

***THE REALIZATION  
OF ECONOMIC, SOCIAL  
AND CULTURAL RIGHTS:  
PROBLEMS,  
POLICIES,  
PROGRESS***

*by Manouchehr Ganji  
Special Rapporteur  
of the Commission on Human Rights*



***UNITED NATIONS***





***THE REALIZATION  
OF ECONOMIC, SOCIAL  
AND CULTURAL RIGHTS:  
PROBLEMS,  
POLICIES,  
PROGRESS***

***by Manouchehr Ganji***

***Special Rapporteur***

***of the Commission on Human Rights***



***UNITED NATIONS***

***New York, 1975***

## NOTE

Symbols of United Nations documents are composed of capital letters combined with figures. Mention of such a symbol indicates a reference to a United Nations document.

The designations employed and the presentation of the material in this publication do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of the Secretariat of the United Nations concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries.

When the names of countries and territories are given in tables as they were at the time the data were established, the current name, where there has been a change, appears in square brackets following the former name.

\* \* \*

The preliminary version of this study was issued in documents E/CN.4/1108 and Add.1-10 and E/CN.4/1131 and Corr.1. Observations received from Governments of States Members of the United Nations on documents E/CN.4/1108 and Add.1-10 were issued in documents E/CN.4/1132 and Add.1.

E/CN.4/1108/Rev. 1 E/CN.4/1131/Rev. 1
--

UNITED NATIONS PUBLICATION
<i>Sales No. E.75.XIV.2</i>

Price: \$U.S. 14.00

(or equivalent in other currencies)

## PREFACE

The compilation of this study on the realization of economic, social and cultural rights, which the Commission on Human Rights asked me to prepare and which, I believe, faithfully reflects the terms of reference laid down by the Commission was governed by only one basic assumption, namely, that of the solidarity of all Governments and peoples in their agreement that the enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights is a fundamental need of mankind.

Emphasis has been placed on the countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America and the differing requirements of those countries for the actual attainment of the rights under consideration. Each of the three main parts of the study concerning conditions in the various countries throughout the world represents a separate study. Each points to different problems, situations and types of action necessary to realize those rights. Collectively, however, they reflect the universal aspirations and trends of humanity in its movement towards one and the same destiny, a movement characterized by a growing interdependence of nations and of men. The late Adlai Stevenson best summarized this internationality as follows:

“We travel together, passengers on a little space ship, dependent on its vulnerable reserves of air and soil, all committed for our safety to its security and peace; preserved from annihilation only by the care, the work, and I will say the love we give our fragile craft. We cannot maintain it, half fortunate, half miserable, half confident, half despairing, half slave—to the ancient enemies of man—half free in a liberation of resources undreamed of until this day. No craft, no crew can travel safely with such vast contradictions. On their resolution depends the survival of all.”

Manouchehr GANJI  
*February 1973*



## CONTENTS

	<i>Page</i>
EXPLANATORY NOTE.....	xv
ABBREVIATIONS.....	xvi
	<i>Paragraphs</i>
<b>Introduction</b> .....	1-22      1
<b>PART ONE</b>	
<b>National norms and standards</b>	
INTRODUCTION.....	1-8      7
<i>Chapter</i>	
I. NORMS OF A GENERAL CHARACTER.....	9      9
II. SPECIFIC RIGHTS.....	10-33      10
A. The right to work.....	14-22      10
B. The right to social security.....	23-24      14
C. The right to an adequate standard of living.....	25-26      15
D. The right to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standards of physical and mental health.....	27-29      16
E. The right of the family, motherhood and childhood to protection and assistance.....	30      16
F. The right to education.....	31      18
G. The right to participate freely in cultural life.....	32-33      19
<b>PART TWO</b>	
<b>Less developed countries</b>	
I. GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.....	1-23      23
II. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS.....	24-118      31
A. Population pressures.....	31-48      32
B. Income and income growth.....	49-94      39
C. Employment and unemployment.....	95-106      50
D. The Second United Nations Development Decade: strategic bottle-necks ...	107-118      58
III. SOCIAL CONDITIONS.....	119-219      63
A. Typology.....	121-125      63
B. Standards of living.....	126-133      64
C. Inequalities in income, wealth and opportunity.....	134-159      67
1. Africa.....	135-138      67
2. Asia.....	139-147      69
3. Latin America.....	148-157      71
4. Observations.....	158-159      78
D. Food and nutrition.....	160-164      78
E. Education.....	165-184      81
1. Literacy.....	165-169      81
2. School enrolment.....	170-177      82
3. Quality of education.....	178-184      85
F. Housing.....	185-191      86
G. Health.....	192-201      89
H. Social security.....	202-211      94
I. Youth.....	212-216      97
J. Social welfare.....	217-219      99

<i>Chapter</i>	<i>Paragraphs</i>	<i>Page</i>
IV. CULTURAL CONDITIONS.....	220-300	101
A. Some common characteristics.....	221-245	101
1. The "soft State": a pervasive feature.....	221-230	101
2. The impact of mass communication.....	231-232	102
3. National identity and national security.....	233-237	102
4. More arms, less security, more repression.....	238-243	105
5. The need for international action.....	244-245	107
B. Traditional and modern patterns and main sources of discrimination.....	246-300	107
1. The syncretic religious world: Africa south of the Sahara.....	246-258	107
2. The Islamic world: North Africa and West Asia.....	259-272	108
3. The Hindu-Buddhist world: South and East Asia.....	273-288	109
4. The Latin Catholic world: Central and South America.....	289-300	111
V. THE INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT.....	301-352	113
A. Disequilibrium and dependence in international development.....	301-308	113
B. The widening income gap between rich and poor nations in monetary and real terms.....	309-318	114
C. The continuing capital scarcity and the need for international transfers.....	319-327	116
D. The continuing repercussions of changes in international trade.....	328-334	118
E. The continuing drain of highly trained manpower.....	335-345	121
F. The need for converted international action on poverty.....	346-352	122

#### TABLES, FIGURES AND MAPS APPEARING IN PART TWO

##### Table

II.1. Less developed countries and territories: a threefold economic, social and cultural typology	26
II.2. Less developed regions: population distribution by income groups.....	31
II.3. Less developed regions: distribution of <i>per capita</i> income groups, 1971.....	32
II.4. Less developed countries and territories: population, annual growth rates, estimated population for 1971 and estimated growth rate.....	32
II.5. Projection of world population 1965-1985.....	34
II.6. Estimated and conjectured average annual birth rates, death rates, and rates of annual increase for currently more developed and less developed regions, 1960-1970, and selected periods from 1750 to 2000.....	35
II.7. Percentage age distribution in major areas of the world, 1965 and 1985 (medium variant) .	35
II.8. Estimates and conjectures of the past and future population of the world and of the currently more developed and less developed regions, in 1970 and from 1750 to 2000.....	36
II.9. Average annual population growth of the world, and of currently more developed and less developed regions, 1960-1970, and half centuries from 1750 to 2000.....	36
II.10. Estimated and projected birth rates, 1950 to 2000, in selected regions and groups of regions	37
II.11. Estimated and projected death rates, 1950 to 2000, in selected regions and groups of regions	37
II.12. Estimated and projected rates of natural increase, 1950 to 2000, in selected regions and groups of regions.....	37
II.13. Estimates of total, urban and rural population in the world, Europe, other more developed regions, and less developed regions, 1920, 1960 and 2000.....	38
II.14. Agglomerated and big city population in three major portions of the world, 1920, 1940, 1960 and 1980.....	39
II.15. Economically active population by age group in the world and in the more developed and less developed countries, as percentage of total population, 1950-1980.....	40
II.16. Percentage of male population active, 1950-1980.....	40
II.17. Percentage of female population active, 1950-1980.....	40
II.18. Less developed countries and territories: GDP by country and territory, 1960-1968.....	41
II.19. Production: rate of increase, by country, 1960-1968.....	43
II.20. Growth performance of major economic areas, 1954-1966.....	44
II.21. Growth of developing regions.....	45
II.22. Developing countries: distribution by annual rate of growth of real product, 1955-1960 and 1960-1965.....	45
II.23. Developing countries: disparities in growth rates, 1960-1967.....	45
II.24. The least developed countries.....	46

Table	Page
II.25. Less developed countries: rates of increase in production, planned and achieved, period ending 1968.....	47
II.26. Developing countries: relative performance of agriculture and manufacturing, 1960-1966	47
II.27. Selected developing countries: output contributed by the subsistence sector, 1960-1968...	48
II.28. Selected developing countries: ratio of export earnings to GDP, 1963-1967.....	49
II.29. 54 developing countries: growth rates of GDP (1960-1965), exports and imports (1959/60-1964/65).....	49
II.30. Selected developing countries: effect of terms of trade on growth of GDP, 1960-1968.....	51
II.31. Less developed countries and territories: labour participation rates by age group (percentages in each age group and of the total population).....	52
II.32. Less developed countries and territories: employment by sectors of economic activity (percentages of total labour force).....	53
II.33. Selected developing countries: recorded volume of unemployment in the 1960s.....	55
II.34. Selected developing countries: growth in population, labour force, employment and investment, around 1960.....	56
II.35. Selected less developed countries: average annual change in food production and demand, 1960-1968.....	58
II.36. Less developed countries and territories: movement in consumer prices by component, 1960-1968.....	60
II.37. Less developed countries and territories grouped by percentage rate of illiteracy of population over 15 years of age during the period 1960-1967.....	63
II.38. Developing countries and territories grouped by life expectancy at birth (1965-1970).....	64
II.39. Developing countries and territories grouped by the rate of infant mortality (deaths under one year per 1 000 live births).....	65
II.40. India: <i>per capita</i> annual consumer expenditure in different sectors of urban population in 1960-1961 and 1967-1968.....	67
II.41. India: <i>per capita</i> annual consumer expenditure in different sectors of rural and urban populations in 1960-1961 and 1967-1968.....	67
II.42. Kenya: percentage of high-level and middle-level posts filled by Kenyan citizens, 1967....	68
II.43. Kenya and Zambia: percentage of Africans in the civil service at selected dates.....	68
II.44. Southern Rhodesia: monthly earnings of Africans and non-Africans engaged in non-agricultural sectors, 1961-1965.....	68
II.45. Zambia: monthly earnings of Africans and non-Africans engaged in non-agricultural sectors, 1961-1969.....	69
II.46. Percentage shares of decile groups in personal income in selected countries.....	69
II.47. India: pattern of disposable personal income distribution among individuals.....	70
II.48. Thailand: pattern of personal income distribution (with household as income recipient unit).....	71
II.49. Latin America: averages of income distribution.....	73
II.50. Latin America: distribution of income.....	73
II.51. Latin America: percentage composition of the major income groups, by country.....	74
II.52. Percentage distribution of national income in certain Latin American countries and in 4 developed countries.....	74
II.53. Percentage distribution of the active labour force in certain Latin American countries and in 4 developed countries.....	75
II.54. Latin America: rural and urban incomes and the relative composition of the income structure of selected countries.....	76
II.55. Brazil, Venezuela and Mexico: regional incomes and the regional composition of the income structure.....	76
II.56. Brazil and Venezuela: combined regional and urban-rural composition of the income structure.....	77
II.57. Latin America: productivity estimates by sector.....	77
II.58. Latin America: the sectoral distribution of the primitive-type labour force and the composition of the labour force in each sector.....	78
II.59. Comparison of the coefficient of concentration with the annual rate of growth of <i>per capita</i> GNP in selected countries.....	78
II.60. Changes in indices of retail food prices in 104 countries, 1966-1968.....	79
II.61. Estimated <i>per capita</i> calorie and protein content of national average food supply in selected developing countries.....	79

<i>Table</i>	<i>Page</i>
II.62. Adult (15+) literacy around 1969 and 1970.....	81
II.63. Male and female adult (15+) literacy around 1960 and 1970.....	82
II.64. Daily newspaper publication in the less developed countries.....	83
II.65. Estimated total pupil enrolment by level of education, 1960/61 and 1967/68.....	84
II.66. School enrolment ratios by level of education, 1960/61 and 1967/68.....	84
II.67. Urban households and dwellings, early 1960s.....	87
II.68. Rural housing in selected countries and territories.....	89
II.69. Selected data on slums and uncontrolled settlements.....	90
II.70. Death rate, infant mortality rate and life expectancy in less developed countries, 1960–1968	91
II.71. Number of physicians, dentists, nurses and hospital beds, by WHO region, 1960, 1964 and 1967.....	93
II.72. Ratio of physicians and nurses per 10 000 population, 1965–1968.....	95
II.73. Social security in selected African countries.....	96
II.74. Percentage distribution of government expenditure by functional classification for selected countries and territories in Asia.....	98
II.75. Percentage distribution of government expenditure by functional classification for selected countries in Africa.....	99
II.76. Less developed countries and territories: mass communication media.....	103
II.77. GNP, military expenditure and public expenditure on education and health, 1968.....	106
II.78. Indians in the population of Latin America.....	111
II.79. Distribution of world population and incomes, 1938 and 1961.....	114
II.80. GNP <i>per capita</i> at market prices (1970) and average annual growth rate (1960–1970).....	115
II.81. GDP in 1970 and average annual rate of increase (percentage) from 1961 to 1970 in various categories of countries.....	116
II.82. Consumption: <i>per capita</i> level, 1967, and rate of increase, 1960–1968.....	117
II.83. Trade balance and changes in reserves of developing countries, 1960–1967.....	118
II.84. Debt service as percentage of gross lending, 1965–1967 and 1977.....	118
II.85. Trade between developing countries and the rest of the world, 1960–1969.....	119
II.86. Developing countries: export unit value of trade with the developed market economies, 1960–1969.....	119
II.87. Developed countries: imports from developing countries, 1968.....	120
II.88. Net transfer of resources to less developed countries from major market economies and multilateral agencies, 1962–1969.....	123
II.89. Developed market economies: resource transfer performance, 1961–1969.....	124
II.90. Centrally planned economies: commitments of bilateral economic assistance to the develop- ing countries.....	124

#### *Figure*

1. Selected Latin American and selected Western industrialized countries: coefficients of concentration.....	71
2. Selected Latin American and selected Western industrialized countries: percentage of the population in income groups expressed in terms of the national average.....	72
3. Selected Latin American and selected Western industrialized countries: incomes of various groups compared with the national average.....	72

#### *Maps*

Gross national product <i>per capita</i> (1970):	
Africa.....	127
Central and South America.....	128
Asia.....	129
Oceania and Indonesia.....	130

### PART THREE

#### The Socialist countries of eastern Europe

INTRODUCTION.....	<i>Paragraphs</i> 1–7	133
<i>Chapter</i>		
I. THE RIGHT TO WORK.....	8–246	134
A. Labour and the planned economy.....	8–25	134



<i>Chapter</i>	<i>Paragraphs</i>	<i>Page</i>
B. The right to free choice of employment.....	26-95	137
C. The right to just and favourable conditions of work.....	96-128	145
D. The right to protection against unemployment.....	129-163	148
E. The right of everyone who works to just and favourable remuneration ensuring a decent living for himself and his family.....	164-198	151
F. The right of everyone, without discrimination of any kind, to equal pay for equal work.....	199-211	156
G. The right to rest, leisure, reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay.....	212-230	157
H. The right to form trade unions and to join the trade union of one's choice...	231-243	159
I. The right to strike.....	244-245	161
J. Summary.....	246	161
II. THE RIGHT TO SOCIAL SECURITY, INCLUDING SOCIAL INSURANCE IN THE EVENT OF UNEMPLOYMENT, SICKNESS, DISABILITY, WIDOWHOOD, OLD AGE OR OTHER LACK OF LIVELIHOOD IN CIRCUMSTANCES BEYOND ONE'S CONTROL.....	247-318	162
III. THE RIGHT TO AN ADEQUATE STANDARD OF LIVING.....	319-367	169
A. The right to adequate food.....	319-326	169
B. The right to adequate clothing and housing.....	327-346	170
C. The right to necessary social services.....	347-352	174
D. The right to continuous improvement in living conditions.....	353-367	175
IV. THE RIGHT TO THE ENJOYMENT OF THE HIGHEST ATTAINABLE STANDARD OF PHYSICAL AND MENTAL HEALTH.....	368-420	178
A. Reduction of the still-birth rate and infant mortality and measures for the healthy development of the child.....	368-388	178
B. The improvement of all aspects of environmental and industrial hygiene....	389-397	181
C. The prevention, treatment, and control of epidemic, occupational and other diseases.....	398-399	182
D. The creation of conditions ensuring medical service and medical attention for all in the event of sickness.....	400-420	182
V. THE RIGHT OF THE FAMILY, MOTHERHOOD AND CHILDHOOD TO PROTECTION AND ASSISTANCE.....	421-477	186
A. The right of the family to protection and assistance.....	427-437	186
B. The right of mothers to special care and assistance.....	438-453	187
C. The right of children and young persons to special care and assistance.....	454-477	189
VI. THE RIGHT TO EDUCATION.....	478-528	192
A. The right to free primary education.....	483-495	192
B. The right to equal access to higher education on the basis of capacity.....	496-526	194
1. Secondary education.....	496-506	194
2. Post-secondary education.....	507-526	196
C. The right of parents to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.....	527-528	198

#### TABLES APPEARING IN PART THREE

<i>Table</i>	
III.1. Socialist countries of eastern Europe: growth of employment.....	135
III.2. Percentage of population in rural areas and average annual growth rate of industrial employment in the 1950s and 1960s, for the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in certain Western countries.....	135
III.3. Socialist countries of eastern Europe: percentage of agricultural land outside the state and co-operative sectors, 1955, 1960 and 1970, and percentage of large-horned cattle privately owned, 1970.....	136
III.4. Socialist countries of eastern Europe: average annual growth in gross output (percentage)	137
III.5. Socialist countries of eastern Europe: distribution of population among different social groups.....	139
III.6. Socialist countries of eastern Europe: average monthly wages in national currencies and average growth rate of monthly wages in percentages (various years).....	154

<i>Table</i>	<i>Page</i>
III.7. Socialist countries of eastern Europe: index numbers and growth rates of real wages of employed persons (various years).....	154
III.8. Percentage distribution of workers and employed persons by monthly income bracket in certain socialist countries of eastern Europe (various years).....	155
III.9. Real income per head of population in certain socialist countries of eastern Europe (indices and percentage changes).....	157
III.10. Consumption of calories and proteins per head of population per day in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in certain Western countries (middle and late 1960s)....	169
III.11. Yearly consumption or available food supplies per head of population in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in certain Western countries (various years).....	170
III.12. USSR: <i>per capita</i> food consumption, 1968.....	170
III.13. Socialist countries of eastern Europe: production and retail sales of textiles, clothing and footwear per head of population (1950, 1960 and 1970).....	171
III.14. Dwellings completed, useful dwelling space and stock of dwellings in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in certain Western countries (various years).....	172
III.15. Percentage of dwellings provided with certain amenities, in various socialist countries of eastern Europe (various years).....	174
III.16. Number of appliances in operation per 1 000 inhabitants, 1959 and 1968, in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in certain Western countries.....	175
III.17. Socialist countries of eastern Europe: national income per head of population and proportion devoted to consumption.....	175
III.18. Socialist countries of eastern Europe: average annual percentage growth rates in national income <i>per capita</i> and private consumption <i>per capita</i> , 1951-1968, at constant prices.....	176
III.19. Mortality rates per 1 000 live births in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in certain Western countries.....	179
III.20. Number of hospital beds, doctors and dentists per 10 000 inhabitants, in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in other countries and territories (various years).....	183
III.21. Life expectancy at birth (years) prior to the Second World War and in the late 1960s in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in certain Western countries.....	184
III.22. Data on compulsory and general education in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in certain Western countries (various years).....	193
III.23. Data on secondary education in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in certain Western countries (various years).....	195
III.24. Number of students in higher educational establishments per 10 000 inhabitants in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in certain Western countries.....	196

## PART FOUR

### The developed market-economy countries

<i>Chapter</i>	<i>Paragraphs</i>	
I. GENERAL.....	1-18	201
II. WORK.....	19-58	207
A. Employment security.....	20-31	207
B. Wages.....	32-45	209
C. Hours.....	46-47	213
D. Health and safety.....	48-50	214
E. Intrinsic job qualities.....	51-54	215
F. Trade union rights.....	55-58	219
III. EQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY.....	59-78	220
A. Social mobility.....	60-64	220
B. The role of education.....	65-70	220
C. The role of family circumstances.....	71-74	221
D. Limits to the equalization of opportunity.....	75-78	221
IV. SOCIAL SECURITY.....	79-110	223
A. Family allowances.....	80-84	223
B. Old-age pensions.....	85-89	224
C. Unemployment insurance.....	90-92	225
D. Medical, sickness, disability, and maternity benefits.....	93-102	227
E. Social security and income redistribution.....	103-110	229

<i>Chapter</i>	<i>Paragraphs</i>	<i>Page</i>
V. FOREIGN WORKERS.....	111-129	234
VI. STANDARDS OF CONSUMPTION AND HEALTH.....	130-160	238
A. Nutrition.....	135-138	238
B. Housing.....	139-147	240
C. Infant and child health.....	148-152	242
D. The problem of air pollution.....	153-155	242
E. Health care.....	156-160	243

#### TABLES APPEARING IN PART FOUR

##### *Table*

IV.1. Developed market-economy countries: population and vital statistics.....	202
IV.2. Estimated rates and average annual amounts of natural increase, 1960-1965 and 1965-1970, in major areas and regions of the world.....	203
IV.3. Estimates of expectation of life at birth, 1965-1970, in major areas and regions of the world.....	204
IV.4. Developed market-economy countries: <i>per capita</i> income in 1969.....	204
IV.5. Over-all social and economic trends by selected indicators for North America, Australia and New Zealand.....	206
IV.6. Percentage unemployment rates in selected developed market-economy countries, 1960-1969.....	207
IV.7. One concept of unemployment: Sweden, 1966.....	208
IV.8. One concept of unemployment: United States of America, 1969.....	208
IV.9. Unemployment by sex in selected developed market-economy countries, 1969.....	209
IV.10. United States of America: unemployment rates by colour, 1955-1969.....	209
IV.11. Average hourly wages in non-agricultural sectors, in local currencies and United States dollars, in selected developed market-economy countries, 1970.....	210
IV.12. Average hourly money wages and real wages (at 1963 prices) in non-agricultural sectors in selected developed market-economy countries.....	210
IV.13. Hourly wage rates in non-agricultural sectors, by sex, in selected developed market-economy countries, 1961 and 1970.....	211
IV.14. Sweden: income from full-time and full-year employment, by sex, 1966.....	211
IV.15. United States of America: percentage distribution of families by income level, by years of school completed and race of head of family, 1969.....	212
IV.16. United States of America: percentage distribution of all husband-wife families and median earnings of husband in 1969, 1965 and 1959 (in constant 1969 dollars) by selected occupation group and race of head of family.....	214
IV.17. Average working hours per week in manufacturing industries in selected developed market-economy countries, 1961-1970.....	216
IV.18. Percentage of manufacturing workers at work for 49 hours per week or more in selected developed market-economy countries, 1961-1970.....	216
IV.19. Developed market-economy countries: accident rates by country and industry, 1961-1970.....	217
IV.20. Dates on which the first statutory social security schemes were set up in selected developed market-economy countries.....	223
IV.21. The structure of social security benefits (percentages) in selected developed market-economy countries, 1960.....	224
IV.22. The coverage of statutory pension insurance schemes in selected developed market-economy countries.....	225
IV.23. United States of America: maximum weekly benefit amount in unemployment insurance schemes, by state, in 1939, 1963 and 1968.....	226
IV.24. United States of America: total unemployment and insured unemployment, by state, in 1968.....	227
IV.25. Percentage of population covered by medical insurance in selected developed market-economy countries.....	229
IV.26. Percentage of economically active population protected for cash sickness benefit in selected developed market-economy countries.....	229
IV.27. Social security contributions in selected developed market-economy countries, 1960.....	230
IV.28. Breakdown of tax receipts in selected European countries (percentages), 1953-1964.....	230
IV.29. Total short-term social security benefits as a percentage of earnings in selected European countries.....	232

<i>Table</i>	<i>Page</i>
IV.30. Federal Republic of Germany and Sweden: foreign workers and total employment . . . . .	235
IV.31. Average income, calorie and protein consumption and life expectancy in developed market-economy countries . . . . .	239
IV.32. United States of America: percentage of sample having deficient haemoglobin values in five low-income states . . . . .	239
IV.33. United States of America: substandard housing by race, income and location of residence	240
IV.34. Infant (under one year) mortality rates in developed market-economy countries (per thousand live births), 1948, 1959 and 1970 . . . . .	242

## PART FIVE

### International action for the protection and promotion of economic, social and cultural rights

	<i>Paragraphs</i>	
INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1-5	247
<i>Chapter</i>		
I. UNITED NATIONS . . . . .	6-107	248
A. Organs concerned with the formulation of standards . . . . .	7-51	248
1. General Assembly . . . . .	8-10	248
2. Economic and Social Council . . . . .	11-14	248
3. Commission on Human Rights . . . . .	15-17	248
4. Commission on the Status of Women . . . . .	18-20	249
5. Commission for Social Development . . . . .	21	249
6. Committee for Development Planning . . . . .	22	249
7. Advisory Committee on the Application of Science and Technology to Development . . . . .	23	249
8. Committee on Review and Appraisal . . . . .	24	249
9. United Nations Industrial Development Organization . . . . .	25-33	249
10. United Nations Conference on Trade and Development . . . . .	34-44	250
11. United Nations Development Programme . . . . .	45-49	251
12. Conferences of plenipotentiaries . . . . .	50-51	251
B. International instruments and machinery for implementation . . . . .	52-74	252
1. Charter of the United Nations . . . . .	52-53	252
2. International bill of rights . . . . .	54-58	252
3. Conventions concerning refugees and stateless persons . . . . .	59-60	253
4. Other instruments . . . . .	61-68	253
5. Machinery for implementation . . . . .	69-74	254
C. Promotional activities . . . . .	75-83	255
1. Human Rights Day . . . . .	77	255
2. Anniversaries of the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights . . . . .	78	255
3. Designation of 1968 as International Year for Human Rights . . . . .	79-81	255
4. Designation of 1971 as International Year to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination . . . . .	82	256
5. International Education Year . . . . .	83	256
D. Substantive and sectoral concerns . . . . .	84-90	256
E. Advisory services . . . . .	91-97	257
F. United Nations Children's Fund . . . . .	98-107	258
II. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION . . . . .	108-199	260
A. Organs concerned with the formulation of standards . . . . .	119-120	261
B. International instruments and machinery for implementation . . . . .	121-138	261
1. Instruments of a general character . . . . .	121-124	261
2. Machinery for implementation . . . . .	125-138	261
C. Specific rights . . . . .	139-190	262
1. The right to work . . . . .	139-169	262
2. The right to social security . . . . .	170-181	265
3. The right to an adequate standard of living . . . . .	182	266
4. The right to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standards of physical and mental health . . . . .	183	266
5. The right of the family, motherhood and childhood to protection and assistance . . . . .	184-188	266
6. The right to education . . . . .	189	267
7. The right to participate in cultural life . . . . .	190	267
D. Promotional activities . . . . .	191-195	267
E. Advisory and assistance services . . . . .	196-199	267

<i>Chapter</i>	<i>Paragraphs</i>	<i>Page</i>
III. FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS . . . . .	200–205	269
IV. UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION . . .	206–269	270
A. Organs concerned with the formulation of standards . . . . .	211	270
B. General instruments and machinery for implementation . . . . .	212–214	270
C. Specific rights . . . . .	215–240	270
1. The right to education . . . . .	215–230	270
2. The right to participate freely in cultural and scientific life . . . . .	231–240	271
D. Promotional activities . . . . .	241–253	272
1. Education . . . . .	243–247	272
2. Culture . . . . .	248–252	273
3. Science . . . . .	253	273
E. Advisory and development assistance services . . . . .	254–269	273
1. Education . . . . .	254–258	273
2. Culture . . . . .	259–261	273
3. Copyright . . . . .	262–266	273
4. Science . . . . .	267–269	274
V. WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION . . . . .	270–275	275
VI. INTERNATIONAL BANK FOR RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT . . . . .	276–280	276
VII. OTHER ORGANIZATIONS OF THE UNITED NATIONS SYSTEM . . . . .	281–283	277
VIII. WORLD INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY ORGANIZATION . . . . .	284–297	278
A. International instruments and their implementation . . . . .	287–295	278
1. Industrial property . . . . .	288–290	278
2. Cultural property . . . . .	291–295	278
B. Promotional activities . . . . .	296	279
C. Advisory and assistance services . . . . .	297	279
IX. ORGANIZATION OF AMERICAN STATES . . . . .	298–323	280
A. Normative action . . . . .	299–312	280
1. American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man . . . . .	299	280
2. Inter-American Charter of Social Guarantees . . . . .	300–311	280
3. American Convention on Human Rights . . . . .	312	281
B. Institutional action . . . . .	313–319	281
1. Inter-American Commission on Human Rights . . . . .	313–317	281
2. Inter-American Commission of Women . . . . .	318–319	281
C. Promotional action and advisory services . . . . .	320–323	281
X. COUNCIL OF EUROPE . . . . .	324–340	282
A. Regional instruments and implementation machinery . . . . .	324–337	282
B. Promotional activities . . . . .	338–340	283
XI. LEAGUE OF ARAB STATES . . . . .	341–353	284
A. Regional standards and instruments . . . . .	342–348	284
1. The right to work . . . . .	342–344	284
2. The right to an adequate standard of living . . . . .	345	284
3. The right to education . . . . .	346–347	284
4. The right to participate freely in cultural life . . . . .	348	284
B. Promotional activities . . . . .	349–353	284
XII. CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS ON INTERNATIONAL AND REGIONAL ACTION . . . . .	354–371	286
A. Scope . . . . .	355–357	286
B. Mode of operation . . . . .	358–364	286
1. Standard-setting . . . . .	359–361	286
2. Promotional activities . . . . .	362–363	286
3. Advisory services . . . . .	364	286
C. Implementation . . . . .	365–371	287



## PART SIX

### Observations, conclusions and recommendations

<i>Chapter</i>	<i>Paragraphs</i>	<i>Page</i>
I. OBSERVATIONS.....	1-33	291
II. CONCLUSIONS.....	34-168	295
A. General.....	34-54	295
B. Particular aspects.....	55-168	297
1. Unified national development planning.....	55-75	297
2. Poverty.....	76-80	299
3. Land reform.....	81-82	300
4. Employment policy.....	83-86	300
5. Population.....	87-91	301
6. Education.....	92-97	301
7. Health protection.....	98	302
8. Culture.....	99-106	302
9. Housing.....	107-113	303
10. The human environment.....	114-121	304
11. Participation.....	122-123	304
12. Technological knowledge and technical skill.....	124-131	304
13. Transfer of technology.....	132-138	305
14. Child and family welfare.....	139-140	305
15. Consumer rights.....	141	306
16. Tax reform.....	142-143	306
17. Use of armed forces.....	144	306
18. The role of value systems in development.....	145-146	306
19. The role of law in development.....	147-151	306
20. The role of statistics in development.....	152	307
21. The role of trade in development.....	153-158	307
22. The role of disarmament in development.....	159-162	307
23. Obligations of States with respect to development.....	163-164	308
24. International obligations for development.....	165-168	308
III. RECOMMENDATIONS.....	169	310

## ANNEXES

### *Annex*

I. Questionnaires sent by the Special Rapporteur to States Members of the United Nations and members of the specialized agencies.....	315
A. Questionnaire on economic, social and cultural rights.....	315
B. Questionnaire on the realization of economic, social and cultural rights in socialist countries.....	316
C. Questionnaire on the realization of economic, social and cultural rights in the developing countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America.....	321
II. Status of international instruments relating to economic, social and cultural rights (ratifications and accessions as at 31 December 1972).....	325

## **EXPLANATORY NOTE**

The following symbols have been used in the tables throughout this study:

Two dots ( . . ) indicate that data are not available or are not separately reported.

A long dash (—) indicates that the amount is nil or negligible.

A minus sign (–) indicates a deficit or a decrease.

An oblique stroke (/) between two dates representing years (e.g. 1960/61) denotes a period of 12 months comprising a crop year, a fiscal or financial year or a scholastic year.

A short dash (–) between two dates representing years (e.g. 1961–1963) signifies the full period involved, including the beginning and end years.

Reference to “dollars” indicates United States dollars unless otherwise stated.

Thousands and millions are separated by a space (1 234 567).

## ABBREVIATIONS

AfDB	African Development Bank
AsDB	Asian Development Bank
c.i.f.	cost, insurance and freight
CMEA	Council for Mutual Economic Assistance
ECAFE	Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East
ECE	Economic Commission for Europe
EDF	European Development Fund
EIB	European Investment Bank
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
f.o.b.	free on board
GDP	gross domestic product
GNP	gross national product
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
IDA	International Development Association
IDB	Inter-American Development Bank
IFC	International Finance Corporation
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMCO	Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ITU	International Telecommunication Union
OAS	Organization of American States
OAU	Organization of African Unity
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OPEC	Organization of Petroleum-Exporting Countries
SITC	Standard International Trade Classification
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFC	United Nations Fund for the Congo
UNFPA	United Nations Fund for Population Activities
UNHCR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organization
UNRWA	United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East
UPU	Universal Postal Union
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organization
WIPO	World Intellectual Property Organization
WMO	World Meteorological Organization



## INTRODUCTION

1. At its twenty-fourth session, the Commission on Human Rights, convinced that further measures were needed to attain the complete realization of economic and social rights, adopted resolution 11 (XXIV) of 6 March 1968 entitled "Study of the question of the realization of economic and social rights contained in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights",<sup>1</sup> in which it requested the Secretary-General to prepare, in consultation with interested specialized agencies, a preliminary study of issues relating to the implementation of economic and social rights contained in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights<sup>2</sup> and in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights,<sup>3</sup> with a view to submitting it to the Commission in time for its consideration at the twenty-fifth session. The Commission also decided to consider at its twenty-fifth session the question of the appointment of a Special Rapporteur to be entrusted with the task of preparing a comprehensive report on the issues involved, on the basis of the preliminary study, the discussions in the Commission and other available material.

2. The International Conference on Human Rights, held at Teheran in April/May 1968, in resolution XXI of 12 May 1968 entitled "Realization of economic, social and cultural rights",<sup>4</sup> welcomed the action of the Commission on Human Rights at its twenty-fourth session in studying the realization of the economic and social rights provided for in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

3. At its twenty-fifth session in 1969, the Commission on Human Rights had before it a preliminary study, prepared by the Secretary-General, of issues relating to the realization of economic and social rights contained in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.<sup>5</sup> The Commission considered the question together with an item concerning the study of special problems relating to human rights in developing countries.

4. By resolution 14 (XXV) of 13 March 1969, entitled "Question of the realization of the economic and social rights contained in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, and study of special problems relating to human rights in developing countries",<sup>6</sup> the Commission appointed the Special Rapporteur and asked

him to submit, at the Commission's twenty-seventh session, "a comprehensive report, together with his conclusions and recommendations, including the question of the role of the Commission in this respect, on the realization, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinions, national or social origin, property, birth or other status, of economic, social and cultural rights set forth in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, taking particular account of the special problems of the developing countries in this regard".

5. The Economic and Social Council, in its resolution 1421 (XLVI) of 6 June 1969 confirmed the appointment of the Special Rapporteur made by the Commission and invited States Members of the United Nations and members of the specialized agencies to provide full co-operation to the Special Rapporteur in the fulfilment of his task. The Economic and Social Council also invited the full co-operation of the specialized agencies, intergovernmental organizations and the various organs and bodies of the United Nations concerned, as well as non-governmental organizations in consultative status with the Economic and Social Council.

6. The question of the realization of the economic, social and cultural rights contained in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the study of special problems relating to human rights in developing countries was further considered at the twenty-sixth, twenty-seventh and twenty-eighth sessions of the Commission on Human Rights. At the Commission's twenty-sixth session, the Special Rapporteur informed the Commission of the magnitude of the task and the probable need for the extension of the deadline for the final submission of his report.

7. On the recommendation of the Commission on Human Rights in resolutions adopted at its twenty-sixth<sup>7</sup> and twenty-seventh<sup>8</sup> sessions, the Economic and Social Council in resolutions 1502 (XLVIII) of 27 May 1970 and 1595 (L) of 21 May 1971 requested the Special Rapporteur to submit his report to the Commission on Human Rights not later than at its twenty-eighth session in 1972. The Council, in resolution 1595 (L), also requested the Special Rapporteur, while preparing his study, to take into account the provisions of General Assembly resolutions 2542 (XXIV), containing the Declaration on Social Progress and Development, and 2543 (XXIV), on the implementation of that Declaration, which had been adopted since the study had been authorized.

<sup>1</sup> *Official Records of the Economic and Social Council, Forty-fourth Session, Supplement No. 4 (E/4475), chap. XVIII, p. 155.*

<sup>2</sup> General Assembly resolution 217 A (III), reproduced in *Human Rights: A Compilation of International Instruments of the United Nations* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.73.XIV.2), p. 1.

<sup>3</sup> See General Assembly resolution 2200 A (XXI), also reproduced in *Human Rights: A Compilation . . .*, p. 3.

<sup>4</sup> *Final Act of the International Conference on Human Rights Teheran, 22 April to 13 May 1968* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.68.XIV.2), chap. III, p. 16.

<sup>5</sup> E/CN.4/988 and Add.1.

<sup>6</sup> *Official Records of the Economic and Social Council, Forty-sixth Session (E/4621), chap. XVIII, p. 188.*

<sup>7</sup> Resolution 11 (XXVI), adopted on 24 March 1970 (*Official Records of the Economic and Social Council, Forty-eighth Session, Supplement No. 5 (E/4816), chap. XXIII, p. 83.*)

<sup>8</sup> Resolution 17 (XXVII), adopted on 25 March 1971 (*Official Records of the Economic and Social Council, Fiftieth Session, Supplement No. 4 (E/4949), chap. XIX, p. 93.*)

8. On the recommendation of the Commission,<sup>9</sup> the Economic and Social Council in resolution 1689 (LII) of 2 June 1972 urged the Special Rapporteur to complete his study and to submit the final report to the Commission on Human Rights at its twenty-ninth session in 1973.

9. In the same resolution, the Economic and Social Council urged once again those Governments and specialized agencies that had not yet done so to submit, as requested in Council resolutions 1421 (XLVI) and 1502 (XLVIII), information on the effectiveness of the methods and means used by them in the realization of economic, social and cultural rights, so that the Special Rapporteur might utilize the information as he deemed appropriate.<sup>10</sup>

10. As at 14 December 1972, such information had been received by the Secretariat from the Governments of Argentina, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic, Canada, Cyprus, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Ecuador, Finland, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Hungary, Greece, India, Iran, Iraq, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, the Khmer Republic, Kuwait, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Maldives, Malta, Mauritius, Mongolia, the Netherlands, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Pakistan, Panama, Peru, the Philippines, Poland, the Republic of Korea, the Republic of Viet-Nam, Rwanda, Senegal, Singapore, Somalia, Switzerland, Turkey, the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Republic of Cameroon, and the United States of America, as well as from the International Labour Organisation, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, the World Health Organization, the International Monetary Fund, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, the Universal Postal Union, the International Telecommunication Union, the World Meteorological Organization, and the Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization.

11. To solicit further statistical and other sources of information needed for the preparation of the study, the Special Rapporteur dispatched a general questionnaire to all States Members of the United Nations and members of the specialized agencies. This questionnaire was sent out in November 1971. Two other questionnaires, one intended solely for the socialist countries and the other for the less developed countries, were dispatched to the countries concerned in February and April 1972, respectively.<sup>11</sup>

12. As at 14 December 1972, replies to these questionnaires had been received from the Governments of the following 47 States Members of the United Nations and members of specialized agencies: Argentina, Austria, Brazil, Bulgaria, the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic, Canada, the Central African Republic, Denmark, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Fiji, Finland, Greece, Honduras, India, Iran, Iraq, Italy, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Kuwait, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malaysia, Malta,

Morocco, the Netherlands, Philippines, Poland, the Republic of Viet-Nam, Romania, Rwanda, Singapore, Somalia, Sri Lanka, Switzerland, the Syrian Arab Republic, Thailand, Trinidad and Tobago, Turkey, the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, the United States of America, Venezuela, Western Samoa.

13. The special Rapporteur wishes to express his appreciation to all the Governments which have submitted replies to the questionnaires.

14. In order to consult responsible officials of the regional economic commissions, particularly those directly concerned with issues relating to the economic and social situation and development in their respective regions, as well as to acquire on-the-spot knowledge of the prevailing situation with respect to economic, social and cultural rights in different parts of the world, the Special Rapporteur travelled to the headquarters of all the regional economic commissions, to seven Asian countries, to seven Latin American countries, to eight African countries, to five socialist countries and to eight Western or other countries. There were two other countries which he was unable to visit because he did not receive entry permits in time. The countries were selected by the Special Rapporteur so as to represent more or less the prevailing economic and social conditions in the region or area concerned. The Special Rapporteur was warmly received in all the countries visited and wishes to express his gratitude to the Governments of those countries for their assistance, which made his stay in each country most profitable and instructive. The interest, zeal and full co-operation of the various United Nations offices situated in these countries also contributed to the success of his mission. Mention should be made particularly of the assistance rendered by the UNDP resident representatives' offices, the representatives of the specialized agencies concerned and the United Nations information centres, which enabled him to make the fullest use of the time available to him.

15. The Special Rapporteur was able to stay only a very short time in each country, for reasons of economy. His visits to all 35 countries were completed in 108 days. The total distance covered by air alone was in the neighbourhood of 110,000 miles.

16. In each country, meetings were held with officials of ministries or other government offices responsible for matters concerned with health, education, labour, social insurance and welfare, housing, and urban and rural development in general. In addition, meetings were held with economic and social planners of the countries concerned. In some countries, meetings were also held with ministers whose work was particularly concerned with the promotion and protection of economic, social and cultural rights. In countries visited in Asia, Africa and Latin America, meetings were also held with United Nations experts and agency representatives who had served in those countries for some time and had a good knowledge of the prevailing situation and the plans for development in their respective fields. In some countries, visits were also arranged to farms, factories, universities, urban and, in very few cases, rural schools, crèches, kindergartens, day-care centres, clinics, hospitals, department stores and market places. Only in a few cases did the Special Rapporteur have enough time to visit more than one city or province of the country concerned.

<sup>9</sup> Resolution 5 (XXVIII), adopted on 28 March 1972 (*Official Records of the Economic and Social Council, Fifty-second Session, Supplement No. 7 (E/5113), chap. XIII, p. 54*).

<sup>10</sup> Information received from Governments and specialized agencies in response to this request is reproduced in documents E/CN.4/1023 and Add.1-3, Add.3/Corr.1 and Add.4-6.

<sup>11</sup> For the text of the questionnaires, see annex I to the present study.

17. In all, the Special Rapporteur met with more than 1,000 officials directly concerned with the promotion and protection of the economic and social rights of the people of the countries visited.

18. One important side effect of these meetings was the guidance furnished to the officials concerned in completing the questionnaires, in cases where this had not yet been done. The meetings also provided an opportunity for the Special Rapporteur to gather a large amount of statistical material and other relevant information.

19. This on-the-spot observation and consultation helped to rectify at least some of the misconceptions that might otherwise have been reflected in the study. This is in no way to say that the study does not have shortcomings; there is always room for improvement. However, it should be borne in mind that this is the first time in the history of the United Nations that a report of this magnitude and nature has been prepared from the human rights point of view and that much innovation and improvisation was necessary in an area in which United Nations activities are directed and carried out by numerous organs, autonomous and semi-autonomous bodies and specialized agencies. Therefore, no attempt is made to be complete and comprehensive in this survey. Apart from some information that appears in part three, the Special Rapporteur regrets the fact that conditions regarding trade union rights and the right to strike are not covered in the study.<sup>12</sup>

<sup>12</sup> For a comprehensive survey of the position regarding the application of ILO conventions on freedom of association, the right to organize and collective bargaining, reference may be made to International Labour Conference, 58th session, 1973, *Freedom of Association and Collective Bargaining*, General Survey of the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations, report III (part 4B) (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1973).

20. The Special Rapporteur wishes to express his gratitude and appreciation to those who acted as consultants in the preparation of the study, in particular Professor Francis Seton of Oxford University, Professor Stephen A. Marglin of Harvard University, Mr. Reza Doroudian of Plan Organization (Iran) and Mr. Henri Reymond. An expression of the Special Rapporteur's appreciation is also due to all others who assisted him in the performance of his task, including officials of the regional economic commissions, specialized agencies and various offices of the United Nations.

21. To prepare the revised text of his observations, conclusions and recommendations, the Special Rapporteur visited the headquarters of the regional economic commissions and of the ILO, WHO, UNCTAD, UNRISD, UNESCO, FAC, IBRD, UNICEF and various offices in the United Nations system, for the purpose of further consultations and exchanges of views.

22. The general outline of the study is as follows. Part one is limited to a brief review of constitutional provisions; it therefore gives only an incomplete picture of national norms and standards governing the realization of economic, social and cultural rights. This part should certainly be supplemented, in the future, by a more comprehensive study. Parts two, three and four deal with economic, social and cultural rights in the less developed countries, in socialist countries, and in the countries with developed market economies, respectively. Part five concerns international action taken for the promotion and protection of economic, social and cultural rights. Part six contains the Special Rapporteur's conclusions, observations and recommendations. The annexes include texts of questionnaires sent to Governments, and an indication of the number of ratifications of and accessions to international instruments relating to economic, social and cultural rights.



## **Part One**

### **NATIONAL NORMS AND STANDARDS**





## INTRODUCTION

1. This part of the study, which deals solely with the national norms and standards governing the realization of economic, social and cultural rights, is limited to constitutional aspects. To be complete, it should have extended to the legislation in force in the various countries. Such a task, however, would have vastly exceeded the scope and space allotted to this study, the purpose of which is to present the fundamental features of an extremely complex situation. Moreover, new and comprehensive reports would have been required from Governments to bring up to date and to a comparable level the information previously communicated to the Commission on Human Rights.<sup>1</sup> Attempts were made to make use of this information without requesting further data from Governments, but they showed clearly that, in the absence of a fresh, full-scale inquiry based on detailed questionnaires, the result would have proved to be uneven, outdated and altogether unsatisfactory.

2. Constitutions, on the other had, by the very fact that they are designed to proclaim fundamental rules, provide a more permanent basis for an assessment of the place occupied by economic, social and cultural rights in the countries' legal systems. In many cases, they reveal a high degree of solicitude for the respect of these rights. This is particularly true of the charters formulated in the middle of the twentieth century. The provisions on human rights incorporated in earlier constitutions, with a few exceptions in the early twentieth century, were mainly concerned with rights of a civil and political character. It is only relatively recently that attention has been given to economic, social and cultural rights as such, and not simply as a by-product of civil and political rights. It is of interest to note here that, for historical reasons, the less-developed countries, particularly those which have recently acquired independence, are strongly represented in this category. The adoption in 1948 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights had, of course, a powerful effect on the trend towards treating economic, social and cultural rights as a legitimate subject of constitutional action, but even before then a number of countries had felt the need to include in their fundamental charters principles governing the matters now covered by the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. Among the enactments prior to the Second World War may be mentioned the Political Constitution of the United Mexican States of 1917; the Declaration of the Rights of the Labouring and Exploited Masses of 16 January 1918, which became part of the Constitution of the Russian Socialist Federal Soviet Republic of 10 July 1918; the General Principles set forth in that Constitution (subsequently superseded by the Constitution of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic of 1937); the Weimar Constitution of Germany

of 1919; the Constitution of the Spanish Republic of 1931; the 1936 Constitution of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and the Constitution of Ireland of 1937.

3. The view made here is purely factual and descriptive. It does not cover the application of the norms referred to, and no attempt is made to evaluate their effectiveness. This limitation needs to be underlined. In other parts of the study, however, information is provided on situations involving their application. Inasmuch as many of the rights concerned are in the nature of policy objectives whose realization can only be gradual, depending as it does on economic and social advances, their impact on national life can be more correctly ascertained from an analysis of their actual implementation—which appears in other parts of the study—than by a scrutiny of their legal substance. The exploration of constitutional and similar measures must be conceived merely as a background to the main task of assessing the extent to which the economic, social and cultural rights proclaimed in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights are effectively put into practice. It should accordingly not be assumed that mention of a norm here necessarily means that it has been translated into reality, or, on the contrary, that its absence from the constitution is necessarily a sign of inaction.

4. But there are other limitations. A review of the economic and social developments that condition the realization of economic, social and cultural rights would by far exceed the scope of this part of the study. Furthermore, the rights set forth in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights do not all lend themselves to a legalistic approach. Some of them can only be expressed in actual policies or in social attitudes. The right to the continuous improvement of living conditions, for example, is no doubt subscribed to by all countries, but it is ensured by the determination of the community that all its members should share in economic progress rather than by legal statutes. By contrast, the right to social security can hardly be enjoyed in the absence of concrete provisions of a legal character.

5. It should also be remembered that in some "common law" countries, individual rights are assumed, and constitutional and other similar measures, when needed, are designed to protect them against abuses rather than to affirm their existence. Situations of this kind can be found, for example, in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Canada, Australia and New Zealand.

6. The situation of federal States also raises problems. Many of the powers needed to give effect to economic, social and cultural rights may be vested in the component States, as in the United States of America, and remain outside the purview of the federal authorities. On the other hand, legislation reported for the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is applicable also to the Byelorussian and the

<sup>1</sup> Notably in documents E/CN.4/1011 and Add.1-20, E/CN.4/1012 and Add.1, E/CN.4/1023 and Add.1-3, Add.3/Corr.1 and Add.4-7, E/CN.4/1024 and Add.1-4, and E/CN.4/1025 and Add.1.

Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republics; in order to avoid repetition, norms mentioned for the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics are not always referred to again in connexion with the other two republics.

7. The brief review of constitutions that appears below should therefore be read in the light of the preceding considerations. There are in a number of them provisions of an over-all nature which dominate the entire field of the rights set forth in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. Chapter I therefore deals with general pronouncements of this kind, and specific rights

are covered in chapter II. In the former, the review is, by necessity, by country; in the latter, it is, more conveniently, by substantive subject. However, since constitutional principles are mostly of a general character, the subdivision by subject had to be conceived on broad lines, so as to avoid excessive repetition.

8. Finally, and for practical reasons, while the international instruments on economic, social and cultural rights, in so far as they have been ratified or accepted, provide an essential basis for the corresponding constitutional rules, their status is shown not in part one but in annex II to the study.



## Chapter I

### NORMS OF A GENERAL CHARACTER<sup>2</sup>

9. *Algeria* (11) proclaims its attachment to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948. In *Burma* (preamble), the maintenance of order is to be sought on the basis of justice, liberty and equality. The constitution of *Burundi* (preamble) rests on the principles set forth in the Declaration and in the Charter of the United Nations. *Canada* has in its constitution no general statement of human rights; British law and customs prevail. The 1960 Canadian Bill of Rights is not interpreted by the courts as overriding the provisions of earlier federal statutes, nor does it provide for constitutional limitation of the legislative powers of Parliament. The *Central African Republic* (preamble) recognizes the existence of inviolable and inalienable rights of man as the foundation of the human community. In *Chad*, the constitution (preamble) proclaims its attachment to the principles of democracy as defined by the 1789 French Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen and by the Declaration of 1948. The constitution of *Czechoslovakia* (19) states that the rights, freedoms and duties of citizens shall serve both the free and complete expression of the personality and the strengthening and growth of the socialist society. In *Dahomey*, the constitution (preamble) proclaims its attachment to the principles of democracy and to the rights of man as defined by the 1789 Declaration and the Declaration of 1948. The constitution of *Ecuador* (33) recognizes, guarantees and fosters the rights of man. It protects them against abuses by the public powers and by private persons. *France* (preamble) proclaims its attachment to the rights of man as defined by the 1789 Declaration. So does the constitution of *Gabon* (preamble), in reaffirming the rights and liberties set forth in the 1789 and 1948 Declarations. In *Guyana* (3), every person is entitled to the fundamental rights and freedoms of the individual without any distinction. In the *Ivory Coast*, the constitution (preamble) asserts its devotion to the principles of democracy and of the rights of man as defined by the 1789 and 1948 Declarations. The constitution of *Jamaica* (13) states that every person in the country is entitled to the fundamental rights of the individual person without distinction of any kind. *Japan* (11-12) also guarantees the enjoyment of fundamental human rights. In *Kenya* (14), every person is entitled to the fundamental rights and freedoms of the individual. The constitution of *Laos* (preamble) recognizes as fundamental principles the rights of the people, especially to equality before the law. In *Liberia* (1), the constitution requires observance of the natural rights of man. In *Madagascar* the constitution (preamble) specifically refers to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The constitution of *Malawi* (11) states that every person is entitled to the fundamental rights and

freedoms of the individual. *Mali* (preamble) reaffirms the rights and liberties of man as consecrated by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. *Mauritania* (preamble) proclaims its attachment to the principles of democracy as defined by the 1789 and 1948 Declarations. In *Morocco*, the constitution (preamble) subscribes to the principles, rights and obligations arising out of the charters of the international organizations of which the country is a member. *Niger* (preamble) proclaims its attachment to the principles of democracy and to the rights of man as defined by the 1789 and 1948 Declarations. *Rwanda* (13) guarantees the fundamental liberties defined by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. *Senegal* (preamble) acknowledges the rights defined by the 1789 Declaration and by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights; it also proclaims respect of and guarantees for economic and social rights. In *Sierra Leone* (11), everyone is entitled to the fundamental rights and freedoms of the individual. *Somalia* affirms (7) that it will comply with the provisions of the 1948 Declaration wherever applicable. *Togo* (preamble) asserts its attachment to the principles of democracy and to the rights of man as defined by the Declaration. In *Turkey* (10), every individual is entitled to the fundamental rights and freedoms of man; they may be restricted only by law in conformity with the letter and spirit of the constitution. The constitution of *Uganda* (17) entitles every person to the fundamental freedoms and rights of the individual without any distinction. In the *United Republic of Cameroon*, the constitution (1) affirms its adherence to the Declaration and the Charter. *Upper Volta* (preamble) proclaims its devotion to the principles of democracy and to the rights of man as defined by the 1789 and 1948 Declarations. In the *United Kingdom*, the protection of the citizens lies in the ordinary laws of the land, which apply equally to all. In the *United Republic of Tanzania*, the constitution (preamble) proclaims the inherent dignity of man and the inalienable rights of all members of the human family as the foundation of freedom, justice and peace; it also proclaims the country's intention to safeguard and respect economic and social rights. The constitution of the *United States of America*, which is based on the English heritage and on the idea of natural rights, provides for an area of freedom within which no Government may legally act; this area traditionally covers the exercise of political and civil rights. In addition, the federal structure leaves many economic, social and cultural rights to the legislative competence of the component States. In *Yugoslavia* (32), the freedoms and rights of man and of the citizen are part of the socialist and democratic relations protected by the constitution. *Zaire* (preamble) proclaims its adherence to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Finally, the constitution of *Zambia* (13) entitles every person to the enjoyment of the fundamental rights and freedoms of the individual.

<sup>2</sup> The references in parentheses denote the relevant articles of the instrument referred to, which, if not otherwise stated, is the constitution of the country concerned.

## Chapter II

### SPECIFIC RIGHTS<sup>3</sup>

10. The prevention of discrimination is one of the overriding principles that affect many of the specific rights listed in the International Covenants on Human Rights. It must accordingly be reviewed first.

11. The prevention of discrimination is often expressed by reference to its positive counterpart, that is, the principle of equality before the law, with or without specific reference to distinctions of race, origin, colour, creed or sex.

12. Among the countries which exclude discrimination by simply proclaiming the principle of equality before the law are *Albania* (14), *Austria* (7), *Belgium* (6), *Brazil* (150), *Bulgaria* (71), the *Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic* (97), *Canada* (Bill of Rights, 1), *Chile* (10), the *Congo* (1), *Costa Rica* (33), *Cuba* (20), *Czechoslovakia* (20), *Dahomey* (13), the *Democratic People's Republic of Korea* (11), the *Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam* (22), *Egypt* (24), *El Salvador* (150), *Finland* (5), the *German Democratic Republic* (6), *Greece* (3), *Haiti* (16), *Honduras* (51), *Indonesia* (22), *Iran* (Supplementary Constitution, 8), *Iraq* (19), *Ireland* (40), *Israel* (Declaration of the Establishment of the State of Israel), *Italy* (3), the *Ivory Coast* (6), *Lebanon* (7), *Liechtenstein* (31), *Luxembourg* (11), *Madagascar* (preamble), *Mongolia* (76), *Nepal* (10), the *Netherlands* (4), *Nicaragua* (36), *Paraguay* (51), *Peru* (23), *Portugal* (5), the *Republic of Korea* (9), *Romania* (17), *Rwanda* (16), *Senegal* (7), *Somalia* (3), *Switzerland* (4), the *Syrian Arab Republic* (7), *Tunisia* (6), *Turkey* (12), the *Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic* (103), the *Union of Soviet Socialist Republics* (123), the *United States of America* (14th Amendment), *Upper Volta* (6), *Uruguay* (8), *Western Samoa* (15), *Yemen* (22) and *Zaire* (14).

13. Some constitutions, however, while proclaiming equality before the law, specifically prohibit discrimination as such. Among them are those of *Afghanistan* (25), *Albania* (14), *Algeria* (10), *Argentina* (16), *Barbados* (11), *Bolivia* (6), *Burma* (13), *Burundi* (6), *Chad* (preamble), *China* (86), *Cyprus* (6), *Ecuador* (25), *Ethiopia* (38), the *Federal Republic of Germany* (3), *Guinea* (45), *Guyana* (15), *Hungary* (49), *India* (15), *Jamaica* (24), *Jordan* (6), *Malaysia* (8), *Malta* (46), *Nepal* (10), *Nigeria* (28), *Poland* (69), *Sierra Leone* (11), *Spain* (2), *Sri Lanka* (29), *Trinidad and Tobago* (1), *Uganda* (29), *Venezuela* (61) and *Zambia* (25).

#### A. The right to work

14. The right to work, in some cases to employment, is recognized in many constitutional charters. In *Afghanistan* (37), work is considered as a right and as a precept for every Afghan who has the capacity to work. In *Albania* (13), work is both a duty and an honour and the constitu-

tion (25) guarantees the right to work for a remuneration according to quality and quantity. *Argentina* (14) recognizes the right of working in and practising any lawful industry; labour shall enjoy the protection of the law. The constitution of *Bolivia* (7) guarantees the right to work; labour is held as a duty (156). In *Bulgaria* (73), the right to work is guaranteed by the national planning of the economy and by the development of production; work is both a duty and a matter of honour for every citizen. In *Burma*, the constitution (14) recognizes the right to equal opportunity in public employment and in any occupation, trade or business. In the *Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic* (93), the citizens have the right to work, which is guaranteed by the availability of employment and must be remunerated in accordance with quantity and quality. The constitution of the *Central African Republic* (preamble) states that labour should be protected by law. So does that of *Chad* (preamble). *Chile* (10) guarantees the protection of labour; no labour or industry can be prohibited unless it is contrary to good usage, to public security, to health or to the national interest. In *China*, the constitution (16) proclaims that work is a matter of honour; it also guarantees (91) the right to work and lays upon the State the duty to create employment. *Colombia* (17) views labour as a social obligation and places it under the special protection of the State; it also (39) ensures freedom of choice. The constitution of *Costa Rica* (56) states that labour is a right of the individual and his obligation to society; the State should endeavour to see that everyone has employment with fair remuneration; free choice is guaranteed. *Cyprus* (25) recognizes the right to practise any profession or to carry on any occupation, trade or business. In *Czechoslovakia* (21), everyone has the right to work and to be paid in accordance with the quality and quantity of his work; the right to employment is ensured by the socialist system guaranteeing the absence of any unemployment. *Dahomey* (8) recognizes the right to work. The *Democratic People's Republic of Korea* (16) holds that work is a duty and a matter of honour for the Korean people. *Denmark* (74) recognizes no restraint on free access to trade not based on the public sector; the State should make every effort to afford work to every able-bodied citizen. In the *Dominican Republic* (11) the right to work is guaranteed. *Ecuador* (28) also ensures the right to the exercise of any occupation or profession; it further guarantees (61) the right to work and to remuneration. In *Ethiopia* (47), the right to work is confirmed. *Finland* (6) places the labour of all citizens under the special protection of the State. *Gabor* (1) guarantees the right to work. In the *German Democratic Republic* (15), labour enjoys the protection of the State; the right to work is guaranteed. The *Federal Republic of Germany* prescribes recognition of the right to choose a trade or profession and a place of work; no compulsory work is allowed except within the framework of public services. *Guinea*

<sup>3</sup> See foot-note 2 above.



(44) also recognizes the right to work. In *Haiti* (23), freedom of work is to be exercised under the control of the State and regulated by law. *Honduras* (92) guarantees freedom of labour; it upholds (123) the right to work for every person; every person is entitled to obtain paid employment (39). *Hungary* guarantees the right to work with a remuneration based on the quality and quantity of work; this right is implemented by the planned development of the forces of production. In *Iceland* (69), no restriction is placed upon freedom of employment. *India* (19) recognizes the right to practise any profession or to carry on any occupation, trade or business. *Indonesia* (27) similarly acknowledges the right to work. In *Ireland* (45), the State is directed to ensure that citizens may through their occupations be able to make reasonable provision for their domestic means. The constitution of *Italy* (4) affirms the right to work. In *Japan* (37), all people have the right and obligation to work. The constitution of *Jordan* (6) lays upon the State the responsibility to ensure that everyone can work in accordance with his capacities and to provide for employment by promoting economic progress and raising the standard of living. In *Liechtenstein*, the right to work is safeguarded (19). It is similarly guaranteed in *Luxembourg* (11). The constitution of *Madagascar* (preamble) states that work is a right and a duty for all. In *Mali* (preamble) and *Malta* (7) the right to work is recognized. The constitution of *Mexico* (4) provides that no person can be prevented from engaging in a profession or occupation of his choice. *Mongolia* (77) guarantees the right to work and to remuneration in accordance with the quality and quantity of the work performed; realization of this right is ensured by the socialist system of the economy, which gives everyone an opportunity to work according to his ability. In *Morocco* (13), all citizens have an equal right to work. *Panama* (63) considers labour as a right and a duty; it requires the State to employ the resources at its disposal to provide employment and to ensure conditions of work sufficient to ensure a decent living. *Paraguay* (55) recognizes the right of everyone to engage in an occupation with no condition other than his qualifications; labour is to be given special protection (105). *Poland* guarantees the right to employment, paid in accordance with the quantity and quality of work (58); it is ensured by the social ownership of the means of production and the planned growth of productive forces, as well as by the abolition of unemployment. In *Portugal* (8), the right to work is recognized within the terms prescribed by the law. The constitution also guarantees freedom of choice. The *Republic of Korea* (41) guarantees the right to work and to the free choice of employment; work is a duty for every citizen, and the State must endeavour to make employment available to all on equitable terms. *Romania* (18) affirms the right to work; every citizen should be given the possibility to carry on an activity in the economic, administrative, social or cultural fields; remuneration should be determined by the quantity and quality of the work. The Charter of *Spain* (24) proclaims that all Spaniards have the right to work and the duty to occupy themselves in socially useful activities. In the *Syrian Arab Republic* (18), all citizens have the right and the duty to work. *Turkey* (42) proclaims the right to work. In the *Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic*, the constitution (98) proclaims the right to guaranteed employment and to remuneration based on the quality and quantity of the work; this right is ensured by the socialist organization of the economy, by the steady growth of productive forces and by the abolition of unemployment. The constitution

of the *Union of Soviet Socialist Republics* (118) proclaims the same principles. In the *United Republic of Cameroon*, the constitution (preamble) states that labour should be protected by law. In *Uruguay* (53), labour is under the protection of the law and it is the duty of everyone to apply his energies in a manner that will benefit the community; the State should endeavour to afford, with preference given to citizens, the possibility for everyone to earn his livelihood. *Venezuela* (51) considers labour as a duty; it further recognizes (84) the right of everyone to work; the State should endeavour to secure employment for everyone so as to provide him with a decent living; freedom of choice should not be restricted other than by law. In *Yemen* (38), all citizens have the right to work and the State shall endeavour to provide opportunities for employment. In *Yugoslavia*, the constitution (36) gives all citizens the right to work; it guarantees that conditions favouring the realization of this right shall be provided by the development of the productive forces and by the promotion of concern for the interests of the working man.

15. An important aspect of the right to work is the prohibition of forced labour. Provisions incorporating that prohibition are found in the constitutions of *Barbados* (19), *Burma* (19), *Cyprus* (10), *Ecuador* (61), *El Salvador* (155), *Guyana* (6), *India* (23), *Jordan* (13), *Kenya* (16), the *Libyan Arab Republic* (13), *Malawi* (13), *Malaysia* (6), *Mali* (preamble), *Malta* (36), *Mexico* (5), *Nepal* (13), *Pakistan* (6), *Peru* (55), *Republic of Korea* (42), *Rwanda* (40), *Sierra Leone* (15), *Somalia* (11), *Western Samoa* (8), *Yugoslavia* (36) and *Zambia* (16).

16. The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, in addition to proclaiming the right to work, prescribes equitable conditions of work. Several constitutions contain general provisions incorporating that prescription. *Afghanistan* (37) assigns to legislation the duty to protect the rights and interests of the workers, to provide suitable conditions of work and to ensure that employment may be freely chosen. *Argentina* (14) requires dignified and equitable conditions of work. In *China* (91 and 92), the State has the duty to create steadily improving conditions of work and of remuneration. The *Dominican Republic* (11) prescribes that the law may establish all provisions necessary for the assistance and protection of the workers. *Ecuador* (64) stipulates that the law shall regulate employment. In *Egypt*, the constitution (40) requires for the workers a just treatment guaranteed by the State. *Honduras* (123) prescribes equitable and satisfactory working conditions, as well as appropriate protection against unemployment. In *India* (38), equitable conditions of work are a matter of public policy. The constitution of *Ireland* provides that the State shall ensure protection of the strength and health of workers, and that the tender age of children shall not be abused through avocations unsuited to age, strength and sex. In *Japan*, the constitution (27) provides that the standards for wages, hours, rest and other working conditions shall be fixed by law. The constitution of *Jordan* (23) requires the State to protect labour and to legislate on conditions of work. In *Pakistan* (8), the provision of just and humane conditions of work is considered as a principle of policy. The *Syrian Arab Republic* (18) prescribes that the State shall protect labour. In *Turkey* (42), the State is similarly required to protect the workers and to promote employment by adopting social, economic and financial measures designed to ensure for all a decent existence and stable

employment. In *Venezuela*, the constitution (85) places labour under the special protection of the State.

17. Some constitutions provide for special measures to fight unemployment. In *Brazil* (158), security of employment with sufficient compensation for discharged workers is demanded. *Yugoslavia* (36) affirms the right to material security during unemployment.

18. Equitable conditions of work also include the provision of an adequate remuneration. In *Argentina*, the constitution (14) requires a system of fair remuneration and the establishment of a flexible minimum essential wage. *Bolivia* (7) similarly recognizes the right to an equitable remuneration ensuring a decent existence; it further provides (157) for the establishment of minimum wage machinery. In *Brazil*, the constitution (158) lists a minimum wage and family allowances among the basic rights to be guaranteed. In *Costa Rica* (57), every worker is entitled to remuneration providing a decent living as well as a minimum wage. *Cuba* (61) also guarantees a minimum wage. In *Ecuador* the constitution provides (64) that the law shall regulate the establishment of basic wages and family allowances sufficient for the fundamental necessities of the worker and of his family. In the *German Democratic Republic* (18), wages must be paid in accordance with the work done and ensure an adequate standard of living. *Guatemala* (114) likewise requires the periodic fixing of a minimum wage. In *Haiti*, the constitution (24) provides that every worker is entitled to a fair wage. *Italy* (36) requires that remuneration be fixed in proportion to the quality and quantity of the work done and be sufficient to provide for a free and dignified existence. In *Nicaragua* (95), the constitution requires the establishment of a minimum wage. *Panama* (64) similarly guarantees a minimum wage. In *Spain*, the Labour Charter (III) demands a remuneration sufficient for a decent existence. In the *Syrian Arab Republic* (18), the State is required to guarantee a fair salary. *Turkey* (45) proclaims the need for decent wages. *Uruguay* (54) assigns to legislation the duty of recognizing the right of everyone to a just remuneration. In *Venezuela*, the constitution (87) also prescribes a system of minimum wages and a decent level of remuneration.

19. Many constitutions guarantee the right to a limitation of working hours, to rest and leisure. *Albania* (25) ensures that right through a limitation of working hours, annual vacations with pay and the provision of rest homes. *Argentina* (14) similarly requires the regulation of working time, paid days of rest and vacations. *Bolivia* (157) prescribes the definition by the State of the maximum working time and of the right to paid weekly and annual days of rest. *Brazil* (158) proclaims that the working day shall not exceed 8 hours and that weekly rest periods and annual vacations must be provided. *Bulgaria* (74) guarantees the right to a limited working day, to paid annual leave and to the provision of rest homes. *Burma* (32) requires the State to direct its policies towards ensuring the right to rest and to leisure. The *Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic* (94) prescribes observance of the right to rest, through the limitation of the working day, the provision of annual leave with pay and the availability of rest homes. *China* (91-92) affirms the right to rest and leisure. *Costa Rica* (57 and 59) ensures the right to weekly rest and to annual vacations with pay. *Czechoslovakia* (21) proclaims a policy of gradual reduction of working hours and upholds the right to leisure through the regulation of working hours and of paid holidays. The *Democratic*

*People's Republic of Korea* (16) provides for an 8-hour working day and for a 30-day annual vacation with pay. The *Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam* recognizes the right to rest; the law regulates the duration of work and holidays. In the *Dominican Republic* (11), the constitution prescribes that the State shall establish the maximum working day and determine the days of rest and of vacation. In *Ecuador* (64), the responsibility of regulating hours of work and periods of rest is laid upon the State. *Egypt* (40) similarly entrusts to legislation the duty to fix hours of work, rest periods and vacations. *El Salvador* (182) requires that the Labour Code provide for the determination of hours of work, periods of rest and paid vacations. The *German Democratic Republic* (16) recognizes the right of everyone to rest, leisure and annual paid vacations. *Guatemala* (114) limits working hours to 8 per day and 48 per week and provides for rest periods and holidays with pay. *Guinea* (44) proclaims the right to rest. *Haiti* (24) ensures the right to rest and leisure and to annual paid vacations. In *Honduras* (124), the maximum working hours are fixed at 8 per day and 48 per week. *Hungary* (46) asserts the right to rest, implemented by the legal determination of working hours, holidays with pay and organization of rest and recreation facilities. *Italy* (36) prescribes that the maximum working time shall be fixed by law and guarantees weekly rest and annual vacations with pay. *Jordan* (23) requires the State to legislate on hours of work, weekly rest and holidays with pay. *Luxembourg* (11) ensures the right to rest in accordance with legislation. *Mali* recognizes the right to rest. In *Malta* (14), the hours of work, as well as the entitlement to weekly rest and to holidays with pay, are to be defined by law. *Mexico* (123) limits the maximum working day to 8 hours, with one day of rest every week. In *Mongolia* (78), the right to leisure is ensured by an 8-hour maximum working day, by weekly rest and by the provision of holidays with pay. *Nicaragua* (95) requires an obligatory weekly rest and an annual holiday with pay of 15 days. In *Panama* (69), the hours of work are limited to 8 per day and 48 per week. The constitution of *Poland* (59) proclaims the right to leisure and rest, to be assured by the reduction of the hours of work, through the application of the maximum 8-hour day and annual holidays with pay. In *Romania*, the constitution (19) affirms the right to leisure, guaranteed by a maximum 8-hour working day, weekly rest and paid holidays. *Somalia* (36) prescribes weekly rest and annual holidays with pay; working hours are established by law. In *Spain*, the Labour Charter (II) provides for weekly rest and holidays with pay. The constitution of the *Syrian Arab Republic* entrusts the State with the duty to guarantee the limitation of working hours. *Turkey* (44) also affirms the entitlement to weekly rest and paid annual holidays. Both the *Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic* (99) and the *Union of Soviet Socialist Republics* (119) guarantee the right to rest and leisure, with a maximum of 7 hours for the working day (less for arduous trades) and annual vacations with pay. The constitution of *Uruguay* (54) requires that the law recognize the right of everyone to a limitation of working hours and to a weekly day of rest. In *Venezuela* (86), working hours must be limited to 8 per day and to 48 per week; weekly rest periods and vacations with pay are to be provided, and a progressive diminution of the working hours is to be promoted. The constitution of *Yugoslavia* (37) provides that the working week is to be limited to 42 hours and that the workers are entitled to daily and weekly rest periods and, under conditions determined by law, to paid vacations.



20. Fair remuneration involves the principle of equal pay for equal work, to which the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights gives a special place. While inherent in many general rules, equal pay for equal work is nevertheless specifically mentioned in the constitutions of *Albania* (17), *Argentina* (14), *Brazil* (158), *Bulgaria* (71), *Burma* (15), *Costa Rica* (52), *Cuba* (62), the *Democratic People's Republic of Korea* (15), the *Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam* (24), *Ecuador* (61), *El Salvador* (182), the *German Democratic Republic* (18), *Guatemala* (114), *Honduras* (124), *India* (38), *Italy* (37), *Malta* (15), *Mexico* (123), *Nicaragua* (95), *Poland* (66), *Romania* (18), *Somalia* (36), the *Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic* (102) and the *Union of Soviet Socialist Republics* (122).

21. The right to form and join trade unions of one's choice is widely recognized, frequently in the form of the right of association. Such is the case in *Afghanistan* (32). *Albania* specifically guarantees (21) the right to participate in unions. *Algeria* (20) also upholds union rights. *Argentina* (14) similarly guarantees the right to form trade unions and freedom to bargain collectively. *Barbados* (21) protects freedom of association. So does *Belgium* (20). In *Bolivia* (7), union organization is ensured and union leaders are protected while carrying out their duties (159). *Brazil* (150) affirms the right of association. In *Bulgaria* (87), this right is protected subject to the requirements of public order as established by the constitution. *Burma* (17) upholds the freedom of association and the right to form and join unions. The *Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic* (101) recognizes the right of workers to unite in trade unions. The *Central African Republic* proclaims the right of association in the preamble to its constitution. *Chile* (10) guarantees the exercise of this right. *China* (87) also affirms freedom of association. The *Congo* (preamble and 14) proclaims respect for and guarantees the right of association. *Costa Rica* (25) recognizes the right of association and (60) the right to organize freely for the purpose of obtaining economic, social or occupational benefits. In *Cuba* (69), the right to associate is affirmed and the competent authority must within 30 days pass on a request for registration. *Cyprus* (21) acknowledges the right of association, including the right to join trade unions, which nobody, however, can be forced to join. *Dahomey* (9) recognizes freedom of association. The *Democratic People's Republic of Korea* (13) also provides for freedom of association, including the right to form unions. In *Denmark* (78), associations may be formed for lawful purposes without previous authorization. The *Dominican Republic* (11) provides for unrestricted union organization, subject to the principles laid down in the constitution. In *Ecuador* (64), the right to form unions is guaranteed without prior authorization. In *Egypt* (41), the right to create trade unions is guaranteed. *El Salvador* (191) affirms the workers' right to associate freely for the protection of their interests. *Ethiopia* (45) recognizes the right of association subject to the conditions prescribed by law, and specifically upholds (47) the freedom to form or join trade unions. In the *German Democratic Republic* (14), all citizens have the right to join associations striving for the improvement of conditions of work; decisions relating to production, wages and other conditions of employment are arrived at with the full participation of workers and employees (17). The *Federal Republic of Germany* (9) provides for the right to form associations to safeguard and improve economic and working conditions.

In *Greece* (11), the right of association is restricted only for governmental or semi-governmental employees. *Guatemala* (114) confirms the right to organize for the protection of workers' interests. In *Guinea* (40 and 44), the right of association, and particularly that of forming or joining trade unions, is guaranteed. *Guyana* (13) proclaims freedom of association, including the right to form trade unions. In *Haiti* (24), workers may protect their interests through trade unions. *Honduras* (88) guarantees freedom of association, provided it is not contrary to the security of the State or to good custom; workers are entitled to associate for the protection of their interests (124) within the framework of the law. In *Hungary* (56), the right to form trade unions is recognized. *India* (19) upholds the right to form associations or unions. In *Indonesia* (28), freedom of association is guaranteed. *Iran* (21) also provides for the right of association, if not prejudicial to public order. *Ireland* (40) recognizes the right to form unions. So does *Italy* (18 and 39). In *Jamaica* (23), the right of association is guaranteed. *Japan* provides for both freedom of association (21) and the right to organize and bargain collectively (28). *Jordan* (16) acknowledges the right of association. *Kenya* (24) protects the right to form unions. In the *Khmer Republic* (10), the right of association is likewise acknowledged. In *Kuwait* (43), the freedom to form unions is ensured on a national basis; no one may be compelled to join a union. In the *Libyan Arab Republic* (26), the right to peaceful association is recognized. *Liechtenstein* (41) guarantees freedom of association. In *Luxembourg*, the constitution (11) provides that the law shall guarantee union freedom, which is not subject to prior authorization (26). In *Malawi* (53), freedom of association and of participation in unions is provided. *Malaysia* recognizes the right of association, except where restricted by law. *Mali* (preamble) affirms the right to form unions. *Malta* (43) protects freedom of association, including association in trade unions. In *Mongolia* (82), the workers have the right to associate in trade unions. The *Netherlands* (9) likewise recognizes the right to associate. *Nicaragua* (91) provides that unions may be established for lawful purposes. In *Nigeria*, the constitution (26) upholds the freedom of association and the right to form unions. *Pakistan* (6) acknowledges freedom of association. In *Panama* (67), the right to form unions is recognized for the exclusive purpose of promoting economic and social improvement. *Paraguay* (109) guarantees freedom of association. So does *Peru* (27). In the *Philippines* (3), the right to form associations for lawful purposes is not to be abridged. *Poland* (72) guarantees the right of association, including association in trade unions. *Portugal* (8) similarly proclaims freedom of association. The *Republic of Korea* affirms freedom of association (18) together with the right of workers to form unions for collective bargaining and action (22), except for public employees. *Romania* (27) confirms the right to associate in unions. In *Rwanda* (19), the right freely to form associations is subject only to legal formalities; the right of workers to form unions of their choice is acknowledged (42). *Senegal* (preamble) proclaims respect for and guarantees trade union liberties; it also provides (20) that workers may belong to unions of their choice. *Sierra Leone* (22) supports freedom of association, including association in trade unions. *Somalia* (13) recognizes the right to form and join trade unions. In *Spain*, the Charter (16) provides that Spaniards may associate freely for lawful purposes. In *Switzerland* (56), the right of association is guaranteed. The constitution of the *Syrian Arab*

*Republic* (18) provides that the State is to regulate the right to form unions. In *Togo*, the constitution (preamble) safeguards trade union rights. *Trinidad and Tobago* (1) proclaims the right of association. So does the constitution of *Tunisia* (8). In *Turkey* (46), the right to establish unions and federations without prior authorization is recognized. The *Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic* (106) and the *Union of Soviet Socialist Republics* (126) both guarantee the right to associate in trade unions. *Uruguay* (57) provides that legislation shall promote the organization of unions. In *Venezuela* (91), the creation of unions is not subject to other restrictions than those established by law for the purpose of ensuring their proper functioning. In *Western Samoa* (13), the right to form associations or unions is ensured. *Yemen* (39) guarantees the right of association. *Yugoslavia* (preamble, II) confirms the right of working people to associate freely. So does *Zaire* (29). *Zambia* (23) proclaims freedom of association.

22. The right to strike is specifically affirmed by the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. It is sometimes withheld from workers in public or essential services. It is recognized in *Algeria* (20) and in *Argentina* (14). In *Bolivia* (159), it is established as a legal right. In *Brazil*, its exercise is precluded in essential public services (157-158). In the *Central African Republic* (preamble), the right to strike is to be used within the framework of the law; it may not infringe upon the liberty to work. *Colombia* (18) recognizes the right to strike except in public services. The constitution of the *Congo* (preamble) proclaims the right to strike. It is similarly recognized in *Costa Rica* (61). In *Cyprus* (27), its exercise is to be regulated by law; it is excluded from the armed forces, the police and the gendarmerie. *Dahomey* (9) recognizes the right to strike, to be used under the conditions stipulated by law. The *Dominican Republic* (11) acknowledges the right, except in public services and utilities; it is to be exercised in conformity with the law. *Ecuador* (64) likewise recognizes this right, subject to the regulations established by law. The right to strike is also acknowledged in *El Salvador* (192). In the *German Democratic Republic* (14), the right to strike is guaranteed to the unions. It is prohibited in *Greece* (11) for civil servants and semi-governmental employees. In *Guatemala* (114), the right is acknowledged and must be exercised as provided by the law. *Guinea* (44) upholds the right to strike. In *Italy* (18), it must be exercised within the framework of legislation. In *Madagascar* (preamble), the right is recognized for the defence of professional interests and within the framework of the law. *Mali* (preamble) confirms the right to strike. *Mexico* (123) states that strikes are legal when designed to attain an equitable balance between the various factors of production. *Morocco* (14) guarantees the right to strike, within the framework of the law. In *Panama* (68), strikes are authorized subject to special restrictions in public services. *Paraguay* (110) guarantees the right, out solely for the defence of union interests. In *Rwanda* (42), the right to strike is acknowledged, but not for civil servants or agents of public bodies. *Somalia* (27) affirms this right, to be exercised within the limits laid down by law. In the *United Republic of Cameroon* (preamble), the right to strike is to be used within the framework of the law; it may not infringe upon the liberty to work. In *Uruguay* (59), the right is likewise recognized and its use regulated by law. *Venezuela* (92) prescribes that the right to strike may be used in conditions determined by law, particularly in respect of public services. *Zaire*

(29) guarantees the exercise of this right, except for the armed forces, the police and the gendarmerie.

## B. The right to social security

23. "Social security" has come to include many of the rights formulated in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. Its progressive extension to cover income maintenance, health protection and family care has had the result that many of the measures required for the realization of the right to an adequate standard of living, to the enjoyment of the highest possible standards of health, and the protection of the family also apply to the realization of the right to social security. The interpenetration of these rights should be kept in mind, so that a clear picture may be obtained of the steps taken in respect of each of them by the countries concerned. It should therefore be noted that, in order to avoid unnecessary repetition, measures listed under the heading "social security" are not mentioned again under the sections relating to standards of living and of health and to the protection of the family. Moreover, in view of the necessarily general character of constitutional provisions, no distinction can be made here between the individual components of the complex notion of social security.

24. *Albania* (25) guarantees through social insurance the material means of subsistence in old age, illness and disability. *Argentina* (14) provides social security benefits through compulsory participation in a social security scheme and a flexible system of retirement pay and pensions. *Bolivia* (7) ensures the right to social security as determined by the relevant constitutional and legislative provisions; the constitution (158) provides for a social security system based on universal coverage, covering illness, maternity, occupational hazards, disability, old age, unemployment, family support and housing. In *Brazil* (159), the constitution places workers under social security in respect of unemployment, maternity protection, illness, old age, disability, survivors' benefits and workmen's compensation. *Bulgaria* (75) guarantees through social insurance and medical assistance the right to pensions and to illness, accident, disablement, unemployment and old-age benefits. *Burma* (33) pursues a policy of ensuring the right to maintenance in old age, sickness or incapacity. In the *Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic* (95) the constitution enforces the right to maintenance in old age, sickness and disability through social insurance, free medical services and the provision of a network of health resorts. *Chile* (10) guarantees the right to social security so as to give every individual a minimum of well-being adequate to the satisfaction of his needs and of those of his family. In *China* (93), working people have the right to material assistance in old age, illness and disability. The constitution of *Colombia* (19) proclaims that public aid is a function of the State and that it is to be granted to all those who lack the means of subsistence and are unable to work. In *Costa Rica* (72), the State is to provide unemployed workers with the necessary protection; social security is to be established (73) for manual and intellectual workers to cover illness, disability, maternity, old age, death and other contingencies as determined by law. In *Cuba* (65), the social security system is so established as to give an inalienable right to protection against illness, disability, old age and unemployment and to retirement and survivors' pensions. The constitution of *Cyprus* (9) states that every person has the right to a decent existence and to social security. In *Czechoslovakia* (23),



all people have the right to material security in old age and incapacity. In the *Democratic People's Republic of Korea* (17), all citizens subject to social insurance have the right to material assistance as provided by the social security system. In the *Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam* (32), working people have the right to material assistance in old age, illness and disability; the State is to expand gradually social insurance, social assistance and public health services. In *Denmark* (75), any person unable to support himself and his family is entitled to receive public assistance. The constitution of the *Dominican Republic* (11 and 17) requires the State to encourage the progressive development of social security so as to protect everyone against unemployment, sickness, disability and old age. In *Ecuador* (65), all inhabitants have the right to be protected against risks of unemployment, disability, illness, old age and the loss of the breadwinner. According to the constitution of *Egypt* (20), the State guarantees social insurance protection in case of old age, sickness, incapacity and unemployment. In *El Salvador* (186), social security is considered as a social service in which participation is compulsory. The *German Democratic Republic* ensures maintenance in case of sickness and old age; an all-embracing system of social insurance provides for the preservation of health and of the capacity to work, protects mother and child and provides for old age, disability, unemployment and other contingencies. *Guinea* (44) proclaims the right to social assistance. In *Haiti* (24), every worker is entitled to the protection of social security to the extent commensurate with the economic development of the country. In *Honduras* (139), every person is entitled to the security of his economic means of support in the event of incapacity; social security is to cover illness, maternity protection, family allowances, old age, orphanhood, unemployment, occupational accidents and diseases and other similar contingencies. *Hungary's* constitution (47) protects the health of workers and provides them with assistance in sickness or disability; this protection is implemented through a comprehensive system of social insurance and the availability of medical care. In *Iceland* (70), anyone unable to provide for himself and his dependents is entitled to public support. *Indonesia* (34) provides that poor and destitute children shall be assisted by the State. In *Iraq* (16), the State guarantees social security services and assistance in old age, illness and incapacity. In *Italy* (38), every citizen unable to work and lacking resources is entitled to private and social assistance; workers are entitled to social insurance covering accident, illness, disability, old age and unemployment. The constitution of *Japan* (25) give the State the duty to promote and expand social welfare and social security. In *Kuwait* (11), the State ensures aid for citizens in old age, sickness or incapacity; it provides them with social security, assistance and medical services. *Liechtenstein* (26) promotes insurance against sickness, old age and disability. In *Luxembourg* (11), legislation is to provide for social security and health protection. In *Madagascar* (preamble), the State is given the responsibility of ensuring for all, particularly children, mothers and old workers, health protection and material security. *Mexico* (123) requires as a matter of public interest the enactment of social security provisions covering disability, unemployment, sickness and other contingencies. In *Mongolia* (79), the right to maintenance in old age, disability, sickness and loss of the breadwinner is ensured. *Nicaragua* (97) requires the State to establish a social security system for the protection of workers against disease, disability, old

age and unemployment. In *Pakistan*, the Principles of Policy (8) provide that everyone should be protected by compulsory insurance or by other means. In *Panama* (93), every individual has the right to the security of his means of existence in case of disability; social security is to cover illness, maternity and family protection, old age, widows and orphans, unemployment, occupational accidents and diseases. *Paraguay* (108) provides that the law shall establish a general social security system to protect workers and their families, as well as a social welfare scheme, with retirement pensions. The *Republic of Korea* (30) prescribes that the State is to promote social security. *Romania* (20) ensures the right to material security in old age, sickness and incapacity through a system of social insurance and other forms of protection. In *Somalia* (37), the State is given the duty to promote social security and assistance. In *Spain*, the Charter (28) guarantees the security of workers in distress and recognizes entitlement to assistance in old age, death, sickness, maternity, accidents, invalidity, unemployment and other similar occurrences. In *Switzerland*, the constitution (34 A) provides that the Confederation may introduce accident and sickness insurance and declare participation compulsory for specified categories of citizens. The Confederation is also empowered (34 C) to institute a system of old age and survivors' insurance as well as an invalidity insurance. The constitution of the *Syrian Arab Republic* (19) provides that all citizens and their families have the right to be insured against accidents, sickness, incapacity, loss of breadwinner and old age. *Turkey* (48) proclaims that every individual is entitled to social security. The constitution of the *Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic* (100) and of the *Union of Soviet Socialist Republics* (120) both guarantee the right to maintenance in old age, sickness or disability, to be ensured by the development of social insurance, free medical care and the provision of medical facilities. In *Uruguay* (67), the constitution provides that a general retirement and social security system shall be organized to guarantee all workers adequate retirement pension and assistance in case of accident, sickness, disability, unemployment and death. *Venezuela* (94) provides for a social security system to cover progressively accidents, illness, disability, old age, unemployment and the loss of the breadwinner. *Yugoslavia* (38) provides that workers should be insured within a uniform system of social security, established by law to cover health protection, old age and survivors' benefits; provision is also to be made for other categories of citizens.

### C. The right to an adequate standard of living

25. The right to an adequate standard of living includes adequate food, adequate clothing and housing, social services and the improvement of living conditions. The first three are of a concrete nature; the fourth, by contrast is very broad in character. The continued improvement of living conditions is of course one of the major objectives of every Government, and it is pursued by many means, but primarily through appropriate economic policies which cannot be properly analysed here. On the other hand, the other components are often covered elsewhere in the context of economic, social and cultural rights. Food is an essential factor. Health and social services are often made available under social security, health and education schemes. Here, therefore, as elsewhere in part one, constitutional norms can be noted only under their most concrete aspects, which is to say that the right to social

services and the right to the continued improvement of living conditions, in particular, are mentioned only in so far as they are not covered under other headings.

26. *Argentina* (14) directs the State to facilitate the access of families to decent housing. In *Bolivia* (158), the State is to strive for the improvement of living conditions of the family as a group. For *Burma* (36), the policy is to raise the standard of living. In *Guatemala* (115), the constitution prescribes that the State must ensure that workers' housing is adequate and meets the necessary health requirements; it is also to foster the building of homes. *Japan* (25) proclaims the right of the people to maintain minimum standards of wholesome and cultural living. In *Pakistan*, the Principles of Policy (8) require that the well-being of people be ensured by the improvement of the standard of living; food, clothing and housing should be provided for citizens unable to earn their living on account of invalidity, sickness or unemployment. In *Spain*, the Labour Charter (III) calls for the gradual improvement of the standard of living. The constitution of *Switzerland* (31 A) empowers the Confederation to take the necessary measures for the welfare of the people and the economic security of all citizens. In *Turkey* (49), the State is to provide the poor and low-income families with adequate dwellings, as well as (52) adequate food. The constitution of *Uruguay* (45) says that every inhabitant is entitled to a decent home and that the State must strive to ensure hygienic and economical housing; in addition (56), every enterprise is obliged to provide its workers with adequate food and lodging. In *Yemen*, the constitution (12) requires the State to ensure an appropriate standard of living based on the provision of food, dwellings and medical, social and cultural services.

#### **D. The right to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standards of physical and mental health**

27. The steps taken towards the realization of the highest possible standards of health are, to a great extent, ensured under social security systems. Furthermore, a number of provisions dealing with industrial hygiene have already been mentioned under the heading of the right to work. Only additional measures that have been adopted to define policies and provide institutions are reported here.

28. The right to health includes in particular the following components: the reduction of the still-birth rate and of infant mortality and the health development of the child; the improvement of all aspects of environmental and industrial hygiene; the prevention, treatment and control of epidemic, endemic, occupational and other diseases, and the creation of conditions ensuring for all the population medical service and medical attention in the event of sickness. Yet, as in the case of many other rights, constitutional provisions are of an over-all character and must be considered in their totality.

29. *Afghanistan* (36) assigns to the State the duty to provide, within the limits of its means, balanced facilities for the prevention and treatment of diseases. In *Albania*, the constitution (28) provides that the State is to take care of the health of people by setting up and supervising the necessary health services. In *Bolivia* (158), the State is entrusted with the obligation to protect the health of the population and to ensure the livelihood of disabled persons. In *Brazil* (159), workers are entitled to health assistance, including hospitalization and preventive medicine. *Bulgaria* (81) ensures that public health shall be promoted

by the State through the organization of health services and by propagating health education. For *Burma* (38), it is State policy to promote the improvement of public health. *Chile* (10) lays upon the State the duty to foster public health and welfare. In *Czechoslovakia* (23), all people have the right to the protection of their health and to medical care. In *Egypt* (42), health protection is a right to be enjoyed by all Egyptians; it is guaranteed through the establishment of the necessary institutions. *El Salvador* (206) prescribes that the State is to give assistance to sick indigents, and to all inhabitants when the objective is to prevent the spread of communicable diseases. In *Haiti* (24), every worker is entitled to health protection to the extent commensurate with the economic development of the country; furthermore (182), the State must provide free medical assistance to the sick and strive to prevent the spread of contagious diseases. *Iraq* (36) sees health preservation as a right for all Iraqis; it is ensured by the construction of hospitals and similar institutions. *Italy* (32) provides health safeguards as a basic right of the individual and grants free medical assistance to the poor. In *Japan* (25), it is the duty of the State to foster public health. In *Kuwait* (15), the State is to care for public health and to endeavour to provide the means of preventing illnesses. In *Liechtenstein* (18), the State must promote the maintenance of public health and assist institutions for the care of sick people. *Nicaragua* (95) guarantees medical assistance to workers by the means of institutions created for this purpose. In *Panama* (92), an essential function of the State is to concern itself with public health; it must promote activities to fight contagious diseases and mother and infant mortality, to supplement nutrition and ensure medical care for school children and to establish hospitals and similar institutions. In *Paraguay* (93), all inhabitants have the right to health protection and promotion; provision must be made by law for the care of sick persons when indigent, and for disabled and old people. In *Poland* (60), the right to health protection is ensured through the social security system. In the *Syrian Arab Republic* (19), the State has the duty to protect the health of its citizens and to ensure the availability of medical care. *Turkey* (49) assigns to the State the responsibility of ensuring that everyone may lead a healthy life and receive adequate medical attention. *Uruguay* (44) provides that the State shall legislate on all questions of public health, so as to achieve physical, moral and social improvement for all. In *Venezuela* (76), everyone is entitled to protection of his health. In *Yemen* (40), all citizens are entitled to medical assistance, ensured by the creation and gradual development of hospitals and similar institutions.

#### **E. The right of the family, motherhood and childhood to protection and assistance**

30. *Albania* (17) grants special protection to mother and child; marriage and the family are a special concern of the State (19). *Algeria* (17) sees the family as the basic unit of society and places it under the protection of the State. *Argentina* (14) prescribes that the State must protect the family and provide for its welfare. In *Bolivia* (193), matrimony, the family and maternity are similarly protected by the State. *Brazil* (167) states that the family is entitled to the protection of the public powers; assistance to mothers, infants and adolescents is to be provided by law. In *Bulgaria* (72), marriage and the family are under the protection of the State; in addition (72) working women enjoy special facilities in the form of nurseries and



of maternity leave with pay. In *Burma* (37), the policy of the State is to protect infants and nursing mothers. The *Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic* (97) likewise safeguards the interests of mother and child, by providing maternity leave with full pay, maternity homes, nurseries and kindergartens.<sup>4</sup> The *Central African Republic* (preamble) sees in marriage and the family the natural basis of society and places them under the special protection of the State. *China* (96) protects marriage, the family, mother and child. The *Congo* (11) places marriage and the family under the protection of the State. In *Costa Rica* (51), the family, as the natural basis of society is entitled to special protection. *Cuba* (43) likewise ensures the protection of the family, motherhood and childhood. So does *Czechoslovakia* (26). The *Dominican Republic* (15) provides that the family shall enjoy the broadest possible protection from the State. In *Ecuador* (29), the State recognizes the family as the basic unit of society and protects it, together with marriage and motherhood; the child is protected from the moment of conception (30). *Egypt* (19) guarantees the consolidation of the family and the protection of motherhood and childhood. In *El Salvador* (179), the family is viewed as the fundamental element of society and is given special protection by the State; it is also prescribed (182) that the Labour Code is to prohibit employment of those under 14 years of age and to enact restrictions regarding dangerous or unhealthy work in respect of women and juveniles. The *Democratic People's Republic of Korea* (23) protects marriage and the family. In the *Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam* (24), the State has the duty to protect children, marriage and the family. In *Gabon* (1), the State guarantees mother and child, in so far as possible, the protection of health, material security, rest and leisure; marriage and the family form the natural basis of society and are entitled to the special protection of the State. In the *German Democratic Republic* (18 and 30), women and children enjoy special protection in employment; marriage and the family, as basic elements of the communal life, are protected by the State; maternity is given special attention. In the *Federal Republic of Germany* (6), marriage and the family enjoy the special protection of the State; every mother is entitled to the support and care of the community. *Guatemala* (85) provides that the State shall legislate for the protection of the family as the fundamental element of society; maternity and childhood are to be afforded special protection and care; maternity leave with pay is provided, and there are special restrictions relating to women and juveniles at work. In *Honduras* (109), the family, marriage and motherhood are under the protection of the State; the State has the duty (118) to look after the physical, mental and moral health of children, and child protection is a public concern; special restrictions are provided (124) in respect of women and juveniles at work, and motherhood is to be given special consideration through maternity leave with pay and the provision of a nursing period during employment. In *Hungary* (51), marriage and the family are to be protected; motherhood is safeguarded by the grant of maternity leave and by the provision of maternity and child welfare institutions (50). In *India* (38), the care of the family is a principle of policy. *Iraq* (5) considers the family as the basic unit of society and entrusts the State (15) with the task of protecting motherhood and childhood. *Ireland*

the State shall safeguard its moral and material stability; it further requires (41) that the law shall provide the (41) recognizes the family as the natural, primary and fundamental unit of society; it guarantees its protection. *Italy* (29) views the family as a natural association founded on marriage; safeguards are to be provided (37) to maternity, infancy and youth, by promoting and encouraging the creation and maintenance of the institutions necessary for that purpose. *Kuwait* (9) regards the family as the corner-stone of society; the law must preserve its integrity and safeguard the interests of motherhood and childhood. The *Libyan Arab Republic* (33) likewise views the family as the basis of society and ensures its protection by the State. For *Madagascar* (preamble), the family is the natural base of society. *Malta* (17) restricts the employment of minors. *Mexico* (123) forbids dangerous, unhealthy and night work for women and juveniles and provides maternity leave with pay and nursing periods for mothers at work. *Nepal* (19) prohibits the abuse of children's health. In *Nicaragua* (76), marriage, the family and motherhood are under the safeguard of the State; special provisions (95) restrict the employment of women and minors. In *Pakistan*, the Principles of Policy (8) forbid the employment of women and children in occupations unsuited to their age and sex; maternity benefits are provided for women at work. *Panama* (54) protects marriage, motherhood and the family and guarantees the rights of children until adolescence; all work is prohibited under 14 years of age, and restricted until 16 (69); the employment of women and minors in dangerous or unhealthy occupations is prescribed; maternity leave is provided with pay (71). In *Paraguay*, the constitution (81) recognizes the family as the fundamental element of society; motherhood is safeguarded by law (85); childhood is protected from the moment of conception; minors are subject to special legislation and the rights of maternity are preserved during employment (106). In *Poland* (67), marriage and the family are under the protection of the State; maternity is granted special care and assistance through maternity leave and the provision of nurseries and other facilities. In *Portugal* (12), the State ensures the formation and protection of the family as a source of the preservation and development of the people; it also protects maternity (14). The *Republic of Korea* (31) guarantees special facilities for women and children at work. *Romania* (23) protects marriage and the family; maternity leave is provided (20). In *Rwanda* (26), the family is viewed as the primary base of society. For *Senegal* (14), it is the natural and moral foundation of the human community and is placed under the protection of the State. The same policies prevail in *Somalia* (31). In *Spain*, the Charter (22) recognizes and protects the family as the natural and fundamental institution of society. In *Switzerland* (34 D), the family is the concern of the Confederation. In the *Syrian Arab Republic* (20), the family is considered as the fundamental element of society and is placed under the safeguard of the State. *Turkey* (35) has a similar approach, and the State is required to adopt measures to protect the family, mother and child; young people and women are accorded special protection while at work (43). In the *Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic* (102), the State protects mother and child and grants maternity leave with pay, and nurseries and similar facilities to women at work. The *United Republic of Cameroon* (preamble) regards marriage and the family as the natural basis of society and accords to them the protection of the State. *Uruguay* (40) considers the family as the basis of society and provides that

<sup>4</sup> Similar provisions are embodied in "Basic principles of legislation in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the Union Republics concerning marriage and the family" of 27 June 1968.

necessary measures for the protection of infants and juveniles against neglect and abuse, and prescribes (42) that maternity is to be protected by society; it limits (54) the employment of women and of young persons under 18 years of age. In *Venezuela* (73), the State protects the family as the fundamental nucleus of society; it ensures (74) the protection of mother and child and safeguards (93) the needs of women and juvenile workers. In *Yemen* (6), the family is treated as the basis of society and the State is required (13) to ensure its support as well as the protection of motherhood and childhood.

#### F. The right to education

31. In *Afghanistan* (34), education is the right of every citizen and is provided free of charge by the State; primary education is compulsory. *Albania* (31) likewise provides for free and compulsory primary education. *Algeria* (10) proclaims the right to education, which is free, obligatory (18) and offered without discrimination. In *Belgium* (17), public education is free. *Bolivia* (8) affirms the duty of everyone to acquire at least an elementary education; public education is free and, in its elementary phase, compulsory (177). In *Brazil* (168), education is the right of everyone; it is compulsory and free from 7 to 14 years of age, and thereafter free for those who possess the necessary abilities while lacking the means. *Bulgaria* (79) recognizes the right to education; elementary schooling is free and compulsory. In *Burma* (33), the State is to direct its policies towards enforcing the right to education. *Burundi* proclaims (16) that education shall be free. The *Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic* (96) acknowledges the right to education, which is compulsory for eight years and free at all levels. In the *Central African Republic* (preamble), the State is given the right and the duty to create the basic conditions required to guarantee education. The constitution of *Chad* (preamble) declares that education is to be free. *China* (94) recognizes the right to free education. In *Colombia* (41), elementary education is free in public schools and compulsory as determined by law. The *Congo* (12) asserts that every child has a right to education. In *Cuba* (48), elementary education is compulsory for minors of school age; it is free at the elementary and higher levels, except for specialized pre-university and university education. In *Cyprus* (20), freedom of education is guaranteed, with free and compulsory schooling at the primary level. *Czechoslovakia* proclaims (24) that all citizens have the right to education; it is to be free and compulsory at the primary level. The *Democratic People's Republic of Korea* (18) recognizes the right to education, which is to be universal and compulsory at the elementary level. The *Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam* (33) recognizes the right to education, to be enforced gradually by a system of compulsory schooling. In *Denmark* (76), all children of school age are entitled to receive free education at the primary level. In the *Dominican Republic* (16), elementary education is compulsory; at both the elementary and secondary levels, it is free. *Ecuador* (33) guarantees the right to education; elementary and basic education are compulsory and, when public, free. In *Egypt* (38), all citizens are entitled to education through the establishment of public schools. *El Salvador* (198) gives all inhabitants the right and the duty to receive a basic education; this includes education at the primary grades which, when provided by the State, is free. *Gabon* (1) guarantees equal access to education; the State has the duty to provide public education without charge. The *German Democratic*

*Republic* (35) recognizes the right of every citizen to education; public education is left to the competence of the Laender. In *Greece* (16), elementary schooling is compulsory for at least 6 years and must be provided free by the State. *Guatemala* (98) ensures that everybody has a right to education; elementary schooling is compulsory within the limits fixed by law (94). *Guinea* (44) affirms the right to education. In *Haiti* (29), primary schooling is compulsory and public education is free at all levels; higher education is open to all. *Honduras* (150) provides that public education is to be free, and compulsory at the elementary level. *Hungary* (48) ensures the right to education by providing free and compulsory schooling. In *Iceland* (71), education and maintenance are to be defrayed from public funds if parents are unable to provide for the education of their children. *India* (29-30) forbids discrimination in education. In *Indonesia*, the constitution (31) prescribes that every citizen is entitled to education. In *Iran* (Supplementary Constitution, 18) learning and teaching are to be free. *Iraq* (33) recognizes education as a right for all; it is guaranteed by the State through the construction of appropriate schools and institutions. In *Ireland* (42), the State is required to provide free primary education; freedom of choice is ensured. *Italy* (34) prescribes free elementary education for at least eight years. *Japan* (26) proclaims that all people shall have the right to receive on equal terms an education corresponding to their abilities. In *Jordan* (6), the State is given the responsibility of providing education within the limits of its possibilities; elementary schooling is to be free and compulsory (20). *Kuwait* (13) acknowledges education as a fundamental requisite for the progress of society; education is a right for the citizens; it is to be compulsory and free at the elementary stage. In *Lebanon* (10), teaching is free in so far as it is not contrary to public order and to morals. The *Libyan Arab Republic* (28) provides that every Libyan has a right to education and lays upon the State the duty to provide public schools. *Liechtenstein* (15) requires the State to devote particular attention to education and schooling; compulsory education is given free in public schools (16). *Luxembourg* (23) prescribes that the State is to provide for compulsory and free primary education. In *Madagascar*, the constitution (preamble) declares that all children have a right to education and that the State has the duty to provide for public education. In *Malta* (11), primary education is compulsory and free. The same principle prevails in *Mexico* (3 VI). *Mongolia* (80) provides for the right to education with free tuition. In *Morocco* (13), all citizens have the right to education. *Nepal* (19) prescribes that free and compulsory education is to be provided as early as possible. *Nicaragua* (100) prescribes that elementary education is to be compulsory, and free in public schools. In *Pakistan*, the Principles of Policy (8) requires that illiteracy be eliminated and that free and compulsory education be provided as soon as possible. In *Panama* (78), elementary education is compulsory and education is free up to the secondary level. *Paraguay* (89) likewise provides for compulsory primary education; all public schools are free. *Peru* (72) requires compulsory and free education at the primary level; secondary and higher schooling are to be provided, with a move towards free education. *Poland* (61) proclaims the right to education; primary schooling is free, universal and compulsory. In *Portugal* (42), education and instruction are obligatory; the constitution further provides (43) that the State shall maintain primary, secondary and higher schools. In the *Republic of Korea* (27), all citizens have the right to receive equal education in accordance

with their abilities; elementary schooling is to be free and compulsory. *Romania* (21) recognizes the right to education, to be ensured by compulsory schooling, free at all levels. *Rwanda* (31) prescribes that the State shall create the conditions required to guarantee education; the constitution recognizes both official and private education. In *Senegal* (16), the State is to create the conditions and institutions necessary to provide education. *Somalia* (35) provides free primary schooling. In *Spain*, the Charter (5) proclaims the right of all Spaniards to receive education and instruction. In the *Syrian Arab Republic* (17), every citizen has the right to education; primary schooling is free and compulsory. *Trinidad and Tobago* (1) ensures free choice of education. In *Turkey* (50), it is the foremost duty of the State to provide for educational needs; primary schooling is compulsory and free. In the *Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic* (101) and the *Union of Soviet Socialist Republics* (121) all children have the right to education, ensured by an eight-year period of compulsory schooling and by the provision of higher educational facilities, all free of charge. The *United Republic of Cameroon* (preamble) ensures that public schools are provided for the education of youth. In *Uruguay* (70), primary and intermediate, agrarian or industrial education are compulsory and free. *Venezuela* (55) provides for compulsory schooling within the limits fixed by law; everyone has an equal right to education (78). In *Yemen* (35), schools are free within the limits of the law; all citizens have the right to education, enforced by the State through the gradual creation and development of educational institutions (36). *Yugoslavia* (44) declares that all citizens are entitled to acquire knowledge and training in any type of school; elementary school-

ing is compulsory for eight years and the community must provide the necessary facilities for that purpose. *Zaire* prohibits discrimination in education (15 and 36); it proclaims that all citizens have the right to education with freedom of choice; education is provided free (33).

### G. The right to participate freely in cultural life

32. Except for the protection of intellectual property, the right to participate in cultural life and scientific progress is often considered one of the fundamental freedoms that do not necessarily require legal formulation. While some countries have embodied this right in their constitutions, many others have not felt the need to protect it by statute.

33. *Bolivia* (191) provides that historical monuments and archaeological objects are the property of the State, which is required to register all cultural assets for custody and conservation. In *Brazil* (150), the constitution requires that the interests of authors and inventors be protected by law. *Colombia* (35) likewise requires that literary and artistic property be safeguarded. In *Costa Rica* (47), the constitution protects literary, artistic and industrial property. *Ecuador* (24) guarantees free access to culture and free participation in cultural life (28); the right to intellectual property is protected. In *Paraguay* (58), every author, inventor or investigator has exclusive rights in respect of his work for a period to be determined by law. *Poland* (61) proclaims that citizens have the right to enjoy cultural achievements and to participate in the development of the national culture. In *Spain*, the Labour Charter (II) give the workers access to all benefits of culture.



## **Part Two**

### **LESS DEVELOPED COUNTRIES**





## Chapter I

### GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

1. The aim in this part of the present study is twofold: to provide a theoretical framework for dealing with the problem of a progressive realization of economic, social and cultural rights in the particular context of the less developed countries;<sup>1</sup> and to present a critical evaluation of the progress these countries have made in the 1960s towards the achievement of the goals set by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and its ancillary instruments, with the aim of drawing conclusions and making recommendations for the purpose of the effective realization of those rights.

2. The magnitude of the problem dealt with in this part of the study is truly staggering. More than two thirds of the world's population live in the less developed countries. Although China and other socialist countries located in Asia and Latin America are excluded from this part of the report and are dealt with in other parts, much of what is observed here has a profound relevance to the conditions prevailing in the developing socialist countries as well. Regardless of their present socio-political systems, most of the less developed countries have in common a colonial heritage and an under-developed economy. Low *per capita* incomes, low calorie intakes and low literacy rates also provide the backdrop for the low levels of material and cultural life in these countries.

#### *A threefold typology*

3. The part of the world covered by this part of the study presents enormous diversity—in races, languages, religions, cultures, social structures, economic conditions, standards of living, resources, and prospects for development and the realization of fundamental economic, social and cultural rights. The only real justification for attempting a general discussion of their conditions rests on the fact that most of the countries are poor, which is to say that their levels of living and productivity are low by the standards of the wealthier regions of the world. But even in this respect there are striking variations, notably represented by some of the oil-rich countries of West Asia and North Africa (Kuwait, Qatar, Abu Dhabi and the Libyan Arab Republic) that have *per capita* incomes as high as the Western industrial countries. In terms of

technological development, there are countries, such as India and Brazil, that have achieved a status far above certain other countries in the developing world that enjoy higher *per capita* incomes. In terms of social and national integration, as well as other indices of development, there are countries, such as Israel, Lebanon and Uruguay, that properly belong to the category of the more developed countries.<sup>2</sup>

4. Aside from the problems of diversity, any classificatory scheme also faces problems of serious gaps and inaccuracies in statistical information. This is particularly true with respect to information on social and cultural aspects of development. Few of the less developed countries "can offer anything resembling comprehensive time-series data on changes in household income distribution, and for many countries even much simpler statistical information is either entirely lacking or is so suspect as to be practically useless for analytical purposes".<sup>3</sup> Furthermore, the problems of comparison are compounded by the lack of comparability of the available data.

5. To alleviate some of these problems, in addition to a general questionnaire sent out to all countries, a specific questionnaire was sent out to all the countries under consideration in this part of the study;<sup>4</sup> unfortunately, in general, the responses to these questionnaires either were not received on time or were only partial. Nevertheless, an attempt has been made to incorporate the findings in the body of the study and in the tables.

6. Notwithstanding diversity and statistical underdevelopment, social scientists have tried many different kinds of classificatory schemes for the less developed countries.<sup>5</sup> Generally speaking, these classificatory schemes have served three different purposes: description, analysis, and prescription of policies. The descriptive schemes are simple to devise and apply. By contrast, the analytical and prescriptive schemes involve some kind of classification by type that rests on a set of assumptions to be precisely defined and critically defended.

7. In this part of the study, we shall use a threefold classificatory scheme that corresponds roughly with the

<sup>2</sup> For a concise discussion of the theoretical problems of classifying under-development, see T. Szentes, *The Political Economy of Under-development* (Budapest, Adadémiai Kiadó, 1973), part one, chap. I.

<sup>3</sup> These are points made in the 1970 *Report on the World Social Situation* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.IV.13), p. 3, with respect to Asia, but they are also valid for the rest of the less developed world.

