization of Educational Planning in Nigeria
A.C.R. Wheeler.
- The Integration of External Assistance with Educational
Planning in Nigeria
L. Cerych.
- Financing of Education in Nigeria
A. Callaway, A. Musone.
- Planning Non-Formal Education in Tanzania
J. King.
- Les problèmes pédagogiques de l'école primaire africaine
et le problème de la formation des maîtres
R. Melet.
- Teacher Requirements and Supply in Nigeria
Anne and Robinson G. Hollister.
- Qualitative Aspects of Teacher Supply in Nigeria
A. Taylor.

D. OTHER RESEARCH REPORTS AND INSTRUCTIONAL BOOKS

(English and French editions)

- Manpower Aspects of Educational Planning.
- Qualitative Aspects of Educational Planning.
- Educational Planning in the Soviet Union.
- Educational Planning in France.
- Methodologies of Educational Planning for Developing Countries,
J. D. Chesswas.
- The Training of Educational Planners.

SPECIAL ACCOUNT FOR THE INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING
 APPROPRIATIONS, OBLIGATIONS INCURRED
 AND UNOBLIGATED BALANCES OF APPROPRIATIONS FOR THE YEAR ENDED 31 DECEMBER 1965
 (Expressed in US Dollars)

TOTAL APPROPRIATIONS AUTHORIZED BY THE THIRD SESSION OF THE INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING GOVERNING BOARD	\$ 488,750 ✓
Less: OBLIGATIONS INCURRED	
Liquidated by disbursements	429,711
Unliquidated obligations	55,527
	<u>485,238</u>
UNOBLIGATED BALANCE OF APPROPRIATIONS AS AT 31 DECEMBER 1965	<u>3,512</u>

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE ACCOUNT FOR THE YEAR ENDED 31 DECEMBER 1965

EXPENDITURE	\$	INCOME	\$
STAFF COSTS	256,560	FORD FOUNDATION GRANT	140,000
GENERAL ADMINISTRATION AND SERVICES	69,519	CONTRIBUTION FROM THE INTERNATIONAL BANK FOR RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT	175,000
DIRECT PROGRAMME COSTS	159,160	CONTRIBUTION FROM UNESCO REGULAR BUDGET	175,000
EXCESS OF INCOME OVER EXPENDITURE FOR THE YEAR ENDED 31 DECEMBER 1965	<u>14,847</u>	MISCELLANEOUS REVENUE	<u>10,086</u>
	<u>500,086</u>		<u>500,086</u>

STATEMENT OF ASSETS AND LIABILITIES AS AT 31 DECEMBER 1965

ASSETS	\$	LIABILITIES	\$
CASH IN HAND		UNLIQUIDATED OBLIGATIONS	
French Francs (Ff. 11,928)	2,434	1964 obligations	8,806
United States Dollars	1,606	1965 obligations	55,527
	4,040		<u>64,333</u>
DUE FROM GENERAL FUND	187,649	SURPLUS	
		Balance as at 1 January 1965	108,785
		Add: Savings on liquidation of previous years' obligations	3,724
		Excess of income over expenditure for the year ended 31 December 1965	14,847
	<u>191,689</u>		<u>127,356</u>
			<u>191,689</u>

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD

Paris, 3-4 February 1967

THE DIRECTOR'S FIFTH REPORT TO THE GOVERNING BOARD

PART II. PROPOSED PROGRAMME AND BUDGET FOR 1967

APPENDIX V

SUMMARY BREAKDOWN OF 1967 DIRECT PROGRAMME COSTS

I.	<u>TRAINING</u>		\$
	1. Interns and Visiting Fellows	34,500	
	2. Seminars and Workshops	10,000	
	3. Other Training Activity	3,200	
		<u>47,700</u>	
II.	<u>INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS</u>		
	1. Fundamentals of Educational Planning....	25,500	
	2. Manuals	10,800	
	3. Tape Recorded Materials	5,000	
	4. Lectures edited	3,500	
		<u>44,800</u>	
III.	<u>RESEARCH</u>		
	1. African series	6,500	
	2. Soviet and French studies	16,600	
	3. Symposia and resulting reports	32,500	
	4. New Educational Media	7,900	
	5. Initiation of New Research (Contracts and Meetings)	18,000	
		<u>81,500</u>	
IV.	<u>DOCUMENTATION CENTRE</u>	4,000	
		<u>178,000</u>	
	<u>TOTAL DIRECT PROGRAMME COST PROJECTION</u>		<u>178,000</u>



INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD

Paris, 3-4 February 1967

Item 2 of the Agenda

REPORT ON THE REVISION OF STATUTES

1. The purpose of this document is to provide Board Members with an up to date summary report on the recent amendments of the Institute's Statutes and by the Unesco General Conference on the main developments leading to these changes.
2. At its Fourth Session (November 1965) the Board examined a memorandum of 3 November 1965, to the Chairman from the Director-General of Unesco, concerning the future relations between the Institute and Unesco. In this memorandum, the Director-General indicated his intention to propose a modification of the Statutes of the Institute to the Fourteenth Session of the General Conference of Unesco regarding his own membership on the Board. The Board, to meet his request for advice in this matter, arranged a special meeting of the Executive Committee to examine the future relations of the Institute with Unesco (see 4GB/8, paras 67 and 68, and 4GB/8/Annexes III and IV).
3. The Executive Committee met on 1 April 1966 for this purpose. It examined the Chairman's memorandum (see 1EXC/2), circulated to all Board Members, and a further note of 1 April 1966 (see 1EXC/4/Annex II) from the Director-General, addressed to the Committee, commenting on the Chairman's memorandum and requesting the Committee's opinion.
4. After discussion the Executive Committee prepared a recommendation to the Director-General (see 1EXC/4/Annex III), which was first circulated to all Board Members for comment, then submitted on 25 May 1966. It suggested a method of altering the Board's composition and concluded that no other statutory changes seemed necessary.

5. On 12 October 1966, the document (14C/40) containing the Director-General's proposals concerning the revision of the Statutes of the Institute was issued by Unesco.

6. On 20 October 1966, the Chairman, in a letter addressed to the Director-General (see Annex I), indicated that while he was in agreement with the proposals for amendment of Article III of the Statutes, he was concerned about the recommendations made for the amendment of Article IV. The Chairman expressed the hope that it would be possible to reach agreement with the Director-General before the General Conference but felt it essential to express his views to the Conference.

7. On 21 October 1966, the Chairman communicated to all Board Members the substance of his letter of 20 October 1966 to the Director-General. Six members and one statutory observer expressed their concurrence with the Chairman's position; two others preferred to take no position and one member did not reply.

8. In a letter dated 24 October 1966, the Director-General (see Annex II) informed the Chairman that he did not intend to modify his proposals to amend the Statutes and that he would arrange that the Chairman be given the necessary facilities for presenting his views to the General Conference, if he so wished. A copy of this letter was sent to all Board Members.

9. On 1 November 1966, the Chairman sent to the Director-General a memorandum (see Annex III) on the proposed revision of the Statutes of the Institute, with a request that it be circulated to the General Conference prior to the discussion of the affairs of the Institute. A summary of this memorandum, which the Secretariat of the General Conference requested the Institute to prepare, was distributed on 7 November 1966, to members of Sub-Commission I of the Programme Commission of the Conference. This Sub-Commission examined, at two meetings, on 7 and 10 November, the Director-General's proposals for the amendments of the Statutes of the Institute.

10. The Director-General explained to the Sub-Commission his reasons for proposing changes in the Institute's Statutes and stressed the fact that his proposals in no way affected the Institute's intellectual autonomy which he still regarded as essential.

11. The Chairman of the Institute's Governing Board addressed the Sub-Commission, giving a report on the Institute's past activities and presenting his views on the proposed amendments.

12. The Director of the Institute, replying to questions asked by a number of speakers, gave an account of the Institute's financial situation, its working relations with the Unesco Secretariat and its achievements.

13. Thirty-six delegations spoke in the course of the discussion. Almost all speakers were anxious to preserve the Institute's intellectual autonomy. Thus much of the debate centered on the compatibility between the proposed amendments and the Institute's intellectual autonomy.

14. In a statement made to the Sub-Commission, the Deputy Director-General proposed, on behalf of the Director-General, an amendment to paragraph 3 of the revised version of Article IV of the Statutes, clarifying that the Governing Board would continue not only to have authority over the establishment of the Institute's programme but also over its execution. That statement is summarized below (excerpts from document 14C/PRG/S-C.1/SR.15(prov.)) :

" 3.3 At the outset of this debate he (the Deputy Director-General) wished to stress very strongly the debt of gratitude owed by the Director-General and the Secretariat to the Governing Board of the Institute for its selfless and invaluable service, and to its many distinguished specialists, including its chairman, Sir Sydney Caine. The Director-General and the Secretariat wished to pay homage to the Members of the Governing Board all of whom had readily accepted the invitation of the Director-General to serve at some cost on the Board.

3.4 The reason for which the change in the Statutes was being proposed at the present time was that only the General Conference had the competence to take a decision thereon. In proposing this revision, he wished to assure Member States that the Director-General believed in the potential and validity of the Institute and would not have proposed a 90% increase in its budgetary provisions for the coming biennium had this not been so.

3.5 He drew the Commission's attention to document 14 C/40 containing the proposed changes to the Institute's Statutes. With regard to the amendment proposed to Article III, he felt that there had been general agreement that such a change, the most important, would be an improvement over the present situation since it would permit the Director-General to disengage himself from the Board.

The proposed changes to Articles IV and V derived to a large extent from those in Article III. The modifications proposed to paragraphs 1 and 3 of Article IV were designed to eliminate all confusion arising from its contradicting Article I and to make the article in question completely valid from a legal point of view.

.....

3.7 It should, therefore, be evident that the Director-General attached the highest importance to the intellectual autonomy of the Institute, and that his intention had never been to transfer from the Governing Board the responsibility for establishing its programme and supervising the execution thereof. In order to remove any remaining doubts in that respect, the Director-General proposed to replace the second sentence of paragraph 3 of Article IV (document 14 C/40, paragraph 15 (B) by the sentence 'It shall make whatever general arrangements it may deem necessary for the establishment and execution of the programme'." (1)

15. At the end of the discussion the Deputy Director-General made another statement which is summarized below (excerpts from document 14C/PRG/S-C. I/SR. 16(prov.)) :

" 11.1 Mr. ADISESHIAH (Deputy Director-General), noting with appreciation the wide-ranging discussion aroused by the proposals, did not share the disquiet of some speakers at its length. Many interesting and important concepts, such as intellectual autonomy, academic freedom and the fundamental nature of research, had been introduced and such a thorough examination of the work and organization of the Institute - much more detailed than would have been provided by the report from the Governing Board - could only be of benefit to the Director-General, Member States and the Institute itself.

(1) The text originally proposed was : "It shall take such general measures relating to the programme as it considers necessary to achieve the Institute's aims".

11.2 The Director-General did not agree that intellectual and administrative autonomy were inseparable. Neither the Executive Board nor the General Conference was responsible for administration, which is carried out by the chief administrator. The four points made in the report of the Working Party on the IIEP in 1962 and the Director-General's reference to the importance of intellectual autonomy in his statement to the same Working Party had been much quoted, but that report contained assumptions which were now overtaken by facts and experience. After four years' working experience, some of the assumptions were being queried and it was time to review the results. On one occasion, the Director-General had, in fact, proposed that the Institute have full intellectual autonomy with regard to its publications programme, but the proposal had been rejected by the Executive Board at its 70th session.

11.3 The amendment to Article III did, in fact, introduce a substantial change. If the Director-General were no longer a Member of the Governing Board, he would be in a position to evaluate the work of the Institute, whereas under the present Statutes, his membership of the Board prevented him from doing so. Many delegates had, however, misunderstood the actual import of the proposed changes and had indicated their intention to vote for them because they saw a possibility of holding the Director-General responsible for the conduct of the Institute. It was true that, if no longer a member of the Governing Board, he would be free to comment on its actions and transmit to it the wishes of the General Conference, but even under the revised Statutes, it did not appear that he would have direct responsibility for the Institute's management.

