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## Second Session

## SUMMARY RECORD OF THE FORTIETH MEETING

held at the Palais des Nations, Geneva,  
on Tuesday, 16 October 1951, at 2.30 p.m.CONTENTS:PagesSocial factors in economic development: preliminary  
analyses by the Secretary-General and documents  
submitted by ILO (item 5 of the agenda)

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Present:

Chairman: Mr. KERNKAMP

Members:

Australia	Mr. PEACHEY
Belgium	Mr. RYCKMANS Mr. WENDELEN
Brazil	Mr. ROCQUE da MOTTA
Cuba	Mr. VALDES ROIG
Denmark	Mr. LANNUNG
Egypt	Mr. PHARAONY
France	Mr. HURÉ Mr. DUBUISSON
India	Mr. PANT
Mexico	Mr. CALDERÓN PUIG
Netherlands	Mr. SPITS Mr. van BAAL
New Zealand	Mr. SCOTT
Pakistan	Mr. ZIAUD-DIN
Philippines	Mr. INGLES
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	Mr. SOLDATOV
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	Mr. M. THIESON Mr. LEYDEN
United States of America	Mr. DAVIS

Representatives of specialized agencies:

International Labour Organisation	Mr. G. VIN Mr. de BRIEY
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization	Mr. DESTOMBES Mr. FERNIG
World Health Organization	Dr. FORREST

Secretariat:

Mr. Benson	Representative of the Secretary-General
Mr. van Beusekom	Secretariat
Mr. Cottrell	Secretariat
Mr. Kunst	Secretary to the Special Committee

SOCIAL FACTORS IN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: PRELIMINARY ANALYSES BY THE SECRETARY-GENERAL AND DOCUMENTS SUBMITTED BY ILO (item 5 of the agenda)

(a) Rural Welfare Organization (A/AC.35/L.43)

The CHAIRMAN invited the Committee to consider item 5 of the agenda which had been divided into four sections. According to the time-table which the Committee had drawn up, the first two problems, namely, rural welfare organization and the organization of rural health services, should be disposed of at the present meeting.

Mr. MATHIESON (United Kingdom) said that before the discussion began he would like to inform members that he had received films illustrating economic development, particularly in the agricultural domain, which he would like to have shown. Despite the pressure of the time-table, he hoped that some opportunity might be found for members to see those films which, he was sure, would interest them.

The CHAIRMAN said that he would consider the matter and did not doubt that some convenient time could be found.

Mr. BENSON (Representative of the Secretary-General), commenting on the documents prepared by the Secretariat on rural welfare organization (A/AC.35/L.43) and the organization of rural health services (A/AC.35/L.42), said that at its first session the Committee had expressed the desire to consider economic development in connexion with social development. That approach had been reflected in the Committee's discussions. According to the pattern of work decided upon, the problem of social development would come up for special consideration at the Committee's session in 1952. The documents prepared by the Secretariat had been described as preliminary analyses, but they would form a suitable basis for future work. The report entitled: "Education for rural welfare" (A/AC.35/L.43) dealt more particularly with the problems of community education and agricultural extension. It was a detailed report, and he must warn the Committee that if a document on the same subject were to be prepared for the next session, it would be even more detailed, since it was impossible to reduce those important problems to statistical formulas.

He must also indicate that the Secretariat had consulted the Secretariat of the Social Commission in the hope that its general studies might serve the latter, the converse applying also to such general studies as would be undertaken by the Social Commission.

One of the most important questions brought out in the report on the organization of rural health services (A/AC.35/L.42) was that of the organization of medical services outside urban areas. In order to facilitate the Committee's work, sample maps had been prepared showing the geographical distribution of health services in the African Non-Self-Governing Territories. The Secretariat had had the help of some of the Administering Authorities and some of the local health services concerned. He added that the World Health Organization (WHO) had a particular interest in the problem.

Mr. MATHIESON (United Kingdom) wished to comment briefly on the question of education for rural welfare. The title of the Secretariat's analysis (A/AC.35/L.43) was apt and the document itself had the merit of stressing the close relationship between education in the widest sense of the term and the welfare of rural communities. He would confirm his remarks to the latter aspect.

At its first session the Committee had studied the problem of devising such forms of education as were suited to rural communities and as would enable the indigenous populations to receive the instruction they needed to allow them to play a full part in the development of their community, while at the same time retaining those close links with the land which were psychologically valuable.

In his earlier statements on agricultural development in the Non-Self-Governing Territories he had already touched on the ways and means applied to associate the peoples, especially those in rural communities, with development and production programmes. The Committee had heard Mr. Leyden describe the method of instructing people through teams of experts who lived among them, worked with them and guided them. It was an informal method and the teams of experts might be described as shock troops who brought new ideas and techniques to the people.