<sup>4</sup> For the text of these questionnaires, see annex I, A and C, below.

<sup>5</sup> For a review of some of the major attempts to classify societies by type, see C.E. Black, *The Dynamics of Modernization: A Study in Comparative History* (New York, N.Y., Harper and Row, 1966). For a review of the theoretical problems underlying comparison between nations in this connexion, see R.L. Merritt and S. Rokkan, eds., *Comparing Nations: The Use of Quantitative Data in Cross-National Research* (New Haven, Conn., Yale University Press, 1966).

<sup>1</sup> The terms "backward", "under-developed", "developing", "third-world", "less developed" have been used by different sources to designate the general conditions prevailing in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. For the purposes of this study, however, the latter designation seems the most accurate and appropriate. The other terms all carry assumptions that are not necessarily valid with reference to individual countries in the three continents. By contrast, the term "less developed" seems to be the most assumption-free of the above designations and assumes only a relative position of less development in relation to the more developed countries of the industrialized world. In this part of the study, other designations may also appear in the context of direct or indirect quotations from other sources, but the term "less developed" will be the one generally used throughout.



threefold concern we have with economic, social and cultural rights:

(a) *The economic typology.* *Per capita* income is used here as the simplest and most universally accepted index for the measurement of the level of economic capability and performance of a country. Unsatisfactory as it may be for other purposes, *per capita* income makes it possible to compare the level of performance, in other fields, of countries that have reached a similar stage of material advancement. Six categories will be used in this typology:

*Per capita* income group \$500 and above, designated as economic type I

*Per capita* income group \$400-499, designated as economic type II

*Per capita* income group \$300-399, designated as economic type III

*Per capita* income group \$200-299, designated as economic type IV

*Per capita* income group \$100-199, designated as economic type V

*Per capita* income group \$99 and below, designated as economic type IV

There are 25 countries within the lowest income group that were designated at the third session of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, held at Santiago, Chile, in 1972 as requiring special attention and assistance. The criteria for selecting these countries were threefold: a *per capita* GDP of less than \$100, a share of manufacturing in the GDP of less than 10 per cent, and a rate of literacy less than 20 per cent.<sup>6</sup> Clearly, *per capita* income does not tell anything about a country's length of history and cultural sophistication, about the distribution of its national wealth and income, about socio-political guarantees for the protection of the fundamental rights of man or about the extent to which the growth of its national economy is self-sustaining. Thus, in order to give even a notion of a country's stage of economic development, *per capita* income has to be supplemented by such other indices as the sectoral distribution of the labour force, the ratio of savings and investment to national income and the rate of capital accumulation.

(b) *The social typology.* The rate of literacy and life expectancy will be used here as the simplest and most universally accepted indices of the level of social development attained by a country. Like *per capita* income, these are highly unsatisfactory indices for any sophisticated analysis. Nevertheless, more than any other indices, they make it possible to classify and compare the countries that have reached a similar level of social development. For one thing, the literacy rate shows more or less what segment of the population of a country has entered into a modern literate national communication system.<sup>7</sup> Secondly, the literacy rate is a suggestive index for the level of national integration. In the less developed countries, where diverse ethnic groups and languages abound, national integration is a process extremely important to the mobilization of human resources for development. Finally the literacy rate correlates rather closely with the other indices of social and political development and may therefore be used to suggest the degree of access to social services and participation in the national political life. Here, the less developed countries will be divided into five different groups according to literacy rate:

<sup>6</sup> See para. 72 below (table II. 24).

<sup>7</sup> Communication theorists rightly attach a great deal of importance to this because a wholly new horizon opens to an individual as a result of his being put in touch, through the printed word, with a community much larger than his own. See K. Deutsch, *Nationalism and Social Communications*, rev. ed. (Cambridge, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1965).

Literacy rate group 80 per cent and above, designated as type I

Literacy rate group 60-79 per cent, designated as type II

Literacy rate group 40-59 per cent, designated as type III

Literacy rate group 20-39 per cent, designated as type IV

Literacy rate group 19 per cent and below, designated as type V

Life expectancy, by contrast, is an index suggestive of the general health conditions in a country. It ranges between 20 or 30 years in some African countries and 70 or above in some advanced Latin American countries. For this index, the following classification is proposed:

Life expectancy group 70 years and above, designated as type I

Life expectancy group 60-69 years, designated as type II

Life expectancy group 50-59 years, designated as type III

Life expectancy group 40-49 years, designated as type IV

Life expectancy group 39 years and below, designated as type V

(c) *The cultural-regional typology.* The third type of classification is based on the assumption of a culture area. We are assuming that certain countries located in the same region have enough in common culturally (in terms of religion, language, art, myths and folklore, historical memory etc.) to justify, for certain purposes, considering them as a group. In this context, the purpose is, of course, the consideration of the state of economic, social and cultural rights. It has been taken for granted that these rights are guaranteed—particularly in the less developed countries—not by formal laws and sanctions but by the informal social and cultural mechanisms that a society develops over long years of community experience. For this reason, a cultural-regional typology of the less developed countries would permit certain generalizations to be made about each culture area that may not be equally valid for the other areas. Religion and language, the simplest and most universally accepted criteria, have been chosen for this typology. On that basis, four culture regions have been identified:

- (i) North Africa and West Asia—the Islamic world;
- (ii) South and East Asia—the Hindu-Buddhist world;
- (iii) Central and South America—the Latin Catholic world;
- (iv) Africa south of the Sahara—the syncretic religious world.

8. Table II.1 presents the basic data for the threefold typology of the less developed countries. It provides the latest available statistics on *per capita* income, literacy rates, life expectancy and the religious, linguistic and, where applicable, racial-ethnic<sup>8</sup> composition of population. The countries are grouped into the four distinct cultural-regional types detailed in paragraph 7<sup>9</sup> and each country is given its appropriate designation in the economic and social types defined in the same paragraph. The table thus provides a composite picture of the enormous diversity of the less developed countries with their different economic, social and cultural conditions.

<sup>8</sup> While the author rejects the concept of race and of the ethnic relations it implies, its use has been unavoidable in the writing of this report because of the nature of prejudice and discrimination itself. The terms "European", "Asian", "African", and "mixed" are used to designate the "white", "Asiatic", "black" and "coloured" racial types. The designations suggest only the origin of the groups, without any prejudice whatsoever as to their status.

<sup>9</sup> There are countries, such as Indonesia, Mauritania, Pakistan, Somalia and the Sudan, that do not fall neatly into the same geographic region as others of the Islamic countries. Nevertheless, these countries are here included in the Islamic world (West Asia and North Africa).

9. This is, admittedly, a short cut to the solution of the problem of the typology of the less developed countries, but it seems to be the most practical approach. Nevertheless, some warnings are in order. In the first place, the variables chosen as the basis for the typology are at best only suggestive. It has already been noted that *per capita* income suggests only the level of material advancement a country may have reached, but it does not tell us anything about the growth prospects and the distribution of national income and wealth. The literacy rate is perhaps an even more inadequate measure of the level of social development and needs to be supplemented by such other data as school enrolment ratios at all levels of the educational system, school curriculum, the content of what is being taught, life expectancy, hospital beds per thousand, doctors and nurses per thousand, as well as data on the distribution of wealth, income and opportunities, in order to provide a fuller view of the educational, medical and general conditions of social inequality. Such data are presented in the relevant chapters of this part of the report, but here only a few key variables are used to provide a simple method of classification. However, because of its suggestive value as a measure of the general conditions of public health, a column on life expectancy has been added, to compare it with the rest of the key data included in the table.

10. It should be noted also that table II.1 gives no information on the question of a country's level of commitment to the progressive realization of social, economic and cultural rights. The quality of a country's political leadership and the degree of its commitment to social justice largely determine the strategy it chooses for the fulfilment of these rights. The strategy of economic development this leadership chooses, the social, political and other values it upholds, the amount of general public participation and national consolidation it succeeds in mobilizing for the realization of its goals, the charity and humanity of its goals and purposes—all these will have a profound bearing on the quality of the social, economic and cultural life of its citizens. Decisions on land policy, the kind and degree of industrial development, the choice of technology, the role of the private sector vis-à-vis the public sector, income policy (if any), social development policy (if any), planning methods and mechanisms etc. are also directly related to the quality of the political leadership and the effort it is willing to expend on the realization of social, economic and cultural rights. The distribution of the government budget gives some insight into the position of each country with respect to these issues. The progress each country has made within the past decade in the fields of major concern to this study will provide other insights. However, a country's position on this score would have to be dealt with ultimately in the context of its own unique conditions.

11. The data on the religious, linguistic and ethnic composition of the population provide no guidance with respect to many other aspects of cultural conditions. It is well known that a country's stage of cultural development as expressed in the length of its recorded history, the development of its language and literature, the strength of its social institutions and the subtlety of the social norms it has developed for the resolution of conflicts (for instance, the tradition of holding exhaustive discussions in the Chinese family to resolve internal family conflicts) has something to do with the way fundamental human rights are protected in its society. It is no exaggeration to claim

that sometimes a country with a long history and high culture but a low level of *per capita* income may be in a better position to protect these rights for the benefit of everyone than a country with a higher *per capita* income but no long-standing social and cultural mechanisms for social amelioration.

12. The degree of cultural integration a country has achieved within the context of its political system largely determines what rights are fulfilled, to what extent, and on the basis of what kind of discriminatory practices. This issue will be taken up and thoroughly analysed in terms of the proposed cultural-regional divisions and subdivisions of the less developed world.<sup>10</sup>

### Synopsis

13. This part of the study is organized round four key concepts: expectations, constraints, imbalances and remedies (strategic and tactical). The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the Declaration on Social Progress and Development<sup>11</sup> and ancillary instruments have set forth a series of international standards and expectations that have also made their impact on the national expectations in the countries of the less developed world. The so-called revolution of rising expectations is, indeed, a measure of the impact of international norms and standards of consumption on the general level of public expectations in the less developed countries. The international standards are obviously documented by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and its ancillary instruments, while the national norms and standards are formally registered in the legal guarantees of economic, social and cultural rights in the constitutional and legislative enactments of each country. The legal aspects of the conditions in the less developed countries, as well as in other countries, have already been examined in part one of the study.

14. However, expectations, whether nationally or internationally generated, run into a whole series of constraints imposed on each country by the objective possibilities it faces. In the less developed countries, there is often a wide gulf separating expectations and constraints. This has produced a whole series of imbalances and crises in the different areas of economic, social and cultural life. In conformity with the threefold concerns dealt with in paragraph 7 of the present chapter the existing realities and trends (constraints) and the resulting imbalances and crises in the different areas of economic, social and cultural life in the less developed countries are examined in chapters II, III, and IV below.

15. Chapter II (Economic conditions) deals with realities, trends and imbalances in population growth, income and income growth and employment and unemployment and concludes by identifying the strategic bottle-necks of the Second United Nations Development Decade.

16. Chapter III (Social conditions) deals with the realities, trends and imbalances in social conditions. Some problems of measurement in making comparisons between the living standards in different countries will be examined, and an attempt will be made to demonstrate, on the basis

<sup>10</sup> See chap. IV, sect. B, of this part, below.

<sup>11</sup> General Assembly resolution 2542 (XXIV), reproduced in *Human Rights: A Compilation of International Instruments of the United Nations* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.73.XIV.2), p. 97.

TABLE II.1  
Less developed countries and territories: a threefold economic, social and cultural typology

THE ISLAMIC WORLD  
WEST ASIA AND NORTH AFRICA

	Income per capita <sup>a</sup>	Literacy rate <sup>a</sup>	Life expectancy <sup>a</sup>	Religious groups (% of population)	Ethnic or linguistic groups (% of population)
Afghanistan .....	VI	V	V	Sunni Moslem (80+) Shii Moslem (20+)	Pushtun (50+) Tajik Hazara
Algeria .....	IV	V	III	Sunni Moslem (89) Christian (11)	Arab (72) Berber (14) French (14)
Bahrain .....	II	IV	..		
Democratic Yemen .....	V	V	IV		
Egypt .....	V	IV	III	Sunni Moslem (89) Shii Moslem (2) Christian (9)	Arab
Indonesia .....	V	III	IV		
Iran .....	I	III	III	Shii Moslem (94) <sup>b</sup> Sunni Moslem (4) Christian, Jewish, Zoroastrian Others	Persian (67+) Turk (15+) Kurd (7+) Others
Iraq .....	III	IV	III	Shii Moslem (50+) Sunni Moslem (50-) Christian (3)	Arab (80) Kurd (18)
Jordan .....	IV	IV	III	Sunni Moslem (94) Christian (6)	Arab
Kuwait .....	I	III	II		
Lebanon .....	I	I	..	Sunni Moslem (21) Shii Moslem (15) Maronite (29) Christian (6) Others (25)	Arab
Libyan Arab Republic .....	I	IV	III	Sunni Moslem (94) Christian (6)	Arab (94) Italian (6)
Mauritania .....	V	V	IV		
Morocco .....	V	IV	III	Sunni Moslem (93) Christian (6)	Berber (60+) Arab (30+) French (6)
Oman .....	IV	..	..		
Pakistan .....	V	V	III	Muslim (85.9) Hindu (12.9) Christian (0.7) Buddhist (0.4)	Bengali (54.4) Punjabi (27.6) Pashtu (6.6) Sindhi (5.1) Urdu (3.2) Baluchi (1.2)
Qatar .....	I	..	..		
Saudi Arabia .....	III	..	IV	Sunni Moslem	Arab
Somalia .....	IV	..	V	Moslem (99) Protestant (less than 1) Catholic (less than 1)	African (99.55) Others and unknown (1) European (0.45) Other, non-African (few)
Spanish Sahara .....	IV	..	..		
Sudan .....	V	V	IV		Arab (70) Nilotic and Nigro tribes (30)
Syrian Arab Republic .....	IV	IV	III		
Tunisia .....	IV	IV	III	Sunni Moslem (91) Christian (7)	Arab, Berber French (7)
Turkey .....	III	III	III		
United Arab Emirates .....	I	..	..		
Yemen .....	IV	V	IV		
<i>Other countries of the area</i>					
Cyprus .....	I	II	II		
Israel <sup>c</sup> .....	I	I	I	Jewish (50) Sunni Moslem (12) Christian (3)	Hebrew, approx. (54) Arabic, approx. (12) Yiddish, approx. (10)

TABLE II.1 (continued)  
THE HINDU-BUDDHIST WORLD  
SOUTH AND EAST ASIA

	Income per capita <sup>a</sup>	Literacy rate <sup>a</sup>	Life expectancy <sup>a</sup>	Religious groups (% of population)	Ethnic or linguistic groups (% of population)
Bhutan .....	VI	..	..		
Brunei .....	I	III	..		
Burma .....	VI	II	V	Buddhist (82) Muslim (7) Hindu (5) Christian (2)	Burmese (75) Indian (9) Chinese (5) Karew Shan Chin Kachin (5) Others (6)
Fiji .....	III	..	..		
Hong Kong .....	I	II	I		
India .....	V	IV	III	Hindu (85.0) Muslim (9.9) Christian (2.3) Sikh (1.7) Jain (0.4)	Hindi, Urdu Hindustani Punjabi (42.0) Telugo (9.3) Marathi (7.6) Tamil (7.4) Bengali (7.0) Gujarati (4.6) Kannada (4.1) Malayalam (3.8) Oriya (3.7) Assamese (1.4) Khmer (85) Annamese Laotian Malay Chinese Laotian (95) Khmer Annamese
Khmer Republic .....	V	III	III	Buddhist (85)	
Laos .....	V	V	III	Buddhist (85)	
Malaysia .....	III	III	IV		
Maldives .....	VI	..	..		
Nepal .....	VI	V	V		
Philippines .....	IV	II	III	Christian (93) Muslim (4)	Malay Chinese Spanish
Republic of Korea .....	IV	IV	..		
Republic of Viet-Nam .....	V	..	III	Buddhist Confucian } (85) Muslim (2) Christian (1)	Annamese (85) Khmer Chinese Malay
Singapore .....	I	II	II		
Sri Lanka .....	V	II	II	Buddhist (64.4) Hindu (19.9) Christian (8.8) Muslim (6.7)	Sinhalese (61.4) Tamil (23.3) Sinhalese and Tamil (8.7) English and Sinhalese (2.9) English, Sinhalese, Tamil (1.0) English (0.2)
Thailand .....	V	II	III	Buddhist (94) Muslim (3)	Thai (85) Karew Khmer Malay Chinese (9.5)

THE LATIN CATHOLIC WORLD  
CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA

	Income per capita <sup>a</sup>	Literacy rate <sup>a</sup>	Life expectancy <sup>a</sup>	Religious groups (% of population)	Ethnic or linguistic groups (% of population)
Argentina .....	I	I	II		Indian (0.38)
Bahamas .....	I	I	..		
Barbados .....	I	I	II		
Bermuda .....	I	I	..		
Bolivia .....	V	IV	IV		Indian (50.00)
Brazil .....	IV	II	II		Indian (2.70)



TABLE II.1 (continued)  
THE LATIN CATHOLIC WORLD (continued)  
CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA (continued)

	Income per capita <sup>a</sup>	Literacy rate <sup>a</sup>	Life expectancy <sup>a</sup>	Religious groups (% of population)	Ethnic or linguistic groups (% of population)
British Honduras [Belize] .....	I	III	IV		
Chile .....	I	I	II		Indian (2.58)
Colombia .....	IV	II	III		Indian (0.91)
Costa Rica .....	I	I	II		Indian (0.64)
Ecuador .....	IV	II	II		Indian (40.00)
El Salvador .....	IV	III	III		Indian (20.00)
Guadeloupe .....	I	I	II		
Guatemala .....	III	IV	III		Indian (55.44)
Guyana .....	III	I	III		
Haiti .....	VI	V	IV		
Honduras .....	IV	III	IV		Indian (9.54)
Jamaica .....	I	I	II		
Martinique .....	I	I	II		
Mexico .....	I	II	II		Indian (27.91)
Netherlands Antilles .....	I	..	..		
Nicaragua .....	III	III	III		Indian (23.90)
Panama .....	I	II	II		Indian (10.90)
Paraguay .....	IV	II	III		Indian (4.16)
Peru .....	III	II	III		Indian (46.23)
Surinam .....	I	..	II		
Trinidad and Tobago .....	I	I	II		
Uruguay .....	I	I	II		
Venezuela .....	I	II	II		Indian (2.79)

THE SYNCRETIC RELIGIOUS WORLD  
AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

	Income per capita <sup>a</sup>	Literacy rate <sup>a</sup>	Life expectancy <sup>a</sup>	Religious groups (% of population)	Ethnic or linguistic groups (% of population)
Angola .....	IV	V	V	Moslem (less than 1) Protestant (4) Catholic (19) Others and unknown (77)	African (97.4) European (1.9) Other, non-African (0.7)
Botswana .....	VI	IV	..		
Burundi .....	VI	V	V		
Cameroon (United Republic of) .....	V	V	V	Moslem (3) Protestant (5) Catholic (15) Others and unknown (77)	African (99.6) European (0.4) Other, non-African (Few)
Central African Republic .....	V	V	V		
Chad .....	VI	V	V		
Congo .....	IV	IV	V		
Dahomey .....	VI	V	V		
Ethiopia .....	VI	V	V	Moslem (31) Protestant (30) Catholic (less than 1) Others and unknown (30)	
Gabon .....	III	V	IV		
Gambia .....	V	V	IV		
Ghana .....	V	IV	V	Moslem (5) Protestant (0.8) Catholic (6) Others and unknown (81)	African (99.82) European (0.14) Other, non-African (0.04)
Guinea .....	VI	V	V		African (99.7) European (0.3) Other, non-African (Few)
Guinea-Bissau .....	IV	V	V		
Ivory Coast .....	IV	IV	V		
Kenya .....	IV	IV	IV	Moslem (4) Protestant (6) Catholic (5) Others and unknown (85)	African (96.2) European (0.8) Other, non-African (3.0)

TABLE II.1 (concluded)

**THE SYNCRETIC RELIGIOUS WORLD (continued)**  
**AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA (continued)**

	<i>Income per capita<sup>a</sup></i>	<i>Literacy rate<sup>a</sup></i>	<i>Life expectancy<sup>a</sup></i>	<i>Religious groups (% of population)</i>	<i>Ethnic or linguistic groups (% of population)</i>
Lesotho .....	VI	III	IV		
Liberia .....	IV	V	V	Moslem (20) Protestant (3) Catholic (1) Others and unknown (85)	African (99.96) European (0.04) Other, non-African (Few)
Madagascar .....	V	IV	V		
Malawi .....	VI	V	V		
Mali .....	VI	V	V		
Mauritania .....	V	V	IV		
Mauritius .....	IV	II	II		
Mozambique .....	IV	V	IV	Moslem (2) Protestant (1) Catholic (3) Others and unknown (94)	African (98.4) European (0.9) Other, non-African (0.7)
Namibia <sup>d</sup> .....	I	IV	..		
Niger .....	VI	V	V		African (99.95) European (0.05) Other, non-African (Few)
Nigeria .....	VI	IV	V	Moslem (34) Protestant (4) Catholic (2) Others and unknown (60)	
Rwanda .....	VI	V	..	Moslem (less than 1) Catholic (23) Others and unknown (77)	
Senegal .....	IV	V	V		
Sierra Leone .....	V	V	IV	Moslem (11) Protestant (3) Catholic (5) Others and unknown (81)	
Somalia .....	VI	V	..	Moslem (99) Protestant (less than 1) Catholic (1) Others and unknown (1)	African (99.55) European (0.45) Other, non-African (Few)
Southern Rhodesia .....	IV	IV	III		
Swaziland .....	V	IV	IV		
Togo .....	V	V	V	Protestant (3) Catholic (11) Others and unknown (86)	
Zaire .....	VI	V	IV	Moslem (less than 1) Protestant (10) Catholic (20) Others and unknown (70)	African (99.5) European (0.5) Other, non-African (Few)
Zambia .....	IV	III	IV		

Sources: *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1); *Demographic Yearbook 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F.71.XIII.1); *Social Change and Social Development Policy in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.70.II.G.3); UNESCO, *Statistical Yearbook 1970—Annuaire statistique 1970* (Paris, 1971); UNESCO, *Literacy 1969-1971: Progress Achieved in Literacy throughout the World* (Paris, 1972); International Monetary Fund and World Bank Group, *Finance and Development*, vol. 9, No. 1 (Washington, D.C., March 1972); G. A. Almond and J. S. Coleman *et al.* *The Politics of the Developing Areas* (Princeton, N.J.) (copyright © 1960 by Princeton

University Press). (Material reprinted by permission of Princeton University Press.)

<sup>a</sup> For an explanation of the numbers in this column, see paragraph 7 of the present chapter.

<sup>b</sup> Iranian Government, population census 1966.

<sup>c</sup> The religious and linguistic composition of the population are estimates made before the 1967 war.

<sup>d</sup> Data represent South African and Namibia.

of the available data, the inequalities in wealth, income and opportunities. In that chapter, the existing conditions in the different sectors of social life, in relation to food and nutrition, health, education, housing, social security and social welfare, are also examined.

17. In chapter IV (Cultural conditions) the cultural conditions in terms of the international rule of non-discrimination and on the basis of the cultural-regional divisions proposed above (the Islamic world (West Asia and North Africa), the Hindu-Buddhist world (South and East Asia), the Latin Catholic world (Central and

South America), and the syncretic religious world (sub-Saharan Africa)) are examined. These four culture areas have enough in common in terms of the religious, linguistic and ethnic composition of their population, as well as their social structures, to provide a basis for certain generalizations of regional significance. There are still, however, considerable variations within each culture area that call for further subdivisions. Hence, within each of the four major regions, some subregions will be defined for the purpose of arriving at generalizations pertinent to their own unique conditions.

18. The South Asian and East Asian countries (roughly the ECAFE region) have certain cultural and economic features in common: a Buddhist cultural background with some variations, ancient settlements and civilizations, a high population density, rapid rates of population growth, a colonial heritage, extremely low *per capita* incomes and generally very low standards of material life.

19. Similarly the countries of Africa south of the Sahara have certain features in common. Aside from Southern Rhodesia and the Republic of South Africa, which are special cases, the region constitutes a Black Africa that has recently gained independence or is in the throes of the independence struggle, that is still torn by the disintegrating effects of its colonial heritage and of its own tribal social structure and that shows in many cases all the symptoms of standards of material life below the poverty line.

20. With the exception of Israel and Lebanon, West Asian and North African countries are all Islamic in religion and culture. Although poverty is the predominant feature, *per capita* incomes vary enormously from the highest to the lowest in the world. Oil income has generally been the key factor here. Thus, the countries in this region that enjoy substantial oil revenues are in an enviable position for the protection of economic, social and cultural rights, while others face essentially the problems that are the common lot of less developed countries.

21. By world standards, the Latin American countries are generally in the middle-income category (*per capita* incomes range from \$90 in Haiti to \$1 184 in the Netherlands Antilles, with the most populated countries falling into the \$300-\$600 range); as in West Asia and North Africa, the gap between the very rich and the very

poor is enormous. Moreover, the Latin American States enjoy a relatively higher degree of racial integration and cultural homogeneity. However, in some countries, there are sizable non-European minorities. Nevertheless, Latin America is perhaps at present in a better position to guarantee and implement the rights under consideration than are, generally speaking, the Asian and African regions.

22. In chapter V (The international context) some international aspects of the problem are examined: the widening gap between the rich and poor nations, the continuing problem of world-wide poverty, the continuing problem of capital scarcity in the less developed countries and the need for the transfer of resources from rich to poor countries, the continuing effects of the trends working against the less developed countries in international trade and the continuing drain of highly trained manpower from poor to rich countries.

23. In view of the existing inadequacies of living standards in the less developed countries and the insufficiency of external aid, the Special Rapporteur will argue, in his general conclusions and recommendations in part six of this study, for the need to adopt a unified and integrated approach to planning in which the social, cultural, political, legal and institutional aspects of planning will receive the same attention as was in the past mainly devoted to the setting of quantitative economic targets. While noting that the trend in planning for the Second United Nations Development Decade and in the setting of country programmes under UNDP has been in that direction, the Special Rapporteur will stress the need to plan development with a view to the fulfilment of the human rights of individuals and to establish methods for appraising the impact of development on individuals.



## Chapter II

### ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

24. In this part of the study, which is primarily concerned with *de facto* conditions and the problems and prospects they portend, the present chapter will deal with specific economic conditions, and in chapters III to V the social, cultural-regional and international aspects of economic, social and cultural rights in connexion with the less developed countries will be analysed.

25. As is fairly well known, law and realities diverge widely, perhaps everywhere, but they diverge even more widely in the less developed countries. This divergence has been singled out by many observers as possibly one of the most pervasive features of the less developed world.<sup>12</sup>

26. In order to depict the realities, trends and imbalances as well as our present knowledge and the availability of statistical evidence allow, the author is assuming here a pragmatic approach. Since most of the data from international sources are given on the basis of sectoral divisions, this study, for the most part, conforms to that pattern. To present a factual account of the quality of life in the less developed countries, the present chapter offers a comparative analysis of their situation with respect to population pressures, income and income growth, employment and unemployment, the state of science and technology and the strategic economic bottle-necks of the present decade.

27. Furthermore, in order to present a dynamic and up-to-date view of the existing trends in the less developed world, the data are taken, as far as possible, from the 1960s. In some areas, where quantitative estimates are available, the trends are projected into the distant future.

28. Finally, the most salient over-all economic imbalances are summarized in section D of this chapter. It will be argued here and in subsequent chapters that if present

trends are not reversed a series of developmental bottle-necks and crises, which are already being felt in the less developed countries, may result. The consequences of these imbalances and crises will be analysed, with particular reference to the obstacles they present to the fulfilment of economic, social and cultural rights.

29. To make even partially valid generalizations on the economic conditions of the less developed countries, however, it is necessary to begin with an appreciation of the enormous differences in their levels of income, ranging from a *per capita* income of around \$4 000 in some of the West Asian oil-producing countries to *per capita* incomes as low as \$60 in some of the African countries. In table II.1, the less developed countries are classified with respect to their positions in this range. Tables II.2 and II.3 supplement that information by presenting the concentration of population in the different income groups and the concentration of countries in the different income groups by continents. A cursory look at these tables shows that more than 60 per cent of the population of the less developed world live in countries with *per capita* incomes of less than \$100 and that most of these countries are concentrated in Africa and Asia. Asia, with more than 78 per cent of its population living in countries below the \$100 mark, may be considered as the poorest continent; Latin America, with its concentration of people in the middle income countries (\$301–\$500 plus) may be viewed as considerably better off than the rest of the less developed world.

30. The economic situation of the less developed countries will be examined in this chapter only in terms of their internal conditions. The external relations of those countries will be considered in chapter V on international conditions. Such problems as the general scarcity of capital, the low level of technology, the low level of manpower development, the under-developed state of natural resources, which are all parts of the "under-development" syndrome are also too well known to call for comment. In

<sup>12</sup> See particularly Gunnar Myrdal's analysis of the "soft State" in *The Challenge of World Poverty: A World Anti-Poverty Program in Outline* (London, The Penguin Press, 1970), chap. 7.

TABLE II.2

Less developed regions: population distribution by income groups

	Total population (millions)	With income less than \$100		\$101–\$200		\$201–\$300		\$301–\$400		\$401–\$500		Over \$500	
		Population	Percentage	Population	Percentage	Population	Percentage	Population	Percentage	Population	Percentage	Population	Percentage
Africa .....	328	181.1	55.0	110.0	33.4	32.0	9.6	5.0	1.4	—	—	2.4	0.6
Asia .....	1 174	924.8	78.8	98.3	8.5	48.1	4.2	54.6	4.6	30.2	2.6	14.8	1.3
Latin America	291	5.4	1.8	4.8	1.6	115.3	39.7	52.9	17.2	14.6	5.2	97.4	33.5
Oceania .....	0.5	—	—	—	—	—	—	0.5	—	—	—	—	—
TOTAL	1 793.5	1 111.3	62.0	213.1	11.7	195.4	10.9	113.0	7.8	44.8	2.5	114.6	6.5

Sources: *Statistical Yearbook, 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F 71.XVII.1); *World Economic Survey, 1969–1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1); Population Reference Bureau, Inc. *World Population Data Sheet—1971* (Washington, D.C.).

TABLE II.3  
Less developed regions: distribution of *per capita* income groups, 1971

	Total number of countries	Countries with a per capita income of					
		Less than \$100	\$101-\$200	\$201-\$300	\$301-\$400	\$401-\$500	Over \$500
Africa.....	44	20	13	8	1	—	2
Asia.....	32	10	5	6	3	1	7
Latin America....	28	1	1	6	6	5	9
Oceania.....	1	—	—	—	1	—	—
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>18</b>

*Sources: Statistical Yearbook 1970 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F 71.XVII.1); World Economic Survey, 1969-1970 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1); Population Reference Bureau, Inc., World Population Data Sheet—1971 (Washington, D.C.).*

the present chapter, therefore, we shall be primarily concerned with the salient factors in the recent economic development of the less developed world, i.e., population pressures, income and employment conditions, and the strategic bottle-necks that represent the main deterrents to the realization of human rights.

#### A. Population pressures

31. In the First and Second United Nations Development Decades, from 1960 to 1980 the fastest growth of population in all the history of mankind may prove to

have taken place. Absolute numbers are expected to grow from 3 632 million in 1970 to 4 934 million in 1985, of which an increasing proportion (more than two thirds) will live in the less developed regions (see tables II.4 and II.5).

#### *The Malthusian Trap up to the year 2000*

32. A United Nations report,<sup>13</sup> the first of its kind, has put the present trends in population growth into historical

<sup>13</sup> *The World Population Situation in 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.XIII.4).

TABLE II.4  
Less developed countries and territories: population, annual growth rates, estimated population for 1971 and estimated growth rate

	Date of census	Population (millions)	Annual rate of growth (percentage)	Estimated population for 1971 (millions)	Estimated annual rate of growth (percentage)
<b>AFRICA</b>					
Algeria.....	1966	11.8	3.0	14.5	3.3
Angola.....	1960	4.8	1.3	5.8	2.1
Botswana.....	1964	0.5	3.0	0.6	2.2
Burundi.....	1965	3.2	2.0	3.7	2.3
Cameroon [United Republic of]	1960-1965	5.0	2.3	5.9	2.2
Cape Verde Islands.....	1960	0.2	2.5	..	..
Central African Republic.....	1959-1960	1.2	2.5	1.6	2.2
Chad.....	1963-1964	3.2	1.5	3.8	2.4
Comoro Islands.....	1966	0.2	3.9	..	..
Congo.....	1960-1961	0.6	..	1.0	2.3
Dahomey.....	1961	2.1	2.9	2.8	2.6
Egypt.....	1966	30.1	2.5	34.9	2.8
Equatorial Guinea.....	1960	0.2	1.8	0.3	1.4
Ethiopia.....	..	..	2.1	25.6	2.1
French Territory of the Afars and the Issas.....	1960-1961	0.1	..	..	..
Gabon.....	1960-1961	0.4	1.0	0.5	0.9
Gambia.....	1963	0.3	2.1	0.4	1.9
Ghana.....	1960	6.7	2.7	9.3	3.0
Guinea.....	1955	2.6	2.5	4.0	2.3
Ivory Coast.....	1957-1958	3.1	2.3	4.4	2.4
Kenya.....	1969	10.9	2.9	11.2	3.1
Lesotho.....	1966	0.8	2.0	1.1	1.8
Liberia.....	1962	1.0	1.9	1.2	1.9
Libyan Arab Republic.....	1964	1.6	3.7	1.9	3.1
Madagascar.....	1966	6.2	..	7.1	2.7
Malawi.....	1966	4.0	..	4.6	2.5
Mali.....	1960-1961	4.1	1.9	5.2	2.4

TABLE II.4 (continued)

	<i>Date of census</i>	<i>Population (millions)</i>	<i>Annual rate of growth (percentage)</i>	<i>Estimated population for 1971 (millions)</i>	<i>Estimated annual rate of growth (percentage)</i>
<b>AFRICA (continued)</b>					
Mauritania .....	1964-1965	1.0	2.0	1.2	2.2
Mauritius .....	1962	0.7	2.2	0.9	1.9
Morocco .....	1960	11.6	2.9	16.3	3.3
Mozambique .....	1960	6.6	1.3	7.9	2.1
Namibia .....	1960	0.5	1.8	0.6	2.0
Niger .....	1960	2.5	2.7	4.0	2.9
Nigeria .....	1963	55.7	2.6	56.5	2.6
Portuguese Guinea (Guinea- Bissau) .....	1960	0.5	0.2	..	..
Réunion .....	1967	0.4	2.3	0.5	3.1
Rwanda .....	1952	2.1	3.0	3.7	2.9
São Tomé and Príncipe .....	1960	0.1	2.2	..	..
Senegal .....	1960-1961	3.1	2.2	4.0	2.4
Seychelles .....	1960	..	2.2	..	..
Sierra Leone .....	1963	2.1	1.5	2.7	2.3
Somalia .....	..	..	2.7	2.9	2.4
Spanish North Africa .....	1960	0.2	0.9	..	..
Sudan .....	1956	10.3	2.8	16.3	3.2
Swaziland .....	1966	0.4	3.0	0.4	3.0
Togo .....	1970	2.0	2.5	1.9	2.6
Tunisia .....	1966	4.5	..	5.3	3.1
Uganda .....	1969	9.5	..	8.8	2.6
United Republic of Tanzania .....	1967	12.3	..	13.6	2.6
Upper Volta .....	1961	4.3	2.1	5.5	2.1
Zaire .....	1955-1958	12.8	2.2	17.8	2.3
Zambia .....	1969	4.1	3.1	4.4	3.0
<b>TOTAL AFRICA</b>	1960	272.9	..	354.0	2.7
<b>ASIA</b>					
Afghanistan .....	..	..	2.1	17.4	2.5
Bahrain .....	1965	0.2	3.3	..	..
Bhutan .....	..	..	..	0.9	2.2
Brunei .....	1960	0.1	3.6	..	..
Burma .....	1941	16.8	2.2	28.4	2.3
Ceylon [Sri Lanka] .....	1963	10.6	2.4	12.9	2.4
Cyprus .....	1960	0.6	1.1	0.6	0.9
Democratic Yemen .....	..	..	2.2	5.9	2.8
Hong Kong .....	1961	3.1	2.2	4.3	2.5
India .....	1961	435.5	2.5	569.5	2.6
Indonesia .....	1961	96.3	2.5	124.9	2.9
Iran .....	1966	25.8	3.0	29.2	3.0
Iraq .....	1965	8.0	3.5	10.0	3.4
Jordan .....	1961	1.7	3.6	2.4	3.3
Khmer Republic .....	1962	5.7	2.2	7.3	3.0
Kuwait .....	1965	0.5	6.6	0.8	8.2
Laos .....	..	..	..	3.1	2.5
Lebanon .....	..	..	2.5	2.9	3.0
Macau .....	1960	0.2	..	..	..
Malaysia .....	1960	..	..	11.1	2.8
Nepal .....	1961	9.4	1.8	11.5	2.2
Pakistan .....	1961	93.8	2.1	141.6	3.3
Philippines .....	1960	27.1	3.5	39.4	3.4
Portuguese Timor .....	1960	0.5	1.6	..	..
Qatar .....	..	..	10.5	..	..
Republic of Korea .....	1966	29.2	2.5	32.9	2.5
Republic of Viet-Nam .....	..	..	2.6	18.3	2.1
Ryukyu Islands .....	1965	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.7
Saudi Arabia .....	1962-1963	..	1.6	8.0	2.8
Sikkim .....	1961	0.2	2.0	..	..
Singapore .....	1970	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.4
Syrian Arab Republic .....	1970	6.3	2.8	6.4	3.3
Thailand .....	1970	34.2	3.1	37.4	3.3
Turkey .....	1965	31.4	2.5	36.5	2.7
Yemen .....	..	..	..	1.3	2.8
<b>TOTAL ASIA</b>	1960	1 659.5	..	2 104.0	2.3

TABLE II.4 (concluded)

	Date of census	Population (millions)	Annual rate of growth (percentage)	Estimated population for 1971 (millions)	Estimated annual rate of growth (percentage)
<b>WESTERN HEMISPHERE</b>					
Antigua .....	1960	0.1	0.4	..	..
Argentina .....	1970	23.4	1.5	24.7	1.5
Bahamas .....	1970	0.2	..	..	..
Barbados .....	1970	0.2	1.1	0.3	0.8
Bermuda .....	1960	..	1.4	..	..
Bolivia .....	1950	2.7	2.6	4.8	2.4
Brazil .....	1960	70.1	3.0	95.7	2.8
British Honduras [Belize] .....	1960	0.1	3.2	..	..
British Virgin Islands .....	1960	..	1.6	..	..
Chile .....	1970	8.8	2.4	10.0	2.3
Colombia .....	1964	17.5	3.2	22.1	3.4
Costa Rica .....	1963	1.3	3.3	1.9	3.8
Cuba .....	1970	8.6	2.2	8.6	1.9
Dominica .....	1960	0.1	2.7	..	..
Dominican Republic .....	1970	4.0	3.6	4.4	3.4
Ecuador .....	1962	4.6	3.4	6.3	3.4
El Salvador .....	1961	2.5	3.7	3.6	3.4
French Guiana .....	1967	0.1	4.4	..	..
Grenada .....	1960	0.1	2.0	..	..
Guadeloupe .....	1967	0.3	1.4	0.4	2.4
Guatemala .....	1964	4.3	3.1	5.3	2.9
Guyana .....	1960	0.6	3.1	0.8	2.9
Haiti .....	1950	3.1	2.0	5.4	2.5
Honduras .....	1961	1.9	3.4	2.8	3.4
Jamaica .....	1960	1.6	2.3	2.0	2.1
Martinique .....	1967	0.3	1.6	0.4	1.9
Mexico .....	1970	48.4	3.5	52.5	3.4
Nicaragua .....	1963	1.5	3.7	2.1	3.0
Panama .....	1970	1.4	3.3	1.5	3.3
Paraguay .....	1962	1.8	3.3	2.5	3.4
Peru .....	1961	9.9	3.1	14.0	3.1
Surinam .....	1964	0.3	3.5	0.4	3.2
Trinidad and Tobago .....	1960	0.8	2.0	1.1	1.8
Uruguay .....	1963	2.6	1.2	2.9	1.2
Venezuela .....	1961	7.5	3.5	11.1	3.4
<b>TOTAL WESTERN HEMISPHERE</b>	<b>1960</b>	<b>212.4</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>291.0</b>	<b>2.9</b>

Sources: *Statistical Yearbook, 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F.71.XVII.1), p. 664 et seq. International Labour Office, *Yearbook of Labour Statistics, 1970* (thirtieth issue) (Geneva); Population Reference Bureau, Inc., *World Population Data Sheet—1971* (Washington, D.C.).

TABLE II.5  
Projection of world population 1965–1985  
(Millions)

Year	World	More developed regions	Less developed regions
1965 .....	3 289	1 037	2 252
1970 .....	3 632	1 090	2 542
1975 .....	4 022	1 147	2 875
1980 .....	4 457	1 210	3 247
1985 .....	4 934	1 275	3 659

Source: *1970 Report on the World Social Situation* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.IV.13), p. 145.

perspective, while projecting them into the future. The study has reached a number of findings concerning the less developed countries, some of which are very disturbing.

33. First, as now seems likely, the 1970s may well be the decade of the fastest world population growth ever to be attained. This is primarily due to the recent sharp declines in mortality, especially in the less developed areas, where,

at the same time, fertility has remained at its high level. Table II.6 shows the estimated and conjectured average annual birth rates, death rates and rates of natural increase for currently more developed and less developed regions, from 1970 to the year 2000. As is shown by the table, in the middle of this century, the rate of natural increase in the less developed regions began a sharp turn upwards, from 12 per 1 000 to 21 per 1 000. This trend has continued during the 1960s and is expected to reach its zenith in the present decade before beginning to decline slowly. Whether, when or at what level population growth will ever be stabilized cannot be foreseen. This is basically because historical evidence shows that declining rates of natural increase of population are a function of social and economic development. Whether, when or to what extent family planning schemes will have an effect on this rate cannot be yet determined with any certainty.

34. Secondly, the dynamics of this growth are decisively influenced by the age structure of the population. Table II.7 shows the startling difference between the more developed countries and the less developed countries with respect to age structure at present and in the coming

TABLE II.6

Estimated and conjectured average annual birth rates, death rates, and rates of annual increase for currently more developed and less developed regions, 1960-1970, and selected periods from 1750 to 2000 (rates per 1 000 per year)

Period	More developed regions			Less developed regions		
	Birth rate	Death rate	Natural increase	Birth rate	Death rate	Natural increase
1960-1970 .....	20	9	11	41	17	24
Half centuries						
1750-1800 .....	38	34	4	41	37	4
1800-1850 .....	39	32	7	41	36	5
1850-1900 .....	38	29	9	40	38	2
1900-1950 .....	26	18	8	41	32	9
1950-2000 .....	20	10	10	37	14	23
Decades						
1900-1910 .....	34	21	13	41	34	7
1910-1920 .....	26	23	3	40	37	3
1920-1930 .....	28	16	12	41	31	10
1930-1940 .....	22	14	8	41	29	12
1940-1950 .....	20	15	5	40	28	12
1950-1960 .....	22	10	12	43	22	21
1960-1970 .....	20	9	11	41	17	24
1970-1980 .....	19	9	10	38	13	25
1980-1990 .....	19	10	9	34	10	24
1990-2000 .....	18	10	8	29	8	21

Source: *The World Population Situation in 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.XIII.4), p. 7.

decades. Whereas children under 15 years of age constitute 28.1 per cent of the total population in more developed areas, they make up 41.6 per cent of the total in the less developed countries. This spells out a dual disadvantage for the less developed countries: the higher proportion of young people results in lower death rates and higher fertility rates, and the lower proportion of people of working age militates against higher rates of production. The lower crude death rate that can be expected for the less developed countries, resulting from a younger population and from improvements in health will cause their population to grow rapidly for at least several decades until the fertility decline produces a fundamental alteration in age structure.

35. Thirdly, assessments of world population lead to the view that the present level of about 3 700 million may reach 6 500 million by the end of the century, and at that time it will still be growing rapidly. Tables II.8 and II.9 show the radical changes that are expected to take place in the world distribution of absolute as well as relative numbers between 1970 and 2050. The two tables are a composite of fact and fiction, but they represent perhaps the most reasonable assessment that can be made with present knowledge. Population trends for the less developed countries are, of course, less certain, but the data are based on the projection of historical trends showing continuing growth for the present century. The estimate for the year 2050 has been produced by OECD for speculative pur-

TABLE II.7

Percentage age distribution in major areas of the world, 1965 and 1985 (medium variant)

Major area	1965			1985		
	0-14 years	15-64 years	65 years and over	0-14 years	15-64 years	65 years and over
World total .....	37.4	57.6	5.0	36.3	58.2	5.5
More developed regions ..	28.1	63.0	8.9	26.2	63.4	10.4
Less developed regions ...	41.6	55.1	3.3	39.8	56.4	3.8
East Asia .....	36.9	59.0	4.1	31.7	63.0	5.3
South Asia .....	43.0	54.0	3.0	42.0	54.6	3.4
Europe .....	25.4	64.1	10.5	24.9	63.3	11.8
USSR .....	30.5	62.1	7.4	26.3	64.3	9.4
Africa .....	43.5	53.7	2.8	45.0	52.0	3.0
Northern America .....	31.0	59.8	9.2	28.6	61.6	9.8
Latin America .....	42.5	53.9	3.6	41.4	54.5	4.1
Oceania .....	32.8	59.9	7.3	32.4	60.1	7.5

Source: *The World Population Situation in 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.XIII.4), p. 50.



TABLE II.8

Estimates and conjectures of the past and future population of the world and of the currently more developed and less developed regions, in 1970 and from 1750 to 2000

Year	Population			Distribution	
	World total	More developed regions	Less developed regions	More developed regions	Less developed regions
		Millions		Percentages	
1970 .....	3 631	1 090	2 541	30.0	70.0
1750 .....	791	201	590	25.7	74.3
1800 .....	978	248	730	25.6	74.4
1850 .....	1 262	347	915	27.7	72.3
1900 .....	1 650	573	1 077	34.7	65.3
1950 .....	2 486	858	1 628	34.5	65.5
2000 .....	6 494	1 454	5 040	22.4	77.6
(2050).....	(11 000)	(2 000)	(9 000)	(18.2)	(81.8)

Source: *The World Population Situation in 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.XIII.4), p. 4.

poses. Table II.8 shows that the less developed countries' proportion of world population is currently about 70 per cent, but this will increase to about 77 per cent by the year 2000. The population of the less developed countries will rise from the level of 2 500 million in 1970 to an eventual 5 000 million by the end of the century; that is to say, it may double within the next 30 years.

36. Fourthly, concurrent with its rapid growth, world population is also undergoing a rapid process of urbanization. It is estimated that the world urban population will grow rapidly from the level of 1 000 million in 1960 to about 3 000 million or more at the beginning of the third millennium. The most rapid rate of growth is expected to occur in the less developed countries, whose urban population may grow from 400 million in 1960 to 2 000 million by the end of the century, i.e., a fivefold increase.<sup>14</sup>

37. Fifthly, international migration has lost a great deal of its former role as a major factor in population growth, but it is still playing an important part in the phenomenon of the "brain drain" from the less to the more developed countries. The United States of America has lost its former position as an absorbent of large numbers of immigrants; annual immigration into that country averaged about 600 000 from 1910 to 1915; but from 1960 to 1965, when the United States population had doubled, it averaged only about 400 000. By contrast, Australia and New

Zealand have continued to absorb large numbers of immigrants relative to the size of their populations. Some other territories, primarily Hong Kong, Israel, Kuwait and Singapore, with their own unique characteristics, also continued to absorb large numbers of immigrants during the 1950s and 1960s.

38. Sixthly, for the less developed countries, therefore, the major effect of international migration has been the loss of some of their highly trained manpower to the more developed countries, a kind of emigration most detrimental to their developmental prospects. Studies have shown that such emigration takes place principally among physicians, engineers and scientists—all key manpower factors in the improvement of economic and social conditions in the less developed countries.<sup>15</sup> International exchanges of technical personnel, through bilateral and multilateral technical assistance projects, also do not seem to have counteracted this trend.<sup>16</sup>

39. Seventhly, by contrast to the decline in international migration, internal migration is on the increase from the less developed to the more developed regions and from rural to urban centres. In the less developed countries, there is a rising flow of population from the rural to the urban centres. In spite of this trend, the rural population in

<sup>15</sup> See, for instance, Pan American Sanitary Bureau, *Migration of Health Personnel, Scientists and Engineers from Latin America* (Washington, D.C., 1966), Scientific publication No. 142.

<sup>16</sup> *The World Population Situation in 1970* . . . , para. 67.

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*, para. 8.

TABLE II.9

Average annual population growth of the world and of currently more developed and less developed regions, 1960-1970, and half centuries from 1750 to 2000

Period	Absolute increases (in millions)			Relative increases (per 1000 each year)		
	World total	More developed regions	Less developed regions	World total	More developed regions	Less developed regions
1960-1970 .....	65	11	54	20	11	24
1750-1800 .....	4	1	3	4	4	4
1800-1850 .....	6	2	4	5	7	5
1850-1900 .....	8	5	3	5	10	3
1900-1950 .....	17	6	11	8	8	8
1950-2000 .....	80	12	68	19	11	23

Source: *The World Population Situation in 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.XIII.4), p. 4.

the less developed world is expected to rise from 1 600 million in 1960 to nearly 3 000 million in the year 2000.<sup>17</sup> In general, it may be said that within the less developed countries there is a continuing drain of professional and technically skilled manpower towards the more developed regions and areas.

40. Eighthly, population planning is beginning to be incorporated in the general planning process of most countries. The situation varies enormously from one country to another, as do population policies, but it can be said that population control is no longer as much of a religious or political taboo as it used to be. Despite ideological objections, there is evidence that even the predominantly Catholic countries are disseminating birth control information among their citizens. In the less developed countries, population policies generally aim at the moderation of fertility rates through the application of birth control techniques. What actual impact these policies will have on future trends in population growth is uncertain.

41. Ninthly, the reliable elements on which the present conjectures are based consist of available historical evidence concerning the nature of the so-called demographic transition. In the more developed countries, the decline in fertility and mortality rates took place over a long period of time, along with improvements in health, education and general welfare. In the less developed countries, however, mortality rates have fallen very sharply since the 1950s and fertility rates have slightly increased; thus, the rate of natural increase of population has more than doubled (see table II.6 above). If the present trends are projected into the future, on the basis of a medium as opposed to a high or low estimation, the United Nations findings indicate that the population growth rates will be as summarized in tables II.10, II.11 and II.12. In the less developed regions, the combined average rate of natural increase will rise substantially later in the century. It should be emphasized

<sup>17</sup> *Ibid.*, para. 9.

TABLE II.10

Estimated and projected birth rates, 1950 to 2000,  
in selected regions and groups of regions  
(Per 1 000 of population)

Regions	1950-1960	1960-1970	1970-1980	1980-2000
<i>More developed regions</i> . . . . .	22	20	19	18
Europe <sup>a</sup> . . . . .	20	18	18	17
Northern America . . . . .	25	21	21	20
Soviet Union . . . . .	26	20	19	17
Japan . . . . .	21	18	18	15
Temperate South America . . . . .	28	27	25	23
Australia and New Zealand . . . . .	23	21	22	21
<i>Less developed regions</i> . . . . .	43	41	38	31
East Asia <sup>b</sup> . . . . .	39	35	29	22
South-East Asia . . . . .	46	44	41	32
Middle South Asia . . . . .	47	45	42	31
Middle East <sup>c</sup> . . . . .	47	46	44	37
Africa <sup>d</sup> . . . . .	47	47	46	44
Latin America <sup>e</sup> . . . . .	44	41	40	36

Source: *The World Population Situation in 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.XIII.4), p. 11.

<sup>a</sup> Without the Soviet Union.

<sup>b</sup> Without Japan.

<sup>c</sup> Northern Africa and south-west Asia.

<sup>d</sup> Without northern Africa.

<sup>e</sup> Without temperate South America.

TABLE II.11

Estimated and projected death rates, 1950 to 2000,  
in selected regions and groups of regions  
(Per 1 000 of population)

Regions	1950-1960	1960-1970	1970-1980	1980-2000
<i>More developed regions</i> . . . . .	10	9	9	10
Europe <sup>a</sup> . . . . .	11	10	10	11
Northern America . . . . .	9	9	9	9
Soviet Union . . . . .	9	7	8	9
Japan . . . . .	9	7	7	9
Temperate South America . . . . .	10	9	9	8
Australia and New Zealand . . . . .	9	9	8	8
<i>Less developed regions</i> . . . . .	22	17	13	9
East Asia <sup>b</sup> . . . . .	21	16	13	9
South-East Asia . . . . .	23	18	13	8
Middle South Asia . . . . .	27	19	14	9
Middle East <sup>c</sup> . . . . .	22	18	13	8
Africa <sup>d</sup> . . . . .	26	23	18	13
Latin America <sup>e</sup> . . . . .	14	11	8	6

Source: *The World Population Situation in 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.XIII.4), p. 12.

<sup>a</sup> Without the Soviet Union.

<sup>b</sup> Without Japan.

<sup>c</sup> Northern Africa and south-west Asia.

<sup>d</sup> Without northern Africa.

<sup>e</sup> Without temperate South America.

once again, however, that in the present state of our knowledge, much uncertainty remains. As is pointed out in the United Nations report referred to above, the combination of cultural and social factors that is most conducive to the limitation of families cannot be defined without great risk of ambiguity. Previously within the occidental sphere, but now also among peoples of East Asia, family limitation has progressed in line with economic and social achievement. It remains probable that

TABLE II.12

Estimated and projected rates of natural increase, 1950 to 2000,  
in selected regions and groups of regions  
(Per 1 000 of population)

Regions	1950-1960	1960-1970	1970-1980	1980-2000
<i>More developed regions</i> . . . . .	12	11	10	8
Europe <sup>a</sup> . . . . .	9	8	8	6
Northern America . . . . .	16	12	12	11
Soviet Union . . . . .	17	13	11	10
Japan . . . . .	12	11	11	6
Temperate South America . . . . .	18	18	16	15
Australia and New Zealand . . . . .	14	12	14	13
<i>Less developed regions</i> . . . . .	21	24	25	24
East Asia <sup>b</sup> . . . . .	18	19	16	13
South-East Asia . . . . .	23	26	28	24
Middle South Asia . . . . .	20	26	28	22
Middle East <sup>c</sup> . . . . .	25	28	31	29
Africa <sup>d</sup> . . . . .	21	24	28	31
Latin America <sup>e</sup> . . . . .	30	30	32	30

Source: *The World Population Situation in 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.XIII.4), p. 12.

<sup>a</sup> Without the Soviet Union.

<sup>b</sup> Without Japan.

<sup>c</sup> Northern Africa and south-west Asia.

<sup>d</sup> Without northern Africa.

<sup>e</sup> Without temperate South America.



comparable levels of economic and social development will be reached in various areas at different times. It is also probable that the response to national family planning programmes will reach a satisfactory level in various areas at different times. But even at comparable levels of development, resistance to the adoption of new family norms may vary from one culture to another. Hence, the probable rate and timing of birth-rate reductions among the world's currently less developed regions are still unpredictable.<sup>18</sup>

42. Tenthly, the impact of this population explosion on the world's general environment is similarly a matter for much thought and speculation. The two outstanding facts about the world population in our own century, as already observed, are its accelerated growth and its rapid urbanization. Table II.13 summarizes the magnitude and proportion of world population growth in urban and rural areas by major regions and at the intervals 1920, 1960 and 2000. It is significant that the population in the less developed countries is increasing substantially on every count. By the year 2000, their share of total world population will have reached 77 per cent, of urban population 64 per cent and of rural population 92 per cent. On the basis of this set of statistics alone, there is something to the theory of increasing polarization of the world between the urban and rural populations corresponding roughly with the more and the less developed regions respectively. In terms of magnitude, the population of the less developed countries has nearly doubled in the past 40 years and will probably more than double within the next 40.

43. Thus, population changes are occurring on all sides with respect to quantity as well as quality. Modifications in birth rates and death rates and migratory streams; changes in geographical distribution among countries and regions; changes in age composition; rising levels of education; improvements in health; and the shift from

dependence on agriculture to dependence on other types of economic activity—all these changes and their multi-directional consequences would appear to justify regarding this century as a revolutionary one.

44. Nevertheless, as has been pointed out in the same United Nations report,

It does not follow, however, that the conditions attending population growth and urbanization will be the same in less developed regions as they have been in more developed regions in the past. The vastly increased sizes of population in every form of settlement—the largest cities as well as in towns, villages and the open countryside—will require different forms and methods of economic and social organization than those which were successfully used in more developed countries during earlier times. Cultural, political and international circumstances likewise will cause developments to differ in many respects, as will the persistent shortage and geographical maldistribution of sources of investment capital now causing such wide disparities in regional developments. Clearly, past experience offers very limited guidance for future developments, which will have to occur on a quite different scale and under enormously different conditions. There is a need for open-mindedness, so that lessons of the past can be adapted and reinterpreted in the face of changing dimensions in the economic and social problems at hand. More than that, the persistence in purposes as they have so far been understood can become questionable, and some of the goals and aspirations of humanity may have to be formulated afresh. By the almost inevitable momentum of such sweeping change, revolutions in thought, feeling, and attitude of one kind or another, impossible to indicate in any generalized terms, can become necessary and, in fact, appear bound to occur. We cannot claim to foresee them, judge them, or predict what direction they might take.<sup>19</sup>

#### *Major sources of imbalance in population growth*

45. As the foregoing analysis of population trends in the less developed countries suggests, a number of imbalances seem to impede the social and economic progress of these

<sup>18</sup> *Ibid.*, para. 53.

<sup>19</sup> *Ibid.*, para. 81.

TABLE II.13

Estimates of total, urban and rural population in the world, Europe, other more developed regions, and less developed regions, 1920, 1960 and 2000

Regions and category of population	Population (millions)			Percentage of world total in each category		
	1920	1960	2000	1920	1960	2000
<b>World total</b>						
Total population .....	1 860	2 982	6 494	100	100	100
Urban population .....	360	985	3 234	100	100	100
Rural population .....	1 500	1 997	3 260	100	100	100
<b>Europe<sup>a</sup></b>						
Total population .....	325	425	568	17	14	9
Urban population .....	150	246	437	42	25	13
Rural population .....	175	179	131	12	9	4
<b>Other more developed regions<sup>b</sup></b>						
Total population .....	350	551	886	18	18	14
Urban population .....	110	336	742	31	34	23
Rural population .....	240	215	144	16	11	4
<b>Less developed regions<sup>c</sup></b>						
Total population .....	1 185	2 005	5 040	65	68	77
Urban population .....	100	403	2 055	27	41	64
Rural population .....	1 085	1 602	2 985	72	80	92

Source: *The World Population Situation in 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.XIII.4), p. 15.

<sup>a</sup> Not including the Soviet Union.

<sup>b</sup> Northern America, Soviet Union, Japan, temperate South America, Australia, and New Zealand.

<sup>c</sup> Rest of the world.

TABLE II.14

**Agglomerated and big-city population in three major portions of the world,  
1920, 1940, 1960 and 1980**  
(*Rough estimates, in millions*)

<i>World portion</i>	<i>1920</i>	<i>1940</i>	<i>1960</i>	<i>1980</i>
<b>Total population</b>				
World total .....	1 860	2 295	2 991	4 318
Europe .....	325	369	425	479
Other more developed regions .....	348	442	551	715
Less developed regions .....	1 187	1 474	2 015	3 124
<b>Urban population (as nationally defined)</b>				
World total .....	360	570	990	1 780
Europe .....	150	200	245	310
Other more developed regions .....	110	185	335	540
Less developed regions .....	100	185	410	930
<b>Agglomerated population (20 000 inhabitants and over)</b>				
World total .....	267	432	761	1 354
Europe .....	113	150	188	237
Other more developed regions .....	85	154	262	424
Less developed regions .....	69	128	311	693
<b>Big-city population (500 000 inhabitants and over)</b>				
World total .....	107	180	352	665
Europe .....	52	58	81	106
Other more developed regions .....	41	77	140	237
Less developed regions .....	14	35	131	322
<b>Multimillion city population (2 500 000 inhabitants and over)</b>				
World total .....	36	75	142	351
Europe .....	20	23	24	40
Other more developed regions .....	16	45	74	146
Less developed regions .....	..	7	44	165
<b>Population of super-conurbations (12 500 000 inhabitants and over)<sup>a</sup></b>				
World total .....	..	..	28 <sup>b</sup>	87 <sup>c</sup>
Europe .....	..	..	..	.. <sup>a</sup>
Other more developed regions .....	..	..	28 <sup>b</sup>	60 <sup>d</sup>
Less developed regions .....	..	..	..	27 <sup>e</sup>

Source: 1970 Report on the World Social Situation (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.IV.13), p. 153.

<sup>a</sup> Estimates for 1980 may be merely accidental results of the method of calculation.

<sup>b</sup> New York and Tokyo.

<sup>c</sup> Excluding London. Including its overspill, London may in 1980 constitute a super-conurbation with more than 13 million inhabitants.

<sup>d</sup> Tokyo, New York and Los Angeles.

<sup>e</sup> Shanghai and Mexico City.

countries. First, the prevailing high rate of population growth in the less developed regions draws heavily on their meagre resources of land and capital and inhibits a more rapid rate of progress, which is so essential to the realization of human rights.

46. Secondly, the age structure in the less developed countries tends to create a high dependency rate or a low labour participation rate. Table II.15 provides some interesting data on these trends. In contrast to the position in the more developed countries, the labour participation ratio will decline from 45.3 per cent in 1950 to 39.9 per cent in 1980. Population growth in the less developed countries was about 24 per cent in the period 1960-1970, but the active population increased by only about 19 per cent. All this reveals the consequences of the population in these countries being inordinately young.

47. Thirdly, the urbanization of the population in the less developed countries has not necessarily been accompanied by urban development and the provision of urban

housing, piped water, sewerage systems and other community facilities. Social disintegration in the urban areas, particularly in the lower income groups, is also symptomatic of the growth of urban centres without adequate urban facilities.

48. For all these reasons, as Professor Myrdal has stated, most of the less developed countries have the strongest interest in spreading birth control as soon and as effectively as possible.

#### B. Income and income growth

49. Table II.18 provides a comprehensive and detailed view of the economic performance of the less developed countries during most of the First United Nations Development Decade, 1960-1969. The table gives the total and *per capita* figures for the GDP of each country in 1967, the average annual rate of growth for 1960-1967 and 1967-1968 and the actual and planned rates of growth for the different planning periods of each country.

TABLE II.15

Economically active population by age group in the world and in the more developed and less developed countries, as percentage of total population, 1950-1980

Age group	World				More developed countries				Less developed countries			
	1950	1960	1970	1980	1950	1960	1970	1980	1950	1960	1970	1980
0-14 years .....	4.9	4.1	3.3	2.4	2.1	1.4	1.1	0.7	6.0	5.1	4.0	2.9
15-19 years .....	61.8	57.8	53.7	49.7	62.2	55.3	50.4	45.8	61.6	58.7	54.9	50.9
20-24 years .....	73.1	72.5	71.0	69.7	74.0	76.0	73.8	73.0	72.7	70.9	69.8	68.5
25-44 years .....	72.6	72.9	73.3	73.3	68.0	72.2	73.6	74.1	75.2	73.3	73.1	72.9
45-54 years .....	70.0	71.0	70.7	71.0	65.7	69.7	69.8	71.8	73.1	71.9	71.3	70.4
55-64 years .....	59.7	59.1	58.4	57.6	55.3	56.4	56.1	55.6	63.5	61.4	60.2	58.9
65 years and over .....	30.7	28.1	25.8	23.6	25.7	21.6	19.8	17.9	36.7	35.9	32.8	29.7
TOTAL	45.2	43.2	42.0	41.3	45.1	44.9	44.8	44.9	45.3	42.4	40.7	39.9

Source: International Labour Office, *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, 1970 (thirtieth issue), pp. 9-12.

TABLE II.16

Percentage of male population active, 1950-1980

Age group	World				More developed countries				Less developed countries			
	1950	1960	1970	1980	1950	1960	1970	1980	1950	1960	1970	1980
0-14 years .....	6.0	5.0	3.9	2.8	2.4	1.6	1.3	0.9	7.4	6.2	4.7	3.3
15-19 years .....	72.7	68.3	63.2	59.0	69.7	61.5	55.5	50.6	74.0	70.9	66.2	61.6
20-24 years .....	91.4	90.2	88.6	87.1	90.1	89.4	87.4	86.0	92.1	90.6	89.0	87.4
25-44 years .....	96.1	95.8	95.9	96.0	95.9	96.1	96.2	96.2	96.2	95.7	95.8	95.9
45-54 years .....	94.0	93.8	93.6	93.4	94.4	94.0	94.1	93.9	93.7	93.6	93.4	93.2
55-64 years .....	84.4	83.2	81.8	80.6	83.9	82.3	80.3	78.6	84.7	83.9	82.9	81.9
65 years and over .....	47.7	42.7	38.9	35.1	42.3	34.2	30.4	26.6	53.4	51.8	47.6	43.2
TOTAL	58.6	55.9	54.3	53.5	60.4	58.3	57.9	57.9	57.7	54.8	52.7	51.9

Source: International Labour Office: *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, 1970 (thirtieth issue), pp. 10-12.

TABLE II.17

Percentage of female population active, 1950-1980

Age group	World				More developed countries				Less developed countries			
	1950	1960	1970	1980	1950	1960	1970	1980	1950	1960	1970	1980
0-14 years .....	3.9	3.3	2.7	2.0	1.7	1.2	0.9	0.5	4.7	4.0	3.2	2.4
15-19 years .....	50.6	47.0	43.9	40.2	54.7	48.9	45.1	40.8	48.7	46.3	43.4	40.0
20-24 years .....	55.1	54.5	53.1	51.8	59.0	62.6	59.8	59.6	53.0	50.8	50.2	49.1
25-44 years .....	49.7	50.2	50.3	50.1	44.1	50.0	51.2	51.6	53.2	50.3	49.8	49.4
45-54 years .....	46.8	49.4	48.9	48.5	41.4	49.0	49.3	50.4	51.3	49.8	48.6	47.3
55-64 years .....	37.7	37.7	37.2	36.5	32.5	35.5	36.3	36.7	42.6	39.7	38.0	36.3
65 years and over .....	17.2	16.8	15.6	14.5	13.6	13.0	12.4	11.7	21.9	22.0	19.8	17.7
TOTAL	32.1	30.8	29.7	29.0	31.3	32.6	32.5	32.3	32.5	29.8	28.5	27.7

Source: International Labour Office, *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, 1970 (thirtieth issue), pp. 10-12.

50. On the basis of this table and the subsequent tables, we may make a number of generalizations on the economic performance of the less developed world. These generalizations will be examined and amplified later, but here they can be simply stated. First, the less developed countries as a whole have achieved less than the target rate of growth of 5 per cent set for the First United Nations Development Decade. Secondly, the growth in the GDP of most of the less developed countries has been largely offset by the rapid growth in population. Thirdly, there is also considerable stratification taking place among the less developed coun-

tries with respect to their original differences in income levels, augmented by great differences in rates of income growth. Fourthly, the actual rates of growth have, for the most part, fallen below the planned rates. Fifth, there is a continuing dependence on the agricultural sector of the economy, which has grown rather sluggishly. Sixth, there is also a continuing dependence on export earnings, which are still vulnerable to international price fluctuations and deteriorating terms of trade. These generalizations would have to be greatly amplified, modified and even reversed with respect to particular periods, regions and countries.

TABLE II.18

Less developed countries and territories: GDP by country and territory, 1960-1968<sup>a</sup>

	Gross domestic product, <sup>b</sup> 1967		Average annual rate of growth (percentage) <sup>c</sup>		Planned rate of growth		Actual rate of growth from beginning of plan until 1968
	Total (millions of dollars)	Per capita (dollars)	1960-1967	1967-1968	Period of plan	Percentage per annum	
<i>Developing countries<sup>d</sup></i> .....	281 831	180	4.7	6.1			
<i>Western hemisphere<sup>d</sup></i> .....	110 337	446	4.7	6.4			
Argentina .....	15 017	646	3.0	4.7	1965-1969	5.9	2.4
Barbados .....	105	423	4.6	5.6	1965-1968	4.0	6.0
Bolivia .....	756	166	5.2	7.2	1962-1971	7.0	6.0
Brazil .....	32 607	381	4.6	8.8	1968-1970	6.0	
British Honduras [Belize] .....	45	391	7.2	..			
Chile .....	5 592	612	4.9	2.6	1967-1971	5.5	2.6
Colombia .....	6 115	319	4.7	6.1	1961-1970	5.6	4.9
Costa Rica .....	694	436	6.5	8.2	1965-1968	6.2	9.1
Cuba .....	..	..	..	..			
Dominican Republic .....	1 104	284	2.9	3.1	1965-1967	..	6.2
Ecuador .....	1 310	238	4.4	4.3	1964-1973	6.2	4.5
El Salvador .....	886	281	6.1	3.7	1965-1969	6.5	4.7
Guatemala .....	1 453	308	5.1	5.6	1965-1969	5.9	5.1
Guyana .....	246	352	2.7	1.0	1966-1972	5.0-6.0	2.5
Haiti .....	412	90	1.1	1.9			
Honduras .....	592	254	5.7	5.1	1965-1969	6.6	6.0
Jamaica .....	1 044	557	5.2	7.1	1963-1968	5.0	6.6
Mexico .....	24 560	538	6.3	7.1	1966-1970	..	6.8
Netherlands Antilles .....	251	1 184	-0.4	3.0			
Nicaragua .....	676	379	7.7	4.6	1965-1969	7.0	4.3
Panama .....	801	602	8.2	6.9	1963-1970	5.5	7.3
Paraguay .....	492	228	4.5	5.4	1965-1967	5.2	4.4
Peru .....	3 591	290	6.0	3.4	1967-1970	6.0	3.4
Surinam .....	206	567	6.4	5.9	1965-1975	..	8.2
Trinidad and Tobago .....	834	826	5.4	3.0	1964-1968	5.1	4.2
Uruguay .....	1 725	620	0.1	1.2	1965-1974	4.8	-0.8
Venezuela .....	9 224	986	4.5	5.8	1965-1968	7.0	4.0
<i>Africa<sup>d</sup></i> .....	41 645	135	4.7	5.2			
Algeria .....	3 192	255	-1.5	6.1	1967-1969	..	6.1
Angola .....	898	170	2.6	3.0	1965-1967	..	2.3
Botswana .....	59	99	5.5	3.9	1968-1973	6.0	
Burundi .....	174	52	2.7	1.5	1968-1972	..	
Cameroon [United Republic of] .....	891	163	6.0	3.1	1966-1971	5.8	4.0
Central African Republic .....	178	122	1.8	4.1	1967-1970	7.0	4.1
Chad .....	241	70	2.0	2.9	1966-1970	5.9	-0.2
Congo (Democratic Republic of the) [Zaire] .....	1 353	83	2.4	7.8	1965-1969	..	4.5
Dahomey .....	208	83	1.2	9.9	1966-1970	4.0	4.5
Equatorial Guinea .....	28	100	..	..			
Ethiopia .....	1 486	63	4.6	2.9	1968-1972	6.0	
Gabon .....	238	504	5.6	3.7	1966-1970	7.5	4.4
Gambia .....	42	122	6.8	6.5	1967-1970	4.2	6.5
Ghana .....	2 063	253	2.5	1.9	1968-1970	6.0	
Guinea .....	323	87	5.0	5.8	1964-1970	..	5.6
Ivory Coast .....	1 117	279	6.9	11.6	1960-1970	7.5	7.5
Kenya .....	1 209	122	4.5	6.7	1966-1970	6.3	4.9
Lesotho .....	75	85	7.9	-1.3	1967-1971	5.0	-1.3
Liberia .....	330	297	4.8	4.9	1967-1970	..	4.9
Libyan Arab Republic .....	2 218	1 276	30.0	36.4	1963-1968	..	27.0
Madagascar .....	737	116	2.1	2.9	1964-1969	4.9	1.7
Malawi .....	274	66	3.3	-0.5	1965-1969	..	4.6
Mali .....	414	88	2.2	0.9	1961-1966	5.0	2.0
Mauritania .....	178	162	10.3	5.8	1968-1971	..	
Mauritius .....	200	258	5.4	-0.5	1966-1970	..	1.8
Morocco .....	2 688	190	2.9	13.0	1965-1967	3.7	4.2
Mozambique .....	1 131	159	5.6	4.3	1965-1967	..	4.8
Namibia .....	420	707	7.6	7.9	1967-1971	..	7.9
Niger .....	350	95	5.7	1.3	1967-1970	4.7	1.3
Nigeria .....	4 321	70	1.3	-6.5	1962-1968	4.0	-0.5
People's Republic of the Congo [Congo] .....	228	265	7.7	7.0	1964-1968	7.2	9.1
Rwanda .....	151	46	2.7	2.1	1965-1969	..	2.7
Senegal .....	787	217	1.8	9.1	1965-1969	5.5	3.7

TABLE II.18 (continued)

	Gross domestic product, <sup>b</sup> 1967		Average annual rate of growth (percentage) <sup>c</sup>		Planned rate of growth		Actual rate of growth from beginning of plan until 1968
	Total (millions of dollars)	Per capita (dollars)			Period of plan	Percentage per annum	
			1960-1967	1967-1968			
<i>Africa (continued)</i>							
Sierra Leone .....	393	161	3.8	12.6	1966-1971	..	8.1
Somalia .....	159	61	3.5	4.4	1968-1970	..	
Southern Rhodesia .....	1 093	229	3.6	2.4	1965-1968	..	2.5
Sudan .....	1 568	109	4.1	8.8	1961-1970	5.0	3.1
Swaziland .....	75	194	8.8	4.4	1965-1968	..	1.4
Togo .....	229	133	7.1	7.2	1966-1970	5.6	3.7
Tunisia .....	1 011	210	3.7	6.8	1965-1968	6.5	2.1
Uganda .....	774	98	4.3	2.5	1966-1971	6.3	2.8
United Arab Republic [Egypt] ...	5 773	187	3.9	1.0	1960-1970	..	3.5
United Republic of Tanzania ....	874	73	3.4	3.5	1964-1969	6.7	3.8
Upper Volta .....	246	49	2.4	5.0	1967-1970	4.0	5.0
Zambia .....	1 248	316	7.1	4.4	1966-1970	11.7	4.7
<i>Asia<sup>d</sup></i> .....	129 849	129	5.0	6.2			
Afghanistan .....	1 383	88	2.0	3.6	1967-1971	4.3	3.6
Burma .....	1 803	70	2.7	11.4	1966-1969	8.0	4.8
Ceylon [Sri Lanka] .....	1 862	159	3.9	11.5			
Fiji .....	165	340	5.7	7.1			
Hong Kong .....	2 328	602	11.6	12.5			
India .....	41 467	81	3.6	2.4	1969-1973	..	
Indonesia .....	10 303	94	2.1	6.7	1969-1973	..	
Iran .....	7 881	300	7.8	10.9	1968-1973	9.0	
Iraq .....	2 381	273	5.8	13.8	1965-1970	8.0	4.9
Israel .....	4 031	1 510	7.3	15.2	1965-1969	..	5.6
Jordan .....	544	267	10.0	-3.9	1964-1970	7.3	5.2
Khmer Republic .....	957	134	2.8	-23.3	1968-1972	5.0	
Kuwait .....	2 442	3 757	6.1	9.1	1967-1972	6.5	9.1
Laos .....	194	70	2.0	7.8	1966-1967	..	8.2
Lebanon .....	1 220	484	3.1	7.6	1965-1969	..	2.3
Malaysia .....	3 251	324	6.0	4.1	1965-1970	4.9	4.9
Maldives .....	..	..	..	..			
Nepal .....	872	83	2.4	3.5	1965-1969	3.6	4.8
Pakistan .....	13 875	129	5.9	6.0	1965-1969	6.9	6.4
People's Democratic Republic of Yemen [Democratic Yemen] ..	230	200	..	..			
Philippines .....	10 572	305	4.5	2.8	1967-1969	6.2	2.8
Republic of Korea .....	4 733	159	8.1	15.7	1967-1971	10.0	15.7
Republic of Viet-Nam .....	2 849	168	2.7	-5.3	1968-1972	..	
Saudi Arabia .....	3 201	458	8.7	6.5			
Singapore .....	1 247	638	4.9	38.9	1966-1967	5.0	22.0
Syria [Syrian Arab Republic] ....	1 177	211	7.8	6.8	1966-1970	7.2	6.7
Thailand .....	5 074	155	8.1	8.0	1967-1971	8.5	8.0
Yemen .....	550	110	..	..			

Source: *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), pp. 177-179.

<sup>a</sup> Calendar years except for Afghanistan, Australia, Burma, Egypt, Haiti, India, Iran, Kuwait, Lesotho, Nepal, New Zealand, Nigeria, Pakistan, Swaziland and Sudan and the plans of Afghanistan, Burma, Ethiopia, Gambia, Ghana, India, Indonesia, Iraq, Japan, Kuwait, Lesotho, Mauritania, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines

and the Sudan, for which the data refer to fiscal years beginning in the years indicated.

<sup>b</sup> At market prices.

<sup>c</sup> Compound rate between terminal years. Based on GDP at market prices.

<sup>d</sup> Regional subtotals are based on the data for the countries listed.

but they hold good substantially for the less developed world as a whole.

### *Objectives of the First United Nations Development Decade*

51. The objective of the First United Nations Development Decade was declared by General Assembly resolution 1710 (XVI) to be as follows:

to accelerate progress towards [the] self-sustaining growth of the economy of the individual nations and their social advancement so as to attain in each underdeveloped country a substantial increase in the rate of growth, with each country setting its own target, taking

as the objective a minimum rate of growth of aggregate national income of 5 per cent at the end of the Decade.<sup>20</sup>

52. The emphasis, in this statement of purpose, on maintaining a certain rate of growth (5 per cent) in aggregate output is typical of the development thinking in the past decade. Even assuming such a rate of growth, however, most developing countries would still fail to double their *per capita* income within a generation (25 years). Population growth rates in a number of African, Asian and Latin

<sup>20</sup> For further elaboration of the objective, see *The United Nations Development Decade: Proposals for Action* (United Nations publication, Sales No. 62.II.B.2), pp. 7-13.



American countries had risen into the range of from 3 to 3.5 per cent per year and a projection of mortality trends implied that population growth at such rates was likely to become more and more prevalent in these parts of the world during the 1960s, unless birth rates dropped sharply. Under these conditions, a 5 per cent increase in aggregate income would correspond to an annual increase of only 1.5 to 2 per cent in *per capita* income, and 35 to 50 years would be required to double *per capita* income.<sup>21</sup>

53. To achieve this target rate of growth, the United Nations also called for careful development planning. A development plan should consist of the following elements:

(a) Objectives and aggregate targets, primarily in terms of national income and employment;

(b) A public investment programme, with distribution of development expenditures amongst major sectors, chiefly for building up the economic and social infrastructure;

(c) A projection of private investment among various major sectors;

(d) Policy measures (especially in the fiscal, financial, foreign trade, foreign exchange and foreign investment fields) to stimulate, direct and influence private investment;

(e) A programme, co-ordinated with the programme indicated in sub-paragraph (b) above for financing public and private investment from domestic and foreign sources, including particularly the government budget and the foreign exchange budget;

(f) Sectoral programmes containing individual projects;

(g) Policies aiming at basic institutional changes, including land reform and labour policy.<sup>22</sup>

54. The experiences of the First United Nations Development Decade have somewhat modified United Nations thinking on these earlier notions of development and development planning. Before we examine these modifications, however, it is necessary to look at the trends of the 1960s.

#### *General economic performance*

55. Available data for about 100 less developed countries for the period 1960–1968 (or 1960–1967 in some cases) show that the 5 per cent target rate of growth for the First

United Nations Development Decade was not generally achieved. However, 47 per cent of the countries had surpassed the target, and another 12 per cent were within 1 per cent of reaching it.<sup>23</sup> The remaining 41 per cent had a rate of growth that fell substantially below the target.

56. There was considerable variation in the regional performances. In Latin America, a fourth of the countries achieved more than a 6 per cent rate of annual income growth, a fourth achieved less than 3 per cent and the remainder fell in the middle range of from 3 to 6 per cent. In Asia, about half the countries were in the high growth group, and less than a fourth fell below the 3 per cent level. In Africa, about 43 per cent of the countries fell into the middle range, and a third had annual growth rates of less than 3 per cent.

57. It is significant that most of the high growth countries were small in size, population and national income. Of the 29 countries achieving a rate of growth of 6 per cent a year or more, only a fifth had a gross product of more than \$3 billion in 1967: Mexico in Latin America, Iran, Israel, the Republic of Korea, Saudi Arabia and Thailand in Asia. The Libyan Arab Republic in Africa had a 1967 gross product of just over \$2 billion. Of all these countries, only Mexico had an internal market of the same order of magnitude—\$25 billion—as more developed countries such as Australia, Belgium, the Netherlands and Sweden.<sup>24</sup> In terms of population, only about 10 per cent of the population of the less developed countries as a whole was in the high-growth category. At the opposite end of the scale, about 18 per cent of the population of less developed countries lived in the lowest-growth category. The greatest proportion of the population (almost three fourths) lived in the less developed countries of the middle range of growth rate (see table II.19).

58. The regional distribution of the high and low growth countries was also lopsided. The proportion of the population in the high growth less developed countries was more than three times as great in Latin America (22 per cent) as in Asia and Africa. Correspondingly, the proportion of population in the low growth less developed countries was 5 per cent in Latin America, 16 per cent in Asia and as much as 36 per cent in Africa.

<sup>21</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 3.

<sup>22</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 10.

<sup>23</sup> *World Economic Survey, 1969–1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), pp. 9 and 10.

<sup>24</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 9.

TABLE II.19  
Production: rate of increase, by country, 1960–1968

	Distribution of GDP growth rates					
	First quartile (percentage per annum)	Population in countries at or below the first quartile (millions)	Median (percentage per annum)	Population in countries between first and third quartiles (millions)	Third quartile (percentage per annum)	Population in countries at or above the third quartile (millions)
Developing countries ..	2.7	291.0	4.6	1 153.3	6.7	157.5
Western hemisphere <sup>a</sup> .	3.1	12.7	4.9	186.3	5.8	55.8
Africa <sup>b</sup> .....	2.6	107.2	4.1	179.8	5.6	21.1
Asia <sup>c</sup> .....	2.7	166.4	5.9	813.1	8.2	59.5
Rest of world <sup>d</sup> .....	4.0	99.5	5.1	500.6	6.6	478.9

Source: *World Economic Survey, 1969–1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), p. 10.

<sup>a</sup> 25 countries.

<sup>b</sup> 44 countries.

<sup>c</sup> 26 countries.

<sup>d</sup> 36 countries.

59. It is also significant that, with the exception of Mexico, the high growth in the less developed countries received much of its impetus from external demands and the resulting export earnings:

In many instances, this came through the exploitation of a mineral resource: petroleum mining or refining in Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, the Libyan Arab Republic, Panama and Saudi Arabia, bauxite and alumina in Surinam, iron ore in Mauritania and Swaziland, phosphates (and hardwood lumber) in Togo, copper in Zambia. Timber exploitation and mining investment also played the major role in the People's Republic of the Congo. In some countries, the main stimulus came from export-oriented manufacturing, as in . . . Hong Kong, Israel, the Republic of Korea and Singapore. In others, there was a more general and diffused source of expansion, based on agricultural diversification and the beginning of industrial development, as in the Ivory Coast and Thailand. In Jordan, the expansion of tourism also played a part, while in Costa Rica and Nicaragua the broadening of demand through the Central American Common Market was an important stimulus.<sup>25</sup>

To say that most of these countries have a one-commodity economy seems, therefore, well justified.

60. The possession of exportable raw materials seems to have been one necessary condition—although not sufficient in itself—for a high rate of growth. For example, an active petroleum sector failed to generate significant increases in total output in Algeria, the Netherlands Antilles and Nigeria. There were also countries with other sources of high mineral exports that achieved income growth rates only at or below the average for the less developed countries, namely, Chile, Guyana (which only managed to keep pace with its rate of population growth), Jamaica, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Venezuela and Zaire.

61. In most cases, the chief problem in the continuing economic progress of such countries consisted of obstacles to their internal peace and political stability. Civil wars, military coups and foreign intervention took their toll in the 1960s, depressing the expansion in production to levels below 3 per cent per year in a number of countries, among them Algeria, Angola, Chad, the Dominican Republic, Ghana, Indonesia, the Khmer Republic, Laos, Nigeria and the Republic of Viet-Nam. Given their resource endowments, these countries are expected to show a better economic performance once internal conditions become more stable.

#### *Economic growth versus population growth*

62. For a number of countries, however, the problem was an even more severe one, i.e., that of keeping up with

<sup>25</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 10.

their rapid rates of population growth. About one fourth of the less developed countries fell into this category, failing to increase their total output during the 1960s faster than their population growth. In Asia and Latin America, the proportion of such countries was about one fourth; in Africa, they amounted to about one third. The causes of this poor performance were varied and complex, but they could be subsumed under two main categories: political instability and a poor performance in the agricultural subsistence sector. Countries with a predominant subsistence sector were vulnerable to the institutional problems of agricultural development, as well as the vagaries of weather conditions—Afghanistan and Nepal in Asia, Burundi, Malawi, Mali, Rwanda, Senegal and Upper Volta in Africa and Haiti and Uruguay in Latin America. In Haiti, where population exerted strong pressure on resources, there was virtually no growth.

63. In some cases, the two problems of political instability and sluggish agricultural development were inter-related. This was particularly so in those countries where social discontent had given rise to agrarian revolt. In other cases, the agricultural lag reflected the slowness of progress in increasing the degree of specialization in the subsistence sector [and] the often related inability of the rural economy, lacking reserves, to withstand unfavourable climatic conditions.

#### *Income growth stratification<sup>26</sup>*

64. The trends of the 1960s show a continuing stratification among the more, less, lesser, and least developed countries. Growth rates often correspond with the level of income already achieved by the less developed countries; the higher the level of income generally, the faster the rates of growth. There are, of course, some exceptions to this rule, but the pattern generally holds.

65. Table II.20 shows the growth performance of the major economic areas: the developing countries, developed market economies, and socialist countries. The table reveals, as was stated earlier, that the aggregate growth performance of the less developed countries has fallen below the United Nations target of 5 per cent, and, because of rapid population growth, *per capita* income growth in those countries has achieved an annual rate of less than 2 per cent. The developed market economies and

<sup>26</sup> Much of the material in this subsection and in the subsection on continuing dependence on agriculture and the subsistence sector (paras. 79–85) is based on G. M. Meier, *Leading Issues in Economic Development: Studies in International Poverty*, 2nd ed. (Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1970), pp. 34–39.

TABLE II.20

Growth performance of major economic areas, 1954–1966  
(Per cent compound, average annual rates)

	Population 1958– 1965	Total real product				Per capita real product			
		1955– 1960	1960– 1965	1965	1966 <sup>a</sup>	1955– 1960	1960– 1965	1965	1966 <sup>a</sup>
Developing countries . . . . .	2.5	4.6	4.5	3.8	4.5	2.2	2.0	0.9	2.0
Developed market economies. . .	1.2	3.2	5.1	5.2	5.0	2.0	3.6	4.0	3.8
Socialist countries . . . . .	1.5	8.1	6.8	7.4	..	6.7	5.5	5.8	..

Source: G. M. Meier, *Leading Issues in Economic Development: Studies in International Poverty*, 2nd ed. (Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1970), p. 35.

NOTE. The terms “developed market economies” and “developing countries” in this table correspond to economic classes I and II, respectively, as defined by the Statistical Office of the United Nations. The term “socialist countries” refers to the socialist countries of eastern Europe.

<sup>a</sup> Preliminary figures.

TABLE II.21

**Growth of developing regions**  
(Per cent compound, average annual rates)

	Population 1958– 1965	Total real product				Per capita real product			
		1955– 1960	1960– 1965	1965	1966 <sup>a</sup>	1955– 1960	1960– 1965	1965	1966 <sup>a</sup>
Latin America . . . . .	2.8	4.8	5.0	6.1	4.1	2.1	2.1	3.6	1.2
Developing Asia <sup>b</sup> . . . . .	2.4	3.9	4.2	0.8	5.4	1.4	1.9	–1.7	2.8
Developing Africa . . . . .	2.3	3.0	3.8	4.0 <sup>a</sup>	2.1	0.6	1.2	1.6 <sup>a</sup>	–0.3

Source: G. M. Meier, *Leading Issues in Economic Development: Studies in International Poverty*, 2nd ed. (Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1970), p. 35.

<sup>a</sup> Preliminary figures.

<sup>b</sup> East and South-East Asia only.

the socialist countries have, by contrast, shown a much better performance.

66. This very general picture, however, conceals much variation in the economic performance of the different regions and individual countries of the less developed world. Table II.21 gives a breakdown of population and income growth in the three less developed continents. The figures indicate a better performance by Latin America, which already enjoys a higher level of income than Asia and Africa. Thus, a polarization seems to be taking place among the less developed countries in favour of the more advanced areas.

67. Table II.22 provides the frequency distribution of the less developed countries according to their rates of income growth and population. The evidence shows that for the first half of the First United Nations Development Decade, about two thirds of the population of 55 developing countries for which data are included in this table had a *per capita* income growth of less than 1.5 per cent.<sup>27</sup>

68. In the aggregate, as pointed out in the *World Economic Survey, 1969–1970*, the weighted average rate of increase in production for all developing countries in the period 1960–1968 was 4.9 per cent a year. This was the rate achieved in the western hemisphere; the African region grew at a fractionally lower rate (just over 4.7 per cent) and the Asian region at a fractionally higher rate (just over 5 per cent).<sup>28</sup>

<sup>27</sup> G. M. Meier, *op. cit.*, pp. 36 and 37. The author goes on to state:

“In a number of developing countries the actual level of income and its rate of growth are even less than is suggested by the above figures. This is due to the discrepancy between the GDP and the gross national product (GNP). By definition, the former exceeds the latter by net factor payments abroad, i.e., profits, dividends and interest. Annual changes in GDP are the most widely used approximation of variations in a country's output (or in its production capacity). But these are not the most appropriate indicators of changes in economic welfare where net factor payments abroad make up a large proportion of national income. In such cases, changes in the GNP are the more relevant indicator. Available data show that in some developing countries GDP frequently increases at a rate higher than that of GNP. The most striking case is that of Honduras, where during the first four years of the 1960s real GDP grew at an average rate of 4 per cent, while the rate of growth in real GNP was, on average, lower by about two percentage points. In Zambia, the corresponding figures for the years 1958–1964 are 6.8 per cent GDP and 5.6 per cent GNP; in Iran during 1959–1963 GDP grew at 4.3 per cent annually, as against 3.9 per cent for GNP. The same type of discrepancy is found in Iraq, Malawi, Morocco, Trinidad and Tobago, Venezuela, and in many other developing countries in which payments to non-residents represent an important and rising proportion of total product.”

<sup>28</sup> *World Economic Survey, 1969–1970* . . . , p. 11.

TABLE II.22

**Developing countries: distribution by annual rate of growth of real product, 1955–1960 and 1960–1965**

Annual rates of growth (per cent compound)	Number of countries		Percentage share in total population (1960)	
	1955– 1960	1960– 1965	1955– 1960	1960– 1965
Total GDP				
Less than 5 per cent . . . . .	31	28	75	67
5 per cent or more . . . . .	24	27	25	38
Per capita GDP				
Less than 1.5 per cent . . . . .	23	27	23	65
1.5 per cent or more . . . . .	32	28	67	35

Source: G. M. Meier, *Leading Issues in Economic Development: Studies in International Poverty*, 2nd ed. (Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1970), p. 36.

69. Taking the period 1960–1967 as a whole, table II.23 shows the disparities in growth rates for 80 countries for which data were available.

TABLE II.23

**Developing countries: disparities in growth rates,  
1960–1967**

Range of growth rates, per cent per annum	Number of countries	Share of total population (%)
6 or more . . . . .	18	15
4 to under 6 . . . . .	25	31
under 4 . . . . .	37	48

Source: G. M. Meier, *Leading Issues in Economic Development: Studies in International Poverty*, 2nd ed. (Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1970), p. 44.

70. The high growth countries may be also divided among those with growth rates higher than 7 per cent and those with rates between 6 and 7 per cent. The former group includes Hong Kong, Iran, Israel, Jordan, Nicaragua, Panama, the Republic of Korea, Syria and Thailand; the latter consists of El Salvador, Iraq, Mexico, Peru and Trinidad and Tobago. Despite the great diversity in their cultural, political and economic conditions, these countries have one or more of these three factors in common:



(a) High literacy rates (9 have a literacy rate of 50 per cent or over);

(b) Rich oil resources (4 are major oil-exporting countries);

(c) Otherwise significant foreign exchange earnings (Hong Kong, Israel, Jordan and Thailand).

71. It seems plausible to conclude that countries with either a high level of social development (the literacy rate correlates well with other indicators of social development) or significant levels of foreign exchange earnings have the best chance for high rates of economic growth. Since the latter condition is not realizable for all developing countries, it seems appropriate to conclude that a heavier emphasis on social development will also improve the economic performance of the less developed countries.

72. Among the less developed countries, however, there is a hard core of the least developed that deserves special attention from all concerned. As a result of research done by a Working Group of the United Nations Committee for Development Planning, these countries were identified for special consideration by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development at its third session, held at Santiago, Chile, in 1972. The relevant recommendations of the Working Group were issued in a 1970 report entitled "Special measures to be taken in favour of the least developed among the developing countries".<sup>29</sup> The countries tentatively so identified are listed in table II.24.

<sup>29</sup> E/AC.54/L.36 and Corr.1.

TABLE II.24  
The least developed countries

	GDP per capita (in dollars) 1967	Literacy rate (percentage) early 1960s	Share of manufacturing in GDP (percentage)	
			1960-1962	1965-1968
<i>Africa</i>				
Botswana.....	99	20		
Burundi.....	52	10		
Chad.....	70	7		
Dahomey.....	83	10		
Ethiopia.....	63	5	12.6	16.2
Guinea.....	87	5		
Lesotho.....	85	40		
Malawi.....	66	15		
Mali.....	88	2		
Niger.....	95	3		
Rwanda.....	46	10		
Somalia.....	61	5		
Sudan.....	109	12		
Uganda.....	98	25		
United Republic of Tanzania.....	73	17	8.2	9.3
Upper Volta.....	49	7		
<i>Asia and Oceania</i>				
Afghanistan.....	88	8		
Bhutan.....	..	..		
Laos.....	70	15		
Maldives.....	..	..		
Nepal.....	83	9		
Sikkim.....	..	..		
Western Samoa.....	..	..		
Yemen.....	110	10		
<i>Western hemisphere</i>				
Haiti.....	90	11 <sup>a</sup>		

Source: World Economic Survey, 1969-1970 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), statistical annex.

<sup>a</sup> Early 1950s.

73. The Working Group came to the conclusion that "while *per capita* GDP generally correlates highly with under-development in terms of such criteria as infrastructural development, availability and level of skills or any other classification criteria, yet for a reliable identification of the 'hard-core' least developed countries, *per capita* GDP, should be used in conjunction with (a) the literacy rate and (b) the share of GDP originating in manufacturing. The average real rate of growth of GDP attained over the last five years should be used as a minor adjustment criterion, especially in deciding the border-line cases. The selection of a country should initially be made by reference to a *per capita* gross product cut-off point of around \$100 in 1966. In order to be included in the 'hard-core' group, the countries falling below the \$100 *per capita* gross product level should be tested by reference to the major 'adjustment' indicators—a literacy rate of 20 per cent or less and a share of manufacturing in gross domestic product of 10 per cent or less. In the tentative exercise undertaken by the Working Group, though Burma, the Democratic Republic of the Congo [Zaire], India, Indonesia and Nigeria qualified under the *per capita* gross product criterion, they were excluded from the 'hard-core' list, since their literacy rate and/or manufacturing share in domestic output exceeded 20 per cent and 10 per cent respectively".<sup>30</sup>

#### *Planned versus achieved rates of growth*

74. As noted in paragraph 53 above, the United Nations has called for development planning in the least developed countries to accelerate their rates of growth. Most countries under study have by now developed elaborate formal plans to speed up their economic and social progress. The plans vary in scope, structure and methods, but most of them establish an over-all target rate of growth, as well as a few physical targets for the different sectors of the economy. The problem in most such countries, however, lies not so much in the sophistication of planning methodology as in the prospects for implementation under the prevailing social, political and administrative conditions.

75. There were at least 89 countries that had plans in operation during the 1960s. Table II.25 shows the rates of increase in production, planned and achieved up to the year 1968 for some of these countries. As can be discerned, most countries have failed to achieve their planned rates of growth. Among the 14 countries whose plans had run for four years or more by 1968, only 4 (the Ivory Coast, Jamaica, Panama and the People's Republic of the Congo [Congo]) had achieved or surpassed their own targets.

76. Among the 17 countries whose plans had run for three years, 5 had surpassed their anticipated targets, 4 were within sight of their targets and the rest fell below them.

77. Among the 12 countries reporting on the first two years of their plans, only 2 countries (Dahomey and Singapore) had achieved or surpassed their target rates of growth. Most countries were lagging far behind.

78. Among the 12 countries whose plans had run for only one year by 1968, two thirds had started off with growth rates below the target set for the whole plan period. However, the short period of implementation does not warrant the drawing of any conclusions.

<sup>30</sup> *Ibid.*, para. 20.

TABLE II.25

Less developed countries: rates of increase in production, planned and achieved, period ending 1968  
(Percentage per annum)

Countries <sup>a</sup> in which by 1968 the plan period had lasted											
4 years or more			3 years		2 years		1 year				
	Planned	Actual	Planned	Actual	Panned	Actual		Planned	Actual		
People's Republic of the Congo [Congo].....	7.2	9.1	Costa Rica ....	6.2	9.1	Singapore .....	5.0	22.0	Republic of Korea .....	10.0	15.7
Ivory Coast.....	7.5	7.5	Pakistan .....	6.9	6.4	Syrian Arab Republic....	7.2	6.7	Kuwait .....	6.5	9.1
Panama .....	5.5	7.3	Barbados.....	4.0	6.0	Kenya .....	6.3	4.9	Thailand .....	8.5	8.0
Jamaica .....	5.0	6.6	Honduras .....	6.6	6.0	Burma.....	8.0	4.8	Gambia.....	4.2	6.5
Bolivia.....	7.0	6.0	Guatemala ....	5.9	5.1	Zambia .....	11.7	4.7	Upper Volta...	4.0	5.0
Jordan .....	7.3	5.2	Malaysia.....	4.9	4.9	Dahomey .....	4.0	4.5	Central African Republic....	7.0	4.1
Colombia .....	5.6	4.9	Iraq .....	8.0	4.9	Gabon.....	7.5	4.4	Afghanistan ...	4.3	3.6
Ecuador .....	6.2	4.5	Nepal .....	3.6	4.8	Cameroon [United Republic of] .	5.8	4.0	Peru.....	6.0	3.4
Trinidad and Tobago .....	5.1	4.2	El Salvador....	6.5	4.7	Togo .....	5.6	3.7	Philippines ....	6.8	2.8
United Republic of Tanzania ..	6.7	3.8	Paraguay .....	5.2	4.4	Uganda.....	6.3	2.8	Chile .....	5.5	2.6
Sudan.....	5.0	3.1	Nicaragua .....	7.0	4.3	Guyana.....	5.6	2.5	Niger.....	4.7	1.3
Madagascar ....	4.9	1.7	Morocco .....	3.7	4.2	Chad .....	5.9	0.2	Lesotho.....	5.0	-1.3
Mali.....	5.0	1.7	Venezuela .....	7.0	4.0						
Nigeria.....	4.0	-0.5	Senegal .....	5.5	3.7						
			Argentina .....	5.9	2.4						
			Tunisia .....	6.5	2.1						
			Uruguay .....	4.8	-0.8						

Source: World Economic Survey, 1969-1970 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), p. 13.

<sup>a</sup> The countries are those with published plans containing explicit or implicit objectives for total production; they are listed in each category in descending order of actual rate of increase in GDP achieved in the indicated period.

### Continuing dependence on agriculture and the subsistence sector

79. On the average, agricultural production constitutes about 35 per cent of the GDP of the less developed countries, and agricultural commodities make up over 40 per cent of the value of their total exports. In general, the sluggish rate of growth in agriculture has been a decisive factor in an over-all slow rate of growth. Table II.26 shows the close correlation between the growth rates in agriculture and total GDP.<sup>31</sup> The figures indicate that,

<sup>31</sup> This table alone does not show this close correlation unless the rate of growth of manufactures is taken as the rate of growth of the GDP.

while high growth developing countries saw their agriculture expand at less than half the high rate of their manufacturing output during the 1960s, agricultural production in the low growth countries rose, on average, at less than one fifth of the pace set by their manufacturing sector. The aggregate averages for the low-growth category are, of course, heavily weighted by the larger countries, e.g. Argentina and India. Apart from these two relatively industrialized countries, where the "green revolution" has had a substantial impact, the average shares and growth rates of agriculture and manufacturing for the low growth group change considerably, as shown in the table. The low growth rate of food production in the countries having low GDP growth brings out the acuteness of the food

TABLE II.26

Developing countries: relative performance of agriculture and manufacturing, 1960-1966

Categories of growth in GDP	Number of countries	Average shares (percentage) of GDP (1963) originating in		Average growth rates, 1960-1966 (percentage)		
		Agriculture	Manufacturing	Agricultural production	Food production	Manufacturing
High-growth countries	19	26	20	4.5	4.4 <sup>a</sup>	10.6 <sup>b</sup>
Medium-growth countries	19	32	13 <sup>c</sup>	2.6	3.2 <sup>d</sup>	8.1
Low-growth countries	14	40	18	0.9	0.8	5.0 <sup>e</sup>
(excluding India and Argentina)	(12)	(42)	(11)	(0.5)	(-0.1)	(2.7)
All countries	52	34	17 <sup>f</sup>	2.5	2.6 <sup>g</sup>	7.5 <sup>h</sup>

Source: G. M. Meier, *Leading Issues in Economic Development: Studies in International Poverty*, 2nd ed. (Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1970), p. 38.

<sup>a</sup> For 16 countries.

<sup>b</sup> For 13 countries.

<sup>c</sup> For 18 countries.

<sup>d</sup> For 14 countries.

<sup>e</sup> For 10 countries.

<sup>f</sup> For 51 countries.

<sup>g</sup> For 40 countries.

<sup>h</sup> For 42 countries.



problem they faced during the period 1960–1966.<sup>32</sup> For a while, there was serious concern over the increasing need for food imports in a number of those countries. Although some of the structural and technological barriers to agricultural development were lifted during the 1960s, the problem is still far from being resolved satisfactorily. Rapid population growth and nagging problems concerning the mobilization of resources in the agricultural sector continue to impede further progress.

80. Perhaps the most encouraging sign of progress to date is the increasing awareness, at the national and international level, of the central importance of institutional reforms in agriculture. This has led, in some developing countries, to the introduction of land distribution and reform programmes. Over-concentrated and over-fragmented land tenure systems have for a long time been strong barriers to the mobilization of resources and the creation of incentives for agricultural investment. The system of land ownership and tenancy differ in most of these countries but, as Professor Myrdal states, they have one thing in common: they hold down the possibilities and the incentives for cultivators to work, and to work hard and efficiently. In many developing countries, land reform legislation began to be more actively implemented during the 1960s. In Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Egypt, Iran, Peru and west and east Africa, land reform legislation resolved some of the existing problems. At the international level, such major lending institutions as IBRD and the Inter-American Development Bank significantly accelerated their financial disbursements for agricultural projects.<sup>33</sup>

81. With regard to technological obstacles, the so-called green revolution has done much to encourage cautious optimism concerning the world's food supply. New and high-yielding varieties of rice and wheat, developed by international research institutes, are being introduced on a massive and ever increasing scale in India, Pakistan and the Philippines and, more recently, in Afghanistan, Sri Lanka, Indonesia and Malaysia. The 1967 record food grain crop in India and the bumper wheat crop in Pakistan

have been attributed in part to these new seed varieties.<sup>34</sup> There is, however, a growing anxiety—expressed at the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment held at Stockholm in 1972—about the effects of the indiscriminate use of such seed and fertilizers on the continued fertility of the soil.

82. A more accelerated growth in agricultural development and food production ultimately depends, however, on increased investment in this sector. Social and physical infrastructure would naturally claim a high portion of such investment; better roads, water supplies, schools, health facilities, electrification, seed, fertilizers, extension services and the introduction of modern methods of management through co-operatives and farm corporations all demand more money. Unfortunately for the agrarian population, such forms of investment are commonplace in nature and command little attention from national political leaders. Moreover, the benefits of such investment are distributed very widely, so that unless farm workers are organized into unions or political parties, which is not the case in most of the less developed countries, there is little they can do to bring pressure to bear on the policy makers.

83. The problems associated with the subsistence sector in the economies of the less developed countries deserve special analysis and treatment. As is pointed out in the United Nations *World Economic Survey, 1969–1970*:

Though most developing countries have a more or less identifiable traditional or subsistence sector in which monetary transactions play a negligible role, very few distinguish such a sector in their national accounts. In the ten countries that do—all in Africa—the contribution to total output attributed to the subsistence sector in the 1960s ranged from around 10 per cent in Liberia, Tunisia and Zambia to around 50 per cent in Ethiopia and Malawi. In all cases, the relative importance of the sector has been declining.<sup>35</sup>

The figures for these 10 countries are given in table II.27.

84. The existence of a subsistence sector is often associated with problems of dual economies. The subsistence sector is extremely resistant to technological innovation,

<sup>32</sup> G. M. Meier, *op. cit.*, pp. 38 and 39.

<sup>33</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 39.

<sup>34</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>35</sup> *World Economic Survey, 1969–1970* . . . , p. 15.

TABLE II.27

Selected developing countries:<sup>a</sup> output contributed by the subsistence sector, 1960–1968

Country	Percentage share of subsistence sector in GDP		Average annual rate of growth, 1960–1967 <sup>b</sup> (percentage)				
	1960–1962 <sup>c</sup>	1966–1968 <sup>d</sup>	Population	Gross domestic product	Subsistence output	Marketed output	
						Agricultural	Total
Cameroon [United Republic of] . . .	17.3	16.9	2.6	5.3	4.3	7.8	5.5
Ethiopia . . . . .	46.7	43.0	1.8	4.6	2.0	5.8	5.8
Ivory Coast . . . . .	19.5	15.4	3.3	7.8	3.6	10.2	9.8
Kenya . . . . .	23.5	22.2	3.0	6.3	5.9	4.1	6.6
Liberia . . . . .	11.9	9.8	1.6	4.2	–1.5	0.8	4.9
Malawi . . . . .	50.4	42.8	3.0	6.3	3.2	10.5	7.5
Tunisia . . . . .	13.5	10.0	3.1	3.7	–2.1	–6.9	4.5
Uganda . . . . .	27.3	25.2	2.5	3.7	2.7	3.2	4.1
United Republic of Tanzania . . . . .	32.5	28.7	2.5	3.6	1.3	4.6	4.6
Zambia . . . . .	6.3	5.0	3.1	8.7	–0.7	0.8	9.4

Source: *World Economic Survey, 1969–1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), p. 15.

<sup>a</sup> Selected on the basis of the availability of data on subsistence production. The gross domestic product and its components are in constant factor cost. Growth rates are the averages of year-to-year changes with the higher of each pair of figures taken as denominator.

<sup>b</sup> 1961–1966 for Ethiopia, 1960–1966 for Ivory Coast, 1964–1967 for Cameroon, Kenya, Liberia, Malawi and Zambia.

<sup>c</sup> 1961–1962 for Ethiopia; 1964 for Cameroon, Kenya, Liberia, Malawi and Zambia.

<sup>d</sup> 1965–1966 for Ethiopia and Ivory Coast; 1966–1967 for Cameroon, Tunisia, Uganda and United Republic of Tanzania.

has almost no linkage to the market economy, and, consequently, generates little additional employment. As a result, it works both as a drag and as a stabilizer on the rest of the economy, while gradually losing much of its labour force to the market sectors. In the 1960s, the subsistence sectors in Liberia, Tunisia, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia actually declined in production. By contrast, the subsistence sector increased its output more than the over-all rate of population growth in Ethiopia, the Ivory Coast, Kenya, Malawi, Uganda and the United Republic of Cameroon. Of the 10 countries listed here with subsistence sectors, only 3—the Ivory Coast, the United Republic of Cameroon and Zambia—exceeded the 5 per cent over-all growth rate for 1960–1967.

85. It is justifiable to conclude, therefore, that, wherever there is a significant subsistence sector, it calls for special treatment in target setting and performance evaluation. However, as is argued in the *World Economic Survey*:

A rapid breaking up of the traditional sector is neither likely to happen nor wise to recommend. On the contrary, optimal growth of the economy requires a balance between the release of factors from the subsistence sector and the opening up of employment opportunities in the market sector. While the main hope for increased production lies in the market economy, which will continue to draw part of its new work force from the traditional society, the latter remains large enough in many countries to require separate attention if it is to make its proper contribution to national output and be saved from disintegrating in the face of technological change and the migration of its most vigorous workers. This is not a question of slowing down the pace of progress but rather one of maximizing the economic effectiveness of the subsistence sector, not merely in terms of physical output but also in terms of the over-all satisfaction and quality of life it provides for its participants. A separate appraisal of the production performance of the traditional economy would help towards this end.<sup>36</sup>

#### *Continuing dependence on export earnings*

86. Another discernible trend of the 1960s is the continuing heavy dependence of the less developed countries on their export earnings. Despite all the differences in institutions, social structure and political stability among those countries, exports tend to play a key role in determining the level of economic performance of each. The ratio of exports to GNP is as high as 15–30 per cent in most. In many, export earnings are even about that level. In the period 1963–1967, the average ratio of exports to GDP for eight less developed countries were as shown in table II.28.

<sup>36</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 15 and 16.

TABLE II.28

Selected developing countries:  
ratio of export earnings to GDP, 1963–1967

Country	Ratio of export earnings to GDP (percentage)
Zambia .....	63
Trinidad and Tobago.....	59.5
Guyana .....	53
Iraq .....	40
Malaysia (West).....	39
Surinam .....	34
Uganda .....	33
Southern Rhodesia .....	31

Source: G. M. Meier, *Leading Issues in Economic Development: Studies in International Poverty*, 2nd ed. (Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1970), p. 37, note 3.

87. Export earnings help the less developed countries to undertake their developmental tasks in a number of ways:

(a) Export earnings provide badly needed foreign exchange revenues and thus determine the capacity to import the goods and services to sustain and expand domestic productive capacity;

(b) Foreign demand for exports supplements what is often in the less developed countries a relatively small domestic demand for goods and services. That is why larger countries, such as Brazil, China and India, are less dependent upon exports for their sustained growth;

(c) To the extent that export industries provide linkages to domestic economic activities, they also contribute indirectly to the development of the rest of the economy and the growth of saving and investment propensities.

88. Table II.29 shows the aggregated data for 54 developing countries, divided into three groups in accordance with their levels of economic growth and export performance. As the data reveal, there is a high correlation between these two variables.

89. On the other hand, dependence on export earnings has exposed most developing countries to the weaknesses of the so-called one-crop economies: the fever curve of export market prices, the ensuing fluctuations in foreign exchange earnings, the low linkage effects of export industries on primary commodities and the continuing deteriorating trend in the terms of trade for primary export commodities. Some of these weaknesses can be corrected

TABLE II.29

54 developing countries: growth rates of GDP (1960–1965),  
exports and imports (1959/60–1964/65)  
(Per cent compound)

Average annual growth rate of real product	Number of countries	Average annual growth rates			Percentage of total population (1963)
		GDP	Exports (value)	Imports (value)	
High (6 per cent or more).....	18	7.3	8.7	8.3	14.5
Medium (4 to less than 6 per cent).....	21	4.9	4.8	4.5	31.0
Low (less than 4 per cent).....	15	2.7	3.3	3.1	54.5
All countries.....	54	4.5	5.4	5.2	100.0

Source: G. M. Meier, *Leading Issues in Economic Development: Studies in International Poverty*, 2nd ed. (Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1970), p. 37.

by the collective action of the exporting countries;<sup>37</sup> others can be remedied by appropriate domestic policies. In the long run, however, diversification of the national economy is the surest guarantee against the undesirable effects of too much dependence on one or two export commodities.