.....

11.6 Most criticism had been directed against the changes in Article IV; yet they were a logical consequence of the amendment to Article III and clarified confused language. If Article IV as it stood reflected the truth, it would contradict Article I; if it did not, it was asking the Director-General to perpetuate this evident contradiction. The Director-General did not agree that the changes in Article I of the Statutes should be referred to the Executive Board".

16. Finally, at the conclusion of the debate, the Director-General made an important statement, summarized below (excerpts from document 14C/PRG/S-C. I/SR. 16 (prov.)) :

" 12.1 The DIRECTOR-GENERAL was surprised that his proposed amendments to the Statutes of the International Institute for Educational Planning should have given rise to such a prolonged debate and to questions going so far beyond the purpose of his proposals. His intentions were in fact very simple. He first wished to regularize a situation which experience had shown to be ambiguous, and which had led him to present, in the Organization's interest, draft amendments to statutes the text of which he himself had proposed. Furthermore, in his desire to see the establishment of confident and friendly relations between Unesco and the Institute, he requested that the Institute, which is an integral part of the Organization should conform to the rules and general policy of Unesco. In doing so, the Director-General did not intend to prejudice the intellectual autonomy of the officials of the Institute. Indeed, the members of the Secretariat, who applied the rules of Unesco retained nevertheless a great degree of freedom of opinion and expression; they have simply accepted to place that intellectual freedom at the service of the Organization. By proposing to place the Institute in a clearer position than was presently the case, the Director-General was acting as much in the Institute's own interest as in that of Unesco. It was true that some disagreement existed, on the one hand, between the Chairman of the Governing Board of the Institute and the members serving in an individual capacity and, on the other hand, the Director-General, but it was apposite to note that the representatives of the international organizations sitting on the Board had not formulated objections to the Director-General's proposals.

12.2 Under the first draft amendment, relating to Article III of the Statutes, the Governing Board of the Institute would in future be composed exclusively of members sitting in a personal capacity, since it was preferable that the Director-General should no longer be a Member of the Board which, by way of consequence, would result in the withdrawal of the representatives of the other international organizations. As a Member of the Governing Board, the Director-General was jointly responsible for the report of that body. Now the changes proposed by the Secretariat had been only accepted in part. If the Director-General were free to express his opinion, that is to say if he were not a Member of the Governing Board, he would not be jointly responsible for that report. In future, the General Conference would thus receive two separate reports : the report of the Governing Board, dealing with the activities of the Institute, and

the report which the Director-General would present within the framework of his report on the activities of the Organization, which would deal with the Institute's contribution to the Programme of Unesco and the co-operation between the Institute and the Organization.

12.3 The two draft amendments to Article IV resulted from the changes which it was proposed to make in Article III. The purpose of the first draft amendment, concerning paragraph 1, was to specify that the activities of the Institute must be carried out within the framework of the general policy of the Organization, since the Institute had been established not only by Unesco and within Unesco, but also for Unesco, that is to say to execute work which the Secretariat could well have undertaken, but which a body like the Institute could achieve with a better output, from the intellectual viewpoint. If this were not so, the General Conference should then decide that the Institute is free to use the funds allocated to it and, in that case, it would be better if the Institute were not part of the Organization. In any event, there existed an ambiguity which had to be dispelled.

12.4 The draft amendments to paragraph 3 of Article IV related to the programme, that is to say what defines the intellectual autonomy of the Institute. Indeed, one should not forget that the Institute is responsible, not only for establishing its programme, but also for its execution. That prerogative, which belonged to the Governing Board, conferred on the Institute its intellectual autonomy. Now the Secretariat did not intend to exercise a concomitant control - and even less so a prior control - over the arrangements concerning the execution of the programme of the Institute. In other words, the Institute will not be obliged to submit workplans before undertaking action. The Secretariat will only reserve the right to evaluate the results achieved by the Institute in order to be able to submit to the General Conference pertinent proposals regarding the funds to be allocated to it, since these funds must be determined in light of the services which the Institute renders to the Organization.

12.5 Certain speakers have felt that the Institute could not be free if it did not enjoy administrative autonomy. This view would be justified if each action taken by the Institute were to be sanctioned by the Secretariat; but such was not the case. The Institute, which

was an integral part of Unesco, only had to abide by the Staff Regulations and the rules of procedure of the Organization. These rules had been established in the light of experience and constituted in fact a protection against possible errors. To invite the Institute to conform to them was to render it a service, because, in this way, it would be spared from making the mistakes which had led the Secretariat to elaborate a set of rules. Therefore, one could request the Institute, without fearing to alienate its freedom, to observe the Staff Regulations, as well as the criteria concerning publications, the funds and the relations with Member States¹¹.

17. The Sub-Commission approved the Director-General's proposals, as amended in the course of the debate, by 77 votes to 8, with 7 abstentions (see Report of the Programme Commission, in Annex IV).

18. The Legal Committee of the General Conference, which was responsible for establishing the definitive text of the revised Statutes of the Institute, for submission to the Plenary Conference, devoted its fifteenth and part of its sixteenth meetings on 17 November 1966 to studying the proposed amendments. Eight delegations took part in the debate. Three speakers expressed concern about the wording of the proposed revisions to Article IV of the Statutes.

19. In the course of the discussion, the Legal Adviser of Unesco, answering a question put to him by a delegate as to the authority of the Governing Board to enter into contracts, indicated that since the Institute did not have a legal personality other than that of Unesco, the Director could only enter into contracts under a delegation of authority. The Director-General, however, had so far delegated to him very ample powers, and intended to continue to do so (see the Report of the Legal Committee in Annex V and documents 14C/LEG/SR. 15 (prov.) and 14C/LEG/SR. 16(prov.)).

20. On 25 November 1966, the General Conference adopted, by 86 votes in favour, none against and 4 abstentions, a resolution formally amending the Statutes of the Institute, with immediate effect.

21. The statutory changes make necessary certain consequential modifications in the Rules of Procedure of the Governing Board of the Institute, which have been drafted in co-operation with the Legal Adviser of Unesco for presentation to and action by the Governing Board at its meeting on 3-4 February 1967.

22. No changes have thus far been proposed, however, in the special financial or personnel rules applicable to the Institute. In the absence of any changes, these rules can be assumed to be in full force. They are currently undergoing review by Unesco's Assistant Director-General for Administration.

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD

Paris, 3-4 February 1967

REPORT ON THE REVISION OF STATUTES

ANNEX I

LETTER FROM THE CHAIRMAN OF THE GOVERNING BOARD OF THE
INSTITUTE TO THE DIRECTOR-GENERAL OF UNESCO.

20 October 1966

Dear M. Maheu,

Referring to our correspondence, ending with my letter of 25 May, about the amendments of the Statutes of the International Institute for Educational Planning, I have just seen the proposals submitted by you to the General Conference in Document 14C/40 of 12 October.

The proposals for amendment of Article III regarding the membership of the Governing Board of the Institute are, I feel, in full harmony with the spirit of the recommendations made on this point by the Governing Board itself. If I may say so my personal view is that in detail they are in fact an improvement on those recommendations.

I am however concerned about the recommendations made for the amendment of Article IV dealing with the functions of the Governing Board. The view of the Board itself was that no change was necessary or desirable in that Article and I recall the assurance which you gave me in conversation in November 1965 that you had in mind no change in the responsibilities of the Board. This was in

accordance with the resolution adopted by the Executive Board of UNESCO at its 71st Session, which I took to mean that the Executive Board likewise foresaw no need for a change in the International Institute for Educational Planning Governing Board's functions. Taking it for granted, therefore, that there is no intent to narrow or alter the present functions and responsibilities of the Governing Board, but only to clarify, I have considered very carefully the interpretation that might be placed on the actual amendments now proposed in Article IV. I cannot conceal my concern that they could be interpreted as constituting a very substantial change in the responsibilities and functions entrusted to the Governing Board.

I am naturally concerned not only about any immediate effect of these changes but about the way they might be interpreted in the future in circumstances which those of us now concerned may be unable to predict or to control. The first amendment appears to be either unnecessary, since it is already implicit in the whole constitution of the Institute that it must have regard to the general policies and needs of UNESCO and work in the fullest harmony with UNESCO or, alternatively, to create the risk of unnecessarily close control by the Secretariat of UNESCO of the Institute's programme and day to day operations. The second amendment appears to remove the actual administration of the Institute's programme from the jurisdiction of the Governing Board. It is my strong impression that the functions in fact left to the Board, if this combination of amendments were approved, would be so restricted as to raise serious doubt as to whether there would continue to be any advantage in having a Board of this character at all.

Certainly we all agree that the administration of the Institute should be appropriately harmonized with UNESCO's general administrative arrangements, while preserving the necessary measure of administrative flexibility and autonomy essential to serving the Institute's special needs and functions. The record shows, I believe, that such administrative co-ordination has in fact progressed very well, is functioning quite satisfactorily now and therefore needs no major alteration. The record also shows, I believe, that the Institute has responded affirmatively and quite fully to UNESCO's stated needs, and especially to its training needs during the past year.

My own feeling is, therefore, that since I perceive these dangers in any attempt to clarify the provisions of Article IV, it would be much the best thing to make no amendment in that Article. This would accord with the views already expressed by the Governing Board.

As you will realise I am expressing only my personal views as Chairman of the Board. I believe, however, that they are in harmony with the thinking of the Board as a whole, and am naturally communicating to all members of the Board the substance of this letter.

I have wished to put these views to you as Director-General as early as possible since I very much hope that it will be possible to reach agreement between ourselves before the matter comes up for a decision by the General Conference. But I feel that it is also essential that I should express them to the General Conference.

Yours sincerely,

(Sir Sydney Caine)

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD

Paris, 3-4 February 1967

REPORT ON THE REVISION OF STATUTES

ANNEX II

LETTER FROM THE DIRECTOR-GENERAL TO THE CHAIRMAN OF THE
GOVERNING BOARD OF THE INSTITUTE

Ref: ODG/DG/1562

24 October 1966

Dear Sir Sydney,

I have your letter of October 20, 1966, concerning the proposed amendment to the Statutes of the International Institute for Educational Planning, which I have submitted to the General Conference in document 14C/40 and corrigendum. This crossed in the post with my letter of 20 October, reference DG/1/3/8015/1, by which I communicated to you a copy of this document.

These proposals were formulated after extensive consultations and thorough reflection, and I have no intention of modifying them. As I have indicated in the Draft Programme and Budget, these are the conditions which, to my mind, are required to justify the greatly increased grant to the Institute. I do not think that I can propose the latter without the former.

If, nevertheless, you wish to present your views to the General Conference when it discusses my proposals, I will see to it that you are given the necessary facilities for this purpose.

Since you have communicated to all members of the Board the substance of your letter, you may perhaps think it appropriate to send them, also, a copy of my reply.

Yours sincerely,

René Maheu

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD

Paris, 3-4 February 1967

REPORT ON THE REVISION OF STATUTES

ANNEX III

MEMORANDUM BY THE CHAIRMAN OF THE GOVERNING BOARD
OF THE INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING
ON THE PROPOSED REVISION OF THE STATUTES OF THE
INSTITUTE

London, 1 November 1966

A. Introductory

1. In document 14C/40, of 12 October 1966, the Director-General submits for approval to the General Conference of Unesco draft amendments to the Statutes of the International Institute for Educational Planning.

2. There has not been time for the Governing Board of the Institute to meet to discuss the specific proposals made by the Director-General, but the Chairman has informed all members of the proposals and of the general nature of his own views on them. In the light of the comments received in reply he is confident that the views expressed in this memorandum, though presented in his personal capacity as Chairman, reflect the views of the Board as a whole.