As for the important process of community development, it had at first been commonly known as mass education since the emphasis was on the extension of literacy. Now, however, the term "community development" was being more widely used because the stress was on general development and also because it was applied by the Technical Assistance Administration whose officials had developed certain interesting techniques in, for instance, Greece. The techniques used in that country were very similar to those applied by the Administering Authority in Northern Nigeria. To supplement the analysis contained in the Secretariat's paper (L./AC.35/L.43), he had made available to the Committee a memorandum on community development.

In connexion with paragraph 18 of the Secretariat's analysis, he drew attention to the fact that the Mass Education Clearing House had been brought into being through co-operation between an academic and an administrative body, the University of London and the Colonial Office. It was financed under the Colonial and Development Welfare Act. Those interested in the experiment might profitably consult its journal which was now entitled the Community Development Bulletin (and not, as stated in the report, the Mass Education Bulletin). The experimental three-week course for practitioners in community development held in 1950 (also mentioned in paragraph 18) had been repeated in June 1951, the curriculum having been broadened to apply to territories outside as well as in Africa.

Action to stimulate local initiative was not confined to rural communities but was being pursued in urban areas as well. The Department of Social Welfare in Singapore had organised clubs and meetings in which the local population participated on the basis of communal service and the promotion of the general good. That approach was the more valuable in that it helped to develop a sound national and civic sense.

A civic centre existed in Zanzibar and was used not only by the townsfolk but also by the people in the surrounding countryside. Its broadcasts, lectures and general activities were very popular. Once such a centre had been started and was being supported by the spontaneous desire of the people, instruction was

much easier to impart. People were more willing to take advice and guidance in that way than to follow directions communicated in official notices.

Turning to the question of agricultural extension services, he would give a brief account of the work for the promotion of agricultural education. One of the most important elements in that problem was to train a sufficient number of teachers who could instruct the people in the use of appropriate techniques, such techniques being applied within the framework of local conditions and customs. In order to be successful the instructor must be trained and must come from the region in which he was called upon to work.

Elementary training was given at farm institutes to young people who had received a primary education. Kenya, for example, had three agricultural training schools, and another was planned and would be opened shortly. Those schools gave a two-year course which consisted of theoretical grounding and of practical agricultural work. Similar schools existed in Uganda. In 1950, 56 apprentice instructors had completed their training in that territory. In Northern Rhodesia, the central agricultural station was responsible for training subordinate staff. A new agricultural school had been opened in 1950 in the eastern province with 30 students taking a two-year course. On completing the course the students went on to an experimental agricultural station where their suitability for further training was gauged. The vacancies were limited because it was essential that quality be maintained.

A great deal of work was also being done in other areas. The school in Jamaica for the training of young instructors served the whole of the western Caribbean and it was intended that the farm institute in Trinidad should serve the needs of the eastern Caribbean. More highly trained staff was also required. Agricultural officers with diplomas were trained on a regional rather than on a territorial basis, partly because it was easier to concentrate training facilities in one place and also because in that way students acquired an understanding of regional problems.

Makerere College in Uganda, which now served as a university college for East Africa, gave a five-year course in agriculture, of which two years were

devoted to scientific subjects and the last three to practical work, partly at the college and partly on experimental stations.

In West Africa the University College of Ibadan in Nigeria would also shortly provide a course for agricultural assistants who had already had some practical experience and wished to receive further training. In order to encourage Africans in Nigeria to take up agricultural work a new post of senior assistant had been created. He had already referred to the Trinidad Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture which had a course for students who had completed their secondary education. Training for higher posts which must be filled by University graduates was given in the United Kingdom, although it was hoped that the colleges in Nigeria and Uganda would soon be able to take on the more advanced work.

Mr. PANT (India) had heard with interest the United Kingdom representative's statement on the work done for education in the Non-Self-Governing Territories and wished to congratulate the United Kingdom Government on its valuable effort to promote education in rural welfare activities. He was aware from personal experience of the valuable rôle played by civic centres.

Regarding the problem of rural welfare, it was essential to know how policy was conceived in relation to general development. In all Non-Self-Governing Territories society was in a state of transition. Should rural welfare be considered in terms of a policy intended to maintain a particular pattern, or should it endeavour to facilitate the transition from one pattern to another? That was a most important aspect of the problem, and the distinction between the two types of approach was not always very clear to those who were responsible for the policy. It would be useful if the Committee were to take that point into consideration, when at its next session, it returned to the problem of rural welfare.