90. With respect to the deterioration of the terms of trade of the less developed countries, however, some improvement of conditions seems to be suggested:

In contrast to the 1950s, when the distortions to the price structure left over from the war were being eliminated rather rapidly, the 1960s constitute a period of relative over-all price stability for goods moving in international trade. Though the unit value of manufactures inched up steadily and the prices of individual commodities—such as sugar, rubber and copper—fluctuated very widely, the over-all movement of relative prices was not very great. The average terms of trade of the developing countries remained virtually constant in the second half of the decade, and in 1969 stood at the same level as in 1960.<sup>38</sup>

91. The effects of the terms of trade of selected developing countries for which data were available have been summarized in table II.30. As is shown, there is great diversity in the experience of the various countries. Countries with a wider range of exports generally have enjoyed a greater measure of over-all stability in their terms of trade. But over the period 1960–1967, there were almost as many countries whose exports had enjoyed an increase in purchasing power as there were countries whose exports had declined in purchasing power. “The former included chiefly the exporters of rice, meat, jute and non-ferrous metals, and some special cases, such as the Dominican Republic, which was receiving much more for its sugar at the end of the decade than at the beginning. The latter were chiefly the exporters of the beverage crops, copra, wool and petroleum, again plus the special cases, such as the Sudan, whose cotton prices were sharply lower.”<sup>39</sup>

92. When the effects of changes in the terms of trade on the increases in GDP are measured, a mixed picture emerges. A number of countries registered a lower rate of growth when their GDP was adjusted for the change in the purchasing power of its export component: Sri Lanka from a nominal 3.9 per cent a year to an adjusted 3.0 per cent, Ghana from 2.4 per cent to 1.1 per cent, the Sudan from 4.1 per cent to 3.7 per cent, and Venezuela from 4.7 per cent to 4.4 per cent. By contrast, a number of other countries benefited from improvements in the purchasing power of their exports, registering an improvement in their adjusted rates of growth: Bolivia from 5.5 per cent to an adjusted 6.8 per cent, Chile from 4.9 to 5.3 per cent, the Dominican Republic from 2.8 to 3.2 per cent, and Peru from 6.0 to 6.9 per cent.

93. Another source of instability in the income of the less developed countries lies in the year-to-year fluctuations in the unit value of their exports. Sri Lanka is a case in point. The price of tea declined considerably in 1968 compared to 1967. Measured in terms of constant prices, Sri Lanka's total output increased by 11 per cent between 1967 and 1968, but the real value of its output increased by

only half as much. This had resulted from the sharp decline in the external price of tea, due mainly to the increase in the total supply. By contrast, in 1967–1968, year-to-year changes in prices had worked to the benefit of such countries as Chile, Ghana, Israel, Panama, Peru, the Philippines and the Sudan.

94. In evaluating and planning, therefore, the less developed countries would do well to bring such price changes explicitly into the record. In the long run, a review of the price changes should provide them with a guide to policies affecting the export sector—with respect to diversification, quality improvement, marketing strategy and so on.

### C. Employment and unemployment

95. The changing nature of employment and unemployment in the less developed countries should be examined in the light of some historical and comparative perspectives. Table II.31 provides such a perspective from 1950 to 1980. In 1950, the economically active population of the world constituted about 45.2 per cent of the total population. For the more developed countries, the figure stood at 45.1 per cent and for the less developed countries slightly higher, at about 45.3 per cent. Thus, the over-all situation with respect to the size of the labour force was the same, but there were considerable differences in the employment of different age groups and sexes. In 1950, the proportion of the active population to the total population below the age of 14 years was 4.9 per cent for the world, 2.1 per cent for the more developed countries and 6.0 per cent for the less developed countries. This obviously indicated a significantly higher level of employment of child labour in the less developed countries than in the more developed countries. The 15–24 year age group was less active in the less developed countries than in the more developed countries because of the smaller percentage of participation of women in the labour force of the less developed countries. For the age groups over 65 years, the world as a whole registered a 30.7 per cent participation, the more developed countries showed 25.7 per cent and the less developed countries 36.7 per cent.

96. From 1950 to 1960, the total size of the labour force for the world dropped from 45 to 43.2 per cent, but the percentage drop for the less developed countries was larger. The main cause of the shrinkage in active population in the more developed countries was withdrawal from the labour force of two groups, those below age 14 and those above age 65. Also, the size of the 15–19 year age group dropped from 62.2 to 55.3 per cent, mainly because of the increase in college enrolment. Other groups grew in size partly because of the increasing entrance of women into the labour force. In the less developed countries for the same period, 1950–1960, the age group below 14 years decreased from 6 to 5.1 per cent of the labour force, and the 15–19 year age group decreased from 61.6 to 58.7 per cent. But participation of other groups of both sexes in the labour force also went down.

97. In the 1960s, the dominant trend was a further decrease in the younger age groups (0–14 and 15–19 years) and in the age group above 65 years. The labour participation rate in the 0–14 year age group in the world was 3.3 per cent; for the more developed countries it was 1.1 per cent and for the less developed countries the rate was 4 per cent. Projections for the present decade suggest stability of the labour participation rate at around 44.9

<sup>37</sup> The petroleum exporting countries, through OPEC, have set the pace and provided a useful model for this kind of collective action. See M. Tehranian, “The organization of the petroleum exporting countries: an essay in political economy”, unpublished doctoral dissertation (Harvard University, 1969).

<sup>38</sup> *World Economic Survey, 1969–1970* . . . , p. 16.

<sup>39</sup> *Ibid.* The position of the major petroleum exporting countries has since improved as a consequence of *inter alia* the Teheran Agreement of 1971, which revised the posted prices.



TABLE II.30

Selected developing countries:<sup>a</sup> effect of terms of trade on growth of GDP, 1960-1968

	Gross domestic product			Exports			Terms of trade <sup>b</sup>		Adjusted gross domestic product <sup>c</sup>		Gross domestic product growth rate <sup>d</sup>			
	1960	1967	1968	1960	1967	1968	1967	1968	1967	1968	1960-1967		1967-1968	
	(millions of 1960 dollars)						(1960 = 100)	(1967 = 100)			Nominal	Adjusted <sup>e</sup>	Nominal	Adjusted <sup>e</sup>
<i>Latin America</i>														
Argentina .....	11 631	14 282	14 957	1 081	1 491	1 299	105	95	14 358	14 895	3.0	3.1	4.7	4.3
Bolivia .....	377	548	579	59	100	101	150	102	599	581	5.5	6.8	5.7	6.0
Brazil .....	21 606	29 517	32 106	1 139	1 424	1 611	87	102	29 325	32 138	4.6	4.5	8.8	8.9
Chile .....	3 951	5 529	5 673	475	708	692	121	107	5 679	5 719	4.9	5.3	2.6	3.4
Colombia .....	4 012	5 561	5 913	525	581	620	91	100	5 511	5 913	4.8	4.6	6.3	6.3
Costa Rica .....	418	649	702	77	159	193	93	97	637	696	6.5	6.2	8.1	7.3
Dominican Republic .....	724	877	902	157	132	127	117	102	900	905	2.8	3.2	2.8	3.1
Ecuador .....	922	1 251	1 305	156	186	194	93	101	1 238	1 307	4.5	4.3	4.3	4.5
El Salvador .....	568	861	893	101	196	201	91	99	843	891	6.1	5.8	3.7	3.5
Guatemala .....	1 044	1 473	1 551	116	211	236	82	99	1 435	1 549	5.0	4.6	5.4	5.2
Honduras .....	376	553	582	61	138	157	106	100	561	581	5.7	5.9	5.2	5.2
Mexico .....	12 472	19 153	20 513	763	989	1 060	91	100	19 066	20 516	6.3	6.2	7.1	7.1
Nicaragua .....	376	627	664	62	140	160	108	102	639	667	7.6	7.9	5.9	6.4
Panama .....	416	721	771	41	100	104	104	104	725	775	8.2	8.3	7.0	7.5
Paraguay .....	273	371	391	41	38	36	101	103	372	392	4.5	4.5	5.3	5.6
Peru .....	2 077	3 131	3 238	442	553	619	112	104	3 197	3 263	6.0	6.4	3.4	4.2
Uruguay .....	1 232	1 241	1 258	134	148	154	96	97	1 235	1 254	0.1	—	1.5	1.1
Venezuela .....	7 648	10 517	11 160	2 296	2 788	2 740	93	98	10 336	11 116	4.7	4.4	6.1	5.7
<i>Africa</i>														
Ethiopia .....	939	1 290	1 328	78	99	96	97	102	1 287	1 329	4.6	4.6	2.9	3.1
Ghana .....	1 338	1 586	1 616	327	368	365	62	116	1 447	1 674	2.4	1.1	1.9	5.6
Morocco .....	1 796	2 195	2 480	357	358	542	109	93	2 227	2 441	2.9	3.1	13.0	11.2
Sudan .....	1 113	1 472	1 601	172	230	235	83	108	1 432	1 619	4.1	3.7	8.8	10.0
<i>Asia</i>														
Ceylon [Sri Lanka] .....	1 404	1 831	2 042	377	424	419	76	74	1 728	1 931	3.0	3.0	11.5	5.4
India .....	31 939	39 860	41 521	1 274	1 524	1 741	99	102	39 849	41 554	3.2	3.2	4.2	4.2
Iran .....	4 445	7 478	8 286	827	1 697	1 828	94	100	7 374	8 286	7.7	7.5	10.8	10.8
Israel .....	2 543	4 163	4 794	210	447	552	101	112	4 167	4 860	7.3	7.3	15.2	16.7
Pakistan .....	7 711	11 528	12 219	370	670	760	108	92	11 581	12 160	5.9	6.0	6.0	5.5
Philippines .....	6 159	8 294	8 475	644	923	850	87	106	8 172	8 525	4.3	4.1	2.2	2.8
Thailand .....	2 584	4 450	4 806	400	647	624	107	100	4 492	4 807	8.1	8.2	8.0	8.0

Source: World Economic Survey, 1969-1970 (United Nations publication Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), p. 17.

<sup>a</sup> Selected on the basis of the availability of suitable export and import price indices.<sup>b</sup> Change in export unit values divided by change in import unit values, in dollar prices.<sup>c</sup> GDP in 1960 dollars plus the dollar value of the change in the purchasing power of exports (i.e., exports multiplied by the terms of trade index).<sup>d</sup> Compound rate of increase between terminal years.<sup>e</sup> Allowing for the terms of trade effect.

per cent for the more developed countries for all age groups, with a decline at the two extreme ends of the age classification. The total participation rate of the less developed countries will drop from 40.7 per cent to 39.9 per cent as a result of the higher rate of school enrolment.

98. The regional variations in this analysis are of some significance. Child labour seems to be a continuing problem in all regions of the less developed world. In 1950, more than 37.7 million children in the 0-14 year age group were economically active. The breakdown for the different regions was as follows: 5.8 million in Africa, 2.8 million in Latin America, 8.4 million in east Asia and 21.2 million in south Asia. By 1960, the total number had increased to 41.1 million, or a rise of more than 8 per cent. In 1970, largely because of increasing school enrolment, the total had dropped to 39.9 million. However, the absolute number for south Asia had increased from 23.9 million to 25.4 million. Projections for 1980 show that the world total will drop to 35.4 million, but that in south Asia there will

continue to be more economically active children (23.7 million) than there were in 1950 (21.2 million).

99. The position of women in the labour force also varies greatly from region to region. The position of women in the labour force seems to be of less significance in Latin America than in south Asia, Africa, and east Asia—the four regions employing respectively about 14, 23, 26 and 41 per cent of their women. These great differences must reflect something of the position of women in the greatly differing social structures of the four regions. Further generalizations on this point would conceal the great differences that also exist in the individual countries within each region.

100. On the basis of the latest available census statistics, table II.32 provides a view of the distribution of the labour force by sector in the less developed countries. Predictably, Latin America shows a higher level of industrial employment than Asia and Africa. But nearly every country in the three continents employs between 30 and 80 per cent

TABLE II.31

Less developed countries and territories: labour participation rates by age group  
(Percentages in each age group and of the total population)

Age groups (years)	Male				Female				Total			
	1950	1960	1970	1980	1950	1960	1970	1980	1950	1960	1970	1980
<b>Africa</b>												
0-14 .....	7.8	6.3	4.7	3.1	4.7	4.0	3.3	2.5	6.3	5.2	4.0	2.8
15-19 .....	81.7	73.1	71.0	69.0	51.9	45.8	43.7	41.8	67.1	59.6	57.6	55.6
20-24 .....	94.8	91.5	89.7	87.8	55.0	48.5	46.5	44.6	75.0	70.3	68.4	66.5
25-44 .....	97.4	97.3	97.0	96.7	53.5	49.6	46.5	43.4	75.6	73.9	72.2	70.5
45-54 .....	96.9	96.4	96.1	95.7	50.7	48.2	44.7	41.3	74.0	72.5	70.6	68.8
55-64 .....	93.1	90.4	87.9	85.3	41.7	37.5	34.9	32.3	66.9	63.4	60.9	58.4
65+ .....	77.4	67.6	63.2	58.3	24.1	19.5	17.5	15.5	49.1	41.8	38.7	35.4
TOTAL	57.1	53.9	52.4	50.7	31.6	28.0	26.1	24.1	44.5	41.1	39.4	37.5
<b>Latin America</b>												
0-14 .....	6.5	5.5	3.9	2.3	2.1	1.6	1.2	0.9	4.3	3.6	2.6	1.6
15-19 .....	79.4	71.5	66.7	61.6	22.9	24.0	26.5	29.2	50.4	47.7	46.7	45.6
20-24 .....	93.7	93.0	91.5	90.0	23.7	29.0	31.0	32.8	57.6	61.0	61.2	61.7
25-44 .....	97.2	97.3	97.1	96.9	19.3	22.0	23.9	25.8	58.0	59.5	60.3	61.3
45-54 .....	96.0	94.8	94.7	94.4	19.0	19.7	20.9	22.1	58.4	56.9	57.6	57.7
55-64 .....	90.0	83.3	81.1	79.2	16.8	16.7	15.7	14.9	53.8	49.1	47.5	46.3
65+ .....	68.3	57.4	50.7	43.8	13.1	12.0	9.4	7.3	38.8	33.9	28.6	24.1
TOTAL	56.8	53.7	51.0	49.3	12.9	13.6	14.1	14.8	34.9	33.6	32.6	32.1
<b>East Asia</b>												
0-14 .....	3.5	3.1	1.9	1.4	3.4	2.7	1.8	0.9	3.5	2.9	1.9	1.2
15-19 .....	73.3	69.6	63.1	56.6	69.0	65.3	60.1	54.9	71.2	67.5	61.6	55.7
20-24 .....	91.8	90.4	88.9	87.7	72.0	72.0	72.2	72.7	82.1	81.3	80.7	80.3
25-44 .....	95.2	94.5	94.8	95.1	65.4	63.3	66.3	69.5	80.6	79.1	80.8	82.5
45-54 .....	91.7	90.9	91.1	91.5	62.8	62.1	63.0	63.7	77.4	76.7	77.0	77.7
55-64 .....	79.2	78.4	77.5	76.7	52.7	51.1	50.0	48.9	65.6	64.6	63.5	62.5
65+ .....	42.4	39.6	37.3	34.9	30.5	28.3	26.4	24.6	35.8	33.4	31.4	29.4
TOTAL	57.0	55.2	54.9	55.7	42.0	40.0	40.7	41.8	49.6	47.7	47.8	48.8
<b>South Asia</b>												
0-14 .....	9.9	8.3	6.5	4.6	5.9	5.2	4.3	3.4	8.0	6.8	5.4	4.0
15-19 .....	69.9	69.0	65.1	61.3	35.1	35.2	33.4	31.5	52.9	52.2	49.3	46.5
20-24 .....	91.0	89.7	87.9	86.2	42.0	39.3	38.4	37.5	66.8	64.7	63.3	62.0
25-44 .....	96.8	96.3	96.3	96.3	46.1	43.4	41.6	39.6	72.3	70.3	69.3	68.2
45-54 .....	94.8	95.9	95.1	94.2	44.1	42.8	41.1	39.3	70.7	69.5	68.4	67.2
55-64 .....	87.9	88.6	87.3	86.0	34.5	31.4	30.2	28.9	61.4	59.5	58.5	57.4
65+ .....	56.3	60.6	54.2	47.8	12.1	15.7	13.7	11.9	33.5	36.8	32.9	29.0
TOTAL	58.7	55.5	52.5	51.1	27.3	25.0	23.2	22.0	43.3	40.3	37.9	36.6

Source: International Labour Office, *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, 1970 (thirtieth issue), pp. 13-17.



TABLE II.32

**Less developed countries and territories: employment by sectors of economic activity**  
(Percentages of total labour force)

	<i>Agriculture</i>	<i>Mining</i>	<i>Manufacturing</i>	<i>Construction</i>	<i>Electricity/Gas</i>	<i>Commerce</i>	<i>Transportation</i>	<i>Services</i>	<i>Other</i>	<i>Unemployed</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Latin America</i>											
Argentina (1960) .....	17.8	0.5	25.1	5.7	1.1	12.3	7.0	20.6	9.9		100
Barbados (1966) .....	24.5	0.1	9.4	8.3	1.2	15.3	5.5	22.6		13.1	100
Bolivia (1950) .....	63.4	4.1	10.3	2.4	3.9	5.4	2.0	6.6	0.9	1.0	100
Brazil (1960) .....	51.6	2.5	8.9	3.5	9.9	6.7	4.8	12.1			100
Colombia (1964) .....	47.2	1.6	12.8	4.3	0.3	8.6	3.7	18.0	3.5		100
Costa Rica (1963) .....	49.1	0.3	11.5	5.9	1.1	9.8	3.7	17.2	1.4		100
Cuba (1953) .....	41.5	0.5	16.6	3.3	0.4	11.8	5.3	20.1	0.5		100
Chile (1960) .....	27.7	3.8	18.0	5.7	0.8	10.1	4.9	22.8	6.2		100
Dominica (1960) .....	50.0	0.1	10.8	10.2	0.7	8.3	2.3	13.6		4.0	100
Dominican Republic (1960) .....	61.4	0.3	8.2	2.5	0.4	6.7	2.6	11.1	6.8		100
Ecuador (1962) .....	55.6	0.3	14.6	3.3	0.3	6.7	3.0	13.2	3.0		100
El Salvador (1961) .....	60.3	0.1	12.8	4.1	0.2	6.4	2.2	13.0	0.9		100
Grenada (1960) .....	39.9	0.2	9.5	10.6	0.7	10.8	3.2	17.1	0.1	7.9	100
Guatemala (1964) .....	65.4	0.1	11.4	2.6	0.1	6.3	2.1	11.3	0.7		100
Guyana (1965) .....	29.6	2.8	15.1	5.2	1.3	11.8	5.7	17.0	4.0	7.5	100
Haiti (1950) .....	83.2		4.9	0.6	0.1	3.5	0.4	4.6	0.3	2.4	100
Honduras (1961) .....	66.8	0.3	7.8	2.0	0.1	4.8	1.4	12.2	4.6		100
Jamaica (1960) .....	36.1	0.7	13.7	7.6	0.5	9.2	3.0	20.3	1.6	7.3	100
Martinique (1967) .....	28.1	0.2	8.8	11.4	32.5	12.1	5.5		1.4		100
Mexico (1960) .....	54.2	1.2	13.7	3.6	0.4	9.5	3.2	13.5	0.7		100
Nicaragua (1963) .....	59.7	0.8	11.7	3.3	0.3	7.3	2.5	14.2	0.2		100
Panama (1960) .....	46.2	0.1	7.6	4.3	0.5	9.1	3.0	20.1	7.0	2.1	100
Paraguay (1962) .....	54.7		15.1	3.3	0.2	7.1	2.5	14.9	2.2		100
Peru (1961) .....	49.7	2.1	13.2	3.4	0.3	9.0	3.0	15.3	2.8	1.2	100
Surinam (1964) .....	24.8	7.0	8.9	2.8	1.0	11.1	2.4	29.7	2.3	10.0	100
Trinidad and Tobago (1960) .....	19.9	4.6	14.7	10.8	1.9	12.6	5.8	24.0	0.1	5.6	100
Uruguay (1963) .....	17.9	0.2	20.8	4.8	1.7	13.0	6.1	27.4	6.1	2.0	100
Venezuela (1961) .....	32.3	2.3	12.2	5.6	1.0	12.6	5.0	23.3	4.8	0.9	100
<i>Asia</i>											
Bahrain (1965) .....	8.7	0.3	0.8	15.6	19.6	14.5	10.3	17.2	9.7	3.3	100
Brunei (1960) .....	33.5	15.1	5.7	13.6	1.1	7.8	4.0	19.2			100
Cambodia (1962) .....	80.3	0.1	2.7	0.9		5.8	1.2	7.5	1.5		100
Ceylon [Sri Lanka] (1963) .....	48.6	0.3	9.1	2.5	0.2	8.3	4.0	14.3	5.1	7.6	100
Cyprus (1960) .....	40.3	2.3	13.7	8.7		6.9	4.1	14.7	9.3		100
Hong Kong (1966) .....	5.0	0.3	38.0	6.1	0.9	16.1	6.7	23.3	3.6		100
India (1961) .....	72.9	0.5	9.5	1.1	0.3	4.1	1.6	8.8	1.2		100
Indonesia (1964-1965) .....	67.2	0.2	5.6	1.3		10.2	1.2	10.9	1.1	2.3	100

TABLE II.32 (continued)

	Agriculture	Mining	Manufacturing	Construction	Electricity/Gas	Commerce	Transportation	Services	Other	Unemployed	Total
<i>Asia (continued)</i>											
Iran (1966) .....	41.8	0.3	16.7	6.7	0.7	7.3	3.0	12.2	1.7	9.6	100
Iraq (1957) .....	47.9	0.2	9.5	4.5	0.6	5.1	5.0	14.2	13.0		100
Jordan (1961) .....	35.3	2.4	8.4	10.3	0.4	8.0	3.1	13.7	18.4		100
Kuwait (1965) .....	1.1	3.8	9.7	15.6	3.8	12.5	5.4	44.8	0.5	2.8	100
Macau (1960) .....	5.3		30.1	3.5	1.2	26.6	8.0	23.5		1.8	100
Malaysia (1962) .....	51.4	1.9	6.4	1.9	0.3	12.7	3.2	16.1	0.1	6.0	100
Nepal (1961) .....	93.8		1.9	0.1		1.1	0.4	1.9	0.8		100
Pakistan (1965) .....	67.6	0.1	9.6	2.1	0.1	7.9	3.5	7.6	0.4	1.1	100
Philippines (1965) .....	52.7	0.2	10.6	2.6	0.2	9.8	3.2	12.4	0.1	8.2	100
Ryukyu Islands (1969) .....	27.3		8.4	8.9	5.6	21.3		28.0		0.5	100
Singapore (1957) .....	8.4	0.3	13.9	5.1	1.2	25.3	10.5	33.2	0.4	1.7	100
Southern Yemen											
[Democratic Yemen] (1958) ....		1.1	25.3	13.8	2.9		7.6	22.8	17.6	8.9	100
Syrian Arab Republic (1968) .....	61.5	0.2	8.6	3.2	0.7	6.9	2.4	9.1		7.4	100
Thailand (1960) .....	82.0	0.2	3.4	0.5	0.1	5.6	1.2	4.7	1.8	0.5	100
<i>Africa</i>											
Algeria (1966) .....	56.4	0.9	6.4	5.0	0.4	5.9	3.4	13.2	3.3	11.1	100
Angola (1960) .....	69.0	1.9	6.0	4.0	0.1	4.5	2.1	12.0	0.4		100
Botswana (1967) .....	90.8	0.8	1.0	1.1		1.0	0.9	3.9	0.5		100
Congo (Kinshasa) [Zaire]											
(1955-1957) .....	86.4	1.2	3.1	2.5		1.3	1.6	3.1	0.8		100
Ivory Coast (1964) .....	86.4	0.2	0.8	0.9	0.4	6.8	2.3	2.2			100
Gabon (1963) .....	84.1	3.4	1.9	1.7	0.1	3.7	1.3	3.2	0.6		100
Ghana (1960) .....	58.0	1.8	8.6	3.3	0.5	13.6	2.5	5.7		6.0	100
Liberia (1962) .....	80.9	3.5	2.1	2.9	0.1	2.8	0.9	6.0	0.8		100
Libyan Arab Republic (1964) .....	37.1	3.0	6.8	7.7	1.5	6.4	5.6	20.0	11.9		100
Malawi (1961) .....	6.6	0.1	8.1	6.0	1.1	39.6	6.6	30.2	1.7		100
Morocco (1960) .....	56.3	1.2	8.2	1.7	0.3	7.3	2.5	9.9	3.3	9.3	100
Mauritius (1962) .....	37.9	0.1	14.6	10.6	1.2	10.0	6.3	18.7	0.6		100
Mozambique (1962) .....	75.3	0.1	4.7	1.2		1.4	1.0	6.9	9.4		100
Namibia (1960) .....	58.5	5.9	4.3	6.1	0.4	4.3	3.2	11.9	5.4		100
Niger (1960) .....	96.9	0.5	0.1			0.8	0.2	0.9	0.6		100
Réunion (1961) .....	42.5	0.1	9.3	11.7	0.4	8.6	5.7	20.3	1.4		100
Sierra Leone (1963) .....	74.8	5.1	4.4	1.7	0.2	5.7	1.7	3.1	3.3		100
Sudan (1956) .....	85.8		5.0	0.6		2.1	0.6	4.6	1.3		100
Tunisia (1966) .....	41.0	2.2	9.5	5.4	1.6	6.7	3.5	19.5	6.9	3.7	100
United Arab Republic [Egypt]											
(1960) .....	56.6	0.3	9.0	2.0	0.5	8.1	3.3	17.3	2.9		100

Source: International Labour Office, *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, 1970, pp. 54-125.

of its labour force in agriculture, which indicates the continuing importance of agriculture in the economic life of these countries.

101. From the point of view of human rights, unemployment in a variety of forms is one of the serious problems facing the less developed countries. The available evidence suggests that during the past decade most of them have made progress in resolving this problem; others have experienced setbacks in their efforts to do so. The basic reason for this is the imbalance between the number of people seeking work and the number of job openings. "This reflects chiefly the rapid expansion in work seekers—fed by the high rate of natural increase of those already in

the exchange economy, as well as by an inflow of new workers from various forms of self-employment in the rural—farm and subsistence—economy. It also reflects the shortage of many of the complementary factors needed for the creation of opportunities for gainful employment."<sup>40</sup>

102. Tables II.33 and II.34 show the volume of recorded unemployment and the capital requirements for the employment of growing labour force, as well as the non-participating population, in new industries. Table II.33 reflects only the existing extremely inadequate data; table

<sup>40</sup> *World Economic Survey, 1969–1970* . . . , pp. 125 and 126.

TABLE II.33  
Selected developing countries:<sup>a</sup> recorded volume of unemployment in the 1960s

	System of measurement <sup>b</sup>	Reference area population, 1967 <sup>c</sup>		Registered unemployment, around 1967			Average annual rate of increase in registered unemployment	
		Number (thousands)	Percentage of total population	Number (thousands)	Percentage of		Number of years	Percentage
					Reference population	Labour force		
<i>Western hemisphere</i>								
Argentina .....	SS	7 700	33	198.7	2.6	6.4	3	6.0
Barbados .....	Ra	249	100	1.4	0.6	1.5	7	-15.8
Chile .....	SS	2 370	26	55.6	2.3	6.1	6	2.2
Guadeloupe .....	Ra	320	100	2.0	0.6	1.3	6	-7.1
Guatemala .....	Ru	630	13	0.3	0.1	—	7	6.0
Panama .....	SS	1 329	100	25.0	1.9	6.2	4	4.5
Surinam .....	Ru	363	100	2.5	0.7	2.5	7	-6.7
Trinidad and Tobago .....	SS	1 010	100	53.7	5.3	15.0	3	5.3
<i>Africa</i>								
Chad .....	Ra	104	3	0.1	0.1	0.3	7	6.5
Ghana .....	Ru	8 139	100	16.7	0.2	0.5	7	5.7
Guinea .....	Ra	197	5	0.2	0.1	0.3	6	-3.9
Kenya .....	Ra	4 914	50	8.1	0.2	0.4	7	-0.6
Madagascar .....	Ru	6 330	100	0.9	—	0.3	7	1.7
Malawi .....	Ra	4 146	100	1.8	—	0.1	4	6.2
Morocco .....	Ra	14 140	100	23.7	0.2	0.6	7	1.3
Mauritius .....	Ru	774	100	14.2	1.8	6.7	4	37.0
Mozambique .....	Ru	7 187	100	1.9	—	0.1	6	5.1
Niger .....	Ra	60	2	0.1	0.2	0.6	7	-4.0
Nigeria .....	Ru	61 450	100	20.1	—	0.1	7	16.5
Sierra Leone .....	Ra	2 439	100	13.7	0.6	1.3	7	8.2
United Arab Republic [Egypt] .....	SS	31 693	100	268.0	0.8	3.2	4	19.6
Upper Volta .....	Ra	155	3	0.4	0.3	0.4	7	12.9
Zambia .....	Ru	3 945	100	12.3	0.3	0.7	4	11.8
<i>Asia</i>								
Ceylon [Sri Lanka] .....	Ra	11 703	100	249.5	2.1	6.5	7	9.0
India .....	Ra	511 125	100	2 706.3	0.5	1.2	7	8.8
Indonesia .....	Ra	107 431	100	71.8	0.1	0.2	6	-3.5
Iraq .....	Ra	8 725	100	2.7	—	0.2	7	11.1
Israel .....	Ru	2 629	100	7.9	0.3	0.9	6	4.6
Malaysia .....	Ra	8 540	100	117.0	1.4	4.1	7	24.5
Pakistan .....	Ra	120 160	100	184.1	0.2	0.4	7	1.3
People's Democratic Republic of Yemen [Democratic Yemen] .....	Ru	1 170	100	3.7	0.3	0.8	7	-5.2
Philippines .....	SS	34 656	100	999.0	2.9	8.0	6	4.9
Republic of Korea .....	SS	29 784	100	590.0	2.0	6.2	5	-3.8
Singapore .....	Ra	1 956	100	77.0	3.9	11.9	7	5.1
Syrian Arab Republic .....	SS	5 540	100	88.2	1.6	5.3	3	-5.6

Source: *World Economic Survey, 1969–1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), p. 128.

<sup>a</sup> Countries are those actually reporting on unemployment.

<sup>b</sup> SS—based on labour force sample surveys; Ra—based on employment office statistics on registered applicants for work; Ru—based on employment office statistics on registered unemployed.

<sup>c</sup> 1966 in the case of Indonesia and Israel; 1968 for the United Arab Republic. For some countries the reference area comprises the capital city or a small number of major towns, or both; for Argentina, metropolitan Buenos Aires; for Chad, Fort Lamy; for Chile, metropolitan Santiago; for Guatemala, Guatemala City; for Guinea, Conakry region; for Niger, Niamey; for Upper Volta, Ouagadougou and Bobo-Dioulasso. Elsewhere, the reference area is ostensibly country-wide but the accessibility of the point of registration to the work-seeker probably differs greatly from place to place. For Kenya, males only.

II.34 indicates the extent of the problem facing the developing countries in employing their unemployed, underemployed and disguisedly unemployed population. In all cases, annual capital requirements for employing population. In all cases, annual capital requirements for employing the generally unemployed population are two to three times greater than the actual domestic capital formation.

103. Table II.34 also brings out some other quantitative aspects of the unemployment problem. The relatively low participation rates in the developing countries mean that only a fraction—about one third in most cases but as low as one fourth in countries where the population is young and lacks a tradition of female employment—of the increment in population actually enters the ranks of productive workers. And of this fraction, a much smaller proportion—less than one tenth in some African and Asian countries—finds employment in industry. One of the reasons for this is the high capital intensity of industry; among the countries preparing statistics on this, the net investment per additional worker at the beginning of the 1960s ranged from approximately \$2 000 in Bolivia, Ethiopia and Kenya to \$5 000–\$6 000 in Chile, Mauritius and Zambia. Only one country (the Republic of Korea) invested less than \$1 000 per new job, whereas several—Israel, Jamaica and Venezuela, for example—spent over \$10 000 to absorb the additional industrial worker. These are net capital formation figures, exclusive of any investment required to replace plant and equipment worn out in the course of the year's operation. And they refer to industry only, with no allowance for the infrastructural investment—in transport and utilities and workers' housing, for example—that would generally be required to bring the new industrial capacity into production.<sup>41</sup>

104. The difference between what is being done and what has to be done is best illustrated by the rates of growth of industrial employment and of the male labour force:

Industrial employment has been rising at somewhat less than 5 per cent a year in the developing countries on the average during the 1960s. Against this modest rate of expansion, the number of males of working age has been increasing each year by the equivalent

of a fifth of the actual labour force in industry in Latin America, a fourth in the developing countries of Asia, and over 80 per cent in those of Africa.<sup>42</sup>

105. Open unemployment, however, is only one aspect of the problem in the less developed countries. The unemployment in these countries is largely structural in nature; lack of physical and social infrastructural facilities (roads, power utilities, schools), scarcity of capital resources, and the immobility of factors of production combine to make the opening of new employment opportunities extremely difficult to bring about. In addition, the less developed countries suffer from seasonal and cyclical varieties of unemployment. Because a large proportion of the labour force is engaged in agriculture, seasonal unemployment accounts for a substantial and statistically unaccounted form of unemployment. Owing to the lack in most cases of systems of employment insurance compensation and employment services, there is little incentive for the unemployed and the laid-off workers to register with the government authorities. Consequently, hard-core and cyclical unemployment also go substantially unrecorded.

106. *The World Economic Survey, 1969–1970* discusses at some length the problems of the measurement of the rate of unemployment in its various forms (open, disguised, seasonal and cyclical employment, and underemployment).<sup>43</sup> The situation of Pakistan is not untypical.

In general, the smaller the relative coverage of the registration system, the less accurately are changes in the number registered likely to represent changes in the actual number of job seekers. In Pakistan, for example, the number of registered unemployed (applicants for jobs) remained virtually static between 1964 and 1968 at less than 0.5 per cent of the labour force, which was increasing at about 3 per cent a year. At the time of the census at the beginning of the decade, 1 per cent of the labour force (which constituted a third of the total population, half of the population over 10 years of age) was recorded as 'not working but looking for work', when sample surveys showed the unemployment rate to average between 3 and 4 per cent of the labour force in rural areas, 8 per cent in the larger towns of the West and 11 per cent in the larger towns of the East, where, in addition, underemployment, urban and rural, was equivalent to an unemployment rate of over 20 per cent.<sup>44</sup>

<sup>42</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 131.

<sup>43</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 125–131.

<sup>44</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 129 and 130.

TABLE II.34

Selected developing countries: growth in population, labour force, employment and investment, around 1960

	Annual increment (thousands) in			Annual net domestic capital formation		Hypothetical capital required			
						To employ increment of labour force in industry		To provide for the increment in the non-participating population <sup>d</sup> (millions of dollars)	Total (millions of dollars)
	Population	Labour force <sup>a</sup>	Employment in industry <sup>b</sup>	Total (millions of dollars)	Per unit increase in population (dollars)	Per worker <sup>c</sup> (dollars)	Amount (millions of dollars)		
<i>Western hemisphere</i>									
Argentina .....	353	114	82	1 638	4 640	23 201	2 645	1 109	3 754
Bolivia .....	99	27	10	25	253	1 670 <sup>c</sup>	45	18	63
Brazil .....	2 080	624	185	2 737	1 316	6 580	4 106	1 916	6 022
Chile .....	192	40	12 <sup>b</sup>	198	1 031	5 157 <sup>c</sup>	206	157	363
Colombia .....	492	115	22	370	752	3 760	432	284	716
Costa Rica .....	43	8	4	62	1 442	7 210	58	50	108
Dominican Republic .....	110	22	3	30	273	1 364	30	24	54
Ecuador .....	148	33	7 <sup>b</sup>	77	520	2 602	86	60	146
El Salvador .....	88	16	6 <sup>b</sup>	42	477	2 387	38	34	72
Guatemala .....	118	28	8	55	466	2 875 <sup>c</sup>	108	42	150
Guyana .....	18	3	1	32	1 829	9 143	27	27	54

TABLE II.34 (continued)

	Annual increments (thousands) in			Annual net domestic capital formation		Hypothetical capital required			
						To employ increment of labour force in industry		To provide for the increment in the non-participating population <sup>d</sup> (millions of dollars)	Total (millions of dollars)
	Population	Labour force <sup>a</sup>	Employment in industry <sup>b</sup>	Total (millions of dollars)	Per unit increase in population (dollars)	Per worker <sup>c</sup> (dollars)	Amount (millions of dollars)		
Haiti.....	80	40	5	10	125	625	25	5	30
Honduras.....	63	15	3 <sup>b</sup>	28	444	2 222	33	21	54
Jamaica.....	33	2	1	81	2 455	14 750 <sup>c</sup>	30	76	106
Mexico.....	1 222	299	116	1 121	917	4 587	1 371	847	2 218
Nicaragua.....	48	11	3	38	792	3 959	44	29	73
Panama.....	35	9	2	38	1 086	5 429	49	26	75
Paraguay.....	54	12	4	28	519	2 593	31	22	53
Peru.....	311	66	26	303	974	4 872	322	239	561
Trinidad and Tobago.....	22	6	5	94	4 273	21 364	128	106	234
Uruguay.....	33	10	5	152	4 606	8 540 <sup>c</sup>	85	106	191
Venezuela.....	257	82	18	561	2 183	11 778 <sup>c</sup>	966	382	1 348
<i>Africa</i>									
Algeria.....	248	12	2	537	2 165	8 661	104	511	615
Angola.....	63	25	6	54	857	3 428	86	33	119
Cameroon [United Republic of].....	100	34	3 <sup>b</sup>	44	440	1 760	60	29	89
Central African Republic.....	29	10	—	18	621	2 483	25	12	37
Chad.....	45	19	1	16	356	1 422	27	9	36
Congo (Democratic Republic of the) [Zaire].....	297	98	17	89	300	1 200	118	60	178
Ethiopia.....	414	128	11	91	220	1 455 <sup>c</sup>	186	63	247
Gabon.....	8	2	—	46	5 750	23 000	46	34	80
Ghana.....	183	51	25 <sup>b</sup>	207	1 131	4 524	231	149	380
Ivory Coast.....	97	34	1	64	660	2 639	90	42	132
Kenya.....	237	90	9	91	1 620	2 000	180	238	418
Liberia.....	17	4	1	38	2 235	8 941	36	29	65
Libyan Arab Republic.....	50	9	3	123	2 460	9 840	89	101	190
Madagascar.....	129	53	4 <sup>b</sup>	41	318	1 271	67	24	91
Mauritius.....	17	2	1	27	1 588	6 353 <sup>c</sup>	13	24	37
Morocco.....	338	67	18	118	349	1 396	94	82	176
Mozambique.....	86	23	2	132	1 544	6 176	142	96	238
Nigeria.....	1 248	254	130 <sup>b</sup>	312	250	1 000	254	249	503
People's Republic of the Congo [Congo].....	11	2	1	49	4 455	17 818	36	40	76
Sierra Leone.....	29	13	9 <sup>b</sup>	24	828	3 310	43	16	59
Southern Rhodesia.....	123	45	2	142	1 155	4 618 <sup>c</sup>	208	90	298
Sudan.....	339	103	13	170	501	2 006	207	118	325
Togo.....	38	11	2	9	237	947	10	7	17
Tunisia.....	89	16	6	145	1 629	4 000 <sup>c</sup>	64	119	183
Uganda.....	167	62	4 <sup>b</sup>	39	234	934	58	25	83
United Arab Republic [Egypt].....	648	250	65 <sup>b</sup>	576	889	4 031 <sup>c</sup>	1 008	354	1 362
United Republic of Tanzania..	256	90	10	50	195	781	70	32	102
Zambia.....	96	31	6 <sup>b</sup>	99	1 031	5 500 <sup>c</sup>	171	67	238
<i>Asia</i>									
Burma.....	469	177	40	142	303	1 211	214	88	304
Ceylon (Sri Lanka).....	247	58	16	139	563	2 251	131	106	237
India.....	10 725	3 714	668 <sup>b</sup>	4 000	373	1 492	5 541	2 615	8 156
Indonesia.....	2 244	694	116	267	119	476	330	184	514
Iran.....	614	137	64	366	569	2 276	312	271	583
Iraq.....	192	51	17	207	1 078	4 312	220	152	372
Israel.....	71	20	10 <sup>b</sup>	505	7 113	10 400 <sup>c</sup>	208	363	571
Jordan.....	46	14	7	44	957	3 826	54	31	85
Khmer Republic.....	158	47	4	77	487	1 949	92	54	146
Malaysia.....	207	53	12	171	826	3 304	175	127	302
Pakistan.....	2 605	668	125	551	212	846	565	410	975
Philippines.....	931	500	60	544	595	3 383 <sup>c</sup>	1 692	256	1 948
Republic of Korea.....	667	250	100 <sup>b</sup>	265	397	830 <sup>c</sup>	208	166	374
Syrian Arab Republic.....	128	60	10 <sup>b</sup>	91	711	2 844	171	48	219
Thailand.....	818	296	35	334	408	3 000 <sup>c</sup>	888	213	1 101

Source: World Economic Survey, 1969-1970 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), pp. 132 and 133.

<sup>a</sup> Based on participation rates furnished by the International Labour Organisation.

<sup>b</sup> Actual for the countries indicated; otherwise twice the proportionate rate of increase in the labour force.

<sup>c</sup> Actual for the countries indicated; otherwise four times the average rate of annual net domestic capital formation per unit increase in population in Africa and Asia and five times that rate in the western hemisphere.

<sup>d</sup> Increment in population minus increment in labour force multiplied by the average actual rate of net domestic capital formation per unit increase in population.



## D. The Second United Nations Development Decade: strategic bottle-necks

107. The above assessment of the economic conditions of the less developed countries in the 1960s clearly indicates the existence of a number of serious bottle-necks which are already affecting their developing process. Here again, conditions vary enormously from country to country, but there are at least three areas manifesting functional and sectoral obstacles common to all: agriculture and food supply, employment and job creation, and industrial growth. Each country will need to watch for signs of im-

balance in these sectors and develop its own mechanisms for dealing with them.<sup>45</sup>

### *Agriculture and food supply*

108. Many developing countries are experiencing great difficulty in producing the food necessary for the maintenance of their increasing population. Table II.35 demonstrates the widening gap between the supply of and demand for food during the 1960s.

<sup>45</sup> For a more detailed discussion, see *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970* . . . , pp. 117-135.

TABLE II.35  
Selected less developed countries:<sup>a</sup>  
average annual change in food production and demand, 1960-1968

	Annual average percentage rate of increase in			Average annual percentage rate of increase in	
	Population	Per capita income	Elasticity of demand for food <sup>b</sup>	Estimated demand for food <sup>c</sup>	Domestic food production <sup>d</sup>
<i>Western hemisphere</i>					
Argentina .....	1.6	1.6	0.14	1.8	2.7
Bolivia.....	2.6	2.7	0.66	4.4	0.8
Brazil.....	3.0	2.0	0.30	3.6	4.3
Chile.....	2.5	2.0	0.43	3.4	2.1
Colombia.....	3.2	1.6	0.42	3.9	3.1
Costa Rica.....	3.4	3.2	(0.36)	4.6	3.7
Cuba.....	2.1	..	0.34	..	-2.1
Dominican Republic.....	3.6	-0.7	0.40	3.3	-1.5
Ecuador.....	3.4	1.0	0.54	3.9	2.4
El Salvador.....	3.6	2.1	0.40	4.4	3.5
Guatemala.....	3.1	2.0	0.40	3.9	4.3
Guyana.....	3.1	-0.6	(0.40)	2.9	0.5
Haiti.....	2.0	-0.8	0.66	1.5	-2.3
Honduras.....	3.4	2.1	0.40	4.2	4.5
Jamaica.....	2.0	3.3	(0.36)	3.2	-0.2
Mexico.....	3.4	2.9	0.36	4.4	5.0
Nicaragua.....	3.4	3.8	0.40	4.9	6.9
Panama.....	3.3	4.5	0.40	5.1	5.9
Paraguay.....	3.1	1.5	0.35	3.6	0.7
Peru.....	3.1	2.5	0.48	4.3	0.3
Surinam.....	3.5	2.7	(0.36)	4.5	..
Trinidad and Tobago.....	2.6	2.4	(0.30)	3.3	-0.1
Uruguay.....	1.3	-1.1	0.15	1.1	0.7
Venezuela.....	3.5	1.1	0.40	3.9	5.3
<i>Africa</i>					
Algeria.....	2.3	-2.8	0.46	1.0	-1.1
Angola.....	1.3	1.4	0.58	2.1	1.8
Burundi.....	2.0	0.6	0.58	2.3	2.1
Cameroon [United Republic of]...	2.1	3.4	0.58	4.1	2.7
Central African Republic.....	2.4	-0.3	0.58	2.2	..
Chad.....	1.5	0.6	0.58	1.8	..
Congo (Democratic Republic of the) [Zaire].....	2.1	1.0	0.58	2.7	-0.4
Dahomey.....	2.9	-0.6	0.58	2.6	1.4
Equatorial Guinea.....	1.8	..	(0.55)	..	..
Ethiopia.....	2.0	2.4	0.56	3.3	2.4
Gabon.....	1.9	3.4	0.58	3.9	..
Ghana.....	2.7	-0.3	0.58	2.5	1.0
Guinea.....	2.7	2.3	0.55	4.0	1.4
Ivory Coast.....	3.0	4.4	0.58	5.6	4.2
Kenya.....	2.9	1.8	0.60	4.0	4.1
Liberia.....	1.7	3.0	0.55	3.4	0.6
Madagascar.....	2.4	-0.2	0.57	2.3	1.9
Malawi.....	2.6	0.2	0.67	2.7	4.7
Mali.....	2.1	-0.1	0.66	2.0	-0.7
Morocco.....	2.9	1.2	0.55	3.6	4.6

TABLE II.35 (continued)

	Annual average percentage rate of increase in			Average annual percentage rate of increase in	
	Population	Per capita income	Elasticity of demand for food <sup>b</sup>	Estimated demand for food <sup>c</sup>	Domestic food production <sup>d</sup>
<i>Africa (continued)</i>					
Mozambique .....	1.3	4.0	0.46	3.1	..
Niger .....	3.1	1.9	0.66	4.4	2.3
Nigeria .....	2.4	-2.1	0.48	1.4	0.7
People's Republic of the Congo [Congo] .....	1.5	6.0	0.58	5.0	..
Rwanda .....	3.1	-0.5	0.58	2.8	2.4
Senegal .....	2.1	0.6	0.66	2.5	0.9
Sierra Leone .....	1.3	3.6	0.55	3.3	1.3
Southern Rhodesia .....	3.2	0.3	0.67	3.4	1.8
Sudan .....	2.9	1.7	0.52	3.8	1.7
Togo .....	2.6	4.3	0.58	5.1	1.2
Tunisia .....	2.3	1.8	0.57	3.3	-1.6
Uganda .....	2.5	1.6	0.49	3.3	1.6
United Arab Republic [Egypt] .....	2.5	1.0	0.50	3.0	1.5
United Republic of Tanzania .....	2.5	0.9	0.61	3.0	2.7
Upper Volta .....	2.0	0.8	0.66	2.5	0.3
Zambia .....	3.0	3.7	0.67	5.5	5.4
<i>Asia</i>					
Burma .....	2.1	1.6	0.48	2.9	1.0
Ceylon [Sri Lanka] .....	2.4	2.3	0.63	3.8	4.5
India .....	2.5	1.0	0.72	3.2	1.8
Indonesia .....	2.4	0.2	0.68	2.5	1.7
Iran .....	2.9	5.1	0.67	6.3	4.9
Iraq .....	2.8	3.9	0.58	5.1	2.9
Jordan .....	2.7	5.3	0.47	5.2	5.0
Khmer Republic .....	2.4	-3.2	(0.50)	0.8	-2.6
Kuwait .....	8.7	-2.0	(0.35)	8.0	..
Lebanon .....	2.5	1.1	0.41	3.0	6.4
Malaysia .....	3.0	2.7	0.50	4.4	5.1
Pakistan .....	2.1	3.7	0.72	4.8	3.1
Philippines .....	3.4	0.8	0.61	3.9	3.3
Republic of Korea .....	2.7	6.1	0.47	5.6	3.7
Republic of Viet-Nam .....	2.7	-1.1	(0.50)	2.2	-1.0
Singapore .....	2.5	6.0	0.50	5.5	..
Syrian Arab Republic .....	2.8	4.8	0.49	5.2	4.1
Thailand .....	3.1	4.8	0.44	5.2	3.7

Source: *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), pp. 120-121.

<sup>a</sup> Countries have been selected on the basis of availability of data.

<sup>b</sup> Based on Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, *Agricultural commodities: projections for 1975 and 1985*, vol. II (Rome), pp. 28-33. Elasticity of demand for food estimated at farm value. Figures in parentheses interpolated.

<sup>c</sup> Based on population growth plus the product of estimated coefficient of demand elasticity and rise in *per capita* income.

<sup>d</sup> For the definition of food and the calculation of the average rate of growth, see table A.2 in the statistical annex of the *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970*.

109. One of the most pernicious results of this gap is the increasing cost of food items. In table II.36, the movement in consumer prices for various components (food, fuel and light, clothing and rent) from 1960 to 1968 shows that prices for all these essentials have risen sharply in many developing countries but that the increase in the price of food has generally been greatest. The income distribution effects of such a situation can hardly be over-emphasized. Since most of the income of the lower-income groups is spent on the items listed, inflationary prices for these items result in income redistribution that favours the higher-income groups and discriminates against the poor.

#### *Employment, job creation and industrial lag*

110. Another pervasive imbalance in the less developed world is that between the number of job openings and the number of persons wishing to enter the labour force.

Aside from the problems of measuring the scope of unemployment in its various forms, there is a serious lag in industrial growth which impedes the absorption of these additional workers into the labour force. (A summary of the situation has been quoted in paragraph 104 above.)

111. This lag, together with rapid urbanization, has led to an increase in the size of the sub-integrated communities that exist on the fringes of the urban economic and social life.

112. The main solutions to the over-all problems of economic development still lie in industrial development (including the mechanization and commercialization of agriculture). Here is where new jobs are largely created, productivity is raised and a whole new horizon of economic opportunities is opened up. The application by the less developed countries of their scarce resources to their industrial development must therefore be well planned and

TABLE II.36

Less developed countries and territories: movement in consumer prices by component,<sup>a</sup> 1960-1968

		Index (initial year = 100) of				
	Period	Consumer prices <sup>b</sup>	Food	Fuel and light <sup>c</sup>	Clothing <sup>d</sup>	Rent <sup>e</sup>
<i>Western hemisphere</i>						
Argentina .....	1960-1968	560	525	390	582	496
Barbados .....	1960-1965	109	107	111	104	104
	1966-1968	111	111	..	104	108
Bolivia .....	1960-1968	161	151	..	148	..
Brazil .....	1960-1968	2 618	2 300	3 030	2 820	2 800
Chile .....	1960-1968	612	661	..	567	..
Colombia .....	1960-1968	246	251	..	232	..
Costa Rica .....	1960-1968	118	119	110	105	115
Dominican Republic .....	1960-1968	116	116	128	112	95
Ecuador .....	1960-1965	118	127	107	117	120
	1965-1968	113	119	..	106	107
El Salvador .....	1960-1968	104	113	117	89	73
Guatemala .....	1960-1968	104	104	112	86	..
Guyana .....	1960-1967	116	117	111	106	102
Haiti .....	1960-1968	128	130	..	134	118
Honduras .....	1960-1968	122	122	119	166	110
Jamaica .....	1960-1967	121	119	116	116	130
Mexico .....	1960-1968	120	120	121	122	..
Nicaragua .....	1960-1967	114	122	135	101	101
Panama .....	1962-1968	107	110	101	104	107
Paraguay .....	1964-1968	109	106	..	104	106
Peru .....	1960-1966	171	182	..	177	137
Trinidad and Tobago .....	1961-1968	126	125	119	109	120
Uruguay .....	1963-1968	1 649	1 768	..	1 777	783
Venezuela .....	1962-1968	108	106	93	101	106
<i>Africa</i>						
Algeria .....	1964-1967	104	100	..	105	102
Burundi .....	1965-1968	111	111	..	..	..
Cameroon <sup>f</sup> [United Republic of] .....	1961-1968	132	134	..	..	..
Central African Republic .....	1960-1966	145	153	114	154	..
Central African Republic <sup>f</sup> .....	1960-1968	158	163	122	195	..
Chad <sup>f</sup> .....	1960-1968	143	146	101	122	..
Congo <sup>f</sup> (Democratic Republic of the) [Zaire] .....	1963-1968	325	337	..	..	..
Ethiopia .....	1963-1968	128	132	133	123	..
Gabon .....	1962-1968	123	119	110	144	..
Gabon <sup>f</sup> .....	1960-1968	150	147	110	162	..
Ghana .....	1960-1968	187	191	147	206	112
Ivory Coast .....	1960-1968	128	127	118	131	126
Ivory Coast <sup>f</sup> .....	1960-1968	126	121	96	136	..
Kenya .....	1960-1967	117	119	127	103	..
Kenya <sup>f</sup> .....	1960-1967	121	124	111	110	..
Liberia .....	1964-1968	114	107	..	..	..
Libyan Arab Republic .....	1964-1968	124	129	..	109	129
Madagascar .....	1964-1968	109	110	105	..	..
Madagascar <sup>f</sup> .....	1960-1968	124	122	99	128	..
Malawi .....	1960-1964	110	108	..	104	..
Mauritania <sup>f</sup> .....	1961-1968	136	132	104	120	..
Mauritius .....	1962-1968	116	116	..	101	..
Morocco .....	1960-1968	120	121	..	132	113
Mozambique .....	1961-1968	120	117	107	119	146
Niger .....	1963-1968	114	114	..	109	..
Niger <sup>f</sup> .....	1960-1968	143	143	118	146	..
Nigeria .....	1960-1968	123	112	124	136	137
People's Republic of the Congo <sup>f</sup> [Congo] .....	1960-1967	143	145	126	124	..
Senegal <sup>f</sup> .....	1960-1968	121	129	113	80	..
Sierra Leone .....	1961-1968	129	108	123	111	253
Somalia .....	1960-1966	139	130	91	181	196
Southern Rhodesia .....	1960-1965	112	111	..	..	..
Sudan .....	1960-1967	132	146	119	107	116
Tunisia .....	1962-1968	125	126	112	129	111
Uganda <sup>f</sup> .....	1960-1968	125	128	..	..	..

TABLE II.36 (continued)

		Index (initial year = 100) of				
	Period	Consumer prices <sup>b</sup>	Food	Fuel and light <sup>c</sup>	Clothing <sup>d</sup>	Rent <sup>e</sup>
<i>Africa (continued)</i>						
Uganda <sup>f</sup> . . . . .	1960-1968	132	124	..	131	..
United Arab Republic [Egypt] . . . . .	1967-1968	104	100	..	..	..
	1960-1967	131	150	..	..	..
United Republic of Tanzania . . . . .	1960-1968	118	115	152	137	..
Zambia . . . . .	1960-1968	144	145	..	..	..
Zambia <sup>f</sup> . . . . .	1960-1968	137	134	97	129	106
<i>Asia</i>						
Burma . . . . .	1960-1964	100	101	102	94	99
Ceylon [Sri Lanka] . . . . .	1960-1968	117	120	101	126	..
Hong Kong . . . . .	1964-1968	114	124	101	103	..
India . . . . .	1960-1968	174	181	168	148	128
Indonesia . . . . .	1960-1968	4 439	5 716	..	1 691	3 521
Iran . . . . .	1960-1968	113	117	116	107	104
Iraq . . . . .	1960-1962	102	102	..	97	101
	1963-1968	103	104	103	107	95
Israel . . . . .	1960-1968	158	145	113	136	229
Khmer Republic . . . . .	1960-1967	122	110	..	106	..
Laos . . . . .	1960-1965	652	699	..	680	503
Malaysia (West) . . . . .	1960-1968	108	109	..	101	105
Nepal . . . . .	1964-1968	124	128	..	..	..
Pakistan . . . . .	1960-1968	130	138	..	114	125
People's Democratic Republic of Yemen [Democratic Yemen] . . . . .	1960-1967	118	128	120	95	..
Philippines . . . . .	1960-1963	115	122	..	108	..
	1964-1968	117	122	105	110	116
Republic of Korea . . . . .	1960-1965	205	231	176	208	143
	1966-1968	123	119	127	118	141
Republic of Viet-Nam . . . . .	1960-1968	416	596	..	262	194
Singapore . . . . .	1960-1968	111	114	110	104	108
Syrian Arab Republic . . . . .	1962-1967	115	122	105	98	..
Thailand . . . . .	1960-1968	119	131	..	101	124

Source: *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), pp. 123-125.

<sup>a</sup> Applicable only in many cases to major towns and certain population groups (see table A.15 of the statistical annex to the *World Economic Survey, 1967-1970*).

<sup>b</sup> Excluding rent in Mexico and all African countries except Algeria, Burundi, Egypt, Liberia, Libyan Arab Republic, Morocco, Mauritius, Mozambique, Nigeria, Somalia, Sudan, Tunisia and Zaire; excluding "miscellaneous items" in Haiti and Mexico.

<sup>c</sup> Fuel only in El Salvador, Hong Kong, Jamaica, Uruguay, Venezuela; electricity only in Honduras; including water in the

United Republic of Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Ivory Coast, Gabon, Mauritania, Mozambique, Niger, Democratic Yemen, Senegal, Sudan and Tunisia.

<sup>d</sup> Including household items in some cases.

<sup>e</sup> Including water and electricity in Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Indonesia, Jamaica and Venezuela; including water, fuel and light and repairs in Paraguay; including fuel and light in Algeria, Laos, Morocco, Peru and the Republic of Viet-Nam; including maintenance and repairs in Burma, Malaysia, Nigeria and Thailand; including fuel in Pakistan.

<sup>f</sup> European residents.

well executed. Unfortunately, however, industrial development often takes place without much prior research and planning, with the consequence that there are serious lags, under-utilization of existing capacity in some fields and import requirements in others. Under-utilization of capacity is typical in steel plants and power-generating and textile industries.

113. As the *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970* states, economic development is, in some ways, a leapfrogging process in which each sector is alternately under-equipped and over-equipped in relation to the market. Because capital is so scarce a factor in most developing countries, one objective of both development policy and economic management is to minimize the degree of over-equipment, that is, to maximize the output per unit of capital in operation. At the same time, however, the investment process is the spearhead of development; it opens up new resources, creates new demand and expands the market for capacity already in place, and in the end it raises productivity both in the sector concerned and for the economy as a whole. Hence, one of the most intricate

arts in the field of economic development is the maintenance of an appropriate balance in each of a series of key relationships—between installed capacity and the demand for the product, between the capital and labour input in any given project, and between operating capacities in interconnected industries.<sup>46</sup>

114. For these reasons, the less developed countries must make a special effort to do in-depth research and planning before deciding upon the allocation of their meagre resources to any of the rising number of competing demands confronting them.

#### *Programming science and technology to promote development*

115. It is generally acknowledged that economic progress and industrial development go hand in hand with the systematic application of technology to the problems of a country. For the less developed countries this initially

<sup>46</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 131.

consists of the transfer of appropriate existing technical knowledge from the more advanced countries to help to fill the science and technology gap. The effective transfer of technology involves, first of all, access to world literature and, next, the use of professionally qualified people. In the less developed countries, indigenous talent must be capable of generating innovations that meet the particular needs of the country. In other words, the transfer of science and technology is in itself inadequate until and unless the process has been institutionalized in a research and development infrastructure, including documentation centres, libraries, university research centres, independent research institutes and research and development departments in the manufacturing sector. Until that time, the transfer of science and technology can be expected to be haphazard, imitative and often irrelevant to the needs of a developing country.

116. To promote the systematic programming of scientific and technical development, the concept of a science policy has made some headway in some of the developing countries. This concept replaces the "older idea that science is a purely cultural activity which should be supported but which should not be expected to yield much in the way of definable returns".<sup>47</sup>

<sup>47</sup> "Relating science and technology to economic development: a five-country experiment", in *The OECD Observer*, No. 15 (Paris, April 1965), p. 8. See also OECD, *Science, Economic Growth and Government Policy* (Paris, 1963), and G. Jones, *The Role of Science and Technology in Developing Countries* (London, Oxford University Press, 1971).

117. The method proposed by OECD and adopted by some countries consists of making a complete analysis to determine priorities for research; formulating programmes for allocating scientific and technical research resources in each of the high priority areas; and constructing a detailed programme for the deployment of all scientific and technical resources, appropriately subdivided among the three major areas of basic research, applied research and development. Attention is also paid to the establishment of institutions to carry on the work of programming science and technology in relation to economic and social development.

118. In order to allow a scientific culture to penetrate all levels of the traditional society, however, the less developed countries must also use to the maximum degree possible all means of mass communication. The "scientific fall-out" from educational programmes on radio and television cannot be over-estimated. What the traditional societies need most of all is to break through the traditional patterns of thought, motivation and behaviour. A thoughtful science policy, therefore, should pay particular attention to the means by which this might be accomplished, through the dissemination of information on the widest possible scale. The use of radio and television as an auxiliary in the educational system, as well as in their own right as channels of education, would be a relatively inexpensive way of making progress in this endeavour.



## Chapter III

### SOCIAL CONDITIONS

119. During the last decade, planning for social progress has been timidly accepted by most of the less developed countries as an integral part of national development planning. Investment in terms of building and machinery has generally been the main concern of growth planners, particularly during the early 1960s. The human element, both as the primary means of production and as an end of all productive effort, has received less attention. Growth of the GDP has not been attended in all cases by a corresponding improvement in the standard of living for the majority of the lower income groups in the less developed countries. In some cases, the situation of the working population has worsened, as inflation has virtually stripped it of a portion of its initial real income. The continuing maldistribution of income, chronic unemployment, a concentric approach with regard to the regional distribution of investment, lack of attention to technologies suited to the national resource endowment, neglect of a progressive labour and wage policy, and insufficient emphasis on minimum nutritional requirements, technical and vocational training, health services and rural development have, in many cases, deepened the social problems that existed at the beginning of the 1960s. This process has taken place in particular where domestic investment for social progress and development could not increase at a rate higher than the rate of population growth. Among political leaders and planners, however, there has emerged, since the end of the last decade, an increasing recognition of the

necessity and importance of a vigorous approach to social progress. This, together with new trends in the conceptual framework of development at the national and international levels, has changed the policy orientation of many recent development plans.

120. None the less, basic traditional institutions have impeded a more rapid transformation of the power structure in conformity with this new approach. Belief in short-term considerations of profit maximization still overwhelms the long-term objectives of creating a happier human society, though there are promising signs of imbalances being eliminated in a few of the developing countries. In this chapter, social conditions as they affect human rights in the less developed countries, and their evaluation during the last decade, will be examined. Paucity of information and comparative data makes it extremely difficult to evaluate in full detail the extent of the realization of human rights in all the developing countries. A number of demographic, social and cultural indicators are therefore used throughout this chapter to denote the general situation with respect to social and cultural rights in individual regions, countries and territories.

#### A. Typology

121. There are few social indicators that qualify as generic bases for typological purposes suitable to the analysis of human rights. Moreover, because of many

TABLE II.37

Less developed countries and territories grouped by percentage rate of illiteracy of population over 15 years of age during the period 1960-1967

I 1-20	II 21-40	III 41-60	IV 61-80	V over 81
Antigua	Brazil	Brunei	Bahrain	Algeria
Argentina	Colombia	Comoro Islands	Cape Verde Islands <sup>a</sup>	Gabon
British Honduras [Belize]	Cyprus	El Salvador	Egypt	Guinea-Bissau
Chile	Ecuador	Honduras	Guatemala	Liberia
Costa Rica	Hong Kong <sup>b</sup>	Ifni	Libyan Arab Republic	Mali
French Polynesia	Mauritius	Indonesia	Malawi	Nepal
Guadeloupe	Mexico	Iran	Morocco	Niger
Jamaica	New Caledonia	Khmer Republic	Namibia <sup>c</sup>	Pakistan
Macau	Panama	Kuwait <sup>b</sup>	South Africa <sup>c</sup>	Senegal
Martinique	Paraguay	Lesotho	Syrian Arab Republic	Sierra Leone
Montserrat	Peru	Malaysia	Tunisia <sup>b</sup>	Sikkim
Puerto Rico	Philippines	Nicaragua		
St. Helena <sup>a</sup>	Ryukyu Islands	Réunion		
Surinam	Sri Lanka	Seychelles		
Uruguay	Thailand	Turkey		
Western Samoa	Venezuela	Zambia		

Sources: UNESCO, *Statistical Yearbook, 1970* (Paris, 1971), tables 1.1 and 1.3; UNESCO, *Literacy, 1969-1971: Progress Achieved in Literacy throughout the World* (Paris, 1972).

<sup>a</sup> Related to population over 16 years of age.

<sup>b</sup> Related to population over 10 years of age.

<sup>c</sup> Non-whites. Because of the prevailing government policy and practice of *apartheid*, the literacy, health and general living standards for whites and non-whites in this country are far from equal.

natural, historic, social and economic factors, there is no assurance that any one country will consistently fit into a particular typological group when there is more than one indicator. Besides, information on the selected indicators is not uniformly available for all countries. Nevertheless, the selected indicators are broad and consistent enough to show where each country stands with respect to the realization of social, economic and cultural rights. The three basic indicators selected for typological purposes are the percentage rate of illiteracy, life expectancy at birth and the rate of infant mortality.

122. The percentage rate of illiteracy is indicative of the degree of (a) social backwardness, (b) under-development of human resources, (c) maldistribution of opportunities for participation in social and political development and for individual progress and (d) social mobility.

123. The life expectancy data indicate (a) the country's over-all economic and social progress, (b) the distribution of medical and health care, (c) the general standard of living and (d) the importance a country has already given to social welfare.

124. The rate of infant mortality can be interpreted to show (a) the situation with respect to income distribution, (b) the availability of pre-natal medical care, midwives and mother and child care centres and (c) the food and nutrition situation of the low-income groups.

125. On the basis of available data, tables II.37, II.38 and II.39 list developing countries under five broad type groups. According to these tables, whereas most of Latin America and such Asian countries as Cyprus, Hong

Kong and Sri Lanka belong to type groups I and II, most of the western, eastern, middle and southern African countries belong to type groups IV and V. The rest of the countries conform in varying degrees to type group III.

## B. Standards of living

126. Social analysts face many limitations in the definition and measurement of the standard of living. Some of the basic questions are: What is the international norm for the standard of living? Does such a norm exist? How can one quantify the level of happiness, which may be only partly a function of material well-being? How can one set against the level of material well-being such factors as environmental pollution, mental distress and social unrest? Or, to put it differently, how can the analyst "inflate" the *per capita* income of the less developed regions by taking into consideration their state of mental and spiritual happiness and way of life in a healthier and more natural environment? It is always easier to compare individual aspects of living, like caloric intake, clothing, housing and the level of cultural and recreational facilities, in quantitative terms. But when it comes to quality, figures should be adjusted for the real cost of living, climatic considerations, lack of discrimination in fact and in law, individual tastes and behaviour and, finally, the absolute satisfaction that the population of a region obtains from the facilities available to it. In general, with minor exceptions, there are no norms or indices that can be used for such adjustments. International comparisons are therefore misleading in so far as *per capita* income and

TABLE II.38  
Developing countries and territories grouped by life expectancy at birth (1965-1970)

I 70 years and over	II 60-69 years	III 50-59 years	IV 40-49 years	V 30-39 years
Hong Kong	Argentina Barbados Brazil Chile Costa Rica Cyprus Guyana Jamaica Kuwait Mexico Panama Singapore Sri Lanka Trinidad and Tobago Uruguay Venezuela	Algeria Colombia Dominican Republic Ecuador Egypt <sup>a</sup> El Salvador Guatemala Iran Iraq Jordan Libyan Arab Republic Malaysia Morocco Nicaragua Pakistan Paraguay Peru Philippines Republic of Korea Republic of Viet-Nam Southern Rhodesia <sup>c</sup> Syrian Arab Republic Thailand Tunisia Turkey	Bolivia Burma Democratic Yemen Gabon Guinea Haiti Honduras India Indonesia Kenya Khmer Republic Laos Lesotho Mauritania Mozambique Niger Saudi Arabia Senegal Sierra Leone South Africa <sup>c</sup> Sudan Uganda United Republic of Cameroon United Republic of Tanzania Yemen Zambia	Afghanistan Angola Burundi Chad Congo Dahomey Ghana Guinea-Bissau Madagascar Malawi Mali Nigeria Somalia Togo <sup>b</sup>

Source: *Demographic Yearbook, 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F.71.XIII.1), and *Social Change and Social Development Policy in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.70.II.G.3), pp. 16 and 17.

<sup>a</sup> 1960.

<sup>b</sup> 1961.

<sup>c</sup> Non-whites. Because of the prevailing government policy and practice of apartheid, the literacy, health and general living standards for whites and non-whites in this country are far from equal.

TABLE II.39

Developing countries and territories grouped by the rate of infant mortality  
(deaths under one year per 1 000 live births)

I 10-49	II 50-99	III 100-149	IV 150-199	V 200 and over
Bahamas	Algeria	Burma	Burundi	Gabon
Bahrain	Argentina	Cape Verde	Central African Republic	Guinea
Barbados	Bolivia	Dahomey	Chad	Niger
Brunei	Brazil	Egypt	Congo	Sikkim
Cyprus	Chile	India	Haiti	Zambia
Fiji	Colombia	Indonesia	Lesotho	
Grenada	Costa Rica	Ivory Coast	Liberia	
Guadeloupe	Democratic Yemen	Kenya	Mauritania	
Guam	Dominican Republic	Khmer Republic	Turkey	
Guyana	Ecuador	Madagascar	Uganda	
Hong Kong	El Salvador	Malawi	United Republic of Tanzania	
Jamaica	Gambia	Mali	Upper Volta	
Jordan	Guatemala	Morocco		
Kuwait	Mauritius	Pakistan		
Malaysia	Mexico	Rwanda		
Martinique	Mozambique	Sierra Leone		
Panama	Nicaragua	Southern Rhodesia <sup>a</sup>		
Puerto Rico	Paraguay	Togo		
Ryukyu Islands	Peru	Tunisia		
St. Lucia	Philippines	United Republic of Cameroon		
Singapore	Reunion	Zaire		
Sri Lanka	Sudan			
Surinam	Uruguay			
Thailand				
Trinidad and Tobago				
Venezuela				
Western Samoa				

Sources: Population Reference Bureau Inc., *World Population Data Sheet—1971* (Washington, D.C.).

<sup>a</sup> Non-whites. Because of the prevailing government policy and practice of *apartheid*, the literacy, health and general living standards for whites and non-whites in this country are far from equal.

the standard of living as such are concerned.<sup>48</sup> It is possible, however, to review the evolution of the standard of living in any particular country or region by its national norms, which take into consideration the enjoyment of a wholesome life, with a view to the changing pattern of distribution of income, wealth, opportunity and social services. In practice, a more equitable distribution of wealth, opportunity and social services would ultimately lead to a better distribution of income.

127. Wealth, in most of the countries under consideration in this part of the report, consists mainly of land (including water and other natural resources), livestock, buildings, stocks of commodities and some mobile property, and cash (including gold and silver).<sup>49</sup> In modern business corporations, wealth includes title to ownership of some productive assets, which may be in the form of machinery and equipment.

128. During the 1960s, although the ownership of large agricultural properties by absentee landlords has

become subject to some sort of legislation in a number of the less developed countries, only a few of these countries have, in fact, done away with absentee ownership and carried out an equitable distribution of agricultural land (with or without compensation) to peasant cultivators.<sup>50</sup> As Myrdal states:

Land reform has been on the political agenda in practically all underdeveloped countries. And almost everywhere Governments have made a sham of it. When legislated for, it has been a mini-reform, and even that has not been carried out effectively. Quite generally, the interests of the landless labourers have been totally neglected. The supplementary reforms—community development, agricultural extension, credit and other co-operatives—have had an easier passage. But in the absence of effective land reform, they have rather tended to assist the upper strata in the villages and thus actually increased inequality.<sup>51</sup>

The mere distribution of land, however, has not necessarily led, at least in the short run, to higher income for farmers. The follow-up services, including agricultural credit, marketing, organization and technical aid to farm co-operatives etc. have not, in most cases, been provided by Governments to a sufficient degree to prevent a drop in productivity, in market prices or in both. The improvement of the level of living of farmers in most of these countries, and even more in others that have not yet

<sup>48</sup> It is misleading to take *per capita* income and its rate of growth in isolation from other factors as the yardstick for the measurement of general economic and social development. As Gunnar Myrdal writes: "It is not clear exactly what is supposed to be growing, or whether it is real growth in any sense or merely reflects the costs caused by undesirable developments, or conspicuous, private and public consumption and investments". See G. Myrdal, "The world poverty problem", *Britannica Book of the Year 1972* (Chicago, Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc., 1972), p. 27.

<sup>49</sup> *Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East, 1971* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.F.1), p. 8.

<sup>50</sup> So far, Algeria, Chile, Egypt, Iran and the United Republic of Tanzania may be cited as the best examples of countries where such action has been taken.

<sup>51</sup> G. Myrdal, *loc. cit.* p. 30.

started progressive land reform policies, continues to be a matter of concern to political leaders and planners.

129. The introduction of new seeds and the transfer of modern agricultural technology have, so far, "primarily benefited the farmers with large holdings, good quality land, better irrigation facilities, higher educational levels and better financial standing".<sup>52</sup> The new technology has "failed to reach the vast majority of small farmers, whether owners or tenants, who for lack of resources could not apply the package of practices required".<sup>53</sup>

130. Some developing countries, like Iran, have gone as far as adopting legislation to ensure for workers a share in the annual profit of productive firms and policies to help workers acquire equity participation in business corporations. A few have begun experimenting with labour participation in the management of enterprises. These are basic policies aimed at guaranteeing social justice, with very little or no adverse effect on the rate of growth of *per capita* income. Until recently, almost all economists were concerned with the necessity of a trade-off between the objectives of *per capita* income growth and those of social justice. However, the real facts of life in highly developed countries such as the United States of America and the Federal Republic of Germany have shown that the growth of *per capita* income as a function of the growth of savings and *per capita* consumption can be stimulated by a better and more equitable distribution of income resulting from a better distribution of equity shares, among other things. The distribution of equity shares in highly developed countries has been expanding gradually over the past century, together with capital market institutions and progressive tax laws. The socialist countries have chosen the outright acquisition and control of the means of production, using other policy instruments like wage and price policies and the provision of housing, education, health services and job training and opportunities as the major methods of guaranteeing social justice.

131. The less developed countries, therefore, can adopt any of a complete range of choices in order to achieve a better distribution of income and a more coherent social pattern with little or no sacrifice with regard to the rate of growth of their GNP. In fact, as already stated, the rate of growth may well be reinforced over a long period of time. These choices, which are not mutually exclusive or in any way exhaustive, include:

(a) The choice of industries and technologies most suited to the national resource endowment, which for a great majority of the less developed countries implies the adoption of labour-intensive industries and techniques in order to provide job opportunities for everyone seeking work.

(b) The provision of opportunity for everyone, through technical education and vocational training, to enhance his productive ability and contribution to the GNP.

(c) The regional diversification of domestic investment so as to make a fuller use of natural and human resources and the productive capacities of the backward regions. Studies have shown that the capital-output ratio is lower than the national average in some backward areas. This proves that a well-studied policy of regional balance may even contribute to a greater rate of economic growth.

<sup>52</sup> *Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East, 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.F.1), p. 118.

<sup>53</sup> *Ibid.*

(d) The adoption of wage as well as taxation policies directed towards minimizing the gap between the poor and the rich and eliminating distinctions based on race, sex, religion and economic and social status.

(e) The adoption of a price policy whenever necessary through farm subsidies in favour of agricultural products so as to increase the income of farmers to a level commensurate with the average level of other wage earners, taking into account agricultural inputs other than farmers' labour.

(f) The provision of an institutional framework and financial arrangements for helping the working population to acquire shares in equity capital.

(g) The promotion of the spread of light industry and indigenous handicrafts in rural areas and backward regions on a par with the pursuance of national policies for construction and the spread of heavy industries. This would, of course, entail the creation of industrial jobs in the rural areas in sectors related to agricultural production and other small-scale and unsophisticated industries, in order to provide an additional work and income source for farmers during off-seasons.

132. A study of poverty in India carried out by Professor V.M. Dandekar of the Indian School of Political Economy<sup>54</sup> reveals the increasing inequality of the standard of living among income classes in more stark terms.<sup>55</sup> Table II.40 provides data on *per capita* annual consumer expenditures in different sectors of the population in 1960-1961 and 1967-1968 (at 1960-1961 prices), tabulated by a national sample survey and corrected for its unrealistic estimations. In connexion with the table, Dandekar makes the following observation:

the *per capita* consumption of different sections in 1967-1968 are expressed as percentages of corresponding consumption in 1960-1961. The results are eye opening. The lower middle and poorer sections, constituting the bottom 40 per cent of the urban population, have not benefited at all by the economic development of the past decade. Indeed, the evidence is that their *per capita* consumption has declined, and greatly so among the poorest 10 per cent. This is not impossible. It is this class which suffers from a rise in prices, as was witnessed in the past decade.<sup>56</sup>

133. Table II.41 illustrates not only the inequality between rural and urban living standards in India but a deepening of poverty among the poorest in both sectors, concerning which Dandekar and Rath arrive at the following conclusion:

During the past decade, the *per capita* private consumer expenditure increased by less than half per cent per annum. Moreover, the small gains have not been equitably distributed among all sections of the population. The condition of the bottom 20 per cent [of the] rural poor has remained more or less stagnant. The condition of the bottom 20 per cent [of the] urban poor has definitely deteriorated; and for another 20 per cent of the urban population it has remained more or less stagnant. Thus, while the character of rural poverty

<sup>54</sup> V. Dandekar and N. Rath, *Poverty in India* (Bombay, Indian School of Political Economy, 1971).

<sup>55</sup> The Special Rapporteur feels that it is only through scientific and unbiased studies of the kind carried out under the direction of Professor Dandekar that the hard facts of life can be brought to bear on those responsible for taking decisions on the policies and radical measures needed to create more just conditions of life and to engender rapid and sustained economic and social development. In that respect, the Special Rapporteur considers the study to be a credit to India. It is to be hoped that similar studies may be made in other countries and that they will lead to the immediate and radical reforms called for. Studies, however, are no substitute for action.

<sup>56</sup> V. Dandekar and N. Rath, *op. cit.*, p. 30.



TABLE II.40

India: *per capita* annual consumer expenditure in different sectors of urban population in 1960–1961 and 1967–1968  
(At 1960–1961 prices)

Section of population (1)	Per capita consumption 1960–1961 (Rs) (2)	Per capita, consumption 1967–1968					
		National sample survey estimates		First revision		Final revision	
		(Rs) (3)	Index with 1960–1961 base (per cent) (4)	(Rs) (5)	Index with 1960–1961 base (per cent) (6)	(Rs) (7)	Index with 1960–1961 base (per cent) (8)
0–5 .....	96.2	74.3	77.2	74.3	77.2	78.2	81.3
5–10 .....	129.7	106.8	82.3	106.8	82.3	112.4	86.7
10–20 .....	156.1	138.4	88.7	138.4	88.7	145.7	93.3
20–30 .....	191.0	174.2	91.2	174.2	91.2	183.3	96.0
30–40 .....	223.8	209.1	93.4	209.1	93.4	220.1	98.3
40–50 .....	256.6	246.6	96.1	246.6	96.1	259.5	101.1
50–60 .....	295.8	289.2	97.8	289.2	97.8	304.4	102.9
60–70 .....	342.5	341.0	99.6	341.0	99.6	358.9	104.8
70–80 .....	421.3	410.1	97.3	419.6	99.6	441.6	104.8
80–90 .....	553.5	517.9	93.6	551.3	99.6	580.2	104.8
90–95 .....	753.4	667.0	88.5	750.4	99.6	789.8	104.8
95–100 .....	1 268.8	1 012.9	79.8	1 263.7	99.6	1 330.0	104.8
All sections .....	356.4	325.7	91.4	346.7	97.3	364.9	102.4

Source: V. Dandekar and N. Rath, *Poverty in India* (Bombay, Indian School of Political Economy, 1971), p. 29.

has remained the same as before, the character of urban poverty has deepened further. This is the consequence of the continuous migration of the rural poor into the urban areas in search of a livelihood, their failure to find adequate means to support themselves there and the resulting growth of roadside and slum life in the cities. All the latent dissatisfaction about the slow progress of the economy and the silent frustration about its failure to give the poor a fair deal, let alone special attention, appear to be gathering in this form.<sup>57</sup>

What is true of India is unfortunately true of most less developed countries.

<sup>57</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 32 and 33.

### C. Inequalities in income, wealth and opportunity

134. The wide gap between the levels of welfare of different social classes and ethnic groups, of the sexes and of different regions and provinces is one of the salient features of less developed countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America. Otherwise, a good number of them could be counted as developed countries on the basis of their average *per capita* GNP.

#### 1. AFRICA

135. Africa, most parts of which have a long history of colonial settlement, has been left with an *élite* of wealthy

TABLE II.41

India: *per capita* annual consumer expenditure in different sectors of rural and urban populations in 1960–1961 and 1967–1968 (revised estimates)  
(Rs at 1960–1961 prices)

Section of population (1)	1960–1961			1967–1968		
	Rural (2)	Urban (3)	Urban as percentage of rural (4)	Rural (5)	Urban (6)	Urban as percentage of rural (7)
0–5 .....	75.6	96.2	127.2	74.8	78.2	104.5
5–10 .....	100.4	129.7	129.2	102.0	112.4	110.2
10–20 .....	124.2	156.1	125.7	126.5	145.7	115.2
20–30 .....	150.1	191.0	127.2	153.4	183.3	119.5
30–40 .....	174.4	223.8	128.3	179.0	220.1	123.0
40–50 .....	198.0	256.6	129.6	205.3	259.5	126.4
50–60 .....	227.0	295.8	130.3	236.2	304.4	128.9
60–70 .....	258.5	342.5	132.5	269.8	358.9	133.0
70–80 .....	303.1	421.3	139.0	316.3	441.6	139.6
80–90 .....	382.5	553.5	144.7	399.2	580.2	145.3
90–95 .....	493.3	753.4	152.7	514.8	789.8	153.4
95–100 .....	870.6	1 268.8	145.7	908.6	1 330.0	146.4
All sections .....	258.8	356.4	137.7	268.6	364.9	135.9

Source: V. Dandekar and N. Rath, *Poverty in India* (Bombay, Indian School of Political Economy, 1971), p. 31.



traders and large-scale modern enterprises in the hands of foreign firms.

In some parts of the continent, the situation has been complicated by the presence of large immigrant groups from Europe and Asia which have, in the past, dominated the political life of the areas concerned and are still very important in industry and commerce . . . In the past, even in areas without large settler populations, the majority of senior posts in government and private enterprise have been in the hands of expatriate officials.<sup>58</sup>

This is still the situation in a few African countries. Table II.42 shows the percentage of Kenyan citizens holding high-level and middle-level posts in 1967.

TABLE II.42

Kenya: percentage of high-level and middle-level posts filled by Kenyan citizens, 1967

Category <sup>a</sup>	Percentage of total posts in category		
	Private sector	Public sector	Whole economy
A . . . . .	28.2	45.3	34.6
B . . . . .	46.7	73.5	57.0
C . . . . .	47.3	72.2	54.5
D . . . . .	64.3	83.8	70.1
All high and middle grades . . . .	52.9	72.9	59.4

Source: 1970 Report on the World Social Situation (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.IV.13), p. 68.

<sup>a</sup> Category A: Professional occupations requiring university or higher education.  
Category B: Sub-professional and technical occupations requiring form IV or VI education with two or more years of training and experience.  
Category C: Occupations requiring roughly form IV education and three or more years of job experience.  
Category D: Occupations requiring a minimum of form II education and two or more years of training and job experience.

136. Except for Ethiopia and the Moslem States bordering the Sahara, the "landed aristocracy" characteristic of many Asian and Latin American countries is lacking in Africa. However, the inter-ethnic differences resulting from historical circumstances, especially in parts of northern, eastern, central and southern Africa, represent an important source of social inequality. As a result, some measures, at times drastic, have been taken by the indigenous power structure to promote and substitute Africans for foreigners, thereby increasing social mobility and job opportunity for Africans.

137. In following this course, which is actually the only one in line with the creation of absolute conditions for the exercise of independence in law and in fact, the countries concerned have faced and in some cases are still facing additional problems that are inherited from the past history and practices of colonialism. They lack the minimum number of qualified professionals and skilled labourers necessary for fulfilling the basic requirements of everyday life, let alone devising and implementing well-studied and prepared programmes and policies of economic, social and cultural development. In Algeria, the change has come about as a result of protracted and bloody warfare; in Zaire, local people simply took over the posts vacated by the Belgians. In southern Africa, the *status quo* is maintained in an atmosphere of increasing racial rancour. In other parts, more gradual and orderly processes have been initiated and are still going on.<sup>59</sup>

<sup>58</sup> 1970 Report on the World Social Situation (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.IV.13), p. 66.

<sup>59</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 67.

TABLE II.43

Kenya and Zambia: percentage of Africans in the civil service at selected dates

Position	Kenya		Zambia	
	1960	1969	1960	1968
Administrative and executive	8.9	81.6	0	71
Professional . . . . .	2.5	47.3	0.6	19
Technical and related . . . . .	4.4	71.8	2.3	59
Clerical, police etc. . . . .		97.5		82
Teachers (primary) . . . . .				95
Teachers (secondary) . . . . .				8
Government teachers . . . . .		18.5		—
Total (Government) . . . . .		94.5		76

Source: 1970 Report on the World Social Situation (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.IV.13), p. 67.

Table II.43, for example, indicates that in Kenya, in 1960, Africans accounted for only 8.9 per cent of the total administrative and executive posts, 2.5 per cent of the professional posts and 4.4 per cent of the technical posts in the civil service. By 1969, however, African participation had risen to 81.6, 47.3 and 71.8 per cent respectively. In Zambia, during the period 1960–1968, the participation of Africans in administrative and executive posts in the civil service increased from zero to 71 per cent; in professional posts, it rose from 0.6 per cent to 19 per cent, and in technical and related posts from 2.3 per cent to 59 per cent. In South Africa, Southern Rhodesia and Zambia, a very large gap exists between the levels of earning of Africans and non-Africans, given the limitations preventing Africans from obtaining jobs beyond a certain level of qualification. In Southern Rhodesia, as is shown in table II.44, the monthly earnings of non-Africans were

TABLE II.44

Southern Rhodesia: monthly earnings of Africans and non-Africans engaged in non-agricultural sectors, 1961–1965

Year	Pounds	
	Africans	Non-Africans
1961 . . . . .	10.7	96.2
1962 . . . . .	11.7	98.9
1963 . . . . .	12.7	101.5
1964 . . . . .	13.7	103.2
1965 . . . . .	14.3	106.9

Source: International Labour Office, Yearbook of Labour Statistics, 1971, thirty-first issue, p. 553.

seven and a half times greater than those of Africans in 1965, compared with monthly earnings nine times greater in 1961, thus indicating a small improvement between 1961 and 1965, primarily the result of a growing demand for unskilled or semi-skilled labourers in non-agricultural sectors.<sup>60</sup> A similar development took place in Zambia during the 1960s, as is shown in table II.45.

<sup>60</sup> On the situation with regard to the exercise of economic, social and cultural rights by Africans, Asians, "Coloured" and non-Africans (Europeans), see also the studies on *apartheid* and racial discrimination in southern Africa prepared by the Special Rapporteur for the Commission on Human Rights in 1968 and 1969 and issued in documents E/CN.4/949 and Corr.1 and Add.1 and Add.1/Corr.1 and Add.2–5, and E/CN.4/979 and Add.1 and Add.1/Corr.1 and Add.2–8, respectively.

TABLE II.45

**Zambia: monthly earnings of Africans and non-Africans engaged in non-agricultural sectors, 1961-1969**

Year	Kwacha	
	Africans	Non-Africans
1961 .....	27.0	258.2
1962 .....	28.0	259.0
1963 .....	29.6	265.2
1964 .....	34.8	275.4
1965 .....	38.6	293.4
1966 .....	46.4	346.2
1967 .....	64.8	384.8
1968 .....	68.0	353.0
1969 .....	72.0	429.0

Source: International Labour Office, *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, 1971, thirty-first issue, p. 554.

138. In the agricultural sector, the traditional systems of land tenure generally remain. Reform of the land tenure system, in most places, involves providing farmers with individual title to their land. In some countries, however, there have been experiments with state ownership and various forms of collective ownership. The best known of these probably are the recent *Ujamaa* settlements in the United Republic of Tanzania. Systems of tenure vary from place to place, but co-operative villages are to be found in Algeria, the Central African Republic, Mali and other parts of Africa.

## 2. ASIA

139. In Asia, the maldistribution of income is the consequence of a combination of factors, among them:

(a) The existence of a landed aristocracy and concentrated private ownership of property.

(b) Systems of tribal power structure and powerful family corporations.

(c) A *de facto* caste system in certain large countries.

(d) Economic dependence on one major product and, usually, one primary sector.

(e) Low agricultural activity, as compared with other sectors.

(f) A low proportion of economically active population.

(g) A low rate of growth of productive employment.

(h) Lack of education and technical training.

140. Unfortunately, information regarding income distribution is available for only a few countries, namely, India, the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand. However, the information on these countries may be a satisfactory indication of the average situation in the other developing countries in the region, with the exception of Israel and probably a few of the oil-producing countries.

141. Table II.46 illustrates the percentage shares in personal income in selected countries, by decile groups. According to this table, the share of the top 20 per cent in personal income in India increased from 42 per cent in the period 1953-1957 to 54 per cent in the period 1961-1965, whereas comparable figures for developed countries were within the range of 44.5 to 49 per cent. However, the share of the bottom 5 per cent declined in India from 8 to 5 per cent during the period under study.

142. A considerable improvement can be noted in income distribution in Sri Lanka during the period 1953-1961. Of the three less developed countries shown in table II.46, Sri Lanka most closely approaches the more developed countries. One important fact to bear in mind concerning such comparisons is the wide gap that exists in absolute terms between the personal incomes of the

TABLE II.46

**Percentage shares of decile groups in personal income in selected countries**

Country	Year	Share of decile groups				
		Bottom 20%	Bottom 60%	Top 20%	Top 10%	Top 5%
India .....	1953/54 to 1956/57 <sup>a</sup>	8.0	36.0	42.0	28.0	—
	1953/54 and 1954/55 <sup>b</sup>	7.0	31.0	49.0	35.0	—
	1961/62 and 1964/65 <sup>b</sup>	5.0	27.0	54.0	40.0	—
	1953/54 <sup>b,c</sup>	7.0	33.0	45.0	29.0	—
	1953/54 <sup>a,c</sup>	5.0	28.0	51.0	35.0	—
	1957/58 <sup>a,c</sup>	5.0	28.0	51.0	34.0	—
	1961/62 <sup>b,c</sup>	7.0	33.0	47.0	30.0	—
Ceylon [Sri Lanka] .....	1953 <sup>a</sup>	5.2	27.8	53.8	40.6	—
	1963 <sup>a</sup>	4.5	27.5	52.3	36.8	—
Philippines .....	1956	4.7	25.6	54.9	39.3	27.0
	1961	4.6	24.7	56.2	40.7	28.9
	1965	3.9	24.3	55.4	40.0	27.6
United Kingdom .....	1951/52	5.4	33.3	44.5	30.2	20.9
Germany, Federal Republic of .....	1950	4.0	29.0	48.0	34.0	23.6
Netherlands .....	1950	4.2	29.5	49.0	35.0	24.6
Denmark .....	1952	3.4	29.5	47.0	30.7	20.1
Sweden .....	1948	3.2	29.1	46.6	30.3	20.1
United States of America ....	1950	4.8	32.0	45.7	30.3	20.4

Source: *Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East 1971* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.F.1), p. 63.

<sup>a</sup> Household as income recipient unit.

<sup>b</sup> Individual as income recipient unit.

<sup>c</sup> Estimates combine the assumption of zero savings below a certain income level with the assumption that evaded tax payments are fully reflected in consumption and/or savings.

TABLE II.47  
India: pattern of disposable personal income distribution among individuals  
(In percentages)

Income group	1953/54 and 1954/55			1961/62 and 1963/64			1953/54 <sup>a</sup>			1961/62 <sup>a</sup>			1961/62		
	Rural sector	Urban sector	All India	Rural sector	Urban sector	All India	Rural sector	Urban sector	All India	Rural sector	Urban sector	All India	Rural sector	Urban sector	All India
1st decile.....	4	3	3	3	2	3	4	3	3	4	3	4	4	2	3
2nd decile.....	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	4	5	4	4	5	3	4
3rd decile.....	5	4	5	6	4	5	6	5	5	6	4	5	6	4	5
4th decile.....	5	5	5	7	5	6	6	6	6	7	5	6	6	4	6
5th decile.....	8	5	5	8	6	7	7	6	7	7	6	7	7	5	7
6th decile.....	8	8	9	9	7	7	9	7	8	9	6	8	9	6	8
7th decile.....	10	8	8	9	7	9	10	9	9	10	6	9	10	6	9
8th decile.....	12	11	11	12	10	12	12	10	12	11	14	11	12	12	11
9th decile.....	15	15	16	18	12	16	15	19	16	15	18	17	15	20	16
10th decile.....	29	37	34	24	43	35	26	32	29	26	34	29	26	38	31
TOTAL.....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: *Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East, 1971* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.F.1), p. 53.  
<sup>a</sup> Estimates combine the assumption of zero savings below a certain income level with the assumption that evaded tax payments are not reflected at all in consumption and/or savings.  
<sup>b</sup> Estimates combine the assumption of negative savings below a certain income level with the assumption that evaded tax payments are not reflected at all in consumption and/or savings.

bottom 20 per cent in the less developed and the more developed countries. In the less developed countries, the bottom 20 per cent represents that portion of the population actually deprived of sufficient food, clothing, decent housing, education, medical care and other basic needs.

143. From the point of view of rural and urban disparities, the picture appears more gloomy. In the Philippines, in 1965,

there were about as many families receiving incomes under 1 000 pesos as there were families with incomes of at least 3 000 pesos. When families are grouped in rural and urban categories, however, the disparity in distribution between the low and high income groups becomes more apparent. In the rural sector, 36.4 per cent of families fell within the lower income group and only 14.5 per cent within the upper group. The opposite situation prevailed in urban areas, where only 22.4 per cent of families received under 1 000 pesos, while 43.1 per cent earned at least 3 000 pesos. It is interesting to note that, in 1965, almost one half of rural families were in the middle-income group (1 000–2 999 pesos), while only about one third of urban families fell within this income bracket.<sup>61</sup>

The aggregate concentration ratios for family income distribution in the Philippines for the three selected years and for rural and urban families are as follows:<sup>62</sup>

*Philippines—concentration ratios for family income distribution*

	1956	1961	1965
All families.....	0.492	0.515	0.516
Rural families.....	0.397	0.409	0.429
Urban families.....	0.502	0.523	0.532

144. From the above, one can note an increasing concentration of income throughout the period 1956–1965 in both the rural and urban areas, but as also noted in the *Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East 1971*, the rate of departure from equality was relatively faster for urban families during the period from 1956 to 1961 than in the period from 1961 to 1965. On the other hand, the rate of departure from equality for rural families was faster over the period from 1961 to 1965 than for the earlier period.

145. Table II.47 illustrates the pattern of disposable personal income distribution among individuals in India for rural and urban sectors. As shown in the table, in 1961/62, the share of the lowest 20 per cent income group was 9 per cent in the rural sector as compared to 5 per cent in the urban sector and the national average of 7 per cent. Also, the share of the highest 20 per cent income group was 41 per cent in the rural sector as compared to 58 per cent in the urban sector and the national average of 47 per cent. It is by taking into account the great difference in the size of the rural and urban populations that one can understand the disparity in the concentrations of wealth in the two areas. However, as can be seen, there was a better income distribution in the rural sector than in the urban sector, though in absolute terms the average income in the rural sector was less than that in the urban sector.

146. In Thailand, as shown in table II.48, the unadjusted share of the bottom 20 per cent income group in total personal income was 6 per cent in 1962/63 for the rural sector as compared to 3.5 per cent for the urban sector. In 1970, these shares changed to 5.5 per cent and 6.5 per cent respectively, indicating a notable improvement for the urban sector and a slight deterioration for the rural sector. Similarly, the unadjusted share of the highest 20 per cent income group was held at 51 per cent

<sup>61</sup> *Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East, 1971* ..., p. 57.

<sup>62</sup> *Ibid.*

TABLE II.48

**Thailand: pattern of personal income distribution**  
(with household as income recipient unit)

Income group	1962/63				1970	
	Rural <sup>a</sup>	Urban <sup>a</sup>	Rural <sup>b</sup>	Urban <sup>b</sup>	Rural <sup>a</sup>	Urban <sup>a</sup>
1st decile .....	3.0	1.5	2.5	2.0	2.5	2.5
2nd decile .....	3.0	2.0	3.5	2.5	3.0	4.0
3rd decile .....	3.5	4.5	3.5	4.5	3.5	5.0
4th decile .....	5.5	5.0	4.5	6.5	5.0	5.5
5th decile .....	6.0	6.5	5.5	7.0	6.5	6.5
6th decile .....	7.5	7.5	6.5	8.5	7.5	8.5
7th decile .....	9.0	9.5	9.0	11.0	9.5	10.0
8th decile .....	11.5	13.0	11.5	15.0	11.5	12.5
9th decile .....	17.0	15.5	18.0	18.0	16.5	16.0
10th decile .....	34.0	35.0	35.5	25.0	34.5	29.5
All groups .....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Bottom 20 per cent .....	6.0	3.5	6.0	4.5	5.5	6.5
Bottom 40 per cent .....	15.0	13.0	14.0	15.5	14.0	17.0
Bottom 60 per cent .....	28.5	27.0	26.0	31.0	28.0	32.0
Top 20 per cent .....	51.0	50.5	53.5	43.0	51.0	45.0
Top 10 per cent .....	34.0	35.0	35.5	25.0	34.5	29.0
Top 5 per cent .....	22.0	23.0	22.5	12.5	22.0	16.0

Source: *Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East 1971* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.F.1), p. 59.

<sup>a</sup> Unadjusted.

<sup>b</sup> Adjusted for size differences between rural and urban households.

during the intervening period for the rural sector, whereas in the urban sector it declined from 50.5 per cent to 45.0 per cent.

147. The tendency towards greater income disparity in the rural sector can be explained by the system of land holding and land ownership in Thailand.

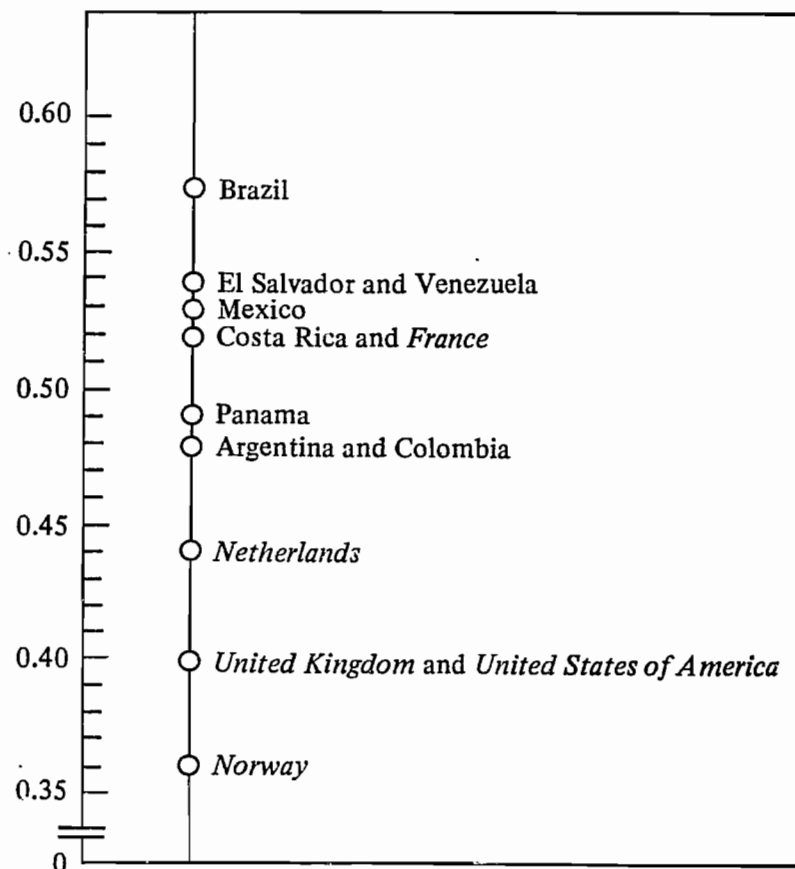
The bottom 10 per cent of farms by size account for only 1 per cent of the total land area, while the top 10 per cent hold 34 per cent of all land. The bottom 60 per cent hold 25 per cent, and the top 5 per cent 21 per cent of all land. Concentration ratios work out to 0.48 for land holdings and 0.46 for land owned.<sup>63</sup>

### 3. LATIN AMERICA

148. On the basis of a comparison of the coefficient of concentration, income inequality in Latin America is substantially greater than in most industrial countries. This coefficient is much higher than in the Netherlands, the United Kingdom or the United States of America. Figure 1 illustrates the degree of inequality in Latin American countries as compared to some industrial countries. According to this figure, the coefficient of concentration in Brazil is over 57 per cent as compared to 44 per cent in the Netherlands, 40 per cent in the United Kingdom and 36 per cent in Norway. It is too high even compared with the Philippines coefficient of 51.6 per cent. Only Argentina, Colombia and Panama present a more equitable picture than the Philippines, in which income distribution is even less equitable than in India or Sri Lanka.

149. In Latin America, 70 to 80 per cent of the population has an income less than the national average. Between 13 and 21 per cent receive an income between the national average and twice the national average, and the rest receive more than twice the national average. The highest

FIGURE I.<sup>a</sup> Selected Latin American and selected Western industrialized countries: coefficients of concentration<sup>b</sup>



Source: *Income Distribution in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.G.2), p. 7.

<sup>a</sup> In this figure, the names of the Western industrialized countries have been italicized so as to make them stand out from those of the Latin American countries.

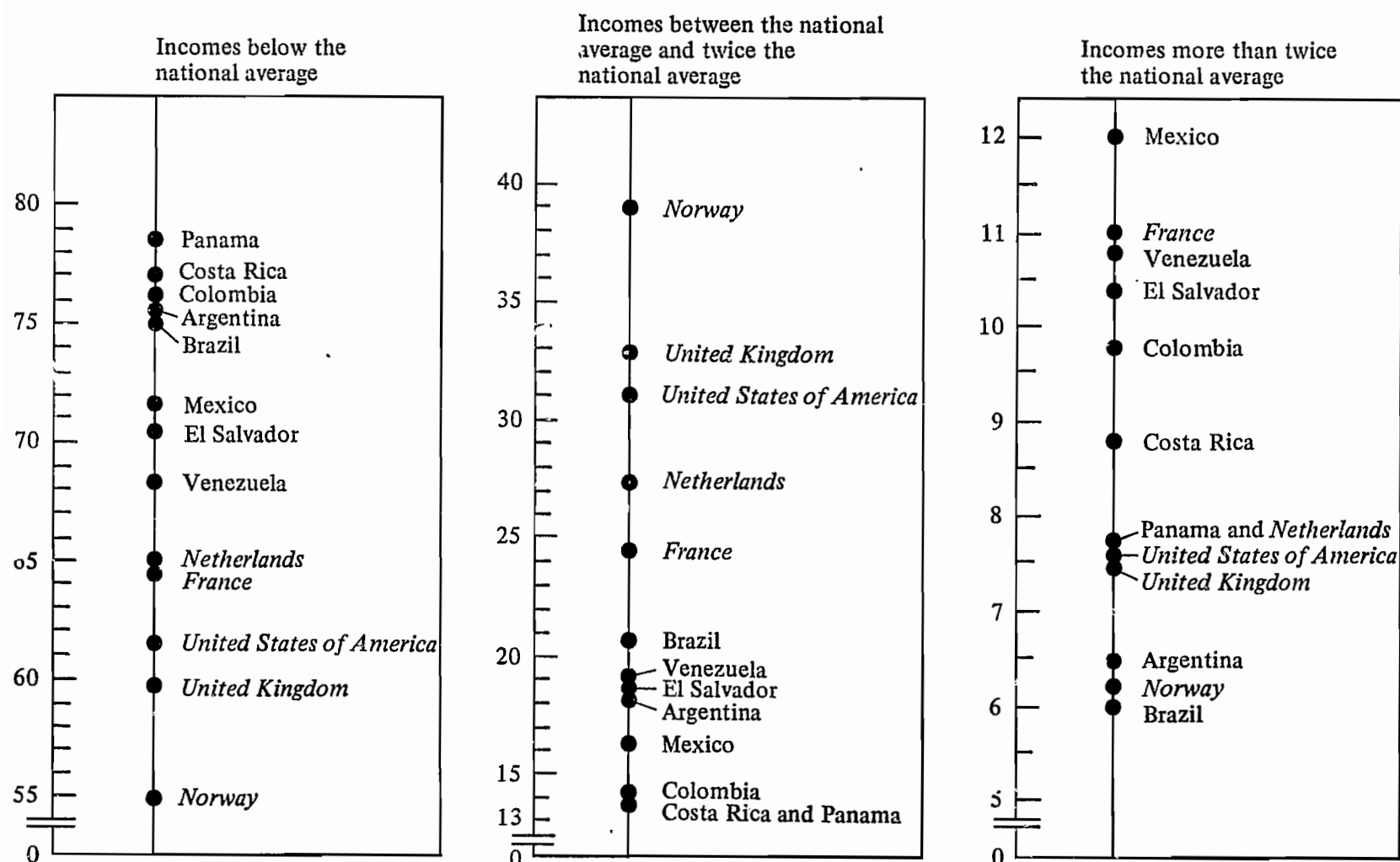
<sup>b</sup> These coefficients are based on the formula

$$r = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n f_i(g_i - 1 - g_i)}{10\,000}$$

where  $n$  = the total number of income groups,  
 $i$  = the ordinal number of each group,  
 $f$  = the percentage of the total population in each income group,  
 $g$  = the cumulative percentage of income received.

<sup>63</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 60.

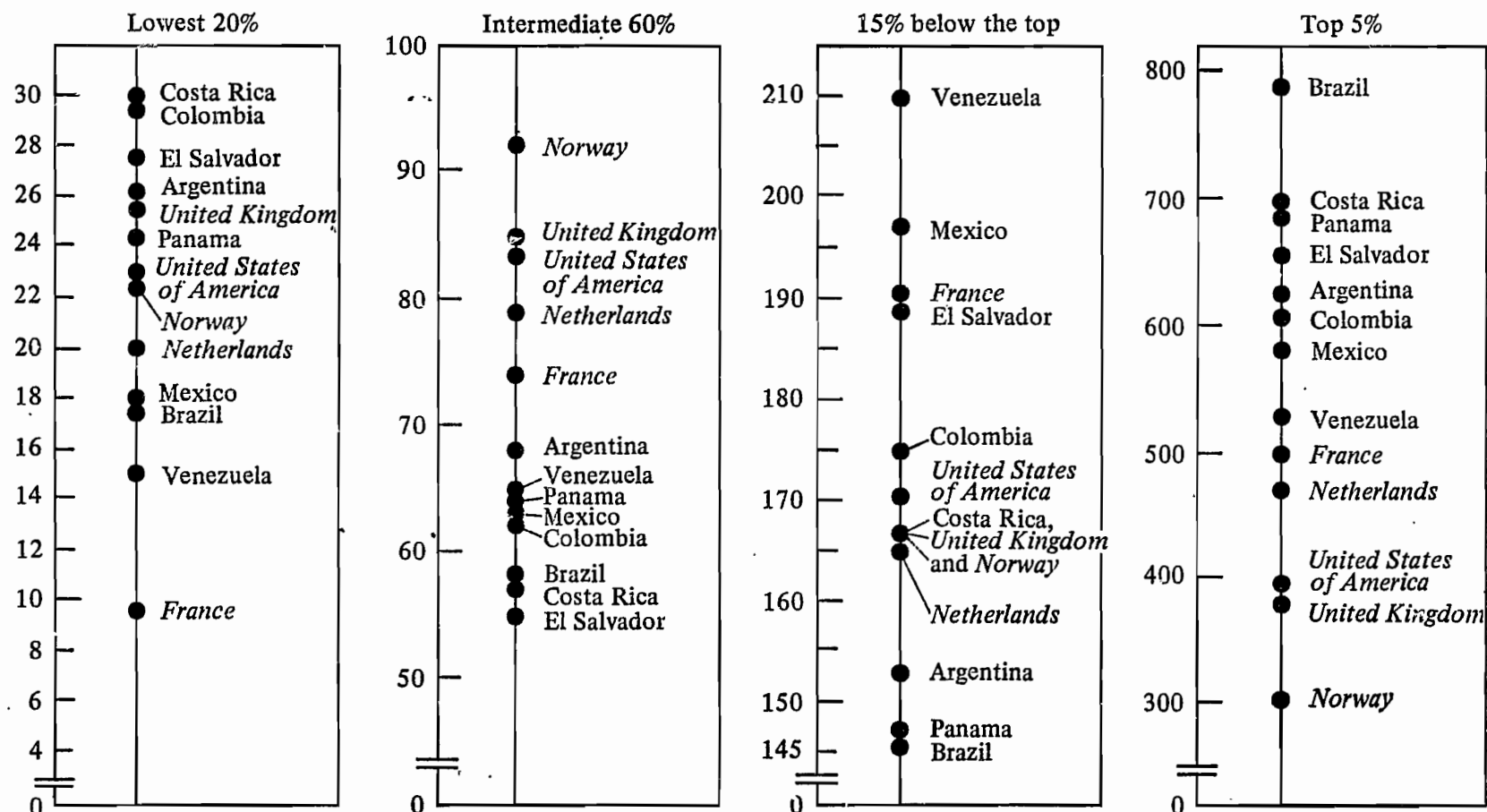
FIGURE 2.<sup>a</sup> Selected Latin American and selected Western industrialized countries: percentage of the population in income groups expressed in terms of the national average



Source: *Income Distribution in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.G.2), p. 11.

<sup>a</sup> In this figure, the names of the Western industrialized countries have been italicized, so as to make them stand out from those of the Latin American countries.

FIGURE 3.<sup>a</sup> Selected Latin American and selected Western industrialized countries: incomes of various groups compared with the national average  
(Arithmetical average income in each country = 100)



Source: *Income Distribution in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.G.2), p. 12.

<sup>a</sup> In this figure, the names of the Western industrialized countries have been italicized, so as to make them stand out from those of the Latin American countries.



5 per cent income group receives an income nearly eight times the national average in Brazil, seven times that in Costa Rica, six times that in Colombia, as compared to three times that in Norway, four times that in the United States of America and five times that in France (see figures 2 and 3). The income of the poorest 20 per cent group, as shown in the first section of figure 3, ranges from 15 per cent of the national average in Venezuela to 30 per cent in Costa Rica. According to the second section of figure 3, the middle 60 per cent group comes somewhere between 55 and 67 per cent of the national average.

150. A picture of income distribution in Latin America is given in table II.49, which shows the pattern of income distribution of the region in terms of the average percentage shares of different income groups in different countries. An alternative approach is to aggregate all income groups of all countries in the region under one distribution pattern, using a common currency, as shown in table II.50. According to tables II.50 and II.46, the lowest 20 per cent income group has a share as small as 3.1 per cent of total income, as compared to 5 per cent in India, 4.5 per cent in Sri Lanka and 3.9 per cent in the Philippines. The highest 20 per cent income group has a share in the total of 62.6 per cent, as compared to 54 per cent in India, 52.3 per cent in Sri Lanka, and 55.4 per cent in the Philippines.

The greater inequality for the region as a whole results from the types of distribution which have been shown to characterize the individual countries. . . .