B. Composition of Governing Board of the International Institute for Educational Planning

3. The Director-General informed the Executive Board of Unesco, at its 71st session, that he felt that he should not continue to be one of the members of the Governing Board of the Institute. This position was communicated to the Chairman of the Governing Board. After a

full discussion by the Executive Committee of the Board, and with the concurrence of all other members of the Board, the Board informed the Director-General that, while they believed his membership to have been a valuable element and they would regret his departure, they appreciated the reasons which had led him to take the decision. In accordance with the Director-General's request, the Board submitted recommendations on the best way of giving effect to the change suggested. The Chairman feels that the proposals for amendment of Article III of the Statutes regarding the membership of the Governing Board are in full harmony with the spirit of the recommendations made on this point by the Board itself, and that, in detail, they are in fact an improvement on those recommendations.

C. Functions of the Governing Board

4. The Chairman, however, feels obliged to express concern about the recommendations made for the amendment of paragraphs 1 and 3 of Article IV of the Statutes, dealing with the functions of the Governing Board. This proposal, of which no intimation had been received before the circulation of document 14C/40, has come as a considerable surprise. When the Director-General submitted to the Executive Board of Unesco in 1965 his proposals for a substantial increase in Unesco's grant to the Institute he referred, in document 71 EX/5, to the need for ensuring that the programme of the Institute meets the requirements of Unesco and provides for some degree of administrative supervision. He was good enough to explain to the Board what he had in mind in fuller detail in a memorandum dated 3 November 1965 submitted to the full Board and in a further memorandum of 1 April 1966 submitted to the Executive Committee of the Board. In neither document, although specific reference was made to the need to amend Statute III, was any mention made of any amendment to Statute IV. Nor was any expectation of such a change being made suggested by the Resolution adopted by the Executive Board at its 71st session. The Executive Committee of the International Institute for Educational Planning none the less did consider whether any amendments in the Statutes relating to the functions and powers of the Governing Board should be made, they concluded that no change was necessary and, after that conclusion had been confirmed by the other members, so informed the Director-General in May, 1966.

(i) Para. 1 of Art. IV

5. The original text of paragraph 1 of Article IV of the Statutes is as follows : "The Board shall determine the general policy and the nature of the Institute's activities". It is now proposed to add to this text the phrase : "within the framework of the general policy of Unesco, with due regard to the fact that the Institute has been established within the framework of Unesco".

6. This amendment appears to be unnecessary because Article I of the Statutes states that the Institute is established within the framework of Unesco and it is already implicit in the whole constitution of the Institute that it must have regard to the general policies and needs of Unesco. Thus, the amendment either adds nothing new or else adds new constraints upon the Institute which are nowhere clearly defined.

7. The Chairman believes that the Institute's record of performance, especially in the field of training and up-dating of Unesco experts and assisting the Regional Training Centers, shows that the Institute has responded affirmatively and quite fully to Unesco's stated needs, particularly during the past year.

8. The Board has always agreed that the administration of the Institute should be appropriately harmonized with Unesco's general administrative arrangements, while preserving the minimum necessary measure of administrative flexibility and autonomy essential to serving the Institute's special needs. The Chairman believes that the record shows that such administrative co-ordination has progressively improved and is functioning very satisfactorily now. This view seems to coincide with that expressed by the Director-General, in a memorandum addressed, on 3 November 1965, to the Governing Board of the Institute, on the implications of his reference in document 71 EX/5 to the Executive Board, which stated that : "Considerable progress has been achieved during the last few months regarding the regulations and procedures on publications, administration of personnel and the streamlining of relationships with Member States and international organizations, and further work is still being carried out between the Secretariat of Unesco and the Secretariat of the Institute to settle pending issue (e.g. progress reports, geographical distribution of staff, etc.). On the whole, the co-ordination and working relations between the Institute and the Secretariat have also progressed satisfactorily and are now regularized".

In the light of the foregoing, no major alteration of the present administrative arrangements seems to be required, and a change in the Statutes will impart a danger of uncertainty of interpretation in matters on which mutual understanding has developed so satisfactorily, in addition to a possible future risk of unnecessarily detailed control by the Secretariat of Unesco of the Institute's programme and day to day operations.

(ii) Paragraph 3 of Article IV

9. The Chairman is still more concerned about the amendment proposed to paragraph 3 of Article IV of the Statutes which appears to remove the actual administration of the Institute's programme from the jurisdiction of the Governing Board. This amendment would remove the following sentence in the original text of that paragraph: "It (the Board) shall make whatever general arrangements it may deem necessary for the administration of the Institute and for the general supervision of the activities of the Director" and it would substitute the following text: "It shall take such general measures relating to the programme as it considers necessary to achieve the Institute's aims". The stated purpose of this change is "to make it clear that the Board's functions relate essentially to the programme".

10. The above change could readily be interpreted to mean that the Governing Board's responsibility would be confined to approving the annual programme and budget and that the Board would no longer have authority to oversee the execution of the programme, the evaluation of results or the activities of the Director. In this event, the Director's only responsibility to the Board would be to present a proposal programme and budget; he would otherwise be responsible solely to the Director-General.

11. In these circumstances, the Chairman has the strong impression that the functions in fact left to the Board, if the combination of amendments proposed in Article IV of the Statutes were approved, might be so restricted as to raise serious doubt as to whether there would continue to be any advantage in having a Board of the present character at all.

12. It is appropriate to view these proposed changes in the light of the following four basic premises underlying the recommendation which the Director-General made in 1962 to create the Institute, which was unanimously approved by the 12th General Conference after thorough debate:

(a) That there existed an urgent world-wide need for high level training and research in the field of educational planning and development and that Unesco should broaden its already substantial initiative to meet this need.

(b) That the Secretariat did not provide the proper environment for meeting these particular needs, because of the operational character, heavy pressures and administrative complexities of its regular work, and therefore a new Institute should be created, separated from the Secretariat but working in close co-operation with it.

(c) That to have the proper working environment and to achieve the results and intellectual stature expected of it, the new Institute would need a high degree of independence, founded on its own Governing Board and a high degree of intellectual and administrative autonomy, not only in determining its programme but in the daily process of carrying out its training and research activities.

(d) That in order to give the Institute a legal base and the advantages of international status and various services of a larger organization but not for the purpose of controlling it, the Institute should be established within the framework of Unesco, under conditions consistent with (c) above.

13. That these basic premises and the Statutes themselves were sound is, in the Chairman's view, evidenced by the Institute's training and research accomplishments during its first three years. These are presented in detail in the Governing Board's Report to the 14th General Conference of Unesco (14 C/21), and demonstrate that the original Statutes have provided an effective basis for the Institute's operation. Under these Statutes the practical problems which were inevitable have been overcome and the Institute confidently looks forward to further improvement in its programme and operations.

14. The Director-General in submitting his proposals, has not questioned the actual working of the existing constitutional structure but has based the proposals on the very important change which has taken place in the pattern of the Institute's financial support.

15. Originally it was hoped that Unesco would be joined by other organizations in providing basic funds for the Institute, and that these basic funds might then be supplemented by grants, gifts and contracts, from still other sources, for specific purposes. This

financial plan has been only partially realized. The Ford Foundation and the World Bank did join Unesco in Providing basic funds, but of only limited duration, and it is the expiration of these initial grants which has prompted the Director-General's very welcome proposal for a substantial increase in Unesco's contribution to the Institute's basic funds for the coming biennium. Meanwhile, the Institute has succeeded reasonably well in obtaining supplemental funds for specific purposes, but without assured basic funds, particularly to cover training costs, it would not look to the future with assurance. Hence the Governing Board is extremely grateful to the Director-General for his generous budgetary proposal. It is similarly grateful to the French Government for its continual support in the form of facilities and equipment.

16. The Chairman regards it as entirely appropriate that if Unesco is to become the main supplier of basic funds, at least for the next biennium, the Institute should do everything it reasonably can to meet Unesco's own needs. This, in fact, has been the policy of the Governing Board in framing, for instance, the programme for 1966, when Unesco's contribution constitutes only one-third of the Institute's over-all expenditures, and less than half of its basic funds.

17. The Chairman questions, however, whether an increase in Unesco's contribution to the Institute's basic budget makes any less valid the original premise that in order to achieve its purpose the Institute requires a high degree of independence founded on its own Governing Board and a high degree of intellectual and administrative autonomy. These were considered essential conditions irrespective of the Institute's financial sources. The third of the basic premises quoted in para. 12 above clearly implies the association of the Governing Board in the basic task of maintaining "a high degree of independence" not only in determining the Institute's programme "but in the daily process of carrying out its training and research activities".

18. The further reason given by the Director-General for the proposed amendments to Article IV is to clarify the functions of the Board. As will be apparent it is not clear to the Chairman on what matters clarification is needed. He is not aware of any difference of opinion regarding the rôle of the Governing Board in relation to the day to day administration of the Institute. This is clearly an executive function and the Statutes provide (Article VI) that "The Director shall be

responsible for the administration of the Institute". To do so, the Director must have an ample delegation of authority from the Director-General who is the Chief Administrative Officer of Unesco. This need not be inconsistent, the Chairman believes, with co-ordinating the Institute's administration with the rest of Unesco and with preserving the necessary degree of administrative autonomy on the part of the Institute.

19. If, however, the Board is to discharge its basic responsibility to ensure the intellectual autonomy and is to be responsible for the programme and budget, it must in the Chairman's view retain full powers to oversee the execution of the programme and to take such steps as it considers necessary to insure favorable administrative arrangements for this purpose, including, for example, making recommendations to the Director-General, through the Director, on administrative changes that it believes might be helpful.

20. In summary, the proposed amendments to Article IV, if approved, would appear to make serious changes in the basic responsibilities of the Governing Board, the extent of its jurisdiction over the Director and the execution of the programme, and in the extent and nature of the Institute's autonomy. Because all these have been considered from the outset as fundamental to the Institute's effectiveness, the Chairman believes that if any changes are to be made in this section of the Statutes, they should be so worded as to safeguard these basic objectives or should be accompanied by a clear statement and reaffirmation of intent which would leave the meaning of any amendments in no doubt, and would above all make clear that the basic functions originally designed for the Board are left unimpaired.

Sir Sydney Caine

London, 1 November 1966

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD

Paris, 3-4 February 1967

REPORT ON THE REVISION OF STATUTES

ANNEX IV

REPORT OF THE PROGRAMME COMMISSION OF THE GENERAL CONFERENCE
OF UNESCO ON THE INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL
PLANNING⁽¹⁾

1 The Director-General explained why, in the light of experience and after consulting the Secretary-General of the United Nations and the Directors-General of the other institutions represented on the Governing Board, he had decided to submit proposals for the revision of the Institute's statutes (document 14 C/40 and corrigendum). He indicated how, in his view, these proposals were related to the proposed increase in Unesco's subvention to the Institute, and explained that altering the composition of the Governing Board would necessarily entail changing its functions. The Director-General stressed the fact that his proposals in no way affected the Institute's intellectual autonomy, for which he had made provision in the statutes, and which he still regarded as essential; their only object was to make it clear how responsibility was to be allocated.

2. The Chairman of the Governing Board of the International Institute, Sir Sydney Caine, presented the report of the Governing Board (document 14 C/21); he expressed his agreement with the amendments to Article III of the Statutes and his reservations concerning the amendments to Article IV, paragraph 3, centring around the apparent removal of administrative authority over the Institute's programme from the jurisdiction of the Governing Board.

(1) Fourteenth Session; document 14C/92 - Instalment 2, Part C, Section 1.21, paras. 7 to 19.

3. In the course of the discussion, the Deputy Director-General pointed out that the amendments to Article IV followed logically from Article I, which stated that the International Institute was established "within the framework of Unesco"; he said that the Director-General, in order to avoid any misunderstanding, proposed to amend paragraph 3 of the revised version of Article IV to read: "The Board shall lay down the conditions for the admission of participants to the Institute's courses and meetings. It shall take such general measures as it considers necessary to draw up and execute the programme".

4. Mr. Philip Coombs, Director of the International Institute, replying to technical questions asked by a number of speakers, gave an account of the Institute's financial situation, its working relations with Unesco and its achievements.