To illustrate his argument further, he would refer to his personal experience in the former Indian state of Andhra where a radical development programme had been initiated some years ago. In order to secure the peoples' participation, it was essential to start not with the Government as centre but

at the village level. It was only by persuading the people to do the work themselves that it was possible to win their confidence, since they were traditionally suspicious of procedures imposed from above. The question was that of educating the people. Indeed, he would say that the standard test of success of a development programme in rural areas was the growth of a sense of responsibility and confidence among the people. After all the Administering Authorities did not want to bring welfare in the form of a charity; they wanted people to be able to help themselves.

Turning to the problem of agricultural extension services, he noted that agricultural colleges frequently tended to create a "white collar" mentality in students who lost all desire to work in the field. It was essential so to organize the work that knowledge could really be brought to the people; agriculturists therefore should not be officials. That too was a subject which the Committee should dwell on at its next session. As an instance of successful initiative he would, in conclusion, mention the Kilimanjaro Coffee Growers Association in Tanganyika.

Mr. WENDELEN (Belgium) said that the Committee had already heard a statement from his delegation on the development of agriculture in the Belgian Congo. To the difficulties which had been mentioned by the Indian representative he would add another: there existed territories where the brunt of agricultural work was borne by women and not by men; that fact should also be kept in mind. He agreed that more trained people were needed and that it was essential that they should not acquire a bureaucratic mentality. His Government was fully aware of the danger of that happening. A sense of responsibility could only be acquired by the population if as many people as possible participated in the work of development. The policy in the Belgian Congo reflected that aim.

The teaching of agriculture was carried out by several kinds of schools as well as by higher institutions. The schools for agricultural assistants gave a three-year course intended to train students in agriculture and forestry, who, on completion of their studies, assisted European personnel in their pioneer work among the native population. Those schools also trained instructors for



agricultural schools, agents for co-operatives and assistants to heads of agricultural, forestry and stockbreeding enterprises. There were at the present time two such schools in the Belgian Congo which had trained 200 students, more than half of whom were now serving in the territory. Two other schools had recently been organized, and it was expected that two more would soon be opened, the first in the district of Katanga, and the second in that of the Equator. Thus, each district would have its own school for training agricultural assistants. The teaching in all schools was free. The most promising pupils would be able to take a year's course at the school of INEAC which was being organized.

The two-to-three year courses given in the agricultural professional schools were practical and were chiefly intended to train agricultural monitors who would ultimately replace illiterate and unqualified personnel. Schools would also train forest wardens, gamekeepers, as well as farmers, market gardeners, gardeners and skilled fishermen. Ten such schools were at work at the present time and trained some 150 persons annually. The ten-year plan provided for the setting up of 38 communal schools which would every year be able to train several hundreds of monitors. It was estimated that about 8,000 would be available by 1959. The teaching in the farm-schools was also mainly practical. There were ten such schools in 1950 with some 300 pupils.

Agricultural teachers were trained in special departments which were annexed to agricultural or to secondary schools. The teachers took a one-year course which enabled them to teach in elementary, secondary or professional schools.

The University Centre at Kisantu which already had a school for agricultural assistants, had decided to open a higher agricultural school for the native population. It was in process of being organized.

Instruction was also imparted outside the schools at local teaching centres, the training programmes of which were adapted to local possibilities and needs. Special courses to improve the agricultural knowledge of teachers and monitors who had not done a complete course of study were given from time to time.

Finally, according to an order of 21 September 1951, annual prizes would be given to the best monitors and assistants. In due course persons holding agricultural diplomas would be able to compete for a biennial prize of 25,000 francs as a reward for the best work or the best invention found to be of use in colonial agriculture.

Mr. DUBUISSON (France) said that the Committee had already heard statements from the French delegation on various aspects of economic development. Referring to the two topics under discussion, and keeping in mind the problems touched upon by the Indian representative, he would like to tell the Committee how links were established between the superior executive organs and the people themselves in the African territories.

The Sociétés indigènes de prévoyance (indigenous provident societies) were an old French administrative institution in North Africa. They had first been created in Algeria in 1882 and had gradually spread to Morocco. Their activities, which had at first been limited to the granting of credit and assistance on a mutual basis, had been gradually widened. Although they had suffered a temporary set-back during the last war, they had continued with their usual tasks and had also collaborated in creating co-operatives, which had in due course led to a remarkable development of the co-operative system in Morocco. At the end of the war a great movement had been initiated for the betterment of the peasant's lot and the societies were playing a leading rôle in it. Originally their purpose had been to protect the peasant against normal risks - usury and agricultural disasters. In 1946 their charter had been changed so as to allow them to participate in improving conditions and help peasants gradually to adopt modern techniques.