The low income levels which prevail throughout the lower half of the distribution essentially reflect incomes attainable in the primitive sector. For the region as a whole, around 40 per cent of the labour force is engaged in primitive-type activities, so the entire poorer half of the population is either within the primitive sector or still very closely linked to it. . . . In some localities the resources

available are poor, or there is substantial population pressure, so that incomes attainable through primitive-type activity are minimal. In other places, resources are more favourable, and incomes are somewhat higher.<sup>64</sup>

151. It is evident from figures 1, 2 and 3 presented above that there is a considerable variation within the region with respect to degree of income inequality. Table II.51 illustrates the distribution by country of the total population of the region under each income category. Brazil and Mexico are shown to have the largest share of the poorest population in the region: "Both countries continue to have large primitive sectors, and nearly half of those in the poorest 20 per cent of the population are found in Brazil alone, mostly in the north-eastern part of the country. Throughout the lower half of the distribution these two countries together account for nearly 60 per cent of the total".<sup>65</sup> On the other hand, Argentina and Uruguay together comprise 23.6 per cent of the total top 5 per cent income group of the region, Brazil 20 per cent and Mexico 18 per cent. In the income group 15 per cent below the top 5 per cent, there is again great disproportion.

It is primarily here that those countries with the most extensive modern and semi-modern sectors are of the greatest importance. Argentina and Uruguay alone account for well over one third, and together with Mexico for over 60 per cent of this higher income group, although these countries combined have only 30 per cent of the total population of the region. This is an important part of the explanation of the great inequality in the region: the high incomes derived from modern-type activities are disproportionately concentrated in some sectors of the population.<sup>66</sup>

The income group 30 per cent above the median consists of groups from the various countries very nearly in proportion to total populations.

This is the intermediate sector between the dominant influence of the primitive sector on the one hand and the modern sector on the other, and all countries have a substantial group of this sort, although of course it is found at varying levels of the individual national distribution.<sup>67</sup>

152. The principal reasons for income inequality in Latin America are the existence of a large sector of low productivity, concentration of property ownership in the hands of a small section of population and concentration of ownership of commercial, financial and industrial activities. As a result, the share of national income accruing to property owners and unincorporated enterprises is generally higher than the share accruing to wage and salary earners.

153. Table II.52 illustrates the percentage distribution of national income by different categories of income for selected countries. According to this table, the share of property owners and unincorporated enterprises is approximately 52 per cent in Argentina, 46 per cent in Brazil and 66 per cent in Mexico and Guatemala, compared with 25 per cent in the United States of America, 19 per cent in the United Kingdom and 31 per cent in the Netherlands. Consequently, the share of wage and salary earners, who far outnumber the two aforementioned groups, is only approximately 44 per cent in Argentina, 48 per cent in Brazil and 33 per cent in Mexico and Guatemala, compared with 72 per cent in the United

TABLE II.49

Averages of income distribution in Latin America

Income group	Percentage share of total income	
	Simple average	Weighted average
Lowest 20% . . . . .	4.7	4.0
30% below the median . . . . .	12.8	12.4
30% above the median . . . . .	24.1	24.5
15% below the top 5% . . . . .	25.9	24.9
Top 5% . . . . .	32.4	34.2

Source: *Income Distribution in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.G.2), p. 34.

TABLE II.50

Distribution of income in Latin America

Income group	Percentage of total income received	Average income (regional average = 100)	Average per capita income <sup>a</sup> (dollars)
Lowest 20% . . . . .	3.1	15.5	60
30% below the median . . . . .	10.3	34.0	124
30% above the median . . . . .	24.1	80.0	310
15% below the top 5% . . . . .	29.2	195.0	750
Top 5% . . . . .	33.4	670.0	2 600

Source: *Income Distribution in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.G.2), p. 35.

<sup>a</sup> Values for 1965, but expressed in terms of 1960 dollars.

<sup>64</sup> *Income Distribution in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.G.2), pp. 36 and 37.

<sup>65</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 39.

<sup>66</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 40.

<sup>67</sup> *Ibid.*

TABLE II.51

## Latin America: percentage composition of the major income groups, by country

Countries	Income groups				
	Lowest 20%	30% below the median	30% above the median	15% below the top 5%	Top 5%
Argentina and Uruguay .....	—	3.9	12.9	36.6	23.6
Brazil .....	49.6	40.8	35.5	11.8	20.0
Colombia .....	3.9	13.0	7.8	2.6	7.8
Chile .....	—	2.6	5.2	7.9	7.8
Mexico .....	9.1	18.1	20.1	26.1	18.0
Peru .....	2.5	5.8	5.2	4.6	5.0
Venezuela .....	1.8	2.5	4.9	4.9	7.6
Other countries <sup>a</sup> .....	33.2	13.3	8.4	5.5	10.2
TOTAL .....	100	100	100	100	100

Source: *Income Distribution in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.G.2), p. 39.

<sup>a</sup> Includes the Central American and Caribbean countries (excluding Cuba) and Bolivia, Ecuador and Paraguay.

States of America, 75 per cent in the United Kingdom and 59 per cent in the Netherlands.

154. Table II.53 shows the distribution of the total active labour force in Latin America and the importance of wage and salary earners, as compared to employers and own account workers, both to the economy as a whole and to the non-agricultural sector. There are two considerations concerning this lower share of salaried labour in the national income that should be noted:

First, this is partially a reflection of the still large primitive sector in most of the region, and the inability of the more modern sectors to offer sufficient employment opportunities. An important part of the self-employed in most countries are persons engaged in marginal-

type activities because they have been unable to obtain more remunerative employment. . . .

This is most important in the agricultural sector, where from one quarter to over one half of the labour force is self-employed, many with small plots of land which yield only minimum incomes . . .

These marginal self-employed, together with the primitive type wage labour with which they are closely associated, form a little differentiated and often large group at the bottom of the scale. They are a major aspect of the inequality for the obvious reason that they represent widespread and often extreme poverty . . .

The second aspect of the greater importance of self-employed labour is quite different and helps to explain the unusual concentration of income at the other extreme of the distribution. There are more self-employed persons in the region also because the productive system is still based largely on individual, and relatively small,

TABLE II.52

## Percentage distribution of national income in certain Latin American countries and in 4 developed countries

Country	Wage and salary income	Income of unincorporated enterprises	Property income	Corporate saving and direct corporate taxes	Other
Argentina .....	43.7	44.1	7.7	4.6	—
Brazil .....	47.5	38.8	7.7	7.0	(—) 1.0
Colombia .....	44.7	49.3		5.7	0.3
Ecuador .....	51.1	39.3 <sup>a</sup>		3.9 <sup>b</sup>	5.7
Peru .....	43.6	31.1	13.2	11.5	0.6
Uruguay .....	60.3	38.2		1.8	(—) 0.3
Venezuela .....	57.0	22.1		12.9	8.0
Mexico .....	32.7	65.7 <sup>a</sup>		1.5 <sup>b</sup>	—
Costa Rica .....	63.5	26.4	5.9	3.0	1.2
Guatemala .....	33.1	66.1 <sup>a</sup>		0.4 <sup>b</sup>	0.4
Honduras .....	50.5	37.2	8.8	3.6	—
Panama .....	69.4	7.1	7.5	13.4	2.6
France .....	59.7	28.3	6.1	6.9	(—) 1.0
Netherlands .....	59.0	31.2		10.3	(—) 0.5
United Kingdom .....	74.6	8.3	10.6	9.4	(—) 2.9
United States of America .....	71.9	11.2	13.5	6.9	(—) 1.5

Source: *Income Distribution in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.G.2), p. 92.

NOTE. The figures shown are three-year averages. There is some variation in the years covered, depending on data availability, but in general the period is the early 1960s. The only exception is Mexico, where the estimates refer to the single year 1950.

<sup>a</sup> Also includes saving of corporate enterprises.

<sup>b</sup> Direct corporate taxes only.

TABLE II.53

**Percentage distribution of the active labour force in certain Latin American countries  
and in 4 developed countries**

Country	Economy as a whole				Non-agricultural sector			
	Wage and salary earners	Employers	Own-account workers	Others <sup>a</sup>	Wage and salary earners	Employers	Own-account workers	Other
Argentina .....	69.9	12.4	12.1	5.6	74.5	10.9	10.8	3.8
Brazil .....	48.0	1.8	35.1	15.1	72.1	1.7	23.8	2.4
Colombia .....	57.3	8.2	25.0	9.6	70.9	4.1	20.8	4.2
Chile .....	72.8	1.4	18.8	7.0	75.1	1.2	17.2	6.6
Ecuador .....	47.7	2.0	41.0	9.3	57.5	1.6	32.8	8.2
Peru .....	48.1	1.9	38.5	11.4	65.0	1.5	27.4	6.1
Uruguay .....	69.5	8.2	14.9	7.5	72.9	6.8	13.1	7.3
Venezuela .....	60.1	2.7	31.0	6.3	73.0	2.6	21.3	3.0
Mexico .....	63.6	0.8	34.0	1.7	76.4	1.3	21.7	0.6
Costa Rica .....	66.1	3.4	17.4	13.2	78.9	2.8	12.9	5.3
El Salvador .....	68.2	1.8	21.4	8.7	74.8	1.8	19.6	3.9
Honduras .....	39.7	1.4	37.8	21.2	64.2	1.1	18.9	15.9
Panama .....	42.5	1.8	32.6	23.2	65.6	2.4	11.6	20.5
Dominican Republic .....	44.1	0.9	43.9	11.2	74.9	1.1	22.8	1.1
France .....	71.7	18.7		9.6	83.9	12.6		3.5
Netherlands .....	79.8	15.4		4.8	85.9	11.3		2.8
United Kingdom .....	88.8	7.4		3.7	..	..		..
United States of America .....	82.7	11.3		6.0	86.2	8.1		5.7

Source: *Income Distribution in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.G.2), p. 93.

NOTE. The figures refer to 1960 or to some year in the early 1960s and were taken from the demographic censuses.

<sup>a</sup> Most of this group consists of unpaid family workers.

enterprises. Self-employment of this sort—by contrast to the marginal type just discussed—involves the use of some amount of capital and/or some special ability, and generally yields above-average incomes. Further, even within this group the total capital (and the most highly remunerated professional skills) tend to be disproportionately concentrated in the hands of a few, with correspondingly very high incomes for this small minority; and this is the principal factor in producing the concentration of income at the top of the scale.<sup>68</sup>

155. The gap between rural and urban income levels is another important aspect of inequality in Latin America, as is the case in other regions as well. As is shown in table II.54, in Venezuela the average income in the urban area is 2.5 times that of the rural area, and in large cities this ratio goes as high as 2.74. On the other hand, 72.9 per cent of the poorest 20 per cent income group lives in rural areas, with only 10.9 per cent in large cities, which embrace the modern sectors of the economy. In Mexico, the urban income is 2.3 times as high as the rural, with 68.7 per cent of the poorest 20 per cent income group living in rural areas and 89.3 per cent of the highest 5 per cent income group living in urban areas.

156. Another interesting way of looking at income disparity in Latin America is in terms of the gaps existing between different regions of most countries.<sup>69</sup> The regional imbalances may be partly due to differences in regional resource endowments; but they are also the consequence of shortcomings in regional planning and especially neglect in national plans of the long-term effects of regional development on over-all social progress.

157. Table II.55 presents the regional pattern of income distribution in Brazil, Venezuela and Mexico. In

Brazil, the southern region is the centre of the nation's industrial complex, and the north-east has remained primarily an agricultural region, where the bulk of the population is dependent on primitive activities. In Venezuela, over two thirds of the poorest income group live in areas other than those of Lake Maracaibo and the Cordillera de la Costa, and the average income in this poor region is 65 per cent of the national average. Generally speaking, the low income group predominantly consists of the rural population of the backward regions, and the high income group lives mostly in the urban areas of high income regions. There are, however, variations in the degree of such relationship.

At one extreme is Argentina, where the problem is clearly regional. In the high income Pampa region, there is no important rural-urban income differential; but there is a very large one between the Pampa and the low-income north. Here, any proposed solution could deal fairly exclusively in regional terms. At the other extreme are a few of the smallest countries, where the contrast is essentially between one or two important urban areas and the rest of the country, and could therefore be dealt with almost exclusively in rural-urban terms.

But in most countries there is a mixture of the two aspects, and an effective solution would have to reflect the balance in the particular country.<sup>70</sup>

As is shown in table II.56, in both Brazil and Venezuela the rural population in the low income regions accounts for over 50 per cent of the poorest group. On the other hand, the urban population in the high income regions accounts for 66–70 per cent of the top income groups in each country. A comparison of sectoral productivity and also of the relative importance of the primitive-type labour force in different sectors can explain the essential causes of regional inequality. Table II.57 gives productivity estimates by sector, and table II.58 illustrates the sectoral

<sup>68</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 93 and 94.

<sup>69</sup> This is more or less the situation in other parts of the world as well, particularly in the less developed countries.

<sup>70</sup> *Income Distribution in Latin America* . . . , pp. 130–132.

TABLE II.54

**Latin America: rural and urban incomes and the relative composition  
of the income structure of selected countries**

Sector	Average incomes (rural average = 100)	Per cent of all income units	Percentage composition of different income groups				
			Lowest 20%	30% below the median	30% above the median	15% below the top 5%	Top 5%
Venezuela: <sup>a</sup>							
Rural .....	100	40.8	72.9	48.6	28.7	16.3	12.2
Urban .....	250	59.2	27.1	51.4	71.3	83.7	87.8
Large cities .....	274	45.2	10.9	34.7	59.3	73.2	76.2
Small cities .....	176	14.0	16.2	16.7	12.0	10.5	11.6
Mexico: <sup>a</sup>							
Rural .....	100	44.2	68.7	54.7	34.5	21.5	10.7
Urban .....	231	55.8	31.3	45.3	65.5	78.5	89.3
Mexico:							
Agricultural .....	100	43.7	68.2	56.3	26.6	26.4	20.7
Non-agricultural ..	198	56.3	31.8	43.7	73.4	73.6	79.3
Brazil:							
Agricultural .....	100	45.4	62.2	65.1	34.5	17.3	12.1
Non-agricultural ..	273	54.6	37.8	34.9	65.5	82.7	87.9
Costa Rica:							
Agricultural .....	100	50.0	76.4	80.3	23.8	16.5	19.6
Non-agricultural ..	184	50.0	23.6	19.7	76.2	83.5	80.4
El Salvador:							
Agricultural .....	100	60.2	100	87.9	30.4	23.3	18.8
Non-agricultural ..	229	39.8	—	12.1	69.6	76.7	81.2
Argentina:							
Agricultural .....	100	14.8	21.9	20.0	6.9	12.2	14.9
Non-agricultural ..	115	85.2	78.1	80.0	93.1	87.8	85.1

Source: *Income Distribution in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.G.2), p. 105.

<sup>a</sup> The Venezuelan and Mexican classifications differ somewhat. In Mexico, the urban category includes all cities with 2 500 or more inhabitants. In Venezuela, the dividing line is 5 000 inhabitants. About 3.3 per cent of the population in Venezuela resides in towns of from 2 500 to 5 000 inhabitants. Small cities in Venezuela are those with 5 000 to 25 000 inhabitants, and large cities those with 25 000 or more.

TABLE II.55

**Brazil, Venezuela and Mexico: regional incomes and the regional composition  
of the income structure**

Country and region	Average income (national average = 100)	Percentage of all income units	Percentage composition of the different income groups				
			Lowest 20%	30% below the median	30% above the median	15% below the top 5%	Top 5%
Brazil:							
South .....	123	36.2	15.1	27.6	49.4	53.3	46.1
East .....	109	36.2	39.8	37.5	32.9	35.0	39.5
North and west- central .....	87	7.2	4.1	7.6	8.8	6.7	6.5
North-east .....	47	20.4	41.0	27.3	9.5	5.0	7.9
Venezuela:							
Lake Maracaibo ...	141	12.6	4.7	10.1	15.5	19.9	19.2
Cordillera de la Costa	128	40.6	27.9	35.0	45.4	52.8	59.0
Other regions .....	65	46.8	67.4	54.9	39.1	27.3	21.8
Mexico:							
Federal District .....	185	13.5	1.3	7.5	17.8	24.5	38.0
North Pacific .....	172	7.0	2.5	3.8	6.8	15.9	19.4
Gulf of Mexico .....	101	11.5	8.2	12.7	12.1	12.3	12.2
North .....	97	20.3	17.2	20.5	22.7	20.6	15.6
Central .....	67	35.0	51.5	40.3	30.2	20.2	11.5
South Pacific .....	65	12.7	19.3	15.2	10.4	6.5	3.3

Source: *Income Distribution in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.G.2), p. 122.

TABLE II.56

**Brazil and Venezuela: combined regional and urban-rural composition of  
the income structure  
(Percentages)**

		Composition of the different income groups				
	Proportion of all income units	Lowest 20%	30% below the median	30% above the median	15% below the top 5%	Top 5%
<b>Brazil:</b>						
High income regions (South and 40% of east): <sup>a</sup>						
Non-agricultural .....	33.0	10.9	14.0	47.2	68.2	66.0
Agricultural .....	17.6	8.9	22.2	23.0	12.8	7.5
Intermediate income regions:						
Non-agricultural .....	3.2	2.0	2.2	5.0	4.2	4.8
Agricultural .....	4.1	2.0	5.9	4.1	2.5	1.9
Low income regions (North-east and 60% of east): <sup>a</sup>						
Non-agricultural .....	17.8	24.8	18.7	13.3	10.3	17.1
Agricultural .....	24.3	51.4	37.0	7.4	2.0	2.7
<b>Venezuela:</b>						
Larger cities in high income areas (Lake Maracaibo and Cordillera de la Costa)	34.0	5.8	21.1	45.2	62.4	70.7
Larger cities in low income areas and all smaller cities .....	25.2	21.3	30.3	26.1	21.3	17.0
Rural areas .....	40.8	72.9	48.6	28.7	16.3	12.2
High income regions (Lake Maracaibo and Cordillera de la Costa) .....	(12.6)	(17.5)	(16.3)	(10.7)	(5.7)	(3.1)
Other regions .....	(28.2)	(55.4)	(32.3)	(18.0)	(10.6)	(9.1)

Source: *Income Distribution in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.G.2), p. 131.

<sup>a</sup> The east region in Brazil has been divided between the high and low income regions on the assumption that 40 per cent of the population of the east is in the high income area around Rio de Janeiro, with a distribution, between sectors and of each sector among the different income groups, similar to that of the south. The remaining 60 per cent is assumed to be to the north of this area with a distribution similar to that of the north-east. Adjustments have been made arbitrarily so that these estimates conform to the figures available for the east as a unit. The figures shown above should therefore be regarded as only very approximate, and they are presented only for the purpose of illustrating the concept here discussed.

distribution of the primitive-type labour force in Latin America. According to table II.57, except in Argentina and Uruguay, agricultural productivity is too low, ranging between 19 and 60 per cent of that of the non-agricultural sectors. Table II.58 explains the reason for

low productivity, especially in agriculture. As may be noted from this table, 65.5 per cent of the labour force engaged in Latin American agriculture is of the primitive type. This group, together with the rest of the primitive-type labour force engaged in other sectors, dominates

TABLE II.57

**Latin America: productivity estimates by sector  
(Non-agricultural average = 100)**

Country or region	Agriculture	Total non- agriculture	Mining	Manufacturing			Construction	Basic <sup>a</sup> services	Commerce	Other services
				Total	Factory	Artisan				
Latin America <sup>b</sup> .....	35	100	329	128	211	21	57	110	139	65
Argentina .....	111	100	268	158	239	28	63	129	120	53
Brazil .....	49	100	80	140	223	22	29	113	125	89
Colombia .....	60	100	224	119	270	28	67	149	179	59
Chile .....	41	100	244	133	216	30	75	207	140	44
Ecuador .....	45	100	515	95	269	30	86	110	133	77
Peru .....	25	100	206	81	163	18	91	125	170	70
Uruguay .....	120	100	—	112	156	31	112	118	187	67
Venezuela .....	23	100	1 060	87	132	12	49	81	71	68
Mexico .....	19	100	298	123	175	17	55	92	149	56
Central America .....	29	100	140	84	173	18	47	140	180	66
Other countries <sup>c</sup> .....	27	100	154	94	244	24	90	164	127	77

Source: *Income Distribution in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.G.2), p. 135.

<sup>a</sup> Public utilities, transport and communications.

<sup>b</sup> Excluding Barbados, Cuba, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago.

<sup>c</sup> Bolivia, Dominican Republic, Panama and Paraguay.



TABLE II.58

**Latin America:<sup>a</sup> the sectoral distribution of the primitive-type labour force  
and the composition of the labour force in each sector**

Sector of economic activity	Percentage distribution of primitive-type labour force	Percentage composition of labour force in		
		Modern sector	Intermediate sector	Primitive sector
Agriculture .....	80.5	6.8	27.7	65.5
Mining .....	0.8	38.0	34.2	27.8
Manufacturing .....	7.1	17.5	64.9	17.6
Factory .....	—	28.1	71.9	—
Artisan-type .....	(7.1)	4.1	55.9	40.0
Construction .....	1.4	24.8	64.9	10.3
Basic services <sup>b</sup> .....	0.5	25.0	71.6	3.4
Commerce .....	2.9	14.0	76.1	9.9
Other services .....	6.7	16.2	70.5	13.3
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>12.4<sup>c</sup></b>	<b>47.7<sup>c</sup></b>	<b>34.3<sup>c</sup></b>

Source: *Income Distribution in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.G.2), p. 136.

<sup>a</sup> Excluding Barbados, Cuba, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago.

<sup>b</sup> Public utilities, transport and communications.

<sup>c</sup> Not broken down according to levels of productivity. The activities not specified account for 5.6 per cent of total employment.

the marginal groups. These are groups with low education, little technical know-how and meagre means of production and therefore no social mobility and no opportunity for progress.

#### 4. OBSERVATIONS

158. The most important question concerning the strategy for social and economic progress to be answered by the less developed countries is how to maximize the productivity of the labour force as the primary factor of production and as the main purpose of all development efforts. Any strategy based on human resource development would not only lead to a higher or faster rate of growth but would result in a better distribution of income and a more just society. The obsession about trade-off between economic growth and social justice is based on short-sighted conceptions of economic factors. The long-term behaviour of socio-economic factors as shown by international experience has always revealed a positive relationship between the rate of economic growth and equality of income, wealth and opportunity.

159. One of the ways in which a more equitable distribution of income works for a higher rate of *per capita* income growth is through its reinforcing effect on family planning, thus reducing the size of the family, which tends to be too large among low income groups. It also promotes a greater participation of the active population, especially women, higher productivity and a greater mobilization of financial and regional resources. Table II.59 shows that less developed countries in Asia and Latin America with a higher coefficient of income concentration generally experienced a lower growth in their *per capita* GNP during the period from 1960 to 1969, and more developed countries with a lower coefficient attained a higher rate of growth. At one extreme, Brazil, with a coefficient of 57.5 per cent and a population growth of 2.8 per cent, had an average rate of growth in its *per capita* GNP of only 1.4 per cent. At the other extreme, Norway, with a coefficient of 36 per cent and a population growth of 0.8 per cent, achieved an average growth of 4 per cent in its *per capita* GNP.

TABLE II.59

**Comparison of the coefficient of concentration with the annual rate of growth of *per capita* GNP in selected countries**

Country	Coefficient of concentration	Average annual rate of growth of <i>per capita</i> GNP (1960-1969)	Average annual rate of growth of population (1960-1969)
Brazil .....	57.5	1.4	2.8
El Salvador .....	54.0	1.9	3.4
Venezuela .....	54.0	2.5	3.4
Mexico .....	53.0	3.4	3.5
Costa Rica .....	52.0	2.9	3.3
France .....	52.0	4.8	1.1
Philippines .....	51.6	1.9	3.1
Panama .....	49.0	4.8	3.3
Argentina .....	48.0	2.6	1.6
Colombia .....	48.0	1.5	3.2
Netherlands .....	44.0	3.1	1.3
United Kingdom .....	40.0	1.8	0.7
United States of America	40.0	3.2	1.3
Norway .....	36.0	4.0	0.8

Sources: *Income Distribution in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.G.2), p. 7; *Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East, 1971* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.F.1); *Social Change and Social Development Policy in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. 70.II.G.3), p.41; International Monetary Fund and World Bank Group, *Finance and Development*, vol. 9, No. 1 (Washington D.C., March 1972).

#### D. Food and nutrition

160. It is obvious that malnutrition and an inferior level of living generally lower stamina and thereby affect willingness and ability to work. Table II.35 indicated the gaps existing between the production of and demand for food items in the less developed countries, most of which suffer from a very high rate of population increase and low agricultural productivity. The results have been a continuous increase in food prices and a chronic problem of malnutrition.

161. Table II.60 indicates the changes in the consumer food prices throughout the period 1966-1968 for 104

TABLE II.60  
Changes in indices of retail food prices in  
104 countries, 1966-1968

Change	Number of countries		
	1966	1967	1968
Decline .....	14	16	14
No change .....	6	9	11
1-4 per cent increase .....	42	51	48
5-10 per cent increase .....	28	15	21
11-20 per cent increase .....	6	7	5
21-50 per cent increase .....	5	3	3
Over 50 per cent increase .....	3	3	2

Source: 1970 Report on the World Social Situation (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.IV.13), p. 181.

countries for which information was available. The study on which it is based reports that in India food price increases were held down to 3 per cent in 1968, after having risen at an annual average of 10 per cent over the four previous years; that in Indonesia there was a price rise of somewhat more than 100 per cent in the same year, which nevertheless represented a great improvement over the two previous years; and that the rate of increase in

food prices was highest in Latin America, although in some of the larger countries of that region, such as Argentina and Brazil, it was less in 1968 than in the immediately preceding period.<sup>71</sup>

162. As a result of low purchasing power, especially in the rural areas, a low *per capita* calorie and protein intake was observed during the 1960s. Table II.61 gives estimates of the *per capita* calorie and protein content of the national average food supply in selected less developed countries. The figures in this table represent national averages and therefore do not show the extent of food deficiency or malnutrition among the low income groups. However, the mere fact that even the average calorie and protein intake in many of these countries is below universal standards, taking into account specific climatic conditions and the inequity in income distribution, indicates the insufficiency of nutrition levels in low-income groups. In comparing the average annual calorie and protein intake, one notes a small improvement in the situation in Algeria, Gambia, India, Lebanon, Pakistan, the Philippines, Uganda, the United Republic of Cameroon and most of Latin America. On the other hand, over the last decade the nutritional value of the diet in most of the Asian and African countries and a few of the Latin American

<sup>71</sup> 1970 Report on the World Social Situation . . . , p. 181.

TABLE II.61  
Estimated *per capita* calorie and protein content of national average food supply  
in selected developing countries

			Grammes per day	
	Period	Number of calories per day	Total protein	Animal protein
<i>Africa</i>				
Algeria .....	1964-1966	1 890	55.7	6.6
	1966	1 870	51.7	6.4
Egypt. ....	1965-1966	2 810	80.8	11.8
Ethiopia .....	1961-1963	2 040	68.8	14.8
	1970	1 980	66.3	11.0
Gabon .....	1960-1962	1 910	35.9	15.7
Gambia .....	1961-1963	2 300	60.4	12.2
	1964-1966	2 320	62.2	14.6
Ghana .....	1961-1963	2 160	48.6	10.5
	1966-1968	2 070	43.0	7.3
Ivory Coast .....	1961-1963	2 290	52.3	10.3
Kenya .....	1961-1963	2 120	64.4	12.1
	1970	2 200	68.0	15.9
Libyan Arab Republic .....	1967	2 660	63.7	14.7
Madagascar .....	1961-1963	2 330	52.3	9.4
	1970	2 240	51.2	12.6
Malawi .....	1970	2 400	63.1	5.3
Mali .....	1961-1963	2 120	64.2	10.9
Mauritius .....	1967	2 420	47.9	12.8
Morocco .....	1964-1966	2 130	57.7	10.0
	1966	2 060	54.3	9.7
Mozambique .....	1961-1963	2 420	47.9	3.8
	1964-1966	2 130	40.4	4.6
Nigeria .....	1961-1963	2 180	59.3	5.3
	1969	..	59.9	8.4
	1970	2 290	..	..
Rwanda .....	1961-1963	1 830	56.3	3.1
Somalia .....	1961-1963	1 780	51.6	16.3
	1964-1966	1 770	56.9	22.2
South Africa <sup>a</sup> .....	1960-1961	2 820	80.2	31.5
Sudan .....	1964-1966	2 090	58.9	18.7
	1966	1 940	63.9	25.9
Tunisia .....	1966	1 840	52.2	10.8
	1964-1966	2 200	62.9	10.9

TABLE II.61 (continued)

	Period	Number of calories per day	Grammes per day	
			Total protein	Animal protein
<i>Africa (continued)</i>				
Uganda.....	1961-1963	2 070	50.1	10.2
	1964-1966	2 160	55.9	15.1
United Republic of Cameroon.....	1961-1963	2 130	54.4	10.0
	1964-1966	2 230	58.9	10.8
United Republic of Tanzania.....	1961-1963	1 600	42.3	12.5
	1970	1 700	42.5	15.4
<i>Asia</i>				
Afghanistan.....	1964-1966	2 060	65.4	7.8
	1966	1 950	56.4	7.7
India.....	1965-1966	1 810	45.4	5.4
	1969-1970	1 990	49.4	5.6
Indonesia.....	1961-1963	1 930	42.5	4.8
	1970	1 920	42.8	5.2
Iran.....	1964-1966	2 030	55.2	11.7
	1966	1 890	49.8	11.5
Iraq.....	1960-1962	2 100	60.7	16.8
	1964-1966	2 050	57.8	13.6
Jordan.....	1964-1966	2 400	64.8	11.3
	1966	2 190	54.9	13.6
Lebanon.....	1964-1966	2 360	69.9	20.4
	1966	2 800	80.8	28.3
Malaysia.....	1961-1963	2 400	54.3	16.3
Pakistan.....	1966	2 230	51.5	11.2
	1969-1970	2 410	54.9	9.9
Philippines.....	1967	2 000	50.5	18.7
	1969	2 040	53.2	20.6
Saudi Arabia.....	1964-1966	2 080	56.2	9.5
	1966	1 850	50.9	12.1
Sri Lanka.....	1967	2 170	48.0	8.3
Syrian Arab Republic.....	1966	2 600	77.9	10.3
Turkey.....	1960-1961	3 110	97.5	15.9
<i>Latin America</i>				
Argentina.....	1966	2 920	88.0	58.7
	1969	3 160	104.7	62.3
Bolivia.....	1964-1966	1 760	45.8	12.1
	1966	1 980	50.6	13.2
Brazil.....	1966	2 690	66.3	18.3
	1970	2 820	66.8	21.4
Chile.....	1966	2 830	81.8	27.1
Colombia.....	1966	2 200	48.9	22.6
	1970	2 140	50.0	25.5
Costa Rica.....	1966	2 610	57.9	21.8
	1970	2 370	62.0	26.8
Dominican Republic.....	1966	2 290	41.7	15.3
	1968	2 060	50.1	21.5
Ecuador.....	1966	2 020	51.5	17.9
El Salvador.....	1966	1 840	44.2	9.4
	1970	1 850	45.2	12.5
Guatemala.....	1966	2 220	56.8	8.3
	1970	2 020	50.5	12.7
Haiti.....	1964-1966	1 930	47.0	4.7
Honduras.....	1966	2 010	51.0	14.5
Jamaica.....	1966	2 260	52.6	18.7
Mexico.....	1966	2 550	65.7	15.2
Nicaragua.....	1966	2 350	59.0	20.1
Panama.....	1966	2 500	62.9	23.9
Paraguay.....	1960-1962	2 520	63.3	23.7
Peru.....	1966	2 340	54.1	19.9
Surinam.....	1966	2 470	54.3	15.8
Uruguay.....	1966	3 170	101.6	67.1
Venezuela.....	1966	2 490	65.9	26.4

Sources: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, *The State of Food and Agriculture, 1969* (Rome, 1969), annex, tables 6G, 7G, 8G and 9G, and *FAO Production Yearbook, 1971, vol. 25* (Rome, 1972), tables 136 and 137.

\* Non-whites. Because of the prevailing government policy and practice of *apartheid*, the literacy, health and general living standards for whites and non-whites in this country are far from equal.

countries has declined. This deterioration of nutritional value has no doubt affected the low-income groups with large families. The remedy for this problem lies not only in the expansion of agricultural and animal production, and of fisheries where possible, but in the improved distribution of income and job opportunities, inasmuch as there is a high correlation between the level of personal income and the nutritional value of the diet.

163. In addition to better income distribution policies, some countries have adopted national food and nutrition programmes as an integral part of their national planning. Such programmes include distribution of milk, biscuits and other food material to all low income families and in the primary schools. Some countries have instituted programmes for enriching bread with vitamins, inasmuch as this item is basic to the national diet; some have been implementing price subsidy policies with regard to other food items that constitute the major part of the daily diet of low income families.

164. Accurate information on the nutrition problems of different socio-economic groups is lacking for most countries. Thus, as a first step to a more serious attack on the problem of hunger and malnutrition, there is need for a comprehensive and more regular survey of food consumption. Special attention should be given to national health programmes. The network of mother and child care centres, for example, should be used for the implementation of such programmes.

## E. Education

### 1. LITERACY

165. During the first United Nations Development Decade, increasing attention was focused on the campaign against illiteracy, which became an integral part of the national plan in a good number of less developed countries. As a result, during the period 1960-1970, the percentage rate of illiteracy decreased from 81 to 73.7 per cent in Africa, from 55.2 to 46.8 per cent in Asia, from 81.1 to 73 per cent in the Arab States and from 32.5 to 23.6 per cent in Latin America (see table II.62). Despite such campaigns, however, the eradication of illiteracy has fallen below expectations for a number of reasons. First, although the percentage rate of illiteracy has declined

everywhere, the absolute number of illiterates has increased in Asia and Africa. Secondly, as shown in table II.63 the illiteracy rates continue to be very high among women, because the illiteracy campaign has focused more on men than women. This discrimination against women is conspicuously discernible in some of the African and most of the Moslem countries. In Africa, the rate of illiteracy for men has declined by 10 percentage points, from 73.4 per cent to 63.4 per cent, whereas for women it has declined by only 5.2 percentage points. In the Arab States, the illiteracy rate for men has also declined by about 10 percentage points, whereas for women it has declined by 5 percentage points, and 85.7 per cent of the women are still illiterate, as compared to 60.5 per cent of the men. Thirdly, the campaign has not been equally implemented in the rural and urban areas. Fourthly, towards the end of the decade, it was universally found that literacy by itself, meaning the power to read and to write, was no great achievement but should be linked to the improvement of the professional performance of the individual and his participation in the cultural life of the nation. Thus, an experimental "functional literacy" programme was launched in a number of countries with the help of UNDP. Functional literacy programmes, being selective and costly, are not expected to eliminate illiteracy or provide full coverage of the illiterate active population, at least not for a long time to come.

166. In the meantime, the illiterate population suffers from unemployment, lack of technical know-how and, consequently, low pay. According to a UNESCO report on the subject, illiterates run a greater risk of unemployment than do literates; and as production techniques advance, the position of illiterates worsens.<sup>72</sup> In Colombia, about half a million (i.e., nearly 17 per cent) of the total 3 million labour force in urban areas could not find employment, whereas the ratio of unemployment among the illiterate labour force was 23 per cent. Illiterate workers, moreover, generally (though not always) receive lower wages. According to a study made by the Junta Nacional de Planificación of Ecuador, 76.5 per cent of the illiterate workers in that country receive 600 sucres less per month than do 40.3 per cent of the wage earners who have had from one to six years of primary schooling.

<sup>72</sup> UNESCO, *Literacy 1969-1971: Progress Achieved in Literacy throughout the World* (Paris, 1972), pp. 33-35.

TABLE II.62  
Adult (15+) literacy around 1969 and 1970

Major regions <sup>a</sup>	Around 1969				Around 1970			
	Adult population (000)	Literate adults (000)	Illiterate adults (000)	Illiteracy percentage	Adult population (000)	Literate adults (000)	Illiterate adults (000)	Illiteracy percentage
World total.....	1 869 000	1 134 000	735 000	39.3	2 287 000	1 504 000	783 000	34.2
Africa.....	153 000	29 000	124 000	81.0	194 000	51 100	143 000	73.7
Northern America.....	136 000	133 000	3 300	2.4	161 000	158 000	2 500	1.5
Latin America.....	123 000	83 100	40 000	32.5	163 000	125 000	38 600	23.6
Asia.....	982 000	440 000	542 000	55.2	1 237 000	658 000	579 000	46.8
Europe.....	464 000	439 000	24 500	5.3	521 000	502 000	18 700	3.6
Oceania.....	10 600	9 400	1 200	11.5	13 000	11 800	1 400	10.3
(Arab States).....	(52 700)	(9 900)	(42 700)	(81.1)	(68 300)	(18 400)	(49 900)	(73.0)

Source: UNESCO, *Literacy 1969-1971: Progress Achieved in Literacy throughout the World* (Paris, 1972), p. 22.

<sup>a</sup> The world total covers the whole world, including member States and non-member States of UNESCO and Non-Self-Governing Territories; Africa covers the entire African continent, including the Arab States of Africa; Northern America includes the United States of America, Canada, Bermuda, Greenland and St Pierre and Miquelon; Latin America covers the South American continent, Central America, Mexico and the Caribbean; Asia covers the entire Asian region, including the Arab States of Asia; Europe includes the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics; Oceania covers Australia, New Zealand and the surrounding islands; the Arab States as a separate grouping are presented in parentheses, as they are already included partly under Africa and partly under Asia.



TABLE II.63  
Male and female adult (15+) literacy around 1960 and 1970

Major regions <sup>a</sup>	Around 1960				Around 1970			
	Adult population (000)	Literate adults (000)	Illiterate adults (000)	Illiteracy percentage	Adult population (000)	Literate adults (000)	Illiterate adults (000)	Illiteracy percentage
<i>Males</i>								
World total.....	916 000	609 000	307 000	33.5	1 127 000	812 000	315 000	28.0
Africa.....	75 900	20 200	55 800	73.4	96 000	35 100	60 900	63.4
Northern America.....	66 800	65 600	1 300	1.9	78 000	77 200	850	1.1
Latin America.....	61 300	44 000	17 400	28.4	81 000	64 900	16 100	19.9
Asia.....	494 000	270 000	224 000	45.3	624 000	393 000	231 000	37.0
Europe.....	213 000	205 000	7 700	3.6	243 000	237 000	5 800	2.4
Oceania.....	5 300	4 800	530	9.9	6 600	6 000	580	8.8
(Arab States).....	(26 500)	(7 500)	(19 000)	(71.6)	(34 300)	(13 600)	(20 800)	(60.5)
<i>Females</i>								
World total.....	953 000	525 000	428 000	44.9	1 160 000	692 000	468 000	40.3
Africa.....	77 000	8 800	68 200	88.5	97 900	16 000	82 000	83.7
Northern America.....	69 700	67 700	2 000	2.8	82 800	81 200	1 600	1.9
Latin America.....	61 800	39 200	22 600	36.6	82 200	59 700	22 500	27.3
Asia.....	488 000	170 000	318 000	65.1	614 000	266 000	348 000	56.7
Europe.....	251 000	234 000	16 800	6.7	278 000	265 000	12 900	4.7
Oceania.....	5 200	4 500	680	13.0	6 500	5 800	780	11.9
(Arab States).....	(26 200)	(2 400)	(23 800)	(90.7)	(33 900)	(4 800)	(29 100)	(85.7)

Source: UNESCO, *Literacy 1969-1971: Progress Achieved in Literacy throughout the World* (Paris, 1972), p. 23.

<sup>a</sup> The world total covers the whole world, including member States and non-member States of UNESCO and Non-Self-Governing Territories; Africa covers the entire African continent, including the Arab States of Africa; Northern America includes the United States of America, Canada, Bermuda, Greenland and St Pierre and Miquelon; Latin America covers the South American continent, Central America, Mexico and the Caribbean; Asia covers the entire Asian region, including the Arab States of Asia; Europe includes the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics; Oceania covers Australia, New Zealand and the surrounding islands; the Arab States as a separate grouping are presented in parentheses, as they are already included partly under Africa and partly under Asia.

On the basis of another study made in Brazil in 1968, workers who had had primary education received wages averaging between 22 and 35.5 per cent higher than those of illiterate workers.

167. Some countries have adopted policies to encourage participation in literacy courses. In Saudi Arabia, all soldiers and members of the police force are automatically promoted as soon as they pass literacy courses. In Turkey, no citizen can occupy a post with the Government or obtain a driving licence or permission to work abroad, unless he has a primary school certificate. In Iran, great emphasis has been placed on anti-illiteracy programmes. The Literacy Corps, which consists of tens of thousands of army conscripts with a minimum of 12 grades of education plus six months of special teacher training after conscription, has greatly helped the expansion of the literacy campaign programme in the rural sector. In addition, the National Adult Literacy Campaign Committee, formed in 1965, has been carrying out adult literacy programmes in towns and villages. The number of schools, particularly primary schools, has greatly increased, especially in the rural areas. UNESCO pilot projects on functional literacy programmes have prepared the ground for a vast programme in this regard. In Venezuela, the Instituto Nacional de Cooperación Educativa organizes a range of courses, many within the premises of industrial units during working hours. A certificate of completed primary education is generally required for employment in these enterprises. For this purpose, the Institute organizes refresher courses for potential trainees. In 1970, some 2 335 adults were attending elementary literacy courses, and 11 406 were enrolled in courses equivalent to six years of primary education (grades I-IV) in preparation for entry into vocational training courses.

168. As Myrdal points out, in general, "in non-Communist countries adult education has been neglected in an almost scandalous way, even though adult education is needed in order to reach general literacy within a reasonably short period and, even more basically, in order to make the school education of children effective."<sup>73</sup>

169. From the cultural point of view, a large illiterate population is an obstacle to cultural development and the promotion of a sense of participation in social and cultural life. The number of daily newspapers published is one indication of the rate of literacy and the level of participation, through the mass media, of citizens in the cultural and political life of a country. Table II.64 gives the rate of daily newspaper publication in the less developed countries. According to this table, in most countries in Africa, the number of copies of daily newspapers published is below 15 per 1 000 of the population. In Asia, the rate is much higher but varies, ranging from 7 copies per 1 000 of the population in Afghanistan to 154 copies in Singapore and 485 in Hong Kong. In Latin America, the rate is generally much higher; there the number of daily newspapers publishing more than 50 copies per 1 000 of population is greater than the number publishing less than 50 copies.

## 2. SCHOOL ENROLMENT

170. Economic and social development in the less developed countries is not yet sufficient to allow the provision of free education for all at all school levels. Many countries have been able to legislate for free elementary education. None the less, owing to many factors, including the unavailability of facilities and teachers in remote areas

<sup>73</sup> G. Myrdal, *loc. cit.*, pp. 31 and 32.



TABLE II.64

## Daily newspaper publication in the less developed countries

	Year	Copies per 1 000 population
<i>Africa</i>		
Algeria .....	1968	14.0
Angola .....	1967	10.0
Central African Republic .....	1967	0.6
Chad .....	1969	0.4
Congo .....	1966	1.3
Dahomey .....	1968	0.4
Egypt .....	1967	28.0
Ethiopia .....	1969	2.0
Gambia .....	1960	5.0
Ghana .....	1969	34.0
Kenya .....	1969	15.0
Libyan Arab Republic .....	1967	20.0
Morocco .....	1966	14.0
Mozambique .....	1967	7.0
Nigeria .....	1966	7.0
Senegal .....	1969	5.0
Sierra Leone .....	1969	16.0
Tunisia .....	1969	16.0
Uganda .....	1965	5.0
United Republic of Cameroon .....	1969	2.0
United Republic of Tanzania .....	1969	5.0
Zaire .....	1969	1.0
Zambia .....	1969	9.0
<i>Asia</i>		
Afghanistan .....	1967	7.0
Burma .....	1966	9.0
Cyprus .....	1969	92.0
Hong Kong .....	1969	485.0
India .....	1968	13.0
Jordan .....	1968	12.0
Kuwait .....	1968	52.0
Malaysia .....	1969	74.0
Pakistan .....	1968	6.0
Philippines .....	1966	27.0
Republic of Viet-Nam .....	1968	70.0
Ryukyu Islands .....	1969	271.0
Saudi Arabia .....	1969	8.0
Singapore .....	1969	154.0
Sri Lanka .....	1969	58.0
Syrian Arab Republic .....	1967	15.0
Thailand .....	1969	21.0
Turkey .....	1969	41.0
<i>Latin America</i>		
Argentina .....	1966	128.0
Bahamas .....	1969	142.0
Barbados .....	1967	115.0
Bermuda .....	1969	223.0
Bolivia .....	1969	34.0
Brazil .....	1968	37.0
Colombia .....	1967	53.0
Chile .....	1968	86.0
Costa Rica .....	1967	60.0
Dominican Republic .....	1969	32.0
Ecuador .....	1969	42.0
El Salvador .....	1967	51.0
Guadeloupe .....	1966	9.0
Guatemala .....	1967	27.0
Haiti .....	1969	5.0
Honduras .....	1967	17.0
Jamaica .....	1969	66.0
Mexico .....	1965	116.0
Panama .....	1967	81.0
Paraguay .....	1969	40.0
Peru .....	1969	47.0
Uruguay .....	1969	400.0

Source: *Statistical Yearbook, 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F 71.XVII.1), pp. 794 and 795.

and the partial absorption of the school-age population by the labour market, the enrolment ratios at the primary school level of almost all the less developed countries are quite low. This is also true at the secondary and tertiary levels, in spite of some growth during the 1960s. Table II.65 provides some information regarding the increase both in absolute and relative terms in the number of pupils enrolled during the period 1960-1968 in different continents. According to this table, while primary school enrolment seems to be leveling off in northern America, Europe and Oceania, it is increasing at a rate faster than the population of the relevant age group in Africa, Asia and Latin America. As a result, as shown in table II.66, the enrolment ratio has increased between 1960/61 and 1967/68 from 34 to 40 per cent in Africa, from 50 to 55 per cent in Asia, from 60 to 75 per cent in Latin America and from 38 to 50 per cent in the Arab States.

171. The breakdown of the figures of children who are not enrolled is even more significant. An article on the subject published by UNESCO reveals that of the 6-12 age group in various parts of Africa, in 1967/68, 9 out of 10 children in Mauritania and 8 out of 10 in Mali and Chad were not enrolled, whereas in Algeria and Botswana the proportion was only 5 out of 10 and in Zambia 4 out of 10.<sup>74</sup>

172. In Latin America, for the same period and age group, it was found that 4 out of 10 children in El Salvador and Nicaragua, 3 out of 10 in Colombia, the Dominican Republic and Peru, 2 out of 10 in Chile and Mexico and 1 out of 10 in Argentina were not enrolled.<sup>75</sup>

173. The corresponding figures available for Asia showed that 9 out of 10 children in Saudi Arabia, 5 out of 10 in Iraq and 3 out of 10 in Thailand and Syria were not enrolled, whereas in Singapore the figure was only 1 in 10 and in Japan 1 in 20.<sup>76</sup>

174. Primary schools in the less developed countries, in general, operate on a very inferior standard with regard to equipment, school premises, pupil-teacher ratio, size of classes and quality of teachers. This is particularly true in the poorest countries, the poorest region of a country and the poorest sections of the urban and rural areas.

175. The expansion of the secondary level of education is still far behind that of primary education in terms of coverage. The enrolment ratio at the secondary level has increased during the period from 1960/61 to 1967/68 from 12 to 15 per cent in Africa, from 22 to 30 per cent in Asia, from 26 to 35 per cent in Latin America and from 16 to 25 per cent in the Arab States. Comparing these ratios with those in North America (92 per cent) and Europe and the USSR (65 per cent) for 1967/68, one may conclude that the gap is narrowing, though this does not take into consideration the drop-out rate, which is exceptionally high in the less developed countries.

176. The rate of increase in third-level enrolment has been much higher as compared to those of the primary and secondary levels, mainly because of the smallness of the base figures. None the less, the rate of enrolment at this level is still too low in Africa, Asia and Latin America as compared to North America, Europe and Oceania. In 1967/68, the rate of enrolment per 100 000 inhabitants was 110 in Africa, 395 in Asia, 425 in Latin America and

<sup>74</sup> G.C. Breis, "Stark profile of wastage in education", *The UNESCO Courier*, 25th year (Paris, June, 1972), p. 20.

<sup>75</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>76</sup> *Ibid.*

TABLE II.65  
Estimated total pupil enrolment by level of education, 1960/61 and 1967/68  
(Thousands)

	Total	First level (including pre-primary)	Second level (general, vocational and teacher training)	Third level
World total <sup>a</sup>				
1960/61 .....	347 029	271 920	63 927	11 174
1967/68 .....	479 619	356 813	101 268	21 538
AAI percentage <sup>b</sup> .....	4.7	4.0	6.8	9.8
Africa				
1960/61 .....	21 377	19 070	2 115	191
1967/68 .....	32 951	28 220	4 373	358
AAI percentage .....	6.4	5.8	10.9	9.3
Northern America				
1960/61 .....	50 954	36 072	11 157	3 725
1967/68 .....	63 464	36 555	19 547	7 362
AAI percentage .....	3.2	0.2	8.3	10.2
Latin America				
1960/61 .....	32 386	27 934	3 885	567
1967/68 .....	49 101	39 631	8 365	1 105
AAI percentage .....	6.1	5.1	11.6	10.0
Asia <sup>a</sup>				
1960/61 .....	120 583	97 128	21 325	2 131
1967/68 .....	178 688	141 374	32 724	4 590
AAI percentage .....	5.8	5.5	6.3	11.6
Europe and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics				
1960/61 .....	118 362	89 260	24 644	4 457
1967/68 .....	151 078	108 153	35 018	7 907
AAI percentage .....	3.6	2.8	5.2	8.5
Oceania				
1960/61 .....	3 367	2 464	801	102
1967/68 .....	4 337	2 880	1 241	216
AAI percentage .....	3.7	2.3	6.5	11.3
(Arab States)				
1960/61 .....	(8 745)	(7 337)	(1 248)	(160)
1967/68 .....	(13 955)	(10 915)	(2 734)	(306)
AAI percentage .....	(6.9)	(5.8)	(11.9)	(9.7)

Source: 1970 Report on the World Social Situation (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.IV.13), p. 194.

<sup>a</sup> Excluding China, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea and the Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam.

<sup>b</sup> AAI percentage = Percentage of average annual increase (1960/61-1967/68).

TABLE II.66  
School enrolment ratios by level of education, 1960/61 and 1967/68

Major regions	1960/61				1967/68			
	Percentage of children of primary school age attending school at any level	Percentage of children of secondary school age attending school at any level	Percentage of children of primary and secondary school age (combined) attending school at any level	Third level enrolment per 100 000 inhabitants	Percentage of children of primary school age attending school at any level	Percentage of children of secondary school age attending school at any level	Percentage of children of primary and secondary school age (combined) attending school at any level	Third level enrolment per 100 000 inhabitants
World .....	63	34	50	480	68	40	56	772
Africa .....	34	12	24	70	40	15	28	110
North America .....	98	90	94	1 875	98	92	96	3 356
Latin America .....	60	26	45	267	75	35	55	425
Asia <sup>a</sup> .....	50	22	36	216	55	30	45	395
Europe and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics .....	96	57	79	697	97	65	85	1 148
Oceania .....	95	28	66	650	95	30	67	1 191
(Arab States) .....	(38)	(16)	(28)	(170)	(50)	(25)	(38)	(270)

Source: 1970 Report on the World Social Situation (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.IV.13), p. 194.

<sup>a</sup> Excluding China, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea and the Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam.

270 in the Arab States as compared to 3 356 in North America, 1 148 in Europe and 1 191 in Oceania.

177. As regards technical and more practical and vocational orientation in the secondary schools, it seems appropriate to cite what Myrdal, after long years of observation, says in that respect. Generally speaking, he concludes that whatever requires "participation in manual work makes such schools less popular than the traditional ones. Generally, what is sought is status and degrees and some preparation for desk jobs. The whole school system is thus anti-developmental. It swells the ranks of administrative personnel, particularly in the lower brackets, and the 'educated unemployed', who do not want to soil their hands".<sup>77</sup>

### 3. QUALITY OF EDUCATION

178. The quantitative expansion of education in the less developed countries just reviewed should be weighed against certain qualitative appraisals, most of which have been touched upon earlier. First of all, there has not been adequate provision of equal opportunity for women, for different ethnic groups, for rural areas, for backward regions and for lower income groups. There is, however, evidence of the rapid growth of special educational programmes for physically and mentally handicapped children, and increasing importance is being attached, in rural areas, both to its expansion and its adaptation to the rural environment.<sup>78</sup> Nevertheless, these tentative initiatives have a long way to go before they give rise to full-scale, democratized educational systems.

179. Secondly, the content of education does not, in most cases, conform to the manpower requirements of the less developed countries. At one extreme, there are still a few countries in North Africa and in west and south-east Asia that continue to rely primarily on a traditional, religious type of schooling that bears little relationship to the requirements of the modern world. At the other extreme, there are countries, like most of the Asian and Latin American countries, whose educational programmes and syllabi are heavily academic and drawn from those of Western schools, as if they were designed to educate pupils for the Western manpower market. As a consequence, the "brain drain" phenomenon has developed to an untenable scale, especially in Asia and Latin America. In those regions, there are many jobless high school and university graduates who are unable to find jobs suitable to their academic training. By the same token, many physicians, engineers and scientists leave their countries to obtain better paid jobs in the more advanced countries.

180. Thirdly, technical education and professional training have not yet received enough attention in most of the less developed countries. The failure of educational planning to include the development of the necessary skills and to bring original local research into relationship with agricultural training may be viewed as one of the most important shortcomings of their agricultural development. The large proportion of primitive labour sectors in the economy of these countries (see, e.g., table II.58) is indicative of inadequate technical and professional training.

181. Fourthly, according to the article published by UNESCO, "there is seen to be a big difference between the number of children enrolled and the number actually

in class. Children very often drop out during the school year to help their families, particularly with the crops at harvest time".<sup>79</sup> In some countries, the rate of drop-out from primary school amounts to 80 per cent, which means that in a country where only 10 per cent of children between the ages of 6 and 12 have been enrolled, only 2 per cent of the children who should normally have access to education complete the primary school programme. Breis further states:

In Africa, of 100 pupils enrolled in 1960 in the People's Republic of the Congo, Dahomey, Gabon and Libya, 50 had dropped out of school before the end of the primary cycle. In Algeria, Burundi and Upper Volta, drop-outs numbered 60 out of 100, in Botswana, the Central African Republic and Madagascar over 70, and in Rwanda and Chad over 80.

During the same period in Latin America, 50 per cent of children enrolled dropped out in El Salvador and Panama, over 60 per cent in Brazil, Ecuador, Mexico, Paraguay and Venezuela, and over 70 per cent in Colombia and Guatemala.

In Asia, over 50 out of 100 school-children dropped out in India and Qatar and over 60 out of 100 in the Khmer Republic.

The proportion of drop-outs in rural areas is much higher than in urban zones. The following examples taken from four Latin American countries for which comparative statistics are available give a clear idea of the situation.

	Percentage of drop-outs		
	Total	Urban zones	Rural zones
Colombia.....	72.7	52.7	96.3
Dominican Republic...	69.6	48.1	86.1
Guatemala.....	74.7	50.4	96.5
Panama.....	37.7	19.3	54.7

It is clear that in predominantly farming communities the chances of completing primary school are very small. As a result, agricultural modernization is hindered, and migration to the towns may increase.<sup>80</sup>

Similar statistics on the rates of drop-out at higher levels of education are not available, although there are clear data on the rate of drop-out between the primary and secondary levels and between the secondary and tertiary levels (see table II.65).

182. Fifthly, the content of the educational programmes at all levels in the less developed countries does not appear to anticipate or even follow in an orderly way the developments and exigencies of current world technology. As is well brought out in the report of the International Commission on the Development of Education, published by UNESCO, these countries need to avoid any feeling of complacency and to question constantly the validity of prevailing educational objectives and content, as well as the appropriateness of methodology.<sup>81</sup> The relevance of the educational programmes being followed in the different regions of a country to the practical requirements of the social and economic life of those regions, the duration of general and specialized courses, the number of choices to be provided and changes to be made available are questions to be raised and answered constantly. Pupils have to be considered as individuals who are supposed to participate consciously and responsibly in the process of the development of their minds and their knowledge, exactly in the same way as they are supposed to take initiatives and participate in the process of economic, social, cultural and political life.

<sup>79</sup> G. C. Breis, *loc. cit.*, p. 20.

<sup>80</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 22.

<sup>81</sup> UNESCO, *Learning to Be: The World of Education Today and Tomorrow* (Paris, UNESCO, and London, Harrap, 1972).

<sup>77</sup> G. Myrdal, *loc. cit.*, p. 32.

<sup>78</sup> 1970 Report on the World Social Situation . . . , pp. 195 and 196.



183. The prevailing system of education in the less developed countries seems to be authoritarian in approach and dogmatic in content. Any revision of such an archaic system would require:

(a) The restructuring of education, in the sense of creating a constant relationship between education and social, economic and cultural development through a system of permanent education oriented to a multi-disciplinary formation;

(b) A new pedagogic approach in the training of teachers, with a view to orienting them to the multiple aspects of the human personality and the substitution of selection by orientation;

(c) The participation of pupils in the process of elaborating the educational policy and management of educational institutions;

(d) The decentralization of administration, with a view to stimulating a process of endogenous participation in planning and in creating links with local society; the role of the central administration should be limited to stimulation and co-ordination at a very high level of policy decision;

(e) Continuous research on methods, content and alternatives, in harmony with anticipated technological innovations and with a view to making the best use of the time available.

184. Even so, the quantitative expansion of education and its qualitative improvement are functions of general reform in the political, administrative and economic development of individual countries. Thus, the stage of educational development should not be too far ahead of the stage of social, economic and administrative development at any given time, although a greater effort to expand and reform the educational system helps to introduce new elements of over-all progress in the long run.

## F. Housing

185. The dualistic socio-economic system of the less developed countries is conspicuously marked by the gap existing between the standard of living and the social and economic opportunities available in rural and urban areas. The high rate of emigration from rural to urban areas resulting from this gap, together with the high rate of population growth, has in the 1960s created housing needs far beyond what these countries can cope with. The attraction of larger cities for agricultural workers seeking better jobs, for pupils looking for schools or better schools or for businessmen needing greater banking, administrative and marketing facilities demands not only better housing but enormous investment in urban facilities. In the absence of effective land policies, the price of urban land has been soaring, making the execution of housing projects all the more difficult. The situation is further complicated by inadequate financial resources and a lack of trained labourers and technicians. Consequently, few of the less developed countries have been able to meet their housing targets. During the last half of the 1960s, an annual housing target of from 8 to 10 dwellings per 1 000 inhabitants had been set for the developing regions of the world, on the assumption that reasonably sound housing stock should be replaced within 30 years in urban areas and 20 years in rural areas. According to available statistics, in some of the less developed countries, only 0.5 to 3.0 dwellings per 1 000

inhabitants were completed in 1967,<sup>82</sup> and only a few countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America were able to produce sufficient housing at minimum standards to accommodate a rapidly growing population.<sup>83</sup> In most less developed countries, fewer than 2 houses per 1 000 inhabitants are being built each year,<sup>84</sup> a figure markedly below the desirable range of from 7 to 10. Even so, housing activities are usually concentrated in urban areas, and very few resources are allocated to new housing or to the improvement of existing housing in the rural areas, where, in fact, the bulk of the population lives.

186. The income disparities in the urban sector are prominently reflected in the different housing standards in the various districts of cities, particularly large cities, and their environs. The usual pattern is one of huge slum areas, overcrowded with families living in conditions below poverty-line standards in shanties, mud houses and shacks without water, electricity, garbage removal systems and other necessary facilities, in contrast to modern districts and suburbs consisting of luxurious buildings with all modern facilities and ample green spaces. The over-all density of population in the low-income districts is estimated to be about 650 persons and above per square kilometre in large cities,<sup>85</sup> compared to an average density of 30–50 persons per square kilometre in high-income districts. The high density figures for the low-income districts reflect the large number of persons per room occupied, the low ratio of the street surface area to the built-up area and the small area of green space per inhabitant. Table II.67 provides figures for room density and the quality of dwellings in the urban centres of the less developed countries. On the basis of available information for the early 1960s, the average density was more than 2 persons per room, in most cases. In Africa, in 11 countries studied, in 7 there was an average density of more than 2, in 4 there was a density of more than 2.5 and in 2 there was a density of 3 and 3.5 persons per room. These figures, representing the average, tend to conceal the true situation of the low-income districts. In Kenya and Nigeria, for example, in 41 per cent of the dwellings there were 3 or more persons per room. In Asia, in 10 countries for which information was available, there was an average density of more than 2.5 persons per room in 5 of them. In Pakistan and the Republic of Korea 59 per cent, in Malaysia 51 per cent and in Syria 36 per cent of the dwellings accommodated 3 or more persons per room. In Latin America, the housing conditions seemed better. Of 21 countries for which information was available, 6 had an average density of more than 2 persons per room. The two exceptions were Mexico and Paraguay, where the average density was 2.6 persons per room. The data also showed that 53 per cent of the dwellings in Paraguay, 47 per cent in Mexico, 42 per cent in Nicaragua, 40 per cent in Ecuador, 32 per cent in Panama and 34 per cent in Peru and Jamaica had 3 or more persons per room.

187. In terms of quality, as shown in the last three columns of table II.67, conditions in most of the less developed countries were far from satisfactory. In Latin

<sup>82</sup> 1970 *Report on the World Social Situation* . . . , p. 185; see also *World Housing Conditions and Estimated Housing Requirements* (United Nations publication, Sales No. 65.IV.8).

<sup>83</sup> *Statistical Yearbook, 1968* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F.69.XVII.1).

<sup>84</sup> "Review of the housing situation in the ECAFE region" (E/CN.11/I&NR/Sub.4(9)/L.6), p. 3.

<sup>85</sup> This is undoubtedly an extremely conservative estimate as far as the very poor housing and slum areas are concerned.

TABLE II.67  
Urban households and dwellings, early 1960s<sup>a</sup>

		Average density		Percentage of dwellings with			
	Number of households (thousands)	Persons per room	Percentage of dwellings with 3 or more persons per room	1 or 2 rooms	Piped water	Electricity	Flush toilet
Western hemisphere							
Argentina . . . . .	4 076	1.3	12	37	60	87	77
Barbados (T) . . . . .	58	1.2	..	33	..	..	..
Brazil . . . . .	6 551	1.3 <sup>b</sup>	5 <sup>b</sup>	13 <sup>b</sup>	42	72	..
British Honduras [Belize] . . . . .	10	1.8	..	54	4	51	10
Chile . . . . .	940	1.6	19	39	79	86	45 <sup>b</sup>
Colombia . . . . .	1 284	..	..	36	89	88	80
Costa Rica . . . . .	86	1.3	8	17	98	94	64
Dominican Republic . . . . .	185	1.6	..	46	71	58	36
Ecuador . . . . .	293	2.1	40	64	87	79	61
El Salvador . . . . .	188	2.2	..	80	77	..	30
Guyana . . . . .	16	1.7	..	..	..	..	..
Honduras . . . . .	76	1.8	26	48	77	57	51
Jamaica . . . . .	104	1.6	34	79	90	..	65
Mexico . . . . .	3 670	2.6	47	71	32 <sup>b</sup>	47	..
Netherlands Antilles (T) . . . . .	27	1.0	3	11	62	38	49
Nicaragua . . . . .	106	2.2	42	63	49	71	28
Panama . . . . .	99	2.1	38	73	40	83	77
Paraguay . . . . .	123	2.6 <sup>b</sup>	53 <sup>b</sup>	75 <sup>b</sup>	23	33	13
Peru . . . . .	921	2.0	34	59	44	51	45
Surinam (T) . . . . .	64	1.7	19	48	45	18	22
Trinidad and Tobago (T) . . . . .	211	1.8	..	56	46	66	24
Uruguay . . . . .	558	..	..	16	..	89	68
Venezuela (T) . . . . .	1 343	1.6	21	37	67	78	50
Africa							
Central African Republic (T) . . . . .	261	3.4	..	98	..	..	..
Ethiopia . . . . .	124	2.7	..	..	74	58	..
Kenya . . . . .	137	2.5	41	77	..	..	..
Malawi . . . . .	40	1.9	..	76	44	20	33
Mauritius (T) . . . . .	138	1.9	29	54	75	61	31
Morocco . . . . .	787	2.1	31	57	58 <sup>b</sup>	85	..
Nigeria . . . . .	93	3.0	41	93	..	81	7
People's Republic of the Congo (T) [Congo] . . . . .	134	2.7	..	86	..	..	..
Southern Rhodesia <sup>c</sup> . . . . .	161	1.9	..	68	..	..	..
Sudan . . . . .	32	2.5	..	..	96	55	..
United Arab Republic [Egypt] . . . . .	1 992	1.6	16	24	40	38	..
Zambia . . . . .	90	..	..	31	..	29	..
Asia							
Ceylon [Sri Lanka] . . . . .	196	2.3	..	42	46	32	20
Hong Kong . . . . .	156	..	..	..	95 <sup>d</sup>	100	51
India . . . . .	14 841	2.6	..	78	..	..	..
Indonesia . . . . .	2 814	..	..	82	..	..	..
Iran . . . . .	1 961	..	..	..	57	69	..
Israel . . . . .	564	1.5	11	53	100	99	87
Jordan . . . . .	129	..	..	69 <sup>b</sup>	69	39	23
Kuwait . . . . .	53	2.2	..	51	..	..	..
Malaysia . . . . .	30	3.0	51	62	75	67	35
Nepal . . . . .	46	2.0	20	30	64	37	9
Pakistan . . . . .	2 118	3.1	59	81	..	..	..
Philippines (T) . . . . .	4 653	..	..	..	20	17	8
Republic of Korea . . . . .	1 255	2.8	59	78	47	67	1
Republic of Viet-Nam . . . . .	230	..	..	..	24	71	..
Singapore . . . . .	332	2.9	..	69	91	87	54
Syrian Arab Republic . . . . .	307	2.1	36	45	77	88	..
Developed market economies							
Australia . . . . .	2 664	0.7	..	5	..	99	..
Austria . . . . .	1 347	..	..	30	100	99	..
Canada . . . . .	3 280	0.7	..	4	98	..	97
Cyprus . . . . .	51	1.3	12	40	96	90	54
Denmark . . . . .	1 087	0.7	..	7	99 <sup>d</sup>	100	96
Finland . . . . .	609	1.2	7	56	73	100	63
France . . . . .	9 478	1.0	5	40	92	98	50



TABLE II.67 (continued)

		Average density		Percentage of dwellings with			
	Number of households (thousands)	Persons per room	Percentage of dwellings with 3 or more persons per room	1 or 2 rooms	Piped water	Electricity	Flush toilet
<i>Developed market economies (continued)</i>							
Germany, Federal Republic of .....	7 663	..	..	..	100	100	96
Greece .....	1 249	1.4	14	52	85	82	24
Iceland .....	22	0.9	—	4	100	100	94
Ireland .....	325	0.9	2	11	97	98	96
Japan .....	14 447	1.2	7	34	78	..	13
Luxembourg .....	63	0.8	1	14	99	100	92
New Zealand .....	563	..	..	..	100	..	97
Norway .....	422	0.8	1	20	100	..	86
Portugal .....	486	1.0	7	24	82 <sup>d</sup>	89	84
Sweden .....	2 195	0.8	—	25	99	..	94
Switzerland .....	890	0.7 <sup>b</sup>	—	7 <sup>b</sup>	97 <sup>d</sup>	100	..
Turkey .....	769	..	..	..	56	85	..
United Kingdom .....	11 825	0.7	..	5	94	..	96
United States of America .....	38 320	0.6	..	7	99	..	98
Yugoslavia .....	1 775	1.7	7	50	42 <sup>d</sup>	93	35
<i>Centrally planned economies</i>							
Bulgaria .....	1 278	1.4	9	36	55	98	26
Czechoslovakia .....	1 954	..	..	..	70 <sup>d</sup>	99	..
German Democratic Republic .....	4 093	1.2	..	..	80 <sup>d</sup>	..	41
Hungary .....	1 444	..	..	..	68	93	51
Poland .....	4 355	1.5	12	54	68	99	36

Source: *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), pp. 201 and 202.

<sup>a</sup> Mostly between 1960 and 1965; total households—designated by (T)—in the case of Barbados, the Central African Republic, Mauritius, the Netherlands Antilles, the People's Republic of the Congo, the Philippines, Surinam, Trinidad and Tobago and Venezuela; the capital city in the case of Ethiopia, Nigeria, the Republic of Viet-Nam and the Sudan; Sabah and Sarawak in the case of Malaysia; data for several cities in the case of Nepal; 20 cities representing 46.2 per cent of the total city population in the case of Tur-

key; England and Wales in the case of the United Kingdom; data are for Africans only in the case of Southern Rhodesia and Zambia. The countries listed are those for which at least one indicator of the status of urban housing was available.

<sup>b</sup> Percentage of total dwellings.

<sup>c</sup> In this Territory, as in South Africa, the literacy, health and general living standards for whites and non-whites are far from equal.

<sup>d</sup> Inside piped water.

America, there were only 8 countries—Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, the Dominican Republic, Jamaica and Honduras—where over 70 per cent of the dwelling units had piped water, and only 10 countries where over 70 per cent of dwelling units had electricity. There were also extreme cases, like Paraguay, where only 23 per cent of dwelling units had piped water, 33 per cent had electricity and 13 per cent had flush toilets; or like Mexico, where only 32 per cent had piped water and 47 per cent had electricity. Data for Africa and Asia are not so complete. The available evidence on present conditions indicates the critical situation prevailing in all three continents, although, as might be expected, some improvement has taken place. In general, the situation with regard to urban housing in Latin America is far better than that prevailing in Africa or Asia.

188. The quality of rural housing is very poor in most of the less developed countries. As indicated in table II.68, a very low percentage of houses in the rural areas had inside piped water, electricity and toilets. This situation is one of the essential reasons for emigration and the uncontrolled settlement of marginal groups in slum areas of large cities.

189. Many countries have adopted low-cost housing policies to remedy the situation.<sup>86</sup> Mortgage banks and

special housing funds have been created or expanded to answer the problem of uncontrolled settlement. In Africa, between 1 and 3.5 per cent of total national investment was allocated, in national plans, for slum clearance schemes.<sup>87</sup> All African countries have mentioned the need for slum clearance in their housing policies, but few, in fact, have achieved promising results. Some have actually created worse slums by forcibly ejecting people from a slum area without providing a planned resettlement scheme.<sup>88</sup> It is currently estimated that slums and uncontrolled settlements in the countries of Asia and the Far East constitute, at any given time, between 15 and 47 per cent of the total housing stock. Most Governments are taking steps to reduce the housing shortage, but unless they devote about 20 per cent of the country's capital stock towards raising a balanced social and economic structure dynamically, housing standards degenerate. Some Governments in Asia have tried to adhere to this percentage; but most have allocated much lower proportions, and deterioration in housing has naturally been more rapid. As shown in table II.69, during the period 1964-1968, the number of slum dwellers and uncontrolled settlers in Karachi decreased from 752 000 to 600 000, and their percentage of total city population declined

on housing, probably all that is needed by the less developed countries is an adequate volume of resources, together with government support.

<sup>87</sup> *Improvement of Slums and Uncontrolled Settlements* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.IV.6), p. 30.

<sup>88</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 31.

<sup>86</sup> The progress made in this regard by some countries in Asia, such as Hong Kong, the Philippines and Singapore, illustrates what can be done where sufficient priority is given by Governments to housing development. With the present knowledge and expertise

TABLE II.68

## Rural housing in selected countries and territories

	Year	Average density (persons per room)	Facilities		
			Percentage of dwellings with		
			Inside piped water	Electricity	Toilet (any type)
<i>Latin America</i>					
Argentina .....	1960	1.7	..	29.2	77.9
Brazil .....	1969	1.2	8.1	16.3	31.7
Chile .....	1960	2.0	..	23.9	..
Colombia .....	1964	..	20.3	17.6	33.8
Costa Rica .....	1963	1.7	43.6	31.6	60.7
Dominican Republic .....	1960	2.2	1.4	3.0	82.2
Ecuador .....	1962	2.8	..	8.5	9.0
Guatemala .....	1964	3.1	1.5	4.1	9.5
Honduras .....	1961	2.7	2.7	1.9	5.4
Jamaica .....	1960	2.0	5.7	..	92.1
Mexico .....	1960	3.4	..	..	25.2
Paraguay .....	1962	..	0.3	1.2	84.3
Peru .....	1961	2.7	0.8	4.2	23.9
Puerto Rico .....	1960	1.2	28.8	66.7	86.5
Uruguay .....	1963	..	..	31.7	73.8
<i>Africa</i>					
Mauritius .....	1962	1.9	13.1	42.0	89.7
Morocco .....	1960	2.3	..	30.8	69.9
St. Helena .....	1966	..	27.8	..	99.7
Southern Rhodesia <sup>a</sup> .....	1962	2.2	..	..	..
Spanish Sahara .....	1968	..	..	100.0	100.0
<i>Asia</i>					
Bahrain .....	1965	..	..	48.0	..
Cyprus .....	1960	1.6	7.1	21.5	78.1
India .....	1960	2.6	..	..	..
Iran .....	1966	2.4	0.7	3.7	..
Israel .....	1966	2.1	73.6	57.8	80.4
Jordan .....	1961	..	2.1	1.4	30.8
Pakistan .....	1960	3.1	..	..	..
Philippines .....	1967	..	..	5.8	59.1
Republic of Korea .....	1960	2.4	9.5	12.4	91.9
Sri Lanka .....	1963	1.6	8.1	7.2	83.8
Syrian Arab Republic .....	1961/62	2.5	..	10.5	36.6
Turkey .....	1965	2.7	..	..	..

Source: *Statistical Yearbook, 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F.71.XVII.1), pp. 718 *et seq.*

<sup>a</sup> In this Territory, as in South Africa, the literacy, health and general standards of living for whites and non-whites are far from equal.

from 33 to 27 per cent. But in Ankara, during the period 1965–1970, both the absolute number and the percentage of slum dwellers increased sharply, the absolute number going up from 460 000 to 750 000, and the percentage from 47 to 60 per cent. A cursory look at the table gives some idea of the formidable task confronting the Asian countries.

190. In Latin America, there are large numbers of slum dwellers and uncontrolled settlers in Mexico, Peru, Chile, Venezuela and several other countries. During the years under study, slum dwellers comprised 80 per cent of the population in Buenaventura, 50 per cent in Recife and Maracaibo, 49 per cent in Guayaquil and 46 per cent in Mexico City. Their numbers grew in Lima from 360 000 in 1961 to 1 000 000 in 1969, and in Mexico City from 330 000 in 1952 to 1 500 000 in 1966.<sup>89</sup>

191. Whether these numbers will be reduced depends on the strategy to be adopted at the national level with

regard to national investment in housing, land use, construction material, training of technical manpower and, above all, a more equal distribution of employment opportunities, income, schooling, health and other public services and better housing in rural areas. Without a well planned and executed strategy, it can surely be foreseen that the existing numbers of slum dwellers and uncontrolled settlers will increase rapidly and produce social crisis.

### G. Health

192. The general health situation in the less developed countries is reflected in important parameters, like the death rate, life expectation at birth and the infant mortality rate. Examination of the change in death rates in the less developed countries during the period 1960–1968 shows that in most countries for which data were available the death rate has declined (see table II.70). In a few countries, for example, Argentina, Bolivia, Ecuador and Guadeloupe, no change was observed in this rate. On the other

<sup>89</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 22.

**TABLE II.69**  
**Selected data on slums and uncontrolled settlements**

			<i>Population in slums and uncontrolled settlements</i>		
	<i>City</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>City population<sup>a</sup></i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Total as percentage of city population</i>
<i>Africa</i>					
Senegal .....	Dakar	1969	500 000	150 000	30.0
United Republic of Tanzania .....	Dar-es-Salaam	1967	272 800	93 000	34.0
Zambia .....	Lusaka	1967	194 000	53 000	27.0
<i>Latin America</i>					
Brazil .....	Rio de Janeiro	1947	2 050 000	400 000	20.0
		1957	2 940 000	650 000	22.0
		1961	3 326 000	900 000	27.0
	Belo Horizonte	1965	872 300	119 799	14.0
	Porte Alegre	1962	680 000	86 465	13.0
	Recife	1961	792 000	396 000	50.0
	Brasilia	1962	148 000	60 000	41.0
	State of Guanabara	1950	2 240 000	159 000	7.1
		1960	3 300 000	337 000	10.2
Chile .....	Santiago	1964	2 184 000	546 000	25.0
Colombia .....	Cali	1964	812 810	243 840	30.0
	Buenaventura	1964	110 660	88 530	80.0
Ecuador .....	Guayaquil	1968	730 000	360 000	49.0
Mexico .....	Mexico City	1952	2 372 000	330 000	14.0
		1966	3 287 334	1 500 000	46.0
Panama .....	Panama City	1968	373 000	63 000	17.0
Peru .....	Lima	1957	1 260 729	114 000	9.0
		1961	1 715 971	360 000	21.0
		1969	2 800 000	1 000 000	36.0
	Arequipa	1957	117 208	10 500	9.0
		1961	135 358	54 143	40.0
	Chimbote	1957	33 000	6 600	20.0
Venezuela .....	Caracas	1961	1 330 000	280 000	21.0
		1964	1 590 000	556 300	35.0
	Maracaibo	1966	559 000	280 000	50.0
	Barquisimeto	1968	30 530 <sup>b</sup>	12 518 <sup>b</sup>	41.0
	Ciudad Guayana	1966	86 000	34 000	40.0
<i>Asia and the Far East</i>					
Afghanistan .....	Kabul	1968	475 000	100 000	21.0
India .....	Calcutta	1961	6 700 000	2 220 000	33.0
Indonesia .....	Djakarta	1961	2 906 000	725 000	25.0
Iraq .....	Baghdad	1965	1 745 000	500 000	29.0
Malaysia .....	Kuala Lumpur	1961	400 000	100 000	25.0
Pakistan .....	Karachi	1964	2 280 000	752 000	33.0
		1968	2 700 000	600 000	27.0
Philippines .....	Manila	1968	less than 3 000 000	1 100 000	35.0
Republic of Korea .....	Seoul	1970	440 000 <sup>b</sup>	136 550 <sup>b</sup>	30.0
Singapore .....	Singapore	1966	1 870 000	280 000	15.0
Sri Lanka .....	Colombo	1953	..	1 347 <sup>b</sup>	..
		1963	69 500 <sup>b</sup>	30 500 <sup>b</sup>	44.0
<i>Europe</i>					
Turkey .....	Total urban population	1965	10 800 000	2 365 000	21.8
	Ankara	1965	979 000	460 000	47.0
		1970	1 250 000	750 000	60.0
	Izmir	1970	640 000	416 000	65.0

Source: *Improvement of Slums and Uncontrolled Settlements* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.IV.6), pp. 21-25.

<sup>a</sup> Where census or United Nations figures were not available for city populations in years required to correspond with the data on slums and uncontrolled settlements, figures were derived from the

most accurate base data and growth rates. The term "city population" has generally been taken to include the population of the urban agglomeration.

<sup>b</sup> Figure indicates number of dwelling units.

TABLE II.70

## Death rate, infant mortality rate and life expectancy in less developed countries, 1960-1968

Country or territory <sup>a</sup>	Crude death rate (per thousand of the population) <sup>b</sup>		Infant mortality rate (per thousand live births) <sup>c</sup>		Expectation of life at birth <sup>d</sup> (years)
	Around 1960	Around 1968	Around 1960	Around 1968	
<i>Western hemisphere:</i>					
Argentina .....	8.7	8.7	59	58	64-70
Bahamas .....	6.7	5.8	48	46	..
Barbados .....	9.1	8.1	60	46	63-67
Bolivia .....	21	21	..	77	45
Brazil .....	..	11	..	93	61
British Honduras [Belize] .....	..	..	..	..	45-49
Chile .....	12	11	125	92	54-60
Colombia .....	11	13	90	78	58
Costa Rica .....	8.6	8.0	70	62	67
Cuba .....	6.4	8.0	..	38	..
Dominican Republic .....	..	15	102	73	67
Ecuador .....	14	14	96	88	61
El Salvador .....	11	15	76	59	57-60
Grenada .....	9.3	8.0	52	34	60-66
Guadeloupe .....	8.1	8.1	..	50	62-66
Guatemala .....	17	19	92	94	55
Guyana .....	9.5	9.0	..	40	51
Haiti .....	..	22	..	190	45
Honduras .....	..	16	..	..	49
Jamaica .....	8.8	8.0	51	35	62-67
Martinique .....	8.6	7.6	..	37	62-66
Mexico .....	11	10	74	66	63
Nicaragua .....	..	15	65	55	50
Panama .....	8.0	10	54	41	64
Paraguay .....	..	13	..	52	59
Peru .....	11	13	93	..	58
St. Lucia .....	13	7.1	102	42	55-58
Surinam .....	8.8	6.5	48	30	62-67
Trinidad and Tobago .....	7.9	8.0	45	36	62-66
Uruguay .....	9.1	9.0	..	50	65-72
Venezuela .....	7.1	9.0	53	..	64
<i>Africa:</i>					
Algeria .....	..	10	..	86	35
Angola .....	..	..	..	..	35
Burundi .....	..	26	..	150	33-38
Cameroon [United Republic of] .....	..	26	..	137	43
Cape Verde Islands .....	..	11	106	100	..
Central African Republic .....	26	30	190	..	33-36
Chad .....	..	31	160	..	29-35
Congo (Dem. Rep. of) [Zaire] .....	20	..	104	..	38-40
Dahomey .....	26	..	110	..	37
Ethiopia .....	22	..	84	..	35
Equatorial Guinea .....	..	..	..	..	40
Gabon .....	30	..	229	..	25-45
Gambia .....	21	..	..	72	43
Ghana .....	24	..	156	..	37
Guinea .....	40	..	216	..	26-28
Ivory Coast .....	33	..	138	..	35
Kenya .....	20	..	..	132	40-45
Lesotho .....	..	23	..	181	45
Liberia .....	28	..	188	..	36-39
Libyan Arab Republic .....	..	..	..	..	38
Madagascar .....	..	25	..	102	37-38
Malawi .....	..	..	..	148	..
Mali .....	30	..	120	..	35
Mauritania .....	..	28	..	187	40
Mauritius .....	11	8	69	70	59-62
Morocco .....	19	..	149	..	47
Mozambique .....	..	..	..	92	45
Niger .....	27	..	200	..	37
Nigeria .....	..	..	..	..	37
People's Republic of the Congo [Congo] .....	24	..	180	..	37
Réunion .....	..	9	..	62	54-61

TABLE II.70 (continued)

Country or territory <sup>a</sup>	Crude death rate (per thousand of the population) <sup>b</sup>		Infant mortality rate (per thousand live births) <sup>c</sup>		Expectation of life at birth <sup>d</sup> (years)
	Around 1960	Around 1968	Around 1960	Around 1958	
<i>Africa (continued)</i>					
Rwanda .....	..	14	..	137	..
Senegal .....	17	..	93	..	37
Sierra Leone .....	..	18	148	136	..
Somalia .....	..	26	..	..	..
Southern Rhodesia <sup>e</sup> .....	..	14	122	..	50
Sudan .....	..	19	..	94	40
Swaziland .....	..	..	..	..	44
Togo .....	29	..	127	..	32-38
Tunisia .....	..	26	74	110	..
Uganda .....	..	20	..	160	..
United Arab Republic [Egypt] .....	17	14	108	119	52-54
United Republic of Tanzania .....	..	22	..	163	40-41
Upper Volta .....	35	30	182	174	32
Zambia .....	20	..	259	..	40
<i>Asia and Oceania</i>					
Bahrain .....	..	..	..	36	..
Brunei .....	6.9	6.4	51	42	..
Burma .....	35	..	200	114	31
Ceylon [Sri Lanka] .....	8.6	7.9	57	48	62
Fiji .....	..	5.2	..	25	..
French Polynesia .....	..	9	..	52	..
Gaza Strip .....	..	8	..	..	..
Guam .....	4.7	3.7	27	23	..
Hong Kong .....	6.3	5.0	34	23	67-73
India .....	23	..	139	..	40-42
Indonesia .....	21	..	125	..	47
Iran .....	24	..	..	..	..
Iraq .....	..	14	..	..	..
Israel .....	5.7	6.8	31	23	70-73
Jordan .....	..	16	36	28	52
Khmer Republic .....	20	..	127	..	43
Kuwait .....	..	6.2	..	36	..
Laos .....	23	..	..	..	52
Macau .....	..	..	45	..	..
Malaysia (West) .....	9.5	7.5	69	45	63-66
Maldives .....	..	23	..	..	..
Mongolia .....	10	9.7	..	..	64
Nepal .....	21	..	..	..	33
Pakistan .....	..	18	142	..	49-54
People's Democratic Republic of Yemen [Democratic Yemen] .....	9.6	8.1	120	80	..
Philippines .....	7.8	6.9	99	72	49-53
Republic of Korea .....	16	..	45	..	51-54
Republic of Viet-Nam .....	18	..	43	..	..
Saudi Arabia .....	..	..	..	..	35
Sikkim .....	..	16	..	208	..
Singapore .....	6.3	5.1	35	21	62
Syrian Arab Republic .....	..	..	..	..	40
Thailand .....	8.4	13	51	28	54-59
Western Samoa .....	..	..	..	26	..
Yemen .....	..	..	..	..	35

Source: *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.7f.II.C.1), pp. 191-193.

<sup>a</sup> Countries and territories with a 1968 population of over 100 000 for which data were available.

<sup>b</sup> The number of all deaths per 1 000 of the population. Where a decimal is cited, the figures are based on registration; otherwise, they are official or unofficial estimates.

<sup>c</sup> The number of deaths within one year of birth per 1 000 live births; in most developing countries, the figures are largely estimates.

<sup>d</sup> Estimates based on mortality experience in various segments of the 1960s.

<sup>e</sup> Estimate for the African population. In this Territory, as in South Africa, the health and general standards of living for whites and non-whites are far from equal.

hand, in Colombia, El Salvador, Guatemala, Panama, Peru, Venezuela, the Central African Republic and Thailand, the death rate increased during this period. In general, however, the average death rate in most of the Asian and Latin American countries was lower than in

Africa. In 1968, Haiti's death rate of 22 per 1 000 persons was the highest in Latin America. In Asia, the highest death rate was reported in the Maldives, which had a rate of 23 per 1 000. In Africa, however, many countries registered a death rate exceeding that figure: Madagascar



25 per 1 000; Burundi, Cameroon and Somalia 26 per 1 000; Mauritania 28 per 1 000; the Central African Republic and Upper Volta 30 per 1 000 and Chad 31 per 1 000.

193. The infant mortality rates in the less developed countries during the same period showed a considerable improvement, which would indicate greater attention to mother and child care in these countries. None the less, their prevailing rates are still too high as compared with those of more developed countries.

194. Among the less developed countries having the lowest infant mortality rates, one can mention Singapore, with 21 per 1 000 live births; Hong Kong and Guam with 23 per 1 000 and 25 other countries with below 50 per 1 000 (see tables II.39 and II.70). As a type, these are generally countries and territories with small populations and health and medical facilities sufficient to provide fairly full coverage. At the other extreme, there were Zambia with 259, Gabon with 229, Guinea with 216 and Sikkim with 208 infant deaths per 1 000 live births, representing the type of small country and territory having the least developed social services.

195. The expectancy of life at birth, which is a parameter resulting from the other two parameters, is shown in table II.38 and in the last column of table II.70. As may be seen, there are very few among the less developed countries where the life expectancy rate is between 60 and 70 years; even fewer are those enjoying a life expectancy rate higher than 70 years.

196. The above-mentioned parameters reflect the general health situations in the various less developed countries and represent, in themselves, a composite of many factors, such as the availability or lack of food and proper nutrition, clean water, adequate housing, favourable working conditions and ample medical care and health services. Some of these factors have already been examined. In the following paragraphs, the status of medical care services and facilities in these countries will be reviewed.

197. Table II.71 provides a global view of the development of medical care services during the period 1960-1967 in different regions of the world, columns 3 and 7 of which show the large numbers of population per physician and per hospital bed in Africa, South-East Asia and the eastern Mediterranean as compared to Europe and the Americas. At the same time, the over-all figures for the Americas should be explained. According to a WHO report, in 1964 the Latin American share of the total number of physicians, dentists, nurses and hospital beds existing in the American continent was 29, 31, 10.3 and 29 per cent, respectively.<sup>90</sup> If these percentages are applied to the figures in table II.71, the ratios of the numbers of population to physician and hospital bed were, respectively, 1 890 and 310 for Latin America and 686 and 111 for North America.

<sup>90</sup> Pan American Sanitary Bureau, *Health Conditions in the Americas, 1965-1968*, Scientific publication No. 207 (Washington, D.C., 1970), pp. 148 and 168-172.

TABLE II.71  
Number of physicians, dentists, nurses and hospital beds by WHO region,  
1960, 1964 and 1967

Year and region (1)	Physicians (2)	Population per physician (3)	Dentists (4)	Nurses (5)	Hospital beds (6)	Population per bed (7)
<b>1960</b>						
Africa.....	16 000	11 850	1 900	61 000	359 000	530
The Americas.....	384 000	1 070	142 000	752 000	2 507 000	160
South-East Asia.....	94 000	6 290	6 000	68 000	377 000	1 570
Europe.....	899 000	750	157 000	1 358 000	5 368 000	130
Eastern Mediterranean..	38 000	6 060	4 500	22 000	194 000	1 190
Western Pacific.....	151 000	1 380	49 000	296 000	1 156 000	180
	1 582 000	1 450	360 400	2 557 000	9 961 000	230
<b>1964</b>						
Africa.....	20 000	10 400	2 000	78 000	380 000	550
The Americas.....	434 000	1 030	150 000	981 000	2 670 000	170
South-East Asia.....	107 000	6 080	6 400	72 000	433 000	1 500
Europe.....	1 041 000	680	185 000	1 580 000	6 000 000	120
Eastern Mediterranean..	49 000	5 190	5 400	27 000	235 000	1 080
Western Pacific.....	166 000	1 360	53 000	351 000	1 376 000	160
	1 817 000	1 370	401 800	3 089 000	11 094 000	220
<b>1967</b>						
Africa.....	23 000	9 700	2 100	86 000	410 000	540
The Americas.....	485 000	990	159 000	1 192 000	2 722 000	180
South-East Asia.....	118 000	5 960	6 900	87 000	464 000	1 520
Europe.....	1 141 000	640	201 000	1 824 000	6 376 000	110
Eastern Mediterranean..	58 000	4 730	6 300	32 000	244 000	1 120
Western Pacific.....	177 000	1 350	55 000	397 000	1 572 000	150
	2 002 000	1 320	430 300	3 618 000	11 788 000	220

Source: WHO, *Official Records of WHO, No. 192: Fourth Report on the World Health Situation, 1965-1968* (Geneva, June 1971), p. 36.

198. Another disturbing phenomenon that bears mention here was noted by the Special Rapporteur throughout his travels and discussions with the national and international officials concerned, namely, that in nearly all less developed countries about 70 to 90 per cent, and in some cases even more, of the doctors, nurses and auxiliary medical personnel served in the urban areas, principally in the large cities. At best, this situation leaves the medical care of from 60 to 80 per cent of the population of these countries in the hands of no more than 10 to 30 per cent of the total medical personnel. It becomes obvious, then, that not only is the gap between the less developed and more developed countries widening but so is that between the rural and the urban sectors.

199. It is of interest also that, as table II.71 partly indicates, the ratio of nurses to doctors in the less developed countries is, on the whole, the reverse of what, in fact, it should be. In general, there are more doctors in most populous countries than there are nurses and auxiliary medical personnel. Thus, much of a doctor's time and professional training is wasted, inasmuch as he must often perform duties otherwise usually carried out by nurses and auxiliary medical personnel. In many of the countries he visited, the Special Rapporteur observed that there was great concern about the problem, though, in fact, little was being done to change the situation.

200. In spite of the fact that nearly 70 per cent of the total world population in 1967 lived in the less developed regions, those regions had only 25 per cent of the physicians, 28 per cent of the dentists, 20 per cent of the nurses and approximately 30 per cent of the hospital beds existing in the world. One important phenomenon of the last decade was the increasing migration of trained health and medical personnel from the less developed to the more developed world. In view of fast-growing medical technology and the increasing attractions of the market in the more developed countries, it appears that this trend will continue in future, to the disadvantage of the less developed countries. Aside from the heavy costs borne by these countries in training their health personnel, the fact that they continue to lose their best doctors and nurses is indeed a national as well as an international tragedy.

201. In order to illustrate the status of medical service in individual less developed countries, table II.72 gives the number of physicians and nurses per 10 000 of population during the period 1965-1968. For the sake of comparison and measurement of the deficiencies in these countries, corresponding figures for the United States of America are also shown. cursory examination of the data reveals one of the reasons why, in the majority of the less developed countries, it is impossible, under the present conditions and policies, to ensure adequate medical services and attention for all persons. It also explains in part the high death and infant mortality rates in Africa, Asia and Latin America.

## H. Social security

202. Social security programmes, at best, may embrace all the possible contingencies that may arise in the event of a worker's temporary or permanent loss of earnings because of illness, injury, unemployment, old age and death, and also make provision for regular medical care and family allowances.<sup>91</sup>

<sup>91</sup> *Survey of Economic Conditions in Africa, 1971: part I* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.I.K.7), p. 54.

203. During the 1960s, an increasing number of the less developed countries embarked on nation-wide social security for coverage in respect of one or more of the above-mentioned contingencies, and by 1969 at least some type of social security programme was being implemented in 123 countries. Among 92 countries that had old-age, invalid and survivor benefits programmes in 1967, 3 were in the Middle East, 19 in Central and South America, 9 in Asia and 23 in Africa.<sup>92</sup> Most social security schemes adopted by the less developed countries relate to pension insurance and medical care. The scarcity of resources is the main factor that necessitates a limited selection of social security schemes. Besides, the fact that the private sector usually has a larger share in the total productive activities of the less developed countries makes the implementation of social security schemes subject to the whims, wishes and financial capacity of that sector, which is generally more concerned about profits than the provision of social security.

204. In Africa, the shortage of resources, the total lack of sectoral planning units for social security within (or even closely associated with) the national planning commissions and the inadequacy of accounting systems have been the main problems of social security programmes. In most cases, social insurance and public assistance measures are, in form and coverage, the legacy of the colonial era, particularly in the French-speaking countries. Thus, the schemes are all still structured on the pattern of their former metropolitan systems. These schemes were intended and are still being administered to benefit largely, and in most cases exclusively, the industrial wage earners. Countries previously under French rule, for example, usually have a more comprehensive programme of social security than countries previously under British rule. In others, it was the desire on the part of foreign employers to develop the best and most stable labour force available that led to the creation of certain elements of the social insurance system. In several countries, particularly South Africa, Namibia, Southern Rhodesia, Guinea-Bissau, Angola and Mozambique, social security laws discriminate outright between European and African workers.

205. In general, the existence of wage earners' organizations and trade unions, the relatively stable income of this category of workers and the possibility of securing more readily their employers' financial participation in social insurance schemes have tended to make it comparatively easy for Governments to apply and extend various forms of protective measures to them. Also, the fact of their concentration in larger towns and cities readily enables these workers to benefit from all the medical and other social service facilities organized by both the State and the insurance agencies. This situation has resulted in the almost total exclusion of the small commercial entrepreneurs, farmers, rural artisans and tradespeople, and their families, who constitute the overwhelming majority of the population of the African countries.<sup>93</sup>

206. Table II.73 provides some information regarding social security schemes in selected African countries. according to this table, most of the countries shown have insurance schemes for old age, invalidity, death, sickness, injury at work and family allowances, with different rates of coverage.

<sup>92</sup> *1970 Report on the World Social Situation . . .*, p. 211.

<sup>93</sup> *Survey of Economic Conditions in Africa, 1971: part I . . .*, pp. 54-57.

TABLE II.72

## Ratio of physicians and nurses per 10 000 population, 1965-1968

	Year	Physicians per 10 000 of population	Nurses per 10 000 of population		Year	Physicians per 10 000 of population	Nurses per 10 000 of population
<b>Africa</b>				Burma	1965	1.0	0.9
Algeria	1968	1.2	..	Cyprus	1968	7.9	20.1
Angola	1968	0.9	3.7	Democratic Yemen	1968	0.2	..
Botswana	1968	0.4	3.4	Hong Kong	1968	4.8	11.4
Burundi	1968	0.2	1.5	India	1966	2.1	1.2
Cape Verde Islands	1968	0.9	1.7	Indonesia	1968	0.4	1.2
Central African Republic	1968	0.3	4.1	Iran	1968	2.7	2.3
Chad	1967	0.1	0.8	Iraq	1968	1.8	1.5
Comoro Islands	1967	0.6	4.4	Israel	1968	23.8	31.0
Congo	1967	1.2	15.5	Jordan	1968	2.9	5.7
Dahomey	1965	0.3	3.9	Kuwait	1968	11.8	18.0
Egypt	1968	4.8	2.6	Khmer Republic	1968	0.5	3.2
Equatorial Guinea	1968	0.3	..	Laos	1968	0.3	1.9
Ethiopia	1967	0.2	0.4	Lebanon	1968	6.8	7.9
French Territories of the Afars and the Issas	1967	4.8	19.8	Macau	1968	6.5	6.8
Gabon	1968	2.1	16.7	Malaysia (West)	1968	2.2	8.2
Gambia	1966	0.5	7.1	Maldives	1968	0.2	2.1
Ghana	1968	0.6	6.6	Mongolia	1968	14.9	31.0
Guinea	1967	0.2	2.6	Nepal	1968	0.2	0.1
Guinea-Bissau	1968	0.6	2.2	Oman	1968	0.4	0.3
Ivory Coast	1966	0.6	4.1	Pakistan	1968	1.6	0.6
Kenya	1968	1.1	6.2	Philippines	1968	7.2	8.1
Lesotho	1968	0.5	3.2	Portuguese Timor	1968	0.4	2.0
Liberia	1968	0.9	..	Qatar	1968	6.8	23.1
Libyan Arab Republic	1968	3.2	8.1	Republic of Korea	1968	4.2	3.9
Madagascar	1968	1.0	3.1	Republic of Viet-Nam	1968	0.9	1.9
Malawi	1967	0.2	0.8	Ryukyu Islands	1968	4.6	9.9
Mali	1968	0.2	2.6	Saudi Arabia	1968	0.9	2.6
Mauritania	1964	0.3	1.5	Singapore	1968	6.2	23.3
Mauritius	1968	2.1	9.6	Sri Lanka	1968	2.7	3.7
Morocco	1968	0.8	2.8	Syrian Arab Republic	1968	2.5	1.3
Mozambique	1968	0.7	2.3	Thailand	1968	1.2	2.7
Niger	1968	0.2	1.6	Turkey	1968	3.7	4.2
Nigeria	1968	0.3	2.0	<b>Americas</b>			
Réunion	1968	3.9	26.7	Barbados	1968	4.8	..
Rwanda	1968	0.2	0.6	Bolivia	1968	3.7	2.5
St. Helena	1967	6.0	16.0	Brazil	1968	..	3.2
Senegal	1967	0.7	3.5	Chile	1968	5.5	2.5
Seychelles	1967	2.4	..	Colombia	1967	4.5	3.7
Sierra Leone	1965	0.6	1.1	Costa Rica	1968	5.4	9.5
Somalia	1967	0.3	3.2	Cuba	1968	8.7	14.9
South Africa <sup>a</sup>	1967	6.7	22.2	Dominican Republic	1968	5.0	4.3
Southern Rhodesia <sup>a</sup>	1968	1.9	8.5	Ecuador	1967	3.6	..
Spanish Sahara	1968	10.0	10.3	El Salvador	1968	2.1	7.4
Sudan	1968	0.5	3.8	Guadeloupe	1967	5.3	12.0
Swaziland	1968	1.3	6.2	Guatemala	1968	2.5	1.5
Togo	1968	0.4	3.2	Haiti	1968	0.7	0.9
Tunisia	1968	1.3	12.9	Honduras	1968	2.7	7.0
Uganda	1968	1.2	0.2	Jamaica	1967	6.7	31.1
United Republic of Cameroon	1968	0.4	4.5	Martinique	1968	6.3	13.7
United Republic of Tanzania				Mexico	1968	4.5	1.9
Tanganyika	1968	0.4	3.4	Nicaragua	1968	5.1	2.1
Zanzibar	1967	1.2	6.1	Panama	1968	13.9	7.2
Upper Volta	1968	0.1	2.2	Paraguay	1968	6.2	3.1
Zaire	1968	0.3	3.9	Peru	1968	5.1	3.1
Zambia	1968	0.3	1.5	Puerto Rico	1968	9.9	39.6
				Surinam	1968	4.4	10.1
<b>Asia</b>				Trinidad and Tobago	1968	4.3	2.3
Afghanistan	1968	0.5	0.3	United States of America	1968	15.3	49.2
Bahrain	1968	5.7	18.0	Uruguay	1967	9.6	2.7
Brunei	1968	3.6	19.1	Venezuela	1968	8.9	18.8

Source: World Health Organization, *Official Records of WHO, No. 192: Fourth Report on the World Health Situation, 1965-1968* (Geneva, June 1971).

<sup>a</sup> Because of the prevailing government policy and practice of *apartheid*, the health and general living standards for whites and non-whites in this country are far from equal.

TABLE II.73  
Social security in selected African countries

Country	Schemes for benefit available				
	Old age, invalidity, death	Sickness and maternity	Injury at work	Unemployment	Family allowances
Algeria .....	x	x	x	—	x
Botswana.....	1	1	x	—	—
Burundi.....	x	—	x	—	—
Central African Republic.....	x	x	x	—	x
Chad .....	1	x	x	—	x
Congo .....	x	x	x	—	x
Dahomey.....	1	x	x	—	x
Egypt.....	x	x	x	x	—
Ethiopia.....	1	1	x	—	—
Gabon .....	x	x	x	—	x
Gambia .....	1	1	x	—	—
Ghana .....	x	x	x	—	—
Guinea .....	x	x	x	—	x
Ivory Coast.....	x	x	x	—	x
Kenya .....	x	1	x	—	—
Liberia.....	x	—	x	—	—
Libyan Arab Republic.....	x	x	x	—	—
Madagascar .....	1	x	x	—	x
Malawi .....	1	1	x	—	—
Mali.....	x	x	x	—	x
Mauritania .....	x	x	x	—	x
Mauritius .....	x	1	x	x	x
Morocco .....	x	x	x	—	x
Niger .....	x	x	x	—	x
Nigeria.....	x	x	x	—	—
Rwanda.....	x	1	x	—	—
Senegal .....	1	x	x	—	x
Sierra Leone .....	1	—	x	—	—
Somalia .....	1	1	x	—	—
Sudan.....	1	1	x	—	—
Togo .....	1	x	x	—	x
Tunisia.....	1	x	x	—	x
Uganda .....	1	1	x	—	—
United Republic of Cameroon.....	1	x	x	—	x
United Republic of Tanzania.....	x	x	x	—	—
Upper Volta .....	x	x	x	—	x
Zaire .....	x	1	x	—	x
Zambia .....	x	1	x	—	—

Source: *Survey of Economic Conditions in Africa, 1971 (Part I)* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.K 7), p. 253.

NOTE. x = Services available  
1 = Limited services available  
— = Nil.

The English-speaking countries generally provide workmen's compensation in case of employment injury and, in some cases, maternity and sickness benefits, mostly based on the principle of employers' liability, while some countries have in recent years introduced national provident funds. Except in a few countries, including Algeria and the United Arab Republic, rural workers—other than wage-earners engaged in certain plantations and in other large agricultural undertakings—do not enjoy the benefits of modern social security. In the wake of economic development, the indigenous forms of protection provided by traditional structures, rural institutions or social relations in Africa tend to disappear fast, exposing the workers to new risks.<sup>94</sup>

207. In Asia, too, much of the progress in social security programmes depends on the capacity and willingness of private employers, who provide the largest share of employment. The large number of very small business establishments and the lack of effective wage and

price policies, together with low productivity, have slowed down the progress towards comprehensive and co-ordinated social security policies. Thus, in most cases, large categories of workers, among them construction workers, domestic servants, casual workers, self-employed workers, workers in small and medium-sized establishments and rural labourers do not enjoy social security benefits.

208. In some countries, in spite of theoretical coverage and regular contribution, workers fail to receive protection, owing to administrative inefficiency or shortage of proper facilities and services. The tendency to concentrate such facilities in well-developed urban centres has been a major obstacle to the extension of the services to areas where most of the working population lives. In other words, the geographical distribution of facilities and medical manpower does not conform to that of the labour force.

<sup>94</sup> 1970 *Report on the World Social Situation* . . . , pp. 213 and 214.



209. In other countries, efforts have been intensified to introduce new schemes or to improve upon existing schemes:

In Iran, legislative enactments were made in 1969 to launch a pilot social security scheme for the rural population. The scheme will provide medical care in selected villages through the improvement of the existing medical-social services and also provide cash benefits in case of invalidity or death. On the basis of experience gained in the pilot projects, the programme is expected to be extended to other areas.

In Pakistan, a social security scheme was introduced in 1967, initially restricted to workers employed in textile industries located in three industrial centres in West Pakistan. Besides medical care, the scheme provides cash benefits to insured workers in case of sickness, maternity and employment injury. The scheme was extended, by the end of 1967, to three more industrial centres in West Pakistan and it is expected that in due course it will be extended to other areas and industries. In Iraq, a social security scheme providing old-age pensions and cash sickness benefits came into operation in 1966. This scheme replaced that of the former National Provident Fund. A compulsory social insurance scheme was adopted by the legislature of Malaysia in 1969 to protect the wage-earning population in the event of invalidity or employment injury . . . The Republic of Korea in 1969 initiated steps for planning the introduction of sickness insurance with the help of a joint ILO/WHO mission.

In India, a Committee appointed by the Government to review the working of the Employees' State Insurance (ESI) Scheme, submitted a report in 1966, suggesting a number of measures for the reform and extension of the scheme. Similarly, in Hong Kong, an interdepartmental Working Party, set up to examine the possibility of introducing an effective social security system, submitted its report in 1967.<sup>95</sup>

210. In Latin America, the most important problem concerning social security is inadequate coverage. Thus, except for a few countries, among them Chile, Uruguay and Argentina, it has not been possible to expand social security coverage much beyond the categories of urban workers and employees. As the *1970 Report on the World Social Situation* states:

In the case of a large number of countries in Latin America, the existing schemes of social security afford protection to less than 20 per cent of the economically active population. The rural population has, in many cases, remained outside the purview of social security schemes. Besides inadequate financial resources, the obstacles in the way of extending social security to rural areas are: a lack of infrastructure in terms of roads, communications and allied facilities, a shortage of medical personnel, low wages and low earning capacity among rural workers, and administrative difficulties involved in covering agricultural workers and artisans.<sup>96</sup>

In addition, the financial disequilibrium of programmes arising from large-scale evasion or postponement in the payment of social security contributions by employers and, in some cases, by Governments constitutes another bottle-neck in the effective implementation of social security policies in the Latin American countries.<sup>97</sup>

211. Available information regarding trends in the scope of social security protection in various countries of the less developed world indicates that whereas the more developed countries, during the 1960s, allocated something between 7.3 and 16.6 per cent of their GNP to their social security programmes, the allocations for the less developed countries did not exceed 3.6 per cent, which

was the record among these countries achieved by Sri Lanka in 1966.<sup>98</sup>

## I. Youth

212. Under the conditions of inegalitarian and rigid social and economic stratification, chronically slack demand for labour, inadequate technical education and professional training and lack of democratic youth institutions that prevail in most of the less developed countries, it is their youth, the social stratum with the highest level of expectation, that is hardest hit. According to available data on the age structure of these countries, a large proportion of the population falls within the 14-25 age group. This is the age most susceptible to change, eager to participate, to achieve and to challenge the traditional ways of life and, at the same time, most vulnerable to delinquency. This is why the youth of a country can be either mobilized as an important element of socio-economic change or left aside to develop into a source of social disturbance. The youth movements in many less developed countries have generally been associated, like those in many other countries, with insistence on changes in some of society's traditional values, with the advocacy of economic and social justice and with demands for more participation in the economic, social, cultural and political life. In most cases, the articulate young people in these countries tend to be reformist and progressive. Often the youth movements seek basic reforms not merely in appearance and on paper but in fact and in practice. They seek reforms in the power structure of their societies, characterized in many cases by corruption and inefficiency, which, in their judgement, are the main sources of injustice and the main obstacles to economic and social growth.

213. Juvenile delinquency and youthful crimes are less characteristic of the less developed countries than of the more developed world; even so, in some developing countries there has been a marked increase in law-breaking among the young. According to the *1970 Report on the World Social Situation*:

In Hong Kong, about half the persons convicted of serious and of violent crimes are under the age of 25. In Zambia, the number of persons aged 12-16 convicted rose from 300 around 1952 to 1 100 in 1962 . . . In Malaysia, juvenile delinquency, previously unknown, has increased since the war to reach about 2 000 convictions a year (about 2.5 per 1 000 boys aged 7-16) . . . In the Republic of Korea, the number of offenders under 20 years of age arrested by the police rose from 25 000 in 1959 to 125 000 in 1964.

On the other hand, there are other countries in which young offenders are responsible for only a small fraction of all law-breaking offences. For example, in Malaysia only 17 out of every 1 000 persons convicted are below 18. In India, one cognizable case in 40 is that of a juvenile. In the Philippines, only 40-70 per 1 000 arrested are below 16 years of age.<sup>99</sup>

214. In view of all the different aspects of the youth problem, proper programming for youth has been receiving increasing attention throughout the world, especially in the less developed areas. On the one hand, programmes are designed to attack problems of illiteracy, early school leaving and unemployment; on the other, there is an increasing emphasis on the mobilization of youth as a key element in the process of social and economic development. One important way to mobilize

<sup>95</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 217.

<sup>96</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 215.

<sup>97</sup> This may, in fact, be the case in most of the less developed countries.

<sup>98</sup> *1970 Report on the World Social Situation* . . . , pp. 212-214.

<sup>99</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 224.



young people is to provide them with proper schooling, vocational training and opportunity to contribute to development activities in both rural and urban areas.

Increasingly, students are becoming involved in social and economic development. Service groups have been formed at colleges and universities, for example in Thailand, and national volunteer schemes have been organized in ... Indonesia, Iran, Jamaica ... to spearhead campaigns in literacy, health, education, community development and pollution control, child welfare ... and work with the aged.<sup>100</sup>

In Iran, the selection and training of young military conscripts to form education corps, health corps and community development and agricultural extension corps have been incorporated in the law and in practice since 1962. This method has been recognized as the cheapest and most efficient approach to social develop-

ment and welfare in the rural areas and, at the same time, one of the best methods of mobilizing boys and girls to make a meaningful contribution towards the creation of the necessary conditions for *de facto* realization of economic and social justice.

215. African Governments have also tried to deal with the youth problem in a variety of ways, including the provision of special facilities for young people in the urban centres and the organization of programmes to induce rural youth to remain in the countryside.

A recent survey of African development plans shows that 18 out of 50 plans specifically list youth programmes of various kinds under the general heading of "social welfare" or some equivalent title. The more ambitious programmes for youth are sometimes listed under a separate heading. Examples of these programmes include:

(a) Rural training for young boys and girls (including practical work in the fields, community affairs, health and nutrition);

<sup>100</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 227.