5. Thirty-six delegations spoke in the course of the discussion. Eight delegations stressed the importance of the Institute's intellectual autonomy, and expressed misgivings lest it should be compromised as a result of the proposed amendments, especially those relating to Article IV. One delegate expressed the opinion that intellectual autonomy implied administrative autonomy. Several speakers thought that increasing Unesco's subvention did not necessarily imply increased control on the part of Unesco; some recalled that Unesco's subvention, although considerable, was not the Institute's only source of finance. Four delegations thought that the highly satisfactory achievements of the Institute were partly due to the autonomy it had so far been given. Three delegations said that in any case the Institute had not been in existence long enough for an evaluation to be made, and thought it was too early to amend the Statutes. Five delegations made the further point that the documents concerning the amendments to the Statutes had not appeared soon enough to give Member States and the Governing Board of the Institute sufficient time for thorough study; they asked that either the General Conference at its next session or the Executive Board should be asked to examine the question, so as to allow time for further essential information to be assembled.

6. Twenty-eight speakers considered, on the contrary, that amendments were necessary. Eight delegates emphasized that the proposed amendments would ensure the close co-ordination required between Unesco and the Institute, whose activities should be guided by the aims and priorities of the Organization's programme. Other delegates pointed out that the Director-General had not only the right but also the duty to exercise control,

as he alone was responsible for reporting to Member States on the proper use of the subvention granted. Three delegates thought that the World Bank's decision to cease its participation in the financing of the Institute created a new situation which justified the revision of the Statutes, as that decision entailed a heavier burden for Unesco. Many delegates, while recognizing the value of the work already done by IIEP, thought that its output should be improved and felt that the proposed amendments would ensure progress.

7. Some suggestions were made relating to the Institute's activities. Two delegates proposed that the Institute should train more specialists for the developing countries, though one delegate thought that the Institute should leave training to the regional centres and concentrate on research. One delegate recommended that the Institute's activities be directed as far as possible to practical work. Another speaker emphasized the value of a long-term research and training plan. Three delegates wanted the Institute's staff to be recruited on a wider geographical basis, while another delegate thought that the administrative staff was too large in comparison with the teaching and research staff.

8. Thirteen delegates stated that the proposed amendments would in no way affect the Institute's intellectual autonomy, particularly in view of the amendment introduced during the meeting by the Deputy Director-General on behalf of the Director-General. Seven delegates considered that the intellectual autonomy of an institution attached to the United Nations could not entail the possibility of a clash with the value judgements of the international community. Lastly, one delegate urged that the various institutes assisted by Unesco should have similar statutes and thought that, if the International Institute for Educational Planning was to be completely independent, the case of the other institutes should be re-examined.

9. Three delegates who had at first expressed anxiety concerning the Institute's intellectual independence in the future said that the debate had provided them with adequate information and that they were satisfied with the Deputy Director-General's explanation concerning paragraph 3 of Article IV. At the close of the discussion, Sub-Commission I approved the Director-General's proposals concerning the revision of IIEP's Statutes by 77 votes to 8, with 7 abstentions.

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD

Paris, 3-4 February 1967

REPORT ON THE REVISION OF STATUTES

ANNEX V

FIFTH REPORT OF THE LEGAL COMMITTEE OF THE GENERAL
CONFERENCE OF UNESCO⁽¹⁾

Item 26 of the Agenda

REVISION OF THE STATUTES OF THE
INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

1. The Legal Committee devoted its fifteenth meeting and part of its sixteenth meeting on 17 November 1966 to studying the proposed amendments to the Statutes of the International Institute for Educational Planning.
2. The Committee dealt, in particular, with document 14 C/PRG/S-C.I/6 referring to the work and decisions of Sub-Commission I of the Programme Commission relating to this question as well as to the decision of the General Committee to refer this question directly and immediately to the Legal Committee.
3. The Committee found that the terms of reference of the Committee as regards item 26 of the Agenda consisted, in the words of the decisions of Sub-Commission I of the Programme Commission, in drafting "the definitive text for submission to the Plenary Conference".
4. Consequently the Committee, having heard the explanations given by the Secretariat on various aspects of the question, examined the draft resolution contained in the annex to document 14 C/PRG/S-C.I/6.

(1) Fourteenth Session; document 14C/86.

5. Some Members of the Committee raised questions as to whether the drafting proposed for paragraph 3 of Article IV (Functions of the Governing Board) adequately reflected the concern expressed in the Sub-Commission of the Programme Commission to safeguard ample intellectual autonomy for the Institute. One Member asked the Legal Adviser to give an opinion on this point. Mr. Saba recalled the statements made by the Director-General and the Deputy Director-General in the Sub-Commission and added that, while, on the one hand, the proposed revised text would, as regards the administration of the Institute and authority over its personnel, have the effect of defining the exclusive competence of the Director-General, on the other hand the Governing Board would, as regards the establishment and execution of the programme, have ample intellectual autonomy.

6. The Committee noted certain omissions of detail due to material errors and made a number of formal corrections in the various versions of this draft. In particular, it amended the draft resolution so as to make it plain that the text proposed for paragraph 3 of Article V of the Statutes (Executive Committee) referred only to the first sentence of that paragraph and that consequently the second sentence would remain unchanged in the Statutes.

7. The Legal Committee hereby transmits to the General Conference the draft resolution contained in the Annex in accordance with the version prepared by the Committee itself.

ANNEX

DRAFT RESOLUTION

The General Conference,

Recalling resolution 1.213 adopted at its twelfth session by which it established an International Institute for Educational Planning and approved the statutes of the Institute,

Having examined the proposed amendments to the statutes of the Institute submitted by the Director-General in document 14 C/40,

Decides to amend the statutes of the International Institute for Educational Planning, with immediate effect, as follows:

(A) Replace Article III by the following text:

"ARTICLE III
GOVERNING BOARD

Membership

1. The Institute shall be administered by a Governing Board (hereinafter called 'The Board'), consisting of ten members chosen for their competence and sitting in a personal capacity. The members shall be designated or elected in the following way:
 - (a) One member designated for a period of three years by the Secretary-General of the United Nations;
 - (b) One member designated for a period of three years by the President of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development;
 - (c) One member designated, for a period of three years, in turn and in the following order by:
 - the Director-General of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations,
 - the Director-General of the World Health Organization,
 - the Director-General of the International Labour Office;
 - (d) One member appointed, for a period of three years, in turn and in the following order by the directors of the three regional institutes for economic planning established by:
 - the United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East,
 - the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa,
 - the United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America;
 - (e) Two educators recognized for their contribution in the field of human resource development;
 - (f) Three members elected from among educators, economists and other specialists, one of whom shall be from each of Latin America, Asia and Africa, who have made contributions in the field of human resource development.

The members referred to in sub-paragraphs (e) and (f) shall be elected for a period of four years, in accordance with the provisions of paragraph 2 of the present Article. They shall be eligible for re-election.

- (g) A chairman elected from among educators, economists and other specialists of international repute in the field of human resource development. He shall hold office for five years, and shall be eligible for re-election.
- 2. Subject to the provisions of paragraph 4 of the present Article, the members of the Board mentioned in sub-paragraphs (e), (f) and (g) shall be elected by the Board as a whole.
- 3. The organizations and institutes mentioned in paragraph 1 above may be represented at the Board's sessions and participate in the Board's deliberations without the right to vote.

Transitional provisions

- 4. (1) The term of office of the members of the Board mentioned in sub-paragraphs (a), (b) and (c) of paragraph 1 of Article III of the Institute's statutes, as adopted by the General Conference at its twelfth session, shall expire on the date of the entry into force of the present revised statutes. Subsequently, the members mentioned in sub-paragraphs (a), (b), (c) and (d) of paragraph 1 of Article III of the present revised statutes shall be designated in accordance with the provisions of the said sub-paragraphs.
- (2) The term of office of the members of the Board mentioned in sub-paragraphs (d), (e) and (f) of paragraph 1 of Article III of the statutes of the Institute, as adopted by the General Conference at its twelfth session shall continue for the period stipulated in those statutes. Subsequently the members mentioned in sub-paragraphs (e), (f) and (g) of paragraph 1 of Article III of the present revised statutes shall be elected in accordance with paragraph 2 of the said Article."

- (B) Replace Article IV by the following:

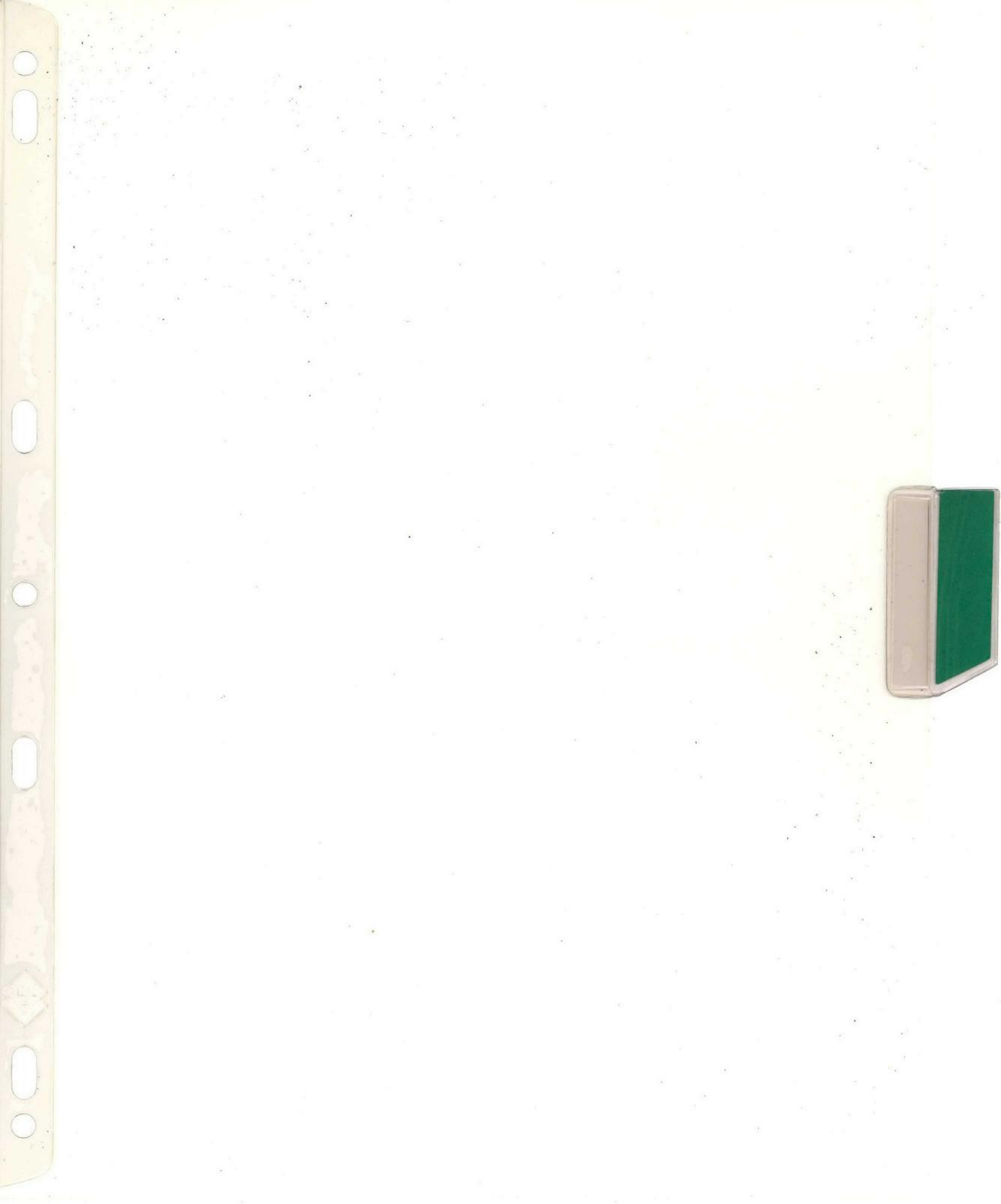
"Article IV

Functions

- 1. The Board shall determine the general policy and the nature of the Institute's activities within the framework of the general policy of Unesco, with due regard to the obligations resulting from the fact that the Institute has been established within the framework of Unesco.