Reference had already been made to the great difficulty caused by uncertainty of land tenure. Another equally serious difficulty was that of usury and indebtedness. Both law and religion had striven against those two evils but it had been found necessary to modify the fundamental concept of French law, according to which a usurer was only punishable after repeated offences. In the North African territories the law had now been changed to allow punishment for a first offence if sufficiently serious.

The administrative structure of the Sociétés indigènes de prévoyance had been greatly developed in Morocco. They had instituted boards of management (conseils d'administration) on which the native population was represented and which served as local government organs. The boards were composed of the head local administrative officer, agriculturists, engineers, landowners, farmers and peasants, with the result that technical knowledge and knowledge of local conditions were pooled and excellent results obtained. Thus all officials

responsible for applying a policy of modernization could work in full awareness of local customs, traditions and needs. Furthermore, the societies could take legal action on behalf of their members.

They also acted as intermediaries in the granting of collective insurance contracts, with preference given to mutual insurance societies. In addition, they contributed to the setting up of all types of mutual societies, particularly co-operatives.

Their second rôle was that of credit institutions, granting loans in money or in kind. Loans in kind tended generally to take the form of seeds, fertilizers or equipment. They also endorsed requests for the larger loans granted by regional credit banks.

Thirdly, they did much work to popularize modern agricultural methods and to better the conditions under which the indigenous population worked.

The means available to the societies for the performance of their important work were very small. Generally speaking they had a secretary and a treasurer for the administrative work, and a certain number of local employees for the maintenance of nursery gardens, for demonstration services, and as herdsmen. But they also co-ordinated the work of the various technical services which lent them very active assistance. Frequently they also had agricultural advisers, who were in fact practical teachers trained in the regional schools in elementary agricultural techniques and well-versed in local conditions and needs.

He stressed the point that, while the activities of the societies were perhaps not very spectacular, they nevertheless produced appreciable results, and since the war had made considerable progress.

Reverting to the societies' activities in the field of credit, he observed that the credits granted were indispensable to the African farmer, since harvests were irregular and the size of herds was continually subject to rapid changes; the combination of these two factors inevitably had a great influence on the farmer's capital holding. Credit granted for purposes of personal consumption was, however, becoming very rare, save in exceptional circumstances such as the drought of 1945. The societies tended rather to grant credit for production purposes or medium-term

credit for the purchase of mechanical equipment, particularly in areas which were in the transitional stage between traditional and modern farming methods.

In their work of modernization, the societies were commonly compelled to undertake certain tasks for the betterment of agricultural conditions, such as irrigation, land clearance and deep tractor ploughing. In order to further such work, they often lent assistance in the form of medium-term loans to farmers, or they might undertake the work themselves with technical aid or with the assistance of private enterprise. To prevent the risk of any experiments that might be carried out falling on the indigenous population, the societies were frequently subsidized by the State. A more indirect method of popularizing modern farming methods was that of facilitating the purchase by the indigenous population of stronger animals, fertilizers, selected seeds and so forth.

The societies also took an interest in the improvement of nursery gardening, which had until recently been on the wane in North Africa, but had increased in recent years by the provision of plants through the societies and by the grafting of suitable trees. Since 1946, in Morocco alone, the societies had distributed 165,000 olive plants, 28,000 almond plants and 56,000 citrus fruit plants.

The societies also did considerable work in stock-raising, both by improving blood strains and by affording veterinary treatment. Thus in 1949 and 1950, 5 million animals had been dipped against parasites and 2½ millions vaccinated.

Finally, having personally participated in the work of the societies in a number of areas, he could state that their activities were steadily giving birth to feelings of solidarity and mutual affection. In the course of half a century the work had borne much fruit and had been shown to answer very well to the needs and aspirations of the indigenous inhabitants of French Africa.

Mr. RYCKMANS (Belgium) wished to comment on the statement appearing in paragraph 57 of the Secretariat document A/AC.35/L.43 that the Native Welfare Fund in the Belgian Congo operated through the existing official and public agencies, and that activities on the local community level did not enter into its plans. He recalled that in the information transmitted for the years 1949-1950, full particulars had been given concerning the Fund, which was granted seven million dollars annually for a ten-year period by the metropolitan country. The Fund was concerned exclusively with the welfare of the rural population. It was felt that the basic needs of the urban employed population and the population employed by Europeans were covered by the obligations imposed by law on the employers. That, however, was not the case with the independent rural population, and it was the task of the Fund to see to their welfare.

In 1950 the Fund had spent some 270 million francs in the Belgian Congo. Among its achievements might be mentioned the supply of water to rural communities, especially those where bilharzia was rife. It had set up social centres and had taken action in the medico-social field, including the creation of maternity hospitals and orphanages. It had also embarked upon the intensification of education by issuing grants for the building of schools, and two million francs had been spent in providing playing fields and other sporting facilities and in subsidizing native arts.