TABLE II.74  
Percentage distribution of government expenditure by functional classification  
for selected countries and territories in Asia

Country or territory	Year	Social services					
		Total	Education	Health	Social security and special welfare services	Other social services	Other government services
Whole government expenditure							
Hong Kong .....	1956	31.6	14.0	8.3	1.0	8.3	68.4
	1961	37.8	15.7	10.4	1.1	10.6	62.2
	1966	37.7	15.1	9.1	1.0	12.5	62.3
India .....	1954	17.7	7.9	4.0	4.9	0.9	82.3
	1955	..	8.3	3.9	..	..	..
	1960	..	9.3	4.55	..	..	..
	1965	..	8.7	3.8	..	..	..
Malaysia (West).....	1960	17.3	10.1	4.5	1.5	1.2	82.7
	1965	20.8	13.4	5.0	0.4	2.0	79.2
Republic of Korea.....	1957	2.1	0.4	0.9	0.7	0.1	97.9
	1961	20.8	14.1	1.2	3.6	1.9	79.2
	1966	36.7	27.9	2.1	4.3	2.4	63.3
Singapore .....	1956	37.4	18.3	11.9	3.9	3.3	62.6
	1961	30.9	14.8	10.1	2.7	3.3	69.1
	1966	35.6	19.1	9.8	1.7	5.0	64.4
Pakistan .....	1956	9.6	6.4	..	0.1	3.1	..
	1961	7.8	5.2	..	0.2	2.4	..
	1966	9.6	5.7	..	0.2	3.7	..
Central government expenditure							
Afghanistan .....	1961	17.1	9.9	3.7	—	3.5	82.9
	1966	19.5	12.9	2.8	—	3.8	80.5
Ceylon [Sri Lanka] .....	1956	35.4	14.3	9.4	— 11.7 —	—	64.6
	1961	38.8	15.1	7.8	— 15.9 —	—	61.2
	1966	37.9	15.1	7.1	— 15.7 —	—	62.1
India .....	1966	6.5	1.9	1.3	— 3.3 —	—	93.5
Japan .....	1956	32.6	9.3	7.3	15.3	0.7	67.4
	1961	36.8	10.0	9.9	16.2	0.7	63.2
	1966	41.0	10.9	13.7	15.3	1.1	59.0
Malaysia (West):.....	1960	17.7	10.8	4.8	1.4	0.7	82.3
	1965	21.2	15.1	5.5	0.4	0.2	78.8
Philippines .....	1956	31.7	23.9	6.1	— 1.7 —	—	68.3
	1961	36.9	26.7	7.5	— 2.7 —	—	63.1
	1966	39.2	32.0	5.8	— 1.4 —	—	60.8
Republic of Korea.....	1957	1.1	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.1	98.9
	1961	20.3	13.4	1.0	4.3	1.6	79.7
	1966	26.1	17.9	1.5	5.6	1.1	73.9
Thailand.....	1959	26.4	19.5	2.9	3.2	0.8	73.6
	1961	24.7	16.6	2.7	4.0	1.4	75.3
	1966	27.3	16.5	3.6	3.8	3.4	72.7

Source: 1970 Report on the World Social Situation (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.IV.13), p. 18.

(b) Special programmes for young people dropping out of school in urban or rural areas, so as to provide them with vocational guidance and training;

(c) Youth organizations in urban areas, aimed at encouraging youth participation in community activities and providing positive guidance and supplementary training, as well as creating a wholesome recreational and cultural milieu;

(d) School social services aimed at the reduction of drop-out and the co-operation of the parents in the educational process;

(e) Youth corps for mobilizing unemployed youths and using them for development projects (for example, irrigation, roads, tree planting, land clearing etc.) while training them for future work and citizenship.<sup>101</sup>

216. On the whole, solutions to the problems of youth cannot be achieved by means of a universal formula. Particular programmes are needed for particular countries, particular areas and particular age groups. The main objectives of all programmes, however, should be to train young people, to give them greater responsibility in the social and economic development of the country and to let them participate on a larger scale in social, cultural and political activities and in the process of decision making related to their own affairs.

## J. Social welfare

217. Social welfare programmes at their best include the following:

(a) Rehabilitation of the mentally or physically handicapped, including the blind, the lame, the deaf and the mentally retarded;

<sup>101</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 61 and 62.

(b) Support of the aged and children having no breadwinner;

(c) Support of families with many children;

(d) Social assistance to single mothers;

(e) Provision of holiday resorts and free travel for workers;

(f) Rent allowance for workers;

(g) Subsistence allowance for workers when training outside the home district;

(h) Child care centres to assist working mothers;

(i) Protection of the working environment and promotion of environmental health.

218. In practice, the scope of these services has been very limited in the less developed countries, primarily because financial resources and trained welfare personnel are inadequate. The International Conference of Ministers Responsible for Social Welfare, held at United Nations Headquarters in 1968, provided an excellent medium for assessing many of the trends in social welfare programmes around the world.<sup>102</sup> Until recently, the pattern of social welfare services in the less developed countries, influenced by the practice of some industrialized countries, emphasized the rehabilitation of vulnerable individuals and groups and the alleviation of the sufferings of those who have been left behind in the process of development.<sup>103</sup> The International Conference of Ministers, however, paying attention to the basic problems of the less developed

<sup>102</sup> See *Proceedings of the International Conference of Ministers Responsible for Social Welfare* (United Nations publication, Sales No. 69.IV.4).

<sup>103</sup> *1970 Report on the World Social Situation . . .*, p. 226.

TABLE II.75

Percentage distribution of government expenditure by functional classification for selected countries in Africa

Country	Year	Total for general public services and defence	Total for social and community services	Total for economic services
Botswana . . . . .	1969	27.7	28.6	39.3
	1970	27.2	21.9	44.5
Ethiopia . . . . .	1969	39.3	20.8	19.1
	1970	37.0	23.5	20.9
Gambia . . . . .	1969	24.0	26.0	49.0
	1970	26.9	25.0	46.3
Ghana . . . . .	1969	31.2	35.3	15.7
Kenya . . . . .	1969	26.5	25.8	32.8
	1970	25.6	29.9	30.8
Libyan Arab Republic . . . . .	1969	19.7	32.5	30.2
	1970	20.8	34.5	26.4
Malawi . . . . .	1969	27.1	27.8	32.9
	1971	21.7	24.4	45.2
Mauritius . . . . .	1969	10.5	48.5	17.0
	1970	11.3	44.5	21.1
Morocco . . . . .	1969	27.9	26.3	35.7
Sierra Leone . . . . .	1969	21.2	27.0	32.0
Somalia . . . . .	1970	51.8	14.5	33.2
Sudan . . . . .	1969	49.8	21.9	15.3
	1970	45.9	17.7	14.1
Swaziland . . . . .	1971	31.3	30.6	29.6
Uganda . . . . .	1969	25.1	37.9	27.6
	1970	27.5	36.2	25.7
United Republic of Tanzania . . . . .	1969	25.0	25.7	39.4
	1970	12.0	23.7	36.5
Zambia . . . . .	1969	21.4	28.6	37.7

Source: *Survey of Economic Conditions in Africa, 1971 (Part I)* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.K.7), pp. 330 and 331.

countries, favoured the more dynamic approach of linking welfare practices to the development process. It noted that social welfare was inseparable from society's total effort to attain the objectives of higher standards of living, social justice and freedom. Though recognizing the need for remedial measures, it stressed that the developmental and preventive functions of social welfare should be given high priority. The promotion of employment opportunity, the adoption of proper wage and income policies, the stimulation of self-help projects and the strengthening of traditional institutions for voluntary service are some of the important preventive measures.

219. In practice, the status of social welfare is determined by the total efforts a country puts into social services as a whole, i.e., education, health, social security, employment services etc. Tables II.74 and II.75 give the percentage distribution of government expenditures by functional classification in Asia and Africa. According to these tables, most of the less developed countries in Asia have been allocating increasingly larger shares of public

revenue to social services. In the Republic of Korea, there appears to have been a jump in this kind of expenditure from 2.1 to 36.7 per cent between 1957 and 1966. The lowest budgetary expenditures for social services during the years shown belong, on the basis of these data, to India and Pakistan, which in 1966 allocated 6.5 and 9.6 per cent, respectively. In Africa, Ghana, Libya, Mauritius, Swaziland and Uganda have been allocating the largest shares to social services, ranging from 30.6 to 44.5 per cent of total public expenditure; Somalia and the Sudan, on the other hand, have allocated less than 20 per cent. In view of the lack of sufficient data for all countries over a good number of years, it is difficult to make a meaningful correlation between the level of the public expenditure on social services in the past and the extent of the realization of human rights in this respect at present. However, it can certainly be foreseen that countries which continue to allocate between 30 and 40 per cent of public resources to social services will attain, in 10 years at the latest, a high level with respect to the realization of human rights, in terms of social parameters.

## Chapter IV

### CULTURAL CONDITIONS

220. As indicated in chapter I of this part of the present study, there is a decided relationship between the general cultural characteristics and the regional location of the less developed countries. In that chapter, the division of these countries into four distinct culture regions was proposed. Below, each of these four regions and the distinct cultural conditions that characterize them will be discussed separately, including the various subcultures that further differentiate them. Before this is done, however, it is important to consider briefly certain broad cultural characteristics common to all less developed countries.

#### A. Some common characteristics

##### 1. THE "SOFT STATE": A PERVASIVE FEATURE

221. All the less developed countries suffer from a condition imposed by what is termed by Gunnar Myrdal the "soft State", the main defect of which

is understood to comprise all the various types of social indiscipline which manifest themselves by deficiencies in legislation, and in particular law observance and enforcement, a widespread disobedience by public officials at various levels to rules and directives handed down to them, and often their collusion with powerful persons and groups of persons whose conduct they should regulate. Within the concept of the "soft State" belongs also corruption . . . These several patterns of behaviour are interrelated in the sense that they permit or even provoke each other by a circular causation having cumulative effects.<sup>104</sup>

Myrdal concludes that these deficiencies act to impede policy-making and policy implementation and to weaken and distort efforts to plan for development. His use of the term is thus diagnostic; it suggests that the hard outer shell of the state apparatus (its juridical independence, its formal constitution, its laws and administrative organization) often conceals actual conditions constituting a core of weakness that can be penetrated by illegal or extra-legal means.<sup>105</sup> The absence of a well-integrated population and a strong sense of national identity and interest, together with the prevailing social and economic conditions, provides the backdrop for practices which diverge sharply from pronounced laws and norms. Our own analysis of the causes and consequences of this state of affairs is as follows.

222. It has already been shown that the less developed countries are generally characterized by an extremely heterogeneous and unintegrated population (see table II.1, above). Typically, the population is a mosaic of different races, languages, tribes and religions. The situation varies

enormously from region to region and country to country, of course, but everywhere it presents much the same problem: the diversity of population creates obstacles to national integration far greater than any faced by the more developed Western European countries at the start of their industrialization process. It is at once one of the main causes of the general political instability of the less developed countries and a possible explanation of their relative economic stagnation.

223. Conditions, as we have already observed, vary from country to country. Countries that are the victims of a colonial past have distinct problems that differ greatly from those of the countries which have either enjoyed a semi-colonial status or have escaped colonization altogether. These problems certainly constitute one—and probably the most important—element in the prevailing social and economic conditions, although it is important to distinguish between the various systems of colonial rule. The English, for instance, preferred to rule indirectly and thus kept the traditional societies as intact as possible. The French, by contrast, tended to be cultural missionaries and tried to create at least a cadre of élite native leaders thoroughly indoctrinated in the French style of life. Other colonial Powers manifested similar or other styles of rule, but the consequence of foreign domination for the colonized peoples everywhere has been the same. It has destroyed their traditional forms of authority and values and left them without legitimate substitutes and viable institutions.

224. Where the anti-colonialist struggle has been protracted and widespread, it has mobilized a sufficiently large mass of the people to create a sense of national identity and national destiny. But wherever the struggle has been confined to a small élite, the post-independence period has witnessed crises of identity and continuing intra-élite power struggles that have distracted the national energies from developmental tasks. These patterns would appear to support the assumption that the cultural differences among the less developed countries correspond substantially to their regional differences.

225. In Africa south of the Sahara, there was one main type of classical colonialism. There, Europeans encountered societies that were primarily tribal in structure; but intra-European power struggles for the control of the continent led to a Balkanization of Africa that cut across the tribal lines and established boundaries bearing little relevance to the homogeneity of populations. The possibilities of a more systematic and sensible movement towards national integration were thus nipped in the bud. Furthermore, the permanent settlement of the Europeans in some areas established, on the top of the old tribal hierarchies, a new hierarchical system based on race and ethnic origins. In that new amalgam, European immigrants and the Asian *comprador* class stood above the

<sup>104</sup> G. Myrdal, *The Challenge of World Poverty: a World Anti-Poverty Program in Outline* (London, the Penguin Press, 1970), chap. 7, p. 208.

<sup>105</sup> Myrdal, however, finds some similarities in this respect between the situation in the less developed countries and the United States of America (*ibid.*, pp. 240 and 241).



African, though in some areas, particularly in the British and French colonies, a black bourgeoisie also emerged to take the helm from the colonial Power when independence came.

226. The post-independence period has thus witnessed a process of Africanization that has, on the one hand, turned against the Europeans and the Asians, and, on the other, left the masses of tribal Africa largely unintegrated into the new modern States. In many instances, it has been a period characterized by inter-State and civil wars of tribal origin, as well as by internal persecution of ethnic and tribal minorities. To this day, a general state of national insecurity and violence prevails in black Africa, and the continuing presence of European colonialism, notably in South Africa, Southern Rhodesia, Angola, Mozambique, and Guinea-Bissau only aggravates this condition.

227. In South and East Asia, a different type of classic colonialism was instituted. European colonialists entering that region encountered old and well-established urban-centred civilizations. They also encountered largely agrarian societies based on traditional systems of religious and social hierarchy. The multinational imperial systems that had preceded the European in this area, originating from China and India, had left behind cultural and bureaucratic legacies that were difficult to destroy and replace altogether. European colonialism was thus forced into systems exercising indirect rule and relying principally on its own expeditionary forces, traditional authority figures and a growing indigenous colonial bureaucracy. In many instances, the colonialists followed a policy of "divide and rule", thus exacerbating existing ethnic, linguistic, racial and religious differences and, in effect, solidifying old discriminatory practices or creating new ones in order to consolidate various social and economic advantages.

228. West Asia and North Africa, the Moslem world, gave rise to still a third type of foreign domination, ranging from direct colonization and settlement in North Africa to the Mandates System in the "Fertile Crescent", to the semi-colonial status of Egypt and, finally, to the kind of independence enjoyed by Arabia, Iran and Turkey. Where independence had to be fought for actively and by violent means (as in Tunisia and Algeria), new forms of revolutionary legitimacy emerged to take the place of the traditional authority.

229. By contrast, where countries found themselves in the twilight zone between colonization and independence, traditional hierarchical systems persisted, only somewhat more modern in guise. And where countries escaped direct colonial or semi-colonial status, the tradition of independence rendered the task of national integration a relatively simpler one.

230. The Latin American countries present yet another situation. Aside from the relatively short period of direct colonial rule, they have long enjoyed formal juridical independence, though practically, at least since the proclamation of the Monroe Doctrine in 1823, their freedom of action has fallen within the parameters set by the interests of a great neighbour. Fortunately for Latin America, however, the relative homogeneity of its population has spared it from the kinds of disintegrating effects that Africa, Asia and the Middle East suffered from. Nevertheless, the presence of large indigenous populations, as well as the internal weaknesses of the "soft State", have rendered them vulnerable to internal insecurity and violence.

## 2. THE IMPACT OF MASS COMMUNICATION

231. In all the less developed countries, traditional social structures and cultural values are being further undermined by the process of economic development. Hierarchical social structures have had to open up somewhat to provide channels of social mobility for ambitious and qualified individuals. Wherever the traditional social system fails to do this, political and social pressures begin to mount. Wherever the social system is flexible and allows for individual mobility, more fluid class and status structures based on education and achievement, as well as lineage, have begun to replace the rigid traditional hierarchies of caste or colour.

232. The mass communication media are also bringing about changes in the social structures of the less developed countries by disseminating new ideas and values on a universal scale. The increasing availability of books, newspapers and radio and television receivers in these countries in recent years is indicated in table II.76. The precise impact of these media on the less developed societies is difficult to determine at present. However, it can be argued generally that they are rapidly raising the awareness and expectations of the masses and that the "demonstration effects" of publications and television may well be another potent source of social and cultural crisis. On the other hand, the media have also served as a powerful instrument in mobilizing national sentiment in favour of common causes, such as the struggle for independence and social justice and development. With this potency in mind, it is urgent that the less developed countries formulate policies appropriate to their individual conditions so as to use these media to the maximum advantage in furthering national integration, national consolidation and national education.

## 3. NATIONAL IDENTITY AND NATIONAL SECURITY

233. On the positive side, nationalism in the less developed countries has served as a vehicle to carry on a dual struggle against foreign domination and for national integration and consolidation. On the negative side, the nationalism of a dominant group within a heterogeneous and unintegrated population has sometimes led to disregard of, or discrimination against, the fundamental rights of repressed groups. The problem facing most of these countries in this respect, therefore, is one of fomenting a national identity inclusive enough to encompass the diverse sections of their population as a whole.

234. The capacity of the less developed countries to deal with this problem varies, of course. Perhaps the most important factor in determining that capacity is the degree of cultural integration each country has reached in its own process of development. Old and well-established societies seem to have a distinct advantage; even so, they have yet to prove their ability to cope with the challenges of modernization. Modern education, egalitarian ideas and the socio-political mobilization of huge masses are putting the humanist traditions of such societies and the hierarchical social structures that usually characterize them to a severe test.

235. The national crisis of identity faced by most developing countries involves no less a task than the restructuring of their cultural and social systems, which calls for a process of "creative destruction"; much in the old order has to be destroyed in the process of building new ideas and institutions. Like all periods of cultural



TABLE II.76

## Less developed countries and territories: mass communication media

	<i>Books</i>		<i>Daily newspapers</i>		<i>Radio</i>		<i>Television</i>	
	<i>Year</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Copies per 1 000 of population</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Receivers per 1 000 of population</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Receivers per 1 000 of population</i>
<i>Africa</i>								
Algeria .....	1967	258	1968	14.0	1960	54	1960	5.0
	1968	289			1969	52	1969	7.0
Angola .....	1967	17	1967	10.0	1960	11		
	1968	8			1968	17		
Chad .....			1969	0.4	1960	2		
					1969	14		
Central African Republic .....	1967	23	1967	0.6	1960	10		
					1968	33		
Congo .....			1966	1.3	1960	13	1968	0.3
					1969	70	1969	0.6
Dahomey.....			1968	0.4	1960	13		
					1968	23		
Egypt.....	1967	1 819	1967	28.0	1960	58	1960	1.9
	1968	1 699			1968	135	1969	17.0
Ethiopia.....			1969	2.0	1960	4	1968	0.2
					1969	6	1969	0.3
Gabon .....					1960	48		
					1969	103		
Gambia .....			1960	5.0	1960	6		
					1968	179		
Ghana .....	1967	233	1969	34.0	1960	17	1967	0.6
	1968	374			1969	81	1969	1.4
	1969	446						
Ivory Coast.....	1967	50			1960	17	1968	1.6
	1969	38			1969	17	1969	2.0
Kenya .....	1967	162	1969	15.0	1960	9	1968	1.5
	1968	177			1969	48	1969	1.5
	1969	193						
Libyan Arab Republic.....	1967	86	1967	20.0	1960	62		
					1969	41		
Morocco .....			1966	14.0	1960	46	1960	0.4
					1969	59	1969	10.0
Mozambique.....	1967	149	1967	7.0	1960	6		
	1968	122			1969	12		
Nigeria.....	1967	778	1966	7.0	1960	4	1960	0.03
	1968	1 004			1969	20	1969	0.80
	1969	1 099						
Senegal .....			1969	5.0	1960	47	1969	0.3
					1969	71		
Sierra Leone .....	1967	73	1969	16.0	1960	4	1967	1.3
	1968	75			1969	56	1969	1.4
Sudan.....					1960	0.9	1968	1.0
					1968	12	1969	2.0
Tunisia.....	1967	250	1969	16.0	1960	41	1960	0.1
					1968	97	1969	7.0
Uganda .....			1965	5.0	1960	14	1968	1.1
					1968	64	1969	1.3
United Republic of Cameroon.....			1969	2.0	1960	3		
					1969	37		
United Republic of Tanzania.....	1968	18	1969	5.0	1960	2		
	1969	30			1968	11		
Zaire .....			1969	1.0	1959	2.5		
Zambia .....			1969	9.0	1962	5	1968	3.0
					1969	13	1969	5.0
<i>Asia</i>								
Afghanistan .....	1969	83	1967	7.0	1960	2		
					1967	16		
Bahrain .....					1960	82	1968	106.0
					1968	1 075	1969	111.0
Burma .....	1968	1926	1966	9.0	1960	6		
					1969	15		
Cyprus.....	1967	207	1969	92.0	1960	153	1960	3.0
	1969	341			1969	253	1969	66.0

TABLE II.76 (continued)

	<i>Books</i>		<i>Daily newspapers</i>		<i>Radio</i>		<i>Television</i>	
	<i>Year</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Copies per 1 000 of population</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Receivers per 1 000 of population</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Receivers per 1 000 of population</i>
<i>Asia (continued)</i>								
Hong Kong .....	1967	1 003	1969	485.0	1960	55	1960	2.0
	1968	399			1969	169	1969	40.0
India .....	1967	10 617	1968	13.0	1960	5		
	1968	11 413			1969	19		
	1969	13 733						
Indonesia .....					1960	7	1968	0.6
					1967	14	1969	0.6
Iran .....	1967	1 231			1960	45	1960	2.0
					1968	93	1969	9.0
Jordan .....	1967	162	1968	12.0	1960	38	1968	8.0
	1968	154					1969	12.0
	1969	224						
Khmer Republic .....					1960	6	1968	5.0
					1968	153	1969	7.0
Kuwait .....	1967	153	1968	52.0	1960	270	1960	3.0
	1968	132			1969	178	1968	185.0
Lebanon .....	1967	427			1960	61	1960	5.0
	1968	543			1969	223	1968	145.0
	1969	685						
Malaysia .....	1967	483	1969	74.0	1960	37	1968	12.0
	1969	20			1968	41	1969	12.0
Pakistan .....	1967	3 312	1968	6.0	1960	3	1968	0.3
					1968	11	1969	0.7
Philippines .....	1968	335	1966	27.0	1960	22	1960	1.0
					1968	45	1969	9.0
Qatar .....	1968	51						
Republic of Viet-Nam .....	1967	713	1968	70.0	1960	9	1969	21.0
	1968	398			1969	73		
	1969	497						
Ryukyu Islands .....			1969	271.0	1968	332	1968	188.0
					1969	342	1969	195.0
Saudi Arabia .....			1969	8.0	1959	12	1960	1.0
Singapore .....	1967	322	1969	154.0	1968	50	1968	57.0
	1968	414			1969	50	1969	65.0
	1969	533						
Sri Lanka .....	1967	1 534	1969	58.0	1960	36		
	1968	1 570			1969	41		
	1969	1 586						
Syrian Arab Republic .....	1967	361	1967	15.0	1960	57	1962	0.3
							1969	22.0
Thailand .....	1968	1 364	1969	21.0	1960	6	1960	2.0
	1969	2 457			1969	80	1969	7.0
Turkey .....	1967	5 688	1969	41.0	1960	49	1960	0.04
	1968	5 492			1969	88	1969	0.70
	1969	5 669						
<i>Central and South America</i>								
Argentina .....	1967	3 645	1966	128	1960	167	1960	21.0
					1968	381	1969	129.0
Bahamas .....			1969	142	1960	152		
					1969	641		
Barbados .....			1967	115	1960	150	1968	59.0
					1969	224	1969	59.0
Bermuda .....			1969	223	1960	442	1960	186.0
					1969	558	1969	308.0
Bolivia .....			1969	34	1961	73		
					1968	288		
Brazil .....			1968	37	1960	66	1960	18.0
					1969	61	1969	72.0
Colombia .....			1967	53	1960	139	1960	11.0
					1969	108	1969	30.0
Chile .....	1967	1 556	1968	86	1959	94	1960	0.06
	1968	1 546			1969	144	1969	42.00
	1969	1 100						

TABLE II.76 (concluded)

	<i>Books</i>		<i>Daily newspapers</i>		<i>Radio</i>		<i>Television</i>	
	<i>Year</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Copies per 1 000 of population</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Receivers per 1 000 of population</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Receivers per 1 000 of population</i>
<i>Central and South America (continued)</i>								
Costa Rica .....	1967	237	1967	60	1960	66	1960	3.0
	1968	294			1969	63	1969	59.0
	1969	284						
Cuba .....	1967	748	1961	88	1960	161	1960	74.0
	1968	955					1968	71.0
Dominican Republic .....			1969	32	1960	34	1960	6.0
					1969	38	1969	24.0
Ecuador .....			1969	42	1960	41	1960	0.5
					1969	204	1967	13.0
El Salvador .....	1967	27	1967	51	1960	89	1960	8.0
					1969	118	1969	22.0
Guadeloupe .....			1966	9	1960	24	1968	16.0
					1969	93	1969	18.0
Guatemala .....	1968	70	1967	27	1960	55	1960	8.0
	1969	50			1968	115	1969	14.0
Haiti .....	1967	18	1969	5	1960	5	1960	0.5
					1969	17	1969	2.0
Honduras .....			1967	17	1960	68	1960	1.0
					1968	58	1969	7.0
Jamaica .....	1967	78	1969	66	1960	88	1968	29.0
	1968	136			1969	230		
	1969	175						
Martinique .....					1960	47	1968	18.0
					1969	112	1969	22.0
Mexico .....	1968	2 646	1965	116	1960	95	1960	19.0
	1969	2 965			1969	265	1969	52.0
Panama .....	1969	195	1967	81	1960	159	1960	10.0
							1969	88.0
Paraguay .....			1969		1961	83	1968	6.0
							1969	7.0
Peru .....	1967	681	1959	47	1960	101	1960	3.0
	1968	783			1969	134	1969	30.0
	1969	535						
Uruguay .....	1967	341	1969	400	1960	285	1960	9.0
					1969	379	1969	77.0
Venezuela .....			1969	71	1960	186	1960	37.0
					1969	168	1968	72.0

Source: *Statistical Yearbook, 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F.71.XVII.1), pp. 783-806.

transition in history, that through which most of the less developed countries are currently moving is thus fraught with improvisation, conflict and internal insecurity.

236. The same process of transition occurred in those countries which are now more developed, but in far more favourable international conditions. The pioneers of development enjoyed a far greater measure of immunity from outside interference than do the less developed countries today. In the first place, as we have already observed, the populations of the less developed countries tend to be much less homogeneous and culturally integrated. Secondly, ill-defined or uncertain boundaries have opened the door to considerable regional conflict. Thirdly, and perhaps most importantly, the rivalries of the great Powers have often made pawns of the internal and regional warring elements to the advantage of those Powers, which conflicts with the real interests of the less developed countries.

237. The combination of these circumstances has created for the less developed countries a crisis for their national security that is closely linked to their problems of national identity and national integration. On many

occasions, it has led to the virtual break-up of a State into competing parts, as has happened, for example, in Cambodia, Korea, Laos, Pakistan and Viet-Nam. It has also necessitated the placing of undue emphasis on the acquisition of military hardware and the expansion of military bureaucracies, activities that, unfortunately, are instigated and fed by the great Powers in their rivalry for client States in the so-called third world.

#### 4. MORE ARMS, LESS SECURITY, MORE REPRESSION

238. The phenomenon of the arms race, of course, is not confined to the less developed countries but is an integral part of our present world order, which is still based on the principle of national sovereignty, even as far as resort to violence is concerned. Its consequences for the less developed countries, however, are severe; what few resources they may have are being expended on arms and the maintenance of military bureaucracies to an extent that is not commensurate with their financial abilities. Table II.77 makes a comparison of military expenditures and expenditures on public health and education in the different regions of the world. In 1968, it

TABLE II.77

**GNP, military expenditure and public expenditure on education and health, 1968**  
(Absolute amounts in dollars<sup>a</sup> and as percentages of GNP)

	GNP		Military expenditure		Public expenditure on education		Public expenditure on health	
	Million \$	Percentage	Million \$	Percentage	Million \$	Percentage	Million \$	Percentage
Africa.....	57 700	100	1 769	3.1	2 370	4.1	799	1.4
Northern America.....	931 800	100	82 379	8.8	56 510	6.1	23 788	2.6
Latin America.....	118 900	100	2 235	1.9	4 430	3.7	1 370	1.2
Asia <sup>b</sup> .....	286 700	100	8 302	2.9	10 660	3.7	1 460	0.5
Europe and USSR.....	1 173 600	100	86 315	7.4	56 220	4.8	36 924	3.1
Oceania.....	32 700	100	1 054	3.2	1 450	4.4	924	2.8
Arab States <sup>c</sup> .....	(28 800)	(100)	(2 000)	(6.9)	(1 340)	(4.7)	(400)	(1.4)
<b>WORLD<sup>b</sup>.....</b>	<b>2 601 400</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>182 054</b>	<b>7.0</b>	<b>131 640</b>	<b>5.1</b>	<b>65 265</b>	<b>2.5</b>
Developed countries.....	2 298 120	100	171 922	7.5	120 820	5.3	62 195	2.7
Developing countries.....	303 280	100	10 132	3.3	10 820	3.6	3 070	1.0

Source: L. Goldstone, "Public expenditure on education in the world, 1968", *Prospects: Quarterly Review of Education*, vol. II, No. 2 (Paris, UNESCO, summer 1972), p. 229.

<sup>a</sup> For the conversion from national currencies into United States dollars, official exchange rates were used for most of the national totals. Alternative rates were used for the socialist countries and for several countries in Latin America and Asia for which official rates appeared to yield unrealistic equivalents. In addition, different

conversion factors were used in some cases, for GNP, military expenditure, education expenditure and health expenditure in order to make the respective dollar values more comparable to United States values. The proportions of GNP of the various types of expenditure are consequently not fully comparable.

<sup>b</sup> Not including China, Democratic People's Republic of Korea and Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam.

<sup>c</sup> Already included in relevant geographical area.

appears that some \$182 000 million were spent for military purposes, \$132 000 million for education and \$65 000 million on health, accounting for 7, 5.1 and 2.5 per cent, respectively, of the world's total GNP.

239. As may be expected, there is a high correlation between the involvement of States in conflict, actual or potential, and the size of their military expenditure. On a regional basis, for example, North America, Europe (including the USSR) and the Arab States respectively spend 8.8, 7.4 and 6.9 per cent of their total GNP for military purposes. The less developed countries as a whole spent an average of 3.3 per cent of their GNP for military purposes, 3.6 per cent for education and 1 per cent for health.<sup>106</sup> By contrast, the expenditures of the more developed countries for military purposes, education and health were 7.5, 5.3 and 2.7 per cent respectively. When the absolute magnitudes are examined, however, the differences between the more and the less developed countries stand out much more sharply.

240. UNESCO was able to estimate the percentage of the national budget that was allocated for education in 1968 by nearly three quarters of its developing member States in Africa, Asia and Latin America. It estimated that 14 per cent of the total budgets of these countries was being spent on education. The African countries, in all, were estimated to be spending some 18 per cent; the Latin American countries a little over 14 per cent; and the Asian countries just over 12 per cent.<sup>107</sup> By contrast, military expenditures were estimated to range from 30 to 50 per cent of the same budgets.<sup>108</sup>

<sup>106</sup> It is difficult, however, to reconcile the relative percentages spent on education and military expenditures in terms of GNP with the relative percentages in terms of the national budget.

<sup>107</sup> L. Goldstone, "Public expenditure on education in the world, 1968", *Prospects: Quarterly Review of Education* vol. II, No. 2 (Paris, UNESCO, summer 1972), p. 229.

<sup>108</sup> For more precise figures, see United States Arms Control and Disarmament Agency, *World Military Expenditures, 1970* (Washington, D.C., 1971).

241. The tragedy of the present arms race among nations is that the additional stockpiling of military hardware has not brought them any closer to a sense of national security. This is evidenced by the fact that despite crying needs in other spheres of national life (health, education and welfare) they continue to increase their military spending. If anything, the evidence tends to show that the expansion of its means of defence by one nation while all others are expanding theirs does not necessarily increase that nation's objective national security; on the contrary, it tends to poison the international atmosphere and create a greater subjective sense of national insecurity—thus reinforcing a self-perpetuating vicious circle.

242. For the less developed countries, national security is complicated by problems of internal security. The creation of the modern army, with its better educated staff, better discipline and monopoly control of the means of violence, has led some social scientists to expect it to play a leading and beneficial role in the modernization process. The evidence on this score seems to be mixed. Wherever the nationalist movement has created some countervailing powers and institutions to set limits to arbitrary military rule, such a role may be possible. But in countries where such political forces have been lacking, military rule has often continued the corrupt practices of the civilian rulers, at the same time aggrandizing the army and expanding engagement in military adventures. In such instances, and wherever armies have been recruited from a particular racial, tribal or linguistic group, the consequences of military rule for human rights have often been disastrous. Furthermore, national development prospects have frequently suffered wherever the military controls a large and increasing share of the government budget, though contributing little to the mobilization of the country's resources.

243. For these reasons, one of the major recommendations of the Special Rapporteur will be that the less developed countries should try to reduce their military spending as much as possible without jeopardizing their

internal security and national defence. Much more important, however, is the Special Rapporteur's recommendation that the less developed countries should transform their existing armed forces, as far as possible into a pararedevelopmental task force. By reason of their mobility and discipline, military corps could be used to build the necessary physical and social infrastructure that most of these countries lack.

## 5. THE NEED FOR INTERNATIONAL ACTION

244. The national security crisis in the less developed countries, however, is bound to continue so long as their present national identity crisis has not been resolved by the creation of forms of legitimacy that would stabilize their internal conditions. In the meantime, some international action is also necessary in order to limit the present regional conflicts. International arms limitations, the outlawing of the manufacture and use of certain weapons of mass destruction, the creation of nuclear-free zones and zones free from military pressures created by the great Powers, arms embargoes on warring parties and the use of trade and assistance to encourage the peaceful settlement of disputes are perhaps the main examples of the kinds of international action which could settle regional conflicts. All of these, however, depend on the goodwill and the good sense of the great Powers. International organizations can help primarily by moral exhortation and the mobilization of world public opinion to these ends.

245. The above is a brief analysis of the common cultural background and recent historical developments in the less developed countries. What follows will be a more detailed examination of the particular conditions in each of four culture regions defined earlier: the syncretic religious world (Africa south of the Sahara), the Islamic world, (North Africa and West Asia), the Hindu-Buddhist world (South and East Asia) and the Latin Catholic world (Central and South America).

### B. Traditional and modern patterns and sources of discrimination<sup>109</sup>

#### 1. THE SYNCRETIC RELIGIOUS WORLD: AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

##### *Subregions and subcultures*

246. Africa south of the Sahara can be divided into different subregions and subcultures on the basis of geography, religion, mode of livelihood and type of political system. In geographic terms, the sub-Saharan continent can be divided into two major regions, one north and the other south of the great Zambezi river. As is pointed out below, this is largely the line of division between the European-controlled and the African-controlled areas.

247. The religious criterion is particularly important as far as Africa is concerned, because the Islamic culture largely provides the basis for the distinction between Mediterranean-Saharan Africa, where it predominates,

and sub-Saharan Africa, where it does not, though in a number of sub-Saharan countries, Islam is either a state religion, as in Somalia and Mauritania, or an important religious factor, as in Nigeria (see table II.1 above).

248. According to mode of livelihood, Herskovits has classified the traditional cultures of sub-Saharan Africa into the pastoral societies that predominate in east, central and southern Africa, and the agricultural societies of western Africa and the Congo basin.<sup>110</sup> In the first group, the population tended to be scattered and not permanently settled, while political structures tended to be based on local autonomous groups. By contrast, the agricultural societies had denser and more settled populations and a greater specialization of labour.

249. In terms of their political systems, the African States and territories may be divided into two groups: African-controlled systems and European-controlled systems. The first group can be further sub-divided between the historic African States (Ethiopia and Liberia) and the new African States.

##### *Western influences*

250. Indigenous Africans comprise 96 per cent of the population, persons of European origin 2½ per cent and others (mainly Asians, Arabs and mixed) 1½ per cent. It should be noted that 80 per cent of the European population is concentrated in South Africa and Southern Rhodesia and considers Africa to be its permanent home. Elsewhere, the European groups differ in regard to their permanency of residence. The Asians are concentrated in South Africa and East Africa, where they are engaged almost exclusively in retail trade with the African communities. They have largely assumed permanent residence, although recently their position is being challenged in some of the African-controlled States. In South Africa, they are a segregated minority without political rights. The Arabs are confined mainly to the United Republic of Tanzania and the coast of Kenya. The mixed groups are the product of miscegenation in South Africa and Southern Rhodesia and constitute a minority separate from all other groups.

251. European settlement and colonial rule have had a most significant impact on the African social structure. Surprisingly enough, it was when African traditional structures were maintained in the so-called system of indirect rule that difficulties arose in national integration and consolidation (as in Nigeria and Uganda), and that there have been most conflicts and tension between the traditional élites and the more westernized modernist élites. In general, the modernist élites became the successors of the colonial Powers.

252. At the other extreme stand South Africa, Southern Rhodesia and Namibia, where the non-European majority has been systematically excluded from power and from most of the rights and privileges enjoyed by Europeans.

##### *Social change*

253. Social change has brought about some new patterns of discrimination, while breaking through some of the old ones. The closed hierarchical social systems of the

<sup>109</sup> The regional approach for this section draws heavily upon the comparative and analytical symposium prepared by Professor Gabriel A. Almond and his colleagues at the Princeton University Center of International Studies (see G. A. Almond and J. S. Coleman *et al.*, *The Politics of the Developing Areas* (Princeton, N.J.) (copyright © 1960 by Princeton University Press). Material reprinted by permission of Princeton University Press).

<sup>110</sup> M. J. Herskovits, "Peoples and cultures of sub-Saharan Africa", *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, vol. 298 (Philadelphia, Penn., March 1955), pp. 17-19.



past are gradually giving way to a new social class stratification based on wealth, income, education, profession, prestige, etc. The most important factors in this process will be discussed below.

254. Urbanization has been a most important factor of social and political change in sub-Saharan Africa. As Coleman has pointed out,<sup>111</sup> urban life has been a new and unsettling experience for most Africans, depriving them in part of the security of their tribal community but giving them opportunities for individual status and advancement in their new occupations. Urban life, moreover, has given rise to political movements based on mass support.

255. Commercialization has also created new values and opportunities and resulted in the emergence of new social classes. As noted above, retail trade has in some parts of Africa been a virtual monopoly of non-African groups. However, in many countries of West and Central Africa, Africans have shown themselves to be effective traders and entrepreneurs.

256. Modern education has been another very powerful channel for social mobility, cultural change and increased opportunities for Africans. However, Western-style education as practised in the colonial period was not always well adapted to the balanced development of the countries concerned but tended, as Coleman has said, to create an élitist mentality and "an exaggerated sense of superiority and special legitimacy" among educated Africans.<sup>112</sup> This detrimental legacy of colonialism would seem to call for major cultural and educational reform, for it is by creating a uniquely African identity and educational system that such prejudices can be removed.

#### *Main sources of discrimination*

257. The main sources of discrimination in Africa south of the Sahara may thus be considered to be race and ethnic tribal origins. In States where racial policies are in effect, mainly South Africa and Namibia, Southern Rhodesia and the Portuguese-controlled territories, the parameters of opportunity are determined by race and ethnic origin. In some of the new States, where an active Africanization is in operation, the Europeans and Asians are losing their privileged status and are sometimes being driven out in a manner which leaves much to be desired. Where modernization has made the greatest advance, a new social class stratification is developing, with politicians, civil servants, soldiers, doctors, lawyers, teachers, businessmen, artisans, traders and cash-crop farmers forming a new élite at the apex of the political system. In the traditional segment of society still the largest in the new States, it is tribe and tribal affiliation that largely determine the opportunities open to an individual. In States where the traditional tribal aristocracy has acted as a brake upon the upward mobility of the emerging classes, the new benefits of commercialization have been either denied or absorbed by the aristocracy itself.

258. Because of the tribal structure of society, discriminatory practices based on sex seem to play a lesser role in Africa than in other parts of the less developed world.<sup>113</sup>

<sup>111</sup> G. A. Almond and J. S. Coleman *et al.*, *op. cit.*, p. 270.

<sup>112</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 283.

<sup>113</sup> For the position of women in the labour force and education, see chapter II, section C, and chapter III, section E, above.

## 2. THE ISLAMIC WORLD: NORTH AFRICA AND WEST ASIA

### *Subregions and subcultures*

259. In the vast region stretching from the extreme north-western tip of Africa to the south-eastern Asian islands of Indonesia, at least five major subcultures may be distinguished: the Arab, Iranian, Turkish, Indo-Pakistani and Indonesian (see table II.1). These may be further divided into numerous linguistic and religious subgroups, each with its own characteristics.

260. It is in this region of enormous social and cultural diversity that Islam, Judaism, Zoroastrianism, Christianity, Buddhism and Hinduism have had their birth. Though all these religions have contributed some unifying effect, it is Islam that has had the most profound impact. The Islamic influences may be summarized as follows:

(a) As an egalitarian doctrine, Islam has helped to put all believers on an equal footing before Allah.

(b) For the non-believers—particularly the Zoroastrians, Christians and Jews—Islam, with its cultural tradition of tolerance as a means of dealing with differences, has provided some religious autonomy.

(c) As a legal method, the Islamic Shari'a has provided a traditional but sophisticated rule of law for societies characterized by extreme diversity of population and beset by a constant struggle for power both internally and externally.

(d) Since it combines the temporal and the spiritual authority, classical Islamic constitutional theory has tended to turn almost entirely on the question of personal qualifications which the legitimate ruler should properly possess, including that of his duty to dispense justice on the basis of the Shari'a. Justice as a requirement of political legitimacy has thus been part of the cultural tradition of Islam.

### *Western influences*

261. Though it has served to hasten modernization, the impact of the West on the Islamic world has been largely negative, in that it has weakened the Islamic tradition and impaired Moslem self-confidence. As in other less developed regions, that impact has been greatest in those countries subjected to full colonialism; wherever colonialism permitted some political autonomy or countries retained their independence, it has been somewhat less direct. The differences in this respect have had far-reaching consequences.

262. Full colonization took place only in certain parts of North Africa, in Indonesia, Malaysia and the Indian sub-continent. For these proud, traditional cultures, Western domination was a thoroughly humiliating experience, and the psychological consequences are evident to this day. For some countries, the problem of freeing themselves from Western influence was complicated by the presence of European settlers. In Algeria, for example, the independence movement had to struggle not only against a colonial Power but against an entrenched European minority, and its post-independence period has thus been characterized by a process of bringing the ownership of land, commerce and employment into native hands and by discrimination against the alien elements.

263. Semi-colonial status was the fate of those countries among them Iraq, Palestine and Syria, that because of great Power rivalries escaped a full colonization or were brought under the League of Nations Mandates System.

Nevertheless, they, too, have experienced the crippling and disintegrating effects of Western domination.

264. The countries that remained independent of Western domination are few: Afghanistan, Iran, Saudi Arabia and Turkey. Even these have been subjected to varying degrees of Western influence, but their independence is an indelible characteristic that has affected their cultural and political relations with the West. In Turkey, it has led to a whole-hearted process of westernization uninhibited by the ambivalence felt by other less developed countries. In Afghanistan and Saudi Arabia, which escaped colonization largely because of their inaccessibility, the process of modernization has been late to start and far less intensive than in other countries.

265. An incidental effect of the Western impact on the Islamic world has been the creation of two areas of serious tension—one in the Middle East and the other in the Indian subcontinent.

#### *Social change*

266. The rate of social change varies enormously in this region. Generally, however, the countries may be divided into three distinct groups with respect to their rates (high, low and medium) of social change. Countries with the highest rates of social change over the past 50 years or so are those which have been well-exposed to Western influence or those which enjoy an oil economy. They include Algeria, Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Lebanon, the Libyan Arab Republic, the Syrian Arab Republic, Tunisia and Turkey. Countries with a low rate of social change are those which have been relatively insulated from Western impact, i.e. Afghanistan, Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates and Yemen. Indonesia, Malaysia, Mauritania, Morocco, Pakistan, Somalia and the Sudan fall roughly into the range with a medium rate of change.

267. The five major factors affecting social change are industrialization, secularization, urbanization, modern education, and the population explosion. On the whole, the first four factors have hastened the process; the fifth has retarded progress in some of these countries. The great differences in the rates of economic growth and social change within this region have also given rise to widening gaps in income levels and standards of living. There is perhaps no region in the less developed world with better prospects for development at the regional level, yet no region more beset by internal and external conflicts that hamper its progress. The prospects for regional development are especially good wherever high oil income can complement an abundance of skilled manpower and cultivable land, as is the case with the Libyan Arab Republic and Egypt.

268. The process of social change is also undermining the traditional social structure and cultural values and creating new patterns. The extended family system, tribal loyalties, and lineage are gradually giving way to wealth, income, education and professional status as the bases of social power and privilege. Discrimination is also changing its pattern along parallel lines.

#### *Main sources of discrimination*

269. The main sources of discrimination in the Islamic world are sex, religion, national origin and social class. Most traditional Islamic societies are patriarchal in nature; traditional Islamic laws also discriminate against women in inheritance and other aspects of social life. To

the extent that traditional practices survive, women are allotted a secondary role in social, economic and cultural life.

270. With some exceptions, the countries in this region have a State religion, i.e., Islam, which is practised by an overwhelming majority of the population. Although most States also provide for free worship according to the tenets of other recognized religions, a great many activities and positions (particularly in the Government) are closed to non-Moslems.

271. National origin has become, in this century, the arbiter of social and political life in this region, as in other regions of the less developed world. Consequently, the groups that have failed, either because of the smallness of their number or because of a combination of fortuitous political and cultural conditions, to assert their nationhood in the formation of a State are often subjected to political, social, economic and cultural discrimination.

272. Modernization, however, is increasingly breaking down the traditional barriers and establishing a restratification on social class lines. Countries in this region vary enormously with respect to their levels of modernization; the more modernized the country, the more it lends itself to the modern social and economic and legal remedies for the removal of causes of discrimination. Social development planning, generally, can contribute greatly to the opening of opportunities to all strata of society. Land reform, worker participation in ownership of industries, free health care and education and a social insurance scheme covering all members of the society are the major means of remedying discriminatory practices.

### 3. THE HINDU-BUDDHIST WORLD: SOUTH AND EAST ASIA

#### *Subregions and subcultures*

273. This region is dominated by the presence of India, which is the second most populous country in the less developed world and one of those most beset by problems of poverty. Culturally, however, the region is perhaps the most diverse in the world and has been influenced by three distinct and highly developed religions: Buddhism, Hinduism and Islam. Though in the past these religions hardly coincided with political boundaries, today they more or less do. Pakistan, Indonesia and Malaysia are primarily Muslim, and for this reason the Special Rapporteur has included them in the Islamic world. India is predominantly Hindu (85 per cent); Burma, Ceylon, the Khmer Republic, Laos, the Republic of Viet-Nam and Thailand are largely Buddhist; and the Philippines is mainly Christian (see table II.1 above). The dominant influences of the region have been those of China (political) and India (cultural). Since the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, however, the influence of the Dutch, Portuguese, Spanish, British, French and Americans has been felt, particularly in the islands and coastal areas.

274. The region has two main divisions: south Asia and east Asia. South Asia includes India, Sri Lanka and the secluded Himalayan States of Nepal, Bhutan and Sikkim. East Asia includes Burma, the Khmer Republic, Laos, the Philippines, Thailand and Viet-Nam. There are, however, very important cultural links between these two rather politically defined subregions. The Indian subcontinent itself is, in fact, sharply divided into northern and southern parts. As Myron Weiner has written:

The southern part of the subcontinent, separated from the north by the Vindhya mountains, has been oriented much more toward the



sea and toward South-east Asia than has the north. In other ways, too—in language, dress, food, and culture—the south has differed from the north. Northern kingdoms seldom extended their sway into the south . . . from South India, and from Bengal especially as a result of the rise of seafaring kingdoms, Hindu and Buddhist ideas and institutions spread throughout South-east Asia.<sup>114</sup>

275. The Mongol invasions of India from the sixteenth century until the British take-over further divided the subcontinent, but, as Weiner has pointed out, they

also strengthened North India's ties with the Islamic world to the west, just as the expansion of the South Indian kingdoms toward the east strengthened the subcontinent's ties with South-east Asia. With the advent of the British, this entire region from the towering peak of K-2 in the Himalayas to Cape Comorin and across the Indian Ocean to Ceylon fell under a single ruler. No other event, with the possible exception of the Aryan invasions some three thousand years ago, had such a profound effect on the entire region.<sup>115</sup>

276. By contrast, it is difficult to speak of a "traditional indigenous" culture in east Asia. Historically, one of the most distinctive characteristics of the region is the extent to which it has been subjected to foreign cultural influences. From the beginning of recorded history, the area has received successive waves of migration, each bringing in new religions and new cultures. The Europeans have been only the latest to join this cultural melting pot.

277. The effect of all this cultural diversity and diffusion in South and East Asia has been a kind of cultural pluralism unparalleled in other areas of the world. A great number of linguistic, religious and racial groups have lived side by side with a fair degree of tolerance. The pluralism, however, has been reinforced by a religious outlook and social structure that have made upward mobility difficult, if not impossible. As Lucian W. Pye has observed:

One important feature of the early religions was that they stressed the importance and validity of the values and customs basic to the smallest and most direct units of social organization. . . . the way of life of the masses was sanctified and given some degree of dignity and responsibility. . . . They usually provided quite elaborate definitions of the qualities of the good king, the good official, the good soldier, the good head of the household, the good peasant, and the like. In contrast, they generally had very little to say about what might be evil in the structure of society and what might be a more ideal way of ordering it.<sup>116</sup>

278. The culmination of this religious outlook was the development of the caste system in India. The notion of *dharma* in Buddhism and Hinduism was the central concept guiding relations between the villager and the ruler. Each was to perform his own function; the villager was to be a subject, not a citizen, one who had duties but no rights; the function of the ruler was to maintain the system, not to change it. The sharp division in Hinduism between the functions of the ruler and those of the priest provided a basis for the separation of the spiritual and temporal realms that Islam considered as one and inseparable. The Brahman might be non-violent, ascetic and other-worldly, but the Kshatriya's duty was to fight and rule.

279. The caste structure, furthermore, permitted populations to enter the subcontinent and be incorporated in the traditional social system without disturbing its foundations.

## Western influences

280. Western colonialism brought great and varied change to this traditional and static society. The duration, scope and policies of Western rule differed considerably from country to country, and consequently, left different effects. Thailand was the only country to escape Western colonization altogether.

281. The impact of Western colonization on patterns of economic, social and cultural discrimination may be summarized as follows:

(a) In most instances, the imposition of Western investments on a traditional economy created a dual economic system, of which the Dutch colonies were a supreme example. Those tied to the traditional sectors were virtually denied all the benefits of economic growth.

(b) Western penetration also introduced a whole set of new values, emphasizing acquisition, ability and achievement. This, in turn, also created a kind of cultural dualism. Those natives who adopted the Western religion, customs and values were elevated to a special social category. Thus, native colonial administrators in British India, Catholics in Indo-China emulating the French style of life, Christian Filipinos and the Dutch-recruited natives in Indonesia all became part of a new indigenous élite.

(c) The colonialists introduced a new administrative and judicial system that integrated the traditional autonomous systems into larger territorial political and administrative units and fundamentally changed their character.

(d) The introduction of new systems of land tenure, particularly in Bengal and eastern India, regularized the collection of land taxes and ensured a substantial return on Western investment, but it also caused the loss of the region's economic surplus.

(e) The pursuit of "free trade" in most colonies discouraged indigenous entrepreneurial initiative and destroyed the handicraft and other cottage industries on which the peasantry depended for additional income. The economy of these countries became export-oriented, dependent on the production and export of raw materials and cash crops.

(f) While depleting the resources and economic surpluses of their colonies, the Governments of the colonizing Powers generally pursued a *laissez-faire* policy in matters of social welfare, declining to assume responsibility for public health and education or to become involved in social reform.

(g) The introduction of westernized educational systems gave rise to new social classes and further diminished the importance of the traditional social structure.

(h) The introduction of the criteria of merit and achievement into a social environment based on caste status created new standards that conflicted with and led to considerable criticism of prevailing practices.

## Social change

282. Political independence, together with industrialization, urbanization, secularization and education have all worked towards a new social stratification. What Bryce Ryan wrote on the changing character of caste in Ceylon in the 1950s was also true of India:

The revolution which is pervading all Ceylonese institutions cannot leave caste untouched, for caste is a phenomenon integrated with feudal, personalized, and familial status relationships. Neither the values nor the structure of a secular and economically rational democratic state and economy can support this institution of

<sup>114</sup> G. A. Almond and J. S. Coleman *et al.*, *op. cit.*, p. 155.

<sup>115</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>116</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 78 and 79.

another era. Many specific trends encompassed in the Ceylonese transformation operate to disrupt the caste system directly, as well as to shatter the social order which supports it. The widening popular, and virtually complete legal, acceptance of equality in opportunity and justice, and belief in the propriety of status by achievement bespeak a value system explicitly contradictory to caste. The joint development of urbanism and economic rationality, with their combined effects on mobility, the growth of contractual relations and impersonality, provide objective circumstances in which structures of caste are unenforceable. Even more significantly, they establish disparities between traditional birth statuses and economic prestige and power.<sup>117</sup>

283. Nevertheless, the growth of new classes in administration, commerce and industry on the basis of education and economic status has intensified existing divisions along lines of religion, language and caste and thereby exacerbated group conflict in the various communities.

284. Throughout the region, the response of the diverse groups and social classes to modern values and institutions has varied greatly, and this, in turn, has been one of the most important bases for new lines of social stratification. Generally speaking, as the rulers of India prior to the British, the Muslims proved more resistant to Western values and education than the Hindus. The kayasthas, boidyas, and brahmans in Bengal responded earlier than did other castes in their localities. Tamil-speaking people along the Madras coast responded more rapidly than the interior Telugus, the Bengalis more than the Biharis or Oriyas, the Punjabi and Uttar Pradesh Muslims before other Muslims.

285. One important consequence of colonialism here, as in Africa and West Asia, was the development of the *comprador* class, originating mostly in marginal groups, the Chinese and Indians (in East and South-East Asia), the Parsees in India, the Eurasians in Indonesia. The functions these *comprador* classes came to perform hindered the development of an indigenous middle class to some extent, inasmuch as they tended to fill the middle ranks in the civil service and seize upon entrepreneurial opportunities. The post-independence period has seen some curtailing of the role of these classes.

286. In South-East Asia, as Lucian W. Pye has pointed out:

as yet change has not gone far enough to permit the emergence of a social order more appropriate to the modern world. The two main traditional classes of South-east Asia—the aristocracy and the peasantry—have been slow in rejecting their traditional roles. The urbanization process, which is the main factor in reshaping the social order, has not as yet produced a stable pattern of urban life. As a consequence, sharp class lines have not emerged, and the gap between the rich and the poor is at best filled with people who are unsure of their social identity.<sup>118</sup>

Pye's views, dating from 1953, on resistance to changes in traditional roles and on the urbanization process are probably to some extent no longer valid, particularly when he refers to South-East Asia. Changes have since taken place that have given rise to the emergence of economic and social classes whose characteristics in many countries are obviously different from those of the traditional aristocracy and peasantry.

287. By contrast, in South Asia the new class lines are beginning to sharpen. The emergence of an articulate lower middle class in the small towns and the rise of a

technically skilled class portend more class conflict. These two classes have entirely different traditional backgrounds, have few interests in common and represent a source of political conflict.

### *Main sources of discrimination*

288. The main traditional source of discrimination in the realization of economic, social and cultural rights in this region are caste, religion and language. The cultural pluralism of the traditional society, which ensured a remarkable measure of tolerance for the minority groups, is being undermined by the processes of modern social re-stratification. To the old discriminatory practices, a sense of inequality and expectations greater than can be fulfilled are being added. Internal political and social conflicts are the consequence, though sometimes regional conflicts that divert attention from the urgency of internal reform also burst into the open and inflame existing nationalist feelings. An attack on poverty is therefore not only an economic and moral duty but a political necessity and a precondition for regional peace.

## 4. THE LATIN CATHOLIC WORLD: CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA

### *Subregions and subcultures*

289. It is generally considered convenient to divide Latin America into two geographic regions, South and Central America, though more significant division might be made along climatic lines, inasmuch as three fourths of the region lies in the tropics. It is interesting to note that the greatest degree of economic development is found in the areas that are not in the tropics: Argentina, southern Brazil, Chile, Mexico and Uruguay.

290. In contrast to North America, Latin America is deeply affected by the presence and cultural influences of the Indians, primarily because the early cultures of the Indian societies of Latin and North America differed substantially, as did the policies and practices of the European settlers in the two areas.

291. Today, the Indians constitute about half of the population in Bolivia, Ecuador, Guatemala and Peru and substantial minorities in some of the other countries (see table II.78). The balance, in general, is made up of those

TABLE II.78  
Indians in the population of Latin America

Country	Number	Percentage of total population
Argentina .....	50 000	0.38
Bolivia .....	1 650 000	50.00
Brazil .....	1 117 132	2.70
Chile .....	130 000	2.58
Colombia .....	147 300	0.91
Costa Rica .....	4 200	0.64
Ecuador .....	1 000 000	40.00
El Salvador .....	348 907	20.00
Guatemala .....	1 820 396	55.44
Honduras .....	105 732	9.54
Mexico .....	5 427 396	27.91
Nicaragua .....	330 000	23.90
Panama .....	64 960	10.90
Paraguay .....	40 000	4.16
Peru .....	3 247 196	46.23
Venezuela .....	100 000	2.79

Source: W. W. Pierson and F. G. Gil, *Governments of Latin America* (New York, McGraw-Hill, 1957), p. 9.

<sup>117</sup> B. Ryan, *Caste in Modern Ceylon* (New Brunswick, 1953), p. 338.

<sup>118</sup> G. A. Almond and J. S. Coleman *et al.*, *op. cit.*, p. 103.

which are of European, mainly Hispanic, descent and origin (roughly 15–30 per cent) and those which are of mixed European and Indian, and in some areas African, origin (about 30–35 per cent).

292. It is extremely important to note that social stratification in Latin America is based on class. The strata of European descent constitute a kind of ruling upper class, and the Indians on the mainland and the blacks in the Caribbean generally make up the lowest class, with those of mixed blood (*mestizos*) ranging broadly between the two. Class mobility, formerly rigidly curtailed, has in recent years become easier and more rapid, though it varies from country to country. This breakdown of class distinction is occurring partly as a consequence of urbanization and industrialization, but in greater part as the consequence of active national efforts towards reform.

#### *Western influences*

293. Latin America is the most westernized region of the less developed world. European invasions, colonization, settlement and continuing indirect influences are the main reasons for this. The patterns of discrimination in this region are due to three different policies concerning the indigenous populations. The first of these, experienced by the Caribbean islands, was the virtual extermination of the Indians. After the conquest, the Spaniards brought in African slaves to work the plantations. Caribbean society is thus characterized by European and African elements.

294. The second policy pursued on the mainland was that of converting the Indians to Roman Catholicism. Under the Laws of the Indies, dating from the 1530s, Indian converts lived under the protection of the Church. To this day, the Indians on the mainland are among the most devout Catholics in Latin America. Even so, through its integration with the dominant Western society and culture, the Indian population on the mainland is continually declining.

295. The third policy, pursued in Chile, was one of forcing the Indians into enclaves and reservations.

296. Most of the European settlers came from cities and therefore established and congregated in new cities. Consequently the class system has followed the urban-rural cleavage, which to this day contributes to the social picture in this continent.

297. European immigrants in the last century or so can be divided into three major groups. The first group com-

prised the immigrants who began pouring into Argentina in the late 1860s and who have continued to move into that country during the twentieth century, partly because Argentine immigration laws since the 1860s have, in effect, invited immigration. Indeed, Argentina has been second only to the United States of America among the American countries attracting European immigration. During the nineteenth century, the immigrants to Argentina were chiefly Spaniards and Italians; in the twentieth century, these were joined by large numbers of Germans. The second and third groups of European immigrants are the refugees of the First and Second World Wars and the Spanish Civil War.

298. The last great influence upon Latin American economics, politics and culture has come from the so-called "Colossus of the North". Although the Latin Americans generally resent the dominant-submissive nature of these relations, there are vital economic and cultural links that cannot be wished away. It is to be hoped, however, that the increasing influence of North America will be exerted on behalf of progress rather than stagnation or reaction.

#### *Social change*

299. The fundamental social forces at work towards new patterns of stratification and discrimination in other less developed regions—urbanization, commercialization, industrialization, modern education and secularization—are having essentially the same effects on Latin America. However, because there is a less formidable traditional society, the changes in the Latin American social class structure are taking place a little more rapidly than elsewhere.

#### *Main sources of discrimination*

300. In Latin America, the main sources of discrimination are social class, ethnic origin and sex. This is a region far more developed economically than the rest of the less developed world; it is less hampered by traditional societies and, consequently, has a more flexible class structure that allows a greater measure of social mobility. Ethnic origins often correspond to the class lines, but they are not the same. Probably because of the influence of the Catholic Church, the social, economic and cultural position of women is generally inferior to that of men. On the positive side, however, the Church has often played an important and pioneering role in social reform and in championing the cause of the lower-class Indians.



## Chapter V

### THE INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT

#### A. Disequilibrium and dependence in international development

301. While chapters II, III and IV of this part of the study were concerned primarily with national and regional conditions in the less developed world, the present chapter will focus on the international dimensions of the obstacles to and the possibilities for the realization of economic, social and cultural rights in the less developed countries.

302. The present section deals briefly with the dominant characteristics of the relations between the less developed countries as a whole and the more developed world, which, as will be briefly argued, are the by-product of increasing disequilibrium between the centres and peripheries of international development that started about the time of the industrial revolution in Europe. Ever since that time, the gains in science and technology, which, at first slowly and in recent decades at an accelerated tempo, resulted in higher productivity in all areas of economic activity, have gradually spread to all parts of the world from these centres. But contrary to expectations, these transfers have not resulted in the equalization of productivity and income over international boundaries. The less developed areas have tended to lag increasingly behind the more developed regions and have to an ever greater extent found themselves in a dependent relationship politically, economically, technologically and culturally. The internal consequences of this relationship have also been far-reaching, often leading to the lopsided development of the economies and societies of these countries.

Contrary to what the equilibrium theory of international trade would seem to suggest, the play of the market forces does not work towards equality in the remunerations to factors of production and, consequently, in incomes. If left to take its own course, economic development is a process of circular and cumulative causation which tends to award its favours to those who are already well endowed and even to thwart the efforts of those who happen to live in regions that are lagging behind.<sup>119</sup>

303. Political intervention may accelerate, stabilize or reverse economic trends. Colonial and neo-colonial influences seem on the whole to have accelerated or stabilized the trend towards international and inter-regional inequalities. It is therefore largely left to the active intervention of the Governments of the less developed countries, and to concerted international efforts, to reverse the present trend towards a greater measure of income inequality between nations and between regions.

<sup>119</sup> G. Myrdal, *Development and Under-development: A Note on the Mechanism of National and International Economic Equality* (Fiftieth Anniversary Commemoration Lectures) (Cairo, National Bank of Egypt, 1956) p. 47.

304. In general, it may be stated that the less developed countries are part of a periphery of the international economy which has been only partially developed by the centres of international capitalism. The past and present inequalities and discontinuities between internal regions and social classes in the less developed countries derive from the successive forms taken by dependence, and these in turn are determined by the interests and internal logic of the capitalist system. As has been stated in a United Nations study:

The more backward areas of under-developed countries ... create an economic surplus, most of which is pre-empted by the more advanced areas of the same countries, just as the dominant capitalist countries appropriate in various ways the bulk of the economic surplus produced by the dependent countries as a whole.<sup>120</sup>

This is an analysis presented in terms of Latin America, the most developed part of the less developed world, but it could be generally taken as being relevant to most less developed countries.

305. The same study continues:

Even if one sets aside as unproven and for the present unprovable the assertions that dependence offers a sufficient explanation for under-development, it can still be affirmed that this conception offers several essential contributions to an understanding of the processes now taking place and of the feasibility of policy alternatives. It offers a needed corrective to dualist or other interpretations that view the development of the Latin American countries as processes largely autonomous, responding to internal circumstances and policies, with the role of the rest of the world limited to meeting (or failing to meet) needs for trade, investment and transfer of technology. Variants of the dependence hypothesis have a prominent place in nationalist currents of thought that are taking on new vigour in several countries, and can be traced in the statements of political leaders and planning bodies. The question whether dependence is intrinsic in the nature of capitalism is of less immediate importance to them than the evidence that it has become more pervasive and more inhibiting to autonomous policy-making in recent years.<sup>121</sup>

306. The dependence of the periphery on the centre is essentially what is often referred to, in political jargon, as "neo-colonialism". Among the forms of dependence<sup>122</sup> are:

(a) *National security dependence*. Most of the less developed countries are dependent for their military hardware on one great Power or a combination of great Powers. Without supplies of arms and spare parts, their national security could be in jeopardy. With those supplies, they tend to become the client of one or other of the great

<sup>120</sup> *Social Change and Social Development Policy in Latin America* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.70.III.G.3), p. 25.

<sup>121</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 27.

<sup>122</sup> These forms of dependence are more fully discussed by T. Szentes in *The Political Economy of Underdevelopment* (Budapest, Akadémiai Kiadó, 1973), part two, chap. II.

Power blocs. Less developed countries can of course choose a middle course, as they often do, by pursuing a policy of non-alignment. Nevertheless, so long as they have security problems and cannot supply their own military hardware, they will remain dependent in this vital area. As a consequence, their sphere of autonomous action will be severely limited.

(b) *“Direct” economic dependence.* Wherever there is dominant foreign monopoly capital in control of a sizable or critical sector of the economy, direct economic dependence is the result. This kind of direct economic dependence is a legacy of the colonial days that is being gradually modified into indirect forms.

(c) *Trade dependence.* Where a sizable portion of trade and consequently foreign exchange earnings are tied to the economy of the dollar area, sterling area, franc area, rouble area, etc., trade dependence is the result.

(d) *Financial dependence.* This type of dependence is exerted primarily through banks and is therefore strongest in those countries where the banking system and, through it, the internal money circulation and the credit system, too, are under foreign control. Tied loans and grants and various forms of foreign exchange control, however, constitute other kinds of financial dependence.

(e) *“Technical” dependence.* This consists of a whole variety of intellectual forms of dependence, some direct and others indirect. The direct forms consist of the acceptance of imported technology and foreign technical advisers. The indirect forms are even more pervasive: the adoption of a particular foreign educational system with its biases, the influence of foreign-educated natives with their intellectual and emotional ties, etc.

(f) *Cultural dependence.* Perhaps the most pervasive and enduring kind of dependence lies basically in the increasing dominance in the modern world of a Western secular and scientific culture. Reactions against this culture have just begun to appear in the West in the form of cultural protests which seek their inspiration from the traditional East. In the meantime, however, the modernizing East is itself thoroughly affected by the acquisitive, worldly and rational-scientific spirit of the West. In its more pedestrian forms, this kind of dependence consists of a whole variety of cultural imports (films, television programmes, books, periodicals, records, clothing styles, forms of consumption) that are alienating the Eastern world from its own spiritual foundations. As Professor Myrdal has observed:

It is easy to observe how in most under-developed countries the trading contacts with the outside world have actually impoverished

them culturally. Skills in many crafts inherited from centuries back have been lost. A city like Baghdad, with whose name such glorious associations are connected, today does not harbour any of the old crafts, except some silver smithies, and they have adapted patterns from abroad requiring less craftsmanship; similarly, it is only with the greatest difficulty that one can buy a book of Arabic literature, while cheap magazines in English or Arabic are in abundance.<sup>123</sup>

307. Dependence results in a drain of income and manpower which takes various forms. First, there is the direct income drain consisting of capital exports on direct investment account or of the service on loans. Then there is the loss of manpower—the so-called “brain drain”, whereby the trained manpower of the less developed countries is transferred to the more advanced countries. Then there is an indirect income drain consisting primarily of the repercussions of the unfavourable foreign trade and financial/monetary relations of the less developed countries with the more advanced countries.

308. The centre-periphery dependence has its counterpart in the internal situation of the less developed countries. The general picture may be said to consist of a lack of economic and social integration, the persistence of a dual and distorted socio-economic structure, and a spontaneous reproduction of under-development. In other words, under-development (as a system of self-reproducing hard-core poverty and stagnation) is a complex system of mutually supporting internal and external factors that allows the less developed countries only a lop-sided development process.

## B. The widening income gap between rich and poor nations in monetary and real terms

309. While severe statistical limitations exist for early periods, it has been estimated by Meier<sup>124</sup> that over the period 1850–1960, the present industrialized countries as a group showed an annual compound growth rate in income of 2.8 per cent, in population of 0.9 per cent and in *per capita* income of 1.8 per cent, while pre-industrial countries had corresponding annual rates of 1 per cent, 0.9 per cent and 0.1 per cent. Over the whole period, *per capita* income in the industrial countries increased by more than 700 per cent and in the pre-industrial countries by less than 25 per cent. As the present industrial countries started off with a *per capita* income 70 per cent

<sup>123</sup> G. Myrdal, *op. cit.*, pp. 48 and 49.

<sup>124</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 14.

TABLE II.79  
Distribution of world population and incomes, 1938 and 1961

	1938			1961		
	Percentage distribution		Average income as percentage of world average	Percentage distribution		Average income as percentage of world average
	Population	Income		Population	Income	
Overseas descendants of						
Western Europe . . . . .	7.1	29.6	419	7.3	41.3	542
Europe . . . . .	26.4	46.6	177	21.4	38.8	181
South and Central America	6.0	4.2	71	7.0	4.7	69
Asia . . . . .	53.2	17.3	33	56.9	13.1	23
Africa . . . . .	7.3	2.3	32	7.4	2.0	22

Source: G. M. Meier, *Leading Issues in Economic Development: Studies in International Poverty*, 2nd ed. (Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1970), p. 11.

TABLE II.80

**GNP per capita at market prices (1970) and average annual growth rate (1969-1970)**  
(Countries with a population of 1 million or more)

Country	GNP per capita (US dollars)	Growth rate (percentage)	Country	GNP per capita (US dollars)	Growth rate (percentage)
United States	4 760	3.2	Ivory Coast	310	4.5
Sweden	4 040	3.8	Ghana	310	-0.4
Canada	3 700	3.6	Angola	300	3.2
Switzerland	3 320	2.5	El Salvador	300	1.7
Denmark	3 190	3.7	Algeria <sup>b</sup>	300	1.7
France	3 100	4.6	Papua New Guinea	300	4.5
Germany, Federal Republic of	2 930	3.5	Syrian Arab Republic	290	3.4
Norway	2 860	4.1	Ecuador	290	1.7
Australia	2 820	3.1	Honduras	280	1.8
Belgium	2 720	4.0	Southern Rhodesia	280	0.4
New Zealand	2 700	2.1	Paraguay	260	1.3
German Democratic Republic	2 490	4.2	Tunisia	250	0.5
Netherlands	2 430	3.9	Republic of Korea	250	6.8
Finland	2 390	3.9	Jordan*	250	2.9
United Kingdom	2 270	2.2	Liberia	240	0.9
Czechoslovakia†	2 230	3.8	Mozambique	240	3.4
Austria	2 010	3.9	Morocco	230	1.0
Israel	1 960	4.7	Senegal	230	0.0
Japan	1 920	9.6	Philippines	210	2.9
USSR†	1 790	5.8	Egypt	210	1.7
Libyan Arab Republic	1 770	20.4	Republic of Viet-Nam	200	1.0
Italy	1 760	4.6	Thailand	200	4.9
Puerto Rico	1 650	5.8	Sierra Leone	190	4.7
Hungary†	1 600	5.4	United Republic of Cameroon	180	3.8
Poland†	1 400	5.2	Bolivia	180	2.5
Ireland	1 360	3.6	China†	160	2.1
Argentina	1 160	2.5	Kenya	150	3.6
Greece	1 090	6.6	Central African Republic*	140	0.2
Spain	1 020	6.1	Mauritania*	140	4.5
Venezuela	980	2.3	Togo	140	1.2
Hong Kong	970	8.4	Madagascar	130	1.2
Romania†	930	7.7	Khmer Republic	130	0.1
Singapore	920	3.2	Uganda	130	2.4
Trinidad and Tobago	860	1.9	Nigeria	120	0.1
Uruguay	820	-0.4	Laos*	120	1.9
Bulgaria†	760	7.4	Sudan	120	1.0
South Africa <sup>a</sup>	760	3.0	Guinea*	120	2.7
Panama	730	4.2	Democratic Yemen	120	-5.0
Chile	720	1.6	Sri Lanka	110	1.5
Jamaica	670	3.5	India	110	1.2
Mexico	670	3.7	Haiti	110	-0.9
Portugal	660	5.3	United Republic of Tanzania <sup>c</sup>	100	3.6
Yugoslavia	650	4.3	Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam†	100	3.2
Albania†	600	4.8	Pakistan and Bangladesh	100	2.4
Lebanon	590	0.5	Niger*	90	-2.0
Costa Rica	560	3.2	Dahomey*	90	0.1
Cuba†	530	-0.6	Zaire*	90	2.7
Mongolia†	460	0.0	Chad*	80	0.4
Peru	450	1.4	Nepal*	80	0.5
Saudi Arabia	440	8.0	Burma*	80	0.6
Nicaragua	430	2.8	Yemen*	80	2.0
Brazil	420	2.4	Indonesia*	80	1.0
Zambia	400	7.1	Ethiopia*	80	2.8
Iran	380	5.4	Afghanistan*	80	0.5
Malaysia	380	3.1	Malawi*	80	2.1
Guatemala	360	2.0	Somalia*	70	-1.1
Dominican Republic	350	0.5	Mali*	70	4.4
Colombia	340	1.7	Upper Volta <sup>c</sup>	60	-0.6
Democratic People's Republic of Korea†	330	5.1	Burundi*	60	0.8
Iraq	320	2.5	Rwanda*	60	-1.5
Turkey	310	3.9			

Source: IBRD, *World Bank Atlas*, 1972, 7th ed. (Washington, D.C., 1972), p. 2.

NOTE. In view of the usual errors inherent in this type of data and to avoid a misleading impression of accuracy, the figures for GNP per capita have been rounded to the nearest \$10. The GNP estimates on which the per capita figures are based are calculated at market prices. Thus they include indirect taxes net of subsidies.

<sup>a</sup> Including Namibia.

<sup>b</sup> Growth rate relates to the period 1963-1970.

<sup>c</sup> Mainland Tanzania.

\* Estimates of GNP per capita and its growth rate are tentative. In some instances GNP per capita estimates of under 100 dollars are based on data that have a large margin of error, and are thus likely to be less reliable than estimates of over 100 dollars.

† Estimates of GNP per capita and its growth rate have a wide margin of error mainly because of the problems in deriving the GNP at market prices from net material product and in converting the GNP estimate into US dollars.



higher than the pre-industrial countries, the difference between their average *per capita* incomes was in 1960 about 900 per cent.

310. For the period 1938–1961, for which somewhat better statistics are available, Meier has provided figures which show the increasing share of the developed countries in total and *per capita* income (see table II.79 above).

311. For the period since 1960, national accounts statistics have been available in greater precision for an increasing number of countries and have been analysed in connexion with the United Nations development planning. Table II.80 gives the *per capita* GNP at market prices and its average annual growth rate for the period 1960–1970 for countries with a population of a million or more.

312. Recent figures compiled by the Centre for Development Planning, Projections and Policies of the United Nations Secretariat from the same data but on a slightly different statistical basis show the following figures for the total production of different categories of countries for 1970 and the average annual rate of increase from 1961 to 1970 (see table II.81 below).

TABLE II.81

GDP in 1970 and average annual rate of increase (percentage) from 1961 to 1970 in various categories of country

	Gross domestic product 1970		Average annual rate of increase 1961–1970 (percentage)
	Total (millions of dollars)	Per capita (dollars)	
Developed market economies	2 098 054	2 775	5.1
Centrally planned economies			
of Eastern Europe . . . . .	449 431	1 296	6.7
Developing countries . . . . .	361 899	213	5.5

313. Table II.81 shows that, as could be expected in a period of greater bilateral and multilateral aid to the less developed countries, those countries have on the average had growth rates greater than in earlier historical periods, and roughly comparable with those of the more developed countries. However, it must be remembered that the less developed countries start from much smaller economic bases than the more developed countries and that much of their economic advance is offset by population growth. “It is indeed a disheartening fact”, as Meier has observed, “that, between 1960 and 1967, the mere increase in the annual *per capita* income of the major more developed countries exceeded the total average annual *per capita* income of the less developed countries”.<sup>125</sup>

314. A greater cause for concern is the fact that the developing countries with the lowest *per capita* incomes tend to have the lowest growth rates. Thus those countries listed in table II.80 (page 115) that have incomes of less than \$300 per annum had an unweighted, average *per capita* growth rate for 1960–1970 of some 1.5 per cent. In several cases the growth rates were less than zero. As a whole, they were far below the figure of 3.5 per cent which it is hoped will be attained in the Second United Nations Development Decade.

315. *Per capita* income, useful as it is as an index of poverty and as a yardstick for comparing differences in the standard of living of different countries, presents a

number of statistical difficulties. Prominent among these are the arbitrary valuation of non-market activities and the inadequacy of the conversion of national income statistics at official exchange rates, the varying proportions of income devoted to consumption or investment, and changing patterns of income distribution.

316. Patel, in a study<sup>126</sup> in which he valued Indian sectoral income at United States relative prices, suggested that the adjusted total for *per capita* income in India was about one tenth of that in the United States of America rather than about one thirtieth as determined by conventional methods. That suggests a more manageable range, “a gap which could be overcome in 80 years at an annual increase of 3 per cent *per capita* output; in 60 years at 4 per cent and in 50 years at 5 per cent”. However, the performance of the less developed countries in the 1960s provides little ground for Patel’s hopes that the gap can be closed in a lifetime.

317. In general, as is discussed in chapter II of the *World Economic Survey, 1969–1970*,<sup>127</sup> there are difficulties in appraising levels of living. Nevertheless, statistics given in that work make clear the wide gaps in living standards not only between the more developed and less developed countries but also among the different countries and regions of the less developed world. For instance, table II.82 below reproduces figures given in the *Survey* for *per capita* consumption for various classes of developing countries and for the rest of the world in 1967. The same work also gives tables showing comparisons within the developing countries and between them and the rest of the world in such areas as life expectancy, medical facilities, housing and educational status, areas in which ample illustrations have been given in earlier chapters of this part of the present report. To cite one striking example, the average life expectancy at birth for the developing countries as a whole was 45 years, for developing countries in the western hemisphere 61, in Africa 40, and in Asia 44. While for the rest of the world it was 70 years.

318. The widening of the gap separating nations and the continuing poverty of the less developed countries become even more alarming when the increasing disparities in *per capita* income among the less developed countries and the growing inequalities in the internal distribution of their income are taken into account.

### C. The continuing capital scarcity and the need for international transfers

319. Capital scarcity was considered for some time by economists to be synonymous with under-development. Although this view has been somewhat modified in favour of greater emphasis on the social, cultural and political factors of development, the old truism that “poor countries are poor because they are poor” still holds good. The internal sources of savings are *ipso facto* limited and inadequate. To be sure, capital formation can take place through greater mobilization and utilization of existing resources, but, in the short run at least, the physical and institutional limits are self-imposing.

<sup>126</sup> S. J. Patel. “The economic distance between nations: its origin, measurement and outlook”, *The Economic Journal*, vol. LXXIV, No. 293 (London, Macmillan (Journals) Ltd., March 1964), pp. 122–129.

<sup>127</sup> United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1.

<sup>125</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 27.

320. Of the problems discussed thus far, capital scarcity is the only one that is largely amenable to international assistance for its solution. The other problems largely depend for their solution on the action taken by the less developed countries themselves. Capital scarcity, particularly in its most acute form of a chronic foreign exchange shortage, is also a critical factor in the continued economic growth of the less developed countries. All developing countries depend on imports of capital equipment, raw materials and spare parts, without which their own resources cannot be pressed into service. Consequently, they are all critically dependent on their sources of foreign exchange earnings and finance. Some developing countries are, however, better able to pay for these import requirements through their export earnings. The petroleum exporting countries are a major example of such countries. Table II.83 compares the trade balance and changes in reserves of the developing countries as a whole, then of the developing countries excluding the countries of southern Europe and finally of the developing countries excluding the countries of southern Europe and the major petroleum exporters, between 1960 and 1967. It shows that the trade deficit for the less developed countries as a whole increased during the 1960s but declined if the southern European countries, which have a stronger export potential, are excluded. Significantly, however, the trade deficit widened even more, if the petroleum exporting countries are excluded.

321. The less developed countries finance their import needs through four main channels: reserves, exports, borrowing, and foreign investment.<sup>128</sup> Available evidence

<sup>128</sup> For a useful discussion of the problem for the developing countries of the availability of foreign exchange, see L. B. Pearson *et al.*, *Partners in Development: Report of the Commission on International Development* (London, The Pall Mall Press Limited, 1969), pp. 69-76, from which much of the material in this section was drawn.

suggests that the situation is becoming tougher on all four fronts.

322. The foreign exchange reserves of the developing countries declined significantly during the 1960s. After the Second World War and the Korean War, some developing countries were able to use their reserves to maintain high export levels, but they have gradually been depleted.

323. Export earnings, as another of the sources of foreign exchange supplies, continue to be subject to problems unique to the conditions prevailing in the less developed countries. First, a developing country that wished to maintain a rate of growth of 6 per cent per annum would have to expand its exports by about one or two percentage points above this, i.e. to 7 or 8 per cent; this has proved very difficult for most developing countries, which cannot face the fierce competition in world markets. Secondly, the export earnings of the raw-material producing countries tend to fluctuate from year to year unless effective price stabilization schemes based on international agreements come into effect. Thirdly, there seems to be a secular trend in the deterioration of the terms of trade of primary commodities vis-à-vis industrial goods and services. Fourthly, import substitution policies—necessary as they may be—weakens the competitive strength of the less developed countries in items available for export. Fifthly, the less developed countries take about 70 per cent of their imports from the more developed countries and only 20 per cent from one another, which often puts them at the bargaining table with considerably stronger opponents.

324. Borrowing, as a third channel of foreign exchange earnings, has already imposed great burdens on the less developed countries. As stated in the report of the

TABLE II.82  
Consumption: *per capita* level, 1967, and rate of increase, 1960-1968

Item and region		Distribution						
		First quartile		Median		Third quartile		
		Population in countries below this level (millions)		Population in countries between the first and third quartiles (millions)		Population in countries above this level (millions)		
		Average (dollars)	Dollars		Dollars		Dollars	
<b>Per capita, 1967</b>								
Developing countries .....		152	98	853	186	503	304	199
Western hemisphere.....		360	245	30	335	167	509	46
Africa.....		114	78	143	115	123	188	42
Asia .....		112	94	676	185	312	304	12
Rest of the world .....		1 425	662	142	1 084	627	1 702	303
		Average (percentage per annum)	Percentage per annum		Percentage per annum		Percentage per annum	
<b>Rate of increase in total consumption, 1960-1968</b>								
Developing countries .....		4.4	2.9	309	4.5	1 058	5.6	181
Western hemisphere.....		4.9	3.2	32	5.0	152	5.5	64
Africa.....		2.6	2.6	150	3.4	135	4.8	29
Asia .....		4.5	2.8	159	5.1	739	6.6	88
Rest of the world .....		5.2	4.3	128	4.7	497	5.8	424

Source: *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), p. 32.



TABLE II.83

**Trade balance and changes in reserves of developing countries, 1960-1967**  
(Thousands of millions of dollars)

	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Developing countries</b>								
Exports (f.o.b.).....	29.0	29.3	31.0	33.8	37.1	39.3	42.4	43.8
Imports (c.i.f.).....	32.9	34.4	35.5	37.2	41.0	44.2	48.3	49.8
Trade balance.....	-3.9	-5.1	-4.5	-3.4	-3.9	-4.9	-5.9	-6.0
Change in reserves <sup>b</sup> .....	0.4	-0.4	0.1	1.1	0.5	1.2	0.6	0.8
<b>Excluding developing countries of Southern Europe<sup>c</sup></b>								
Exports (f.o.b.).....	26.9	27.1	28.6	31.2	34.0	35.9	38.4	39.5
Imports (c.i.f.).....	29.6	30.5	31.1	32.0	35.2	37.3	40.2	41.7
Trade balance.....	-2.7	-3.4	-2.5	-0.8	-1.2	-1.4	-1.8	-2.2
Change in reserves <sup>b</sup> .....	—	-0.7	-0.2	1.0	0.1	1.3	0.6	0.8
<b>Excluding Southern Europe and major petroleum exporters<sup>d</sup></b>								
Exports (f.o.b.).....	21.2	21.3	22.2	24.4	26.2	27.5	29.5	29.7
Imports (c.i.f.).....	26.8	27.7	28.3	29.3	31.8	33.3	36.6	37.6
Trade balance.....	-5.6	-6.4	-6.1	-4.9	-5.6	-5.8	-7.1	-7.9
Change in reserves <sup>b</sup> .....	0.1	-0.8	-0.3	0.4	—	1.0	0.4	0.4

Source: G.M. Meier, ed., *Leading Issues in Economic Development: Studies in International Poverty*, 2nd ed. (Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1970), p. 43.

<sup>a</sup> Preliminary figures.

<sup>b</sup> Gold, foreign exchange and reserve positions in IMF; end of year figures; the sign — indicates a decrease in reserves.

<sup>c</sup> Greece, Portugal, Spain, Turkey and Yugoslavia.

<sup>d</sup> Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Libya, Saudi Arabia and Venezuela.

Commission on International Development (the Pearson report), the external public debt of the developing countries rose by about 14 per cent per annum in the 1960s. In June 1968, the recorded debt stood at \$47 500 million. The reverse flow of debt service payments on official account amounted to \$4 740 million in 1967. In the previous 10 years, these payments had increased by as much as 17 per cent per year. In several countries (Brazil, Argentina, Uruguay, Mexico, Indonesia, India, Pakistan, Egypt, and Tunisia), the ratio of public debt service to export earnings exceeded 15 per cent in 1967.

325. To put the debt service problem in a different perspective, the outflow of interest and amortization can be compared with new loan disbursements.

TABLE II.84

**Debt service as percentage of gross lending, 1965-1967 and 1977**

	Africa	Europe	East Asia	South Asia, Middle East	Latin America
1965-1967.....	73	92	52	40	87
1977					
Variant A: gross flow of new lending unchanged	121	109	134	97	130
Variant B: new lending increases by 8 per cent per annum.....	77	71	88	60	89

Source: L.B. Pearson et al., *Partners in Development: Report of the Commission on International Development* (London, The Pall Mall Press Limited, 1969), p. 74.

NOTE. Gross lending includes all public and private lending but neither grants nor direct private investment. In both variants of the projection, the composition of new lending was assumed to remain the same as in 1965-1967.

326. With respect to foreign investment, official development assistance has been declining in recent years. That private investment and commercial lending

have risen represents a compensation for only a limited number of countries. The flow of direct private investment is heavily concentrated in extractive industries and in those countries, such as Mexico, which have already demonstrated their capacity for sustained and rapid growth.

327. The Pearson report concluded<sup>129</sup> that foreign exchange constraints had impeded development efforts by preventing the less developed countries from:

- (a) Providing sufficient raw materials to maximize plant utilization;
- (b) Providing sufficient spare parts to maintain machinery;
- (c) Expanding water, power, and transportation facilities on a timely basis;
- (d) Purchasing adequate supplies of fertilizers;
- (e) Financing research facilities of all kinds.

#### **D. The continuing repercussions of changes in international trade**

328. Some of the effects of the changes in the terms of trade on the over-all economic performance of the less developed countries were examined in chapter II. The trade performance of the less developed countries during the past decade is considered here in the context of, and as continually affected by, the trade policies of the more developed countries.

329. The 1960s constituted an exceptionally favourable decade for international trade. The average rate of increase in trade between 1960 and 1969 was over 8 per cent per annum. However, the most dynamic component of this increase was in the trade flow between the more developed countries themselves. The lowering of trade barriers between nations has so far often taken the form of common markets raising new barriers to the outside

<sup>129</sup> L. B. Pearson et al., *op. cit.*, p. 78.

TABLE II.85

## Trade between developing countries and the rest of the world, 1960-1969

Importing region and commodity group	Annual average				Average rate of increase, 1959-1961 to 1967-1969 (percentage per annum)
	1959-1961		1967-1969		
	Millions of dollars <sup>a</sup>	Percentage	Millions of dollars <sup>a</sup>	Percentage	
Centrally planned economies <sup>b</sup> . . .	1 230	6	2 300	7	8.1
Developed market economies <sup>c</sup> . . .	19 460	94	32 670	93	6.7
Foodstuffs <sup>d</sup> . . . . .	6 120	30	8 050	23	3.5
Raw materials <sup>e</sup> . . . . .	5 570	27	6 490	19	2.0
Fuels <sup>f</sup> . . . . .	5 200	25	11 330	32	10.2
Manufactures <sup>g</sup> . . . . .	2 490	12	6 620	19	13.0
TOTAL . . . . .	20 690	100	34 970	100	6.8

Source: *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), p. 137.

<sup>a</sup> Valued f.o.b. at current prices.

<sup>b</sup> China, Eastern Europe, Mongolia, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, and Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam.

<sup>c</sup> North America, Western and southern Europe, Australia, Japan, New Zealand and South Africa.

<sup>d</sup> SITC 0 and 1.

<sup>e</sup> SITC 2 and 4.

<sup>f</sup> SITC 3.

<sup>g</sup> SITC 5-8.

world. Nevertheless, some of the less developed countries which were able to establish a common policy with respect to international markets benefited from the new vigour of growth and trade. For instance, the petroleum exporting countries enjoyed a doubling in the value of their exports between 1960 and 1968. Exports of chemicals also doubled, while exports of manufactures (including textiles and non-ferrous metals) rose by 250 per cent and exports of machinery by 700 per cent. Altogether, the less developed countries' exports of manufactured goods to the developed market economies increased by 13 per cent per annum. By contrast, exports of foodstuffs rose by only 3.5 per cent a year and those of industrial raw materials by only 2 per cent per annum (see table II.85).

330. The terms of trade for the less developed countries, as shown in table II.86, showed greater stability over the period 1960-1968 than they had in the previous decade, but also continued on the whole to decline. The situation, however, varied from one export item to another. At one

extreme were manufactured exports, which registered, by the end of the decade, a gain of about 40 per cent in unit value. Within the same period, foodstuffs also showed an over-all gain (of about 5 per cent in unit value). At the other extreme, raw materials and fuels registered a loss of about 7 per cent. The gains were thus more than offset by the losses, so that the over-all terms of trade for the less developed countries declined by about 3 per cent. Since petroleum crude and products constitute an increasing proportion of the less developed countries' exports to the rest of the world, the terms of trade for the period show only a slight improvement, if fuel exports are excluded from the total. Over the period 1969-1971, the terms of trade were fairly steady, but petroleum prices increased considerably.

331. Table II.87 shows the imports, total and *per capita*, of the developed countries from the developing countries in 1968; imports as percentages of imports from all sources and as percentages of GDP, the annual

TABLE II.86

## Developing countries: export unit value of trade with the developed market economies, 1960-1969

(Average 1951-1961 = 100)

Year	Foodstuffs (SITC 0 and 1)	Raw materials (SITC 2 and 4)	Fuels (SITC 3)	Manufactures (SITC 5-8)	All commodities	Terms of trade with developed market economies	
						Total	Excluding fuels
1960 .....	100	104	99	101	102	101	102
1961 .....	97	98	97	101	98	98	98
1962 .....	94	94	96	101	96	95	95
1963 .....	102	96	96	102	99	97	99
1964 .....	110	98	95	106	102	99	103
1965 .....	104	96	94	117	101	96	100
1966 .....	105	96	93	127	103	97	102
1967 .....	104	92	93	130	102	96	100
1968 .....	101	92	94	130	102	97	101
1969 .....	105	93	93	140	104	97	103

Source: *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), p. 138.

TABLE II.87

## Developed countries: imports from developing countries, 1968

Country <sup>a</sup>	Imports from developing countries in 1968 <sup>b</sup>				1960-1968 average	
	Total (millions of dollars)	Per capita (dollars)	As percentage of		Annual rate of increase in imports <sup>c</sup>	Elasticity of imports relative to gross domestic product <sup>d</sup>
			Imports from all sources	Gross domestic product		
United States of America . . . . .	9 085	45	27.4	1.0	5.1	1.1
Japan . . . . .	5 499	54	42.4	3.9	14.6	1.3
United Kingdom . . . . .	5 382	97	28.4	5.3	2.0	0.7
Germany, Federal Republic of .	4 059	70	20.1	3.1	7.1	1.9
France . . . . .	3 234	65	23.2	2.6	3.9	0.7
Italy . . . . .	2 596	49	25.3	3.5	10.4	1.9
Netherlands . . . . .	1 480	116	15.9	5.9	6.7	1.3
Belgium-Luxembourg . . . . .	1 461	147	17.5	6.8	7.9	1.8
USSR . . . . .	1 060	4	11.6	0.4	9.6	1.4
Canada . . . . .	998	48	8.7	1.6	5.0	1.0
Spain . . . . .	908	28	25.9	3.2	19.0	2.5
Sweden . . . . .	605	76	11.8	2.4	5.9	1.3
Australia . . . . .	514	43	13.3	1.7	2.9	0.6
Switzerland . . . . .	374	61	8.3	2.2	8.9	2.1
South Africa . . . . .	365	19	15.3	3.1	7.0	1.2
Denmark . . . . .	351	72	10.9	2.8	8.2	1.8
Portugal . . . . .	321	34	27.3	6.4	9.7	1.6
China <sup>e</sup> . . . . .	300	—	12.7	..	1.3	..
Norway . . . . .	260	68	9.6	2.9	7.9	1.5
Czechoslovakia . . . . .	204	14	6.6	0.8	1.1	0.5
Poland . . . . .	190	6	6.7	0.5	8.1	1.2
German Democratic Republic .	166	10	4.9	1.2	7.1	1.9
Austria . . . . .	157	21	6.3	1.4	5.4	1.3
Greece . . . . .	155	18	11.1	2.1	11.0	1.5
Yugoslavia . . . . .	154	8	8.6	1.7	6.1	1.1
Ireland . . . . .	126	43	10.7	4.3	5.1	1.3
New Zealand . . . . .	125	46	14.0	2.5	4.7	1.3
Finland . . . . .	110	24	6.9	1.4	6.9	1.6
Hungary . . . . .	102	10	5.7	0.9	13.5	2.4
Bulgaria . . . . .	87	10	4.9	1.0	25.0	3.2
Turkey . . . . .	69	2	9.0	0.6	9.8	2.2
Romania . . . . .	65	3	4.0	0.4	12.1	1.3
Iceland . . . . .	5	25	3.7	1.2	4.1	1.1
Albania . . . . .	1	—	4.3	..	4.9	..
Total or average:						
Developed market economies, added . . . . .	38 393	52	22.3	2.2	6.5	1.2
F.o.b. . . . .	32 670	44	19.7	1.9	6.5	1.2
Eastern Europe and USSR, f.o.b. . . . .	1 920	6	8.3	0.5	10.6	1.6

Source: *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), p. 140.

<sup>a</sup> Listed in descending order of value of imports in 1968.

<sup>b</sup> Valued c.i.f. current prices except in the case of Canada, the United States of America and the centrally planned economies, whose imports are valued f.o.b. For the basis of GDP estimates of the centrally planned economies, see table A.1 of the statistical annex to the *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970*.

<sup>c</sup> Compound rate of growth between terminal years, current dollars.

<sup>d</sup> Ratio of average annual rate of increase in imports to average annual rate of increase in GDP, both measured at 1960 prices.

<sup>e</sup> Including Democratic People's Republic of Korea and Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam.

<sup>f</sup> These figures include a small amount of trade with developing countries that could not be allocated to specific partner countries.

rate of increase of such imports over the period 1960-1968 and its elasticity relative to the rise in GDP. The figures for total imports do not bring out the appreciable change in the relative importance of the major importing countries, notably the much greater share of Japan and the gradually diminishing share of the United Kingdom. However, in the present context, the main concern is the performance of the more developed countries in assisting the less developed world by trade and the provision of badly needed foreign exchange. Table II.87 provides useful indices for meas-

uring the trade contribution. It may be noted in particular that Japan, Italy, Spain, Greece, Hungary, Bulgaria and Romania all showed an average annual rate of increase of imports from the developing countries of more than 10 per cent over the period.

332. Government policies in the more developed countries directly affect the flow of imports from the less developed countries. Countries with centrally planned economies, by the very nature of their system, have to

control the level and composition of their foreign trade to ensure that they fit into the pattern of domestic production. As the *World Economic Survey 1969-1970* noted:

In the period 1966-1968, over 80 per cent of the trade between the centrally planned economies and the developing countries was conducted in terms of agreements with specific targets. In 1968, long-term agreements accounted for over 80 per cent of the trade of Czechoslovakia, Poland and the Soviet Union with the developing countries with which they had commercial arrangements. By the end of the decade, Poland had fifteen long-term agreements governing trade with the developing countries, Hungary twelve, and Bulgaria ten; and most of them were broadly co-ordinated with national economic plans.<sup>130</sup>

333. In many of the developed market economies, planned production measures have tended to evolve in the nationalized industries and in the agricultural sector as a concomitant of efforts to sustain farm incomes. These have tended to increase the domestic production of commodities, for example, sugar, rice and even vegetable oils that would otherwise be imported from the less developed countries.

334. In trade policy, the *Survey* concludes, the 1960s were characterized by a liberalizing trend. The main effects of this, however, were felt primarily in the trade relations among the industrialized countries. The less developed countries were less affected, in part because the principal flow of direct investment (and the consequential exports) was between the more advanced countries, and in part because a high proportion of the commodities exported by the less developed countries continued to be subject to special constraints designed to protect particularly vulnerable groups in the developed market economies—farmers and some of the older, more labour-intensive industries.<sup>131</sup>

#### E. The continuing drain of highly trained manpower

335. Another source of weakness of the less developed countries in their international relations, as already noted, lies in what has come to be known as the phenomenon of the "brain drain". This weakness is also, as in trade, structural in nature. The educational systems of the less developed countries have often been adopted from Western systems, which have themselves evolved to suit the particular conditions of Western development. Very often, therefore, the educational systems of the less developed countries are unwittingly developing skills that are more suited to the demands of a developed market economy than to their own more mundane needs. Physicians, engineers, and even lawyers and social scientists are trained in disciplinary abstractions and highly specialized fields, developed out of the needs of a more advanced state of science and technology, that tend to be irrelevant to the more concrete and immediate needs of a less developed economy and society. That is one of the reasons why such highly trained individuals, frustrated in the pursuit of their own professions, turn either to politics or to emigration for a more satisfactory life.

336. For those individuals who have also studied abroad, the problems are compounded by a greater disjunction between their own specialized studies and the

manpower needs of their country, as well as by the formidable problems of cultural readjustment. Frustration at home is often reinforced by the attractions of a higher standard of material and cultural life in the more advanced countries. The combination of these circumstances, plus the immigration policies of the more developed countries favouring the absorption of highly trained people, has led to a continuing process of loss of the most vital resources of the less developed countries, i.e. their skilled personnel. This problem is also one that is not expected to be less pressing in the future.

337. As the educational system begins to turn out larger numbers of graduates with professional and associated skills, imbalances are also emerging in many of the less developed countries between the supply of certain types of labour and the opportunities for appropriate employment open to them. The more enterprising and skilled among those graduates therefore tend to look to the international employment market in highly trained manpower, while the less adventurous tend to be absorbed by the already overloaded government bureaucracies. Political agitation by the "unemployed intellectuals" may be thus somewhat mitigated but the cause of development is not necessarily served.

338. This aspect of the external environment has proved most difficult for the less developed countries to deal with, because at the core of the problem there is a cleavage between private and public interest. From the point of view of individual rights, it would not be advisable for the more developed countries to reduce their offers of training to the nationals of the less developed countries, or make their research facilities less accessible, or set up legal barriers to the employment of such nationals. These would be courses of action clearly detrimental to the individuals concerned and of doubtful benefit to the countries from which they come.

339. While both the more and the less developed countries have become more sensitive to this problem, adopting measures that have generally tightened the rules under which nationals of the latter receive training abroad and have made it more difficult for them not to return home when training is complete, the general drift of legislation governing immigration has been to favour quality over quantity. As has been noted in the *World Economic Survey*:

Increased emphasis has been placed on the skill and employability of the would-be immigrant. The effects of this can be seen most clearly from the immigration into the United States of America, which is not only one of the strongest magnets influencing the international movement of skill but also a country that changed its immigration law in the middle of the 1960s, eliminating national origin as the main criterion for admission and elevating personal qualifications. Though the 1965 Immigration and Nationality Act set a limit of 170 000 on the number of persons who might be admitted from the developing countries, there was a steep rise in the immigration of "professional, technical and kindred workers"; their numbers rose from about 29 000 in 1963/64 to about 49 000 in 1967/68, half the increase coming from the developing countries of Asia. The number of skilled immigrants from Asia rose from less than 3 000 in 1963/64 to over 13 000 in 1967/68. There was also a doubling (to 1 000) in the number coming from Africa . . .

There was similar influx of trained personnel into Canada, where the immigration law was changed in 1967. The number coming from developing countries more than doubled between 1965 and 1968 (to reach 14 600), while the number skilled in agriculture, biology, engineering and medicine trebled (to reach 33 000). . . . Though it cannot be statistically documented, there was also a sizable movement of skilled workers to some of the countries of Western Europe.

<sup>130</sup> *World Economic Survey 1969-1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71/II.C.1), pp. 153 and 154.

<sup>131</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 156.



notably the United Kingdom but also the Federal Republic of Germany, France and the Netherlands. The movement of professionals from developing countries to Australia was also facilitated by changes in the immigration law in 1966.<sup>132</sup>

340. The less developed countries suffer two main losses from this kind of emigration: the investment they have made in the training of the individuals involved, and the "multiplier effects" the presence of the individuals concerned might have had in creating more knowledge, training, enterprise, employment, and a general atmosphere more conducive to development. These losses are somewhat offset by the migrants' remittances sent back home, as well as by a number of other less tangible political or cultural benefits.

341. The problem is thus not a simple one which lends itself to a panacea. Nor is it a new one. As Howard J. Caquelin has pointed out, "only the centres of attraction have changed from ancient Takahasila in India to the Middle East to Renaissance Europe, and, more recently to the United States . . . the drained have always complained. Sometimes they have stopped complaining long enough to take positive steps to attract their departing scholars".<sup>133</sup>

342. In this respect, as in many others, the onus of responsibility should therefore be placed ultimately on the less developed countries themselves. In the short run, the less developed countries must recognize that all losses are not equally harmful to their development prospects. Some of the highly trained and specialized "drainees" could not possibly be absorbed in the national economies of these countries with their relatively less developed state of science and technology. A first-rate nuclear physicist, space engineer, heart surgeon, or social scientist could perhaps be of more productive use where his knowledge and expertise contribute to the development of the frontiers of world science and technology. Another group of emigrants who, because of their low level of education and skills, cannot be employed in the domestic economy are also better left to seek their fortunes elsewhere. There is, however, a large middle group between these two extremes which should be of vital concern. These are the physicians, engineers, and scientists who could fill a whole range of vital positions in the existing manpower gaps of the country and who, because of the lack of appropriate policies, are lost to the country. Sufficient material and cultural incentives must be created to regain and retain these professional specialists.

343. The causes of the "brain drain" are perhaps as diverse as there are countries and individual "drainees". But, as Philip H. Coombs has pointed out:

There is good reason to suspect . . . that wide differences in income levels and in cultural and professional opportunities have had an important bearing. Lack of relevant job opportunities and unattractive political conditions at home have also been cited by many foreign students as reasons for not returning. It seems evident too that students who leave home at an early age and remain away for a long time are more likely to become alienated from their homeland than more mature people who have deeper roots, come for a shorter period and arrive with more specific educational and career goals. Similarly, it appears that students sponsored under carefully designed and well-administered programs—whether public or private—are more likely to return home on schedule and to find

relevant employment there than the motley array of self-sponsored students who somehow get abroad on their own.<sup>134</sup>

344. Hypotheses such as the above, if proved correct in the case of the individual countries or persons, carry obvious short-run policy implications. In the long run, however, the general and main cause of the "brain drain" lies in the lack of appropriate linkages between the educational system and the developing manpower needs of a country. In the case of the less developed countries, the educational systems must be thoroughly reformed to suit those countries' more practical and immediate needs. The less developed countries often need, for instance, a whole array of middle-range, and even below middle-range, medical specialists, nurses, and technicians, in addition to highly specialized physicians and engineers. The physicians and engineers often leave partly because they find more attractive positions abroad and partly because they are obliged to perform duties which a less well trained specialist could have discharged. Academic over-specialization is often as much a cause of manpower waste as under-specialization.

345. A breakdown of traditional social structures, greater social mobility, and an employment policy based on merit rather than family and social ties would help in the long run to solve these problems.

#### **F. The need for concerted international action on poverty**

346. It was out of a feeling of a moral responsibility and a desire to improve the lot of the less developed countries that at the beginning of the 1960s, the economically advanced countries undertook to try to provide financial resources to the developing countries equal each year to 1 per cent of their combined national income (see General Assembly resolution 1522 (XV) of 15 December 1960). As the *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970* noted, this undertaking was made somewhat more definite in 1964 at the first session of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, when "financial resources" were defined in terms of specific flows in the conventional balance-of-payment accounts and made applicable to each of the more advanced countries separately. It was further refined at the second session of the Conference in 1968, by bringing into the undertaking the specific national accounts aggregate GNP in place of the term "national income" that had been used in the original resolution. The undertaking has never been made statistically definitive by a specification of the destinations of the transfer regarded as eligible for inclusion in the total.<sup>135</sup>

347. The *Survey* contains a detailed appraisal of the transfer of resources over the ensuing years. Table II.88 reproduced from that work, gives the net transfer of resources from major developed market economies and multilateral sources to the less developed countries over the period 1962-1969. While the net transfer is reported to have grown in monetary terms from \$8 118 million in 1962 to \$13 348 million in 1969, it has fallen conspicuously below the target figure of 1 per cent and may even, it has been suggested, have declined in real terms.

348. The transfer of resources from the developed market economies to the less developed countries takes

<sup>132</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 172 and 173.

<sup>133</sup> H. W. Singer *et al.*, *International Development, 1966* (Dobbs Ferry, N.Y., Oceana Publications, 1967), p. 55.

<sup>134</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 60 and 61.

<sup>135</sup> *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970* . . . , p. 161.

TABLE II.88

Net transfer of resources to less developed countries from major market economies and multilateral agencies,<sup>a</sup> 1962–1969  
(Millions of dollars)

Item <sup>b</sup>	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969 <sup>c</sup>
Direct investment .....	1 510	1 611	1 793	2 500	2 210	2 122	2 918	2 615
Private .....	1 495	1 603	1 783	2 489	2 185	2 103	2 899	2 566
Multilateral .....	15	8	10	11	25	19	19	49
Private export credits .....	572	660	860	750	1 124	1 006	1 579	2 040
Reparations .....	157	140	126	141	71	95	54	47
Food aid .....	1 276	1 478	1 527	1 334	1 334	1 169	1 117	1 179
Bilateral .....	1 256	1 455	1 494	1 302	1 280	1 115	1 050	1 100
Multilateral <sup>d</sup> .....	20	23	33	32	54	54	67	79
Technical assistance .....	829	973	1 073	1 186	1 389	1 489	1 654	1 714
Bilateral .....	748	873	951	1 053	1 235	1 330	1 462	1 528
Multilateral <sup>e</sup> .....	81	100	122	133	154	159	192	186
Other transfers <sup>f</sup> .....	3 774	4 056	3 949	4 684	4 610	5 480	5 393	3 753
Grants .....	2 423	2 136	1 857	1 909	1 932	1 881	1 645	1 491
Bilateral .....	2 325	2 019	1 734	1 766	1 775	1 726	1 479	1 316
Multilateral <sup>g</sup> .....	98	117	123	143	157	155	166	175
Loans .....	1 351	1 920	2 092	2 775	2 678	3 599	3 748	4 262
Private bilateral .....	147	327	416	687	502	809	880	1 260
Official bilateral .....	1 022	1 224	1 221	1 528	1 629	2 082	2 427	2 302
Multilateral <sup>h</sup> .....	182	369	455	560	547	708	441	700
Total, above .....	8 118	8 918	9 328	10 595	10 738	11 361	12 715	13 348

Source: *World Economic Survey, 1969–1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), p. 164.

<sup>a</sup> Less developed countries comprise the developing countries plus Cyprus, Greece, Malta, Spain, Turkey and Yugoslavia.

Major market economies are the members of the Development Assistance Committee of OECD, namely, Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany, France, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States of America.

Multilateral agencies comprise AfDB, AsDB, EDF, EIB, IBRD, IDA, IDB, IFC, UNDP, UNFC, UNHCR, UNICEF, UNRWA and WFP.

<sup>b</sup> All figures are net of repayment or repatriation of principal, disinvestment, retirement; they are not net of reverse flows of capital originating with residents of

developing countries or of investment income. In the case of multi-lateral institutions, the disbursement of loans or grants are net of subscriptions or contributions of less developed countries to the agencies, plus the increase or decrease of financial resources of these countries arising from transactions with IBRD and IDB concerning the funded debt instruments and sales of loan participations.

<sup>c</sup> Preliminary, partly estimated.

<sup>d</sup> WFP, UNHCR and UNWRA.

<sup>e</sup> IBRD, UNDP and the United Nations regular programme of technical assistance.

<sup>f</sup> Tied and untied, other than for food or technical assistance.

<sup>g</sup> UNRWA, EDF, UNICEF, including a small loan component from EDF and a small food component from UNICEF.

<sup>h</sup> IBRD, IDA, IDB, EIB, AfDB and AsDB.

a number of forms: direct investment (private and multi-lateral), private export credits, reparations, food aid (bilateral and multi-lateral), technical assistance (bilateral and multi-lateral), grants (bilateral and multi-lateral), loans (private, official bilateral, and multi-lateral). As can be seen from table II.88, the grant element in the total, given in the forms of outright grants, food aid and technical assistance, declined sharply in the 1960s. Food aid had tended to diminish since reaching a peak in 1964; by the end of the 1960s food aid constituted only about 9 per cent of the total reaching the less developed countries from the developed market economies and multilateral agencies, compared with 16 per cent in the early years of the decade. Technical assistance, however, has become steadily more important, rising from about 10 per cent of the total flow to about 13 per cent. Grants, often given as relief or budget support, declined sharply during the 1960s: they constituted over a fourth of the total at the beginning of the decade but less than an eighth at the end. Private flows have tended to increase but these are a mixed bag, as will be explained below.

349. As Myrdal has noted,<sup>136</sup> loans have been increasingly substituted for grants and transfers have increasingly been tied to exports from donor countries, thus restricting freedom of choice and often considerably raising costs. The figures, as published by OECD are

<sup>136</sup> G. Myrdal, "The world poverty problem", *Britannica Book of the Year, 1972* (Chicago, Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc., 1972), pp. 33 and 34.

uncritically based on those supplied by the donor countries and do not take account of rising prices. The private flows range from direct investments to short-term and often expensive export credits. Moreover, many investments go into the extraction of oil and minerals in brisk demand. Profits, interest payments, etc., and the capital sent out by residents in the less developed countries are not included in the figures, which do not, particularly in Latin America, give a true picture of what is actually happening in the financial field.

350. Table II.89 gives the transfer by country. In general, aid seems to follow trade. Countries whose trade flows increased during the decade also increased their share of aid. The Federal Republic of Germany, Japan and Italy nearly doubled their relative contribution to the total, from 15 per cent to 27 per cent. This brought the Federal Republic of Germany into second position as a source of aid in 1969, and Japan into fourth place. By contrast, the United States contribution had declined to below 40 per cent of the total. The outflow from France and the United Kingdom lagged even more, and their share declined by about a fourth to 13 per cent and 7 per cent, respectively, of the developed market economy total.