2. It shall decide how the funds available for the operation of the Institute are to be used, in accordance with the provisions of Article VIII, and shall adopt the budget. The budget ceiling shall not exceed the total sum available, including contributions and subventions paid to the Institute under formal agreement for the relevant financial year.
 3. The Board shall lay down the conditions for the admission of participants to the Institute's courses and meetings. It shall make whatever general arrangements it may deem necessary for the establishment and execution of the programme of the Institute.
 4. The Board shall be consulted as to the appointment of the senior officials of the Institute and shall make recommendations to the Director-General of Unesco as to the appointment of the Director.
 5. The Board shall submit a report on the Institute's activities to each of the ordinary sessions of the General Conference of Unesco."
- (C) Replace the first sentence of paragraph 3 of Article V by the following:
"The Board shall set up an Executive Committee consisting of the Chairman of the Board and four members elected in accordance with the provisions of the Board's Rules of Procedure."

Requests the Director-General to take all appropriate measures to enable the Institute to operate in accordance with the statutes so amended.



5GB/6

Paris, 31 January 1967

Original: English

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD

Paris, 3-4 February 1967

Item 3 of the Agenda

REVISION OF THE RULES OF PROCEDURE OF THE
GOVERNING BOARD

1. Following the revision of the Statutes of the Institute by the General Conference of Unesco at its Fourteenth Session, it appears necessary to amend, by way of consequence, certain provisions of the Rules of Procedure of the Institute's Governing Board, the original text of which was adopted by the Board at its First Session (July 1963). Specifically, the change in the membership of the Board and the Executive Committee, under the revised text of Articles III and V of the Statutes, makes it necessary to modify the provisions in Rules 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15 and 18 of the original version of these Rules. The Board may wish to take the opportunity to modify, in harmony with the second sentence in sub-paragraph (f) of paragraph 1 of Article III of the Statutes, the text of paragraph 3 of Rule 6 which did not appear to be fully satisfactory in the past, and to make a few changes of form in Rules 10, 14 and 15 with a view to improving the general clarity and consistency of the Rules of Procedure.

2. The text of the draft amendments to the Rules of Procedure submitted to the consideration of the Board is contained in Annex I.

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD

Paris, 3-4 February 1967

ANNEX I

DRAFT AMENDMENTS TO THE RULES OF PROCEDURE OF THE
GOVERNING BOARD

Rule 4 - Notice of Meeting

It is proposed to revise the text of paragraph 2 to read as follows :

" 2. The United Nations, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, the World Health Organization, the International Labour Office and the regional institutes for economic planning established by the United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa and the United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America shall be given timely notice of every session of the Board and shall be invited to send representatives to such sessions".

Rule 6 - Term of Office

It is proposed to revise the text of this rule to read as follows :

- " 1. The term of office of each elected member of the Board shall begin at the close of the ordinary session at which he is elected and shall end at the close of the ordinary session for the year in which the term is to expire.
2. In the event of death or resignation of a designated member, the Executive Head of the Organization or Institute who designated them, shall be invited to designate another member for the remainder of the term.

3. In the event of death or resignation of an elected member, the Board shall elect a new member in accordance with the provisions of the Statutes".

Rule 7 - Resignation

It is proposed to revise the text of this rule to read as follows :

" Any member may resign at any time by giving written notice to the Chairman, to the Secretary of the Board. The resignation shall take effect at the time specified therein; and unless otherwise specified therein, acceptance of the resignation shall not be necessary to make it effective".

Rule 8 - Vacancies

It is proposed to revise the text of this rule to read as follows :

" A vacancy in the Board shall be deemed to exist in the case of the expiration of a member's term or the death or resignation of any member. Vacancies resulting from the death or resignation of any elected member may be filled by a vote of the majority of the members who may be present at a session even if constituting less than a quorum".

Rule 9 - Election

It is proposed to revise the text of this rule to read as follows :

" Elections to fill vacancies resulting from the death or resignation of an elected member shall be held at the first ordinary session following the vacancy or at an extraordinary session called for the purpose".

Rule 10 - Nominations

It is proposed to revise the text of this rule to read as follows :

" The Chairman shall notify the Nominating Committee and the other members of the Board of the vacancies which will require to be filled by election at the next ordinary session and shall invite nominations for such vacancies. The Nominating Committee shall consider all nominations and make its recommendation which

shall be sent to all members of the Board. No other nominations shall be received at the session except with the unanimous consent of the members present. At the request of the Chairman, the Nominating Committee also shall make its recommendations concerning persons to be elected at any extraordinary session of the Board at which a vacancy is to be filled".

Rule 11 - Deputies

This rule should be deleted.

Rule 11 - Compensation (formerly Rule 12)

It is suggested to revise the text of this rule to read as follows :

" The Institute shall pay the actual transportation expenses of the members of the Board to and from the place of meeting of the Board or of any of its Committees and a subsistence allowance for each night which attendance at such meetings requires them to spend away from their normal place of residence".

VI - Executive and other Committees

The title of this section should read :

" VI - Executive, Nominating and other Committees".

Rule 13 - The Executive Committee (formerly Rule 14)

It is proposed to revise the text of paragraphs 1 and 3 of this rule to read as follows :

" 1. There shall be an Executive Committee, composed of the Chairman of the Board and four other members to be elected at each ordinary session from among the members of the Board.

.....

3. A vacancy occurring among the elected members of the Executive Committee shall be filled by the remaining members from among the members of the Board".

It is further proposed to add a new paragraph 4, consisting of the following text, which was formerly included in paragraph 1 of Rule 14 :

" 4. The Executive Committee shall, between the sessions of the Board, have all the powers and duties of the Board, except in such matters which the Board has, by resolution, expressly reserved".

Rule 14 - Procedure of the Executive Committee (formerly Rule 15)

It is proposed to add a second paragraph to this rule, consisting of the following text, formerly included in paragraph 1 of Rule 14 :

" 2. Three members of the Executive Committee shall constitute a quorum and the Committee may act only upon the affirmative vote of three of its members".

Rule 15 - Nominating Committee

It is suggested that the Board adopt the following new text :

" 1. There shall be a Nominating Committee composed of the Chairman of the Board, and of three other members to be elected at each ordinary session from among the members of the Board.

2. The term of office of the elected members of the Nominating Committee shall begin at the close of the ordinary session at which they are elected and shall end at the close of the following ordinary session.

3. A vacancy occurring among the elected members of the Nominating Committee shall be filled by the remaining members from among the members of the Board.

4. The functions of the Nominating Committee shall be those defined in Rule 10 of the present Rules of Procedure".

Rule 16 - Procedure of the Nominating Committee

It is suggested that the Board adopt the following new text :

" The Chairman shall serve as the Chairman of the Nominating Committee. The Committee shall make such rules and regulations as it may deem proper for the conduct of its business".

VII - Director and Secretary

It is suggested to revise the title of this section to read as follows :

" VII - Director, Representative of the Director-General, and Secretary".

Rule 18 - Director (formerly Rule 17)

It is suggested to change the title of this rule to read as follows :

"Rule 18 - Director and Representative of the Director-General".

It is further suggested to revise the text of this rule to read as follows :

" 1. The Director or his representative shall attend all meetings of the Board, of the Executive Committee and of the other Committees and may participate without the right to vote in the deliberations of these meetings.

2. Any other staff members of Unesco who may be designated by the Director-General shall attend all meetings of the Board, of the Executive Committee and of the other Committees and may participate without the right to vote in the deliberations of these meetings".

Rule 20 - Quorum

It is suggested to delete the words "entitled to vote" from the first sentence of this paragraph.



5GB/7

Paris, 30 January 1967

Original: English

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD

Paris, 3-4 February 1967

Item 10 of the Agenda

COUNCIL OF CONSULTANT FELLOWS :

ELECTION OF THE VICE-CHAIRMAN AND OF NINE MEMBERS

A. Election of the Vice-Chairman

1. At the First Session of the Governing Board (July 1963), Mr. Raymond Poignant (France) was elected Vice-Chairman of the Council of Consultant Fellows, for a period of three years, which expired in July 1966.
2. It is proposed to re-elect Mr. Poignant, in the same position, for a period of two years, ending at the close of the session of the Governing Board which will be held at the end of 1968.

B. Election of nine members

3. The term of office of eight members of the Council, whose names appear below, expired at the end of 1966 :
 1. Mr. Jean Capelle (France)
 2. Mr. Michel Debeauvais (France)
 3. Mr. Giovanni Gozzer (Italy)
 4. Mr. Frederick Harbison (U. S. A.)
 5. Mr. Pitambar Pant (India)
 6. Mr. Bohgdan Suchodolski (Poland)
 7. Mr. János Timar (Hungary)
 8. Mr. Jan Tinbergen (Netherlands)

4. An additional vacancy occurred on the Council as a result of the death of Mr. Jorge Ahumada (Venezuela).

5. At its Fourth Session, the Board, having re-elected all the members of the Council of Consultant Fellows whose term of office had expired in November 1965, indicated that that action was not to be taken as a precedent and that it would be desirable in the future to provide for some change of membership, while at the same time retaining members who were actively engaged in work for the Institute. It was thought that it would be well to aim at replacing approximately half of the Consultant Fellows whose term of office would expire at the end of 1966.

6. Having regard to the above principles, it is suggested to re-elect, for a period of three years, i. e. until the close of the Board's session which will take place at the end of 1969, the two following members:

- (a) Mr. Jean Capelle (France), who has participated actively in the Institute's research on new educational media and in various seminars and research symposia;
- (b) Mr. János Timar (Hungary), who was elected at the Board's Third Session (January 1965), and who has recently submitted to the Institute a very interesting study, intended for publication, which may represent a valuable contribution to the research on the organization and process of educational planning.

7. The following nominations are submitted to the Board for filling the remaining seven vacancies :

- (a) Dr. Mukhtar Hamza (U. A. R.)
Secretary-General, Institute of National Planning, Cairo.
- (b) Mrs. Marie Kotikova (Czechoslovakia)
Dean, Faculty of Social Sciences,
University of 17 November, Prague.
- (c) Professor Edward S. Mason (U. S. A.)
Lamont Professor, Littauer School,
Harvard University.
- (d) Shri J. P. Naik (India)
Member Secretary, Education Commission,
Government of India.

- (e) Dr. Arthur T. Porter (Sierra Leone)
Principal, University College,
Nairobi - Kenya.
- (f) Dr. Chanoch Rinott (Israël)
Director-General, Ministry of Education and Culture,
Jerusalem.
- 7 (g) Dr. Victor L. Urquidi (Mexico) *Ribes Casanovi*
Presidente, El Colegio de Mexico,
Mexico.

8. The Board may also wish to consider the following alternate nominations :

- (a) Dr. Hector Correa (Ecuador)
Associate Professor of Economics,
Wayne State University,
Detroit - Michigan (U. S. A.).
(Former IIEP staff member)
- (b) Mr. A. R. Dawood (India)
Member of the Education Commission,
Government of India.
- (c) Professor Paul Hanna (U. S. A.)
Director of Stanford International Development
Education Center,
Stanford University.



5GB/INF/1
Paris, 1 February 1967
Original : English

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

FIFTH SESSION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD

Paris, 3-4 February 1967

INFORMATION NOTE

ESTIMATED STAFF TIME REQUIREMENTS FOR 1967-68 PROGRAMME

1. Following the Governing Board's request (December 1965), an effort has been made to "cost" the Proposed 1967 Programme in terms of staff time. The attached estimates indicate the following approximate allocation of 12,000 Available Programme Staff Hours:

	<u>Hours</u>	<u>%</u>
<u>Training</u> (Interns, Visiting Fellows, Special Seminars and Workshops)	7,000	58
<u>Instructional Materials</u>	1,500	12
<u>Available for Research</u>	<u>3,500</u>	<u>30</u>
Total	12,000	100

2. This is based on a 40-hour week, with allowances for annual leave, holidays and 10% deduction for miscellaneous duties (seeing visitors, correspondence, staff meetings, Unesco discussions, etc.). The calculations for the various items under Training have been done in considerable detail based on actual experience in 1965-66. Any such estimates, of course, are subject to unforeseeable contingencies, but these estimates are considered to have a margin of error no greater than 10%.