To say that the Fund operated through the existing official and public agencies was not quite correct; it did so only where organizations existed which would work for it when subsidized. Thus, for example, the study of water supply to rural communities had been entrusted to the Water Board (Régie des Eaux), a semi-governmental organization which specialized in such matters. In other cases the work was conducted by its own staff, which had, for instance, undertaken a pilot scheme to study the question of low birth rates in certain tribal communities. It had also undertaken work in the field of nutrition and for the extermination of harmful insects.

Mr. BENSON (Representative of the Secretary-General) thanked the Belgian representative for drawing attention to a phrase which might be misleading. He would point out, however, that it had not been the intention of the Secretariat in drawing up that document to deal with general work for rural welfare in all fields, but only with one particular aspect, that of education for rural welfare; and he recalled that in the previous year's documents more detail was to be found on the activities of the Native Welfare Fund. By saying that the Fund operated through the existing official and public agencies, the Secretariat had merely wished to indicate the fact that many rural welfare activities in various parts of the world were currently directed by administrative organizations, whereas in the Caribbean area for example, similar work had in a large number of cases originated in the villages or rural communities themselves. There was a difference of approach deserving consideration.

Mr. DAVIS (United States of America) was glad to note that the previous speakers had all stressed the importance of proper organization at the local level in the economic and social development of Non-Self-Governing Territories. In that connexion, he recalled that at the seventh session of the Social Commission the United States representative had proposed a draft resolution, urging the use of community welfare centres as effective instruments to promote economic and social progress throughout the world; the Economic and Social Council had later adopted that resolution (resolution 390 (XIII)).

He wished also to call attention to the work done by the International Labour Organisation and the Food and Agriculture Organization in the development of such activities in Non-Self-Governing Territories. At the 1950 session of the West India Commission in Curaçao much of the background material on the Caribbean area had been prepared by those specialized agencies.

Mr. VALDES ROIG (Cuba) congratulated the Administering Authorities upon the progress made. He felt that the representative of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization should be heard on the subject of education for rural welfare, one of the objectives of that Organization being the development of culture and education generally in the less developed areas of the world.

Mr. FERNIG (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization), speaking at the invitation of the Chairman, stated that he would prefer to make his statement when the Committee considered the item on education in Non-Self-Governing Territories.

(b) Organization of Rural Health Services (A/AC.35/L.42)

Mr. LEYDEN (United Kingdom), referring to the organization of rural health services, stated that such services had to be closely linked to rural welfare education in Non-Self-Governing Territories since there existed a certain measure of native prejudice against western medical techniques. It was, for instance, often very difficult to overcome animist traditions, including, for example, the practice of animal sacrifice as a medical measure; consequently a primary measure to be taken regarding the peoples of Africa and other territories had to be to make them believe in western medicine.

In spite of the difficulties much progress had been made. Malaria has been banished from Cyprus and almost banished from British Guiana. Much real progress had also been made in Africa, where good work had been done in the elimination of trypanosomiasis. Help was given to Africans through both fixed dispensaries and mobile units. The mobile units also coped with epidemics in co-operation with district teams which provided information and assistance. Those district teams possessed the requisite range of knowledge to keep a careful watch over nutrition in their areas, and they had access to the latest developments in research. With regard to nutrition, he indicated that in Makerere College in Uganda a nutrition school had been established to train Africans in the science of dietetics; that was particularly important since it had been found that, as a result of unbalanced diets which led to a protein deficiency, many apparently healthy Africans were in point of fact unable to undertake hard and sustained work in industry.

In Africa also the improvement of water supplies had done a great deal to reduce the number of abdominal diseases. Bore holes had been sunk in villages, which were no longer obliged to draw their water from muddy swamps, thus avoiding dysentery and typhoid fever. In the rural areas of Uganda alone, nearly 1,100

bore holes and 471 reservoirs had been built in the past fifteen years to provide a permanent water supply for both human and animal consumption. Those clean and more efficient systems of water supply were all in the rural areas, and their number increased each year.

Leprosy was also receiving careful attention, and the use of new drugs and well organized colonies was effecting marked improvements.

His Government had not overlooked in Africa the problems which would arise contingently upon industrialization. The siting of industry in relation to town planning, including studies of the effects of industrial effluence on the population and agriculture of the territories, was being carefully studied well in advance of the advent of industry.

Dr. FORREST (World Health Organization) wished to commend the Secretariat's study on the Organization of Rural Health Services (A/AC.35/L.42) which, although prepared with the knowledge and support of the World Health Organization (WHO), had been carried out entirely by the small health unit of the United Nations Department of Trusteeship. WHO attached particular importance to the work done by that service and was not at present equipped to collect, collate and classify the public health information received from Non-Self-Governing Territories under Article 73e of the Charter. In 1947 it had been arranged that the United Nations should do that work, while WHO should provide technical advice on the interpretation and analysis of the material received.