351. Relative to production, there was also a definite downward trend in the net outflow of resources. Here again, evidence shows that aid follows trade. Japan, the Federal Republic of Germany and Italy, as well as a number of other countries—Australia, Canada, Sweden, Austria, Denmark, and Norway—showed a clear upward

TABLE II.89

## Developed market economies: resource transfer performance, 1961-1969

Country <sup>a</sup>	Average annual net outflow, 1961-1968		Average annual net outflow				Average annual rate of increase in real outflow <sup>c</sup> (percentage)	Elasticity of outflow (relative to gross national product)	Share of total		Share of official flow			
	Total (millions of dollars)	Official	As percentage of GNP			Per capita, <sup>b</sup> 1961-1968			1961-1962	1968-1969	1961-1962	1968-1969	1961-1962	1968-1969
			1961-1962	1968-1969	1961-1968									
United States of America . . . . .	4 690	3 315	0.73	0.55	0.69	24.1	3.2	0.6	50.0	39.5	55.9	48.7		
France . . . . .	1 301	847	1.96	1.16	1.45	26.7	1.6	0.3	16.5	13.0	17.6	13.0		
Germany, Federal Republic of	805	465	0.81	1.15	0.74	14.2	7.9	1.8	8.5	13.0	9.1	7.0		
United Kingdom . . . . .	794	438	0.98	0.81	0.85	14.6	-3.0	-1.0	9.5	6.9	7.6	5.9		
Japan . . . . .	458	311	0.47	0.70	0.49	4.7	19.8	1.9	3.2	8.7	2.5	9.6		
Italy . . . . .	310	69	0.62	0.80	0.55	6.0	9.7	1.9	3.1	5.1	0.8	1.7		
Netherlands . . . . .	187	84	1.27	1.14	1.04	15.2	2.8	0.5	2.0	2.5	1.3	2.0		
Canada . . . . .	183	137	0.26	0.50	0.37	9.3	1.5	2.8	1.2	2.7	1.1	3.6		
Belgium . . . . .	169	90	1.11	1.02	1.04	17.9	2.8	0.6	1.7	1.8	1.5	1.7		
Switzerland . . . . .	154	8	1.77	0.83	1.17	25.9	2.4	0.6	2.2	1.2	0.2	0.3		
Australia . . . . .	138	125	0.48	0.84	0.63	12.1	9.3	1.8	1.0	2.0	1.5	2.8		
Sweden . . . . .	74	40	0.26	0.67	0.37	9.6	11.1	2.6	0.5	1.3	0.2	1.4		
Portugal . . . . .	44	35	1.52	1.23	1.24	4.8	2.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.7		
Austria . . . . .	29	16	0.11	0.52	0.29	4.0	20.6	5.2	0.1	0.5	-0.1	0.4		
Denmark . . . . .	26	15	0.18	0.77	0.25	5.5	6.9	1.6	0.2	0.9	0.1	0.7		
Norway . . . . .	24	11	0.16	0.74	0.31	6.4	10.0	2.0	0.1	0.6	0.1	0.5		
Total or average . . . . .	9 401	6 006	0.81	0.72	0.73	15.8	4.3	0.8	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		

Source: *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), p. 165.

<sup>a</sup> Countries are listed in descending order of average annual total net outflow of resources 1961-1968.

<sup>b</sup> Relative to mid-1965 population.

<sup>c</sup> The average of year-to-year changes with the higher of each pair of figures as denominator, deflated in each case by the annual average increase in the country's export unit value.

trend in their ratios of resource transfer to GNP. But the only countries that fulfilled the goal of the first United Nations Development Decade by reaching a net outflow of resources in excess of 1 per cent of GNP in 1968/69 were Belgium, France, the Netherlands, Portugal and the Federal Republic of Germany.<sup>137</sup>

<sup>137</sup> One of these countries was transferring resources to its dependent territories.

352. Table II.90 shows the situation with respect to the centrally planned economies. The performance of these countries has been increasingly better than in the past, but the size of their total transfer falls well below the United Nations target of 1 per cent of GNP. Here also, aid substantially follows trade, through the extension of credit. However, except in the case of Bulgaria, the trade surplus increased faster during the decade than credit commitments.

TABLE II.90

Centrally planned economies: commitments of bilateral economic assistance to the developing countries<sup>a</sup>  
(Millions of dollars)<sup>b</sup>

	Total			Annual average			1966-1970	
	1954-1960	1961-1965	1966-1970	1954-1960	1961-1965	Total	Per capita <sup>c</sup> (dollars)	As percentage of gross domestic product <sup>d</sup>
Total commitments.....	3 133	3 571	5 139	448	714	1 028	0.95	..
Centrally planned economies in								
Europe, total.....	2 933	2 936	4 396	419	587	879	2.59	0.21
Bulgaria.....	—	40	199	—	8	40	4.78	0.46
Czechoslovakia.....	321	328	562	46	65	112	7.80	0.47
German Democratic Republic.....	62	249	498	9	50	100	6.25	0.34
Hungary.....	40	177	237	6	35	47	4.58	0.40
Poland.....	116	300	138	17	60	28	0.87	0.07
Romania.....	12	173	201	2	35	40	2.03	0.24
USSR.....	2 382	1 669	2 561	340	334	512	2.15	0.17
China.....	200	635	743	29	127	149	0.20	..

Source: *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.C.1), p. 169.

<sup>a</sup> These data differ from those presented in earlier versions of this table. The changes reflect revisions of both totals and year-by-year distribution; they have been made in the light of the latest available information. Credits provided to Cuba and Turkey are not included.

<sup>b</sup> National currencies converted into dollars at official rates of exchange.

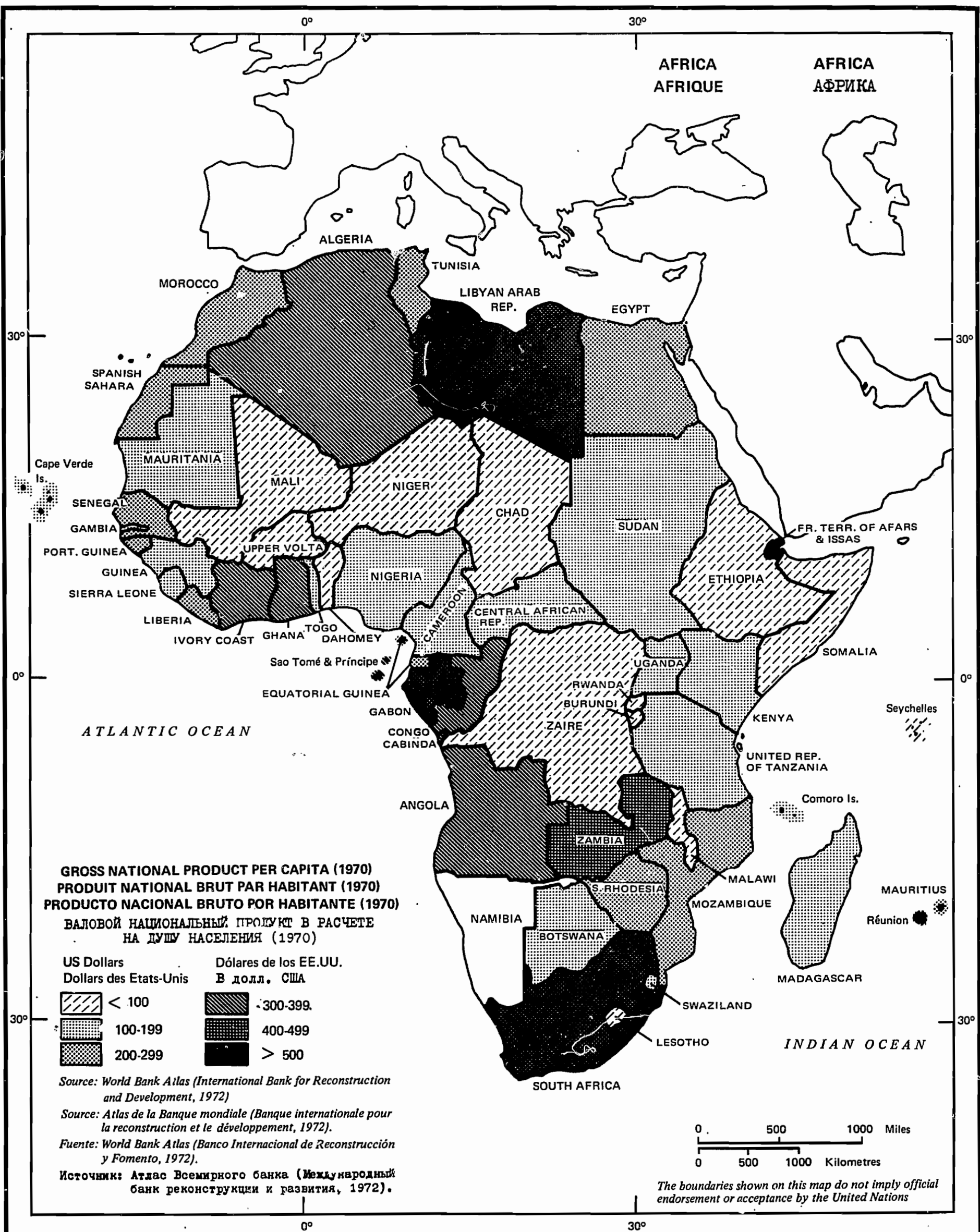
<sup>c</sup> On the basis of estimated mid-1968 population.

<sup>d</sup> On the basis of the 1968 gross domestic product estimates cited in table A.1 in the statistical annex in the *World Economic Survey, 1969-1970*.

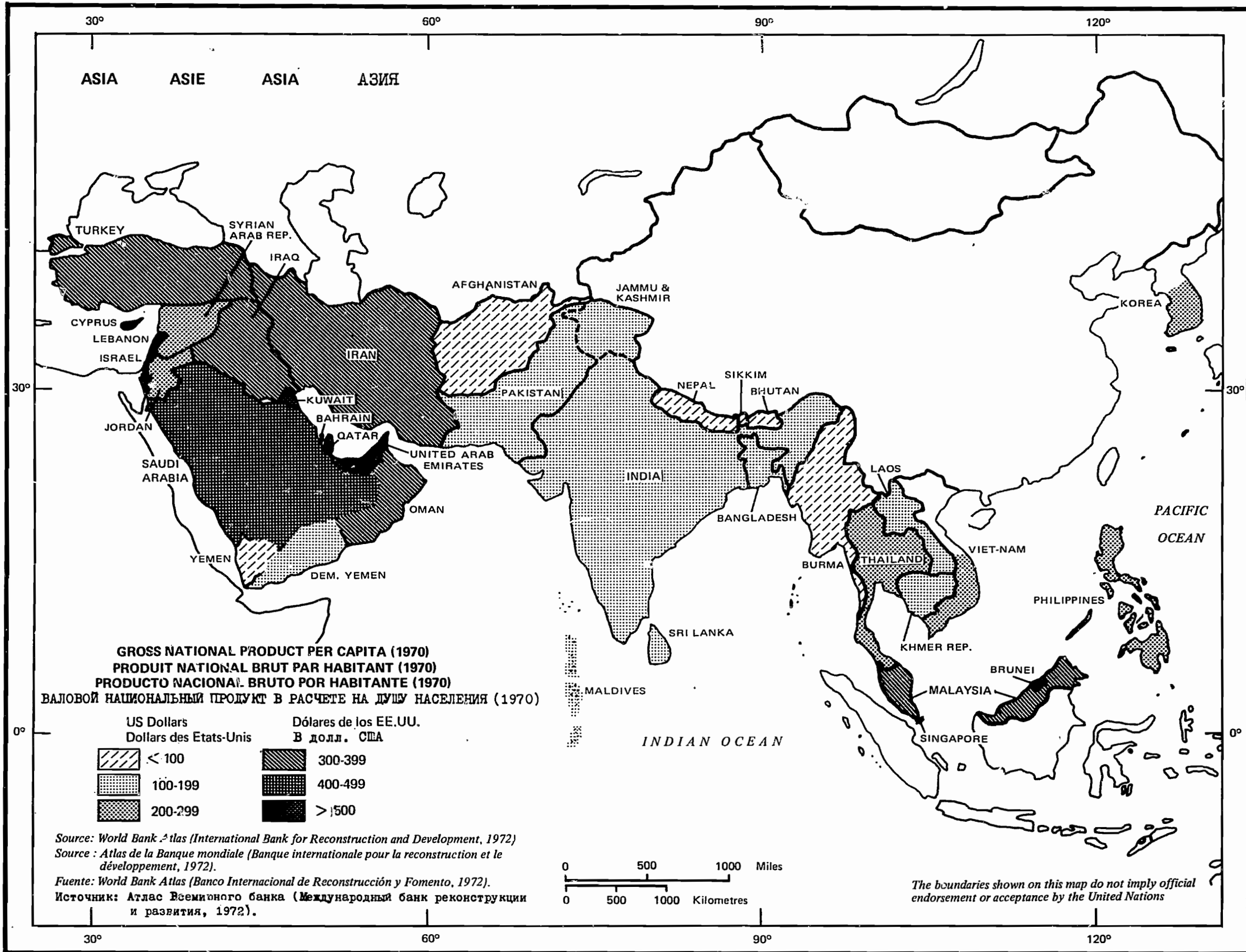
## MAPS

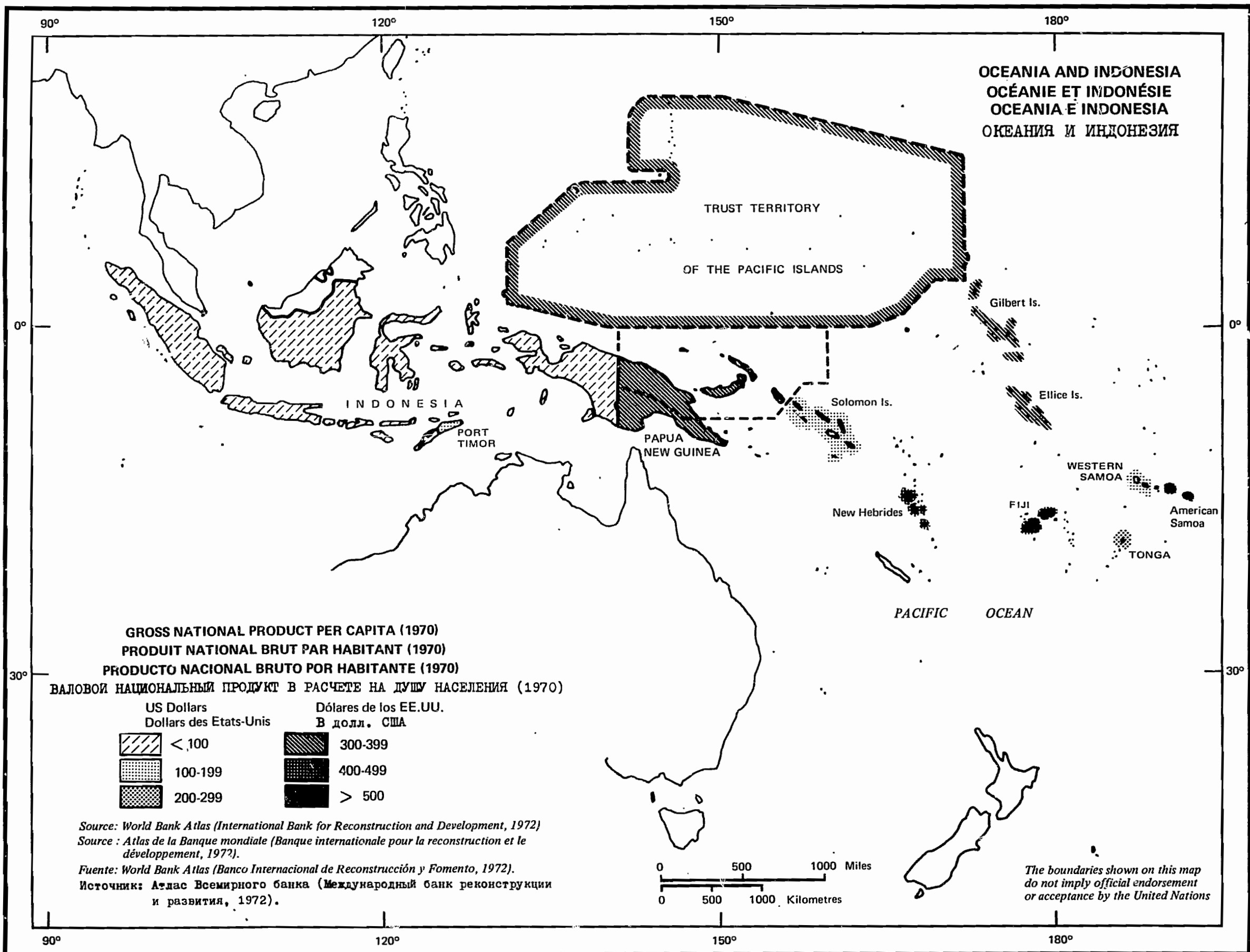
The following four maps have been prepared in order to show the GNP *per capita* in selected countries in Africa, Central and South America, Asia, Oceania and Indonesia. Table II.80 shows the GNP *per capita* for all countries with a population of over one million.















## **Part Three**

### **THE SOCIALIST COUNTRIES OF EASTERN EUROPE\***

---

\* This part of the study deals with conditions in all the socialist countries of eastern Europe, except Albania. Albania and socialist countries elsewhere in the world have been omitted from this study, because sufficient information on them was not available from the United Nations, the specialized agencies or other statistical sources.



## INTRODUCTION

1. In old-established nation States where social evolution has proceeded without abrupt change, governmental responsibility for the rights of individual citizens has emerged gradually in the wake of humanitarian philosophies and sporadic acts of self-assertion on the part of social or occupational groups. It has come into being in the main through a piecemeal grafting of safeguards and new commitments on to a pre-existing stratum of governmental functions inherited from the past. Younger nation States and those liberated by a radical breaking away from a rejected past have generally regarded this responsibility as the basic condition which legitimized their existence and from which all their other functions should be seen to derive.

2. Though it may have been recognized that not all the rights aspired to could be implemented at every point in time without prejudicing the economic advance essential to their permanent entrenchment, it was still thought desirable to proclaim them publicly as an act of faith and dedication, rather than leave them undefined. To the extent that material and economic progress rendered their attainment possible, the proclamations took on the character of firm guarantees.

3. The scope of the individual rights so covered, at first confined to personal and political freedoms, has reached its maximum in the case of the socialist countries, where it covers economic, social and cultural rights with the same explicitness as those in the moral and political sphere and where the great majority of these, as was observed in part one, are embodied in the fundamental laws of the nation.

4. Accordingly, the main sources for a listing and definition of the individual rights for which socialist Governments claim responsibility are their written constitutions and derivative instruments (law codes, labour codes, model charters etc.). In addition, however, socialist States, by their very nature, accept responsibility for the planning, administration, and management of their economies and do so with the declared intention of safeguarding these rights to the fullest extent compatible with the advance towards communism. Accordingly, a second source, bearing mainly on the question of implementation, confuses the economic plans and current ordinances of the socialist States and the official reports on their fulfilment. Finally, however, an exhaustive investigation must also deal with

information on obstacles, failures in implementation, infirmity of purpose or perversion of aims which socialist communities, in common with all human societies, experience as impediments or threats to the exercise of individual rights. The source material for this information is inevitably dispersed. Reliance must be placed primarily on disclosures, complaints and case studies publicized in the affected countries themselves, but critical reports, comparative studies and even speculation by outside observers may sometimes be acceptable in supplementation, provided they can be linked to scholarly research in the interests of truth.

5. Historically, the majority of socialist States have had to base their economies on inherited levels of attainment which were lower than those of the most developed countries of the day. They therefore rightly stress the importance of comparative growth rates, as well as comparative levels of attainment, as proper measures for their achievements. To the extent that interest focuses on current realization, however, the survey must insist on comparative levels, even though these are not documented as fully or incontrovertibly as rates of progress over periods of time. None the less, growth rates remain important, both for their intrinsic contribution to the welfare of man as a forward-looking being and as a measure of achievement in relation to economic potential.

6. The relative significance of growth comparisons and comparisons of current levels should, however, vary as between one class of human rights and another. High levels in the fulfilment of some rights may be a precondition for high growth rates in the fulfilment of all, while prematurely high levels in the fulfilment of others may be injurious to growth all round. In the survey, an attempt will be made to vary emphasis accordingly and avoid attributing undue importance to either growth rates or comparative levels.

7. As the first pioneer in the building of a socialist State, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics has naturally served as a model for many countries whose socialist statehood is of more recent origin. This part of the study, therefore, will need to place much emphasis on developments and conditions in that country. There are, however, significant departures from the model in certain socialist States, whose record therefore warrants separate consideration.



## Chapter I

### THE RIGHT TO WORK

#### A. Labour and the planned economy

8. The prevailing employment concept in socialist countries derives from the Marxian vision of a transformed society from which unemployment is banned forever, not merely because it devalues the human person but also because it implies a reserve army of labour pressing upon the living standards of those in employment through competition for jobs. Socialist States therefore go beyond the proclamation of the right of citizens to work and insist that this right be formally guaranteed at all times. This guarantee is to be honoured by the exertion of sufficient and steady demand on productive resources through state economic planning for consumption, investment and defence.

9. In most European socialist countries, economic planning, with varying degrees of centralization, has indeed been the corner-stone of full employment policies, and lapses from full employment—to the extent that they have occurred—must be ascribed to structural imbalances and planning errors rather than over-all deficiencies in demand.

10. A partial exception to this is Yugoslavia, where nation-wide planning is no longer the prime mover of the economy and where the principles of self-management and production for the market have been accorded precedence over those of over-all direction. Here unemployment is recognized as a fact of economic life, its extent is subject to regular statistical reporting and unemployment benefits are an integral part of social legislation. The unemployment situation is also relieved by temporary or permanent contracts for work abroad.

11. In Yugoslavia, the number of “applicants for work and placement” reported by the Federal Employment Bureau was given as 26 600 in 1953. It then rose rapidly to a peak of 174 000 in the 1950s (1958) and, after receding somewhat in the early 1960s, to a new peak of 327 000 in 1968, after which a decline to 290 000 was recorded in 1971. The average number during the 1960s was 262 000, of which 124 000 were women and 108 000 new entrants to the labour force.<sup>1</sup>

12. The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics recorded the following unemployment figures, based on labour exchange returns, for a number of early years:

	1 April	1 October
1928 .....	1 276 000	1 365 000
1929 .....	1 741 000	1 242 000
1930 .....	1 081 000	240 000

The source then goes on to state that unemployment was completely liquidated in 1931.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Yugoslavia, *Statistički Godišnjak SFRJ 1953* [Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia, 1953] (Belgrade, 1953), p. 114; *ibid.*, 1966, p. 107; and *Statistički Godišnjak Jugoslavije 1972*, p. 99.

<sup>2</sup> *Trud v SSSR* [Labour in the USSR] (Moscow, 1968), p. 23.

13. No other socialist country of eastern Europe records unemployment figures in its regular statistics, in conformity with official statements that unemployment does not exist.<sup>3</sup>

14. In support of these statements, the countries concerned can produce employment records in the vanguard of world experience as far as the level and growth of participation rates are concerned (proportion of men and women employed). Table III.1 shows that in all cases employment (other than participating membership of producer co-operatives and collective farms) has grown considerably faster than population and that in all countries except Yugoslavia the participation rate of women in the labour force is swiftly approaching that of men.

15. It should be noted, however, that the figures include the effects of the fast absorption into the wage-paying sectors of workers previously occupied outside them, e.g. in co-operative or private agriculture.

16. In the early stages of socialist planning, one of the most important objectives of government was the transformation of largely agricultural into industrial societies, with the attendant transfer of rural manpower to the towns. Only Czechoslovakia and the German Democratic Republic were partial exceptions to this, as industrialization in these countries was already well advanced when socialist planning began.

17. The speed of industrialization in eastern Europe, compared with developments in certain Western countries, may be gauged from table III.2.

18. Such rapid developments demanded a massive build-up of industrial fixed capital. Hence there was little doubt concerning the main direction in which the economy was to move. The planned exertion of demand on productive resources could take the form of industrial investment for the equipment of new industries, themselves largely geared to the production of further industrial capital.

19. In these conditions, full employment presented few problems. (This is not to say that legislation did not specifically concern itself with the right to work. Indeed, in the USSR, the first Labour Code, promulgated as early as 10 December 1918, gave specific guarantees regarding this right. So did the subsequent Labour Codes of 1922 and 1972.) In fact, during the early five-year plans in the USSR the ambitious output targets for industry, construction and transport frequently resulted in competitive bidding

<sup>3</sup> Poland reported a monthly average of 60 900 persons (0.6 per cent of total employment) on the books of employment exchanges in 1966, with a corresponding total of 61 900 (0.58 per cent of employment) in 1969. These figures, however, must be set against average monthly vacancies of 125 400 and 111 400 in the two years respectively. See *Yearbook on Human Rights for 1966*, (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.69.XIV.1), p. 297; and E/CN.4/1023/Add.1, annex A, p. 10.

TABLE III.1  
Socialist countries of eastern Europe: growth of employment

	Year	Population <sup>a</sup> (annual average)		Employment <sup>b</sup> (at year end)			Approximate percentage employed <sup>c</sup>	
		Total (thousands)	Women (thousands)	Total (thousands)	Women		Total (%)	Women (%)
					(thousands)	(% of total)		
Bulgaria .....	1950	7 520	3 626	..	..	..	..	..
	1960	7 867	3 940	1 780	572	32.1	23	14
	1970	8 490	4 246	2 761	1 172	42.5	32	28
Czechoslovakia .....	1950	13 093	6 715	4 300	1 584	36.9	33	24
	1960	13 654	6 992	4 972	1 978	39.8	36	28
	1970	14 334	7 350	6 182	2 826	45.7	43	38
German Democratic Republic...	1950	18 388	10 227	3 231	1 054	32.6	18	10
	1960	17 241	9 480	5 438	2 514	44.4	32	26
	1970	17 058 <sup>d</sup>	9 207 <sup>d</sup>	6 025	2 928	48.6	35	32
Hungary .....	1950	9 338	4 844	1 510	380	24.2	16	8
	1960	9 984	5 168	2 822	917	32.5	28	18
	1970	10 239	5 332	3 558	1 523	42.8	34	29
Poland .....	1950	24 824	12 994	4 914	1 502	30.6	20	12
	1960	29 561	15 260	7 184	2 377	33.1	24	16
	1970	32 473	16 696	9 744	3 870	39.7	30	23
Romania .....	1950	15 873 <sup>e</sup>	8 201 <sup>e</sup>	2 123 <sup>f</sup>	..	..	..	..
	1960	18 407	9 424	3 229	870	26.9	18	9
	1970	20 250	10 307	5 037	1 523	30.2	25	15
USSR .....	1940	194 100 <sup>g</sup>	101 100 <sup>g</sup>	33 926 <sup>h</sup>	11 978 <sup>i</sup>	30	18	12
	1950	180 075	100 931	40 420	19 180	47	22	19
	1960	214 329	117 344	62 032	29 250	47	29	25
	1970	242 768	130 814	90 200	45 700	51	37	35
Yugoslavia <sup>j</sup> .....	1948	15 772	8 190	..	..	..	..	..
	1961	18 549	9 506	3 170 <sup>k</sup>	..	..	17 <sup>k</sup>	..
	1971	20 504	10 414	3 994 <sup>k</sup>	1 245 <sup>k</sup>	31.6 <sup>k</sup>	20 <sup>k</sup>	12 <sup>k</sup>

<sup>a</sup> *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries], pp. 6 and 7.

<sup>b</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 386 and 387; the figures for Hungary and the USSR are annual averages.

<sup>c</sup> Computed from previous columns. The approximative nature of the figures arises from the fact that yearly averages were, in most cases, combined with end-year or mid-year figures as if they had the same time-reference.

<sup>d</sup> Mid-year figures.

<sup>e</sup> Refers to census data of 25 January 1948. See USSR, Ministry of Foreign Trade, *Razvitie ekonomiki stran narodnoi demokratii* [Economic Development of the People's Democracies] (Moscow, 1961), p. 365.

<sup>f</sup> Excludes employment in agricultural co-operatives; USSR, Ministry of Foreign Trade, *Razvitie ekonomiki stran narodnoi demokratii* ..., p. 9.

<sup>g</sup> Refers to 1 January 1940; *Strana Sovetov za 50 let* [Fifty Years in the Soviet Sphere] (Moscow, 1961), p. 15.

<sup>h</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 218.

<sup>i</sup> *Zhenshchina v SSSR* [Women in the USSR] (Moscow, 1960), p. 31.

<sup>j</sup> Yugoslavia, *Statistički Godišnjak Jugoslavije 1972* [Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia] (Belgrade, 1972), pp. 77 and 91.

<sup>k</sup> Employment figures exclude apprentices and employment in the private sector (*ibid.*, 1971), p. 85 and 1972, p. 91).

TABLE III.2  
Percentage of population in rural areas and average annual growth rate of industrial employment in the 1950s and 1960s, for the socialist countries of eastern Europe and for certain Western countries

	Percentage of population in rural areas <sup>a</sup>		Industrial employment: average annual growth rate (percentage) <sup>b</sup>	
	early 1950s	late 1960s	during 1950s	during 1960s
Bulgaria .....	72.5	47.0	7.5	4.8
Czechoslovakia .....	48.4	37.7	2.7	2.0
German Democratic Republic .....	29.1	26.3	0.6	-0.1
Hungary .....	62.2	54.3	4.8	3.0
Poland .....	63.1	47.7	4.0	3.5
Romania .....	74.8	59.1	3.8	4.7
USSR <sup>c</sup> .....	59.8	43.0	2.8	3.4
Yugoslavia <sup>d</sup> .....	81.5	71.6 <sup>e</sup>	4.0	2.8
United States of America <sup>d</sup> .....	36.0	30.1 <sup>e</sup>	0.1	1.9
United Kingdom <sup>d</sup> .....	20.9	22.7	0.7	-0.2
France <sup>d</sup> .....	41.4	30.0	0.1	0.5

<sup>a</sup> *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries, 1971], p. 10.

<sup>b</sup> *The ECE Region in Figures* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.E/Mim.5 and Corr.), p. 10.

<sup>c</sup> The greatest spurt in industrialization in the USSR occurred between the census years 1926 and 1939, when the percentage of the population in rural areas fell from 82 to 67 per cent and industrial employment more than doubled in seven years (1928 to 1935) (USSR, Central Administration of the Statistical Survey of the National Economy (Gosplan), *Sotsialisticheskoe stroitel'stvo SSSR* [Socialist Construction in the USSR] (Moscow, Soyuzorguchet, 1936), p. 7, and Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Narodnoe khoziaistvo SSSR v 1968 godu* [The National Economy of the USSR in 1968] (Moscow, "Statistika", 1969), p. 9).

<sup>d</sup> *The ECE Region in Figures* ..., p. 7.

<sup>e</sup> Early 1960s.

for labour on the part of individual enterprises and a consequent inflation of money wages. The main problem at the time was the maintenance of adequate living standards, particularly in agriculture, in the face of massive agricultural reorganization, deficient housing and the pre-empting of resources for the industrial investment effort. In this way, some conflict may have arisen between the right to employment as such and the right to payment for work in accordance with its quantity and quality, both of which are guaranteed by the Constitution.

20. The crucial dependence of the first plans for industrialization on food supplies from the country necessitated the adoption of a policy of agricultural reorganization (collectivization, state farming etc.), which some sections of the population resented as an enforced separation from a traditional way of life and others as a fatal attack on their vested interests. To the extent that dissidents and resisters had to be overruled or disciplined, there were, in that period, recognized derogations from the rights of individuals to the free choice of employment, to rest and leisure and to equal pay for equal work. This applied primarily to the USSR as the pioneer in this type of industrialization during the period of "socialism in one country". Other countries were able to make the transition with less disruption. Others, notably Poland and Yugoslavia, opted eventually for a predominantly private system of farming.

21. Table III.3 compares socialist countries in respect of their degree of collectivization and direct state management of agriculture.

22. Substantial progress in the process of industrialization enabled socialist states at later stages to implement more fully the rights relating to conditions of work, leisure and favourable remuneration. At the same time, the nearing completion of the absorption process of the rural surplus population in productive activity had made further material progress increasingly dependent on the growth of agricultural productivity and thereby created the need for a reorientation of policy towards agriculture, both in

capital investment and in incentives. This went a long way towards eliminating previous infringements of the right to equal pay for equal work which had involved discrimination between industrial and agricultural labour.

23. The same exhaustion of the rural surplus population in its role as a labour reservoir for recruitment into urban occupations made industrial performance increasingly dependent on the growing skill, efficiency and capacity for innovation of those already in industry. To the extent that the development and exercise of these qualities demanded increasing incentives and therefore a fuller implementation of the right to favourable conditions of life and work, economic policy began to edge away from the previous emphasis on the investment effort and to reorient itself, if only partially, towards consumption. The demands of present consumption and future growth, which for so long had presented themselves as rival claimants for scarce resources in the short and medium run, came to be seen as mutually reinforcing claims. It was recognized that measures to increase consumption could promote future growth as effectively as—or even more so than—measures to curtail it in the interests of greater investment. Thanks to this transformation in the economic climate, the more advanced socialist countries are now within sight of overcoming the short-term conflict between individual rights and the strategic demands of economic development.

24. Table III.4 illustrates the reorientation of economic policy in the wake of progress towards greater economic maturity since the middle 1950s. Growth rates tended to fall with the greater size and complexity of the economy and with increased emphasis on quality, while the maintenance (or achievement) of high growth rates in agriculture did, in general, require more controlled expansion in producer-goods industries and some narrowing of the gap in growth rates between producer-goods and consumer-goods industries. In the case of Hungary and Czechoslovakia, this gap was even closed and consumer-

TABLE III.3

Socialist countries of eastern Europe: percentage of agricultural land outside the state and co-operative sectors, 1955, 1960 and 1970, and percentage of large-horned cattle privately owned, 1970

	Percentage of total agricultural land outside the state and co-operative sectors (private farms and plots) <sup>a</sup>			Percentage of large-horned cattle privately owned (1970)	
	1955 <sup>b</sup>	1960 <sup>c</sup>	1970 <sup>c</sup>	Total private ownership <sup>d</sup>	Of which: owned by non-members of collective farms <sup>d</sup>
Bulgaria .....	36.7	9.1	10.7	25.6	9.2
Czechoslovakia .....	57.4	17.6	14.9	13.9	9.0
German Democratic Republic...	72.7	19.1	13.7	17.6	1.1
Hungary .....	68.0	32.1	17.0	38.4	7.5
Poland .....	77.3	87.3	84.4	82.9	82.7
Romania .....	65.3	20.4	15.8	45.2	15.9
USSR .....	5.0 <sup>e</sup>	3.3 <sup>e</sup>	3.2 <sup>e</sup>	25.1	12.0
Yugoslavia .....	92.4 <sup>f</sup>	89.6 <sup>g</sup>	85.3 <sup>g</sup>	91.5 <sup>h</sup>	91.5 <sup>h</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Including private plots of collective farms.

<sup>b</sup> USSR, Ministry of Foreign Trade, *Razvitie ekonomiki stran narodnoi demokratii Evropy i Azii* [Economic Development in the People's Democracies of Europe and Asia] (Moscow, 1961), pp. 44 and 45.

<sup>c</sup> *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries, 1971], pp. 194 and 195.

<sup>d</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 241 and 245.

<sup>e</sup> Refers to sown area only, in 1950, 1960 and 1966 (*Strana Sovetov za 50 let* [Fifty years in the Soviet Sphere] (Moscow, "Statistika", 1967)).

<sup>f</sup> 1956.

<sup>g</sup> Individual holdings (cultivable area); Yugoslavia, *Statistički Godišnjak Jugoslavije* [Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia] (Belgrade, 1972), p. 130.

<sup>h</sup> All livestock; *ibid.*

TABLE III.4  
Socialist countries of eastern Europe: average annual growth in gross output (percentage)<sup>a</sup>

	1951-1955	1956-1960	1961-1965	1966-1970
<b>Bulgaria</b>				
Producer industries .....	17.7	18.1	14.1	12.0
Consumer industries .....	10.8	13.9	9.4	9.9
Agriculture .....	6.5	5.7	3.2	3.4
<b>Czechoslovakia</b>				
Producer industries .....	13.5	11.8	5.7	7.1
Consumer industries .....	7.9	8.6	4.6	8.3
Agriculture .....	1.2	1.6	-0.6	4.9
<b>German Democratic Republic</b>				
Producer industries .....	..	9.0	6.3	7.1
Consumer industries .....	..	9.0	4.9	5.1
Agriculture .....	7.6	2.8	0.8	1.6
<b>Hungary</b>				
Producer industries .....	21.6 <sup>b</sup>	12.7 <sup>c</sup>	7.7	5.9
Consumer industries .....	18.4 <sup>b</sup>	10.5 <sup>c</sup>	8.0	7.1
Agriculture .....	3.4	0.4	1.2	2.9
<b>Poland</b>				
Producer industries .....	18.2	10.8	9.7	9.5
Consumer industries .....	13.9	8.8	6.5	6.5
Agriculture .....	1.0	3.7	2.8	1.8
<b>Romania</b>				
Producer industries .....	16.8	12.8	15.7	13.1
Consumer industries .....	13.1	8.4	10.5	9.6
Agriculture .....	10.1	1.2	2.5	1.9
<b>USSR</b>				
Producer industries .....	13.8	10.7	9.6	8.6
Consumer industries .....	12.0	8.2	6.4	8.3
Agriculture .....	4.1	6.1	2.3	3.9
<b>Yugoslavia</b>				
Industry .....		13.3 <sup>d</sup>	10.5 <sup>d</sup>	6.2 <sup>d</sup>
Agriculture .....		4.6 <sup>d</sup>	1.2 <sup>d</sup>	3.2 <sup>d</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Producer and consumer industries are those referred to as industry "A" and industry "B" in official statistics. The data were computed from *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries, 1971], pp. 21-28.

<sup>b</sup> 1950-1955. Computed from data for individual industries weighted in proportion to wage bills, as given in *Razvitie narodnogo khoziaistva Vengerskoj Narodnoj Respubliki* [Development of the National Economy in the Hungarian People's Republic] (Moscow, 1957), pp. 27 and 30.

<sup>c</sup> 1958-1960.

<sup>d</sup> Computed from Yugoslavia, *Statistički Godišnjak Jugoslavije 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia], pp. 126 and 153.

goods industries took the lead in growth. In the case of the USSR, the same thing happened during 1969 and 1970, with growth rates in producer-goods industries of 6.9 and 8.2 per cent compared with 7.2 and 8.5 per cent in consumer-goods industries.

25. The reorientation of policy referred to above does, however, present some problems relating to the internal composition of the national output, its adaptability to shifting consumer demand and its possible rejection by final buyers who are now able to exercise a wider choice. This, in conjunction with streamlining and modernization, which often takes on labour-saving forms, may, on occasion, present temporary threats to the right of everyone to full-time productive employment. While there is little doubt that the socialist countries are equipped to deal with this situation, it does create new problems which must be allowed for and mitigated in short-term economic planning. To this extent, the implementation of the universal right to productive employment is no longer the automatic concomitant of economic planning geared to the

fastest possible growth in output and may require separate attention as an independent objective.

### B. The right to free choice of employment

26. Article 118 of the 1936 Constitution of the USSR (left unaltered by the amendments of 1947) guarantees citizens employment and payment for their work in accordance with its quantity and quality. This provision is repeated in the constitutions of the constituent Republics of the USSR.<sup>4</sup> The constitutions state, in addition, that the right to work is ensured by the socialist organization of the economy, the growth of productive forces and the abolition of unemployment.

27. The right to work and to remuneration in accordance with the quantity and quality of work is, as we have

<sup>4</sup> e.g. article 122 of the Constitution of the Russian SFSR, article 93 of the Byelorussian Constitution, article 98 of the Ukrainian Constitution.



already noted in part one of the present study, also proclaimed and guaranteed in the constitutions of other socialist countries.<sup>5</sup> The implementation of these rights is in all cases governed by the national labour codes and by various regulations and ordinances promulgated in pursuance of its provisions.

28. In all socialist countries of eastern Europe other than Yugoslavia, the State, through its planning organs, accepts responsibility for the maintenance of full employment. In the case of Poland, for instance, it is stated that the long-term and annual plans adopted by the Councils of Ministers and the Sejm make provision for the creation of enough new jobs to meet the anticipated increase in the labour force and to absorb additional job-seekers wishing to join it (previously non-working women, farmers moving into towns, etc.).<sup>6</sup> Similar statements are made in the publications and submissions of other socialist countries of eastern Europe.

29. For young people entering the labour force for the first time, there are career advisory services in all socialist countries of eastern Europe. In Bulgaria<sup>7</sup> for instance, this function belongs to the Departments for Professional Orientation, which are also open to older workers who may wish to change their jobs. They publicize their services in periodicals and in the media. Apart from these, there are commissions drawn from women's organizations, trade unions, social organizations, and the Young Communist League, attached to local and municipal councils (partly on a voluntary basis), which give advice in these matters under the direction of State Inspectorates at local level. In Romania,<sup>8</sup> the Directorate for Labour and Social Protection of every administrative province contains a special Department for Vocational Orientation, which organizes and/or supervises career counselling in the 10-year schools. In the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic, vocational guidance is organized by a special council for the professional orientation of young people in schools, which is composed of representatives of different ministries and departments and of the trade unions.<sup>9</sup> Similar services exist in the USSR and other socialist countries of eastern Europe.

30. Apart from unjustified refusals or terminations of employment, which may occur here and there, obstacles to the free choice of occupation within the country's social system could arise from restrictions on legitimate forms of self-employment, curbs on the working of personal plots of land,<sup>10</sup> restrictions on settlement in specified localities or impediments to temporary or permanent work abroad.

<sup>5</sup> e.g. articles 40 and 41 of the 1971 Bulgarian Constitution, article 21 of the 1960 Czechoslovak Constitution, articles 58 and 14 of the Polish Constitution, article 45 of the Hungarian Constitution, article 18 of the Romanian Constitution, and article 36 of the Yugoslav Constitution.

<sup>6</sup> E/CN.4/1024, para. 81.

<sup>7</sup> Information from the Bulgarian Ministry of Labour, September 1972.

<sup>8</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Labour, September 1972.

<sup>9</sup> Information from the reply of the Byelorussian SSR to the questionnaires sent by the Special Rapporteur (for the text of the questionnaires, see annex I of the present study).

<sup>10</sup> The Government of the USSR states (E/CN.4/1132) that the Soviet Union has no "curbs on the working of personal plots of land", which are known in that country as "household plots"; in the USSR, the right to engage in personal subsidiary farming in household plots is guaranteed by law, and in particular by the Constitution of the USSR.

31. Nearly all the socialist countries of eastern Europe allow some scope for self-employment to artisans and small-scale service contractors, as well as independent small holders on the land and members of certain liberal professions (lawyers, medical practitioners etc.).

32. In Bulgaria,<sup>11</sup> artisans may operate small-scale businesses with special permission from local government, provided the number of paid helpers (other than family workers) does not exceed two. They are not subject to differential taxes or charges, other than contributions to pension and social insurance funds amounting to 12.5 per cent of wages paid. A certain category of people engaged in specific types of occupation may also work in domestic conditions. Their legal position is regulated by the Labour Code and derivative legislation, and their remuneration is governed by existing norms. Lawyers may also engage in private practice paid for by their clients. Doctors were in the same position until October 1972, but in their case the right is now restricted to medical specialists working in polyclinics after normal hours.

33. In the German Democratic Republic,<sup>12</sup> persons classified as independent *Komplementäre*, owners, co-owners or lessees of establishments, and self-employed artisans or professionals and their family helpers numbered 1.8 million or nearly 25 per cent of the total active population in 1952. However, their number fell quickly and steadily and was reduced to 220 000 by 1971, i.e., 2.2 per cent of the active population in that year. Some 63 per cent of these were artisans or craftsmen, 18 per cent traders and slightly under 12 per cent in service industries, while only 14 000 belonged to the liberal professions.

34. In Hungary,<sup>13</sup> small-scale service industries, legal counselling and private teaching are allowed on a self-employed basis. The number of those giving professional services was stated to be about 16 000 in 1971. None of these is subject to discriminatory taxation.

35. Poland permits self-employment in the case of taxi drivers, owners or operators of shops, bookstores, restaurants or cafes, filling stations, tourist and other facilities. In 1970 they numbered 261 000 (including family workers).<sup>14</sup>

36. In Romania,<sup>15</sup> the number of people occupied outside the socialist sector fell from 62 per cent of the total in 1950 to 6 per cent in 1970. In agriculture, the share is still about 10 per cent of the total. Individuals may operate small workshops rendering services to the population. Permission for them to do so is subject to tests of professional competence, and their tax liabilities are slightly higher than those of employed workers. Under two laws of 1968, appropriately qualified persons and handicraft co-operatives may produce handicrafts in private workshops for the population at large, as well as for state enterprises.<sup>16</sup>

<sup>11</sup> Information from the Bulgarian Ministry of Labour, September 1972 and from the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires sent by the Special Rapporteur (for the text of the questionnaires, see annex I of the present study).

<sup>12</sup> German Democratic Republic, Staatliche Zentralverwaltung für Statistik, *Statistisches Jahrbuch 1972 der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik* [Statistical Yearbook of the German Democratic Republic, 1972] (Berlin, Staatsverlag, 1972), p. 52.

<sup>13</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, September 1972.

<sup>14</sup> Concise Statistical Yearbook of Poland, 1971, p. 44.

<sup>15</sup> Romania, Central Statistical Directorate, *Anuarul Statistic al Republicii Socialiste România 1971* (Bucarest, 1972) p. 125, and information from Romanian Ministry of Labour, September 1972.

<sup>16</sup> See E/CN.4/1024, para. 50.

TABLE III.5

## Socialist countries of eastern Europe: distribution of population among different social groups

	Total population	Employed persons	Members of producer co-operatives (including collective farms)	Independent peasants, craftsmen, and artisans	Members of liberal professions	Other groups
(Percentages)						
<i>Bulgaria</i>						
December 1956.....	100	43.9	37.0	18.1	0.2	0.8
December 1965.....	100	58.8	39.7	1.3	0.1	0.1
<i>Czechoslovakia</i>						
March 1950.....	100	72.8	0	24.1	..	3.1
March 1961.....	100	84.2	11.9	3.8	0.1	—
End 1970.....	100	88.0	9.5	2.4	0.1	—
<i>German Democratic Republic</i>						
End 1964.....	100	80.2	11.5	—	8.3	—
<i>Hungary</i>						
End 1965.....	100	72.0	24.5	3.0	— 0.5 —	—
End 1969.....	100	74.2	22.4	2.9	— 0.5 —	—
<i>Poland</i>						
December 1950.....	100	47.7	1.9	44.2	0.2	4.0
December 1970.....	100	61.3	3.0	25.6	0.9	9.2
<i>Romania</i>						
February 1956.....	100	37.0	8.3	53.7	— 1.0 —	—
March 1960.....	100	52.0	40.9	6.1	— 0.8 —	—
<i>USSR</i>						
Beginning 1939.....	100	50.2	47.2	0.6	—	—
Beginning 1959.....	100	68.3	31.4	0.3	—	—
Beginning 1969.....	100	78.4	21.6	—	—	—

37. As far as the USSR is concerned, no detailed information appears to be available on a small group of individual farmers and craftsmen who are not members of co-operatives. These were estimated to have numbered 10 000 in 1967, excluding non-working members of households.<sup>17</sup> Their continued existence implied the right to free choice of employment, but their numbers were dwindling rapidly, and they have now disappeared. It is not clear to what extent this was due to economic and social pressure or to the emergence of new generations less committed to this type of work. By Order No. 168 of the Council of Ministers of the USSR dated 11 March 1965,<sup>18</sup> they were freed from their previous compulsory delivery obligations to the State.

38. The most recent summary on the self-employed appears in the CMEA Statistical Yearbook of 1971,<sup>19</sup> which gives data (table III.5) on the distribution of the total population into social groups:

39. Apart from Poland, the German Democratic Republic and possibly Romania, the self-employed sector would seem to account for well under 5 per cent of the population in the CMEA countries of eastern Europe.

40. Figures on self-employment in Yugoslavia<sup>20</sup> may be derived from the 1961 census, which implies nearly 5.1

million economically active persons not classified as employed (accounting for 61 per cent of the whole economically active population). Of these, 4.3 million were in agriculture, fishing or forestry, and 790 000 in other pursuits. Some 233 000 of them were unemployed, and an unspecified number in the armed forces, prison etc. Employment in the private sector outside agriculture was given as 70 000, and it is evident therefore that the average number of private employees per independent (or family) worker in these sectors must have been well under 0.15. In later years, the private sector figures available refer only to employment<sup>21</sup> and give no direct indication of the number of self-employed. Employment in the private sector in 1971 was given as 90 000 (or 2.2 per cent of total employment), a figure to which it has fallen from a peak of 100 000 (2.8 per cent of total employment) in 1968. The figure for the economically active population outside paid employment and not registered as unemployed in the census of March 1970 was given as over 5.2 million, but this included workers temporarily employed abroad.<sup>22</sup> It is clear, therefore, that, even if these latter had numbered as many as 1 million,<sup>23</sup> the scope for independent self-employment in Yugoslavia is far greater than in other socialist countries of eastern Europe.

41. The rights of collective farmers in respect of private plots and livestock vary somewhat among the socialist countries with a collectivized agriculture.

<sup>21</sup> *Statistički Godišnjak Jugoslavije 1972*, p. 89.

<sup>22</sup> OECD, *Economic Surveys, Yugoslavia* (Paris, March 1972), No. 7, p. 61.

<sup>23</sup> The Yugoslav newspaper *Borba* of 13 June 1972 reported an official number of 672 000 for 1971.

<sup>17</sup> *Voprosy ekonomiki* [Problems of Economics] (Moscow, "Pravda", 1969), pp. 57-73.

<sup>18</sup> *Yearbook on Human Rights for 1965* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.68.XIV.1), p. 324.

<sup>19</sup> *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries, 1971], p. 20.

<sup>20</sup> *Statistički Godišnjak Jugoslavije 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia, 1971], pp. 76, 86 and 95.

42. In Bulgaria,<sup>24</sup> according to articles 53 and 55 of the model statute of co-operative farms (approved by the Farm Congress in March 1967), each farming family is entitled to a personal holding between 0.2 hectare (in intensive cultivation areas) and 0.5 hectare (in grain-producing areas), the exact size of which is determined by the general assembly of the co-operative farm. This is exclusive of the area occupied by the family's homestead and other buildings. In mountainous regions, each household may receive an additional plot of up to 0.5 hectare of land not suitable for mechanized cultivation. Each co-operative farm decides on a minimum number of days per year (within the range of 150–200 days) which must be worked by its members on the collective fields to qualify for these rights.

43. In Hungary<sup>25</sup> the private plot may occupy 1½ hectares of agricultural land within the collective farm. There are no restrictions on the number of livestock individually held, regardless of whether the farmer is a member of a collective or not. The theoretical minimum number of days to be worked on collective fields is 90 per year, but the average recorded in recent years was 240 days per year.

44. In Romania<sup>26</sup> also, the maximum size of the farmer's plot is laid down for each region, and its actual size on the decision of each collective farm.

45. In the USSR, article 42 of the Model Collective Farm Regulations of 28 November 1969<sup>27</sup> specifies that each collective farm family may own a dwelling, farm buildings and livestock, as well as minor implements for work on a private plot. This plot shall not exceed half a hectare in area, including the land occupied by buildings, and in irrigated areas it shall be not more than one fifth of a hectare in area. The collective farm is required to give the plot-holder assistance in cultivation (in cases of incapacity),<sup>28</sup> acquisition of livestock, obtaining veterinary services and with fodder and pasturage for livestock. The general meeting of the collective farm may also decide to grant private plots to teachers, physicians and other specialists resident on its land, and, in some cases, also to local workers, employees, pensioners or disabled persons. However, these are provisions of the Model Regulations; the final decision on them rests with the general assembly of each collective farm.

46. In Bulgaria,<sup>29</sup> the circumstances in which a citizen may seek employment in a foreign country are specified by decree.<sup>30</sup> It is stated that, in order to protect the interests of the citizens working abroad and to prevent the conclusion of disadvantageous contracts, foreign employment contracts are a state monopoly run by foreign trade

organizations, the Ministry of Construction and Building Materials etc.

47. Citizens of Hungary are permitted to work in foreign countries within the framework of bilateral or other co-operation agreements, e.g., with the German Democratic Republic and other socialist countries. The numbers involved were given as 10 500 and 11 500 in 1970 and 1971, respectively (or slightly more than a fifth of 1 per cent of the total active earning population).<sup>31</sup>

48. Citizens of Yugoslavia began to work abroad in relatively large numbers in the mid 1960s. A law supplementing the Basic Law on the Organization and Financing of Employment was published in the *Official Gazette of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia*, No. 47, 1966,<sup>32</sup> requiring the country's employment offices and the Federal Office for Employment to extend professional assistance in connexion with employment abroad. The Office receives offers from foreign employers and organizations, provides an information and registration service for Yugoslav applicants, assists them in legal questions and with documentation, organizes their travel and concludes general contracts concerning their employment. Some controversy appears to exist regarding the exact numbers of Yugoslavs currently working abroad. A recent report, however, quoted a total of 980 000 as being the official figure for 1 January 1972.<sup>33</sup> Of these, some 780 000 were said to be working in Western Europe (about 488 000 in the Federal Republic of Germany and 130 000 in Austria) and 200 000 overseas (120 000 in Australia). The March 1971 census gave the number of workers abroad as 672 000,<sup>34</sup> or 3.3 per cent of the total population (the proportion was as high as 5.2 per cent in the case of the Croatian Republic). In 1969, an investigation by the Federal Office for Employment<sup>35</sup> revealed that 72 per cent of emigrant workers stayed abroad for less than three years and only 4.6 per cent for more than five years. The annual average of the net outflow of labour during the period 1966–1970 was 95 000.<sup>36</sup> Various surveys suggest that temporary emigration is largely motivated by superior earning possibilities abroad and not to any great extent by the employment situation in Yugoslavia itself. The possibility of movement across the frontier and back in pursuit of personal objectives is evidence of the recent widening in the scope of decision-making by individuals and families.

49. The free choice of employment might in some cases be circumscribed by certain forms of obligatory labour imposed on members of the population in conditions of emergency, urgent need or in a wider range of circumstances.

50. In Bulgaria, the Act of 6 February 1958 and Ordinance No. 1 of 1968 concerning self-taxation of the population permitted the imposition of unpaid labour on men between 18 and 60 years and women between 18 and 55

<sup>24</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires, and information from the Bulgarian Ministry of Labour, September 1972.

<sup>25</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, September 1972.

<sup>26</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Labour, September 1972.

<sup>27</sup> For the text of these Regulations, see *Pravda* and *Izvestia*, 30 November 1969, p. 1; for excerpts, see also *Yearbook on Human Rights for 1969* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.XIV.1), pp. 298 *et seq.*

<sup>28</sup> The Government of the USSR points out (E/CN.4/1132) that under article 42 of the Model Collective Farm Regulations such assistance is to be given to all collective farm workers.

<sup>29</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>30</sup> Council of Ministers, Order 379 of 1967, complemented and modified by Order 521 of 1970 (Information Bulletin of Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare 12/1970).

<sup>31</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, September 1972 and Hungarian Central Statistical Office, *Statistical Pocket Book of Hungary 1972* (Budapest, Statistical Publishing House, 1972), p. 231.

<sup>32</sup> *Yearbook on Human Rights for 1966 . . .*, p. 400.

<sup>33</sup> *Borba* (Belgrade, 16 May 1972).

<sup>34</sup> *Yugoslav Survey*, vol. XIII, No. 1 (Belgrade, February 1972), p. 19.

<sup>35</sup> *Ekonomika Politika*, XVIIIth year, No. 882 (Belgrade, 24 February 1969).

<sup>36</sup> See foot-note 22 above.



years for local improvement schemes, for up to 40 hours (exceptionally 80 hours) per year.<sup>37</sup>

51. In the case of Czechoslovakia, Government Order No. 40 of 28 April 1953 concerning civilian labour service has occasioned inquiries by the ILO committees of experts concerned with the Forced Labour Convention.<sup>38</sup> Czechoslovakia stated in response to these that the Order in question had never in practice been applied. It further informed the ILO Conference Committee on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations in June 1973 that it had decided to repeal this order.<sup>39</sup>

52. In the USSR, section 11 of the old labour codes of the Russian SFSR and the Ukrainian SSR allowed the imposition of compulsory labour in cases of shortage of labour for carrying out important state work. Both these countries have, however, stated that, except in rare cases of natural calamity, these provisions had not been used.<sup>40</sup> The new labour codes adopted by both countries in December 1971 (due to come into force in April 1972) omitted these provisions from section 11.

53. In the early 1960s a number of socialist countries of eastern Europe (e.g., Czechoslovakia, the USSR and the Ukrainian SSR) made legislative changes which eliminated certain possibilities of imposition of prison or penal labour on the basis of decisions by non-judicial authorities.<sup>41</sup>

54. Under an edict dated 4 May 1961 (amended on 20 September 1965), sections 1 and 2, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Russian SFSR, in line with an intensification of the campaign against persons deemed to be evading socially useful work, permitted the imposition of labour on such persons by authorities of a non-judicial nature. A similar edict was issued by the Ukrainian SSR on 12 June 1961 and by the Byelorussian SSR on 15 May 1961. All three ordinances were further amended in early 1970. Under this legislation, persons may be compulsorily directed to employment by decision of the Executive Committee of a Soviet of Working People's Deputies; wilful non-compliance with such an order is punishable by imprisonment or corrective labour for up to one year.<sup>42</sup> It was stated, however, that these edicts were not designed to institute forced labour but to reinforce the principle of the general obligation to work, i.e., the rule that any person capable of working has the right and the obligation to engage in some kind of socially useful activity of his own choosing.

<sup>37</sup> International Labour Conference, Fifty-second Session, *Report of the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations*, report III, part 4 (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1968), p. 201, note 2.

<sup>38</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>39</sup> International Labour Conference, Fifty-eighth Session, *Record of Proceedings* (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1973), p. 573.

<sup>40</sup> See foot-note 37 above.

<sup>41</sup> International Labour Conference, Fifty-second Session, *Report of the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations*, report III, part 4 (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1968), p. 219, note 1.

<sup>42</sup> International Labour Conference, Fifty-seventh Session, *Report of the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations*, report III, part 4A, vol. A (General report and observations concerning particular countries) (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1972), pp. 88, 103 and 104. See also International Labour Conference, Fifty-eighth Session, *Report of the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations*, report III, part 4A, vol. A (General report and observations concerning particular countries) (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1973), pp. 79 and 80.

55. In all socialist countries of eastern Europe, the predominant method of obtaining employment is by direct application to the management of the individually chosen work place (state or co-operative enterprise, institution or social organization).

56. In the USSR, the labour exchanges were abolished under legislation enacted in 1925 and 1931 (following the declaration that unemployment had been eliminated once for all), and the right to offer employment was conferred directly on productive enterprises and institutions. These are legally prohibited from refusing available work to any applicant for reasons other than intrinsic unfitness for the post<sup>43</sup> (because of pregnancy, criminal record of relatives etc.). Article 123 of the Constitution prohibits any direct or indirect restriction of rights, or, conversely, the establishment of any direct or indirect privileges in the matter of employment, based on sex, race, national origin or attitude towards religion.

57. Similarly, in Bulgaria<sup>44</sup> employing agencies are legally debarred from rejecting an applicant on the grounds of nationality, creed, sex, origin, race, education or social background (article 35 of the Constitution). They are not, on the other hand, obliged to accept him, even though a vacancy exists, and their decisions—reached after due consideration of his qualifications—are accepted as final. The appointment of applicants whose age or qualifications do not correspond to the requirements of the post is illegal in all cases.

58. In Hungary and Romania,<sup>45</sup> the refusal to employ an applicant can only be justified on the grounds of unfitness for the job or lack of work opportunity in the enterprise. Any form of discrimination is ruled out by the Constitution.

59. Similar provisions apply in other CMEA countries of eastern Europe.

60. In Yugoslavia, the selection of applicants for a vacancy is governed by the rules of the *konkurs*, a procedure which requires public announcement of the vacancy, the setting up of a special selection commission in the enterprise and a written statement giving the grounds for the rejection of each unsuccessful candidate. The latter have the right of appeal to local courts.<sup>46</sup> In conformity with the principles of self-management, however, the right to decide on the admission of workers into work organizations and their dismissal, within the framework of these general laws, belongs to the working people of those organizations themselves.<sup>47</sup>

61. Unjustified dismissals from work are outlawed in all socialist countries of eastern Europe.

62. In Bulgaria, for instance,<sup>48</sup> legislation demands legal proof of the reasons for terminating any labour contract on the initiative of a firm or enterprise (articles 28–34 of the Labour Code) and insists on the right of the worker

<sup>43</sup> *Komentarii k zakon za ustroistvo o trude* [Commentaries on Labour Legislation] (Moscow, 1960), and Fundamental Principles governing Labour Legislation of the USSR and Union Republics (in force since 1 January 1971), article 9 in *Vedomosti Verkhovnogo Soveta SSSR* [Official Gazette of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR] No. 29 (1531), 22 July 1970, p. 354.

<sup>44</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>45</sup> Information from official sources.

<sup>46</sup> Information obtained from the Yugoslav Secretariat of State for Foreign Affairs.

<sup>47</sup> Article 9 of the Constitution (see E/CN.4/1011/Add.7, pp. 7–9).

<sup>48</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

to be reinstated in his post in cases of unlawful dismissal, if necessary through the courts (article 91 of the Labour Code).

63. Another safeguard is the frequent provision, as instanced by the Byelorussian SSR and the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic,<sup>49</sup> that dismissals on the initiative of management require the concurrence of the Factory Trade Union Committee. This safeguard is expressly stated in article 18 of the Fundamental Principles governing Labour Legislation of the USSR and Union Republics which came into force on 1 January 1971.

64. Similar provisions apply in all socialist countries of eastern Europe.

65. Articles 46 to 49 of the 1966 Labour Code of Czechoslovakia<sup>50</sup> specifies conditions for lawful dismissal which are in every way comparable to the general norm. The Code was, however, revised in June 1968 and further amended on 18 December 1969. In the final version, it is stated, *inter alia*, that a worker can be dismissed if "his activity has been such as to constitute a breach of the socialist order and he is therefore not sufficiently reliable to hold his previous office or post".<sup>51</sup> Some concern was expressed by the ILO Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations that this wording might make it possible for the employment rights of individuals to be infringed for reasons connected with their political opinions, particularly since the new provisions had appeared as additions to a Labour Code which already authorized dismissals for breaches of normal standards of performance and discipline.<sup>52</sup> The Czechoslovak Government informed the International Labour Conference Committee in June 1973 that it had decided to amend these provisions.<sup>53</sup>

66. In Hungary, a Decree of 1964 (No. 29, on certain questions of employment relations) repealed a provision previously in force (1951 Labour Code) which allowed disciplinary penalties, including dismissal, to be imposed on workers who behaved "in a way that reveals hostility to the national and social order of the People's Democracy".<sup>54</sup>

67. A decision of the Soviet Control Commission dated 22-26 May 1963 states that employment may no longer be terminated or refused on grounds such as social origin, except by virtue of special provisions. In reply to a question from the ILO Committee of Experts, the Government of the USSR indicated that no special provision of this kind, which would be incompatible with the 1958 ILO Discrimi-

ation (Employment and Occupation) Convention (No. 111), was in force.<sup>55</sup>

68. In co-operative agriculture, the right to work (other than for the small category of collective farm employees) implies the right to membership in a collective farm.

69. In the USSR, the old Collective Farm Charter of 1935, with the amendments of 1938,<sup>56</sup> implied that children of collective farm members would automatically join the collective on reaching the age of 16 years.<sup>57</sup> The new Model Regulations, adopted on 28 November 1969,<sup>58</sup> states that "all citizens of the USSR who have reached the age of 16 and expressed a desire to participate through their labour in the communal sector of the collective farm may be members of the collective farm". The text does not appear to imply an obligation on the part of a collective to accept any particular applicant. It is stated, however, that applications for membership must be considered by the collective farm board within one month of being received and, if recommended by the board, submitted for acceptance by the general meeting of collective farmers. The reluctance to legislate more firmly in this sphere may stem from a desire to uphold the independence of co-operatives, and the contingent limitation on the right to work may be theoretical rather than practical. Similar provisions apply in other socialist countries of eastern Europe.

70. The freedom to choose one's occupation implies the opportunity to select freely from a number of channels of placement made available to the individual job-seeker by the institutional arrangements in force.

71. In the USSR, throughout most of its recent history, a number of special methods of placement existed, apart from the direct hiring or co-option of workers<sup>59</sup> described in paragraphs 56 and 69 above:

(a) The placement of young people leaving trade (vocational-technical schools, in accordance with the training and placement plans drawn up and ratified by the Government of each Republic (Council of Ministers) on a short-term (annual) or medium-term basis. The schools themselves are responsible for the direction of school-leavers to the enterprises or building projects selected under the plan and for the financing of their journeys. While this method provides one of the guarantees of the right to work, the extent to which it honours the right to the free choice of employment will depend on the quality and flexibility of career advisory services in the schools.

(b) The placement of young graduates from higher or medium-specialist educational establishments. These

<sup>49</sup> Information from the replies of the Byelorussian SSR and the Ukrainian SSR to the questionnaires sent by the Special Rapporteur (for the text of the questionnaires, see annex I of the present study).

<sup>50</sup> *Code du travail de la République socialiste tchécoslovaque* (Prague, 1966).

<sup>51</sup> Sections 46 (1) and 53 (1c) of the new Labour Code.

<sup>52</sup> International Labour Conference, Fifty-seventh Session, *Report of the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations*, report III, part 4A, vol. A (General report and observations concerning particular countries) (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1972), pp. 203 and 204.

<sup>53</sup> International Labour Conference, Fifty-eighth Session, *Record of Proceedings* (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1973), p. 580.

<sup>54</sup> International Labour Conference, Fifty-sixth Session, *Report of the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations*, report III, part 4B, vol. B (General survey on the reports relating to the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention and Recommendation, 1958) (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1971), p. 19; note 3.

<sup>55</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 17 (note 5.) For further indications provided by the Government of the USSR in reply to requests made by the Committee of Experts, see International Labour Conference, Fifty-eighth Session, *Report of the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations*, report III, part 4A, vol. A (General report and observations concerning particular countries) (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1973), p. 180.

<sup>56</sup> *Izvestia*, 18 February 1935; and *Resheniya partii i pravitelstva po khoziaistvennym voprosam* [Party and Government Decisions on Economic Questions] (1917-1967 gg), Tom II (1929-1940 gg) (Moscow, 1967), pp. 661-662.

<sup>57</sup> The Government of the USSR states (E/CN.4/1132) that this assertion is incorrect and that in fact Soviet legislation has always been based on the principle that membership of collective farms shall be voluntary for all citizens, including children of collective farm members who have reached the age of 16 years.

<sup>58</sup> *Pravda* and *Izvestia*, 30 November 1969, p. 1.

<sup>59</sup> *Kommentarii k zakonodatelstvu o trude* [Commentaries on Labour Legislation] (Moscow, 1966).



graduates are directed to employment in keeping with their qualifications under official plans ratified by republican governments and other authorities by agreement with the All-Union State Planning Commission (Gosplan SSSR). Direct responsibility rests on a special Commission for the Individual Placement of Young Specialists, chaired by the director of the educational establishment and including other educational officers, as well as representatives of the "consuming" ministries, departments and enterprises. The Commission must inform each graduate of its decision in good time and consider any objections on his part. If these are overruled, however, the graduate is obliged to accept the post offered. He is, moreover, in all cases under a legal obligation to work no less than three years at the workplace (or workplaces) assigned by the Commission, and other enterprises are not allowed to employ him without documentary evidence that this condition has been waived or fulfilled. This does not, however, preclude him from applying for reassignment during that period. Similar rules apply to university graduates, though the obligatory period for directed work is only two years in their case. There are legal safeguards against placements which separate married couples or cause hardships to invalids, children of invalid parents and other categories, but in all ordinary cases the exercise of the right to choose one's employment appears to be subject to some constraint in the first few years after graduation.

(c) The organized recruitment and resettlement of labour. This form of job placement was designed to meet the labour requirements of enterprises, farms or building projects sited in eastern and northern regions of the country or strongly affected by a seasonal rhythm of production (fishing, peat extraction, timber etc.). In the Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic, this responsibility rested on a special Chief Administration for the Resettlement and Organized Recruitment of Labour attached to the Government of the Republic, with a network of local branches and inspectors. The recruitment contracts were concluded for periods of not less than one year, though contracts for the far east and extreme north specified a minimum of two and three years, respectively. The law insisted on the strict observance of the voluntary principle in all cases.

(d) Assisted job placement. Soviet commentaries describe this as a supplementary guarantee of the right to work for special categories of people who need assistance in their search for employment. These may be secondary school-leavers, people under 18 years of age, invalids, clerical workers made redundant by administrative reorganization, retired members of the armed forces, released prisoners and other special categories. Job placement under this heading is the responsibility of special commissions composed of Deputy Ministers of the Republic and representatives of party, trade union and educational organs, operating at various levels of local government and acting on application by job-seekers. Apart from this, adolescents between 16 (exceptionally 15) and 18 years of age without secondary education may apply for work to the local soviets at district or city level. Enterprise managers are under an obligation to accept young people referred to them in this manner, and were by an Ordinance of 1966 specifically enjoined to put an end to their unfounded refusal to do so on frequent occasions.

(e) By the Decree of the Council of Ministers of the USSR dated 22 December 1966 on measures to ensure a further increase in labour productivity and construction, the agencies for resettlement and organized recruitment

were abolished and a new system of organs for job placement was instituted.<sup>60</sup> This function, as well as the dissemination of information, is now performed by state committees for the utilization of labour resources attached to Union-Republican Councils of Ministers, and by special departments within the Executive Committees of Soviets at territorial and regional levels; in larger towns and districts, it is performed by specially authorized persons. The recruitment procedure of these organs is governed by a Standard Labour Regulation approved on 29 September 1972 by the State Committee on Labour and Wages and the All-Union Council of Trade Unions and is stated to guarantee equality of rights for all Soviet citizens.

72. It appears that since 1969 the state committees have become one of the main channels for the placement of workers not directly hired by enterprises or assigned to jobs by their educational establishments. They have special responsibilities for the re-employment of redundant workers, being informed of redundancies by enterprises a few months before they occur, and now have the power to compel designated enterprises to accept such workers for employment or retraining.

73. In Bulgaria also, the employment relation may arise from a direct approach of the individual to an enterprise, leading to a standard labour agreement, from administrative acts governing the distribution of young specialists or from a number of other decisions (sentence for correctional labour without imprisonment in the case of certain convictions, and legal decisions under article 119, paragraph 1, of the Labour Code of 1951 and subsequent amendments).<sup>61</sup> Young specialists completing studies at higher or specialized secondary education are required to work in officially designated employment for a period of three years, during which other undertakings are prohibited from taking them into employment.<sup>62</sup> These provisions were further developed under resolution No. 48 of 29 November 1967, which specifies that the contracts must be freely accepted by the parties concerned.<sup>63</sup>

74. Some employment relations also arise from recruitment for projects of national importance organized by special departments in labour inspectorates on the basis of manpower balances prepared by the Ministry of Labour for each region. These are on a voluntary basis and rely on special incentives (housing privileges etc.) where labour requirements cannot otherwise be met.<sup>64</sup>

75. Czechoslovakia also safeguards the job-seeker against unjustified refusal of employment, and makes provision for the assignment of work by national committees to those who wish to accept it.<sup>65</sup> Similar placement agencies also exist in Hungary,<sup>66</sup> Romania<sup>67</sup> and Yugoslavia.<sup>68</sup>

<sup>60</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.3, p. 28.

<sup>61</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>62</sup> Resolutions Nos. 159 and 188 of the Council of Ministers, September and November 1962.

<sup>63</sup> E/CN.4/1011, p. 2.

<sup>64</sup> Information from the Bulgarian Ministry of Labour, September 1972. As an example, an industrial project at Varna was cited.

<sup>65</sup> E/CN.4/1023/Add.4, p. 3.

<sup>66</sup> Labour offices are attached to all district councils and mediate between workers and employing agencies on a voluntary basis, accounting in this way for 5-8 per cent of the annual labour turnover (information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, September 1972).

<sup>67</sup> Territorially organized job placement offices in all administrative provinces and larger towns (information from the Romanian Ministry of Labour).

<sup>68</sup> Known as local employment bureaux.

76. Most socialist countries of eastern Europe also make provision for the placement of young specialists on their leaving higher or technical secondary educational establishments, and impose temporary work obligations (usually three years) in designated enterprises. Czechoslovakia, however, repealed this requirement,<sup>69</sup> and Hungary maintains it only for the medical and nursing professions.<sup>70</sup>

77. One of the most important facets of freedom of choice in employment is the right of the individual to leave his work place for another, after due notice and without disproportionate loss of entitlements.

78. The Bulgarian Labour Code<sup>71</sup> allows workers and employees to leave their work places after 15 days' notice, but requires 30 days' notice for highly qualified personnel. Those leaving without notice or prematurely owe the enterprise compensation equal to their remuneration for the legal term of the notice. Workers are, however, entitled to leave immediately without penalty if any conditions of the Labour Code are violated by the employer, if rendered unfit for their jobs by illness (and not offered alternative work in the same enterprise) or if accepted for higher, secondary or vocational education. Other acceptable grounds for such terminations are change of residence, more than six months' assignment to duties not corresponding to the worker's qualifications, pregnancy, care of children under three years of age or the intention to take up work in the copper industry or on construction projects of national importance.

79. In Czechoslovakia, articles 45, 51 and 52 of the 1966 Labour Code<sup>72</sup> permit notice on the part of workers and employees for similar reasons but demand periods of notice of one month for workers under 30 years of age, two months for those between 30 and 40, and three months for those over 40. Notice of six months is required if the worker wishes to leave for reasons other than those legally specified or possibly without giving any reasons, unless the worker and the enterprise come to a different agreement. A provision under which, in certain cases, a worker could terminate his contract only with the agreement of the enterprise or the permission of the competent authorities was repealed in the late 1960s.<sup>73</sup>

80. Since 1968, Hungary has recognized a worker's right to leave his employment immediately (with some loss of normal benefits for continuity of service) or after an agreed period of notice, which varies between a minimum of two weeks and a maximum of three months. During that period, the employing enterprise must allow the worker four off-duty hours per day on full pay to look for other employment. His work-book is restored to him only when he has contracted for new employment. There are no legal penalties for workers who change their jobs too frequently, but they are indirectly discouraged from doing so by the granting of premiums for long service in the same enterprise and by an informal arrangement between some enterprises not to offer appointments carrying increased wages to "birds of passage". Labour turnover, however, averages only some 12 per cent of employment in a normal year.<sup>74</sup>

81. In Romania,<sup>75</sup> job changes without special permission are usually allowed after 12 days' notice, though certain losses of continuity benefits (not, however, affecting retirement pension) are entailed. (These benefits may include the right to paid holidays, which is conditional upon two years' service in the same enterprise.) In special cases, however, the agreement of the present and future employing enterprise is required, though the worker can appeal to the trust or association of which his present enterprise forms a part if this agreement is persistently refused. Fixed-term labour contracts, which cannot be broken, do exist but are normally restricted to seasonal work, to the three-year obligations of graduates of vocational schools or to a maximum of five years for those who were educated or sent abroad for training at the expense of their enterprises. There are no special penalties for those who change their jobs frequently.

82. In the USSR, a number of very stringent limitations on labour mobility were introduced during the Second World War. These prevented workers from changing jobs unless directed by the State and made infringements subject to up to four months' imprisonment. They appeared to remain in force, although less stringently applied, until the early 1950s and were formally repealed in 1956.

83. At present, the Basic Labour Code<sup>76</sup> recognizes the right of all wage and salary workers to terminate their employment on giving two weeks' notice. The employing organ is not entitled to prevent the worker's departure for any reason whatever or to require him to give reasons for his notice. Exceptions to this rule are young workers, specialists or graduates while under the obligation to complete their term of directed work after graduation (see para. 71b), or workers whose labour contracts cover definite periods (contracts for the extreme north etc.). These categories can give notice before the expiry of the obligatory period only if they can plead infringements of contractual conditions by the employing organ, illness or physical handicaps.

84. Workers who terminate their employment voluntarily in this manner do not (since 1960) lose their continuous-service credits (*stazh*, or uninterrupted work over a 15-year period) for pensions and other benefits, provided they enter new employment within one month. There is a 10 per cent addition to pension for uninterrupted work during a 15-year period.<sup>77</sup> The latter qualification does not apply to those who leave work because of illness, enrolment in study courses, transfers of husbands or wives or other reasons recognized by law. The restrictive effects of these rules on the free choice of employment will, of course, depend on the ease with which suitable jobs can be found within one month (or before leaving previous employment). In practice, however, workers usually leave their job when they have already found another job.

85. Workers who have received compensation for displacement, travel allowance etc. in connexion with their

<sup>69</sup> E/CN.4/1024, para. 55.

<sup>70</sup> Legislative Decree No. 46 of 1957, as amended by Legislative Decree No. 31 of 1958.

<sup>71</sup> Articles 29 (d), 30, and 34.

<sup>72</sup> See foot-note 50 above.

<sup>73</sup> E/CN.4/1012, para. 44.

<sup>74</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, September 1972.

<sup>75</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Labour, September 1972.

<sup>76</sup> Fundamental Principles governing Labour Legislation of the USSR and Union Republics, in *Vedomosti Verkhovnogo Soveta SSSR* [Official Gazette of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR], No. 29 (1531), 22 July 1970.

<sup>77</sup> If one has an interrupted work record and wishes to qualify for the 10 per cent bonus to his pension, he must work another 10 years after reaching pensionable age, according to information supplied by the USSR Trade Union Council, October 1972.



current employment and give notice before completing one year's work are required to repay the full cost of those concessions.

86. Similar provisions apply in the Union Republics of the USSR.<sup>78</sup>

87. In Yugoslavia, the Basic Law on Labour Relations specifies that a worker has the right to terminate his employment at any time, provided he gives notice for a period longer than 30 days but not exceeding six months (unless the worker and the organization agree otherwise).<sup>79</sup> In practice, the rules on resignation are now governed by the statute of each self-managing enterprise, and a form of resignation by presumption is often recognized in the case of workers who discontinue attendance at their place of work.<sup>80</sup>

88. As far as collective farmers are concerned, there appears to be no explicit legislative provision recognizing their right to withdraw from membership in their collectives and leave the farm without the agreement of the latter. On the basis of information supplied to the Special Rapporteur, it appears that this right is in actual fact safeguarded in the USSR.

89. In the case of Bulgaria, it is stated that each co-operative makes the relevant stipulations in its own statutes.<sup>81</sup>

90. In Romania, collective farm members are stated to be free to leave their co-operatives by agreement with the general assembly of the co-operative.

91. In the Soviet Collective Farm Charter of 1935, now superseded, there was a reference to the possibility of withdrawal, implicit in a paragraph prohibiting the parcelling out of collective farmland to those who left. The new Model Collective Farm Regulations of 28 November 1969 oblige the collective farm board (article 7) to consider any member's application for withdrawal within three months of its submission,<sup>82</sup> but specifies no legal obligation to accept. According to official information given verbally,<sup>83</sup> however, the right of collective farmers to change their occupation is in practice safeguarded. Moreover, if any of their dependants decide to remain on the farm, the household's private plot is turned over to them.

92. In the case of temporary work outside the farm, whether *ad hoc* or on contract, the collective farmer appears to need documentary dispensation from his farm administration before he can accept. This provision is explicitly mentioned only in the case of contracts with the agencies for the organized recruitment of labour, which are now abolished. It is not clear to what extent these rules apply to other forms of work outside the collective farm.

93. Similar provisions operate in all socialist countries of eastern Europe, but, in the case of individual applications for withdrawal, it does not seem possible to make generalizations regarding the conditions under which the general assembly's agreement is mandatory, or may be withheld, or the ease with which it can be obtained. The

rules governing such procedures may depend on the collective farm statute adopted separately by each co-operative, and could therefore vary from one farm to another. No general precepts appear to be contained in the model charters to which all statutes are intended to conform.

94. The fast rate of transfer from rural to urban occupations in most socialist countries of eastern Europe does not suggest, however, that the obstacles for those wishing to leave their collective farms are unduly inhibiting.

95. The very low pensionable age, which is one of the social achievements of most socialist countries of eastern Europe, does not impair the right to work of pensionable workers who still feel able to make a contribution in their professions. In the USSR, for instance, 5.2 million persons out of a total of 26 million over retirement age in 1971 had chosen to continue work and were drawing full wages and part of their pensions at the same time. Their pension entitlements are in these cases raised in line with their wages biannually as long as they continue to work. For some categories of workers, full pensions are payable while they continue to work; for others, the pension is restricted to 50 per cent of their entitlements (or 75 per cent in the case of work in northern or far eastern areas). In no case, however, can the total take-home pay (wages plus pensions) exceed 300 rouble per month.<sup>84</sup>

### C. The right to just and favourable conditions of work

96. The relationship between workers and their employing enterprises or institutions in the socialist countries of eastern Europe is regulated by the Labour Codes and derivative instruments of legislation, usually arising from joint decisions by state authorities and trade union organs. The legal relationship is conceptually expressed as a labour contract between the parties, in conformity with general norms laid down in the Standard Code, which serves as a universal frame of reference.

97. In Bulgaria, the worker's qualifications, skill category and status, on which the terms of the labour contract crucially depend, are determined by tests administered by special examination boards appointed by management (which must, however, include a trade union representative).<sup>85</sup>

98. In Czechoslovakia, the labour contract must be produced in writing in a large variety of cases, including the case in which it is called for at the express desire of the worker. It must specify the worker's precise duties, the location of the work and its starting date, as well as the worker's wage category and other terms of interest to both parties. Any probationary period agreed upon must also be specified in the contract.<sup>86</sup>

99. In the USSR, conditions of work are regulated by the Labour Code. Within that framework, they are governed by the collective agreement concluded between the employing authority (enterprise or institution) and the factory, works, or local (trade union) committee as contracting parties.<sup>87</sup> As the Labour Code developed in scope

<sup>78</sup> Also as shown by the reply of the Byelorussian SSR to the questionnaires.

<sup>79</sup> *Yearbook on Human Rights for 1965* . . . , p. 351.

<sup>80</sup> Information from the Yugoslav Secretariat of State for Foreign Affairs.

<sup>81</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>82</sup> See foot-note 27 above.

<sup>83</sup> Provided by an official government agency in Moscow, October 1972.

<sup>84</sup> Information from the USSR Social Security Office and Trade Union Council, October 1972.

<sup>85</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>86</sup> *Code du travail de la République socialiste tchécoslovaque* (Prague, 1966), articles 27-35.

<sup>87</sup> Ordinance of the Council of Ministers of the USSR and the All-Union Central Council of Trades Unions dated 6 March 1966 concerning the conclusion of collective agreements in enterprises (*Yearbook on Human Rights for 1966* . . . , pp. 381 and 382).

and detail, the collective agreement changed from an original contract on standards of mutual behaviour to an instrument of clarification, applying the Labour Code<sup>88</sup> to the specific circumstances of particular enterprises. Apart from listing the obligations of both parties to the national economy, the collective agreement lays down the duties of the employing authority in the field of wage administration, norm-setting, workers' participation in management, health and safety measures and the provision of amenities (factory housing, canteens, sick-rooms etc.). The agreement is concluded annually not later than February and follows procedures and standards regulated jointly by government and trade union organs. It is ratified by the general meeting of wage and salary earners in each enterprise and sent for registration to higher organs of economic administration.<sup>89</sup>

100. The individual worker employed in an enterprise is deemed to have entered into a labour contract with its administration, which may or may not be documented in a formal way.<sup>90</sup> This implies an obligation on the worker's part to perform work of a definite kind for a period of time, which may be indefinite, specified (not longer than three years) or limited to the completion of a defined task. The contract may be unconditional or probationary within time limits set by the Labour Code.<sup>91</sup> It must not contain any direct or indirect curtailment of rights or extensions of privileges for reasons of sex, race, nationality or religion. On the part of the employing authority, the contract implies the obligation to pay the wages appropriate to the job and to provide working conditions in accordance with standards laid down in the Labour Code.

101. Provisions in the agreements which create conditions of employment less favourable to the employee than those laid down in the Labour Code or which are intended to limit the political and general civic rights of the workers are null and void (articles 4 and 28 of the Labour Code).

102. According to article 9 of the Order on Collective Agreements, the fulfilment of obligations under these agreements is supervised jointly by trade-union and economic organizations.

103. In Yugoslavia, the Basic Law on Labour Regulations<sup>92</sup> is based on the established principles of self-management, as guaranteed in articles 9 and 10 of the Constitution. It provides that the work community, as the sovereign entity which has established employment relations within a productive organization, decides independently on such matters as labour contracts, new entries and terminations, hours and conditions of work, distribution of earnings to individuals and training. While these decisions are autonomous in the sense of implying the complete abrogation of the former dichotomy between

employer and employee and its replacement by a system of mutual relationships among freely associating workers, they are required to conform to general principles regarding equality of rights, payment commensurate with the quantity and quality of individual work, absence of discrimination etc.

104. Workers in the socialist countries of eastern Europe are provided with a document recording their employment status and other relevant information, which accompanies them from one work-place to the next. In Hungary, it lists their skill category, training record, qualifications and past employment, but not the wages received.<sup>93</sup> In the USSR, the work-book records the professional status and entitlements of each worker. It is issued to all wage and salary earners by their first employing authority and kept up to date by the current employer, to whom it is also entrusted for safe-keeping during the worker's period of employment. Apart from the worker's skill category, it records successive places of employment, transfers, training or study courses, special mentions, honours and awards. There are no endorsements for any disciplinary proceedings against him, and no entry may be made without his knowledge and consent. The only documents which managements are entitled to request from applicants for vacant jobs are the work-book, with supporting evidence concerning his qualifications and a document of personal identification (passport). They are prohibited by law from demanding any additional information or documents not provided for in the Standard Regulation.<sup>94</sup>

105. In Yugoslavia, according to article 9 of the Basic Law on Labour Relations,<sup>95</sup> the employment book is a public document which serves to attest the facts necessary for the realization of the rights deriving from employment relationships. It contains, among other things, the worker's skill category, as determined by the certificate issued to him by local government. The entry of negative data on the worker in his employment book is prohibited.

106. The existence of just and favourable working conditions implies protection against the unjustified assignment of employees to duties within their enterprises which may be incompatible with their qualifications, labour contracts or legitimate expectations. Such protection is generally provided for in the socialist countries of eastern Europe.

107. According to article 24 of the Bulgarian Labour Code, an enterprise is not entitled to change the work-place or the type of work to be performed by a worker in contravention of the labour agreement, unless his express consent is obtained.<sup>96</sup>

108. The 1966 Labour Code of Czechoslovakia permits reclassification of the worker normally only for medical or disciplinary reasons but allows for unspecified cases in which the enterprise may change the terms of his contract without his consent. Reclassification is also permitted without the worker's consent for "reasons connected with the functioning of the enterprise" in cases where natural catastrophes need to be averted or where other circumstances make it inevitable (for a period not exceeding 30 days in each year). In all these cases, however,

<sup>88</sup> See foot-note 76 above.

<sup>89</sup> In this connexion, the Government of the USSR states (E/CN.4/1132) that a collective agreement shall contain the legal norms worked out by the management of the enterprise and the local trade-union committee of the factory or plant, within the limits of the rights granted to them by law, and that the registration of collective agreements was abolished on 1 January 1971.

<sup>90</sup> The Government of the USSR states (*ibid.*) that the labour codes of the Union Republics provide that a labour contract may be concluded orally or in writing, but the employment engagement must always be formalized in an order (instruction) of the management.

<sup>91</sup> The Government of the USSR states (*ibid.*) that it is specified in the labour codes of the Union Republics that the labour legislation applies fully to manual and non-manual workers during a period of probation.

<sup>92</sup> *Yearbook on Human Rights for 1965* . . . , pp. 346-353.

<sup>93</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, September 1972.

<sup>94</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.3, pp. 28 and 29.

<sup>95</sup> *Yearbook on Human Rights for 1965* . . . , p. 351.

<sup>96</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.



the enterprise must take account of the wishes and capacity of the worker concerned and discuss with him the reasons for his new assignment and its probable duration.<sup>97</sup>

109. Hungary allows the transfer of workers to lower-paid work generally only for disciplinary reasons but also makes provision for the possibility of such transfers in cases of economic necessity, provided the agreement of trade union organs is obtained.<sup>98</sup>

110. In Romania, reclassification is only permitted in cases of deficient performance on the part of the worker, while the employment of workers with higher educational qualifications in low-skill categories is generally prohibited.<sup>99</sup>

111. In the USSR, the Labour Code prohibits the permanent transfer of a worker from one type of work to another without his consent, though transfers from one work-place to another are the prerogative of the employing authority. Conflicts between workers and management on this score are resolved by the Committee on Labour Disputes or the factory, works or local (trade union) committee. The administration, however, is entitled to transfer a worker to different types of work temporarily, where this is dictated by the needs of production or by disciplinary proceedings against him. In the first case, the transfer must not exceed one month in duration or entail loss of earnings, unless it is necessitated by idle time or interruption in the enterprise's production cycle. In the second case, transfers to lower-paid work are permissible but must not exceed three months in duration; nor is the administration entitled to reduce an offender's earnings while requiring him to work in his own skill category, since actions of this sort would infringe the principle of payment in accordance with the quantity and quality of work performed.

112. Transfers to work-places in other localities (cities, districts) are not permitted without the worker's consent, even when no change in the type of work is involved.<sup>100</sup>

113. The answer of the Byelorussian SSR to the United Nations questionnaire further specifies that transfers to other work within the same enterprise, as well as transfers to other enterprises or other locations (even in conjunction with a move by the whole enterprise), without the consent of the worker are prohibited, except in a few circumstances specified by law. Temporary transfers to a different type of work are permitted only in cases of absolute necessity or in cases of idle time.

114. In the arrangement of working conditions within the enterprise, special consideration is given to persons with reduced working capabilities or in need of temporary protection.

115. In Bulgaria,<sup>101</sup> article 118 of the Labour Code provides for the obligatory transfer of women on arduous tasks to lighter work without loss of earnings after the

fourth month of pregnancy. Enterprises are also obliged to transfer workers to suitably lighter work when instructed to do so by medical authorities (article 121). All such transfers are governed by a special decree of the Council of Ministers dated 17 December 1963.<sup>102</sup>

116. Hungary and Romania make similar provisions in their labour legislation and also confer absolute rights of reinstatement on individuals when the period of transfer has elapsed.<sup>103</sup> Poland has legislated for lighter work throughout periods of pregnancy, if a woman's occupation is judged too onerous by a doctor, and also prohibits overtime, night shifts, and work assignment away from the usual work-place in the case of mothers with children under one year of age.<sup>104</sup>

117. In the USSR, expectant or nursing mothers, sufferers from specified diseases and others are entitled to temporary transfers to lighter work in their own enterprises without loss of earnings. If these transfers take on a permanent character, the previous earnings level is safeguarded for a transitional period. If they are not permanent, previous earnings continue to be paid for two weeks, and in the case of pregnant women, nursing mothers, mothers with children under one year of age or workers suffering from injuries there is no loss of earnings throughout the whole period of transfer.<sup>105</sup>

118. Rules and procedures in matters of work discipline and disputes between individual employees and management are laid down in special sections of the Labour Code in all socialist countries of eastern Europe.

119. In Bulgaria,<sup>106</sup> for instance, punishable breaches of discipline are categorized into (a) late arrival, (b) early departure from work, (c) inefficiency, (d) absenteeism, (e) unfounded refusals to undertake reasonable tasks, (f) drunkenness at work, (g) negligence, (h) infringement of laws or sentences, (i) violation of other stipulations in force. Employees accused of these infringements have the right to defend themselves and, if found guilty, can be (a) reprovved, (b) reprimanded, (c) severely reprimanded, or (d) transferred to a lower pay category or job in the same or another enterprise.<sup>107</sup> In the case of unjustified absence from work for three consecutive days or over five days during a calendar year, the worker suffers corresponding deductions from his regular leave entitlements and, in addition, loses his normal right to supplementary paid leave (in excess of the regular entitlement of 14 work days per year). Similar provisions, with slight variations, seem to apply in all socialist countries of eastern Europe.

120. As regards labour disputes, the USSR may serve as a typical example.<sup>108</sup> There, such disputes are resolved by mixed commissions at enterprise level, on which trade union committees and management are represented in equal strength. If no agreement is reached, or the contending parties do not both concur with the verdict, the

<sup>97</sup> *Code du travail de la République socialiste tchécoslovaque* (Prague, 1966), articles 37 and 38.

<sup>98</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, September 1972.

<sup>99</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Labour, November 1972.

<sup>100</sup> Fundamental Principles governing Labour Legislation . . . in *Vedomosti Verkhovnogo Soveta SSSR* [Official Gazette of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR], No. 29 (1531), 22 July 1970; and information from the reply of the USSR to the questionnaires sent by the Special Rapporteur (for the text of the questionnaires, see annex I of the present study).

<sup>101</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>102</sup> Bulgarian Official Gazette, No. 101 of 1963.

<sup>103</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office and the Romanian Ministry of Labour, September 1972.

<sup>104</sup> See E/CN.4/1023/Add.1, annex, p. 11.

<sup>105</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add. 3, p. 30, and information from the USSR reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>106</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>107</sup> Similar penalties are also provided for in the 1966 Labour Code of Czechoslovakia (article 77).

<sup>108</sup> *Kommentarii k zakonodatelstvu o trude* [Commentaries on Labour Legislation] (Moscow, 1966); *Vedomosti Verkhovnogo Soveta SSSR* [Official Gazette of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR], No. 29 (1531), 22 July 1970; and E/CN.4/1011/Add.3, annex, pp. 31 and 32.

dispute comes before the factory, works, or local (trade union) committee. The latter may confirm or change the decision of the mixed commission. Workers applying for reinstatement after improper dismissal can apply to the people's court but must do so within one month of the dismissal in cases where this occurred with the agreement of the trade union committee. Workers bringing actions for recovery of wages or pressing claims on other matters arising out of the employment relationship are exempt from payment of costs and other charges.

121. Labour conditions in collective farms are generally regulated by model charters adopted by congresses of collective farms, and passed by state and party authorities, which subsequently serve as frames of reference for the statutes and regulations drawn up by the individual co-operatives. The latter, which are passed by the general assembly of each collective farm, lay down procedures for arranging working and off-days, paid vacations and minimum work requirements for each member. The farmers are entitled to personal plots, implements and livestock to an extent determined by the general assembly within the limits set in the statute.<sup>109</sup>

122. In the USSR, the Model Collective Farm Regulations of 28 November 1969<sup>110</sup> specify that the participation of members in various production departments within the farm must be determined on the basis of the interests of the development of the communal sector and with due consideration for (members') qualifications, work experience, skills and personal desires. The collective farm board is responsible for wage payments, payments in kind, piecework norms, bonuses etc. It is also responsible for recognition of merit and special rewards, as well as labour discipline, censure of offenders and penalties (e.g., transfer to lower-paid work). Finally, it is responsible for living and cultural conditions on the farm, including education, health and hygiene.

123. By decision of the general meeting of members, collective farm members are granted personal plots whose size depends on the number in the household and their participation in the labour of the communal sector. Maximum sizes are fixed at half a hectare (including land occupied by buildings), or one fifth of a hectare on irrigated land. This privilege dates back to the height of the collectivization movement in the early 1930s and has been interpreted with various degrees of stringency at different stages of development. The new Regulations specify that its provisions must not be construed to imply a reduction in the size of existing personal plots, where these have been established in accordance with the previous Charter.

124. In matters of industrial safety, the socialist countries of eastern Europe lay down specific guarantees in their general labour codes and in supplementary legislative acts.

125. In Bulgaria, the Occupational Safety Inspectorate controls the proper execution by enterprises, institutions and farms of the model regulations concerning safety measures.<sup>111</sup>

126. In the USSR, the Labour Code sets the technical and hygienic standards to be maintained in enterprises for the prevention of accidents and the safeguarding of health. Special annual conventions are signed by management and

works committees providing for the introduction of hygiene and safety measures. The main responsibility for their implementation rests on the technical inspectors appointed by trade union committees and on special state inspectorates.<sup>112</sup>

127. Since January 1970, a standard list of safety and health measures in enterprises has been in operation. This is applied to the special circumstances of each major industry by the corresponding Ministry or Department, by agreement with trade union organs. In mining, iron and steel works, oil fields and other enterprises, special responsibilities for safety also rest on works managers and foremen.

128. Similar provisions apply in the other socialist countries of eastern Europe.

#### **D. The right to protection against unemployment**

129. There are no unemployment benefits under that denomination in the socialist countries of eastern Europe other than Yugoslavia, since unemployment in these countries has been declared banished for ever. Nevertheless, provision is made for the financial alleviation of difficulties caused by transitional periods between two jobs and other lapses from the normal conditions of an individual's employment.

130. In spite of the declared absence of unemployment in Bulgaria, for instance, the social security system gives assistance to workers and employees who are temporarily out of work. (Collective farmers are excluded from this provision, since their status as members of co-operatives is not based on a contract of employment in the normal sense.) The assistance is available for a maximum of 13 weeks in any year to workers dismissed through no fault of their own, to whom no alternative job could be offered; it is conditional on the worker having a certain minimum length of service to his credit, and its scale appears to depend on total family income.<sup>113</sup> For workers made redundant by technological progress who attend retraining courses or study groups, an allowance of 100 per cent of their previous basic wage is payable for a period between three to six months. When it is not possible to enrol them in such courses, they are entitled to 100 per cent of previous earnings for one month, and to 50 per cent of these earnings for a further period not exceeding 156 working days.<sup>114</sup>

131. Compensation for redundancy is also provided for in Czechoslovakia, where a special allowance is available before the start of a new occupation, under Notice No. 74/1970, Collection of Laws.<sup>115</sup>

132. Benefits equal to 10 per cent of earnings (plus a flat-rate payment for each dependant and for housing) are also payable in the German Democratic Republic to persons without employment for up to 26 weeks. The

<sup>109</sup> Information from, e.g., the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>110</sup> See foot-note 27 above.

<sup>111</sup> E/CN.4/1011, p. 3.

<sup>112</sup> The Government of the USSR states (E/CN.4/1132) that it is incorrect to say that the Soviet Labour Codes set technical and hygienic standards. Such standards are embodied in special laws, for the most part departmental regulations, which take into account the special characteristics of each type of production. Responsibility for the implementation of safety measures lies, not with trade union inspectors and special state inspectors, but with the management of the enterprises.

<sup>113</sup> Decree No. 62 of 9 June 1958 (from the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires).

<sup>114</sup> See E/CN.4/1011, p. 4

<sup>115</sup> E/CN.4/1023/Add.4, p. 3.

payments are financed on a compulsory insurance basis governed by a law dating back to 1947.

133. In Hungary, assistance is available under the 1957 law to the involuntarily unemployed, subject to means tests. The payments, which cannot be made for longer than six months, amount to 30 per cent of normal earnings, but must be within the range of 300 to 600 forint per month, exclusive of dependants' supplements of 40 forint per person.

134. In Poland, the labour exchanges advise welfare boards to pay special temporary relief in cases where there are difficulties or delays in the placement of persons temporarily out of work. On 6 November 1968, the Minister of Health and Social Welfare, in conjunction with the Chairman of the Labour and Wages Committee, issued Ordinance No. 20 regularizing assistance of this sort.<sup>116</sup>

135. Romania, on the other hand, has stated that, in view of the total absence of unemployment in the country, no special measures of protection are in force.<sup>117</sup>

136. In the USSR also, no unemployment benefits actually so called exist, since unemployment was declared to have been overcome once and for all and the labour exchanges were closed in 1931. The Union Republics do, however, make provision for severance pay (equal to two weeks' average wages) in certain legally defined circumstances,<sup>118</sup> first, where employees lose their job, (without having been given the required two weeks' notice) for reasons of closure, laying off of staff, idle time or stoppages of production for periods exceeding one month, and secondly, where severance is due to the setting up of investigating commissions or tribunals in connexion with the worker's previous assignment; in such cases, severance pay is obligatory, even if due notice has been received and even if the dispute giving rise to the investigation originated in the worker's own refusal to follow the enterprise in its move to a different location.

137. Of all the socialist countries of eastern Europe, Yugoslavia is the only one to have felt the need to make specific provision for the payment of unemployment benefits on a regular basis where a worker's circumstances make this necessary. The right to this relief is guaranteed in article 36 of the Constitution.<sup>119</sup> The scheme is, at present, governed by a law dated 1965, financed by contributions from employing organizations, with the federal budget responsible for any deficit. Benefits amount to 50 per cent of earnings and are payable for up to six months (extended to a further 6-18 months for workers with 50-120 months' prior employment); they are conditional on means tests and on a previous employment record of 12 consecutive months, or 18 months in the two years preceding the unemployment.

138. In Yugoslavia, the number of persons seeking work and receiving benefits was given as slightly under 10 000 in 1971. Nearly 75 per cent of these were unskilled, and about 34 per cent women; the average duration of the benefit payments was given as 25 days per person. The monthly rate of payment amounted to 407 dinars per person on average, or slightly over 28 per cent of net re-

ceipts (income) from employment per person.<sup>120</sup> The number of persons in this category had dropped sharply in 1971 from a total of 13 700 in 1970 and a recent peak of 32 600 in 1966.

139. In conditions where the employment situation is deemed to be such that no provision for regular unemployment relief is called for, protection against unemployment must be interpreted as a system of safeguards against unjust dismissal and the provision of alternative job opportunities or training in cases of loss of employment through redundancy or other structural causes.

140. All the CMEA countries of eastern Europe prohibit the termination of the employment of any worker in contravention of his labour contract without his consent, but all of them provide for important exceptions to this rule for disciplinary or economic reasons, which are specified in the labour codes. These provisions are sufficiently similar in the countries under review to be adequately illustrated by the Soviet Code,<sup>121</sup> which permits dismissal in the following cases:

- (a) Total or partial shut-down of the enterprise;
- (b) Reduction of the enterprise's workload or general cuts in staff (redundancy);
- (c) Stoppage of work for technical reasons in excess of one month;
- (d) Proven inadequacy of the worker for his duties;
- (e) Consistent neglect of duties by the worker without just cause;
- (f) Criminal proceedings against the worker in connexion with his employment;
- (g) Prison terms of more than two months served by the worker;
- (h) Absenteeism without just cause;
- (i) Prolonged absence of the worker due to illness (exceeding four consecutive months), though, in the case of industrial injury or occupational disease, he must be reinstated on recovery;
- (j) Reinstatement of another worker previously employed on the job.

In no case may a worker be dismissed by his employing authority without the consent of the factory, works, or local (trade union) committee. This consent must be based on a full consideration of the case by a session of the committee at which the worker himself must be heard.

141. Similar provisions apply in all Union Republics of the USSR.<sup>122</sup>

142. The Bulgarian Code<sup>123</sup> specifies in addition that workers may be dismissed on completion of the length-of-service requirements for a pension, provided they have reached the age of 55 or 50 (in the case of men and women, respectively). It also allows dismissals in cases where a worker refuses to move to another enterprise or to another locality to which the enterprise itself is being transferred. Moreover, it permits dismissals without due notice when the worker has been punished for breach of discipline (article 130e) or when substantial evidence of criminal culpability in connexion with his employment has been produced. In the latter case, the dismissal is temporary

<sup>116</sup> E/CN.4/1024, para. 81.

<sup>117</sup> Information from the reply of Romania to the questionnaires sent by the Special Rapporteur (for the text of the questionnaires, see annex I of the present study).

<sup>118</sup> From the reply of the Byelorussian SSR to the questionnaires.

<sup>119</sup> Constitution of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, constitutional amendments (Belgrade, 1969).

<sup>120</sup> Yugoslavia, *Statistički Godišnjak Jugoslavije 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia, 1972], pp. 101 and 277.

<sup>121</sup> See foot-note 100 above.

<sup>122</sup> From the replies of the Byelorussian SSR and the Ukrainian SSR to the questionnaires.

<sup>123</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.



only, and the worker must be reinstated with back pay, unless formally convicted within two months.

143. In Hungary and Romania<sup>124</sup> also, dismissals are only allowed for disciplinary reasons when approved by trade union organs, or for reasons of economic necessity (e.g., pit closures).

144. The situation in Yugoslavia is governed by the principles of self-management as promulgated in the Basic Law on Labour Relations.<sup>125</sup> Articles 2 and 17 of this Law specify that a work community may terminate the work and membership of any of its members only if it establishes that the conditions for his work have ceased to exist, e.g., when work-places are closed down and no alternative assignments are available, when the volume of operations is permanently reduced or when the worker's capacity falls short of requirements.

145. Most socialist countries of eastern Europe specify particular circumstances in which notices of dismissal cannot on any account be served, e.g., in the case of Poland, while the worker is on vacation or leave, on military service or in custody; during pregnancy or maternity leave (paid or unpaid); if the worker is an ex-serviceman or disabled war veteran; if the worker is the wife of a serviceman; if the worker has a long service record or if the worker is the sole breadwinner of a household. In addition, special protection is provided for workers who are members of works councils, trade union delegations, labour inspectorates, tribunals or social courts. The protection also extends to employees on leave of absence because of their election to local government, trade union or other political bodies, and to workers performing state or civic duties away from their work-places without leave of absence. Exemption from notice of dismissal is also granted to juveniles employed as apprentices or trainees on completion of vocational courses.<sup>126</sup>

146. Similar exemptions apply in Yugoslavia, in accordance with the Basic Law on Labour Relations.<sup>127</sup>

147. The most frequent provisions made in the countries under review for termination of employment and re-employment in cases of redundancy may be illustrated by reference to the Labour Code of the USSR.<sup>128</sup> This provides that, in such cases, management may transfer skilled workers to other operations with their consent and terminate the employment of workers in lower-skill categories instead, even though the redundancy did not occur in their particular functions. The Labour Code gives relatively greater immunity from dismissal to workers of higher skill and, within each skill category, to workers with greater family commitments. In every case, however, the employing authority is under an obligation to arrange for permanent or temporary re-employment in the same or another enterprise.<sup>129</sup> Where redundancies are too widespread in a given locality for this to be done, special party and government measures provide for paid retraining, lump-sum benefits, displacement grants, etc. In such cases, responsibility for the eventual reassignment of redundant workers

rests jointly on the enterprise administration and the factory, works, or local (trade union) committee.

148. Refusal by a redundant worker to accept the re-assignment offered does not save him from dismissal, if the enterprise administration and the works committee concur.

149. Redundant workers do not lose their continuous service credits for pensions and other benefits unless they fail to take up other employment within one month of their dismissal (the period of grace is extended in certain cases by special government legislation).

150. Dismissal for reasons of personal unfitness for the job are subject to safeguards similar to those which apply to redundancy, provided there is no culpability on the part of the worker. In cases of unfitness due to deficient health, the law requires the employment authority to arrange for a transfer to lighter work.

151. Dismissals for infringement of industrial discipline are allowed only in cases where the offending behaviour is of a prolonged, repetitive or systematic character and the offender has not responded to other social or disciplinary measures. Breaches of discipline previously punished may not be cited in support of the case for dismissal unless the renewed infringement has occurred within one year of the last penalty. In every case, the matter must be referred to the factory, works, or local (trade union) committee.

152. Dismissal without prior warning or other measures is, however, permitted in cases of unjustified absenteeism—where the latter is defined as absence for a whole day or insobriety at work. Even here, however, the Labour Code enjoins rehabilitation measures before dismissal is resorted to.

153. Workers dismissed for infringement of industrial discipline may lose their continuous service credits,<sup>130</sup> but trade unions consider it their duty to help such workers find a new job and a new place in society.<sup>131</sup>

154. In the USSR, employing authorities also have the right to dismiss workers who are kept from work by illness for continuous periods in excess of four months, if this is dictated by the needs of production. In such cases, the dismissed worker continues to draw his allowances for temporary incapacity and retains his continuous service credits, regardless of the length of the interruption.

155. In general, enterprises must give two weeks' notice of dismissal and pay the dismissed worker a lump sum equal to his average earnings during a 12-day period. He must be handed his work-book, with the legally required endorsements specifying the precise reasons for his dismissal, e.g., "dismissed owing to redundancy", "dismissed for absenteeism" etc.

156. According to the Model Collective Farm Regulations of the USSR,<sup>132</sup> expulsion from collective farm membership may be employed as an extreme measure against individuals who violate labour discipline,<sup>133</sup> when other sanctions have been found ineffective. The measure requires a resolution of the general meeting of collective farmers, against which an aggrieved member may appeal

<sup>124</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office and Romanian Ministry of Labour, September 1972.

<sup>125</sup> *Yearbook on Human Rights for 1965* . . . , p. 346 et seq.

<sup>126</sup> E/CN.4/1023/Add.1, annex, pp. 12 and 13.

<sup>127</sup> *Yearbook on Human Rights for 1965* . . . , p. 351.

<sup>128</sup> *Kommentarii k zakonodatelstvu o trude* [Commentaries on Labour Legislation] (Moscow, 1966) and *Vedomosti Verkhovnogo Soveta SSSR* [Official Gazette of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR], No. 29 (1531), 22 July 1970.

<sup>129</sup> From the reply of the USSR to the questionnaires.

<sup>130</sup> Benefits are not, however, impaired as far as compensation for occupational hazards or industrial accidents are concerned.

<sup>131</sup> Information from a government agency, Moscow, October 1972.

<sup>132</sup> See foot-note 27 above.

<sup>133</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires.



to the local Soviet. Expelled members are deprived of all rights established in the Collective Farm Regulations, including presumably the right to their private plots, except for a small portion of that plot to which all citizens are entitled.<sup>134</sup>

157. While the provisions described above appear to offer ample safeguards against unjustified dismissal, effective protection against involuntary unemployment must also depend on the ease with which persons justifiably dismissed, job-changers or new entrants to the labour force can find employment of a kind and in a locality consistent with their reasonable expectations, or have such employment found for them. Serious obstacles in this regard may allow unemployment to be obviated only at the cost of severe restrictions on the free choice of employment.

158. There is some evidence that, in the USSR, state and party authorities became alive to dangers of this sort in the mid 1960s when new commissions for job placement were instituted at district, city, and provincial level. Difficulties and delays in finding employment for secondary school-leavers appear to have been experienced in some Caucasian Republics, with 16 per cent of this group affected in Armenia and 18 per cent in Azerbaidjan during 1966.<sup>135</sup> Difficulties were also experienced in placing young specialists and school-leavers in agriculture to the full extent planned for, due to the widespread preference for urban work. The problem may have been aggravated by the increased numbers leaving school in the late 1960s and early 1970s<sup>136</sup> and the current economic reforms, which may cause redundancies in industrial enterprises. Other indications of difficulties are the frequent calls for more investment in labour-intensive branches able to absorb redundant workers from elsewhere.

159. Structural employment difficulties appear most markedly in regional form. While the larger towns complain of labour shortages, a considerable number of smaller towns suffer from an excess of labour in search of employment. Government plans and directives often favour the construction of new enterprises in medium-sized and small urban settlements for this reason.

160. Another movement causing difficulties has been the apparently unplanned influx of young people, particularly skilled workers, from the country to the towns. These problems are aggravated by the uncontrolled migration of manpower from Siberia, the Urals, and the Far East towards the labour-surplus regions of central Asia, the Ukraine, and the north Caucasus.<sup>137</sup>

161. There are complaints that the manpower balances drawn up for planning purposes at the territorial and provincial levels are too aggregative to eliminate manpower deficits and surpluses in individual districts. Thus, in Krasnoyarsk Territory, an over-all net deficit of 60 000 was reported, but this concealed a gross deficit of 15 500 in deficit regions and a gross surplus of 14 900 in other regions.<sup>138</sup>

<sup>134</sup> According to later information received from a government agency in Moscow in October 1972, all Soviet citizens living in rural areas are entitled to a personal household plot of 0.15 hectare in area.

<sup>135</sup> *Trud* [Labour], 28 March 1967.

<sup>136</sup> *Trud*, 6 May 1967.

<sup>137</sup> See, e.g., V. Perevdenstev, "Migratsiia naseleniia i ispol'zovanie trudovykh resursov" ["Migration of population and use of manpower resources"], in *Voprosy ekonomiki* [Problems of Economics], No. 9 (Moscow, September 1970), p. 34.

<sup>138</sup> V. Chirakov, "Problemy ispol'zovaniia trudovykh resursov sela" ["Problems relating to employment of manpower resources in

162. It appears that 60–80 per cent of new entrants to the Labour force are school-leavers and adolescents and that this proportion is increasing. In these circumstances much depends on career counselling in the pre-employment phase. There is, however, considerable dissatisfaction with this service. The overwhelming number of resignations seems to occur in the first year of employment, suggesting some degree of initial misallocation and disappointed expectations.<sup>139</sup>

163. In connexion with the new rationalization measures in industry, the number of those becoming redundant is expected to increase, and their average waiting period before new employment can be found may well become longer. Plans have therefore been made for increased compensation during this period in the form of better retraining allowances, higher severance pay etc.<sup>140</sup>

### **E. The right of everyone who works to just and favourable remuneration ensuring a decent living for himself and his family**

164. The constitutions and/or labour codes of all socialist countries of eastern Europe, as surveyed in part one of this survey, state that working people must be paid in accordance with the quantity and quality of their work, regardless of sex, age, race or nationality. In addition, it is usually stated that monthly payments for work must, in no case, fall short of a minimum wage established by the State. The significance of the latter, measured as a proportion of average wages earned, will, of course, vary in time, as average earnings rise continuously between the initial year of a new minimum wage and its next revision. The statistical evidence suggests, however, that minimum wages are usually fixed at a level varying between one third and just over a half of average earnings in the country as a whole.