3. The following main observations seem appropriate:

(a) It is a tight programme, which could be seriously dislocated by the prolonged absence of any one staff member due to illness or resignation.

(b) Any substantial reduction of time for training would impair quality, unless the scope of the programme were reduced. Any expansion of the Intern or Visiting Fellows Programme would impair quality.

(c) The time available for research is too little to constitute an ideal balance between training and research. Such an ideal balance at this stage might approximate:

Training	45%
Instructional Materials	10%
Research	45%

(d) With the present size of budget and staff, however, it would be difficult to achieve this balance, without cutting training below the minimum desirable level.

(e) In view of the tightness and complexity of the programme, significant relief might be achieved by dropping the one day (or half-day) briefings of Unesco experts. The saving of time, and of disruption of individual work schedules, would be a greater advantage than the statistics alone suggest. This, however, is a question of relative priority to be decided by the Board.

(f) The receipt of supplemental funds sufficient to add two programme staff members would facilitate a better balance.

(g) It must be borne in mind that a high proportion of the research and instructional materials costs (including staff time) are financed from Ford Foundation and Netherlands Funds. Any further reductions here would call into question the legitimacy of the use of these funds.

A. SUMMARY OF ESTIMATED STAFF TIME REQUIRED FOR PROPOSED 1967 PROGRAMME

	<u>Staff hours</u>	<u>%</u>
1. Programme Staff Time Available	12,000	100
2. Less requirement for training programme	<u>7,000</u>	58
Balance	5,000	
3. Less preparation of instructional materials	1,500	12
4. Net available for research	3,500	30

B. DETAILED BREAKDOWN OF STAFF TIME REQUIREMENTS FOR PROPOSED 1967TRAINING PROGRAMME

	<u>Staff hours</u>
1. <u>Internship Programme</u> (15 Interns - 10 months each)	
a) Recruitment, general preparation and direction	350
b) Seminars (100 by staff, 25 by visitors; 4 hours each)	
Preparation (av. 8 hours x 100)	800
Participation (av. 50 seminars x 2 staff members, 75 seminars x 1 staff member)	700
c) Supervision, consultation, tutoring (2 hours per Intern per week) 15 x 40 x 2	1,200
d) Major papers - review and examination 15 papers x 3 readers x 8 hours	<u>400</u>
Total Interns	3,450 hours
2. <u>Visiting Fellows Programme</u> (30 Fellows, average 8 weeks)	
a) Recruitment, general preparation and direction (1 day each av.)	240
b) Orientation, design of individual programmes (1 day each)	240
c) Consultation (2 hours per week each)	<u>480</u>
	960 hours

	<u>Staff hours</u>
3. <u>Special Seminars (2) and Workshop (1)</u>	
Total 5 weeks.	
a) General preparations	120
b) Preparation of special papers (3 weeks x 4)	480
c) Staff participation (av. 3 staff x 5 weeks)	600
d) Follow-up papers (3 x 3 weeks each)	<u>360</u>
	1,560 hours
4. <u>Miscellaneous</u>	
a) Regional Centre Visits (4 staff x 2 weeks each)	320
b) Briefing Unesco experts (40 x 1 day each)	320
c) Other lecture trips (6 staff x 4 days)	190
d) Seminars for Visiting Groups (6 x 8 hours x 2)	<u>100</u>
	930 hours
Contingency	<u>100</u>
<u>Training total</u>	7,000 hours

C. DETAILED BREAKDOWN OF STAFF TIME REQUIREMENTS FOR PREPARATION OF
INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS - 1967

1. <u>Training Booklets</u>		
3 by staff members - 3 weeks each =		360 hours
3 by outsiders - 2 weeks for review =		<u>80</u>
		440 hours
2. <u>Manuals on Methodology</u>		
(Preparation, review and revision)		
Correa - 4 weeks		
Chesswas - 12 weeks preparation and revision		
<u>2 weeks review</u>		
18 weeks total		720 hours
3. <u>Tapes and Transcribed Lectures</u>		
Supervision		40 hours
Editing (not including junior editor)		<u>300</u>
Total		1,500 hours

D. ESTIMATE OF TOTAL PROGRAMME STAFF TIME AVAILABLE

<u>Programme Staff</u>		
Director (half time for programme)		800 hours
7 staff members x 1,585 hours		<u>11,200</u>
Total available		12,000 hours

Hours per staff member		52 weeks
	less	6 weeks annual leave
	less	<u>2 weeks holidays and illness</u>
		44 working weeks
		<u>x 40 hours</u>
		1,760 working hours
	less	175 10% required for miscella- neous duties
		<u>1,585</u>
		<u>1,600</u> rounded for accumulation of leave.



20 January 1967

International Institute for Educational Planning
(Established by Unesco)

7, rue Eugène-Delacroix, Paris 16e

THE IIEP INTERNSHIP PROGRAMME 1966/67

Note

This Programme is intended to provide a guide to all those who wish to know more about the IIEP Internship Programme. It may be read in conjunction with the "Announcement of the IIEP Internship Programme for 1967/68" (IIEP/PRG-IP/67.5). While the arrangements for 1967/68 will differ in detail from those which are appended, since changes will be made on the basis of experience during the current year, the main lines of the work will probably not be changed.

The Programme in 1967/68 will continue to represent an equal balance between individual practical work and organized study. The main item in the individual work will be the preparation of a terminal paper, involving comparative research and analysis, under the guidance of an appropriate Institute Staff Member on topics selected in view of their usefulness to both the intern and the Institute. Interns will also devote considerable time to suggested reading on the advice of their supervisors so as to derive the most benefit from the programme of formal lectures.

In addition it is intended that interns will take part in visits both in Paris and certain other selected centres in order to deepen their understanding of the problems and practice of educational planning.

The other half of the Programme will consist of the organized study of the major aspects of educational planning. There will be approximately 120 lectures and seminars in the period October to the end of March. It is likely that these will fall into three phases :

The first two weeks may be devoted to lectures introducing the central problems of educational planning in their economic, social and educational context.

The period beginning in the third week and ending at the Christmas recess is likely to comprise lectures centered on the theme of diagnosing the resources, structure and problems of education in its economic and social setting as a pre-requisite to planning. The programme will give weight both to diagnostic technical and basic courses and to teaching which is of a remedial character. Lectures will probably be integrated with the first half of a series on "Statistics and methodology in the work of the educational planning unit". They will include sets of lectures given mainly by Staff Members of IIEP, but also Members of Unesco Headquarters and a few distinguished visitors, on such subject areas as "Diagnosing the economic and manpower situation as a preparation for educational planning", "Cost analysis, financing and budgeting as part of diagnosis", "Problems of quality in educational planning", "Education for the rural sector", "The diagnosis of administrative structures and problems as a prelude to planning". There will also be a series of practical classes on basic statistics. In addition arrangements will be made for remedial work in connection with deficiencies in the understanding of language.

After Christmas until the end of March, the emphasis of lectures and seminars will turn to the problems of changing and expanding an existing educational system within the limits of available finance. Sets of lectures are likely to be integrated with the second half of the series of "Statistics and methodology in the work of the educational planning unit". The main emphasis will be on the mastery of the techniques and interrelationships involved in practical plan making. The seminars on statistics and methodology will be blended with a series of practical exercises in educational planning and decision making; these will focus attention on the practical techniques (projection techniques and feasibility testing) involved.

Additional seminars will be provided by Staff Members on the use of projections and models in economic development and educational planning.

The manpower implications of educational planning in respect of both formulation and implementation of plans will also be fully treated. Seminars will be devoted to the projection of manpower requirements and to the problems of adaptation of both formal and non-formal education to estimated employment requirements within the framework of the economic plan. The organization and adaptation of skilled manpower to carry out the educational planning process successfully, whether in the Ministry of Education or in other Ministries, or in regions and localities, will be discussed in a series of seminars. The practical implications of the social aspects of education which should be taken into account by planners will be examined in another series of meetings.

It is clear that there is an extremely close interrelationship between the quantitative and qualitative aspects of educational planning. It is generally agreed that development of education requires that due attention, and the practical measures implied in it, be given to the fitness of the "products" as indicated by various tests involving the social character of what is taught. It would seem necessary that the efficiency of the educational process, in terms of how well the students are taught, the relationship of results to "inputs", i.e. the qualitative performance of the system, should be given weight in deciding the balance of effort involved in educational planning.

In order to bring attention to bear on the planning implications of these problems, the Director has agreed that the winter sessions will include a series of seminars at which interns will present prepared case studies concerning some aspects of qualitative performance of a defined level or type of education in their country and how to improve it.

Certificates

The examinations for the award of Certificates will take place in July when the terminal papers have been prepared. Criteria for the award of Certificates will be as follows : -

Certificate	Satisfactory attendance during the year and completion of written work which is judged by supervisors and by the reviewing committee to be of adequate standard.
Distinction	As above, but written work and participation in seminars judged by supervisors and the reviewing committee to be of outstanding quality.
Failure	Written work which is judged by supervisors to be of inadequate standard, or insufficient participation in the course, including poor attendance or failure to pursue suggested readings and exercises diligently.

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A U T U M N S E S S I O N

(Weeks 1 to 9)

The Planning Background

WEEK 1

<u>Monday 17 October</u>	Reading and individual studies	
<u>Tuesday 18 Oct.</u> 10 a.m.	What is educational planning? 1)	P.H. Coombs
<u>Wednesday 19 Oct.</u> 10 a.m.	What is economic and social development planning?	R. Poignant
<u>Thursday 20 Oct.</u> 10 a.m.	National accounts; some general concepts and their employment in economic planning	R. Poignant
<u>Friday 21 Oct.</u> 10 a.m.	The methodology of economic and social development planning	J. Hallak

WEEK 2

<u>Monday 24 Oct.</u> 10 a.m.	Social aspects of educational planning	L. Cerych
<u>Tuesday 25 Oct.</u> 10 a.m.	Some constraints on economic development in non-industrial countries	M. Bérard
<u>Wednesday 26 Oct.</u> 10 a.m.	Comparative educational structures in industrialized countries (Western Europe, USSR, UK and USA)	R. Poignant

1) All seminars and lectures will have simultaneous interpretation.