WHO had followed the development of public health and medical services in Non-Self-Governing Territories with great interest; the information on them, as reported by the public health section of the United Nations Secretariat, including maps showing the organization and distribution of various types of services on a geographical basis, was of particular interest to his Organization and would be of the greatest value to it in the future. WHO had co-operated with the United Nations on a consultative basis both in the preparation of reports and in the planning of future activities concerning the analysis of health information submitted by Administering Authorities.



A recent study by a WHO consultant on the economic value of preventive medicine had once again emphasized the fact that by preventing and controlling diseases and by improving environmental sanitation not only did the morale and well-being of the population benefit, but manpower could also be saved for constructive and productive work, the quality of which would also be improved. That study would be published in one of the WHO Monograph series and would be made available to members of the Committee.

WHO would also be interested in co-operating with Administering Authorities, the public health services of the territories concerned and the United Nations in making a well-rounded study of public health developments in Non-Self-Governing Territories. Pursuing its policy of decentralization, WHO had now established six Regional Offices covering all the areas of the world, including Non-Self-Governing Territories. Indeed, he was glad to be able to note that all Administering Authorities were members of one or another of those Regional Organizations, which were currently discussing plans with Administering Authorities to provide services which would give them truly constructive assistance suitable to the circumstances in each case.

WHO was making arrangements so that in 1952 it would be in a position to provide more definite help to the United Nations in the preparation of its analyses and studies.

He concluded by saying that he would have further comments to offer on the subject of public hygiene when the Committee discussed its future programme of work.

Mr. PANT (India) called attention to paragraphs 9 and 10 of the Secretariat's analysis of the Organization of Rural Health Services (A/AC.35/L.42) where the point was made that economic advancement was necessary before any immediate progress in health could be achieved. The document referred to the Government of India's General Health Survey, 1944, but since that publication had appeared more detailed work had been done, and it had been found that in the more backward areas of India approximately 90 per cent of the family budget was spent on food. The problem of nutrition had therefore to be very carefully studied when any attempt was made to improve rural health.

In former days, Indian villagers of a certain level had subsisted on a diet which, from the nutritional point of view, was fairly well balanced, but the balance had been deeply disturbed by the introduction of modern foods, tea shops and restaurants. In organizing rural health programmes, therefore, the Administering Authorities should pay very close attention to the possible results of establishing restaurants, for instance, which, although they might prove socially welcome, could at the same time cause a deterioration of health. It was not sufficient merely to introduce remedial medicine into the backward areas, for while that would bring about the suppression of some diseases it might increase the incidence of others, such as tuberculosis.

After paying tribute to the excellent work of missionaries in the field of medicine, he referred to the United Kingdom representative's statement regarding the hesitancy of the population of certain areas to accept western medicine. He stressed the point that there was much scope for research in indigenous medicines and homeopathy. He recalled that in Nairobi the indigenous population was reputed to have a reliable cure for cancer, and that the herb in question had been sent to the Cancer Institute in London for study. Although many native medicines were as yet unknown to western science, there was the important consideration that they were frequently much cheaper.

Finally, he stated that insufficient attention had been paid to the importance of exercise as a means to better health. The first duty of the Administering Authorities, when trying to improve the health in rural areas, was surely to make the body resistant to disease.

Mr. ZIAUD-DIN (Pakistan) referred to a recent meeting he had had with the Australian Minister for External Affairs who had at one time been Governor of Bengal before the independence of India. They had discussed the question of the vaccination of the Korean people, and the Minister had emphasized the firm measures he had taken during his term of office to deal with the question of rural hygiene and vaccination in Bengal. He (Mr. Ziaud-din) had since learned that, according to United States Army statistics, every person in South Korea had now been inoculated against three or four diseases.

Mr. DAVIS (United States of America) described the action taken by the United States Government in recruiting medical staff to serve in Guam and American Samoa during the past year. Great difficulty had been experienced in recruiting a sufficient number of qualified physicians to take the place of the United States Navy medical personnel who had been carrying out the health programmes in those Territories. Physicians had accordingly been recruited from among fully qualified medical men who had been living in displaced persons' camps in Europe. After careful selection, the Government had succeeded in obtaining the services of twenty doctors who were at present on duty in Guam, the Trust Territory of the Pacific, American Samoa, Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands. The experiment had been completely successful, and the work done by the physicians, who had adapted themselves to the new and changed conditions, was of a very high quality.

Mr. DUBUISSON (France), referring to rural hygiene in African territories under French administration, described briefly the various steps being taken in those territories to combat eye and other diseases and emphasized the importance of the work of mobile health units.