165. In Bulgaria, resolution No. 49 of the Council of Ministers of 8 October 1966 established a minimum monthly remuneration of 55 leva (or 2.20 per day) for workers and 57 leva for employees.<sup>141</sup> On 30 August 1969, this was increased (as from 1 April 1970) to 60 leva, to which was added a supplement of 5 leva on the basis of an earlier decree.<sup>142</sup> Average monthly wages were given as 107 leva in 1967 and 124 leva in 1970,<sup>143</sup> thus suggesting that the minima payable slightly exceeded 50 per cent of average earnings in the two years in question.

166. In Hungary, the minimum wage of 800 forint per month<sup>144</sup> amounted to some 36 per cent of average wages in state and co-operative employment in 1971.<sup>145</sup>

the village"], in *Voprosy ekonomiki* [Problems of Economics], No. 1 (Moscow, January 1968), p. 40.

<sup>139</sup> *Trud*, 24 June 1969, and *Zaria Vostoka*, 5 June 1969.

<sup>140</sup> A. Maikov, "Voprosy pereraspredeleniia trudovykh resursov" ["The question of the distribution of manpower resources"], in *Planovoe khoziaistvo* [Planned Economy], 45th year, No. 11 (Moscow, November 1968), p. 16.

<sup>141</sup> E/CN.4/1011, p. 4.

<sup>142</sup> Decrees No. 33 of August 1969 and No. 63 of December 1967; see the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires. In addition, Decree No. 12 of 24 March 1972 raised the minimum pay of mechanics in agriculture from 2 to 2.80 leva per day.

<sup>143</sup> *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries, 1971], p. 389.

<sup>144</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office.

<sup>145</sup> Average monthly wage 1971: 2,201 forint (*Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971*, p. 390).

167. Polish minimum wages rose from 360 to 700 zloty per month between 1955 and 1961. They were further raised to 750 zloty in 1963 and to 850 zloty in 1966<sup>146</sup> (without liability for deduction in respect of income tax—as for all wages under 1 000 zloty). With average wages at 2 013 and 2 459 zloty in 1965 and 1970 respectively,<sup>147</sup> the minima were just under 35 per cent of the averages in both these years. In 1971, minimum wages rose to 1 000 zloty.<sup>148</sup>

168. In Romania, minimum wages were raised from 570 to 700 lei per month with effect from 1 August 1967, and all wages below the new minimum were raised by 10.4 per cent.<sup>149</sup> By 1970, they had risen to 800 lei per month, i.e., to 56 per cent of the industrial and 60 per cent of the agricultural average of that year.<sup>150</sup> A new minimum of 1 000 lei per month was foreseen for 1971.<sup>151</sup>

169. In the USSR, minimum wages were fixed at 30–35 rouble per month (27 in rural areas) from January 1957. A further increase to 40–45 rouble (40 in rural areas) took place in 1962. In January 1968, this was raised to 60 rouble a month for all wage and salary workers (70 rouble for certain special categories).<sup>152</sup> Finally, the Twenty-fourth Party Congress decreed a new monthly minimum of 70 rouble for all from 1971 and foreshadowed further rises in the next three years. With average wages at 78, 87, 113 and 126 rouble per month in the four initial years of the new period of minimum wage legislation, the minimum levels appear to have risen steadily from 42 to nearly 56 per cent of the concurrent averages.<sup>153</sup>

170. No data appear to exist on the number of incomes at the legal minimum level, except for a reference to the fact that the 1957 raises affected 6 million wage and salary earners, some of whom found their incomes doubled overnight.

171. In Yugoslavia, minimum wages were stated to be 50 dinar per month,<sup>154</sup> thus corresponding to about 42 per cent of the 1971 average net income per head (1 432 dinar per year).<sup>155</sup> The approximate number of persons receiving minimum wages in 1971 was given as 2 000.<sup>156</sup>

172. In the USSR, the new Model Collective Farm Regulations provide for a guaranteed wage component in the payment of collective farm members. The Regulations do not, however, give effect to the equalization of pay between collective farm and state farm workers of the same skill categories.<sup>157</sup> Nevertheless, it gives legal recog-

nition to the principle that wage payments should be a prior charge on the collective's income, ranking before tax payments and the formation of collective funds.

173. The wage rates payable to workers in the CMEA countries of eastern Europe are subject to detailed regulation by state organs and trade union bodies and are applied in particular enterprises and work-places by the authority of management acting in conjunction with local factory and plant committees.

174. Bulgaria embodies the constitutional requirement of remuneration by quantity and quality<sup>158</sup> in standard tariff tables for wage rates (approved by the Council of Ministers under article 68 of the Labour Code), differentiated according to the complexity, arduousness and social importance of the work.<sup>159</sup> Employing agencies are debarred from making deductions from individual wages for social insurance contributions (as these are wholly payable out of their own funds), but members of co-operative farms have 2 per cent of their incomes deducted for contributions to pension funds.<sup>160</sup>

175. Similar wage-fixing arrangements exist in other CMEA countries of eastern Europe, though different provisions for the deduction at source of taxes and other charges appear to apply. The situation prevailing in Hungary may serve as an example: there, social insurance contributions of 2–3 per cent are deducted from wages, as well as an income tax, which was stated to average 5–6 per cent in 1972. Young workers between the ages of 18 and 24 who have been exempted from military service are subject to an additional withholding of 12 per cent for a maximum of three years, though this is refunded in full if military service is subsequently undertaken. Up to the early 1950s, there were special taxes on unmarried workers and deductions for state loan subscriptions, but these were abolished in 1952 and 1955, respectively.<sup>161</sup> In Romania, a progressive income tax (whose maximum is 16 per cent) is also withheld, but individual contributions to social insurance or compensation charges for exemption from military service are not deducted.<sup>162</sup>

176. Overtime regulations may be illustrated from the Polish Labour Code. Overtime working is permitted only in circumstances justified by special need and requires the approval of the appropriate trade union body. It carries extra remuneration of 50 per cent over the basic rate for the first two hours (in excess of eight hours on week-days and six hours on Saturdays) and 100 per cent over the basic rate for every additional hour or for work performed on Sundays or public holidays.<sup>163</sup>

177. In the USSR, wage-scales for wage and salary earners are categorized and fixed by state organs by agreement with trade union bodies. The complement of jobs and work-places to be filled in each enterprise is related to the official wage scales and categories by the enterprise administration, acting in conjunction with the factory,

paragraph and in paragraphs 195 and 197, is unjustified, because the guaranteed wage on collective farms has been determined, since 1966, in accordance with the wage rates of workers on state farms (by a decree of the Central Committee of the Party and the Council of Ministers of the USSR, dated 16 May 1966).

<sup>158</sup> Article 41, para. 1, of the Bulgarian Constitution.

<sup>159</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>160</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>161</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Office of Statistics, 1972.

<sup>162</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Labour, 1972.

<sup>163</sup> E/CN.4/1023/Add.1, annex, p. 14.

<sup>146</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.1, annex, p. 46, and information from the Polish reply to the questionnaires sent by the Special Rapporteur (for the text of the questionnaires, see annex I of the present study).

<sup>147</sup> *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971*, p. 390.

<sup>148</sup> Information from the Polish Mission to the United Nations Office at Geneva, October 1972.

<sup>149</sup> *Yearbook on Human Rights for 1967* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.70.XIV.1), p. 278.

<sup>150</sup> From the Romanian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>151</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Labour.

<sup>152</sup> *Yearbook on Human Rights for 1967* . . . , p. 337.

<sup>153</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Narodnoe khoziaistvo SSSR v . . .* [The National Economy of the USSR in . . .] (Moscow, "Statistika"), various years.

<sup>154</sup> Information from the Yugoslav Secretariat of State for Foreign Affairs, September 1972.

<sup>155</sup> Yugoslavia, *Statistički Godišnjak Jugoslavije 1972* [Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia, 1972], p. 276.

<sup>156</sup> Information from the Research Centre on Living Standards, Belgrade, September 1972.

<sup>157</sup> The Government of the USSR states (E/CN.4/1132) that the expression of doubt on the question of equality in the terms of pay of collective farm workers and state farm workers, as contained in this



works, or local (trade union) committee. Special supplements are payable for heavy, hazardous or detrimental work and for work in regions of harsh climatic conditions, and there are state regulations governing increased pay for overtime, work on public holidays and night shifts. Strict compliance with wage rates and norms is ensured by supervision exercised by state organs (the Procurator General's Office, the USSR State Committee on Labour and Wages and the Ministry of Finance) and by the trade unions.<sup>164</sup>

178. The choice between time scales, piece rates and progressive incentive rates rests jointly with the enterprise administration and the works committee, who are also responsible for the setting and changing of output and other norms. In cases of culpable non-fulfilment of norms or the production of reject goods, the payments to the worker responsible are reduced in proportion to the shortfall in performance. Apart from this, however, withholdings from wage payments are permitted only in special circumstances specified by law and may not exceed 20 per cent (in certain cases 25 per cent) of the normal payments due. All wage payments must be settled at intervals not exceeding half a month.

179. The pay system for collective farmers is regulated by the Model Collective Farm Regulations. These state that piece rates, time rates, a combination of both or any other system of pay (with or without bonuses) may be adopted at the discretion of the Collective Farm Board. Output norms and pay scales are fixed and, when necessary, reviewed by the Board with the broad participation of collective farm members and specialists. The norms must be adaptations of existing standards to the specific conditions of each farm. Apart from the guaranteed pay established by the collective, members receive residual payments in money and in kind dependent on the annual profitability of the farm. Money payments must be made at least once a month and distributions in kind whenever the produce becomes available. Final accounts between the farm and its members must be settled not later than one month after the annual report has been approved.

180. Income tax payments by USSR wage and salary earners are not insignificant but are generally smaller and less progressive than those in Western countries. The total exemption limit has been gradually raised, usually in step with minimum wage legislation. Earnings in the first income bracket above minimum wage levels are usually taxed at the rate of 7.5 per cent, and those in the next bracket at 9 per cent.<sup>165</sup> The standard rate above this is 13 per cent, and no further progression occurs. In the light of this, it may be estimated that USSR deductions from average wages on this score are in the range of 6-9 per cent. There are no social insurance contributions to be paid by individual workers, and rental payments rarely exceed 5 per cent of total wage incomes. But the total abolition of income tax foreshadowed in the early 1960s has not yet been realized.

181. In Yugoslavia, the distribution of income from work is greatly affected by the independent decisions of self-managing work organizations. Although the Constitution stipulates that incomes should depend uniquely on the quantity and quality of work done, this principle is

modified to the extent that it conflicts with two other overriding concepts on which the Yugoslav social system rests: the role of the State as guardian of minimum standards, and the freedom of smaller socio-economic associations, notably "work communities", to decide on their own distribution policies in response to market signals. The first concept implies a sphere of social relations (social security, minimum incomes, health and education etc.) in which distribution according to work gives way to distribution according to need. The second principle opens the way to inequalities in the process of efficient adaptation to market incentives, given the imperfect economic conditions still prevailing. Greater demand for the products of a work community or greater endowment of fixed capital inherited from the past will enable it to give liberal returns to members who, working with equal intensity and skill in other communities, would have reaped substantially smaller rewards. This is recognized as inevitable at the present stage and accepted as necessary if the conflict between social injustice and future growth is to be speedily resolved or mitigated by a greater abundance of goods.

182. Individual workers' incomes in Yugoslavia are therefore governed by the rules and regulations adopted by the workers' councils of work communities, all persons employed having been consulted on the matter. The work communities have to meet prior charges on their gross receipts in the shape of legal obligations, such as taxes, interest on business funds and development contributions, and contractual obligations, such as interest on loans, insurance premiums and joint investment contributions. The residual income (slightly over 60 per cent of the total on average in the late 1960s) is then available for allocation among investment funds, collective consumption and personal distribution at the discretion of the work community. In recent years, this distribution appears to have averaged 55 to 60 per cent of the amounts disposable.<sup>166</sup> Workers employed in work communities who fail to create adequate incomes or operate at a loss earn reduced (i.e., minimum) personal incomes, which are, none the less, guaranteed by society. These are fixed at the discretion of local government and appear to vary between 50 and 75 per cent of the average personal income earned in the employee's Republic.<sup>167</sup>

183. In allocating and distributing the earmarked sums to individual workers, however, the work communities must be guided by certain general precepts issued by republican or federal authorities, e.g., that investment funds should, in general, grow faster than consumption funds; that differentials in individual earnings should diminish with increased earning levels; and that the minimal earnings assured by the enterprise when working in normal conditions should be undifferentiated as between individual workers.<sup>168</sup>

184. Average monthly wages in the CMEA countries of eastern Europe have grown very fast in conditions of relative price stability (retail prices rarely rose by more than 2 per cent per year and have been known to decline in some countries in recent years). The much faster growth in Yugoslavia is partly offset by considerably greater inflationary pressure.

<sup>166</sup> M. Pešakavić, *Twenty Years of Self-management in Yugoslavia* (Belgrade, 1970), pp. 30-35.

<sup>167</sup> Information from the Yugoslav Secretariat of State for Foreign Affairs, September 1972.

<sup>168</sup> Information from the Research Centre on Living Standards, Belgrade, September 1972.

<sup>164</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.3, p. 30.

<sup>165</sup> Income tax and the special tax for bachelors and citizens who live alone or have small families and earn between 61 and 80 rouble per month was reduced by an average of 25 per cent from 1 January 1968 (*Yearbook on Human Rights for 1967* . . . , p. 338).

TABLE III.6

**Socialist countries of eastern Europe: average monthly wages in national currencies and average growth rate of monthly wages in percentages (various years)**

	Bulgaria (leva)	Czechoslovakia (koruna)	German Democratic Republic <sup>a</sup> (mark)	Hungary (forint)	Poland (zloty)	Romania <sup>b</sup> (leu)	USSR (rouble)	Yugoslavia <sup>c</sup> (dinar)
<b>Average monthly wages<sup>d</sup> (national currency)</b>								
1950 .....	46	..	..	681	585	100	64	92 <sup>e</sup>
1955 .....	63	1 186	439	1 129	1 090	146	72	108
1960 .....	78	1 365	558	1 553	1 683	233	81	203
1965 .....	92	1 493	640	1 737	2 013	305	96	501
1970 .....	124	1 936	762	2 152	2 458	392	122	1 173
1971 <sup>f</sup> .....	127	2 008	792	2 260	2 582	..	126	1 432
<b>Average annual growth rate of monthly wages (%)</b>								
1956-1960 .....	4.4	2.8	4.9	6.7	9.0	9.8	2.4	13.5
1961-1965 .....	3.2	1.7	2.7	2.3	3.7	5.6	3.7	19.8
1966-1970 .....	4.6	5.2	3.5	4.4	3.7	5.2	4.7	18.6
1956-1970 .....	6.2	3.3	3.8	4.4	5.6	6.8	3.6	17.2
1971 .....	2.5	3.7	..	5.0	5.0	2.2	3.3	22.1

Sources: *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries, 1971], pp. 389-392; *Economic Survey of Europe in 1971*, part II (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.E.5), p. 81; Staatliche Zentralverwaltung für Statistik, *Statistisches Jahrbuch 1972 der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik* (Berlin, 1972), p. 73; *Razvitie ekonomiki stran narodnoi demokratii* [Economic Development of the People's Democracies] (Moscow, 1961), p. 416; Yugoslavia, *Statistički Godišnjak Jugoslavije 1972* [Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia, 1972], p. 276.

<sup>a</sup> Excluding employment in services.

<sup>b</sup> Index numbers (1950 = 100).

<sup>c</sup> Net personal receipts of persons employed.

<sup>d</sup> Persons employed in state and co-operative sectors (excluding earnings of collective farmers).

<sup>e</sup> 1952.

<sup>f</sup> Obtained by applying growth rates reported for 1971.

185. These figures do not take account of the value of social and fringe benefits accruing to workers gratuitously under social welfare and similar legislation. In the USSR, for instance, the inclusion of these benefits would raise the 1971 wage figure from 126 to 170 rouble per month.

186. The growth of real wages earned by workers and employees has also been extremely fast during the last three quinquennia in all the socialist countries of eastern Europe. Table III.7, computed from official sources, gives an indication of relative performance in this field.

TABLE III.7

**Socialist countries of eastern Europe: index numbers and growth rates of real wages of employed persons (various years)**

	Bulgaria	Czechoslovakia	German Democratic Republic <sup>a</sup>	Hungary	Poland	Romania	USSR <sup>b</sup>	Yugoslavia <sup>c</sup>
<b>Index numbers</b>								
1955 .....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1960 .....	135	126	142	147	128	148	128	147
1965 .....	149	132	161	160	138	181	139	194
1968 .....	177	150	179	174	148	197	157	242
1969 .....	182	156	187	182	151	200	163	258
1970 .....	193	161	197	190	152	216	171	278
1975 plan <sup>d</sup> .....	..	184	..	222	179	259	209	..
<b>Average annual rate of growth (percentage)</b>								
1956-1960 .....	6.2	4.7	7.3	8.0	5.1	8.1	5.1	8.0
1961-1965 .....	2.0	1.0	2.5	1.7	1.5	4.1	1.7	5.7
1966-1970 .....	5.3	4.1	3.6 <sup>e</sup>	3.5	1.9	3.6	4.2	7.5
1956-1970 .....	4.5	3.2	5.0 <sup>f</sup>	4.4	2.8	5.3	3.7	7.1
1971-1975 plan .....	..	2.5-3.0	4.3	3.0-3.4	3.2-3.4	3.7	4.1	..

Sources: *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries, 1971], p. 50; Bulgaria, *Statistical Yearbook, 1971* (Sofia, National Information Office, 1971), p. 279; Czechoslovakia, *Statistical Abstract 1971*; Hungarian Central Statistical Office, *Statistical Pocket Book of Hungary 1972* (Budapest, Statistical Publishing House, 1972), p. 235; *Razvitie ekonomiki stran narodnoi demokratii* [The Economic Development of the People's Democracies] (Moscow, 1961), pp. 314 and 371; Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Narodnoi khoziaistvo SSSR v 1959 godu* [The National Economy of the USSR in 1959] (Moscow, "Statistika", 1960), p. 100; Yugoslavia, *Statistički Godišnjak Jugoslavije 1972* [Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia, 1972], p. 276; plan documents, as quoted in *Economic Survey of Europe in 1971*, part II (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.E.5), pp. 135 et seq.; Staatliche

Zentralverwaltung für Statistik, *Statistisches Jahrbuch 1972 der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik* [Statistical Yearbook of the German Democratic Republic, 1972] (Berlin, Staatsverlag, 1972), p. 352.

<sup>a</sup> Per capita real income of households of workers and employers.

<sup>b</sup> Real incomes of workers and employees per head.

<sup>c</sup> Index number of net personal receipts of persons employed.

<sup>d</sup> From cumulation of planned annual growth rates.

<sup>e</sup> 1966-1968.

<sup>f</sup> 1956-1968.



187. In all the countries under review, growth rates fell abruptly from exceptionally high levels in the late 1950s to lower, but still outstanding, levels in the late 1960s. Everywhere, with the exception of Romania, the period of the early 1960s was one of relatively slow growth.

188. It is notoriously difficult to compare real wages in different countries, and past attempts to measure wage levels in the socialist countries of eastern Europe against those obtaining elsewhere have yielded unconvincing and widely varying results. It may be more enlightening, therefore, to assess real wages on the basis of studies which have aimed at measuring their levels against desirable norms or scientifically based consumption standards as established in these countries themselves.

189. A Soviet inquiry into family budgets in the mid-1960s<sup>169</sup> puts the "living minimum" of an urban family of two adults and two school-age children at 206 rouble per month. This implies a low level of consumption, with nearly 56 per cent of income spent on food and an annual *per capita* intake of 145 kg of bread (in flour units), 137 kg of potatoes, 30 kg of sugar, 44 and 23 kg of meat and fish, respectively, and 124 eggs. With an average wage of 103 rouble per month in 1967, it appears that both parents would have to work in order to achieve this standard, though this does not take account of social benefits and allowances (valued at 35–40 rouble per wage earner). With the average number of 1.6 wage earners per family, the level appears almost out of reach, especially if the working adults were on or near the minimum wage at the time.

190. The same source presents a "rational budget", said to be sufficiently above subsistence level to correspond to a phase of development immediately preceding "consumption under communism". This would require a monthly *per capita* income of 147.2 rouble, i.e., about 17 per cent above the present average wage of 126 rouble per month (1971) and slightly more than double the current minimum wage. It would seem that a family of four, with both parents in full-time work, with social benefits and subsidies (valued at 44 rouble per month in 1971) could manage to achieve this. It must be stressed, however, that

<sup>169</sup> G.S. Sarkisyan and N.P. Kuznetsova, "Potrebnosti i dokhod sem'i" ["Family needs and incomes"], quoted in *Voprosy Ekonomiki* [Problems of Economics] No. 5 (Moscow, May 1969), p. 157, note 3.

this does not allow for future price cuts which have been foreshadowed.

191. Wage differentials in the USSR, which were widening during the early stages of industrialization, have since narrowed considerably, especially after the substantial raising of minimum wages and low-income earnings in the latest wage reform. An unofficial source, referring to the mid-1960s, states that workers in the highest 10 per cent of the earnings scale earned four times as much as those in the lowest 10 per cent.<sup>170</sup>

192. Similar shifts in the percentage distribution of monthly earnings of employed persons appear to have taken place in other socialist countries of eastern Europe, as may be seen from table III.8.

193. Later data for Poland reveal that in 1968 the lowest-earning fifth of all households earned 10 per cent of all incomes, while the highest-earning fifth obtained 31 per cent, the ratio between the highest and the lowest thus being 3:1 and suggesting a fairly equal distribution.<sup>171</sup>

194. In the USSR, collective farm wages have made even greater strides than urban earnings in the last decade, although from a much lower level. A guaranteed minimum wage was introduced on most farms in 1966, and the farm boards were encouraged to grant substantial increases in the average pay of members. By 1967, average collective farm wages were said to have reached 90 per cent of the state farm level, which was then 84 rouble per month (i.e., over 80 per cent of the average for wage and salary earners).<sup>172</sup>

195. As it has done in industry, the Government has pursued a policy of reducing wage differentials. Nevertheless, there is evidence that the lowest-paid collective farm workers still have difficulty in making ends meet. This impression is reinforced by the wide differentials still persisting between different farms with respect to residual pay (formerly "labour day payments").<sup>173</sup> In 1968, even with guaranteed wages in operation, the farms of the

<sup>170</sup> *Molodoi kommunist* [Young Communist] (Moscow, June 1968).

<sup>171</sup> From the Polish reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>172</sup> *Ekonomicheskie Nauki* [Economic Science] (Moscow, "Vyshaia Shkola", 1969) No. 8, p. 94.

<sup>173</sup> The views of the Government of the USSR on this matter are given in foot-note 157 above.

TABLE III.8

Percentage distribution of workers and employed persons by monthly income bracket in certain socialist countries of eastern Europe (various years)

Monthly income bracket (for units, see country headings)	Bulgaria (based on units of 5 leva)		Czechoslovakia (based on units of 100 Kcs)		Hungary (based on units of 100 forint)		Poland (based on units of 100 zloty)		
	1957	1962	1959	1964	1958	1968	1956	1964	1970
Up to 10.....	24.2	4.3	21.5	13.2	19.7	5.6	42.5	9.6	4.2
10–12.....	21.4	12.3	17.0	15.6	18.1	25.8	16.3	8.1	36.0
12–15 <sup>a</sup> .....	28.8	32.1	31.7	31.0	24.8		17.0	15.8	
15–20 <sup>a</sup> .....	15.0	24.5	18.8	23.4	25.3	31.7	14.3	26.4	34.2
20–30.....	8.8	22.3	10.0	15.3	10.9	20.0	7.9	27.9	
Over 30.....	1.8	4.5	1.0	1.5	1.2	16.9	2.0	12.2	25.6
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Sources: *Incomes in Postwar Europe: A Study of Policies, Growth and Distribution* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.66.II.E.14), chap. 8, p. 71, quoting official sources of the countries concerned, and Hungarian Central Statistical Office, *Hungary Today* (Budapest, 1970), p. 151; also information from the Polish reply to the questionnaires sent by the Special Rapporteur (for the text of the questionnaires, see annex I of the present study).

<sup>a</sup> In the case of Bulgaria, the income brackets should read 12–16 and 16–20 (i.e. 60–80 leva and 80–100 leva).

Byelorussian SSR paid only 40 per cent of what Estonian farms were able to pay (the latter, however, had achieved a much higher level than the all-Union average).

196. A USSR study reveals that in 1966 the average annual income of a collective farm family amounted to 77.6 per cent of that of an industrial worker's household.<sup>174</sup> Of its total income, 47.6 per cent came from work on the communal fields, 37 per cent from the private plot, and the rest (15.4 per cent) from state and co-operative funds (presumably pensions and other transfer incomes received by family members).

197. In the wake of the new policy of reorientation towards agriculture which started in the mid-1950s, the lot of the collective farmer has improved out of all recognition. It still needs to be established, however, that the lowest-paid employees on the least profitable collective farms are able to reach an acceptable standard of living for themselves and their families at all times.

198. The current five-year plan (1971-1975) foresees a raising of the average monthly earnings of wage and salary earners to 146-149 rouble, and of that of collective farmers to 98 rouble. Incomes up to minimum wage levels will be untaxed, and, starting from 1974, family allowances will be granted to families whose average income per head does not exceed 50 rouble per month. It should be stressed that the Soviet record on price stability has now been excellent for many years, and it is obviously intended that the monetary improvements listed will reflect no more than the real gains in prospect. If this is so, the right "to a decent living" for those who work and their families should be substantially realized for all those covered by the legislation.

#### **F. The right of everyone, without discrimination of any kind, to equal pay for equal work**

199. The constitutions and labour codes of all the socialist countries of eastern Europe proclaim the principle of absolute non-discrimination and the right to equal pay for equal work. The Constitution of the USSR,<sup>175</sup> for example, protects this right in article 123, irrespective of nationality or race, and makes it a punishable offence for anyone to restrict or extend rights on this account or to advocate racial or national exclusiveness, hatred or contempt.

200. The legislation is particularly explicit on the rights of women as participants in the labour force. For instance, article 122 of the Constitution of the USSR, to which reference has already been made in part one, protects their absolute right to equal pay, rest and leisure, education and social insurance, as well as allowing for special claims arising from responsibility for large families, the absence of a male breadwinner (in the case of unmarried mothers), pregnancy etc.

201. As a result of this and the general economic climate, the employment of women has increased spectacularly in all the socialist countries of eastern Europe. Between 1955 and 1970, their share in the employed labour force rose from 37 to 46 per cent in Czechoslovakia, from

41 to 49 per cent in the German Democratic Republic, from 32 to 43 per cent in Hungary, from 32 to 40 per cent in Poland and from 46 to 51 per cent in the USSR. In Bulgaria, it increased from 32 to 43 per cent between 1960 and 1970, and, in Romania, from 27 to 30 per cent in the same period.<sup>176</sup> In Bulgaria, moreover, 92 per cent of all women of working age (16-54 years) were stated to have been in full-time employment in 1969.<sup>177</sup> In Yugoslavia, the share of women in total employment appears to have remained approximately constant between 1966 and 1971 (31 and 32 per cent, respectively).<sup>178</sup>

202. The present very high proportion of women in the employed labour force in the Soviet Union (51 per cent)<sup>179</sup> represents a radical increase since 1928, when central planning began. In that year, the proportion stood at barely 25 per cent. Although this increase may be accepted as a sign of greater freedom and equality, it also to some extent reflects the trend towards greater female participation in the search for higher living standards, which is a feature of most industrial societies. The proportion of women workers in the Soviet Union is particularly high in the educational services, trade and catering and health care (including social services), where it is 72, 75, and 85 per cent, respectively.<sup>180</sup> While these branches account for over one third of all employed women, another third is employed directly on production lines in industry.

203. Among collective farm members working on communal fields, no less than 53 per cent are women, and it seems likely that their participation rate is higher still on the collective farmers' private plots.

204. On the whole, therefore, the percentage of women in the total Soviet labour force may well be equal to their share in the population as a whole (54 per cent in 1969), in spite of the burden of domestic work and child rearing which must still inevitably fall to their lot.

205. Wages and salaries paid to women are legally required to equal those paid to men in the same occupations. Official reports emphasize that this principle is adhered to as far as individual work-places are concerned, though breaches do occur in some countries.

206. In Hungary, for instance, it is admitted that there are relatively large differences between the average earnings of men and women. While over 55 per cent of women earned less than 1 500 forint per month in 1968, only 15 per cent of men did so. Correspondingly, the proportion of women with earnings above 3 000 forint was only 1.5 per cent, while 12 per cent of men earned more than this. Partial explanations are the relatively recent entry of women into paid employment (which affects their seniority ratings), their generally lower skill categories and their concentration in less arduous and therefore lower-paid forms of employment. It is admitted, however, that vestiges of outdated attitudes still result in some women receiving lower earnings than men, even when working in identical jobs and achieving identical output.<sup>181</sup>

<sup>176</sup> *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries, 1971], pp. 386 and 387.

<sup>177</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>178</sup> *Statistical Pocket Book of Yugoslavia 1972*, p. 34.

<sup>179</sup> More than four fifths of all women of working age are active in the national economy (from the USSR reply to the questionnaires).

<sup>180</sup> *Vestnik Statistiki* [Statistical Herald], No. 1 (Moscow, 1972), p. 85.

<sup>181</sup> Hungarian Central Statistical Office, *Hungary Today* (Budapest, 1970), p. 152.

<sup>174</sup> E. S. Rusanov (Moscow, 1971).

<sup>175</sup> 1936, as amended in 1947 (*Yearbook on Human Rights for 1947* (United Nations publication, Sales No. 1949.XIV.1), p. 307). For the Union Republics of the USSR, *ibid.*, pp. 69 (Byelorussian SSR) and 301 (Ukrainian SSR); and *Yearbook on Human Rights for 1948* (United Nations publication, Sales No. 1950.XIV.4), p. 204 (Russian SFSR).

207. In Poland also, women's over-all earnings tend, in practice, to be lower than those of men, although the principle of equal pay for equal work is enforced by legislation. The discrepancies are said to be due to the fact that women tend to engage in service occupations where pay scales are lower, while men tend to be employed in the goods-producing sectors. Efforts are being made to reduce the discrepancy, particularly by increasing vocational training opportunities for women in the higher-paid trades.<sup>182</sup>

208. While there is no evidence of discrimination in matters of pay between nationalities, races and the sexes, economic life has long been dogged by an endemic bias against those occupied in agriculture.

209. Although the USSR was founded on the Leninist alliance between proletariat and peasantry, there was no doubt that from its inception the proletariat was considered the senior partner. The early stages of industrialization relied heavily on a method of financing (in real terms) which exacted great sacrifices from the collectivized sector. Throughout the 1930s, agricultural living standards were substantially below those of urban workers, owing to low—or even nominal—procurement prices, high delivery quotas and discriminatory margins on the sale of industrial goods in rural areas. Above all, collective farmers were largely paid on the residual *trudodni* (labour-day) principle. The payments depended on the collective revenues earned by the farm after payment of taxes, allocations to investment funds etc. and were therefore, in essence, contingency wages which put part of the burden of harvest risks on the shoulders of the individual farm worker.

210. It was only in the mid-1950s that greater attention began to be paid to standards and incentives on the agricultural front. The *trudodni* system was abolished, and from 1 July 1966, a guaranteed remuneration (in cash and in kind) which was to be in accordance with the basic wage

rates earned by the corresponding categories of workers employed on state farms was recommended for collective farms. This guaranteed wage is backed by the state bank's obligation to advance the necessary loans, if required, and, in accordance with an ordinance of May 1966, must be paid out at monthly intervals.<sup>183</sup> In 1971, various Union republics adopted legislation which enjoined collective farms to raise their wage rates at the least to equality with those paid by state farms. According to information recently received, the collectives have complied with this recommendation, and collective farm wages now exceed those of state farmers in about 30 per cent of collectives, while the remaining 70 per cent have reached equality with state farms in this respect.<sup>184</sup>

211. In most socialist countries of eastern Europe, the incomes of farmers have recently increased considerably faster than those of urban employees. In Hungary, the real income of farmers rose by 25 per cent between 1965 and 1968, while that of urban workers and employees rose by 17 per cent,<sup>185</sup> and by 1969 farmers were said to be earning 4 per cent more than urban workers on average.<sup>186</sup> Similar relationships emerge from the experience of other CMEA countries (with the possible exception of Poland), as shown in table III.9.

#### G. The right to rest, leisure, reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay

212. The rights which form the subject of this section are proclaimed and guaranteed in all the constitutions and

<sup>183</sup> *Yearbook on Human Rights for 1966* . . . , p. 371.

<sup>184</sup> Information from the Trade Union Council of the USSR, October 1972.

<sup>185</sup> "Twenty questions and answers", interview with Rezső Nyers, Secretary of the Central Committee of the Hungarian Socialist Workers' Party, Budapest, 1970, p. 38.

<sup>186</sup> Hungarian Central Statistical Office, *Hungary Today* . . . , p. 150.

<sup>182</sup> E/CN.4/1024/Add.2, para. 331.

TABLE III.9

Real income per head of population in certain socialist countries of eastern Europe  
(indices and percentage changes)

	Annual cumulative rates of change		Percentage change from previous year		
	1961-1965	1966-1970	1969	1970	1971
<b>Bulgaria</b>					
Total population . . . . .	4.6	6.0	4.6	5.0	5.0
Wage-earners . . . . .	2.3	6.8	5.7	4.3	..
Farming population . . . . .	7.3	3.9	2.5	3.6	..
<b>Hungary</b>					
Total population . . . . .	3.4	6.0	6	7	5-6
Wage-earners . . . . .	3.4	5.6	6	7	5
Farming population . . . . .	3.4	7.1	5	8	6-7
<b>Poland</b>					
Total population . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..
Wage-earners . . . . .	..	..	1.7	1.3	5.3
Farming population . . . . .	2.5	—	-5.0	-0.7	7
<b>USSR</b>					
Total population . . . . .	3.5	5.9	5.2	5.4	4.5
Wage-earners . . . . .	1.7	3.7	3	3	..
Farming population . . . . .	6.5	..	..	..	..

Source: *Economic Survey of Europe in 1971*, part II (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.E.5), p. 89, quoting official sources.



labour codes of the socialist countries of eastern Europe. As an example may be cited article 119 of the 1936 Constitution of the USSR, as amended in 1947,<sup>187</sup> which states that citizens have the right to rest and leisure, ensured by an eight-hour day for factory and office workers (shorter if working in arduous conditions), by annual vacations and by the provision of sanatoria, rest homes and clubs. Some of these standards have since been further improved.

213. Bulgaria has a 46-hour week and an eight-hour working day, reduced to six hours on the days preceding weekly rest days and public holidays.<sup>188</sup> This is in force for all workers, except for those in special occupations (harmful to health or hazardous in other ways), whose working hours are reduced. Experiments with a 42-hour week of five working days were started some years ago in two provinces and 600 enterprises. The transition to this régime of work is expected to be completed by 1975.<sup>189</sup> Eventually, all those on a 46-hour week will have their hours reduced to 42½, those on a 41-hour week to 40 and those on a 36-hour week to 35. These reductions are not to affect wages and salaries.<sup>190</sup> Young people between 16 and 18 years of age work only six hours per day, and all workers have the right to continuous rest periods of 12–16 hours between working days and to 38 hours each week.<sup>191</sup>

214. In accordance with article 52 of the Bulgarian Labour Code, all workers with at least eight months' service to their credit are entitled to paid annual leave of 14 working-days (for less than 10 years' service), 16 working-days (for 10 to 15 years' service) or 18 working-days (for over 15 years' service), while additional leave is given to those in dangerous or harmful occupations, to "shock-workers", extramural students and others.<sup>192</sup>

215. The Czechoslovak Labour Code of 1965 (section 83) provided for a 46-hour week, which has, however, been reduced to 42½ hours since then (and to 41¼ and 40 hours in certain branches of production). The weekly working hours must be distributed in such a way that no more than 9 hours are worked on any day and an uninterrupted rest of at least 12 hours between any two shifts is allowed. Workers must also be given uninterrupted rest periods of at least 32 hours in each week. Annual paid holidays are fixed between two and four calendar weeks per year, depending on the worker's age, and more favourable conditions are granted to those in particular occupations.<sup>193</sup> The gradual introduction of a five-day week was provided for in a notification issued by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs on 15 May 1968.<sup>194</sup>

216. The Hungarian Labour Code of 1951 laid down an eight-hour day within a 48-hour week for all workers in industry, trade and offices but left the hours of rail transport workers to be fixed on a monthly basis (not exceeding 240). By an order dated July 1967, the hours of work in industry and construction were to be progressively reduced to 44 per week between 1 July 1968 and 31 December 1970, leaving enterprises themselves the option of achieving this

by the reduction of working hours each day or the granting of an extra rest day every other week.<sup>195</sup> Most enterprises appear to have chosen a work régime involving alternate Saturdays off. Paid annual holidays rise from a minimum of two weeks to a maximum of one month, depending on length of service. There are additional "premium holidays" granted at the discretion of enterprises. Workers under 18 years of age work a maximum of six hours per day and have one month's paid annual leave.<sup>196</sup> The usual privileges are granted to workers in dangerous or harmful occupations.

217. Working hours in Poland are statutorily set at eight hours per day (six on Saturdays) and may not exceed 46 hours a week. A working week of 42 hours is, however, in operation in various branches of industry, especially those working on a round-the-clock basis, and in all branches of administration and government services (education, health, research, publishing etc.). Workers in unhealthy or onerous employment work a six-hour or seven-hour day only (i.e., 36 or 42 hours per week).<sup>197</sup> The abolition of night shifts in 1968<sup>198</sup> shortened the working week to 44 hours in the textile industry. About 15 per cent of the labour force at present benefits from reductions in the working week below the statutory length of 46 hours. It is intended to introduce a 42 or 43-hour working week with free Saturdays for all in the mid-1970s.<sup>199</sup>

218. Under the Polish Act of 29 April 1969, the system of paid annual holidays is now unified for workers and white-collar employees, providing for 14 days after one year's service, 17 days and 20 days after three and six years' service, respectively, and 26 working days for all who have worked 10 years or longer. The qualifying period of service includes not only actual employment but attendance at schools above the primary level (vocational, secondary and higher education).<sup>200</sup> In these conditions, every worker has the possibility of an annual entitlement of 26 working days by the time he has reached the age of 26 or 27. Under an Act of 4 February 1949, an employees' holiday fund was set up by the trade unions, enabling all workers with at least one year's trade union membership to take holidays at reduced cost (depending on their monthly earnings). Enterprises also subsidize holidays and other recreational rest periods from their own funds.<sup>201</sup> In 1970, about 2 million workers and their families benefited from cheap holidays in spas and health resorts.

219. According to Polish statistics, man-hours per worker in socialized industry were distributed as follows in two bench-mark years:<sup>202</sup>

	1960	1970
Normal work .....	2 068.3	2 004.3
Overtime work .....	96.4	67.4
Holidays .....	128.1	160.4
Sick leave .....	92.7	111.5
Unjustified absence .....	10.5	7.5
Other non-working time .....	44.3	40.8

<sup>195</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, September 1972; see also E/CN.4/1024, para. 114.

<sup>196</sup> Hungarian Central Statistical Office, *Hungary Today* . . . , p. 147.

<sup>197</sup> E/CN.4/1023/Add.1, annex, p. 13.

<sup>198</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.1, p. 45.

<sup>199</sup> From the Polish reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>200</sup> E/CN.4/1024, para. 118.

<sup>201</sup> E/CN.4/1023/Add.1, annex, pp. 15 and 16.

<sup>202</sup> From the Polish reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>187</sup> *Yearbook on Human Rights for 1947* . . . , p. 308.

<sup>188</sup> Article 39 of the Bulgarian Labour Code.

<sup>189</sup> Information from the Bulgarian Ministry of Labour, September 1972.

<sup>190</sup> E/CN.4/1011, pp. 2 and 3.

<sup>191</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>192</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>193</sup> E/CN.4/1023/Add.4, p. 5.

<sup>194</sup> E/CN.4/1024, para. 114.



220. Romanian regulations provide for a maximum working week of 48 hours and working day of 8 hours. Easier conditions are granted to those on arduous, dangerous or harmful work, and night work is limited by special legislation. Workers under 18 are limited to a six-hour day within a working week of 36 hours.<sup>203</sup>

221. Act No. 26 of December 1967 establishes paid annual holidays of 15 to 24 working days, depending on length of service, and of 18 to 24 working days for those under 18 years of age (depending on age). Extra paid holidays are foreseen for those on special locations or working under exceptional conditions and additions of two to five working days for employees in managerial or similar positions.<sup>204</sup>

222. The Basic Labour Code in operation in the USSR<sup>205</sup> since 1 January 1971 prescribes a normal working week of 41 hours for all wage and salary earners and promises further reductions as economic development proceeds. (An eight-hour working day was adopted as early as October 1917.) Workers under 18 are restricted to a 36-hour week, and those under 16 (who may be at work in exceptional cases only) to one of 24 hours. There is also a legal maximum of 36 hours for those working in conditions detrimental to health, regardless of age.

223. The work week normally consists of five days at work and two days off (or, in exceptional circumstances, of six days at work and one day off), with a maximum of seven working hours per day (excluding obligatory breaks for food and rest). Overtime work is only allowed in exceptional cases and with the consent of factory, plant, or local (trade union) committees and must not exceed four hours in any two-day period, or 120 hours in any year. The weekly period off work must not be shorter than 42 hours, during which it is illegal for any authority to require the performance of work. Exceptions to this may be allowed in special circumstances with the concurrence of the works committee, in which case the worker must be paid double the normal rate.

224. There are eight listed public holidays in each year.

225. All wage and salary earners are given a minimum of 15 days' holiday per year<sup>206</sup> (one month for those under 18), during which they are entitled to the full amount of their average pay. Extensions of this minimum period are foreshadowed in the legislation. Supplementary leave is allowed to workers in special occupations or regions, and short compassionate leave without pay may be granted by employing authorities in cases of need.

226. As far as collective farms are concerned, the 1969 Model Collective Farm Regulations<sup>207</sup> are much less explicit on members' rights to rest and leisure. They state that the length and detailed schedules of the working day on collective farms are governed by the regulations or statutes of each collective, as are annual paid vacations, days off and minimal labour participation on the communal fields. Conditions are said to vary according to geographical

area, age and sex composition of the membership, time of harvest etc.<sup>208</sup>

227. In gauging the time effectively available for rest and leisure, some account should be taken of the proportion of wage earners among the adults of an average household. It seems probable that this is high in the Soviet Union and other socialist countries, in line with their settled policy of increasing the employment of women in the labour force. If this is so, the time that can be spent free from domestic chores, child-minding, travel to and from work etc. may be substantially affected.

228. In Yugoslavia, workers are guaranteed a 42-hour working week, spread over five or six days, and many work organizations have recently switched to the five-day per week option.<sup>209</sup> From 1 January 1968, employees of the Federal Government and its agencies worked a 41½-hour week spread over five days, in accordance with an ordinance of 1 November 1967.<sup>210</sup>

229. The general 42-hour week was originally guaranteed in the Constitution of April 1963, together with the Basic Act of 4 April 1955, which provided for the gradual introduction of this régime within five years. By the beginning of 1968, 77.4 per cent of all work organizations, employing two thirds of the labour force, had completed the transition,<sup>211</sup> which is now universally complete.

230. After 11 months of service, all employed persons acquire the right to paid annual leave between 14 and 30 working days, depending on length of employment, efficiency and working conditions. In exceptional circumstances, workers may be granted up to 60 working days' paid annual leave.<sup>212</sup>

#### **H. The right to form trade unions and to join the trade union of one's choice**

231. The concept of a trade union for a socialist society, as developed by Lenin, does not involve the usual emphasis on the self-defence of workers against the pressure of hostile vested interests but stresses the educative and supportive role of the organization in a process of state and party-guided development. The trade unions are seen as "transmission belts" between the worker and the party and, as such, partake equally of the nature of organs of self-protection from below and of authority from above. They are formally independent of the state apparatus and not subject to registration or control by any organs of the State.

232. The essentially supportive role of trade unions is spelled out in the statutory documents defining their function.<sup>213</sup> In Bulgaria, for instance, the Trade Union

<sup>203</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Labour, September 1972.

<sup>204</sup> *Yearbook on Human Rights for 1967* . . . , p. 279.

<sup>205</sup> See foot-note 76 above.

<sup>206</sup> Increased from 12 days from 1 January 1968 (Order of the Council of Ministers of 26 September 1967).

<sup>207</sup> See foot-note 27 above.

<sup>208</sup> The Government of the USSR states (E/CN.4/1132) that it should be borne in mind in this connexion that in their charters the collective farms take account of local conditions in determining such things as the duration of workers' holidays and the length of the working day.

<sup>209</sup> *Facts about Yugoslavia* (Belgrade, 1972), p. 86.

<sup>210</sup> E/CN.4/1024, para. 114.

<sup>211</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>212</sup> *Facts about Yugoslavia* (Belgrade, 1972), p. 86.

<sup>213</sup> The Government of the USSR states in this connexion (E/CN.4/1132) that it is incorrect to say that trade unions in the USSR have a "supportive" role, since in fact Soviet trade unions play an important role in the defence of workers' interests; equally incorrect is the assertion that they are only formally independent of the state apparatus. Trade unions are social organizations of workers and to suggest that they are in any way "dependent" on the State is to distort the essence of the matter.

Constitution adopted in 1966 calls on the unions to "mobilize workers for State and economic management". In the Labour Law of April 1961 of the German Democratic Republic, the unions are enjoined to "mobilize the entire working class and intelligentsia to fulfil economic plans" and to "promote a high level of socialist work morale and rapid growth in labour productivity". Again, the January (1969) Plenum of the Central Council of Trade Unions of Romania defined as the unions' task "the mobilization of the working people . . . in order that they may fulfil and over-fulfil their tasks under the plan". A similar redefinition of trade union functions took place in Poland in 1968.

233. In Hungary, the recent reform of the economic mechanism has resulted in the granting of certain powers to the unions which appear to go beyond the purely supportive role in which they are traditionally cast. Hungarian trade unions are now empowered to veto management decisions, in order to prevent infringements of the Labour Code or of collective contracts in certain circumstances. This power, however, is circumscribed by various conditions which have the effect of keeping the essentially supportive role of the unions largely intact.

234. Yugoslavia is the only socialist country of eastern Europe in which the unions are seen as concentrations of interests which may be separate from, and even opposed to, the interests of state and economic units of administration. Even here, however, their supportive role continues to exist, and while they are defined as "independent socio-political organizations of the working class and the working people", they are clearly assigned the role of assisting in "the construction of socialism on the basis of self-management". The Sixth Trade Union Congress of June 1968, however, made it clear that the unions would act as pressure groups to further the interests of workers, even to the extent of opposing the Government.

235. In Bulgaria, the Constitution guarantees workers the right to organize trade unions. Membership is voluntary and on a democratic basis. In 1970, Bulgarian trade unions had a membership of nearly 2.5 million workers and employees.<sup>214</sup>

236. In Czechoslovakia, under article 5 of the 1960 Constitution, the working people can form voluntary associations, particularly the Revolutionary Trade Union Movement, for the development of joint activities, for full and active participation in the life of society and the State and to ensure the exercise of their rights. At present, the Revolutionary Trade Union Movement is the only one to exist. It arose after the Second World War through a voluntary merger of all trade unions then in existence and now organizes 90 per cent of all working people.<sup>215</sup>

237. In Poland, as in Bulgaria, Hungary and Romania, trade unions are organized on a vertical (i.e., professional) basis, and their membership embraces the vast majority of employees working in the national economy.<sup>216</sup>

238. Article 126 of the 1936 USSR Constitution guarantees all citizens of the USSR the right to unite in public organizations, among which trade unions are named in the first place. There are 25 trade unions in the USSR, organized on a branch (industry-wide) basis and affiliated to the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions. Each of them has its own statutes, adopted at trade union con-

gresses and registered with the Council. The unions organize trade union committees at the republican, territorial, provincial and enterprise levels. The Chairman's report to the fifteenth Congress of Trade Unions (March 1972) stated that, in January 1972, union membership had reached over 98 million, of whom 3 million were engaged in collective farm production.<sup>217</sup>

239. According to the Basic Labour Code, the Soviet trade unions represent the interests of workers and employees in all that concerns production, working and general conditions and cultural amenities. They participate in, and are consulted on, all decisions of management in these matters and exercise supervision over their implementation on the shop floor.

240. Trade union organization reaches down to factory and plant level in all the socialist countries of eastern Europe. Local trade union committees, or their equivalents, have special rights and responsibilities defined in each country's labour code, trade union constitution or special legislation.

241. In the Soviet Union, the factory, works, and local committees of the trade unions have special responsibilities and rights which are laid down in the new Statute of September 1971.<sup>218</sup> This specifies that the committees supervise the fulfilment of legislation on pay, tax deductions, sanitation and hygiene within their enterprises, that they collaborate with management on job evaluation for various entitlements (free issues of work clothes or food, rest periods etc.) and that they draw up vacation rosters, shift schedules etc. They examine labour disputes on the application of individuals and investigate complaints. The committees are also in charge of state social insurance for the workers of the enterprise, fix their benefits and pensions, grant passes for admission to sanatoria and health resorts and collaborate with management in the allocation of housing space. In addition, they form sub-committees on wages and norms, and possibly workshop committees, with which the rank and file worker is in direct contact.

242. It will be evident from this that the individual worker's standard of living (and that of his family) depends to a large extent on the decisions of his works committee and on those reached by the latter in collaboration with the management of his enterprise. Where there are conflicts of interest between a worker and management, the position of the works committee appears to be that of an adjudicator, frequently representing the community at large, and not of a presumptive champion of the worker in disregard of wider interests. To that extent, the functions of the trade unions, as conceived in the socialist State, are in sharp contrast to those with which trade unions are normally invested in capitalist and most other countries. The freedom to form trade unions as guaranteed by legislation, therefore, in practice means the freedom—and indeed the obligation—to accept membership in a pre-established organization within one's enterprise which combines the defence of workers' interests with the overriding require-

<sup>214</sup> E/CN.4/1024/Add.3, para. 42.

<sup>215</sup> E/CN.4/1023/Add.4, p. 5.

<sup>216</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.1, p. 47.

<sup>217</sup> Report of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions to the fifteenth Congress of Trade Unions of the USSR, 20 March 1972.

<sup>218</sup> Statute on the Rights of the Factory, Works, and Local Committees of Trade Unions, ratified by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on 27 September 1971 (*Vedomosti Verkhovnogo Soveta SSSR* [Official Gazette of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR], No. 39 (1593) of 29 September 1971, pp. 215 et seq.

ments of economic development as seen by the Party and the State.<sup>219</sup>

243. There appear to be no provisions for the unionization of collective farm members, since these are participants in co-operative ventures rather than employed persons. Their defence against actions of the Collective Farm Board which may be felt to trespass on individual rights must therefore rest on their ability to mobilize the general meeting of collective farm members or, in extreme cases, on their access to civil courts. Specialists and trained mechanics in collective farms, however, may be given membership rights in the primary trade union organizations which now exist in all collectives and organize about 3 million working people (1972).<sup>220</sup>

### I. The right to strike

244. The typical situation with regard to strike action in the CMEA countries is that their legislation is completely devoid of any reference to the possibility of such an eventuality arising in the normal life of the country. The constitutions neither permit nor prohibit strikes, and official explanations stress that this is due to the total irrelevance of such action in socialist conditions. Thus, Czechoslovakia reports that "in the legal system, the right to strike is not explicitly regulated; however, there is no legal provision that would prohibit or restrict strikes".<sup>221</sup> A Polish submission states: "The right to strike is not a subject of legislation in Poland. Strikes are not prohibited by law. The socio-political framework of the Polish system, involving the exercise of power by the parties of the working classes, the nationalization of the basic factors of production and the planning of the national economy, are a guarantee that the interests of employees will be

respected, and, accordingly, strikes are not a necessary form of regulating the distribution of national income".<sup>222</sup> Similar positions are taken by the other CMEA countries of eastern Europe.

245. Although the constitutional position with regard to strikes in Yugoslavia is similar to that of the CMEA countries, it is recognized that in the period since January 1958 (the date of the first Slovenian strike) a number of workers' strikes have, in fact, taken place. Some of these may have had the encouragement of higher authority to the extent that they enforced a better implementation of the principles of self-management. In *Borba* (Belgrade) of 16 June 1971, the President of the Republic referred approvingly to one particular strike action, though he has stated elsewhere that he does not believe in strikes in general. Moreover, it is foreshadowed that the text of the new Code for Self-Management will recognize that, in cases where the workers' rights cannot be properly protected through customary procedures, the self-managers (i.e., workers) have the right to initiate "collective action aimed at re-establishing self-managing relations". This is stated to be the first time that in a public document the reality that, under certain conditions, strikes appear in the socialist society as the last weapon in the workers' struggle for their rights is recognized.<sup>223</sup>

### J. Summary

246. It may be concluded that the rights connected with the securing and retention of employment, just and favourable working conditions and remuneration, sufficient rest and leisure, and freedom from discrimination in the socialist countries of eastern Europe are broadly ensured by state legislation and by the supervisory organs of the State, the Party and the trade unions. The presumed identity of interests between these and the individual minimizes many familiar obstacles to the social and economic development which the leadership is concerned to promote. The same presumption may, however, result in an unquestioned predominance of collective interests where conflicts between individuals and authority arise.

<sup>219</sup> The Government of the USSR states (E/CN.4/1132) that this interpretation is contrary to article 96 of the "Fundamental Principles governing Labour Legislation", in which it is clearly stated that the trade unions represent the interests of manual and non-manual workers with regard to production, work, welfare and culture; the assertion concerning an obligation in the USSR to accept membership in a trade union is completely incorrect, and nothing of that kind exists in the USSR.

<sup>220</sup> See foot-note 217 above.

<sup>221</sup> E/CN.4/1023/Add.4, p. 6.

<sup>222</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.1, p. 47.

<sup>223</sup> *Borba*, 29 August 1972.



## Chapter II

### THE RIGHT TO SOCIAL SECURITY, INCLUDING SOCIAL INSURANCE IN THE EVENT OF UNEMPLOYMENT, SICKNESS, DISABILITY, WIDOWHOOD, OLD AGE OR OTHER LACK OF LIVELIHOOD IN CIRCUMSTANCES BEYOND ONE'S CONTROL

247. The constitutions of the socialist countries of eastern Europe confer on all citizens the right to social insurance against foreseeable human conditions of increased need and/or reduced earning power. As already pointed out in part one of the present study, relevant provisions are contained in article 43 of the Bulgarian Constitution (1971), article 23 of the Czechoslovak Constitution (1960), article 47 of the Hungarian Constitution (1949), article 60 of the Polish Constitution and article 20 of the Romanian Constitution (1972). An example may be cited from the USSR Constitution of 1936, as amended in 1947, which (in article 120) guarantees the right of citizens to maintenance in old age, sickness or disability. It states that this guarantee is backed by the extensive development of social insurance for wage and salary earners at state expense, by the provision of free medical services for working people and a wide network of health resorts, sanatoria etc.<sup>224</sup>

248. Article 38 of the Yugoslav Constitution states that "in accordance with the principles of reciprocity and solidarity, workers shall be insured under a uniform social security system established by federal statute. . . . Health care and other social security benefits shall be established by statute for other citizens as well. The Social Security Service shall be managed by the insured directly and through bodies which they shall themselves elect and recall".<sup>225</sup>

249. In Bulgaria, the social insurance system covers the whole working population and is governed by three basic sets of provisions applying to separate categories of the insured population:<sup>226</sup>

(a) Compulsory state social security for persons employed in state, social, private or mixed enterprises and members of the liberal professions. It also covers technicians, mechanics and administrators working in co-operative farms, but not the rank and file members of these farms. The scheme is governed by the Labour Code and derivative legislation<sup>227</sup> and financed entirely from employers' contributions (at present fixed at 12½ per cent), the Government being responsible for any deficits. No contribution is paid by the individuals insured.

(b) Compulsory social security for members of co-operative farms, with provisions closely analogous to those described in (a) above, except for a 2 per cent contribution imposed on the individuals insured (in

addition to the 12½ per cent paid by the co-operatives) and a different rate of children's allowances, for which only the third and subsequent children in a family are eligible. This scheme was introduced as from 1 September 1967 and is governed by a special Pension Law for Co-operative Farmers<sup>228</sup> and a National Assembly Decree of 1967.<sup>229</sup> Private farmers benefit only from pension rights, as regulated by the Social Security Law of 1949.

(c) Mutual social security for members of producers' co-operatives. This is regulated by the Labour Code and is in every way analogous to state social security, except for the field of its application.

250. There is also partial security for the self-employed craftsmen and professionals who make up 0.14 per cent of the country's working population and are outside the compulsory system, though this is confined to old-age and disability pensions.<sup>230</sup>

251. Apart from the exceptions referred to, the insurance scheme is comprehensive and covers Bulgarian workers and their families in all cases of temporary or permanent incapacity for work. The compulsory insurance principle now applies to over 99.8 per cent of those insured and covers all insurance cases to which ILO Convention No. 102 of 1952 concerning Minimum Standards of Social Security applies.<sup>231</sup>

252. Retirement pensions for men of 60 years of age and over (with at least 25 years' service) and women of 55 and over (with at least 20 years' service) are payable at the rate of two thirds of the average earnings of the insured (calculated from three consecutive years within the last decade of his or her working life at the choice of the pensioner).<sup>232</sup> Increments of 2 per cent (to a maximum of 12 per cent) are payable for every year worked beyond the qualifying period of service, and deductions are made for shortfalls below that period, provided always that the pension does not fall below a statutory minimum.<sup>233</sup> The pension is reduced by any excess in take-home pay (pension plus wage) over 300 leva per month.

253. Permanent disability pensions are paid at the rate of 40–65 per cent of average earnings during the last year

<sup>228</sup> *Izvestia*, 23 June 1961.

<sup>229</sup> Bulgaria, *Darzhaven Vestnik* [Official Gazette], No. 50 of 27 June 1967 and No. 67 of 25 August 1967.

<sup>230</sup> Pension Law of 1957, part V, published in *Izvestia*, 12 November 1957, amended and supplemented.

<sup>231</sup> E/CN.4/1011, pp. 5 and 6. For the text of the Convention, see ILO, *Conventions and Recommendations, 1919–1966* (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1966), p. 811.

<sup>232</sup> K. Ribarski, *Social Security in Bulgaria* (Sofia, 1969), p. 29.

<sup>233</sup> The minimum was raised to 50/55 leva per month from 1 June 1972. (Information from Bulgarian Ministry of Labour, September 1972.)

<sup>224</sup> *Yearbook on Human Rights for 1947 . . .*, pp. 307 et seq.

<sup>225</sup> The Constitution of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, constitutional amendments (Belgrade, 1969).

<sup>226</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>227</sup> Bulgarian Labour Code, part III, articles 145 to 163, and regulations for its application.



of work (55–85 per cent if disability is due to work injury), with the higher rates applying to lower wage categories, plus increments of 5, 10, and 15 per cent for length of service exceeding 10, 15, and 20 years, respectively, all subject to a statutory minimum (which is higher in the case of disability from work injury). Constant-attendance supplements are also payable.

254. Survivor pensions are payable to dependent children, aged or invalid parents or spouses etc. at the rate of 50 per cent of permanent disability pensions for one eligible survivor, 75 per cent for two survivors and 100 per cent for three survivors or more.

255. Sickness benefits are from 60 to 90 per cent of earnings (depending on length of service) during the first 15 days and 10 per cent higher after that.

256. All medical care for residents and their dependants is free and provided directly to the patient through the facilities of the national health service.

257. In Czechoslovakia, health insurance and other social insurance schemes are separately administered, the former by the Revolutionary Trade Union Movement and elected committees in employing establishments, and the latter by the State through the National Social Security Office and subordinate bodies. The health insurance, as well as social security of co-operative farmers, is also regulated by the State. Self-employed farmers and others are under special regulations, and, under two ordinances of 1970 and 1971, their pensions can be raised by social welfare agencies.<sup>234</sup>

258. It should be noted that an Act dated 19 December 1968 repealed section 141 of the Social Security Act of 1964, which authorized the people's committees to suspend part of the benefits payable to persons who had played an important part in the former political and economic system.<sup>235</sup>

259. Retirement pensions for men over 60 years of age (55–58 if on unhealthy or onerous work) and women over 53–57 (according to number of children raised) are payable on a non-contributory basis to employees and on a contributory basis to members of agricultural co-operatives and the self-employed. They are fixed at 50 per cent of average earnings during the last 5 or 10 years, plus 1 per cent for every year of employment between 26 and 35 years, subject to statutory minima and maxima. An Act of 1970 provided that pensions which are the only source of a pensioner's income may be increased to 500 Kcs per month, or to 850 Kcs if the pensioner has a dependant. These limits were further increased to 550 and 900 Kcs, respectively, in 1971.<sup>236</sup> There are 4 per cent increments per year for deferral of pensions after pensionable age and dependants' supplements.

260. Permanent disability pensions are fixed on the same principle, except that the basic rate rises from 50 to 60 per cent of earnings in cases of disability through work injury. There are constant-attendance supplements and pro-rated pensions available to the partially disabled.

261. Widows' pensions at 60 per cent of the deceased's pension are payable to all widows for 12 months; thereafter, only to those widows who are over 50 years of age, have a dependent child or have reared three children (or are over 45 and have reared two children). There are also orphans' pensions, subject to minima and maxima.

262. Sickness benefits are paid at 50–70 per cent of earnings (according to length of service) for the first three days of the disability, and at 60–90 per cent of earnings from the fourth day, for up to one year, or two years if recovery is likely. These benefits are non-contributory as far as the individual is concerned and financed by 10 and 15 per cent payroll contributions from public and private enterprises, respectively. Medical care is free to all, including the dependants of the insured.

263. In the German Democratic Republic, the bulk of social insurance is administered by the Trade Union Federation and trade union committees at lower level.

264. Retirement pensions (a basic monthly amount plus 1 per cent of average monthly earnings multiplied by the number of years of insurance) are available to men at 65 years of age and women at 50 (or earlier for miners) but need not be taken up if continued work is preferred. The pensions carry dependants' supplements and are subject to a minimum and a maximum of 80 per cent of covered earnings. Individuals contribute 10 per cent of earnings, if employed, and 14–17 per cent of income, if self-employed; employers pay 10 per cent of their payrolls, and the Government finances any deficit remaining.

265. Permanent disability pensions are fixed on similar principles, though the basic monthly amount is smaller. Minima and maxima are the same as those for retirement pensions. If the disability is due to a work injury, the basic pension is 66½ per cent of earnings for total disablement. There are dependants' supplements and lower scales for partial disablement.

266. Widows' and orphans' pensions are 60 and 30 per cent of the deceased's pension, respectively, subject to minima and maxima.

267. Sickness benefits are contributory in the same way as retirement pensions and are payable at the rate of 50 per cent of current earnings (with 10–30 per cent supplements from the employing establishment) during the first six weeks and may rise by an additional 40 per cent of earnings after that. They are payable for 26 weeks, which may be extended to 39 weeks, if recovery is likely within that period. Medical benefits for the insured and his dependants are free.

268. In Hungary,<sup>237</sup> workers and employees are entitled to retirement pensions equal to 50 per cent of their average monthly earnings (over the last five years of employment), supplemented by a 1 per cent addition for each year they have spent in full-time employment. The retirement age is 60 years for men and 55 for women (but less for those on heavy or hazardous work), and the qualifying length of service 25 years; for shorter service, there are pro-rated reductions in the size of the pension. The pensions are subject to statutory minima and maxima, and there is a supplement for a dependent spouse, if the pension is below a fixed limit.

269. Retirement pensions for members of agricultural co-operatives are governed by different provisions. They

<sup>234</sup> E/CN.4/1023/Add.4, pp. 6 and 7.

<sup>235</sup> International Labour Conference, Fifty-sixth Session, *Report of the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations*, Report III, part 4 B, vol. B (General survey on the reports relating to the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention and Recommendation, 1958) (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1971), p. 19, note 7.

<sup>236</sup> E/CN.4/1023/add.4, p. 7.

<sup>237</sup> Hungarian Central Statistical Office, *Hungary Today...*, p. 154.

are fixed at 33 per cent of monthly average earnings for 10 years' service, supplemented by a 2 per cent increment for every additional year worked. They come into operation at the age of 65 for men and 60 for women and are conditional on at least 20 years' membership in the co-operative.

270. Both types of retirement pension are contributory, with individual contributions assessed on earnings according to a progressive scale. Employing establishments contribute 10 per cent of their payrolls, and the State finances any deficit (usually about 40 per cent of the cost).

271. In January 1970, some 600 000 retired workers and employees received monthly pensions averaging 952 forint (about two thirds of the average wage of that year), while 181 000 received an average of 515 forint a month. Co-operative pensions averaged 516 forint, and those of former members of craftsmen's co-operatives 799 forint.<sup>238</sup>

272. Permanent disability pensions are fixed at 50 per cent of average earnings during the last five working years (or 60 per cent in the case of disability from work injury) plus 1 per cent for each year of insurance. There are pro-rated reductions for partial disability and constant-attendance allowances of 10 per cent of earnings.

273. Widows' and dependent widowers' pensions of 50 per cent of the deceased's pension are payable to persons who were 55 years of age or over at their spouses' death, invalid or caring for two or more children, and orphans' pensions of half that amount are also payable. In other cases, surviving spouses receive these pensions for one year only.

274. Sickness benefits<sup>239</sup> usually amount to 75 per cent of normal wages (50 per cent when the worker is in hospital). Persons with less than two years' service to their credit receive 65 per cent of their normal wages. The benefits are subject to statutory maxima and are payable for up to one year (or up to the patient's previous length of service, if this is less).

275. Medical services are provided directly to patients free of charge through the facilities of the national health service, but out-patients pay 15 per cent of the cost of medicines (other than life-saving medicines) and 15-25 per cent of the cost of appliances.

276. Since June 1972, the social security system has covered the total population, including those who are not insured. Starting from 1971, pensions were to be automatically raised by 2 per cent in January of each year to mitigate the effects of inflation.<sup>240</sup>

277. In Poland, the proportion of the population entitled to social security benefits of one kind or other rose steadily from 47 per cent in 1950 to 60 per cent in 1960 and 78 per cent in 1972. From this year onwards, almost the whole population will be covered.<sup>241</sup>

278. All employed persons are protected by social insurance by virtue of the contributions of their employers (10 and 15.5 per cent of payrolls for state farms and state enterprises, respectively, and 18 and 30 per cent for farms and enterprises in the private sector). Individual employees contribute only 3 per cent of their earnings for

retirement and permanent disability pensions (deductible from the general wage tax due). The legal principles of social insurance are based on the 1933 Act on sickness and maternity insurance, the 1947 Decree on family insurance, and the 1954 Decree on universal pensions.<sup>242</sup> The outstanding characteristics of the social security system as it operates at present are its comprehensiveness (covering all foreseeable situations of need, sickness, maternity, support of family, retirement, disability etc.),<sup>243</sup> its universality (covering at present 78 per cent of the population and shortly to be extended also to self-employed farmers), its uniformity and its accessibility (releasing individual beneficiaries from bureaucratic formalities and administrative charges). In the late 1960s, the social security system was extended to private taxi operators, old farmers who wished to transfer their holdings to the ownership of the State, operators (on commission or agency basis) of shops, bookstores, restaurants or cafés, filling stations, tourist facilities or other establishments and their associates.<sup>244</sup>

279. While private farmers and others were outside the general system of social insurance, certain interim solutions were applied. They were, for instance, entitled to use the public health service facilities on payment of reduced fees, adjusted to their means (free of charge in the case of social or infectious diseases), and benefited from free medical assistance to mothers and infants in the first year after birth.<sup>245</sup>

280. Retirement pensions are assessed on average earnings during the last working year (or during the two years of highest earnings in the decade preceding retirement) and are fixed at 80 per cent of those earnings in the lowest income bracket (up to 1 500 zloty per month) plus 55 per cent in the next bracket (1 500 to 2 000 zloty) plus 25 per cent for the highest bracket (above 2 000 zloty). There are increments of 1 per cent of the basic pension for each year of work in excess of 20 years, and the pensions are subject to minima and maxima (95 per cent of earnings). Entitlement starts at 65 years for men and 60 for women (lower for underground or unhealthy work, work at sea and teaching), provided there is a work record of at least 25 years for men and 20 years for women. The average monthly retirement pension paid rose from 989 zloty in 1965 (1 836 zloty in the case of the miners' scheme) to 1 561 zloty in 1971 (2 647 zloty in the case of the miners' scheme). This represents an increase from 40 per cent of the average wage level to over 60 per cent of that level.<sup>246</sup>

281. Permanent disability pensions are fixed in a similar way, except that the proportions to be applied to the successive brackets of previous working income are somewhat lower (65, 30, and 20 per cent, respectively), and there are fixed supplements for low pensions and increments of up to 7.5 per cent of the pension for 5-15

<sup>238</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 155.

<sup>239</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 156.

<sup>240</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, September 1972.

<sup>241</sup> From the Polish reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>242</sup> ILO, *Monograph on the Organisation of Medical Care within the Framework of Social Security: Poland* (prepared for the ILO by B. Kozusznik) (SOC.SEC.1968/D.2) (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1968), p. 3.

<sup>243</sup> Z. Bajszczak and M. Winiewski, *Problems of Social Protection of Workers in the Polish People's Republic* (Warsaw—Geneva, The Research Institute of Labour Economics, Ministry of Labour, Wages and Social Affairs, June 1972), pp. 6 and 7.

<sup>244</sup> For further details of coverage and benefits, see E/CN.4/1011/Add.1, pp. 47-49.

<sup>245</sup> E/CN.4/1024/Add.2, paras. 334-337.

<sup>246</sup> From the Polish reply to the questionnaires.



years of continuous employment. Partial disablement brings entitlement to lower pensions. A constant-attendance supplement is also available. In cases of disability from work injury, the pension is fixed at 90 per cent of earnings plus constant-attendance supplements. The minimum is about 10 per cent higher than for ordinary disability pensions.

282. The number of persons drawing retirement or permanent disability pensions increased from 987 000 in 1950 to 1 369 000 in 1960 and 2 327 000 in 1970, thus accounting for over 7 per cent of the total population. The sums paid out for these pensions quintupled in the first decade and rose by another 79 per cent in the second, suggesting average monthly receipts by pensioners of 127, 676, and 1 207 zloty in 1950, 1960 and 1970, respectively.<sup>247</sup> In the last year given, this corresponds to half the average wage earned in all branches of the national economy.

283. Survivors' pensions for the first survivor are similar to permanent disability pensions in their mode of assessment and scaled down for second and third survivors. They are subject to minima and to supplements payable to full orphans. In the case of death from work injury, the first survivor is entitled to 60 per cent of the insured's pension, two survivors to 75 per cent and three survivors to 85 per cent.

284. Sickness benefits are non-contributory and conditional on four weeks' employment before the onset of sickness (or 26 weeks in the last year). They are fixed at 70 per cent of average earnings over the preceding 13 weeks and are payable for up to 26 weeks (with possible extension to 39 weeks, if a cure is probable).

285. Medical benefits are free to patients within the social insurance scheme and are provided directly through the public health services.

286. A special programme for the social protection of old people living with their families has been worked out for the period 1972-1975.<sup>248</sup>

287. In Romania, social insurance is entirely financed by the State, without any contributions from wage earners. (An exception to this are optional contributions of 2 per cent of earnings for supplementary pensions.) There are special schemes for members of liberal professions and agricultural and handicrafts co-operatives. The finance is regulated by the State Social Insurance Budget, which is drawn up jointly by the Ministry of Labour and the Central Council of Trade Unions. Its total expenditure in 1971 was given as 11 900 million lei, representing a growth factor of 14.4 since 1950.<sup>249</sup>

288. Employees' retirement pensions are payable to men at age 60 and to women at age 55 after 25 years of employment (20 years for women), with lower requirements for workers in arduous and dangerous occupations and women who have reared three or more children. (Retirement, however, is not compulsory before the age of 62 years for men and 57 for women.) The pension is assessed on average base earnings during the five consecutive years of highest earnings of the last working decade (or the last 15 years, if at least 10 of them were

spent in arduous or dangerous work). It is calculated by applying percentages ranging from 50 to 85 per cent to eight reference wage levels in descending order (the rates are 5 or 10 per cent higher for arduous or dangerous work). There are increments of 5 per cent of earnings for each year spent in employment beyond the qualifying period and pro-rated reductions for a shorter service record. The pensions are subject to a legal minimum of 60 per cent and a maximum of 90 per cent of wages, with an absolute minimum of 715 lei per month.<sup>250</sup> Supplementary pensions range from 5 to 14 per cent of the reference wage, according to years of contribution. Social assistance is available in cases of ineligibility for retirement pensions. Pensioners may work for four months each year without any deduction from their pensions, but 50 per cent is deducted in any month worked in excess of four months; they may also opt for half-time work while retaining their full pensions.<sup>251</sup>

289. Permanent disability pensions are payable at the rate of 60 per cent of the lowest bracket of average earnings (95 per cent where the disability is due to work injury) plus a descending percentage for higher brackets, also depending on length of service. There is a statutory minimum and a constant-attendance allowance.

290. Survivors' pensions are 50 per cent of the insured's pension for one survivor, 75 per cent for two and 100 per cent for three or more.

291. Sickness benefits are not subject to a minimum qualifying period and are fixed at 50 to 85 per cent of earnings, depending on length of service. They are payable at half these rates for the first three days and at the full rate thereafter, until recovery or the award of a permanent disability pension.

292. Medical benefits through the public health service are free.

293. The USSR, as the first country proclaiming its commitment to the path towards communism, was the pioneer in social security legislation among the socialist countries of eastern Europe. One of the earliest legislative acts of Lenin's Government was the ratification of a Statute on the Social Security of Working People by the Soviet of People's Commissars on 31 October 1918.<sup>252</sup> This covered all persons who did not employ hired labour, without exclusions of any kind, and provided for medical services, cash benefits for temporary or permanent disability, unemployment pay, maternity benefits and retirement pensions. The Statute was greatly expanded and modified in Lenin's lifetime and formed the basis of subsequent social legislation in the USSR.<sup>253</sup> The State's permanent commitment to this legislation is expressed in article 120 of the Soviet Constitution, which confers on all citizens the right to maintenance in old age, sickness or disability. It states that this right is ensured by the extensive development of social insurance at state expense, by the

<sup>250</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Labour, September 1972.

<sup>251</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Labour, September 1972.

<sup>252</sup> Decree of the Soviet of People's Commissars of 31 October 1918 "Ob utverzhdenii polozheniia o sotsialnom obespechenii trudiashchikhsia" ["on the confirmation of the workers' social security statute"] see, e.g., *Leninskie dekrety o sotsialnom obespechenii* [The Leninist Decrees on Social Security] (Moscow, 1972), pp. 9-30.

<sup>253</sup> Lenin himself signed more than 60 decrees on social welfare and security during the years 1918-1921, and, by the end of 1920, the number of persons receiving disability pensions had risen to 1 million (from the USSR reply to the questionnaires).

<sup>247</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>248</sup> Conference of European Ministers responsible for Social Welfare, The Hague, Netherlands, 22-26 August 1972, "Analysis of statements prepared by Governments and international organizations" (E/CONF.64/5), para. 55.

<sup>249</sup> *Ibid.*, para. 27.

provision of free medical services for working people and by a wide network of health resorts for their use.

294. Post-war social legislation was greatly strengthened by the 1956 Law on State Pensions, which provided for a large increase in coverage, and by the 1964 Law "On Pensions and Benefits for Collective Farm Members", which established a unified pensions system for all social groups in the country. By 1970, annual state expenditure on social security had reached 21 100 million rouble, of which 16 000 million accounted for the payment of pensions.<sup>254</sup> The total figure for 1972 is expected to be 25 800 million rouble.<sup>255</sup>

295. The Basic Labour Code, in operation since 1 January 1971,<sup>256</sup> extends the state social insurance system to all factory and office workers, to be financed entirely by obligatory contributions from employing authorities (enterprises, institutions etc.), without deductions from the personal pay of workers. Benefits comprise allowances for temporary incapacity for work (including pregnancy and confinement), allowances for newborn children, funeral expenses and pensions for retirement, disability or loss of breadwinner. There are also pensions for the completion of prescribed lengths of service for certain categories of workers. Other benefits include the cost of stays in sanatoria or rest-homes, special diets etc. The payment of pensions is governed by the All-Union Law on State Pensions.

296. The Model Collective Farm Regulations of November 1969<sup>257</sup> guarantee to collective farmers retirement and disability pensions and pregnancy and childbirth allowances from the Centralized Union Social Security Fund for Collective Farmers, which is formed from contributions paid by the collectives. The Regulations also confer on the general meeting of each collective farm the right to make supplementary payments to all forms of pension to which collective farmers are entitled, as well as the right to establish personal pensions or give other material assistance to veterans and disabled farm members without alternative means of support.

297. Pensions, the basic form of social security benefit in the USSR, are payable to retired people, the disabled and dependants who have lost their breadwinner. Moreover, certain categories of persons (doctors, teachers, pilots etc.) receive pensions for length of service in their occupations, regardless of age or disability rating.<sup>258</sup>

298. Eligibility for retirement pensions arises at age 60 for men with at least 25 years' service and at age 55 for women with at least 20 years' service. For those on underground, harmful or arduous work, the qualifying ages are reduced to 50 and 45 years, and the minimum length of service to 20 and 15 years for the two sexes, respectively. There is an intermediate category of work (lumbering, construction, rail transport and other heavy work) which carries eligibility at ages 55 and 50 after a minimum service of 25 and 20 years for men and women, respectively. Moreover, women who have borne and reared five or more children receive pensions at 50 years of age after 15 years' service, as do blind men. Blind women become entitled at age 40 after 10 years' service. In 1968,

the qualifying ages were reduced by five years in the case of workers who were disabled veterans of the Second World War, women textile workers on intensive work assignments and workers who had completed 15 years in regions of the far north (or 20 years in scheduled territories of similar rigour).<sup>259</sup> In the same year, the right of collective farm members to pensions was established, with the same age qualifications as for the employed (60 years for men and 55 for women). In all cases, reduced pensions (pro-rated) are available to those who retire before completing the qualifying length of service.

299. Retirement pensions are assessed on average earnings during the last 12 months of work (or during the five consecutive years of highest earnings of the last decade) and calculated by applying proportions between 50 and 100 per cent to successively lower brackets of assessable income (with 5 per cent incremental rates for dangerous work). At present, the average pension exceeds 65 per cent of average earnings before retirement. In accordance with the Directives for the Ninth Five-Year Plan, the minimum retirement pension was raised from 30 to 45 rouble per month for wage and salary workers (38.25 rouble in rural areas) and from 12 to 20 rouble per month for collective farmers. The rises took effect on 1 July 1971. There appears to have been no provision for the raising of the maximum limits, which stood at 120 and 102 rouble per month for state and collective farm workers, respectively (or 100 per cent of earnings).<sup>260</sup>

300. Increments of 10 per cent of pensions are payable for 15 years' uninterrupted work with the last employer and for a total record exceeding the qualifying period by 10 years. There are also supplements of 10 per cent of the pension for one dependant and 15 per cent for two or more. The pensions are normally 15 per cent lower in rural areas, if the pensioner is in agriculture.

301. Persons of retirement age who wish to continue work cannot legally be refused employment or dismissed on the grounds of age. They are entitled to their full pension, in addition to their wages, if they work as production workers, helpers, foremen etc., or to one half of their pension (75 per cent if their work is located in Siberia, the Urals, or the far eastern territories), if working as engineers or technicians in industry, transport etc. The total take-home pay, however, must not exceed 300 rouble per month (i.e., 2.4 times the national average wage in 1971).<sup>261</sup>

302. In 1971, 5.2 million out of a total of 26 million persons of retirement age opted for continued work and drew their wages and pensions at the same time.<sup>262</sup>

303. Permanent disability pensions are payable to disabled workers with a minimum service record, depending on their age<sup>263</sup> (this is waived in the case of disablement

<sup>259</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>260</sup> In this connexion, the Government of the USSR states (E/CN.4/1132) that the maximum pension for collective farm workers is not 102 rouble per month but 120 rouble, in accordance with article 1 of the Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR of 3 June 1971 concerning measures for further improvement in the pension coverage for collective farm workers.

<sup>261</sup> Information from the Social Security Office, Moscow, October 1972.

<sup>262</sup> Information from the Social Security Office, Moscow, October 1972.

<sup>263</sup> E.g., men between 20 and 23 require a service record of two years (women one year only), those between 23 and 26, three years (two years in the case of women), those between 31 and 36 years, seven years (five for women) etc. (from the USSR reply to the questionnaires).

<sup>254</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>255</sup> Information from the Soviet Social Security Office, October 1972.

<sup>256</sup> See foot-note 76 above.

<sup>257</sup> See foot-note 27 above.

<sup>258</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires.



from work injury). They are fixed at 65 per cent of the lowest level of earnings (90 per cent in the case of work injury) plus 10 per cent of higher levels, subject to monthly minima and maxima (which are higher in the case of work injury). There are constant-attendance allowances and supplements for continuity of work with the last employer, as well as for dependants. The great majority of the permanently disabled receive pensions equal to 100 per cent of their former earnings.<sup>264</sup> Pensions are, in general, 15 per cent lower in rural areas.

304. Survivors' pensions are payable to widows of 55 years of age or over (or younger widows, if invalid or caring for a child), to widowers of 60 (or younger, if invalid), to children, siblings or grandchildren under 16 (or under 18, if receiving full-time education) and to dependent parents. They are fixed by applying a statutory percentage to the lowest income bracket (this is higher in the case of death from work injury) and 10 per cent to the rest. The statutory percentage rises with the number of dependants. There are increments of 10 and 15 per cent for 10 and 15 years' continuous service with the last employer and higher rates for service in difficult or dangerous occupations. The pensions are subject to minima and maxima, depending on the number of survivors, and are, in general, 15 per cent lower in rural areas.

305. The total number of persons entitled to a pension of one sort or another was given as 42 million in 1971.<sup>265</sup>

306. Sickness benefits are not conditional on minimum service records but require six months' employment in the case of those who left their previous job voluntarily and did not start their new work within one month. They are fixed at various percentages of normal earnings, rising with the number of years worked in the same enterprise (100 per cent, if that number exceeds eight), and are 10 per cent lower in rural areas. Only half the normal rate is payable to those who are not members of trade unions. The benefits are subject to minima and maxima and are payable from the first day of incapacity until recovery or the award of a pension.

307. The payment of all benefits is arranged by the administration of the workers' enterprise or collective farm, and no burden of formalities or financial charges devolves on the individual.<sup>266</sup>

308. Medical benefits provided directly to the patient within the framework of the national health service are free of charge. Patients outside hospitals, however, do pay for medicines prescribed and for part of the cost of appliances.

309. The State also pays an allowance of 16 rouble per month to invalids who are unable to work, regardless of age, and makes provision for similar *ex gratia* allowances to unattached and incapacitated people of advanced age whose service records are insufficient for normal pension rights. Invalids are given all necessary assistance for rehabilitation, and for those whose incapacity is permanent or prolonged there are 1 500 state invalid homes dispersed throughout the country.<sup>267</sup>

310. In Yugoslavia, the right to social security is defined in article 38 of the Constitution as follows:

311. "In accordance with the principle of reciprocity and solidarity, workers shall be insured under a uniform social security system established by federal statute. On the basis of compulsory social security, workers shall enjoy health care and other rights in case of illness, reduction or loss of working capacity, and old age. In the event of the death of an insured person, health care and health benefits and other rights stemming from social security shall be enjoyed, under conditions determined by statute, by the dependants of the deceased. Health care and other social security benefits shall be established by statute for other citizens as well. The Social Security Service shall be managed by the insured directly and through bodies which they shall themselves elect and convene."<sup>268</sup>

312. In accordance with the constitutional amendments of 1971, state budget financing of social security is being gradually eliminated in favour of financing by enterprises and citizens, in line with the strong movement towards self-administration in this field. In this process, the communes, rather than the State, are becoming the main organs of social administration, while the Federation retains only limited powers (chiefly exercised for the protection of war veterans and planning in under-developed regions). Apart from the communes, special responsibilities in social administration have devolved on provinces and republics and on local interest groups and social organizations.<sup>269</sup>

313. By law and under contracts, the system of social insurance has been expanded to cover all categories of citizens and members of their families (including self-employed persons and private farmers). Employers' contributions vary among republics and districts, subject to a statutory maximum of 15 per cent of payroll. Contributions levied on the personal income of the insured are limited to a maximum of 19.5 per cent in the country as a whole and are determined by the Social Insurance Assembly. Local or communal social insurance institutes may prescribe additional rates up to 2.5 per cent. Two separate funds are formed from these contributions—one for health insurance and the other for retirement and disability pensions—both of them administered by the insured themselves, organized in communal and republican social insurance communities and the Yugoslav Social Insurance Community.<sup>270</sup>

314. Retirement pensions are payable at any age, after 40 years of insurance (35 years in the case of women), or at age 60 (55 for women) after 15 years of insurance, with lower requirements for those in arduous or unhealthy occupations and actuarial reductions if standard requirements are not met. The pensions are fixed at 35 per cent of average earnings, usually calculated on the basis of the five years of highest earnings of the last decade of work and revalued to take account of movements in the national average of all wages. The percentage rises to 40 per cent in the case of women. There are increments of 2–3 per cent of earnings for years of insurance exceeding 15, and the total pension is subject to a maximum of 85 per cent of the earnings base. There are also automatic annual

<sup>264</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>265</sup> Information from the Soviet Social Security Office, October 1972.

<sup>266</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>267</sup> Information from the Soviet Social Security Office, October 1972.

<sup>268</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.7, pp. 12 and 13.

<sup>269</sup> Conference of European Ministers responsible for Social Welfare, The Hague, Netherlands, 22–26 August 1972, "Analysis of statements prepared by Governments and international organizations" (E/CONF.64/5), para. 86.

<sup>270</sup> *Facts about Yugoslavia* (Belgrade), p. 83.

adjustments of outstanding pensions for 3 per cent changes in the cost of living.<sup>271</sup>

315. Permanent disability pensions under general regulations were paid to over 392 000 persons at the end of 1971.<sup>272</sup> Their payment is conditional on length-of-service requirements, which depend on age and sex. They are fixed at 34 to 40 per cent of earnings, according to wage class, plus long-service increments and constant-attendance supplements. There are no minimum qualifying periods if the disability is due to work injury, and the pension rises to 100 per cent of earnings (according to wage class) if the person is totally disabled.

316. Survivors' pensions are paid to widows over 45 years of age and to women who are invalid or caring for a child when widowed; they are also paid to widowers who are invalids or over 60, to children under 15 (students under 26), dependent parents, grandchildren and siblings under certain conditions concerning age and health. The benefits are fixed at 70 per cent of the deceased's pension entitlement for one survivor, 80 per cent for two survivors, 90 per cent for three, and 100 per cent for four or more.

<sup>271</sup> Article 102 of the Yugoslav Basic Law on Retirement Pensions.

<sup>272</sup> *Yugoslav Survey*, vol. XIII, No. 2 (Belgrade, May 1972), p. 94.

317. Sickness benefits are payable without length-of-service requirements but are larger if minimum periods of insurance have been exceeded. Their amount is fixed by the local health insurance association, subject to a minimum of 60 per cent of earnings, and are paid by the employing organization for the first 30 days. Entitlement runs from the first day of incapacity until recovery or the award of a disability pension. In cases of work injury, 100 per cent of earnings is payable.

318. As mentioned in paragraph 10 of chapter I of part three, Yugoslavia is the only socialist country of eastern Europe to provide for unemployment benefits under that name. These are non-contributory as far as the individual is concerned and are fixed at 50 per cent of earnings. They are conditional on either a work-record of 12 months immediately preceding unemployment or 18 months' work in the last two years; they are also subject to a means test on the beneficiary's household and require regular reporting and registration at an employment office. Unemployment benefits are payable for up to six months, which may be extended by an additional 6-18 months for workers with 50-120 months' prior employment.

## Chapter III

### THE RIGHT TO AN ADEQUATE STANDARD OF LIVING

#### A. The right to adequate food

319. There is no longer any significant difference between the socialist countries of eastern Europe and the most advanced nations of the West as far as *per capita* calorie and protein consumption is concerned, although the percentage of nutrient derived from animal products is still considerably lower in the east, as can be seen from table III.10.

320. The impressions given by table III.10 are confirmed when the food intake is further analysed (see table III.11).

321. As may be seen from table III.11, the remarkable progress made in the socialist countries has brought them well within sight of the standards of the most developed nations in all but meat and fat consumption. In the USSR, this is to some extent made good by the much larger fish intake per head of population. In respect of this, the Soviet Union is second only to the traditional fishing nations of Scandinavia, Spain and Portugal, and the Pacific (Japan and the Philippines). In milk and vegetable consumption, the Soviet consumer had reached eastern European standards by the mid-1960s. His sugar consumption still lags some 15 per cent behind the large sugar eaters of the Anglo-Saxon world, though it already outstrips the consumption standards of continental western Europe. The *per capita* intake of cereals in most countries of eastern Europe is still more than twice that of Western countries, which would indicate some lack of quality and variety in the rest of the diet.

322. The latest figures breaking down *per capita* food consumption in the USSR into that of collective farmers and other workers and permitting comparison with

absolute standards set in the socialist countries are given in table III.12.

323. As may be seen from table III.12, collective farmers were still noticeably behind the predominantly urban wage and salary earners in the consumption of all quality foods but made up for this by consuming more of the staple items of lower quality.

324. The last column of table III.12, shows the consumption norms considered desirable by Soviet nutritional experts on scientific and medical grounds. The figures may not be directly comparable with Western consumption statistics, owing to differing definitions and coverages. They do, however, show the progress which still remains to be made if the Soviet consumer is to reach the relatively high standards which Soviet scientists have worked out for him. It will be seen from tables III.12 and III.11 that the advanced Western countries cited do not conform to these standards: meat and sugar consumption appears excessive and milk, vegetable, and fish consumption deficient. Among the socialist countries, only Czechoslovakia and Hungary are within sight of the standard in meat consumption, and only Poland and the USSR come near it in the consumption of milk and milk products.

325. Up to the early 1950s, food consumption standards in the USSR must be described as low. The *per capita* consumption of meat and fats (including vegetable oils) was no more than 29 kg per year, thus barely reaching the standards of the poorer South American countries today (e.g., Bolivia and Peru). Fish consumption, at a level of 7-8 kg per year, could hardly make up for this, while *per capita* consumption of sugar was considerably less

TABLE III.10

Consumption of calories and proteins per head of population per day in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in certain Western countries (middle and late 1960s)

	Calories	Of which of animal origin (percentage)	Proteins (in grammes)	Of which of animal origin (grammes)
Bulgaria .....	3 070	13	91	..
Czechoslovakia .....	3 030	27	83	..
German Democratic Republic .....	3 040	37	76	..
Hungary .....	3 130	34	96	40
Poland .....	3 140	30	93 <sup>a</sup>	38 <sup>a</sup>
Romania .....	3 010	17	97 <sup>a</sup>	28 <sup>a</sup>
USSR .....	3 180	21	92	..
Yugoslavia .....	3 190	19	93	21
Federal Republic of Germany .....	2 960	39	81	52
United Kingdom .....	3 150	40	88	54
United States of America .....	3 200	40	96	69

Sources: *The ECE Region in Figures* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.E/Mim.5 and Corr.1), p. 78; 1970 *Report on the World Social Situation* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.IV.13), p. 178.

<sup>a</sup> 1960-1962 average.

TABLE III.11

Yearly consumption or available food supplies per head of population in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in certain Western countries (various years)

	<i>Meat and fat (including vegetable oils)</i>	<i>Milk and products</i>	<i>Fish and products</i>	<i>Fruit</i>	<i>Vegetables</i>	<i>Sugar</i>	<i>Potatoes</i>	<i>Cereals</i>
<i>Kilogrammes</i>								
Bulgaria								
1970 .....	56	160	5.2	..	118	33	26	174
Czechoslovakia								
1970 .....	76	196	5.2	..	84	38	110	118
German Democratic Republic								
1970 .....	68	108 <sup>a</sup>	7.9	..	82	34	154	97
Hungary								
1967 .....	74	105	1.1	70	81	32	85	134
Poland								
1960-1962 .....	60	189	3.6	22	9	30	200	149
1970 .....	62	408	6.2	..	..	39	197	132 <sup>b</sup>
Romania								
1963 .....	40	128	2.6	53	67	14	65	190
USSR								
1960 .....	45	240	9.9	..	70	28	143	164
1970 .....	55	307	15.4	..	83	39	130	149
Yugoslavia								
1966 .....	42	108	0.7	66	57	24	65	190
Federal Republic of Germany								
1967/1968 .....	97	204	5.8	112	63	35	110	70
United Kingdom								
1967/1968 .....	96	219	9.5	51	63	49	103	73
United States of America								
1967 .....	130	243	6.2	87	98	48	48	65

Sources: *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries], pp. 50 and 51; 1970 *Report on the World Social Situation* ..., pp. 176 and 177.

<sup>a</sup> 1968.

<sup>b</sup> 1969.

than half the level of the 1960s. Potatoes and cereals, on the other hand, were consumed in very large quantities and made up the bulk of the population's diet. Given that collective farmers were even more disadvantaged compared with the urban population than they are now, it must be inferred that their food consumption was at danger level, and possibly below it at certain times.

326. It was only after the wholesale reorientation of economic policy in favour of agriculture in the early 1950s that nutritional standards began to improve. The process quickly gained momentum and continued at a

very fast rate. The standards now reached may be described as safeguarding properly the right of the average consumer to adequate food. If there are still infringements of this right, these must be due to inefficient or unequal arrangements in the distribution of incomes and benefits. There appears to be no evidence that these are large or systematic in their effects on nutritional standards.

#### B. The right to adequate clothing and housing

327. The growth in the *per capita* consumption of textiles, clothing and foot-wear in the socialist countries

TABLE III.12

USSR: *per capita* food consumption, 1968

	<i>Over-all average kg</i>	<i>Wage and salary earners kg</i>	<i>Collective farmers kg</i>	<i>Scientific norms of consumption kg</i>
Meat and fats (including vegetable oils) .....	54	58	43	82
Milk and products .....	285	290	268	433
Fish and products .....	14	16	9	18
Vegetables .....	79	83	65	146
Sugar .....	37	39	33	36
Potatoes .....	131	125	151	97
Cereals and pulses .....	149	142	172	120

Sources: USSR, Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Narodnoe khoziaistvo SSSR v 1968 godu* [The National Economy of the USSR in 1968] (Moscow, "Statistika", 1969), p. 595; *Planovoe khoziaistvo* [Planned Economy], 46th year, No. 12 (Moscow, December 1969), p. 49.



TABLE III.13

## Socialist countries of eastern Europe: production and retail sales of textiles, clothing and foot-wear per head of population (1950, 1960 and 1970)

	Bulgaria	Czechoslovakia	German Democratic Republic	Hungary	Poland	Romania	USSR
<i>Production per head</i>							
<i>Cotton fabrics (m<sup>2</sup>)</i>							
1950 .....	9.8	28.6	10.1	19.4	16.0	9.1	15.2
1960 .....	31.4	33.2	24.2	24.7	20.4	13.5	22.6
1970 .....	32.9	35.2	26.1	29.5	25.8	21.6	25.3
<i>Wool fabrics (m<sup>2</sup>)</i>							
1950 .....	1.7	6.1	5.1	2.8	3.2	1.4	1.1
1960 .....	3.3	5.4	8.1	3.1	3.7	1.6	2.0
1970 .....	4.4	5.8	6.9	3.6	4.2	2.9	2.6
<i>Artificial fibre (kg)</i>							
1950 .....	—	2.1	5.1	0.4	1.0	0.1	0.1
1960 .....	—	4.6	9.0	0.4	2.6	0.2	1.0
1970 .....	2.7	6.9	12.6	0.9	4.2	3.8	2.6
<i>Foot-wear (pairs) (leather or substitute)</i>							
1950 .....	0.2	3.0	1.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	1.1
1960 .....	1.2	4.2	3.1	2.1	2.0	1.2	2.0
1970 .....	2.0	7.1	4.3	3.5	3.3	2.6	2.8
<i>Retail sales per head at constant prices in 1970 (as percentage of 1960 sales)</i>							
Knitwear .....	130 <sup>a</sup>	263 <sup>b</sup>	123	223	282	221 <sup>c</sup>	329
Other clothing .....	174	131	132	132	173	245	199
Socks and stockings .....	121 <sup>a</sup>	176	94 <sup>d</sup>	143	215	—	257
Foot-wear .....	189	153	144	146	145	180	177

Source: *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries, 1971], pp. 113–115 and 325–329.

<sup>a</sup> Based on 1968. <sup>b</sup> 1969. <sup>c</sup> 1966. <sup>d</sup> 1967.

of Eastern Europe has been at least as fast as the growth in food intake during the last 10–20 years. Comparative levels of production and growth in retail sales per head of population are shown in table III.13, compiled from official CMEA statistics.

328. In spite of considerable progress, present consumption levels are still below those of the most developed countries, and quality, variety and adaptability to consumer tastes leave much to be desired. In the USSR, for instance, there are persistent complaints about the production of wrong sizes and about shortages of children's clothes and foot-wear (no doubt partly due to insufficient price incentives for producers). Recently, however, serious attempts have been made to increase the responsiveness of producers to consumer demand, and a large number of manufacturing enterprises have been released from their previous dependence on centralized output plans and told to produce to the order books of the trading organizations. It is clear, in any case, that the minimum needs implied in the term "adequacy" are broadly being met at the present time. Occupational and work clothing has always been available free of charge in accordance with standards established for each enterprise and administered by the factory, works, or local (trade union) committee.

329. Although the USSR has led the world in the sheer volume of housing construction in the recent past, the housing situation presents one of the weakest aspects in the Soviet welfare scene and has done so throughout Soviet history. The large influx into urban areas at the

peak of the industrialization programme of the 1930s was inadequately catered for, and there appears to have been a sharp decline in *per capita* living space from an already low level to its lowest ebb just before and during the Second World War. At that time, the figures may have been two thirds below the normal levels of developed countries and barely more than half the nine square metres per person established as the norm in the Russian SFSR some 20 years before. It may be said with some justice that, apart from the depression of living standards in agriculture, the brunt of the real sacrifices made in order to achieve rapid industrialization and rearmament before the war was borne by city and country dwellers in their capacity as tenants or occupiers.

330. Improvements began to be made in the early 1950s, and, by the end of the decade, urban housing standards, measured in living space per person, may have reached 40–50 per cent of those prevailing in Western Europe.<sup>273</sup> The figures might look more favourable to the USSR if the number of dwellings *per capita* were used in the comparison, but this would conceal probable differences in the average size of dwellings in the countries concerned.<sup>274</sup>

<sup>273</sup> Comparisons in respect of floor space, as opposed to living space, could be misleading because of the greater number of shared corridors, passages, kitchens and bathrooms in the USSR.

<sup>274</sup> The Government of the USSR states (E/CN.4/1132) that in the USSR the area of bathrooms, kitchens and corridors is not considered as part of the dwelling space and no rent is charged for them.

331. In the second half of the 1950s, housing construction doubled, then continued to grow at a reduced rate and appears to have reached its present plateau of over 100 million square metres (floor space) per year in the late 1960s. The collective farm section of the programme showed a special spurt in the late 1950s but then construction fell back gradually to its present level of 16–20 million square metres per year.<sup>275</sup>

332. The inadequacy of urban housing in the early 1960s was implicitly recognized in the 20-year Programme of the Soviet Communist Party (October 1961), which stated:

the Party sets the task of solving the most acute problem in the improvement of the well-being of the Soviet people—the housing problem. . . . Families still housed in overcrowded and sub-standard dwellings will get new flats. At the end of the second decade (1979, date supplied) every family, including newlyweds, will have a comfortable flat conforming to the requirements of hygiene and cultural living.

The occupation of flats by more than one family appears to have been still quite common in the early 1960s, and, according to a commentary on housing legislation,<sup>276</sup> the

<sup>275</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Narodnoe Khoziaistvo SSSR v 1970 godu* [The National Economy of the USSR in 1970] (Moscow, "Statistika", 1971) p. 538.

<sup>276</sup> V.R. Skripko, I.B. Martkovich and P.G. Solov'ev, *Zhilishchnoe zakonodatel'stvo v SSSR i RSFSR* [Housing Legislation in the USSR and the Russian SFSR] (Moscow, 1965), p. 81.

proportion of flats newly-rented in 1963 that were so occupied—even though built as one-family flats—was 11–13 per cent in Moscow and 15 per cent in Sverdlovsk.

333. As will be seen from table III.14, the average dwelling space per urban dweller in the USSR had reached over 11 square metres by 1971. This is within a range of 30 per cent of the norm laid down by British local authorities for municipal dwellings (165 square feet, i.e., 15.3 square metres per person). No statistics on the corresponding rural standards appear to be available.

334. Among the other socialist countries of Eastern Europe, Czechoslovakia, Hungary and Romania came within sight of the Soviet performance in 1970 and 1971 and equalled or slightly exceeded the building programmes of the three Western countries cited. Bulgaria, the German Democratic Republic, Poland and Yugoslavia, on the other hand, were still lagging behind.

335. As far as the stock of dwellings is concerned, the Soviet figures are not given in units comparable to those of other countries. If it could be assumed, however, that the average space per dwelling in urban areas corresponded to that of newly completed dwellings throughout the country (42 and 46 square metres in 1960 and 1970, respectively), the urban stock of the USSR could be calculated as 208, 239, and 242 dwellings per thousand inhabitants in 1960, 1970 and 1971, respectively. This would suggest that the Soviet Union was still behind the other countries reviewed in table III.14. The comparison

TABLE III.14

Dwellings completed, useful dwelling space and stock of dwellings in the socialist countries of Eastern Europe and in certain Western countries (various years)

	Bulgaria	Czechoslovakia	German Democratic Republic	Hungary	Poland	Romania	USSR	Yugoslavia	Federal Republic of Germany	United Kingdom	United States of America
<b>A. Dwellings completed per 10 000 inhabitants<sup>a</sup></b>											
1950 .....	..	29 <sup>b</sup>	17	38	24	30 <sup>b</sup>	60	18 <sup>b</sup>	86 <sup>b</sup>	45 <sup>b</sup>	106 <sup>b</sup>
1960 .....	63	54 <sup>c</sup>	47	58	48	64 <sup>d</sup>	122 <sup>c</sup>	36 <sup>c</sup>	101 <sup>c</sup>	56 <sup>c</sup>	79 <sup>c</sup>
1970 .....	54	85	45	60 <sup>e</sup>	59	30	94	63	78	66	71
1971 .....	57	76	51	73	58	73	94	61	91	67	83
Annual average 1971–1975 (plan) ..	58	70	58	77	65	51	95	..	..	..	..
<b>B. Useful dwelling space in 1 000 sq. m. completed per 10 000 inhabitants</b>											
1950 .....	..	2.49	0.98	..	1.20	..	2.24	..	..	..	..
1960 .....	3.56	3.26	2.58	3.34	2.73	3.09 <sup>d</sup>	5.11	..	..	..	..
1970 .....	3.43	5.34	2.50	3.74 <sup>e</sup>	3.25	3.61	4.37	..	..	..	..
<b>C. Useful space in sq. m. per dwelling completed in year<sup>f</sup></b>											
1950 .....	..	..	58	..	50	..	37	41 <sup>g</sup>	..	..	..
1960 .....	56	..	55	58	57	48 <sup>d</sup>	42	44 <sup>g</sup>	..	..	..
1970 .....	64	63	56	62 <sup>e</sup>	55	45	46	46 <sup>g</sup>	..	..	..
<b>D. Stock of dwellings per 1 000 inhabitants</b>											
1960 .....	253 <sup>d</sup>	288 <sup>h</sup>	326 <sup>i</sup>	280	248	..	8.32 <sup>j,k</sup>	223 <sup>l</sup>	309 <sup>h</sup>	321 <sup>h</sup>	..
1970 .....	268	312	350	299	256	..	10.99 <sup>j</sup>	245	339	344	..
1971 .....	..	..	354	313	259	..	11.15 <sup>j</sup>	249	349	349	..

Sources: *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries, 1971], pp. 6, 178 and 179; Yugoslavia, *Statistički Godišnjak Jugoslavije 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia, 1971], p. 288; *Mirovaia ekonomika i mezhdunarodnye otnosheniia* [World Economy and International Relations], No. 9 (Moscow, September 1972), p. 157; *The ECE Region in Figures* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.E/Mim.5 and Corr.); *Annual Bulletin of Housing and Building Statistics for Europe, 1965* (United Nations publication, Sales No. 66.II.E.2), pp. 78 and 79; *Annual Bulletin of Housing and Building Statistics for Europe, 1971* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F/R.72.III.E.4) pp. 15–27; plan documents; information from the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires sent by the Special Rapporteur (for the text of the questionnaires, see annex I of the present study).

<sup>a</sup> Construction started (1950, 1960); residential buildings only (1970, 1971).

<sup>b</sup> 1951 or average of preceding and following years.

<sup>c</sup> 1959 or average of preceding and following years.

<sup>d</sup> 1965.

<sup>e</sup> 1969.

<sup>f</sup> Result of dividing the figures in section B of the table by the corresponding figures in section A.

<sup>g</sup> Stock of dwellings in 1951, 1961, and 1970.

<sup>h</sup> 1963.

<sup>i</sup> 1961.

<sup>j</sup> 1 000 sq. m. of useful dwelling space, urban areas only.

<sup>k</sup> 1958.

<sup>l</sup> 1956.

may, of course, be vitiated by substantial discrepancies in average area per dwelling, particularly between the socialist countries and the West.

336. Poland reports rapid improvements in standards which, however, are still felt to be unsatisfactory.<sup>277</sup> There were 1.75 and 1.37 persons per room in 1950 and 1970, respectively. This corresponded to a useful living space of 12.9 square metres (in both urban and rural areas) in 1970.<sup>278</sup> The difficulties, which were ascribed chiefly to the heavy migration from the country to the towns, should be mitigated by the 1971–1975 plan, in which an increase in house building by 25 per cent and an enlargement of the average floor space per dwelling are foreseen. Greater state assistance to private and co-operative builders will also be made available.

337. Among the other socialist countries, Hungary reported an average of 1.95 persons per room for 1971, with privately built dwellings in general larger than those built by the State;<sup>279</sup> and Romania gave a figure of over 8 square metres of dwelling space per inhabitant in 1966,<sup>280</sup> corresponding quite closely to the USSR figure for the early 1960s.

338. The proportion of house building undertaken on private initiative (with or without financial help from the State) varies greatly between one socialist country and another. In the USSR it is between 10 and 20 per cent (1971), in Czechoslovakia and Poland between 25 and 30 per cent, in Romania 60 per cent, and in Hungary and Yugoslavia usually between 60 and 70 per cent. Housing built by enterprises or co-operatives is of special importance in Czechoslovakia and Poland.<sup>281</sup>

339. Dwelling space in state housing is normally distributed by local council committees, with a rotating membership (e.g. in Hungary), which administer waiting lists and are in touch with enterprises to take account of their special requirements. Co-operative dwellings can be secured by individuals by the initial payment of a share in the (assisted) construction cost and subsequent periodic payments for interest on capital, repairs, maintenance etc. In Hungary, housing owned by enterprises is at the disposal of management (and factory committees) for the first tenancies only and becomes available to local councils when these terminate.<sup>282</sup>

340. In Romania, an Act of 1968 promotes the construction of privately owned housing and the sale to private persons of housing already built with state funds. The State grants long-term, low-interest loans for this purpose.<sup>283</sup>

341. In the USSR, the distribution of living space is largely the responsibility of the executive committees of local Soviets, regardless of the authority in charge of actual housing management.<sup>284</sup> The executive committees

have permanent housing commissions, which receive and consider applications from citizens, establish waiting lists and make recommendations on the allocation of newly built or vacated flats. There are special "social commissions" for housing with representatives of local Soviets, trade union bodies, social organizations, health departments etc., which advise the permanent housing commissions and can make recommendations of their own. The commissions' waiting lists are drawn up with the participation of the works committees and managements of local enterprises. Criteria for the final allocation of housing space are stated to be time of first application, degree of need and social usefulness of the applicant's occupation, all of which can be overridden by special priorities established by government decree. Flats in houses built by enterprises and institutions on their own account are allocated to the enterprise's wage and salary earners jointly by management and the works committee, whose decision, however, needs the approval of the local Soviet.

342. Typically, the right to house ownership or occupation is restricted for any one household to one dwelling in a town and one country house (possibly in a special holiday area).<sup>285</sup>

343. Rental payments are very low in the socialist countries of eastern Europe compared with other parts of the world. In Hungary, they accounted for 5–6 per cent of the average income of tenants (1971) and in Romania for approximately 7 per cent.<sup>286</sup> In some countries, e.g., Romania, rental charges are adjusted to the income of the tenant, as well as to the amenities offered.<sup>287</sup>

344. In Poland, total expenditure on house maintenance and equipment was said to have amounted to no more than 6.7 per cent of household expenditure in 1965 and 7.5 per cent in 1970.<sup>288</sup> A different coverage of expenditure "on lodging" is evidently being referred to in a later report, which gives the average proportion of household income devoted to this purpose in 1970 as 10.7 per cent (rising from 5.5 per cent for the lowest income bracket to 14.7 per cent for the highest).<sup>289</sup>

345. Rental payments for housing in the USSR are among the lowest in the world, at 13.2 kopek per square metre of living space per month, and account for no more than 4–5 per cent of tenants' earnings. This is due to massive state subsidies, covering about 67 per cent of annual operating costs, and to the outstandingly low level of construction costs (136 rouble per square metre in 1966–1970, with a planned rise to 150.5 rouble in the next quinquennium).<sup>290</sup> The Party programme of the twenty-second Congress foreshadowed the complete abolition of rental payments. Maximum rents for two-room apartments are at present fixed at 10–12 rouble, including gas and electricity.<sup>291</sup>

administration of the enterprise in conjunction with the local trade-union committee, and the approval of the local Soviet is not required.

<sup>285</sup> Information from the Hungarian and Romanian Central Statistical Offices, September 1972.

<sup>286</sup> Information from the Hungarian and Romanian Central Statistical Offices, September 1972.

<sup>287</sup> E/CN.4/1011, p. 51.

<sup>288</sup> From the Polish reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>289</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>290</sup> N. Bobrovnikov, "Razvitie zhilishchnogo stroitel'stva v tekushchem piatiletii" ["Development of housing construction in the current five-year period"], *Voprosy ekonomiki* [Problems of Economics], No. 5 (Moscow, May 1972), pp. 23–31.

<sup>291</sup> Information from a USSR government agency, October 1972.

<sup>277</sup> From the Polish reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>278</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>279</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, September 1972.

<sup>280</sup> Romanian Central Statistical Office, September 1972.

<sup>281</sup> *Annual Bulletin of Housing and Building Statistics for Europe, 1971* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F/R.72.II.E.4), pp. 40–43.

<sup>282</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, September 1972.

<sup>283</sup> E/CN.4/1024/Add. 1, para. 180.

<sup>284</sup> The Government of the USSR states in this connexion (E/CN.4/1132) that in buildings constructed by enterprises with their own funds (economic incentive funds) flats are distributed by the



346. In Yugoslavia, workers' households of from three to four persons are stated to have spent between 4.5 and 5.5 per cent of their total incomes on rent (excluding fuel and lighting) in the late 1960s and in 1970.<sup>292</sup>

### C. The right to necessary social services

347. The situation in respect of social services is, to a large extent, described in the chapters on social security, health standards, protection of mothers and families, and education (chaps. II, IV and VI of this part). This leaves for the present section only the services usually provided by public utilities (supply of gas, electricity, heating, water etc.), as well as radio, television and telephone services. An important—though incomplete—indicator of the use of these services is the extent to which the housing stock (or new housing completed) is equipped with the corresponding appliances. Unfortunately, internationally comparable statistics in this field are only sporadically available, but the following data may give a rough picture of the situation.