<u>Thursday 27 Oct.</u> 10 a.m.	Comparative educational structures in English and French speaking develop- ing countries	J. Chesswas R. Poignant
<u>Friday 28 Oct.</u> 10 a.m.	Central problems of educational planning in the next ten years	P.H. Coombs

Diagnosis of education
in its structural, economic and social setting
as a pre-requisite to planning

WEEK 3

<u>Monday 31 Oct.</u>	Reading and individual studies	
<u>Tuesday 1 November</u>	National Holiday	
<u>Wednesday 2 Nov.</u> 10 a.m.	Statistics and methodology in the pro- cess of educational planning - Intro- ductory lecture	J. Chesswas
5 p.m.	Basic statistical course	J. Hallak
<u>Thursday 3 Nov.</u> 10 a.m.	Reform of the curriculum to meet natio- nal development needs	J. Bousquet Office for Educational Planning, UNESCO
5 p.m.	Basic statistical course : practical work	Ta Ngoc Chau
<u>Friday 4 Nov.</u> 10 a.m.	Documentation needed by the educational planner	J. Chesswas
5 p.m.	Basic statistical course	J. Hallak

WEEK 4

<u>Monday 7 Nov.</u> 10 a.m.	Integrating education with economic needs	R. Lyons
<u>Tuesday 8 Nov.</u> 10 a.m.	Planning for quality in education	H. Philp Department of School and Higher Educa- tion, UNESCO
<u>Wednesday 9 Nov.</u> 10 a.m.	a) Preliminary considerations on levels of administration, levels and types of schools, ownership and public financing of schools b) Composition of enrolments by source of pupils	J. Chesswas
<u>Thursday 10 Nov.</u> 10 a.m.	Flow rates within a level or stage of a school system	J. Chesswas
5 p.m.	Basic statistical course	J. Hallak
<u>Friday 11 Nov.</u>	National Holiday	

WEEK 5

<u>Monday 14 Nov.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Financial constraints in educational development - Some specific problems	R. Lyons
5 p.m.	Basic statistical course : practical work	Ta Ngoc Chau
<u>Tuesday 15 Nov.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Seminar on recruitment and training of teachers in English and French speaking countries in the process of development	R. Poignant J. Chesswas
5 p.m.	Basic statistical course	J. Hallak
<u>Wednesday 16 Nov.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Social demand for education	L. Cerych
5 p.m.	Basic statistical course : practical work	Ta Ngoc Chau

Thursday 17 Nov.
9.45 a.m. a) Flow rates between levels of education J. Chesswas
b) Enrolment ratios

Friday 18 Nov.
9.45 a.m. Policies and practice of educational planning - The Unesco programme R. Diez-Hochleitner
Office for Educational Planning, UNESCO

5 p.m. Basic statistical course J. Hallak

WEEK 6

Monday 21 Nov.
9.45 a.m. Diagnosing education from the standpoint of manpower needs R. Lyons

5 p.m. Basic statistical course : practical work Ta Ngoc Chau

Tuesday 22 Nov.
9.45 a.m. Manpower and training requirements for agricultural development F. Wilson
FAO, Rome

5 p.m. Basic statistical course J. Hallak

Wednesday 23 Nov.
9.45 a.m. The coordination of education and training programmes within rural areas F. Wilson
FAO, Rome

Thursday 24 Nov.
9.45 a.m. Information on students required as a basis for projections, and statistical tabulations from which that information can be obtained J. Chesswas

3 p.m. Analysis and projections of building requirements for educational expansion G.B. Oddie
OECD, Paris

Friday 25 Nov.
9.45 a.m. a) Information on schools, class and teachers required as a basis for projections J. Chesswas

b) Student/class and student/teacher ratios

5 p.m. Basic statistical course J. Hallak

WEEK 7

Monday 28 Nov.
9.45 a.m. Diagnosing education from the stand- R. Lyons
point of manpower needs

5 p.m. Basic statistical course : practical Ta Ngoc Chau
work

Tuesday 29 Nov.
9.45 a.m. Statistics of : - J. Chesswas

- a) School premises and facilities
- b) health and school meals services
- c) non-teaching professional and clerical staff in schools
- d) administrators and inspectors
- e) non-formal education

Wednesday 30 Nov.
5 p.m. Basic statistical course J. Hallak

Thursday 1 December Reading and individual studies

Friday 2 December
9.45 a.m. Methods of collecting statistics of J. Chesswas
the educational services

3.30 p.m. Basic statistical course : practical Ta Ngoc Chau
work

WEEKS 8 and 9 - Monday 5 to Friday 16 December

The Director decided that interns should observe the proceedings of the Seminar for Senior Experts from Member States between 5 and 16 December.

During this period there was also a series of lectures by Mr. Ta Ngoc Chau on "Demographic Concepts for Educational Planners". The programme was as follows : -

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| <u>Wednesday 7 Dec.</u>
3 p.m. | The structure of the population |
| <u>Friday 9 Dec.</u>
3 p.m. | Population movements |
| <u>Tuesday 13 Dec.</u>
3 p.m. | Demographic characteristics of countries in the process of development |
| <u>Thursday 15 Dec.</u>
3 p.m. | Technical problems involved in the study of the population in developing countries |

W I N T E R S E S S I O N

(Weeks 12 to 23)

Changing and expanding an existing educational system
within the limits of available finance

WEEK 12

<u>Monday 2 January</u> 9.45 a.m.	How should developing countries decide on the appropriate amount to spend on education ?	T. Balogh University of Oxford
<u>Tuesday 3 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Social demand for education	L. Cerych
<u>Wednesday 4 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Interpretation of analysed data : balance and imbalance	J. Chesswas
3.30 p.m.	Practical exercises in educational planning	Ta Ngoc Chau
<u>Thursday 5 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Basic methods of diagnosing educational planning from the sociological stand- point	L. Cerych
<u>Friday 6 Jan.</u>	Reading and individual studies	

WEEK 13

<u>Monday 9 Jan.</u>	Reading and individual studies	
<u>Tuesday 10 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Teacher requirements and manpower needs	R. Lyons
<u>Wednesday 11 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Effects of new policies and changes on administration and legislations	J. Chesswas
3.30 p.m.	Practical exercises in educational planning	Ta Ngoc Chau

<u>Thursday 12 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Case studies concerning some aspects of qualitative performance and how to improve it - Primary education in the Cameroons	J. Ndzino
<u>Friday 13 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Educational projections and their integration with economic and social development plans (1)	H. Phillips Dept. of Social Sciences, UNESCO
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<u>WEEK 14</u>		
<u>Monday 16 Jan.</u>	Visit to the "Centre International d'Etudes Pédagogiques de Sèvres"	
<u>Tuesday 17 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Adapting projections of enrolments to manpower needs	R. Lyons
3.30 p.m.	Unesco's activities in educational statistics	K.G. Brodin Statistical Office, UNESCO
<u>Wednesday 18 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Effects of new policies and changes on educational flow rates	J. Chesswas
3.30 p.m.	Practical exercises in educational planning	Ta Ngoc Chau
<u>Thursday 19 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Case studies concerning some aspects of qualitative performance and how to improve it - Primary education in Finland E. Aarynen
<u>Friday 20 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Educational projections and their integration with economic and social development plans (2)	H. Phillips Dept. of Social Sciences, UNESCO

WEEK 15

<u>Monday 23 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Use of models in educational planning - A symposium	R. Poignant J. Hallak Ta Ngoc Chau
<u>Tuesday 24 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Educational development in relation to manpower needs in the Ivory Coast	R. Poignant
3.30 p.m.	Long term projections on the basis of targets of : - a) enrolment ratios b) manpower requirements	J. Chesswas
<u>Wednesday 25 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Ditto	J. Chesswas
3.30 p.m.	Practical exercises in educational planning	Ta Ngoc Chau
<u>Thursday 26 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Case studies concerning some aspects of qualitative performance and how to improve it - The inspectorate in Northern Nigeria	A.M. Kida
3.30 p.m.	Statistics of enrolments and gradua- tions within the formal educational system with special reference to higher education	J. Porras Educational Statistics Division, UNESCO
<u>Friday 27 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Administrative factors in educational planning	R. Lyons A. Wheeler

WEEK 16

<u>Monday 30 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Use of models in educational planning (1)	J. Auerhan Dept. of Social Sciences, UNESCO
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<u>Tuesday 31 Jan.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Educational costs and productivity (1)	P.H. Coombs
3.30 p.m.	Short and medium term projections of enrolments based on enrolment ratios	J. Chesswas
<u>Wednesday 1 February</u> 9.45 a.m.	Ditto	J. Chesswas
3.30 p.m.	Practical exercises in educational planning	Ta Ngoc Chau
<u>Thursday 2 Feb.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Case studies concerning some aspects of qualitative performance and how to improve it - Secondary general education in Turkey	A. Sevinç
<u>Friday 3 Feb.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Administrative factors in educational planning (2)	A. Wheeler

WEEK 17

<u>Monday 6 Feb.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Use of models in educational planning (2)	E.S. Solomon Dept. of Social Sciences, UNESCO
<u>Tuesday 7 Feb.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Educational costs and productivity (2)	J. Hallak
3.30 p.m.	Short and medium term projections based on manpower targets - Part I	J. Chesswas
<u>Wednesday 8 Feb.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Ditto	J. Chesswas
3.30 p.m.	Practical exercises in educational planning	Ta Ngoc Chau

<u>Thursday 9 Feb.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Case studies concerning some aspects of qualitative performance and how to improve it - Secondary technical education in Mexico	C. Viveros
3.30 p.m.	Statistics concerning non-formal education and educational characteristics of the adult population	L. Goldstone Educational Statistics Division, UNESCO
<u>Friday 10 Feb.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Social aspects of education in developed countries	R. Poignant

WEEK 18

<u>Monday 13 Feb.</u>	Time schedule for plan elaboration	J. Boussquet Office for Educational Planning, UNESCO
<u>Tuesday 14 Feb.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Educational costs and productivity (3)	J. Hallak
3.30 p.m.	Short and medium term projections based on manpower targets - Part II	J. Chesswas
<u>Wednesday 15 Feb.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Ditto	J. Chesswas
3.30 p.m.	Practical exercises in educational planning	Ta Ngoc Chau
<u>Thursday 16 Feb.</u> 9.45 a.m.	Case studies concerning some aspects of qualitative performance and how to improve it - Post secondary technical education in the United Arab Republic	H. Rushdi Omar
3.30 p.m.	Statistics on educational expenditure and finance	G. Palm Educational Statistics Division, UNESCO

Friday 17 Feb. Educational costs and productivity (4) J. Hallak
9.45 a.m.

WEEK 19

Monday 20 Feb. Analysis of expenditures on education R. Poignant
9.45 a.m. (character of expenditures, size, dis-
tribution etc.)

Tuesday 21 Feb. Educational costs and productivity (5) J. Hallak
9.45 a.m.

3.30 p.m. Short and medium term projections - J. Chesswas
Teacher supply

Wednesday 22 Feb. Ditto J. Chesswas
9.45 a.m.

3.30 p.m. Practical exercises in educational Ta Ngoc Chau
planning

Thursday 23 Feb. Case studies concerning some aspects
9.45 a.m. of qualitative performance and how to
improve it -
Teacher training in Colombia E. Ortiz

Friday 24 Feb. Financing of education by public autho- Ta Ngoc Chau
9.45 a.m. rities

WEEK 20

Monday 27 Feb. The finance of education (sources of R. Poignant
9.45 a.m. finance and their utilization)

Tuesday 28 Feb. Short and medium term projections - J. Chesswas
3.30 p.m. Factors affecting costs

<u>Wednesday 1 March</u> 9.45 a.m.	Short and medium term projections - Factors affecting costs	J. Chesswas
3.30 p.m.	Practical exercises in educational planning	Ta Ngoc Chau
<u>Thursday 2 March</u> 9.45 a.m.	Case studies concerning some aspects of qualitative performance and how to improve it - Teacher training in Madagascar	E.A. Rakoto- nomenjanahary
<u>Friday 3 March</u> 9.45 a.m.	Non-governmental sources of educational finance	Ta Ngoc Chau

WEEK 21

<u>Monday 6 March</u> 9.45 a.m.	Planning technical education in school	R. Lyons
<u>Tuesday 7 March</u> 3.30 p.m.	Feasibility testing; programming and individual projects (1)	J. Chesswas
<u>Wednesday 8 March</u> 9.45 a.m.	Ditto	J. Chesswas
3.30 p.m.	Practical exercises in educational planning	Ta Ngoc Chau
<u>Thursday 9 March</u> 9.45 a.m.	Case studies concerning some aspects of qualitative performance and how to im- prove it - Womens' education in Mali	S. Diop
<u>Friday 10 March</u> 9.45 a.m.	Problems of priorities in economic and social planning and their consequences for educational planning	R. Poignant

WEEK 22

<u>Monday 13 March</u> 9.45 a.m.	Planning technical education out of school	R. Lyons
<u>Tuesday 14 March</u> 9.45 a.m.	Getting started in educational planning	P.H. Coombs
3.30 p.m.	Feasibility testing; programming and individual projects (2)	J. Chesswas
<u>Wednesday 15 March</u> 9.45 a.m.	Ditto	J. Chesswas
3.30 p.m.	Practical exercises in educational planning	Ta Ngoc Chau
<u>Thursday 16 March</u> 9.45 a.m.	Case studies concerning some aspects of qualitative performance and how to improve it - Higher education in the Congo	G. Nihan
<u>Friday 17 March</u> 9.45 a.m.	Organisation of the educational planning unit	R. Lyons

WEEK 23

<u>Monday 20 March</u> 9.45 a.m.	Planning and priorities for out of school education and training (including literacy)	R. Lyons
<u>Tuesday 21 March</u>	Reading and individual studies	
<u>Wednesday 22 March</u> 9.45 a.m.	Summary and conclusions	J. Chesswas
3.30 p.m.	Practical exercises in educational planning	Ta Ngoc Chau
<u>Thursday 23 March</u>	Reading and individual studies	
<u>Friday 24 March</u> 9.45 a.m.	The method of work of the educational planner	P.H. Coombs

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

ANNOUNCEMENT OF THE IIEP
INTERNSHIP PROGRAMME
FOR 1967-1968

The IIEP is an international centre for advanced training and research, whose purpose is to expand useful knowledge and the supply of qualified experts in the field of educational planning. The Institute was established in 1963 by Unesco, in co-operation with the World Bank, the French Government and the Ford Foundation.