Medical assistance in the French Overseas Territories was supplied free of charge to the rural population, and the mobile units had helped to solve the endemic problem. Health units had been increased and decentralized; medical and technical personnel had also been expanded and transportation improved. Special efforts had been made in the field of maternal and child welfare and the care of nursing mothers and young children.

After quoting figures to show the large number of consultations held in French West Africa, Madagascar and French Equatorial Africa in the field of prenatal care, child welfare, and also the number of births occurring in the various nursing homes, he emphasized that the most important aspect of social welfare in French Overseas Territories was the organization of rural health services and the measures taken to combat epidemic and endemic diseases, in which the Assistance rurale (Rural Care Service), the Services d'hygiène mobile et de prophylaxie (Mobile Health and Prophylaxis Services) and the Service anti-palustre (Anti-malaria Service) played an important part.

Vaccination campaigns were being carried on against smallpox, yellow fever and plague. There had not been a single case of smallpox in Madagascar in the past thirty-three years, and in 1950 there had been only 153 cases of plague as compared with 2,000 annually in the years prior to 1937. There had been no case of yellow fever in French West Africa in the last two years, and smallpox had ceased to be a great scourge. Thirty million inoculations had been given against yellow fever, and more than 43,000,000 Jenner vaccinations. In French Equatorial Africa 81,019 inoculations had been given against yellow fever, 120,967 Jenner vaccinations and 873,805 inoculations against smallpox and yellow fever.

A special service had been set up in Madagascar to combat malaria, and in 1950 2,000,000 French francs had been spent on insecticide spraying and more than 117,000,000 French francs on the purchase of anti-malaria drugs. Effective action had been taken to deal with trypanosomiasis in French West Africa and in French Equatorial Africa, and a vast programme of chemo-prophylaxis had been carried out.

Emphasizing that the sparseness of the population of French Overseas Territories was a serious obstacle to the successful execution of economic and social programmes, he said that the protection and increase of that population were essential aims of the various medical authorities. As a result of the steps which they had already taken, there had been 49,368 births in Madagascar in 1950 as compared with 10,978 in 1946.

As part of the anti-tuberculosis campaign, more than 60,000 schoolchildren in French West Africa and 59,430 in Madagascar had been vaccinated with BCG.

Efforts had also been made to impart health instruction to the rural population by means of films.

In each Territory or Federation medical assistance was supervised by the Director-General of Health, and was supplied by permanent and mobile bodies, including scientific establishments and centres for specialized research.

The technical staff of the various medical assistance centres was in large part composed of indigenous inhabitants. Schools had been established at Dakar and Antananarive for the training of doctors, chemists, midwives and visiting nurses.

Mr. BENSON (Representative of the Secretary-General) referred to a suggestion made earlier by the Chairman that the representative of WHO should revert to the points arising out of the preliminary analysis prepared by the Secretariat on the organization of rural health services (A/AC.35/L.42) when the Committee discussed its future work. If the Committee decided to pay special attention to social questions at its next session, the question of improved health would play a vital part in that discussion. He was sure that the Committee did not wish to duplicate work which was being undertaken by WHO. Information on public health conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories would have to be submitted by the Administering Authorities in greater detail than before, but the main interest of the Special Committee would be directed towards the administrative problems of social policies aiming at improved health and not towards technical medical questions.

The representative of WHO had referred to the agreement reached in 1947 with the United Nations that WHO should provide technical advice on medical and health services, and that an analysis of the organization and distribution of the various services would be done by the United Nations.

In previous papers which it had submitted to the Committee, the Secretariat had indicated problems regarding the administrative organization of the public health services, the training of indigenous medical personnel, and other problems which arose in the Non-Self-Governing Territories where a modern system of medicine had to overcome the ignorance of the population and also to take into consideration the possible benefits of indigenous systems of guarding health. The purpose of the paper before the Committee was to draw attention to the very interesting developments by which rural health was not brought to the village but developed in it through various devices. Referring to the Indian representative's statement, he said that the Secretariat could show in the papers to be submitted to the Committee in 1952 how better health could be brought to the villager so that he would take an interest in it.

Referring to the maps submitted to the Committee, he pointed out that the Secretariat and the various medical authorities consulted had spent a great deal

of time on their compilation. The medical authorities of the separate Territories no doubt had more detailed maps, but the present attempt was to produce maps which would be of value to neighbouring territories, to WHO and to any technical missions sent into the field.

Mr. MATHIESON (United Kingdom), praising the initiative taken by the Secretariat in compiling the various maps submitted to the Committee, said that it was difficult at the present stage to express an opinion on their value as members had not yet had time to examine them thoroughly. He felt, however, that they would be of great interest to medical officers in the territories who would thus be able to see at a glance the structure of medical services in neighbouring territories.