Thus far the Institute has conducted research in some 20 countries on various aspects of educational planning and its relation to overall national development. On the training side it has conducted several seminars and in 1965 inaugurated an Internship Programme.

This Announcement concerns the third annual cycle of the Internship Programme, to which 15 qualified persons will be admitted in October 1967 approximately ten from less developed countries and five from economically advanced countries.

Aims of the IIEP Internship Programme:

The Programme is designed to provide advanced training in the theory and practice of educational planning, including practical experience in research and analysis, to persons intending to make a career in this field and who already have a strong educational background and some initial work experience.

It is intended that graduates of this Programme will be qualified to assume positions of substantial responsibility in educational planning, either in their own country (for example, in the Ministry of Education or general planning agency, or as a researcher and teacher of educational planning), or internationally (for example, as a Unesco expert or in a regional training centre, or with a bi-lateral assistance agency).

Contents and Methods of the Programme:

Approximately half of each Intern's time will be devoted to practical research and analytical work under the guidance of an appropriate Institute staff member, on topics of special interest and usefulness to both the intern and the Institute.

The other half of the programme consists of organized study of major aspects of educational planning, with emphasis on methodology and statistical analysis and on such specific problems as the integration of educational planning with the needs of economic growth and social development, educational costs and finance, teacher supply, qualitative aspects, educational reforms and innovations, out-of-school education, and the implementation of educational plans. Visits to other organizations in Europe whose work bears on educational planning will also be part of the programme.

Working Conditions:

Interns are expected to devote full time to the programme and to adhere to the regular working hours of the Institute. There are two vacation periods of two weeks each at Christmas and Easter.

Each intern is provided with office space and with typing facilities for official work. Seminars and other instructional activities are conducted in the Institute's own facilities, provided by the French Government. Interns have full access to the Institute's library and specialized collection of documents on educational planning; arrangements can also be made to use other good libraries and document collections in Paris, at Unesco, OECD and various French Institutions. The Institute does not provide living accommodation but assists interns in locating appropriate quarters.

Time Schedule:

All interns are expected to arrive in Paris not later than 1 October, 1967 and to remain until the end of July, 1968. Subject to special requirements of the intern and to the convenience of the Institute, an intern may begin work at the Institute prior to the 1 October, 1967 or extend his stay beyond July, 1968.

Qualifications for Admission:

The IIEP Internship Programme is limited to persons seriously intending to pursue a career relating to educational planning and who have already acquired a strong educational background and some practical work experience. Each case will be considered on its own merits, but candidates will ordinarily be required to meet the following conditions:

1. A university degree or its equivalent with a strong academic record. Preference will be given to candidates with post-graduate training in a relevant field (such as educational administration, economics, sociology, pedagogy, or public administration).
2. At least one or two years of relevant practical experience (such as school administration, research, teaching, or work in a government or international agency dealing with educational problems).
3. Previous training in educational planning: Preference will be given to candidates who have completed a basic course in educational planning at a Unesco-sponsored Regional Centre or a comparable course at some other institution. Candidates who, because of their location, have not had an opportunity to take such courses may substitute post-graduate training in a related field, or professional experience in an educational planning unit, to meet this requirement.
4. Language competence: The candidate should have a good command of either English or French, and preferably an elementary working knowledge of the other as well.
5. Career intentions: The Institute requires the candidate's written assurance that he or she intends to pursue a career relating to educational planning upon completion of the internship. Where appropriate, a statement of intention to employ the candidate's services in a suitable capacity upon completion of his internship is also requested of the candidate's government or other prospective employing institution.
6. Favorable references: At the time of his application the candidate should arrange for two letters of reference to be sent to the Director of IIEP by persons familiar with his professional competence and personal characteristics, preferably national or international officials,

university professors or educational administrators. In addition he should name at least three other references in his application.

Other qualifications being more or less equal, preference will be given to candidates from countries that have already made a significant start on educational planning, or, alternatively, to candidates who seem well qualified and well motivated to become international experts.

Whenever feasible, candidates will be interviewed by staff members of the Institute or by local professional persons serving as advisers to the Institute.

The Selection Committee of the Institute will seek a worldwide geographic distribution of interns and a diversity in their academic and professional backgrounds.

It should be emphasized that the Institute can accommodate only a small fraction of those who might wish to enter the Programme. Consequently, only persons who clearly meet the foregoing qualifications can be seriously considered for admission. Persons from developing countries who desire to be trained in educational planning should ordinarily begin such training at the appropriate Unesco Regional Centre and apply to the IIEP only after they have acquired such regional training or its equivalent in practical experience.

Scholarships:

The IIEP does not offer fellowships covering travel and maintenance of interns. Thus, an intern or his sponsor must secure a fellowship from some other appropriate source. The IIEP will assist in this matter to the best of its ability, particularly with regard to UN fellowships available through Unesco for qualified citizens of developing countries, but it must be emphasized that in accepting a candidate for admission the Institute does not take responsibility for securing him a fellowship.

Procedure for Applying:

In seeking well-qualified candidates for its Internship Programme, the Institute invites nominations from a variety of well informed sources throughout the world - particularly officials and field experts of Unesco

and other UN agencies, and members of the Institute's own Council of Consultant Fellows. After these nominations are screened, the most promising candidates are invited to apply for admission, and their Governments invited to support their application.

Completed applications, on forms supplied by IIEP, must reach the Institute not later than 30 April 1967, accompanied by a statement of what steps are being taken to secure a fellowship for the applicant in the event he is admitted. Candidates are urged to submit their applications as early as possible before the 30 April deadline.

Notifications of Admission will be sent by the Institute by 15 June 1967. Successful candidates should inform the Institute of their intention to accept the internship, and their expected date of arrival, by 1 July 1967.

WRITE FOR FURTHER INFORMATION TO:

Internship Programme,
International Institute for Educational Planning,
7, rue Eugène Delacroix,
PARIS, XVI.

IIEP/PRG-IP/67.7
Paris, 23 January 1967
Original : English

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING
(Established by Unesco)

7, rue Eugène Delacroix, Paris 16e

ANNOUNCEMENT OF THE IIEP
SENIOR VISITING FELLOWS PROGRAMME
FOR 1967 - 1968

Purpose

This Programme is designed to aid the career development of highly qualified persons who already hold responsible positions in teaching and research or in the practice of education planning, or who are about to enter upon such careers.

Nature of Programme

Senior Visiting Fellows ordinarily spend from one to nine months at the Institute, pursuing individual programmes designed to meet their particular needs and interests and to benefit their future work.

The programme is an intensive one requiring clear objectives, seriousness of purpose, and concentrated energy.

Fellows are expected to have a previously acquired general acquaintance with educational planning. While at the Institute they can enrich this general knowledge, but their central aim is to dig deeply into some particular aspect of special importance to their future work (such as costs and finance, methodology of projections, administration of planning, manpower aspects, foreign aid, etc.). The area of concentration should be selected prior to admission.

Upon arrival, the Fellow first works out a specific study plan under the guidance of IIEP staff members, then proceeds to carry it out.

It ordinarily includes: (1) substantial time devoted to selected reading and to auditing tape recordings of lectures; (2) participating in current seminars or other meetings of the Institute on topics relevant to his study plan; (3) frequent discussions with staff members and other Fellows and Interns; (4) analytical writing.

For Fellows staying more than one month, major importance attaches to the preparation of a useful and substantial analytical paper, in a subject area chosen before coming to the Institute in agreement with his sponsoring agency or employer and acceptable to the Institute. The topic may be modified by mutual agreement after the Fellow's arrival, if another seems more appropriate.

Working Conditions .

Senior Visiting Fellows are expected to devote full time to their studies, to adhere to the regular working hours of the Institute, and to remain for the full period agreed to.

Each Fellow is provided with office space and typing facilities for official work. Seminars and other instructional activities are conducted in the Institute's own facilities. Senior Visiting Fellows have access to the Institute's library and specialized collection of documents on educational planning. Arrangements can also be made to use other document collections in Paris - at Unesco, OECD and various French Institutions.

The Institute does not provide eating or living accommodations but assists Fellows in locating appropriate quarters.

Qualifications and Admission Procedure

The Institute can accommodate only a small number of Senior Visiting Fellows, hence careful priorities and selection standards are applied. Priority is given to: (1) Unesco experts serving or about to serve as professors of planning at Regional Training Centres or as Technical Advisers on educational planning in a developing country; (2) other well qualified persons who are pursuing or fitting themselves for careers as teachers, researchers or international expert advisers in educational planning; (3) senior planning experts of individual nations.

Candidates must have strong academic qualifications (ordinarily a university first degree or higher in a relevant field such as education, economics or another social science), and a substantial period of practical experience. They must be well recommended by their national authorities (in the case of senior civil servants) or by other sponsoring bodies.

Applicants should provide information concerning educational and employment background, future employment and career plans, a precise statement of what they hope to accomplish at the Institute, when and for how long they wish to come, appropriate references, and how their travel and maintenance will be provided for.

The Institute is not in a position to provide fellowships or grants to cover the travel and maintenance of Fellows. Candidates from developing countries are advised to seek UN Technical Assistance Fellowships through their Government, or fellowship aid directly from their Government, or from any foreign assistance agency or other appropriate source. Candidates from developed countries are advised to seek support from their government or from any appropriate public or private source. The Institute will endorse a person's request for fellowship support where it is appropriate and feasible.

INSTITUT INTERNATIONAL DE PLANIFICATION DE L'EDUCATION

RAPPORT DE LA

QUATRIEME SESSION DU CONSEIL D'ADMINISTRATION

Paris, 4-5 novembre 1965

ANNEXE II

COMPOSITION DU COLLEGE DE CONSULTANTS
(à la fin de la quatrième session du Conseil d'administration)

<u>Membres</u>	<u>Expiration du mandat</u>		
	<u>1966</u>	<u>1967</u>	<u>1968</u>
1. Jorge Ahumada ⁽¹⁾		X	
2. Isao Amagi			X
3. Arnold Anderson			X
4. Jean Capelle	X		
5. Adam Curle		X	
6. Michel Debeauvais	X		
7. Onwuka Dike		X	
8. Friedrich Edding			X
9. Lionel Elvin			X
10. Jean Fourastié		X	
11. Giovanni Gozzer	X		
12. Frederick Harbison	X		
13. Torsten Husén			X
14. V.A. Jamin			X
15. Arthur Lewis			X
16. Konstantin Nojko			X
17. Pitambar Pant	X		
18. Bohgdan Suchodolski	X		
19. Anisio Teixeira		X	
20. János Timár	X		
21. Jan Tinbergen	X		
22. Nguyen Quang Trinh		X	
23. John Vaizey		X	

(1) L'Institut vient d'être informé du décès de M. Ahumada.