(c) Migrant labour and other labour problems (A/AC.35/L.40, A/AC.35/L.52, A/AC.35/L.53)

Mr. GAVIN (International Labour Organisation), speaking at the invitation of the Chairman, said that the report prepared by the International Labour Office on Migrant Labour in the Non-Metropolitan Territories (A/AC.35/L.40) was not a definitive study of that problem, but was intended to present an outline of the main manifestations of the problem, of the action already taken by the International Labour Organisation in the matter and of the steps it would take in the future.

With regard to the action taken, an account was given of the two main international conventions, the Recruiting of Indigenous Workers Convention of 1936 and the Contracts of Employment (Indigenous Workers) Convention of 1939, which dealt with the various aspects of those problems and were both of a protective nature. After briefly describing the various provisions of the conventions, he pointed out that additional protective provisions had been adopted in 1947. In the same year, an International Labour Organisation Committee of Experts on Social Policy in Non-Metropolitan Territories had adopted a series of recommendations regarding measures designed to protect the migrant worker and his social unit in the area of employment, to limit labour migration and manpower wastage, and to stabilize workers in their area of origin and at their place of employment. Those questions were referred to on pages 8 and 9 of the report (A/AC.35/L.40).

Quoting the last paragraph on page 10 of the report, he pointed out that it was apparent from what had been said there that there was an area of basic agreement between the experts who had studied the problem of migration and the governments which had attempted to solve it. A large number of measures relating to the health and welfare of migrant workers had already been taken by the Administering Authorities concerned, but it could not be said that the evil had been stamped out. Migration continued and affected only, or mainly, the male section of the population, which brought about a serious disequilibrium both in tribal groups and in industrial centres. Palliatives and improved administrative measures had been tried or imposed, but structural reforms had not yet been carried out. He emphasized that migration was essentially due to a disproportion between the rate of industrialization and the human resources of Central Africa, giving rise to economic and social problems which were difficult to solve. Even if it were possible to bring about uniform industrialization of the workers' areas of origin, the problem would not be solved. It might even be rendered worse, as the final result would be the complete exhaustion of the already depleted human reserves of the villages. Industrial and social development could, and should, take place only in social surroundings prepared to receive it. That called for the organization of training facilities or the appropriate technical education.

Economic measures to solve the problem should not aim solely at the establishment of new industries in countries which lacked them. The agricultural heritage of territories where the soil was threatened by erosion and by the inadequate agricultural methods of the indigenous inhabitants should be safeguarded.

Social measures should aim at increasing the wage-earners' output rather than the actual number of workers. Such measures naturally called for a successful programme of individual and collective education.

The Committee of Experts on Social Policy in Non-Metropolitan Territories would meet again in November 1951 to discuss those more fundamental aspects of the problem and would make the necessary recommendations.

Mr. van BAAL (Netherlands), referring to the International Labour Office's report on Migrant Labour in Non-Metropolitan Territories (A/AC.35/L.40), emphasized the difficulties to which the problem of migrant labour gave rise. Any scheme of economic development in a sparsely populated territory called for the use of migrant labour and was part of the price which people had to pay for the advancement of their country. The advantages and disadvantages of migrant labour should be carefully weighed, and, since the latter had been stressed in the International Labour Office report, he wished to refer briefly to the former.

In New Guinea, male workers left their villages simply because there was nothing for them to do. In olden days the male indigenous inhabitants had taken part in battles and in various feasts and ceremonies. All tools had been of stone or wood, and the men had used to clear the forests. All other work in the villages was done by the women. At the present time, however, with the advent of modern tools and the passing of the old ceremonies and feasts, the men had little or nothing to do. It was extremely difficult to train them as farmers, since they considered the carrying of water and wood as work fit only for women. They welcomed a change, but when the recruiting of migrant labour was permitted in certain areas the Government had decided that the maximum number of males recruited in each village should not exceed 2 per cent of the total population, except in villages where the males outnumbered the females.

The migration of married couples posed another problem. Much had been said in favour of a system of recruiting which permitted the man to bring his family with him, but he felt that that was open to criticism and that the migration of women might lead to the permanent settlement of the family in the place to which it migrated. Women, once they had become accustomed to the easier life of the towns, would certainly not wish to return to the village. Permission had been given to the oil company in New Guinea to bring in married men with their families, but the result of that experiment would be known only after some years had elapsed.

As to the indigenous inhabitants who migrated to the towns on their own initiative, he pointed out that the only way to prevent them from doing so was by making village life more interesting.

The meeting rose at 5.55 p.m.