348. Immediately after the Second World War, amenities in dwellings varied a great deal from one socialist country to another. Czechoslovakia reported that over 85 per cent of its occupied dwellings were provided with electricity (95 per cent in urban areas and 79 per cent in the countryside); the corresponding figure in Hungary was

<sup>292</sup> Yugoslavia, *Statistički Godišnjak Jugoslavije 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia], p. 282.

only 46 per cent (75 and 27 per cent in urban and rural areas, respectively). At the same time, barely more than 35 per cent of dwellings had piped water in Czechoslovakia, and only 17 per cent in Hungary. Yugoslavia reported that 87 per cent of its housing stock was provided with electricity and 29 per cent with piped water (1954).<sup>293</sup>

349. Since that time, very considerable progress has been made, and the proportion of newly completed dwellings provided with the amenities in question has developed as shown in table III.15.

350. In the USSR, the proportion of the state urban housing stock provided with the following amenities is projected to rise between 1959 and 1975 as shown:<sup>294</sup>

Piped water, from 56 to 82 per cent;  
Sewerage systems, from 53 to 79 per cent;  
Fixed bath/shower, from 30 to 62 per cent;  
Central heating, from 44 to 78 per cent.

351. The number of dwellings supplied with gas rose from 10.4 million in 1965 to 26.8 million in 1971. More than one fifth of those were in rural areas in the latter year.<sup>295</sup>

<sup>293</sup> *Annual Bulletin of Housing and Building Statistics for Europe, 1960* (United Nations publication, Sales No. 61.II.E.5), pp. 8 *et seq.* The figures for Czechoslovakia refer to 1950, those for Hungary to 1949.

<sup>294</sup> *Voprosy ekonomiki* [Problems of Economics], No. 5 (Moscow, May 1972), pp. 23–31.

<sup>295</sup> *Vestnik statistiki* [Statistical Herald], No. 5 (Moscow, 1972), p. 95.

TABLE III.15

Percentage of dwellings provided with certain amenities,  
in various socialist countries of eastern Europe (various years)

	Piped water	Fixed bath/shower	Gas	Central heating	Electric lighting
Bulgaria					
1971 .....	77.6	65.3	..	34.5	94.8 <sup>a</sup>
Czechoslovakia					
1960 .....	73.4	79.9	44.7	62.8 <sup>b</sup>	97.3 <sup>c</sup>
1967 .....	93.1	97.1	61.4	85.6 <sup>a</sup>	..
1971 .....	98.0	99.2	87.7 <sup>d</sup>	88.6	..
German Democratic Republic					
1963 .....	97.8	98.3	99.6	29.2	..
1971 .....	100.0	100.0	..	85.6	99.0 <sup>e</sup>
Hungary					
1963 .....	50.7	66.6	24.4	18.1	81.3
1971 .....	73.3	77.9	28.2 <sup>f</sup>	37.7	..
Poland					
1970 .....	75.0 <sup>g</sup>	..	over 50 <sup>g</sup>	..	80.1 <sup>h</sup>
Yugoslavia					
1963 .....	51.0	49.7	..	7.5	54.1 <sup>c</sup>
1971 .....	58.9	57.0	..	23.8	..

Sources: *Annual Bulletin of Housing and Building Statistics for Europe, 1963* (United Nations publication, Sales No. 64.II.E.10), p. 18; *Annual Bulletin of Housing and Building Statistics for Europe, 1960* (United Nations publication, Sales No. 61.II.E.5), p. 8; *Annual Bulletin of Housing and Building Statistics for Europe, 1967* (United Nations publication, Sales No. 68.II.E.9), p. 36; *Annual Bulletin of Housing and Building Statistics for Europe, 1971* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F/R.72.II.E.4), p. 14; Czechoslovakia, *Statistical Abstract 1971* (Prague), p. 49; U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1971* (92nd edition) (Washington, D. C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1971), pp. 779 and 780; information from the Polish reply to the questionnaires sent by the Special Rapporteur (for the text of the questionnaires, see annex I of the present study).

<sup>a</sup> 1965.

<sup>b</sup> 1963.

<sup>c</sup> 1961.

<sup>d</sup> 1970, excluding privately built housing.

<sup>e</sup> 1968.

<sup>f</sup> 1967.

<sup>g</sup> Urban housing only.

<sup>h</sup> 1960.



TABLE III.16

Number of appliances in operation per 1 000 inhabitants, 1959 and 1968, in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in certain Western countries

	Radio receivers		Television receivers		Telephones	
	1959 <sup>a</sup>	1968 <sup>a</sup>	1959 <sup>a</sup>	1968 <sup>a</sup>	1959 <sup>a</sup>	1968 <sup>a</sup>
Bulgaria .....	160	268	..	74	..	45
Czechoslovakia .....	253	272	48	196	67	124
German Democratic Republic .....	317	348	47	243	72	111
Hungary .....	227	245	8	273	23	68
Poland .....	167	173	11	105	24	51
Romania .....	101	154	2	56	..	29
USSR .....	215	359 <sup>b</sup>	20	112	..	45
Federal Republic of Germany ..	286	466 <sup>b</sup>	73	247	101	188
United Kingdom .....	288	321	203	278	150	234
United States of America .....	936	1 431	302	400	397	544

Source: *The ECE Region in Figures* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.E/Mim.5 and Corr.), p. 79.

<sup>a</sup> The figures refer in general to three-year moving averages centred on 1959 and 1968, respectively.

<sup>b</sup> As estimated by an unofficial source.

A later source disclosed that by 1970 50–55 per cent of urban, and 20–25 per cent of rural, dwellings were supplied with gas and that household consumption of electricity had increased by 60 per cent in urban areas and by 200 per cent in rural areas between 1965 and 1970.<sup>296</sup>

352. Other amenities that are fast becoming necessary appurtenances of modern life in highly developed countries are the broadcasting media and telephone communications. Considerable progress has been achieved in the provision of these in the socialist countries of eastern Europe, especially in the highly industrialized nations of Czechoslovakia and the German Democratic Republic, and, to a lesser extent, Hungary. The standards of the most advanced Western countries are now well within sight, except in the case of telephone services.

#### D. The right to continuous improvement in living conditions

353. The most widely accepted indicator of potential living standards, in spite of its many imperfections, is undoubtedly the national income per head of population and its development through time. Together with a measure of the proportion of national income devoted to consumption, this indicator is likely to yield as adequate an impression of the growth in actual living standards (on a comparative basis) as can be reasonably expected. The figures in table III.17 are derived from the official statistics of socialist countries and refer to national income according to the "material-product" definition, i.e., excluding the contribution of final services but including that of trade and transport.

354. It will be seen from table III.17 that development has been extremely fast in all the countries under review and that the effects of the growth in national income per head on consumption were probably mitigated only slightly by the general decline in the share of income devoted to that purpose.

355. A parallel compilation by ECE, reproduced in table III.18, yields figures that may be more readily comparable with those available for non-socialist countries, though strict comparability is still subject to a number

TABLE III.17

Socialist countries of eastern Europe: national income per head of population and proportion devoted to consumption

Country	National income per head at constant prices (index number 1950 = 100)	Proportion of national income used for consumption (percentage)
<b>Bulgaria</b>		
1950 .....	100	80.0 <sup>a</sup>
1960 .....	260	72.6
1970 .....	507	70.8
<b>Czechoslovakia</b>		
1950 .....	100	82.9
1960 .....	188	82.3
1970 .....	276	72.9
<b>German Democratic Republic</b>		
1950 .....	100	91.5
1960 .....	279	81.9
1970 .....	430	76.9
<b>Hungary</b>		
1950 .....	100	76.9
1960 .....	166	77.6
1970 .....	271	72.8
<b>Poland</b>		
1950 .....	100	78.9
1960 .....	173	75.8
1970 .....	283	71.8
<b>Romania</b>		
1950 .....	100	..
1960 .....	236	..
1970 .....	483	..
<b>USSR</b>		
1950 .....	100	76.1
1960 .....	223	73.2
1970 .....	340	70.6
<b>Yugoslavia<sup>b</sup></b>		
1952 .....	100	84.9
1960 .....	188	69.8
1970 .....	319	72.0

Source: *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries, 1971], pp. 45, 48 and 49.

<sup>a</sup> Refers to 1952.

<sup>b</sup> Calculated and partly estimated from Yugoslavia, *Statistički Godišnjak Jugoslavije 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia, 1971], pp. 74, 100, and 112; and *Statistički Godišnjak Jugoslavije 1972*, p. 104.

<sup>296</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires.

TABLE III.18

Socialist countries of eastern Europe: average annual percentage growth rates in national income *per capita* and private consumption *per capita*, 1951–1968, at constant prices

Country	National income	Private consumption
<b>Bulgaria</b>		
1951–1959 .....	8.2	7.8
1959–1968 .....	7.2	6.3
1951–1968 .....	7.7	6.9
<b>Czechoslovakia</b>		
1951–1959 .....	6.2	4.0
1959–1968 .....	3.6	3.9
1951–1968 .....	4.8	4.0
<b>German Democratic Republic</b>		
1951–1959 .....	9.4	10.4
1959–1968 .....	4.6	3.3
1951–1968 .....	6.8	7.2
<b>Hungary</b>		
1951–1959 .....	4.4	4.5
1959–1968 .....	5.4	4.2
1951–1968 .....	4.9	4.4
<b>Poland</b>		
1951–1959 .....	6.1	6.1
1959–1968 .....	4.9	4.0
1951–1968 .....	5.5	5.0
<b>Romania</b>		
1951–1959 .....	7.5	..
1959–1968 .....	8.0	..
1951–1968 .....	7.8	..
<b>USSR</b>		
1951–1959 .....	8.5	..
1959–1968 .....	5.6	..
1951–1968 .....	7.0	..
<b>Yugoslavia</b>		
1951–1959 .....	5.9	6.7
1959–1968 .....	5.6	5.6
1951–1968 .....	5.7	6.1

Source: *The ECE Region in Figures* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.E./Mim.5 and Corr.), pp. 12 and 16.

NOTE. The growth rates are generally based on three-year moving averages.

of qualifications (mainly definitional discrepancies in national-income concepts and varying price structures underlying the weighting procedures).

356. The average growth rate in national income per head (1951–1968) was given by the same source as 2.1 per cent per year in the United States of America and 3.6 per cent per year in Western Europe, reaching its maximum (for ECE countries outside eastern Europe) in the case of the Federal Republic of Germany with 5.2 per cent per year. As can be seen from table III.18, even this maximum was exceeded by the socialist countries of eastern Europe, except for Czechoslovakia and Hungary.

357. The figures for private consumption per head in table III.18 do not correspond to the consumption figures given in table III.17, owing to the exclusion from table III.18 of collective consumption organized by public authority (health, education etc.). In this connexion also, the Federal Republic of Germany leads the ECE countries outside eastern Europe, with an average annual growth rate of 5.2 per cent during the period 1951–1968.

358. A CMEA study in 1965 estimated relative *per capita* levels of consumption (other than consumer

services) for the year 1963 and suggested the following “approximative and preliminary” figures (USSR = 100).<sup>297</sup> Bulgaria, 99; Czechoslovakia, 138; German Democratic Republic, 150; Hungary, 110; Poland, 106; Romania, 60–70 (refers to national income).

359. In the USSR, the right to continuous improvement in living standards is undoubtedly the one which—apart from the early period of industrialization and the Second World War—has been consistently and conspicuously fulfilled.

360. The years of the First Five-Year Plan must have witnessed a considerable decline in Soviet living standards, particularly in the countryside, which is not documented in official statistics. It is likely that real consumption per head dropped quite sharply between 1928 and 1935. It then recovered, until the beginning of intensive war preparations in 1937–1938, and probably declined again with varying fortunes until the end of the war. A quickening recovery then occurred, though in the countryside it appears to have been weak and fitful until the early or middle 1950s.

361. According to Soviet statistics, the real income per head of population approximately doubled during the 14 years between 1955 and 1969, implying an annual growth rate of over 5 per cent. The main factor in this was the growth of collectively provided benefits (transfer incomes in money and in kind, medical and educational services, pensions etc.), which proceeded at a much faster rate (about 10 per cent per year in nominal terms).<sup>298</sup>

362. Between 1950 and 1967, the real *per capita* income of wage and salary earners is officially stated to have doubled and that of collective farmers to have more than trebled.<sup>299</sup> This implies annual growth rates of 4.4 and 7 per cent, respectively, during the 17 years in question. The figure for wage and salary workers in nominal (money) terms is 3.1 per cent per year, implying a very modest inflation in underlying prices of 1.3 per cent per year on average.

363. The main growth factor in the case of wage and salary earners, as in the over-all average, was provided by collective benefits, which grew by 4 per cent per year in nominal terms and accounted for just over a quarter of total *per capita* incomes at the end of the period. Thus, nominal wages outside the collective farm sector grew at an average rate of 2.85 per cent per year during the 17 years in question.

364. In the four years following 1967, there was a further growth by 22.3 per cent, implying an acceleration to an annual growth rate of over 5 per cent, at least in nominal terms.

365. Further evidence of rapidly rising living standards since the early 1950s may be obtained from the official figures on *per capita* consumption of individual products

<sup>297</sup> *Sopostovlenie urovnei ekonomicheskogo razvitiia sotsialisticheskikh stran* [Comparison of levels of economic development in the socialist countries] (Moscow, 1965), quoted in *Economic Survey of Europe in 1969* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.70.II.E.1), part I (Structural Trends and Prospects in the European Economy), p. 144.

<sup>298</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Narodnoe khoziaistvo SSSR v 1967 godu* [The National Economy of the USSR in 1967] (Moscow, “Statistika”), p. 674; *Narodnoe khoziaistvo SSSR v 1969 godu*, p. 560.

<sup>299</sup> *Narodnoe khoziaistvo SSSR v 1968 godu* (Moscow, “Statistika”), pp. 134 and 137.

or product groups. Between 1950 and 1969, the consumption per head of meat, fats (including vegetable oils) and fish nearly doubled (in terms of weight), that of eggs increased by well over 100 per cent, and that of sugar more than trebled. At the same time, the consumption norm for milk and milk products increased by over 75 per cent, and that for vegetables (including melons) by nearly 50 per cent. The statistics suggest that this increase was continuous and sustained.

366. Less spectacular but important and continuous advances took place in the field of clothing, housing and consumer durables. Evidence of greater selectivity on the part of consumers may be found in frequent complaints about unsold stocks and in the direction which recent economic reforms have taken. To some extent, the rise in

the savings bank deposits of Soviet households also indicates some dissatisfaction with the quality and variety of consumer goods traditionally provided, besides giving evidence of the Soviet consumer's rise above the need to spend all his income on current consumption.

367. There is little doubt that these advances were made possible by the radical switch in economic policy in favour of agriculture and the consumer in general which occurred in the early and middle 1950s. In conditions in which labour becomes a relatively scarce resource, further advances in all fields of economic performance must be dependent on rising productivity and skill and therefore, in the main, on those aspects of individual achievement which are best promoted by rising incentives and consumption standards in general.

## Chapter IV

### THE RIGHT TO THE ENJOYMENT OF THE HIGHEST ATTAINABLE STANDARDS OF PHYSICAL AND MENTAL HEALTH

#### A. Reduction of the still-birth rate and infant mortality and measures for the healthy development of the child

368. Table III.19 shows the considerable progress made in pre-natal care and pediatrics, as well as in general medical standards, in the socialist countries of eastern Europe. In all of them, except Czechoslovakia, infant mortality rates (deaths of children under one year of age per 1 000 live births) before the Second World War were well over twice and, in some cases, three times as high as in the advanced nations of the West. By the early 1950s, they had in general been halved and, by 1970, reduced to virtual equality with Western standards in the USSR, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, and the German Democratic Republic. In Romania and Yugoslavia, they still remain approximately twice as high, although they have been reduced by fully two-thirds since pre-war days. Hungary and Poland occupy an intermediate position.

369. As far as neo-natal<sup>300</sup> and perinatal<sup>301</sup> death rates are concerned, the situation in the socialist countries is now indistinguishable from that in the most advanced nations of the West, and in some cases the socialist countries lead by a small margin.

370. In most cases where the relevant statistics are available, infant mortality in rural areas fell considerably faster (and from a higher level) than in urban areas, and the gap has now been substantially reduced. In Poland, for instance, the rural rate, which exceeded the urban rate by nearly 18 per cent in 1960, was only 10 per cent higher by 1970.<sup>302</sup> In Bulgaria, however, the gap has remained fairly constant at over 45 per cent since the immediate pre-war period, but both rural and urban rates have been reduced by nearly 80 per cent since then.<sup>303</sup>

371. The growth in medical provision for pregnancy and confinement has been very fast indeed in most socialist countries of eastern Europe.

372. In Bulgaria, the number of beds in obstetric medical units increased from 5 833 in 1952 to 9 445 in 1970 (with two thirds of them in maternity wards),<sup>304</sup> while the number of live births fell from 154 000 to 139 000 between the two years.<sup>305</sup> The number of these beds per 1 000 live births thus increased from 37.8 to 68, i.e. by

nearly 80 per cent. At present practically all confinements in Bulgaria take place in hospitals, and it is becoming the universal practice to take women from rural areas into towns for their confinement, in line with a plan to abolish rural maternity hospitals.<sup>306</sup> As a consequence of this and of other advances in medical and general standards, the still-birth rate fell from 11.9 per 1 000 in 1962 to 10.1 per 1 000 in 1971<sup>307</sup> and neo-natal mortality was brought down by as much as 57 per cent in 10 years (see table III.19).

373. In Czechoslovakia, the birth rate remained approximately stationary (between 15 and 16 per 1 000) between 1960 and 1970, but admissions to maternity homes appear to have fallen quite sharply, from 18 900 to 5 800 per year, during that period.<sup>308</sup> At the same time, the number of these homes was reduced from 33 to 11, and the number of beds in them fell from 567 to 188. The number of beds, including those in gynaecological and obstetrical wards, however, was still over 15 000 in 1970, or about 66.5 per 1 000 of live births, and nearly all confinements took place in hospitals. Maternal mortality fell from 1.29 per 1 000 in 1948 to 0.21 per 1 000 in 1970, neo-natal mortality halved and still births fell from 17.7 to 7.3 per 1 000 live births in the same period.<sup>309</sup>

374. The German Democratic Republic reported a figure of 78.6 beds per 1 000 live births in obstetric and gynaecological wards in 1968.<sup>310</sup> By 1970, this had increased to over 102 per 1 000, representing an increase of over 75 per cent compared with the corresponding figure for 1955. Still births fell from 18.4 to 11.3 per 1 000 live births during the same period, and to 9.8 per 1 000 in 1971.<sup>311</sup>

375. In Hungary, the number of beds in obstetric and gynaecological wards increased from 6 855 to 7 868 between 1960 and 1971, while live births rose only from 148 400 to 152 000.<sup>312</sup> This gives figures of 46 and 52 beds per 1 000, respectively, which still falls short of Czechoslovak and East German standards but represents an increase of about 13 per cent. Infant mortality and the perinatal death rate fell by about one quarter during the

<sup>300</sup> Deaths of children under one month of age per 1 000 live births.

<sup>301</sup> Foetal deaths of unknown or at least 28 weeks' gestational age plus post-natal deaths at under one week of age per 1 000 live births.

<sup>302</sup> From the Polish reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>303</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>304</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>305</sup> Bulgaria, *Statisticheski godishnik na Narodna Republika Bolgariye 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the People's Republic of Bulgaria, 1971] (Sofia), p. 19.

<sup>306</sup> Information from the Bulgarian Ministry of Health, September 1972.

<sup>307</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>308</sup> Czechoslovakia, *Statistical Abstract 1971*, p. 115.

<sup>309</sup> *Czechoslovak Health Services, 1970* (Prague), pp. 2, 3, 4 and 16.

<sup>310</sup> WHO, *World Health Statistics Annual, 1968* (Geneva, 1971), vol. III, p. 162; *Demographic Yearbook, 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No.: E/F.71.XIII.1), p. 623.

<sup>311</sup> Staatliche Zentralverwaltung für Statistik, *Statistisches Jahrbuch 1970 der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik* (Berlin, Staatsverlag), pp. 413 and 443; *ibid.*, 1972, pp. 449 and 421.

<sup>312</sup> Hungarian Central Statistical Office, *Statistical Pocket Book of Hungary, 1972* (Budapest Statistical Publishing House, 1972), pp. 58 and 265.



TABLE III.19

Mortality rates per 1 000 live births in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in certain Western countries

	Infant	Neo-natal	Perinatal		Infant	Neo-natal	Perinatal
<b>Bulgaria</b>				<b>Romania (continued)</b>			
1931 .....	147 <sup>a</sup>	59.0	..	1950 .....	116.7	40.6 <sup>j</sup>	32.8 <sup>j</sup>
1939 .....	138.9	55.3	..	1960 .....	74.6	..	24.9
1950 .....	94.5	34.9 <sup>b</sup>	31.2 <sup>c</sup>	1970 .....	49.4	20.8 <sup>e</sup>	27.6 <sup>e</sup>
1960 .....	45.1	31.9 <sup>d</sup>	23.3	1971 .....	42.5	..	..
1970 .....	27.3	13.8 <sup>e</sup>	17.8 <sup>e</sup>	<b>USSR</b>			
<b>Czechoslovakia</b>				1913 .....	269	..	..
1931 .....	125 <sup>a</sup>	55.2	..	1928 .....	182	..	..
1939 .....	97.7	41.4	..	1939 .....	167	..	..
1950 .....	77.7	33.1	36.1 <sup>c</sup>	1950 .....	80.7	..	..
1960 .....	23.5	13.5	20.9 <sup>f</sup>	1960 .....	35.3	..	..
1970 .....	22.1	15.6	20.7 <sup>g</sup>	1971 .....	23	..	..
<b>German Democratic Republic</b>				<b>Yugoslavia</b>			
1931 <sup>h</sup> .....	74 <sup>a</sup>	43.2	..	1933 .....	153 <sup>a</sup>	..	..
1939 <sup>h</sup> .....	60	31.9 <sup>i</sup>	..	1939 .....	132.3	..	..
1950 .....	72.2	32.8	48.0 <sup>c</sup>	1950 .....	118.4	44.9	30.3 <sup>c</sup>
1960 .....	38.8	25.5 <sup>j</sup>	34.3 <sup>f</sup>	1960 .....	87.7	41.5 <sup>j</sup>	29.0 <sup>f</sup>
1970 .....	18.5	14.1 <sup>e</sup>	23.3 <sup>e</sup>	1970 .....	55.4	23.4	26.0 <sup>e</sup>
<b>Hungary</b>				<b>Germany (Federal Republic of)</b>			
1931 .....	157 <sup>a</sup>	64.0	..	1931 <sup>h</sup> .....	74 <sup>a</sup>	43.2	..
1939 .....	121	53.9 <sup>i</sup>	..	1939 <sup>h</sup> .....	60	31.9 <sup>i</sup>	..
1950 .....	85.7	37.8 <sup>k</sup>	31.3 <sup>c</sup>	1950 .....	55.5	34.4	..
1960 .....	47.6	31.6 <sup>d</sup>	23.3	1970 .....	23.5 <sup>l</sup>	17.9 <sup>e</sup>	25.2 <sup>e</sup>
1970 .....	35.9	27.3 <sup>e</sup>	17.8 <sup>e</sup>	<b>United Kingdom</b>			
<b>Poland</b>				<b>(England and Wales)</b>			
1931 .....	137 <sup>a</sup>	52.1	..	1931 .....	62 <sup>a</sup>	31.6	..
1939 .....	121	..	..	1939 .....	51	28.3	..
1950 .....	111.2	..	34.0 <sup>j</sup>	1970 .....	17.9 <sup>l</sup>	12.0 <sup>e</sup>	23.7 <sup>e</sup>
1960 .....	54.8	28.0	31.1 <sup>f</sup>	<b>United States of America</b>			
1970 .....	33.4	18.7 <sup>e</sup>	24.2 <sup>e</sup>	1931 .....	59 <sup>a</sup>	34.6	..
<b>Romania</b>				1939 .....	29.3	48.0	..
1931 .....	182 <sup>a</sup>	77.0	..	1970 .....	19.8 <sup>l</sup>	16.1 <sup>g</sup>	..
1939 .....	176	73.3	..				

Sources: *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries, 1971], p. 8; Bulgaria, *Statisticheski godnishnik na Narodna Republika Bolgariya, 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the People's Republic of Bulgaria, 1971] (Sofia), p. 530; *Demographic Yearbook, 1957* (United Nations publication Sales No. 57.XIII.1), p. 354; *Demographic Yearbook, 1961* (United Nations publication, Sales No. 62.XIII.1), p. 221; *Demographic Yearbook, 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F.71.XIII.1), pp. 649 and 674; WHO, *World Health Statistics Annual, 1969*, vol. I, *Vital statistics and causes of death* (Geneva, 1972), p. 11; WHO, *Annual Epidemiological and Vital Statistics, 1939-1946*, part I, *Vital statistics and causes of death* (Geneva, 1951), pp. 26-29; Yugoslavia, *Statistički*

*Godišnjak Jugoslavije 1972* [Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia, 1972], pp. 81 and 85; Czechoslovakia, *Statistical Abstract 1971*, p. 27; information from the USSR and Polish replies to the questionnaires sent by the Special Rapporteur (for the text of the questionnaires, see annex I of the present study).

<sup>a</sup> Five-year average centred on 1933.

<sup>b</sup> 1953. <sup>c</sup> 1952. <sup>d</sup> 1956. <sup>e</sup> 1969.

<sup>f</sup> 1959. <sup>g</sup> 1968. <sup>h</sup> All Germany within pre-war frontiers.

<sup>i</sup> 1938. <sup>j</sup> 1955. <sup>k</sup> 1951. <sup>l</sup> Provisional.

same period (see table III.19). Confinements in medical institutions, which were 85 per cent of all confinements in 1960, are now, to all intents and purposes, the universal practice.

376. In Poland, the number of births fell from 669 500 to 546 000 between 1960 and 1970, while the number of beds in delivery rooms decreased from 6 200 to 4 500.<sup>313</sup> This indicates a fall of slightly over 10 per cent in the provision of these beds per 1 000 live births. There has been an even sharper decline in the number of maternity stations, particularly in rural areas, but the number of physicians, nurses and midwives increased sharply. In the last 10 years, infant mortality fell by about 40 per cent and the perinatal death rate dropped by over 20 per cent (see table III.19 above).<sup>314</sup>

<sup>313</sup> From the Polish reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>314</sup> According to later information, infant mortality in Poland fell to 29.7 per 1 000 in 1971 (from the Polish reply to the questionnaires).

377. In Romania, the number of beds in gynaecological and obstetric wards increased from 21 100 to 34 500 between 1960 and 1970.<sup>315</sup> With live births increasing from 324 900 to 427 000 during the same period, this gives an increase in the provision of beds of about 25 per cent per 1 000 live births in 10 years. The percentage of confinements in medical establishments increased from 53.3 per cent in 1955 to 69.8 per cent in 1960, and nearly 90 per cent in 1970.<sup>316</sup> Still births fell from 16.2 per 1 000 to 12 per 1 000 between 1960 and 1971.<sup>317</sup>

378. In the USSR, medical provision for pregnancy and confinement has made great strides since compre-

<sup>315</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Health, September 1972.

<sup>316</sup> Romania, Central Statistical Directorate, *Anuarul Statistic al Republicii Socialiste România 1971* (Bucarest, 1972), pp. 70 and 708.

<sup>317</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Health, September 1972.

hensive planning was begun in 1928. The number of beds in maternity and gynaecological wards, which was barely 27 000 in that year, when 6.6 million live births were recorded, had risen to 147 000 in 1940, when the number of births had fallen to 6.1 million.<sup>318</sup> Further progress after the war brought the number to over 164 000 in 1950, and to 205 000 in 1959 (with 5.2 million live births).<sup>319</sup> In 1970 and 1971, the number of such beds had reached 352 000 and 380 000, respectively, of which 198 000 and 223 000 were dealing exclusively with pregnancy cases and deliveries. The number of live births in 1970 was recorded as 4.2 million, thus implying the provision of over 83 beds per 1 000 live births (or about 47 for pregnancies and deliveries) in that year. In the Byelorussian SSR, the corresponding figure increased from 27 in 1940 to nearly 76 in 1970.<sup>320</sup>

379. The number of beds in gynaecological and obstetric wards in Yugoslavia in 1970 was given as 12 712, of which 5 264 were in delivery wards.<sup>321</sup> With live births numbering 363 300 in that year, this gives a total of 34.9 beds per 1 000. The number of still births fell from 11.3 per 1 000 live births in the early 1950s to about 10 in the late 1960s and 9.4 in 1969 and 1970.<sup>322</sup>

380. A large network of welfare clinics and consultation centres for mothers and children has been established in all the socialist countries of eastern Europe. In Bulgaria, the number of such units increased from 2 400 to 2 500 between 1966 and 1969, with 80 per cent of them located in rural areas.<sup>323</sup> In Romania, all general medical service units are by law required to provide counselling for mothers and children, under the general instructions of special units at the level of provinces.<sup>324</sup> Czechoslovakia maintains gynaecological departments at regional and district centres and about 1 700 consulting rooms for women at local centres. There are, in addition, 125 women's advice clinics, 1 800 consulting rooms for child care at local level and over 2 500 child welfare centres.<sup>325</sup> The German Democratic Republic reported a total of over 2 800 advice centres for mothers in 1971, of which 246 ranked as headquarters. Apart from this, there were about 7 500 medical detachments working in the same field.<sup>326</sup>

381. Poland maintained 2 880 maternity stations for out-patients in 1960 and had reduced that number to 2 097 by 1971.<sup>327</sup>

382. In the USSR, the number of welfare clinics and consultation centres for mothers and children (including advice centres within enterprises and institutions) increased from 8 600 in 1940 to 16 400 in 1960 and over 21 000 in 1970.<sup>328</sup> The number of fully trained obstet-

ricians and gynaecologists had increased from under 11 000 in 1940 to 41 400 in 1970, and that of medical assistants trained in midwifery from 80 000 in the first year to 297 000 in 1970.<sup>329</sup> It appears that as far as medical personnel of these medium grades is concerned the USSR now leads the world with a figure of nearly 12 per 10 000 of the population. The corresponding figures for Western Europe are given as between 1 and 4 and those for eastern Europe as between 2 and 6 per 10 000. However rash it would be to consider these figures as exact measures of the relative levels of service provided, their order of magnitude is striking enough.

383. A report from the Ukrainian SSR specifies that, after being released from a maternity home, a child comes under the supervision of a children's out-patient clinic, 94 per cent of new-born children coming under the care of such clinics' physicians during the first three days after release from the maternity home. In urban areas, 96 per cent of children under one year of age are seen by a physician every month; on average, children are seen by a physician between 12 and 15 times during the first year of life.

384. The physicians give the necessary inoculations against disease, follow changes in weight and height, the child's mental development and the development of the nervous system; they also train the mother in the correct care and feeding of the child and try to encourage breast-feeding.

385. As a result of the far-reaching preventive, curative and public health measures, the rate of sickness in children and, in particular, the incidence of infectious diseases are being reduced. For a number of years now, no case of poliomyelitis has been recorded in the Ukrainian SSR, only individual cases of diphtheria have been noted, and the incidence of whooping cough and measles has been greatly reduced.

386. The mortality rate is declining at all ages but more sharply among children under one year of age. Thus, in the 1960s, the rate among children under the age of one year declined by 51.1 per cent, among children from one to two years of age by 45 per cent, from two to three years of age by 39 per cent, from three to four years of age by 36 per cent, from five to 14 years of age by 36 per cent and, in general, among children up to 15 years of age by 53 per cent.<sup>330</sup>

387. In the USSR, the medical care of children up to the age of three years is mainly the responsibility of the consultation centres mentioned earlier. Older children are looked after by the district clinics up to school-leaving age. For medical cases needing more intensive treatment, there are children's hospitals and special children's departments in general hospitals. The number of beds in these is stated to have risen from 90 000 in 1940 to 383 000 in 1966. During the same period, the number of fully trained pediatricians increased from under 20 000 to nearly 74 000.<sup>331</sup> Beds for children as a whole numbered 13.3 per 10 000 inhabitants in 1970.<sup>332</sup>

<sup>318</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Narodnoe khoziaistvo SSSR v 1967 godu* [The National Economy of the USSR in 1967] (Moscow "Statistika"), p. 53.

<sup>319</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 735, and the USSR reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>320</sup> From the reply of the Byelorussian SSR to the questionnaires.

<sup>321</sup> *Statistical Yearbook of Public Health and Health Service in the SFR Yugoslavia 1970*.

<sup>322</sup> Yugoslavia, *Statistički Godišnjak Jugoslavije 1972* [Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia, 1972], p. 81.

<sup>323</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>324</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Health, October 1972.

<sup>325</sup> Czechoslovakia, *Statistical Abstract, 1971*, pp. 116 and 118.

<sup>326</sup> *Statistisches Jahrbuch 1972 der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik . . .*, p. 428.

<sup>327</sup> From the Polish reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>328</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires, and Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR,

*Narodnoe khoziaistvo SSSR v 1970 godu* [The National Economy of the USSR in 1970] (Moscow "Statistika", 1971), p. 691.

<sup>329</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 692.

<sup>330</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.5, pp. 29 and 30.

<sup>331</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Narodnoe khoziaistvo SSSR v 1967 godu* [The National Economy of the USSR in 1967] (Moscow, "Statistika"), p. 263.

<sup>332</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires.

388. The wide and growing network of crèches and kindergartens also has prophylactic and therapeutic functions. The number of children in permanent institutions of this kind is stated to have risen from under 2 million in 1940 to over 8 million in 1970.<sup>333</sup>

## **B. The improvement of all aspects of environmental and industrial hygiene**

389. Bulgaria reported<sup>334</sup> on special legislation ensuring a comprehensive system of sanitary and hygienic measures, both preventive and curative, for the preservation of workers' health in medical units of the general category, as well as a network of special centres for industrial workers consisting of 47 hospitals and polyclinics (3 500 beds), 63 prophylactic units (2 600 beds) and 593 health centres for on-the-job medical care in industrial enterprises, mines etc. These are responsible for running current research programmes on labour conditions, environment and production processes, as well as normal medical services for workers. On-the-job medical care is under the charge of medical practitioners, usually responsible for 1 500–2 000 workers (or 1 000 in higher-risk production units, like chemical plant or coal mines). There are research institutes for labour protection and occupational diseases and departments of labour hygiene under the special Inspectorates for Hygiene and Epidemiology at district level working on labour protection and occupational pathology and responsible for the current control functions of the Inspectorates. There are seven anti-silicosis centres and 15 laboratories working in labour psychology, physiology, ergonomics and professional aptitude testing.

390. Factory health services in Czechoslovakia control 14 special hospitals with nearly 2 500 beds, 1 829 out-patient centres (preventive and curative), including 40 polyclinics. There are also 510 special factory health centres and 407 crèches with over 17 000 beds.<sup>335</sup>

391. In the German Democratic Republic, the number of polyclinics run by industrial enterprises increased from 36 in 1950 to 96 in 1971, and that of out-patient departments under the same jurisdiction from 109 to 248.<sup>336</sup>

392. In Poland, the industrial health service is an integral part of the social health service. It is independent of factory management and comes directly under the jurisdiction of local health departments. There are treatment and preventive centres in all factories employing over 400 workers (300 in iron and steel works and 200 in chemical plants and mining).<sup>337</sup> The number of on-the-job dispensaries increased from 2 198 to 2 351 between 1960 and 1971.<sup>338</sup> The State Sanitary Inspectorates control standards in housing, work-places, town-planning schemes and environmental protection. Anti-pollution and anti-noise measures setting up protected areas, etc. have been

instituted by special ordinances of the Council of Ministers in recent years, and consultation procedures over plans for new investment projects established. A number of successful prosecutions against industrial pollution have been instituted under these acts.<sup>339</sup>

393. In Romania, large industrial enterprises have their own hospitals, and smaller units have dispensaries, which may be shared between two or more units if considerations of size warrant it. On average, in the industrial health service as a whole, one fully qualified medical practitioner is responsible for 1 700 workers in factories, mines or building sites.<sup>340</sup> The number of works hospitals fell from 103 to 71 between 1955 and 1968, while that of polyclinics in enterprises increased from 84 to 98. Dispensaries manned by auxiliary medical personnel in enterprises increased from 976 to 1 277 in the same period.<sup>341</sup>

394. In the USSR, the All-Union Ministry of Health has the exclusive right to lay down standards of sanitation and hygiene binding on all institutions and citizens. Control is exercised by state sanitary inspection organs which have access to the courts in cases of contravention. Occupational diseases are prevented or monitored by means of medical examinations of all workers on entering employment and periodic checks throughout their working lives. The Ministry of Health issues regulations regarding the frequency of these checks, the qualified personnel in charge, laboratory tests and medical criteria for the admission of workers to employment in cases where counter-indication may arise. On discovery of any form of occupational disease, a special commission is set up in the affected factory (composed of management and trade union representatives) to take the necessary measure for its containment and future prevention.<sup>342</sup>

395. Soviet enterprises employing more than 4 000 workers (or more than 2 000 workers, if engaged in mining or chemical works) must have facilities for medical care and hygiene, usually in the form of clinics, hospitals, women's consultation centres, nurseries, kindergartens and first-aid stations. Those employing more than 800 workers (or more than 500 for mining and chemical works) have health centres under fully trained physicians. Smaller enterprises (over 300 workers) have first-aid stations which are also responsible for disease prevention. The enterprise medical centres, jointly with public health and anti-epidemic stations of the Ministry of Health, are responsible for the supervision of hygiene, ventilation and other working conditions bearing on the health of employees. They carry out periodic medical checks on workers for the prevention of occupational and other diseases. The number of fully trained physicians employed in industrial and other enterprises was given as 33 000 in 1967.<sup>343</sup> Factories which have no medical unit under their own jurisdiction are attached to one of the territorially administered hospitals (e.g. a city hospital), which is then given special responsibility for periodic checks and treatment of the workers.<sup>344</sup> Medical care in collective

<sup>333</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Narodnoe khoziaistvo SSSR v 1970 godu* [The National Economy of the USSR in 1970] (Moscow, "Statistika"), p. 634.

<sup>334</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>335</sup> *Czechoslovak Health Services*, 1970, p. 15. The figures refer to December 1970.

<sup>336</sup> *Statistisches Jahrbuch 1972 der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik*, . . . , p. 424.

<sup>337</sup> *Health Care in Poland* (Warsaw, 1963), pp. 58–60.

<sup>338</sup> From the Polish reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>339</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.1, pp. 51 and 52.

<sup>340</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Health, October 1972.

<sup>341</sup> Romania, Ministry of Health, *Vademecum of Medico-Sanitary Statistics*, 1969, pp. 122 and 129.

<sup>342</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>343</sup> *The USSR—Questions and Answers 1917–1967* (Moscow, Novosti Press Agency), p. 326.

<sup>344</sup> Information from the Soviet Central Council of Trade Unions, October 1972.



farms is the responsibility of district hospitals, whose location throughout the country brings them within easy reach of the farms.

396. Responsibility for environmental hygiene and anti-pollution measures rests with the republican Councils of Ministers and local Soviets.

397. In Yugoslavia, the separate Republics have institutes for occupational health which are responsible for setting up and running special units within industrial enterprises, mines etc. The finance is provided mostly out of general social insurance funds.<sup>345</sup> In 1970, there were 987 such units employing 851 general practitioners and 376 specialists.

### C. The prevention, treatment and control of epidemic, occupational and other diseases

398. Bulgaria reported<sup>346</sup> that, since 1950, a specialized sub-system of the health service had been in operation to deal with epidemic and contagious diseases under a state sanitary inspection board. There are 29 territorial inspection centres of hygiene and epidemiology, each with a special department for anti-epidemic operations. As a result of their work, diseases such as typhoid, diphtheria, poliomyelitis and recurrent typhus no longer present problems to public health authorities, and outbreaks of dysentery and infectious hepatitis have greatly diminished in frequency. There have now been no cases of cholera or smallpox for several decades, and *lues* and malaria have been completely eliminated. Endemic goitre is also being eliminated with the help of the Centre for Goitre Control, created some 20 years ago. A special government act provides for the supply of iodized cooking salts to areas of endemic disease. Similar campaigns against fluorosis, diseases of the bones and caries in children have also been instituted.

399. In the USSR, responsibility for anti-epidemic measures rests on a special network of anti-epidemic stations under the Ministry of Health at republican, provincial, city and district level. Their number more than doubled between 1940 and 1960, when it reached 5 000.<sup>347</sup> The Byelorussian SSR reports that the anti-epidemic services involve considerable numbers of specialists (bacteriologists, biologists, chemists etc.) and laboratories engaged in the discovery, isolation and prevention of epidemic diseases. Workers in high-risk occupations or areas are subject to regular examination and laboratory tests.<sup>348</sup>

### D. The creation of conditions ensuring medical service and medical attention for all in the event of sickness

400. The right to medical care is embodied in the constitutions of all the socialist countries of eastern Europe. Typical examples may be cited from Bulgaria and the USSR.

401. In Bulgaria, free medical aid for all was introduced by special decree of the Presidium of the National Assembly in 1951. This was reaffirmed in the 1971 Constitution (article 47).<sup>349</sup>

402. In the USSR, the basic principles of health legislation were defined in the Party Programme of the Eighth Congress in 1919. This insists on free and fully qualified services, accessible to all, and administered by the State. A central organ for this purpose (the People's Commissariat for Health) had already been set up by a decree issued by the Council of People's Commissars dated 11 July 1918 and signed by Lenin. The principles were further developed in later Party programmes and in the "Basic Principles of Health Legislation of the USSR and Union Republics" of 1969, which came into effect on 1 July 1970.<sup>350</sup>

403. The figures in table III.20 may serve as summary indicators of developments in the provision of medical services in the socialist countries of eastern Europe. Parallel developments elsewhere are illustrated in the lower section of the table referring to the most advanced countries of the West.

404. The most spectacular progress in hospital facilities was achieved in the USSR. In 1913, the total number of beds in medical units was recorded as 207 600, or 13 per 10 000 inhabitants. By 1940, the figures had risen to a total of 791 000—equivalent to 40.2 per 10 000. A further rise by nearly 40 per cent then occurred between 1940 and 1950, followed by a further doubling in the next 20 years. The figure for 1971 is 2 727 000 beds (110.7 per 10 000 inhabitants).<sup>351</sup> This is fully on a par with the 1970 position of both the German Democratic Republic and the Federal Republic of Germany and exceeds the figures for England and Wales and the United States of America by a considerable margin, though it still falls short of the most advanced standards reached in some Scandinavian countries (Sweden and Finland have over 140 beds per 10 000 inhabitants). In the current Soviet Five-Year Plan, a stock of 3 million beds, or 117 per 10 000 inhabitants by 1975, is anticipated.

405. Of the other CMEA countries of eastern Europe, only the German Democratic Republic equals the USSR in the provision of hospital beds. The others report figures about a quarter below this standard, very near to the present norm of the United States of America.

406. Besides hospitals, the socialist countries of eastern Europe have clinics, convalescent homes, maternity homes, first-aid and medical stations, usually organized on a territorial basis. Czechoslovakia, for instance, is divided into 11 regions (outside Prague and Bratislava) containing smaller districts with populations of between 40 000 and 250 000 people, each of which has at least one, and more probably several, hospitals. These are located in such a manner that no village, however remote, is further than 8 km from the nearest hospital.<sup>352</sup> In rural areas, there is normally one medical practitioner at least for every 2 500 inhabitants. In Romania, medical units are organized territorially by the 2 606 rural and 1 300

<sup>345</sup> Information from the Yugoslav Federal Institute of Public Health, September 1972.

<sup>346</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>347</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Zdravookhranenie v SSSR [Public Health in the USSR]* (Moscow, 1960), p. 217.

<sup>348</sup> From the reply of the Byelorussian SSR to the questionnaires.

<sup>349</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>350</sup> Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet, 19 December 1969.

<sup>351</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>352</sup> Information from a Czechoslovak government agency, October 1972.



TABLE III.20

Number of hospital beds, doctors and dentists per 10 000 inhabitants, in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in other countries and territories (various years)

	Number of beds in medical units per 10 000 inhabitants			Number of doctors and dentists per 10 000 inhabitants			
	1950	1960	1970	1950	1960	1970	1971
Bulgaria .....	39.2	62.5	77.2	9.2	17.0	22.2	..
Czechoslovakia .....	61.7	76.1	79.7	10.1	17.5	22.9	..
German Democratic Republic .....	102	119	111	11.3	12.2	20.3	20.9
Hungary .....	52.5	67.2	77.4	10.3	15.3	22.0	..
Poland .....	51.1	55.4	62.9	4.6	12.7	19.3	19.9
Romania .....	42.2	72.5	80.8	9.5	13.5	14.7	19.9
USSR .....	55.7	80.4	109.2	14.5	20.0	27.4	28.3
Byelorussian SSR .....	..	55.9	94.2	9.3	16.4	25.8	..
Ukrainian SSR .....	..	75.4	108.4	14.4 <sup>a</sup>	18.7	27.7	..
Yugoslavia .....	..	44.9	53.8	4.1	7.5 <sup>b</sup>	10.3 <sup>c</sup>	..
Federal Republic of Germany .....	..	..	110.6 <sup>d</sup>	18.6 <sup>a</sup>	20.2 <sup>b</sup>	21.8 <sup>c</sup>	..
United Kingdom (England and Wales) ..	..	..	95.7 <sup>d</sup>	..	..	..	..
Sweden .....	..	..	145.8 <sup>d</sup>	12.3 <sup>a</sup>	15.9 <sup>b</sup>	20.0 <sup>c</sup>	..
United States of America .....	..	..	82.7 <sup>d</sup>	18.1 <sup>a</sup>	18.0 <sup>b</sup>	22.1 <sup>c</sup>	..
Total Europe .....	..	..	..	12.0 <sup>a</sup>	15.7 <sup>b</sup>	19.2 <sup>c</sup>	..

Sources: *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries, 1971], pp. 412 and 413; *The ECE Region in Figures* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.E/Mim.5 and Corr.), p. 80; Yugoslavia, *Statistički Godišnjak Jugoslavije 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia, 1971], pp. 72 and 312; *ibid.*, 1972, pp. 77 and 316; WHO, *World Health Statistics Annual 1968*, vol. III (Geneva, 1971), pp. 187 *et seq.*; information from the replies of Bulgaria, the USSR, the Byelorussian SSR, the Ukrainian SSR and Poland to the

questionnaires sent by the Special Rapporteur (for the text of the questionnaires, see annex I of the present study).

<sup>a</sup> Moving average centred on 1951.

<sup>b</sup> Moving average centred on 1959.

<sup>c</sup> Moving average centred on 1968.

<sup>d</sup> 1968.

urban "circumscriptions" into which the country is divided for this purpose.<sup>353</sup>

407. The USSR disposes of a network of over 40 000 clinics, which are currently treating over 1.5 million cases a year. In addition, there are first-aid and medical stations numbering nearly 100 000 in rural areas, and another 7 000 attached to enterprises and building projects.

408. Urban district clinics serve defined areas of 4 000 inhabitants on average and are classified into size categories, of which the largest is equipped to deal with over 1 500 patients per day. Rural clinics are normally attached to rural hospitals, each of which serves a radius of not more than five miles. Collective and state farms with a membership below 1 000 are reported to have medical stations serviced by personnel in the medical assistant grade.

409. In the sparsely populated areas of the north and far east, a flying doctor service with mobile medical units is in operation.

410. In the provision of doctors and dentists per 10 000 inhabitants, the USSR now undoubtedly leads the world, after doubling standards since 1950 (see table III.20 above). This progress was achieved from an even lower base of 10 per 10 000 in 1913 and 62 per 10 000 in 1940.<sup>354</sup> All other CMEA countries have by now reached or overtaken Western levels, after more than doubling their standards in the last 20 years, except for Poland, whose progress, however, was the most impressive, as it started from a level below the rest and fully 75 per cent below its present norm. Yugoslavia still lags behind the other

socialist countries in both beds and medical personnel per 10 000 inhabitants. It should be stressed, however, that no precise conclusions on the relative quality and intensity of medical care can be drawn from these figures.

411. The length of full-time medical training (including practical training) required for graduating physicians is normally six years in the socialist countries of eastern Europe (five years for pharmaceuticals and stomatology). In Romania, five-year courses of specialist training may be started after three years of general medical training, and there are quinquennial refresher courses for all doctors.<sup>355</sup>

412. The proportion of women among fully trained physicians is markedly higher in the socialist countries of eastern Europe than in other parts of the world. In Hungary, it is about 25 per cent, in Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia and Romania about 40 per cent, in Poland nearly 50 per cent and in the USSR over 70 per cent.<sup>356</sup> This compares with a typical percentage of between 10 and 25 per cent in the rest of the world.

413. The USSR also leads the world in the number of medical personnel in the assistant grades per 10 000 inhabitants. It is possible, however, that the outstandingly high figure of 18.3 reported to WHO for 1968<sup>357</sup> is not fully comparable with those of other countries, owing to a different classification and delimitation of professional status. Bulgaria and Poland reported corresponding figures of 5.6 and 1.7, respectively, for the same year.<sup>358</sup> USSR statistics also contain figures for a category of medical personnel described as of medium rank, whose

<sup>353</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Health, October 1972.

<sup>354</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires. Among other countries that regularly publish this statistic, only Israel comes anywhere near the USSR level, with a figure of about 24 per 10 000 in 1968. The absolute number of physicians in the USSR in 1970 was given as 668 000, and there were 220 000 students in training at medical colleges.

<sup>355</sup> From the replies to the questionnaires, and information from the Ministries of Health, Central Statistical Institutes etc., of the various countries, September 1972.

<sup>356</sup> A peak of 77 per cent was reached in 1950 (from the USSR reply to the questionnaires).

<sup>357</sup> WHO, *World Health Statistics Annual, 1968* (Geneva, 1971), vol. III, p. 51.

<sup>358</sup> From the Bulgarian and Polish replies to the questionnaires.

number per 10 000 inhabitants is stated to have increased from 24 in 1940 to 64.5 in 1960 and 89.1 in 1971.<sup>359</sup> Bulgarian statistics thought to be comparable with this gave figures of 48.3 and 57.4 for 1966 and 1970, respectively,<sup>360</sup> and Hungarian sources indicate 48.4 in 1960 and 75.1 in 1970.<sup>361</sup>

414. Medical training for higher assistant grades in the USSR is of three-and-a-half or two-and-a-half years' duration (depending on length of previous schooling) and of 34 or 22 months' duration for other grades.<sup>362</sup>

415. The Byelorussian SSR reported that 93.5 per cent of the medium-rank medical personnel in the Republic in 1970 were women.<sup>363</sup>

416. Somewhat less marked off from the standards of other countries is the provision of nursing staff per 10 000 of the population in the USSR, which increased from 5.3 in 1940 to 18.2 10 years later and reached 42.8 in 1970.<sup>364</sup> Czechoslovakia and Hungary reported comparable figures for 1968, while Bulgaria and Poland still fell slightly short of 30 per 10 000 inhabitants, and Yugoslavia reported 10.4. Among Western countries in 1968, Finland appeared to lead the world, with 65.6 nurses per 10 000 inhabitants, closely followed by Canada (57.3) and the United States of America (49.2 in 1967). Norms in Western Europe vary between 16.9 (Belgium) and 39.6 (Scotland).<sup>365</sup>

<sup>359</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires. It is stated that in 1970 this category was made up of nurses (48.7 per cent), midwives (10.2 per cent), assistants (*feldshers*), including midwives' assistants (26.2 per cent) and an unspecified residual of 14.9 per cent (X-ray, laboratory and dental technicians etc.).

<sup>360</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>361</sup> Hungarian Central Statistical Office, *Statistical Pocket Book of Hungary, 1972* (Budapest, Statistical Publishing House, 1972), p. 263.

<sup>362</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>363</sup> From the reply of the Byelorussian SSR to the questionnaires.

<sup>364</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>365</sup> WHO, *World Health Statistics Annual, 1968* (Geneva, 1971), vol. III, p. 54.

417. Medical benefits in the socialist countries of eastern Europe are available free of charge to all residents (Bulgaria, USSR) or to defined categories of persons which, in practice, cover the whole population. There are no qualifying conditions and no time limits. Partial exceptions to this are Hungary, where free hospital treatment is limited to one year (unless extended for convalescence or indefinitely prolonged for sufferers from tuberculosis), and Poland, where persons whose employment has ceased are limited to 26 weeks' free medical care (or 39 weeks, if prolonged). Medicine is free when taken in hospitals, polyclinics etc., but some payment is usually required for medicine taken at home, unless the patient belongs to certain defined categories. The prices of medicines, however, are very low in all socialist countries, and the exempt categories usually very large (sufferers from chronic diseases, children, students, war veterans etc.). In Hungary, individuals outside the special categories pay 15 per cent of the cost of home-consumed medicines,<sup>366</sup> and, in Romania, it is estimated that 30-40 per cent of medicines consumed are paid for directly by the user.<sup>367</sup>

418. In the USSR, the average prescription charge made to the individual is about 30 kopeck (0.30 rouble), and 50 per cent of all medicines produced are issued free of charge.<sup>368</sup>

419. In Yugoslavia, there is a schedule of low fees for special medical services used outside hospitals, polyclinics etc. Workers in industrial employment pay a prescription charge of 2.5 dinar for medicine used as out-patients, regardless of true cost. Farm workers, however, pay the full cost, unless they belong to special categories (children, expectant mothers etc.). Sufferers

<sup>366</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, September 1972.

<sup>367</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Health, September 1972.

<sup>368</sup> Information from the USSR Ministry of Social Security, October 1972.

TABLE III.21

Life expectancy at birth (years) prior to the Second World War and in the late 1960s in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in certain Western countries

	Prior to Second World War			Late 1960s		
	Men	Women	Year	Men	Women	Year
Bulgaria .....	52	53	1937 <sup>a</sup>	68.8	72.7	1966 <sup>a</sup>
Czechoslovakia .....	57	59	1937	67.2	73.6	1970
German Democratic Republic .....	60 <sup>b</sup>	63 <sup>b</sup>	1933 <sup>a</sup>	68.1	73.3	1970
Hungary .....	50	51	1930	66.6	71.9	1968
Poland .....	50	51	1931	66.8	72.8	1965 <sup>a</sup>
Romania .....	—	42	1932	66.5	70.5	1966 <sup>a</sup>
USSR .....	44	47	1926 <sup>a</sup>	65	74	1968 <sup>a</sup>
Yugoslavia .....	..	..	..	64.7	69.0	1966 <sup>a</sup>
Federal Republic of Germany .....	60 <sup>b</sup>	63 <sup>b</sup>	1933 <sup>a</sup>	67.6	73.6	1967 <sup>a</sup>
United Kingdom (England and Wales) ..	59	63	1931 <sup>a</sup>	68.7	74.9	1968 <sup>a</sup>
Norway .....	64	68	1930s <sup>c</sup>	71.0	76.0	1963 <sup>a</sup>
Sweden .....	64	67	1937 <sup>a</sup>	71.8	76.5	1967
United States of America .....	62	66	1940 <sup>a</sup>	66.6	74.0	1968

Sources: *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA countries, 1971] p. 9; Romania, Central Statistical Directorate, *Anuarul Statistic al Republicii Socialiste România 1971* (Bucharest, 1972), p. 756; *Vestnik Statistiki* [Statistical Herald], No. 1 (Moscow, 1972), p. 96; *Demographic Yearbook 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F.71.XIII.1), pp. 720 et seq.; Staatliche Zentralverwaltung für Statistik, *Statistisches Jahrbuch 1972 der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik* (Berlin, Staatsverlag, 1972), p. 476.

<sup>a</sup> Two or three-year moving average.

<sup>b</sup> Pre-war Germany as a whole.

<sup>c</sup> Average of the years 1931/1932 and 1940/1941.

from chronic diseases, whether workers or farmers, pay only 2.5 dinar for larger batches of medical supplies.

420. Table III.21 shows the socialist countries' progress in lengthening average life expectancy between the inter-war period and the present time. The most striking results were

achieved by the formerly less developed countries, whose life expectancy originally fell short of Western standards by 20–30 per cent and which have now virtually drawn level with the rapidly rising standards of the developed world.

## Chapter V.

### THE RIGHT OF THE FAMILY, MOTHERHOOD AND CHILDHOOD TO PROTECTION AND ASSISTANCE

421. As already pointed out in part I of the present study, the rights to protection and assistance of the family, and of mothers and children, like rights concerning other forms of social protection, are regarded as constitutional principles in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and are spelled out in basic legislative acts (constitutions, labour code etc.).

422. In Bulgaria, articles 34–45 of the Constitution proclaim equal rights of the sexes and special protection for women during pregnancy, confinement, nursing and child rearing. Further legislation is contained in the Bulgarian Labour Code, e.g., article 35 (working conditions in pregnancy), article 60 (maternity leave) and many others.

423. The Czechoslovak Constitution of 1960 guarantees state protection for motherhood, marriage and the family in article 26, and equal status and special protection for women in article 27. A number of fundamental Acts (e.g., the Act on the Family No. 94/1963 and amendment) provide for more detailed regulations to implement this guarantee.

424. The 1936 Constitution of the USSR, as amended in 1947, recognizes the rights in question in article 122, which is devoted to the equal rights of women with men in all spheres. It specifies that this equality is to be safeguarded, among other things, by state protection of the interests of mother and child, state aid to mothers of large families and unmarried mothers, maternity leave with full pay and the provision of an extended network of maternity homes, nurseries and kindergartens. In many respects, Soviet legislation in this field goes considerably beyond the standards of the international conventions which the USSR has ratified.

425. The Yugoslav Constitution (article 57) proclaims the community's duty to provide special care for mother and child and for minors deprived of parental care. Article 58, section 3, further declares that parents have the right and duty to educate their children.

426. Similar provisions are contained in the constitutions of the other socialist countries of eastern Europe.

#### A. The right of the family to protection and assistance

427. Birth grants and family allowances are payable in all socialist countries of eastern Europe.

428. In Bulgaria (where average wages were 124 leva per month in 1970), the State pays lump sums of 20, 200 and 500 leva on the birth of a family's first, second and third child, respectively, and a further 20 leva on the birth of each subsequent child. In addition, there are monthly children's allowances of 5, 20 and 55 leva for families with one, two and three children under 16 years of age,

with a further 5 leva added for each child beyond that number. The allowances are paid to all families in which at least one parent is covered by the comprehensive social insurance system, but are subject to reductions if total income exceeds 180 leva per month. Co-operative farmers who are not insured under the Labour Code get family allowances for the third child only. A possible increase in the allowance for the first child is under discussion. Unmarried mothers get the scheduled allowances even when not working and are given preference in the allocation of free places in crèches and nurseries.<sup>369</sup>

429. The Czechoslovak State pays families a lump sum of 2 000 Kcs (approximately one month's average wage in 1970) on the birth of each child and monthly allowances of 90 Kcs for the first child, 330 for two children, 350 for the third and the fourth each and 240 for the fifth and each subsequent child.<sup>370</sup> To qualify for these allowances, one of the parents must be working at least 20 days a month, and the family's income must be below certain limits varying with family size (3 000 Kcs per month for the one-child family and 3 800 for the two-child family). The children must be under 15 years of age, unless in full-time study courses or incapacitated, in which case the age limit can be 26 years. The allowances are reduced by about 50 per cent, if the insured combines his paid employment with farming on his own land.

430. In the German Democratic Republic, birth grants start at 500 marks for the first child and rise progressively to 1 000 marks for the fifth and each subsequent child. The latter sum exceeded the average monthly wage of 1969 by about one third. Family allowances rise progressively from 20 marks per month for each of the first two children to 70 marks for the fifth and each subsequent child, provided the children are under 15 (or under 18, if engaged in full-time study). All residents are eligible, but self-employed persons do not qualify for the first three children, unless their incomes are below a statutory limit.

431. In Hungary, mothers receive a lump-sum payment of 800 forint (36.3 per cent of the monthly average wage in 1971) for every birth and a grant for baby clothing. In addition, there are monthly family allowances of 300 forint for a second child, 510 for a third and 270 for a fourth and each subsequent child. Unmarried mothers receive allowances for first children also but are on a somewhat lower scale for second children. Members of agricultural co-operatives are on different scales, and employees of private farmers and part-time employees are

<sup>369</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires, and information from the Bulgarian Institute of Social Security and Public Health, September 1972.

<sup>370</sup> E/CN.4/1023/Add.4, p. 10.



not included in the scheme. In 1971, over 700 000 families received family allowances, averaging 338 forint per month for workers and employees and 244 forint per month for members of agricultural co-operatives. This represented an increase by nearly one quarter in the number of recipients since 1960 and by nearly two thirds in the average received by eligible workers and employees. In the case of co-operative farmers, however, the average had only increased by 7 per cent.<sup>371</sup> It is recognized that the allowances cover only a small percentage of the expenses of child rearing,<sup>372</sup> but the system of maternity benefits introduced on 1 January 1967 goes some way towards closing the gap.

432. In Poland, employed workers receive monthly family allowances, rising from 70 zloty for the first child to 175 zloty for the second, 310 zloty for the third and 150 zloty for the fourth and each subsequent child. With an average wage level of about 2 600 zloty per month (1971)<sup>373</sup> this would give the average three-child family a supplement of approximately 21 per cent of the father's earnings. The rates, however, are raised by about 50 per cent for families whose monthly incomes are less than 1 000 zloty per person, and an additional supplement of 32.5 zloty is added to the total. Apart from children's allowances, there is a payment of 37.5 zloty per month for non-working mothers and for wives who are over 50 years of age or incapacitated. The allowances are payable for all dependent children under 16 years (under 24, if on full-time study).

433. Romania pays birth grants of 1 000 lei for the third and each subsequent child. This is equal to the statutory minimum wage introduced in 1972. Apart from this, there are family allowances for families with monthly incomes under 1 500 lei, rising from 150 lei per month for the first child to 160 for the second and 180 for the third and each subsequent child. Rural families and those earning more than 1 500 lei per month receive allowances at reduced rates. The payments are made by the employer on behalf of the Ministry to all regular employees and to members of producer co-operatives and collective farmers in respect of children under 14 (under 18, if totally disabled). From 1 September 1971, child allowances were increased by an average of 26.5 per cent from their previous level.<sup>374</sup>

434. The USSR family allowance policy was started in 1936 and, at first, provided for payments only for the seventh and subsequent children. In 1944, the provisions were improved and accorded lump-sum payments for the third and all subsequent children. At the same time, monthly allowances for the fourth and subsequent children were introduced. Both these payments were halved in 1948 and appear to have remained unchanged for at least 20 years, despite the near doubling of nominal wages. The schedules, as reported in 1956, covered lump-sum payments, rising from 20 rouble for the third child to 250 rouble for the tenth and subsequent children, and

monthly allowances from 4 rouble for the fourth to 15 rouble for the tenth and subsequent children, payable from the first to the fifth birthday of each child. In 1956, these lump-sum payments amounted to about 27 per cent of the monthly average wage at the time (for the third child) and rose on the graduated scale to over 12 times that amount for the tenth child. The monthly allowances amounted to about 5.5 per cent of the average monthly wage (for the fourth child) and rose to over 20 per cent of the monthly wage for the tenth child.<sup>375</sup>

435. Unmarried mothers receive monthly allowances for all children from birth up to the age of 12. The scale, as reported in 1956, was about 6.7 per cent of the average monthly wage for an only child, 10 per cent for two children, and approximately 13.3 per cent for three or more children.<sup>376</sup> These privileges, however, do not apply to unmarried mothers who live with the children's father or to those who subsequently marry.

436. From 1974 onward, it is planned to pay additional monthly allowances to families whose monthly incomes are below 50 rouble per head.<sup>377</sup>

437. In Yugoslavia, employed workers and members of certain liberal professions are entitled to monthly family allowances according to a scale descending from 32 dinar for the first child to 17 dinar for the fifth and each subsequent child under 15 (or under 26, if a full-time student). An average three-child family entitled to the full scale would receive 90 dinar per month, or slightly under 8 per cent of the net income averaged per person employed in 1970. The scale is reduced, however, for families with taxable incomes exceeding certain limits, and those in the highest brackets receive only 25 per cent of the figures quoted.

## B. The right of mothers to special care and assistance

438. In Bulgaria, employers are barred by law<sup>378</sup> from dismissing women who have become pregnant or from changing their conditions of work between the fourth and the eighth month of pregnancy. Nor can they refuse employment to a new applicant on the grounds of pregnancy.<sup>379</sup> They are, on the other hand, obliged to transfer pregnant women from heavy duties to lighter work after the fourth month of pregnancy without loss of earnings.

439. Under article 60 of the Labour Code, working women are allowed fully paid leave periods of 120, 150 and 180 calendar days for the birth of their first, second and third children and 120 days for the birth of the fourth and subsequent children. Of these periods, 45 days may be taken before confinement. In addition, unpaid leave of from 8 to 12 months (depending on the number of children already in the family) is allowed to women who wish to prolong their periods away from work after the birth of a child, without loss of pension rights or of other entitlements of any kind. These rights are granted to all mothers, whether in industrial employment or working as members of co-operative farms, provided only that they have worked for three consecutive months preceding their pregnancy. Mothers with children under three years of

<sup>371</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, September 1972; see Hungarian Central Statistical Office, *Statistical Pocket Book of Hungary 1972*, . . . , pp. 255 and 256.

<sup>372</sup> Some estimates put it as low as 20 per cent; see Hungarian Central Statistical Office, *Hungary Today*, . . . , p. 156.

<sup>373</sup> From the Polish reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>374</sup> Conference of European Ministers responsible for Social Welfare, The Hague, Netherlands, 22-26 August 1972, "Analysis of statements prepared by Governments and international organizations" (E/CONF.64/5), para. 46.

<sup>375</sup> *Sotsial'noe obespechenie v SSSR [Social Security in the USSR]* (Moscow, "Iuridicheskaya Literatura", 1962), p. 180.

<sup>376</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>377</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>378</sup> Article 35 of the Bulgarian Labour Code.

<sup>379</sup> Article 119, section 1, of the Labour Code.

age are entitled to up to 45 days' fully paid leave to look after them in case of illness.<sup>380</sup>

440. As mentioned in paragraph 428 above, there are birth grants of 20 leva for the first, fourth and all subsequent children, and of 200 and 500 leva for the second and the third child, respectively.<sup>381</sup>

441. Czechoslovak maternity benefits were originally introduced by Act 154 of 1969. This was amended by Act 107 of 1971 which took effect from 20 October 1971. According to this legislation, maternity benefit is payable to women who have been insured for at least 270 days in the two years preceding confinements, though eligibility continues for six months after employment ceases. The benefits amount to 500 Kcs per month for one child, 800 Kcs for two children and 1 200 Kcs for three children under two years of age. In addition, under Act 88 of 1968, there are "compensating allowances" paid to pregnant women and to mothers up to the end of the ninth month after confinement, if for reasons of pregnancy or motherhood they had to be transferred to lower-paid work. There is also financial aid payable during 26 weeks of maternity leave, usually starting four weeks before the expected birth. The benefits amount to 75-90 per cent of net earnings (depending on length of continuous employment in the same enterprise), subject to a minimum of 16 and a maximum of 120 Kcs per day. These rates, however, may be reduced by 40-60 per cent during the last four weeks of maternity leave. Under a 1971 ordinance, birth grants of 2 000 Kcs are also payable when a woman worker or a member of a worker's family gives birth to a child. Under this and another ordinance of the same year, the provisions on social security of co-operative farmers and the self-employed were amended in the same direction.<sup>382</sup>

442. In the German Democratic Republic, cash maternity benefits are payable to workers who have had six months' insurance during the last year, or 10 months' insurance during the last two years. The benefits amount to 100 per cent of earnings, payable for six weeks before and eight weeks after confinement. There is also a layette grant of 50 marks and a nursing grant of 10 marks per month, in addition to the normal birth grants of 500 marks for the first birth (rising progressively to 1 000 marks for the fifth and each subsequent birth).

443. In Hungary, the State pays maternity benefits of 100 per cent of earnings for up to 20 weeks before and after confinement, provided the mother has an employment record of nine months in the last two years (with a record of between six and eight months, the benefits are payable at half the rate). The 20 weeks of maternity leave may start at any time during pregnancy at the mother's discretion, but a four-weeks mandatory period before confinement is currently under discussion.<sup>383</sup> The benefits are in addition to the lump sum of 500-700 forint payable for each birth.

444. On 1 January 1967, Hungary introduced a new system of child welfare allowances, which was greatly developed and improved in 1969. This provides for a monthly payment of 600 forint to mothers who stay

away from work to look after the newborn child from the end of maternity leave until the child is three years old. The payment is made for each child under the age of three. The legislation guarantees re-employment of the mother at her old place of work when the three-year period has elapsed but makes it a condition of eligibility that no other income should be earned. It may be largely due to this qualification that the number of mothers opting to take advantage of these benefits has not been as large as might be expected. The rise in the consumer price index since the allowances were introduced suggests that the monthly upkeep of young children may now cost more than the statutory payments. Recipients of child-care allowance numbered only 92 000 in 1968 and 144 000 the following year. According to one source,<sup>384</sup> this was only 75 per cent of those entitled to the allowances. The numbers rose, however, to 167 000 in 1970 and to 178 000 by December 1971.<sup>385</sup>

445. In Poland, up to July 1972, working women with an employment record of at least four months in the last year were entitled to cash maternity benefits equal to their normal earnings for 13 weeks, including at least two weeks before confinement. They also received one litre of milk per day (or its money equivalent) for up to 12 weeks after the maternity benefit ceased. In addition, under a resolution of the Council of Ministers dated 24 May 1968, mothers with an employment record of 12 months or more were entitled to one year's unpaid leave on completion of the paid maternity leave and had the right to reinstatement in their former work when this had elapsed.<sup>386</sup> From 1 July 1972, the period of paid maternity leave was extended to 16 weeks for the first and 18 weeks for each subsequent child, and the period of optional unpaid leave was extended from one to three years. Simultaneously, every working woman was given the right to fully paid leave of up to 60 days per year to look after a child or children in case of illness (previously, this leave had been limited to 30 days per year).<sup>387</sup>

446. The Romanian Labour Code prescribes<sup>388</sup> lighter work for pregnant women, and prolonged rest periods are mandatory during work for nursing mothers. Maternity benefits of 50-85 per cent of normal earnings, depending on length of service (and 94 per cent of earnings for third and subsequent children, regardless of service record), are payable for up to 52 days before and 60 days after confinement. These benefits are available to all mothers, without minimum qualifying periods as insured workers.

447. In the USSR, the statutory length of paid maternity leave is 112 calendar days, of which, as a rule, 56 days are taken before confinement and 56 days after. In the case of abnormal or multiple births, the latter period is extended to 70 days, and, since 1966, the provision of 56 days' leave is also extended to women who

<sup>384</sup> *Népszabadság*, 14 August 1969.

<sup>385</sup> Hungarian Central Statistical Office, *Statistical Pocket Book of Hungary 1972* (Budapest, Statistical Publishing House, 1972), p. 257.

<sup>386</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.1, pp. 52 and 53.

<sup>387</sup> Z. Bajszczak and M. Winiewski, *Problems of Social Protection of Workers in the Polish People's Republic* (Warsaw—Geneva, The Research Institute of Labour Economics, Ministry of Labour, Wages and Social Affairs, June 1972), p. 14.

<sup>388</sup> Conference of European Ministers responsible for Social Welfare, The Hague, Netherlands, 22-26 August 1972. "Analysis of statements prepared by Governments and international organizations" (E/CONF.64/5), para. 46.

<sup>380</sup> Information from the Bulgarian Institute of Social Insurance and Public Health, September 1972.

<sup>381</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>382</sup> E/CN.4/1023/Add.4, pp. 11 and 12.

<sup>383</sup> Information from the Hungarian Ministry of Health, September 1972.



adopt children from maternity homes.<sup>389</sup> In accordance with the decisions of the Twenty-fourth Party Congress, the payments during that period are fixed at 100 per cent of the women's normal earnings, regardless of the previous service record. In addition, the woman may claim unpaid leave from the end of maternity leave until the child is one year old, without loss of continuity benefits and with the right to reinstatement at the end of the period.<sup>390</sup> There are also cash grants for layettes and baby foods where family income falls short of certain minimum limits. The benefits are in addition to the non-recurrent birth grants of 20 rouble, which come into operation with the third child and rise to 100 rouble for the sixth and 250 rouble for the eleventh and subsequent children. Family allowances, however, only come into operation with the fourth child.

448. According to the latest statistics, state budget expenditure on cash grants for maternity leave, birth grants, layettes and baby foods (including payments to unmarried mothers) rose from 300 million rouble in 1950 to over 1 300 million rouble in 1970, exclusive of additional grants of one million rouble used for similar purposes from centralized social insurance and collective farm funds. The number of mothers in receipt of family allowances (i.e., with four or more children) increased from 3 079 000 to 3 211 000 in the same period.<sup>391</sup>

449. Pregnant women are protected by special legislation prohibiting refusal of employment on grounds of pregnancy and barring night shifts, overtime work and work entailing absence from home. They must be offered lighter work and cannot be required to carry heavy burdens. Moreover, work entailing absence from home or overtime cannot be required of a woman with children under eight years of age without her consent.

450. Women with young children are also exempt from night shifts and are entitled to part-time working without loss of length-of-service benefits or skill ratings.<sup>392</sup>

451. Similar provisions apply in the Union Republics of the USSR.<sup>393</sup>

452. In Yugoslavia, maternity benefits are payable to all workers, members of handicraft and fishery co-operatives, students, and members of certain liberal professions, regardless of service record. The 1969 laws fixed the benefits at 80 per cent of normal earnings, rising to 100 per cent, if pregnancy was preceded by six continuous or 12 total months of insurance. The benefits are payable for up to 105 days, including 45 days before confinement. There is, in addition, a grant of 80 dinar or a layette for each newborn child.

453. Some concern was expressed by an ILO Committee of Experts on reports by the Yugoslav Government that night work undertaken by women had risen between 1967 and 1970 and that the number of women involved had increased from 35 500 to 50 000 between the two years.<sup>394</sup>

<sup>389</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>390</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>391</sup> *Vestnik Statistiki* [Statistical Herald], No. 1 (Moscow, 1972), pp. 91 and 92.

<sup>392</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>393</sup> From the replies of the Byelorussian and Ukrainian SSR to the questionnaires.

<sup>394</sup> International Labour Conference, Fifty-seventh Session, *Report of the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations*, report III, part 4A, vol. A (General report

## C. The right of children and young persons to special care and assistance

454. The very high participation rate of women in the labour force of most socialist countries of eastern Europe naturally prompts a variety of questions concerning the effects of this situation on the family. A sample survey of 250,000 Soviet families in 1967<sup>395</sup> disclosed that over 70 per cent of the women over 16 were in full-time employment and that the percentage in the urban section of the sample was as high as 75. Throughout the 1960s, there had been a sharp decline in the number of full-time housewives and farm workers on private household plots (from 17.9 million in 1959 to 5.9 million in 1970), motivated largely by the desire to participate in collective work, to gain material independence from the husband and, only to a lesser degree, by the wish to increase the family income.<sup>396</sup> It may be anticipated that the participation of women in productive employment will very soon become a universal rule.<sup>397</sup>

455. In these circumstances, the quality and intensity of the care given to young children will come to depend more and more on the provision of labour-saving equipment in the home and of crèches and kindergartens for the care of the young while both their parents are at work.

456. In the USSR, considerable progress has been made of late in the effective provision of free time for the working woman and in better facilities giving relief from domestic chores. The recent change-over to a five-day working week for the majority of workers has meant a reduction in working time of 70–80 hours per year and added 100 extra work-free days per year to the leisure time of the population. Services such as the home delivery of provisions and meals, laundries, cleaning services etc. have doubled in volume during the period of the eighth five-year plan, and even trebled in rural areas, while the production of labour-saving consumer durables has expanded by 80 per cent. At the same time, the number of full-time places in pre-school educational establishments increased by 2.5 million and reached a total of over 9 million in 1970, while in rural areas 5 million children were accepted in crèches on a seasonal basis. It has been stated that, in certain towns and urban settlements, the demand for such places is now fully met.<sup>398</sup> Another source states that already by 1966 as many as 71 per cent of pre-school children of working mothers were cared for in institutions of this kind (located in urban areas), while the corresponding proportion in rural areas was 61 per cent. This, however, was derived from a sample survey.<sup>399</sup> There are, in addition, the so-called "prolonged-day groups", where older children stay after school hours for meals and general supervision at the request of their parents. The number of children in such groups

and observations concerning particular countries) (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1972), p. 169.

<sup>395</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Zhenshchiny i deti v SSSR* [Women and Children in the USSR] (Moscow, "Statistika", 1969), p. 111.

<sup>396</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>397</sup> Among women of working age, the participation rate was 92 per cent in Bulgaria (1969), 97.7 per cent in Poland (1968) and 84.8 per cent in the USSR (1970) (from the Bulgarian, Polish and USSR replies to the questionnaires).

<sup>398</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>399</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Zhenshchiny i deti v SSSR* [Women and Children in the USSR] (Moscow, "Statistika", 1969), p. 126.

was given as 4 million in 1966. The charge to the parents for keeping a child at kindergarten varies between 5 and 12 rouble.<sup>400</sup>

457. There are great variations in the provision of care for pre-school children in the other socialist countries of Eastern Europe.

458. In Bulgaria, some 8 per cent of all children up to three years of age are placed in day or week crèches; in urban areas, however, the proportion reaches 14 or 15 per cent, and in rural areas it is correspondingly less. Among children between three and seven years of age, 67.8 per cent were placed in kindergartens (21.4 per cent of them in full-time daily care).<sup>401</sup>

459. Given that about 90 per cent of all women with children under school age are in full-time employment, the expansion of all forms of public pre-school education would seem to be highly desirable. The present five-year plan (1970-1975) provides for a doubling of places in the crèches for the younger age group in order to raise the proportion of accommodation of children under three years of age from 8 to 25 per cent by 1975. At present, parents pay about 20-30 per cent of the true cost of crèches, according to income-related scales, the average charge levied being approximately 20 leva per child per month.<sup>402</sup>

460. The total number of beds in children's nurseries increased from 725 000 to 1 047 000 between 1960 and 1969. In the latter year, about 45 per cent of these were in permanent nurseries (including children's sanatoria), and 55 per cent in establishments of a seasonal type.<sup>403</sup>

461. In Czechoslovakia, the number of places (beds) in children's nurseries increased from 41 000 to nearly 66 000 between 1960 and 1970, with 8 400 located in or attached to factories in the latter year. The number of children's nurses more than doubled in the same period.<sup>404</sup>

462. In Hungary, the number of infant nurseries increased by nearly 30 per cent between 1960 and 1971, while permanent accommodation in them rose by over 40 per cent. In 1971, however, places could be found for only 9.3 per cent of all children of nursery-school age (the proportion in Budapest was 22.3 per cent, and in the rest of the country 7.1 per cent).<sup>405</sup> The position in the older age groups admitted to kindergartens was markedly better, with places being found for nearly 59 per cent in 1971.<sup>406</sup> The fees paid by parents are income-related and vary from 1 to 3 forint per day for low-income families to 25-30 forint per day for those in the highest income brackets.<sup>407</sup>

463. In Poland, the number of places in permanent crèches and infant houses increased from 57 100 to 73 000 between 1960 and 1971. In the latter year, 511 400 children were accommodated in nurseries (nearly three quarters of them in urban areas), and 147 000 had places in rural kindergartens.<sup>408</sup> This represented an increase by over

44 per cent since 1960. Over 35 per cent of children under school age attended nursery schools or kindergartens in 1967-1968.<sup>409</sup>

464. In Romania, pre-school education comprises crèches for children under three years of age and a network of kindergartens for those between three and six. Places in day or week crèches are paid for by parents according to an income-related scale, with a maximum of 70 lei per child per month. Education in the kindergartens is free and, in 1972, provided places for as many as 45.6 per cent of the children in the relevant age group (the 1938 proportion had been 6.4 per cent). It is planned to raise the proportion to 64.5 per cent by 1975 and to over 80 per cent by 1980. The ultimate aim is to provide pre-school education for 100 per cent of the children under school age.<sup>410</sup>

465. Yugoslav crèches catering for children under three years of age are entirely financed from social funds and make no charge to the parents. Kindergartens for children from four to six years old, however, do make an income-related charge for the food and other amenities supplied, although the cost of supervision and care is paid from collective funds. The proportion of children under seven years of age in both forms of pre-school education is still very low and was given as 6.8 per cent in 1971. In the countryside, this proportion is lower still, but in certain regions, notably the smaller towns in the Vojvodina, it may be as high as 80 per cent.<sup>411</sup>

466. All socialist countries of eastern Europe give special assistance and protection to young people about to enter the labour force and to young workers in the early stages of their career.

467. The Basic Labour Code of the USSR, for instance, prohibits the employment of children under 16 years of age. In exceptional cases, however, adolescents of 15 years and over may be employed with the consent of the factory, works or local (trade union) committee. The Code also prohibits the employment of adolescents under 18 years on work detrimental to health or of a dangerous nature and on underground work. In fact, workers under 18 years of age can be employed only after medical tests, which must be repeated annually until the eighteenth year is reached; they are exempted from overtime and night work. Their working hours are reduced to six hours per day and 36 hours per week (24 hours, if under 16), and their annual leave entitlement is one month.

468. Wage payments to workers under 18 years of age must equal those of adults in the same job, even though they work shorter hours. In the case of piece-work on shorter hours, the earnings payable must be supplemented to equal the total which would be obtained if a full day were worked.

469. Enterprises and other employing authorities in the USSR are given quotas for the employment at work or in training schemes of young people about to leave general, trade or technical schools, and for the employment of those under 18 who are not school-leavers. These are filled in accordance with annual and medium-term plans drawn up by the Governments of the republics in conformity with the teaching programmes of the schools.

<sup>409</sup> 1970 Report on the World Social Situation (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.IV.13), p. 99.

<sup>410</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Education, October 1972.

<sup>411</sup> Information from the Yugoslav Federal Institute for Educational Research, September 1972.

<sup>400</sup> Information from a USSR government agency, October 1972.

<sup>401</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>402</sup> Information from the Bulgarian Institute of Social Security and Public Health, September 1972.

<sup>403</sup> Bulgaria, *Statistical Pocket Book*, 1970, p. 129.

<sup>404</sup> Czechoslovakia, *Statistical Abstract*, 1971, p. 117.

<sup>405</sup> Hungarian Statistical Central Office, *Statistical Pocket Book of Hungary 1972* (Budapest, Statistical Publishing House, 1972), pp. 269 and 280.

<sup>406</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>407</sup> Information from the Hungarian Ministry of Health, September 1972.

<sup>408</sup> From the Polish reply to the questionnaires.



470. Young graduates from higher and secondary specialist schools are legally obliged to work not less than three years at the work-place (or work-places) assigned to them by their Commission for the Individual Placement of Young Specialists. The Commission, which is presided over by the school director, is obliged to consider objections from those it is proposing to direct to specific work but can overrule these objections if it sees fit.

471. Young people who are members of the League of Young Communists (Komsomol), and recruits to the "social levies" (*obshchestvenny prizyv*) can apply for work of national importance in outlying regions.<sup>412</sup> The law emphasizes the voluntary principle in these recruitments.

472. Young workers under 18 years of age are protected by law against dismissal from employment, except on account of general cuts in personnel or redundancies in the enterprise. Any employing authority wishing to dismiss such a worker must obtain the approval of the Local Commission for the Affairs of Minors at district or city level. Dismissal because of redundancy, lack of qualifications, inadequate health or other permissible reason must be linked with the offer of new employment in another enterprise or institution.

473. Similar provisions apply in the Union Republics of the USSR.<sup>413</sup>

<sup>412</sup> Information from a USSR government agency, October 1972.

<sup>413</sup> From the replies of the Byelorussian and Ukrainian SSR to the questionnaires.

474. In Bulgaria, the employment of persons between 15 and 16 years of age (as well as night work for them) is subject to special approval by labour inspectorates, and no person under 18 may be employed on arduous or unhealthy tasks. The employment of anyone under 18 requires preliminary clearance by the medical authorities after careful examination. Working hours for those under 16 are reduced to six hours per day.<sup>414</sup>

475. In Hungary, workers under 18 years of age are also restricted to a six-hour day, and their leave entitlement is raised to one month per year. In 1971, there were still some 24 000 persons of 14 years of age working in the national economy. Their working hours, however, are restricted by statute to four per day until they reach the age of 16. The employment of children under 14 years of age is prohibited by law, as is night work for anyone under 18.<sup>415</sup>

476. In Romania, workers under 18 years of age are restricted to a six-hour day and a 36-hour week, with annual paid leave of 24 days.<sup>416</sup>

477. Similar privileges are granted to young workers in other socialist countries of eastern Europe.

<sup>414</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>415</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, September 1972.

<sup>416</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Labour, October 1972.

## Chapter VI

### THE RIGHT TO EDUCATION

478. The statements regarding the right to education contained in the constitutions of the socialist countries of eastern Europe are unambiguous and of universal application.

479. Article 121 of the 1936 USSR Constitution, as amended in 1947, proclaims the right of all citizens to education, safeguarded by universal and compulsory elementary education, by free education up to and including the seventh grade (generally 14 years of age) and by a system of state stipends for students in higher educational establishments who excel in their studies. Article 122 guarantees the right of women to education on an equal footing with men. The constitutions of the Union Republics of the USSR give similar guarantees, while the specific methods of implementation are spelled out in derivative legislation.<sup>417</sup>

480. In the Byelorussian SSR, the basic laws in this field are those of 8 April 1959 "on the strengthening of the links between schools and national life and the further development of education in the Byelorussian SSR"; of 21 April 1970 "on the conversion of schools of general education to the systematic teaching of the fundamentals of science beginning with the fourth grade"; and of 28 June 1972 "on the completion of the transition to universal secondary education of young people in the Byelorussian SSR".<sup>418</sup>

481. Article 45 of the Bulgarian Constitution states that citizens are entitled to free education in establishments belonging to the State (the primary grades being compulsory), that the State must create the conditions for universal secondary education, a favourable environment for education in general and financial facilities for study in the form of stipends and scholarships. Citizens of non-Bulgarian extraction are entitled to study in their own languages, though the study of the Bulgarian language is compulsory. The Constitution further specifies that education must be based on the achievements of modern science and on the Marxist-Leninist ideology.<sup>419</sup>

482. Similar principles are in operation in the other socialist countries of eastern Europe.

#### A. The right to free primary education

483. Compulsory free education goes well beyond the primary stage in all the socialist countries of eastern

Europe today. Table III.22 below gives a conspectus of the legal situation in these countries and of the provision of general (i.e., non-vocational) education at first and second levels. This corresponds quite closely, though not precisely, to the phase covered by compulsory education. The parallel situation in three Western countries is illustrated for purposes of comparison.

484. It will be seen that the number of pupils in general education per 1 000 inhabitants does not greatly vary as between eastern and Western Europe, though it is substantially below the United States level in both areas. The last 10 years have seen a slightly increasing trend in this number in all the countries under review, except for Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia and Hungary. The pupil-teacher ratio is also of the same order of magnitude in eastern Europe and the Western countries mentioned (including the United States); it appears to have improved in the last 10 years in all the countries under review, except for the USSR, where it was at the most favourable end of the scale at the beginning of the period and remained approximately stable throughout the 1960s.

485. In the USSR, primary education, properly so-called, encompasses the age groups between 7 and 11 years. It may be given in primary schools restricted to these groups or in the first four forms (grades) of seven, eight or ten-year secondary schools. The number of pupils in primary schools proper was given as 3.6 million in the school-year 1955/56, and the number of those in the first four grades of other schools as 10 million,<sup>420</sup> suggesting a total of 13.6 million children who would elsewhere qualify for the appellation "primary school pupils". This, together with the children of the same age group in the special "schools for workers' and peasants' youth" and those in schools for handicapped children, must have accounted for the total population in the age group in 1955/56—a year in which this group was comparatively depleted.

486. Universal primary education appears to have been basically achieved as early as 1931–1932, when the number of pupils in the first four grades of primary, seven-year, and secondary schools had reached 17.7 million.<sup>421</sup>

487. By the early or middle 1950s, the Soviet Union had achieved universal seven-year education up to the age of 14, with a population of about 13 million in the last three grades of the seven-year schools. This corresponded to the 12–14 age group in the comparative "bulge years" (i.e., before the war-time fall-out in births was beginning to have its effect on this group).

488. At present, there is free and compulsory education in the USSR from the age of seven for a period of

<sup>417</sup> The Government of the USSR states in this connexion (E/CN.4/1132) that under the Constitution of the USSR all forms of education are free (see also art. 4, para. 5, of the Basic Principles of Legislation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the Union Republics concerning education of 19 July 1973 (*Izvestia*, 20 July 1973)), and that furthermore in the Soviet Union not only primary education but also general eight-year education is compulsory (art. 3 of the Basic Principles).

<sup>418</sup> From the reply of the Byelorussian SSR to the questionnaires.

<sup>419</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>420</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Kul'turnoe stroitel'stvo SSSR* [Cultural Development in the USSR] (Moscow, 1956), pp. 81 and 122.

<sup>421</sup> *Ibid.*

TABLE III.22

Data on compulsory and general education in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in certain Western countries (various years)

	Compulsory education		General education <sup>a</sup>			
	Earliest age of entry	Duration	Number of teachers (thousands)	Number of pupils		
				Total (thousands)	per 1 000 inhabitants	per teacher
Bulgaria						
1960-1961 .....	7	..	51.3	1 213	154	24
1970-1971 .....	7	8	54.5	1 157	136	21
Czechoslovakia						
1960-1961 .....	6	9	92.9	2 227	136	24
1970-1971 .....	6	9	104	2 077	145	20
German Democratic Republic						
1960-1961 .....	6	10	86	2 059	119	24
1970-1971 .....	6	10	138	2 667	156	19
Hungary						
1960-1961 .....	6	8	63.0	1 532	153	24
1970-1971 .....	6	8	70.3	1 284	124	18
Poland						
1960-1961 .....	7	7	193	5 272	178	27
1970-1971 .....	7	8-9	267	5 869	181	22
Romania						
1960-1961 .....	7	4 + 3 <sup>b</sup>	105	2 590	141	25
1970-1971 .....	6	10	154	3 329	164	22
USSR						
1960-1961 .....	7	7, 10 <sup>c</sup>	1 994	36 051	168	18
1970-1971 .....	7	8	2 477	49 010	202	20
Yugoslavia						
1959 .....	7	8	75	2 669	146	36
1968 .....	7	8	120	3 075	155	26
Federal Republic of Germany						
1959 .....	6	8-9 <sup>d</sup>	193	6 168	120	32
1967 .....	6	8-9 <sup>d</sup>	317	7 640	132	24
United Kingdom (England and Wales)						
1958 .....	5	10	300	7 498	166	25
1967 .....	5	10	404	8 111	168	20
United States of America						
1957 .....	6	8-12	1 401	36 860	214	26
1967 .....	6	8-12	2 116	50 187	252	24

Sources: UNESCO, *International statistics relating to education, culture and mass communication, 1961*, pp. 184 et seq.; UNESCO, *International Yearbook of Education, 1969*, vol. XXXI (Geneva, International Bureau of Education), pp. 182-187; UNESCO, *Statistical Yearbook 1970—Annuaire statistique 1970* (Paris, 1971), pp. 49 et seq. and pp. 80 et seq.; *The ECE Region in Figures* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.E/Mim.5 and Corr.), p. 80; *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV, 1971* [*Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries, 1971*], pp. 383 et seq.; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1971* (92nd edition) (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971), pp. 801 and 802.

<sup>a</sup> First level and non-vocational second level.

<sup>b</sup> Four years compulsory for all and a further period of three years compulsory in areas with seven-grade schools.

<sup>c</sup> Compulsory 10 years' duration in urban areas; universal compulsory eight-year education began to be introduced in 1959-1960.

<sup>d</sup> Full-time education only; children over the age of 14 or 15 years not attending full-time schools are required to attend part-time vocational schools until they are 18 years old.

eight years. In 1970 and 1971, the number of pupils in schools of general education was 45.4 million, of whom 20.5 million were in the first four grades<sup>422</sup>—the age group corresponding approximately to the primary levels in a number of Western countries (7-11 years). By 1971, total numbers in schools of general education had risen to 49.2 million.<sup>423</sup>

<sup>422</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Narodnoe khoziaistvo SSSR v 1970 godu* [*The National Economy of the USSR in 1970*] (Moscow, "Statistika", 1971), p. 629.

<sup>423</sup> *Vestnik Statistiki* [*Statistical Herald*], No. 6 (Moscow, 1972), p. 91.

489. The position in the Union Republics is in every way analogous to that of the USSR as a whole.<sup>424</sup>

490. In Bulgaria, 99.6 per cent of all children of compulsory school age (7-15 years) are under full-time instruction, and all education is free.

491. In Hungary, compulsory education starts in the first September after completion of the child's sixth year and finishes at age 14 years. Attendance at school is universal in the early grades; every effort is made to enrol the children of nomadic gypsies, but these often

<sup>424</sup> From the replies to the questionnaires.

leave after the first few grades. A large portion of the 10 per cent non-attendance in schools of general education is accounted for in this way. Education is free, but parents pay for their children's school equipment and books.<sup>425</sup>

492. In Poland, school attendance in the compulsory age group (7–14 years) is virtually universal. In the school year 1965/66, compulsory education was extended from seven to eight years. Tuition is completely free of charge.

493. In Romania, which has compulsory education between the ages of 6 and 16, the primary level of education is usually identified with the 6–10 year age group. Attendance at this level was reported to be universal, with 1.34 million children at school in 1971.<sup>426</sup>

494. In general, it may be said that all the socialist countries of eastern Europe have now achieved universal, compulsory and free education at the primary level. Shortfalls below 100 per cent attendance, where they do occur, are of negligible proportions and largely attributable to nomadic or incompletely settled minorities, whose children the Government is making every effort to enrol in the normal school programme.

495. In Yugoslavia, about 92 per cent of the relevant age group (7–15 years) attend the eight-year primary school, though the proportion drops to 70 per cent in the countryside. Tuition is free, but the cost of books, transport and maintenance is borne by the parents.<sup>427</sup>

## **B. The right to equal access to higher education on the basis of capacity**

### **1. SECONDARY EDUCATION**

496. Contrary to the definitions current in some Western countries, secondary education in the socialist countries of eastern Europe is usually identified with the education of children over 14 or 15 years of age, immediately following the primary, and now compulsory level. As such, it must rank as the initial stage of "higher" education, even though it will frequently have its physical location in schools of general education. The situation with regard to this phase of the educational system is illustrated in table III.23. Data on three Western countries are added, but care must be taken to allow for different ages of entry before the figures are compared.

497. Table III.23 below covers all secondary education, whether of a general or vocational nature, excluding only education in factory schools or craft schools and on-the-job training.

498. It will be seen that in all the socialist countries of eastern Europe, except the German Democratic Republic, the proportion of the population involved in secondary education has increased very greatly in the decade under review, though the pupil-teacher ratio appears to have slightly worsened everywhere, except in Poland.

499. In Bulgaria, 15 years is the age for normal entry into secondary education, the duration of which is three years (four years in technical schools). Admission is according to the grades achieved in primary education or by entrance examination in those cases where the demand for places exceeds the supply. Otherwise, children

are accepted into the type of school selected by their parents, with the advice of special commissions for professional orientation. Tuition is free.<sup>428</sup>

500. In Hungary, secondary education normally starts at the age of 14 and covers about 80–85 per cent of children in the relevant age groups. Admission to secondary education is entirely based on performance (grades) at the preceding level, and there is no entrance examination. Some 35–40 per cent of the age group attend four-year secondary or technical schools, which are gateways to the universities, while another 35–45 per cent go to apprenticeship schools for three-year courses. The remainder complete their education with the compulsory grades, though they may attend schools of further education (in urban areas) and are free to apply for special training at a later stage in life. Tuition in secondary education is entirely free, and there are maintenance allowances and grants for books and equipment for the socially deprived.<sup>429</sup>

501. In Poland, 15 years is the age for normal entry into secondary education, the duration of which is normally four years, though special courses of from two to five years' duration also exist. It was reported that 74.6 per cent of children of the relevant age groups were in second-level grades during the school year 1971/72.<sup>430</sup> Within the special age range 15–18 years, the proportion of children attending secondary or vocational schools rose from 41 per cent in 1950 to 65 per cent in 1960 and 87 per cent in 1970.<sup>431</sup> In admissions policy, special efforts are made to equalize the chances of children from workers' and peasants' families whose backgrounds tend to be less intellectual. In 1970, the proportion of workers' and peasants' children among the pupils of secondary and vocational schools was 65.8 per cent and efforts are being made to increase this still further.<sup>432</sup> Tuition is free of charge.

502. In Romania, secondary education is identified with the 10–16-year age group, though there is a special test at age 14 years which determines the profile of secondary education in the narrower sense. At that age, pupils are assigned to four-year general lyceums or five-year specialized lyceums (both providing preparation for admission to universities) on the basis of a competitive examination. Those not so assigned continue their compulsory general education for two years and may enter vocational schools or apprenticeship for a further two years thereafter. In 1972, there were 91 000 pupils, or slightly over 36 per cent of the relevant age group, in the two types of lyceum, while 94 000 were continuing their general education.<sup>433</sup> Tuition, including books, is free, and there are stipends for clothes, maintenance and transport, where necessary.

503. The Programme of the Communist Party of the USSR adopted by the twenty-second Congress in October 1961 planned the introduction of compulsory secondary general and polytechnical education for all children of the relevant age groups in the period 1961–1971. During that

<sup>425</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, September 1972.

<sup>426</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Education.

<sup>427</sup> Information from the Yugoslav Federal Institute for Educational Research, September 1972.

<sup>428</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.2, pp. 4 and 5.

<sup>429</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, September 1972.

<sup>430</sup> From the Polish reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>431</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>432</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.1, p. 54; and the Polish reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>433</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Education, September 1972.



TABLE III.23

Data on secondary education in the socialist countries of eastern Europe  
and in certain Western countries (various years)

	Secondary education <sup>a</sup>				
	Earliest age of entry	Duration	Number of pupils		Vocational secondary education. <sup>b</sup> number of pupils per 1 000 inhabitants
			Per 1 000 inhabitants	Per teacher	
<b>Bulgaria</b>					
1959 .....	14	4	32	15	11.8
1968 .....	15	3-4	45	16	17.7
<b>Czechoslovakia</b>					
1959 .....	15	3	16	14	17.4
1968 .....	15	4	26	18	19.8
<b>German Democratic Republic</b>					
1959 .....	14	4	55	..	10.0
1968 .....	15	..	45	..	11.0
<b>Hungary</b>					
1959 .....	12	4	15	18	10.2
1968 .....	14	..	22	18	17.4
<b>Poland</b>					
1959 .....	14	4	21	16	12.7
1968 .....	15	4-5	37	8	24.7
<b>Romania</b>					
1959 .....	14	4	19	18	2.8
1968 .....	14	4-5	32	19	7.6
<b>USSR</b>					
1959 .....	14	3	22	..	9.5
1968 .....	12	4 + 2-3	37	..	18.0
<b>Yugoslavia</b>					
1959 .....	11	4 + 4	17	20	..
1968 .....	15	4	34	26	..
<b>Federal Republic of Germany</b>					
1959 .....	10	9	62	36	..
1968 .....	10	9	73	18	..
<b>United Kingdom (England and Wales)</b>					
1958 .....	11-12	7	67	21	..
1968 .....	11-12	7	69	..	..
<b>United States of America</b>					
1957 .....	12-14	4	52	17	..
1968 .....	12-14	4	95	20	..

Sources: UNESCO, *International statistics relating to education, culture and mass communication, 1961*, pp. 184 et seq.; UNESCO, *International Yearbook of Education, 1969*, vol. XXXI (Geneva, International Bureau of Education), pp. 182 et seq.; UNESCO, *Statistical Yearbook 1970—Annuaire statistique 1970* (Paris, 1971), pp. 49 et seq. and pp. 80 et seq.; *The ECE Region in Figures* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.E/Mim.5 and Corr.), p. 80; *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran chlenov SEV, 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries, 1971], pp. 393 et seq.; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1971* (92nd edition) (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971), pp. 801 and 802.

<sup>a</sup> General second-level and vocational education (excluding teacher training).

<sup>b</sup> Includes evening and correspondence courses, but excludes factory and craft schools; years 1960/61 and 1970/71.

time, the number of pupils in grades 8 to 10 (11) in schools of general education (aged 15-18 years) increased from 5.1 million to nearly 13 million in the school year 1970/71.<sup>434</sup>

504. The number of teachers and directors in Soviet primary and secondary schools increased from 1.9 million in 1961 to over 2.4 million in 1969/70. Of these, about one fifth had five years' teaching experience or less in both years. But whereas only slightly over one third

possessed higher educational qualifications in 1961, this proportion had increased to nearly one half by 1969/70. In both 1961 and 1969/70, about half of all teaching personnel were women.

505. Secondary education is free throughout the USSR.

506. In Yugoslavia, secondary education starts at age 15 or 16 years and normally lasts until the age of 18. Admission is at the discretion of the secondary school, partly on the basis of a competitive examination and partly on the basis of reports received from the candidates' primary schools. Secondary educational establishments comprise the gymnasia (preparatory institutions for the

<sup>434</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *SSSR v tsifrakh v 1971 godu* [The USSR in Figures, 1971] (Moscow, "Statistika", 1972), p. 185.

universities), schools for skilled workers (two to three years) and the four-year technical schools for foremen, technicians, medical assistants etc. It is estimated that 36–40 per cent of the relevant age groups are in secondary education. About 25 per cent of these are in gymnasia, 45 per cent in the schools for skilled workers and the remainder in the technical schools. Tuition is free, but books, transport etc. are paid for by the parents (unless communal transport is provided).<sup>435</sup>

## 2. POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION

507. The clearest indication of the extent and accessibility of higher education is the number of students in the corresponding establishments per ten thousand inhabitants. Table III.24 gives this information for a number of countries, for purposes of comparison.

TABLE III.24

Number of students in higher educational establishments per 10 000 inhabitants in the socialist countries of eastern Europe and in certain Western countries

	1960/61	1970/71
Bulgaria .....	70	108
Czechoslovakia .....	69	91
German Democratic Republic .....	59	81
Hungary .....	45	78
Poland .....	55	102
Romania .....	39	75
Yugoslavia <sup>a</sup> .....	76.7	105.7
USSR .....	111	188
Byelorussian SSR .....	72	154
Ukrainian SSR .....	97	170
Germany, Federal Republic of <sup>a</sup> .....	52.5	69.5
United Kingdom <sup>b</sup> .....	49.1	74.7
United States of America <sup>a</sup> .....	198.3	347.1

Sources: *Statisticheskii ezhegodnik stran-chlenov SEV 1971* [Statistical Yearbook of the CMEA Countries, 1971], p. 398; *The ECE Region in Figures* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.E/Mim.5 and Corr.), p. 80; Central Statistical Office of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Narodnoe khozjaistvo SSSR v 1970 godu* [The National Economy of the USSR in 1970] (Moscow, "Statistika", 1971), p. 643.

<sup>a</sup> 1960 and 1968.

<sup>b</sup> 1961 and 1967.

508. It is clear that if the information given in table III.24 is taken at face value, the socialist countries are now in advance of the two Western European countries cited, and most of them by an ample margin. The United States of America, on the other hand, appears to be very far in advance of both. Differences in classification and levels of instruction may invalidate the conclusions to be drawn from the figures.

509. In Bulgaria, the normal age of entry into higher education is 18 years, and admission depends on the result of an entrance examination. Higher education is financed by the State and entirely free to the student, who may qualify for additional support in the shape of scholarships, hostel accommodation etc., provided his marks reach a certain minimum standard.<sup>436</sup> In 1969/70, there were 85 700 students in Bulgarian institutions of higher education (excluding teacher-training and other specialized training institutes). Some 45 per cent of them

were studying engineering or technology, 6.2 per cent agronomy and over 16 per cent economics.<sup>437</sup>

510. Higher education in Czechoslovakia is provided by the universities, colleges of technology, schools of economics, schools of agriculture, and colleges of art. In 1970/71, there were 37 of these in all, divided into 104 faculties, with courses varying from four to six years in duration. Tuition and examinations are free, and students are eligible for "social scholarships" (150–450 Kcs.) geared to family income and to "performance scholarships" of 150–350 Kcs. for grades awarded above a certain minimum. The proportion of students in receipt of scholarships of one kind or another was 53 per cent in 1969/70. Among the 102 000 full-time students in the academic year 1970/71, about one half studied technological or industrial subjects, engineering or agronomy, 20 per cent studied education, 13 per cent medicine, and 6.5 per cent economics and administration. In the same year, 24.1 per cent of the student body were children of workers' families, 5 per cent came from peasant families, and 70.9 per cent from other households.<sup>438</sup>

511. The 54 universities and higher education institutes of the German Democratic Republic accommodated 152 300 students (89.3 per 10 000 inhabitants) in 1971. Of these, 111 000 were full-time students, all but 10 per cent of whom were in receipt of scholarships. Over one third of all students were studying engineering or technology, and about 22 per cent education.<sup>439</sup>

512. In Hungary, higher education normally starts at 18 years of age and is divided into university education (four years or more) and specialized higher education (three years or less) in teacher training institutions, industrial institutes, technical high schools etc. There are also one-faculty higher educational establishments at university level. Admission is by special criteria, combining performance in a competitive entrance examination with the grades achieved at secondary school.<sup>440</sup> Nearly two thirds of secondary school-leavers apply for admission to higher education, but only half of these are normally successful. The remainder have the opportunity of taking evening or correspondence courses during work. Students whose performance exceeds certain minimum standards receive income-related scholarships; others may be called upon to pay up to 1 000 forint per semester. In 1971/72, 83.3 per cent of all students received scholarships and other financial aid, and nearly one half lived in students' hostels. Students can also conclude agreements with enterprises for financial support on credit. About 45 per cent of full-time students in 1971 studied engineering, technology or agronomy, and close on 17 per cent were in teacher training colleges of various kinds. Some 46 per cent of students are women in the total student population, but the proportion rises to 50 per cent in economics and up to 67 per cent in arts subjects; in engineering and technology, it is about one third.<sup>441</sup>

<sup>437</sup> Bulgaria, *Statistical Pocket Book*, 1970, p. 123.

<sup>438</sup> *Vyschie uchebnye zavedeniia Ch.S.S.R.* (Prague, 1972).

<sup>439</sup> German Democratic Republic, Staatliche Zentralverwaltung für Statistik, *Statistisches Jahrbuch 1972 der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik* (Berlin, Staatsverlag, 1972), pp. 392–397.

<sup>440</sup> Decree No. 3, 1963/V.19/M.M. specifically forbids the taking into account of the social origin of applicants when they are considered for admission to higher educational establishments.

<sup>441</sup> Information from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, September 1972, and Hungarian Central Statistical Office, *Statistical Pocket Book of Hungary*, 1972 (Budapest, Statistical Publishing House, 1972), pp. 288 and 289.

<sup>435</sup> Information from the Yugoslav Federal Institute for Educational Research, September 1972.

<sup>436</sup> From the Bulgarian reply to the questionnaires, and E/CN.4/1011/Add.2, pp. 4 and 5.

513. The 85 institutions of higher education in Poland accommodated over 329 000 students in 1970/1971, of whom 210 000 were full-time intramural students, the rest studying by correspondence, in evening classes, or as extension students (42.3 per cent of the total were women). Admission is by a points system based partly on performance in an entrance examination, but partly also on privileges accorded to children of workers' and peasants' families, with a view to the equalizing of opportunities. In 1970, 29.9 per cent of students in higher education were from workers' families, and 15.5 per cent came from peasant stock, while the remaining 50.3 per cent were classed as intelligentsia by social origin. Nearly 30 per cent of students, or 44 per cent of intramural students, were in receipt of scholarships in 1970/71 (over 40 per cent of them at full rates), and a similar proportion lived in students' hostels. In the academic year 1969/70, about 47 per cent studied technological subjects or agronomy, and 14 per cent economics.<sup>442</sup>

514. In Romania, higher education courses (from three to six years) at universities and institutes of technology start at the age of 18 years; they were attended by 183,000 students in 1970/71. Apart from this, there are one or two-year post-secondary specialized schools offering vocational training to secondary school-leavers, which accommodated 39,000 students in the same year. University admission is by examination, and tuition is free. Some 60 per cent of students are in receipt of scholarships.<sup>443</sup>

515. The USSR had, in 1972, 811 universities and institutes of higher learning (teacher training colleges, institutes of technology or agronomy, schools of medicine, economics or law and conservatories). The total number of students rose from 1.25 million in 1950/51 to 2.4 million in 1960/61, and 4.58 million in 1970/71,<sup>444</sup> a nearly fourfold expansion in 20 years. The last-mentioned figure would appear to imply that over 18 per cent of the "college-age group" (18–24 years) were engaged in higher studies in one way or another in 1970, but the figure may be distorted by the inclusion of older age groups studying in their free time or in periods of leave from their normal occupations. Slightly under 37 per cent of all students in 1970/71 were enrolled in correspondence courses, and about 14 per cent in evening classes (for which there is no age limit), while the remaining 49 per cent were in full "day-time" departments for which the age limit is 35.<sup>445</sup> These proportions had not substantially altered in the last 10 years. Of total graduations in 1970, slightly under one half (47.8 per cent) were in technology, engineering, forestry or agricultural sciences, 24.1 per cent in education and culture and 13.4 per cent in economics and law.<sup>446</sup>

516. Women accounted for 49 per cent of all students in 1970/71, with a heavy concentration in non-technological subjects, particularly education, fine arts and cinematography (65 per cent women in 1968/69), law and

economics (59 per cent), and physical culture and health (59 per cent).<sup>447</sup> There is little doubt that in the proportion of women in higher education the USSR is one of the leaders in the world. The corresponding proportion in the United States of America and in France was about 37 per cent in the late 1950s, at a time when it already exceeded 40 per cent in the USSR (43 per cent in 1960/61).<sup>448</sup>

517. Admission to higher education is by competitive entrance examination, but care is taken to admit an equal percentage of applicants from among those who come straight from secondary schools and those who have had two or more years' service in the national economy.<sup>449</sup>

518. Tuition in higher education is free in the USSR, and all students who successfully pursue "day-time" studies are entitled to stipends of 40 or 45 rouble per month, depending on the course attended.<sup>450</sup> In 1972, between 73 and 75 per cent of all students were in receipt of such stipends, and it is known that rectors of higher educational establishments have funds at their disposal which can be used to subsidize students without stipends.

519. Apart from higher educational establishments, properly so-called, the USSR has a network of "medium specialist" educational institutions, comprising technical high schools, schools of nursing, midwifery and other medical professions, agricultural institutes<sup>451</sup> etc. The number of students in these establishments rose from 2.1 million in 1960/61 to 4.38 million in 1970/71. The percentage of those enrolled in the "day-departments" (presumably for full-time study) rose from 50 per cent in 1960/61 to about 58 per cent in 1970/71. In the latter year, about 27 per cent were studying by correspondence, and the rest were enrolled in evening classes.<sup>452</sup>

520. There is no evidence of discrimination by any criterion of nationality as defined in the population census, though this may not accurately reflect the position of special socio-economic groups.<sup>453</sup> In 1959, the grouping described as "Russian" accounted for 54.6 per cent of the total population, while among the student population in higher and medium-specialist education it accounted for 61 and 64 per cent, respectively (1962/63). The discrepancy is too small, and information insufficient, to allow any conclusion to be drawn from this.

521. Other official statistics also suggest that nationality had comparatively little effect on educational status. The population census of 1959 states that 28.1 per cent of the total population over 19 years of age of that year had passed through higher or secondary education beyond the age of 14 years. The corresponding proportion for those

<sup>447</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Zhenshchiny i deti v SSSR* [Women and Children in the USSR] (Moscow, "Statistika", 1969), p. 56.

<sup>448</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Vysshie obrazovanie v SSSR* [Higher Education in the USSR] (Moscow, 1961), p. 253.

<sup>449</sup> Information from a USSR government agency, October 1972.

<sup>450</sup> From the USSR reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>451</sup> The Government of the USSR states (E/CN.4/1132) that the agricultural institutes are in fact higher educational institutions.

<sup>452</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Narodnoe khoziaistvo SSSR v 1970 godu* [The National Economy of the USSR in 1970] (Moscow, "Statistika", 1971), p. 640, and *SSSR v tsifrakh v 1970 godu* [The USSR in Figures, 1970] (Moscow, "Statistika", 1971), p. 186.

<sup>453</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Itogi vsesoiuznoi perepisi naseleniia 1959 goda SSSR, svodnyi tom* [Population Census throughout the USSR in 1959, summary volume], vol. I (Moscow, 1962), p. 184.

<sup>442</sup> Concise Statistical Yearbook of Poland, 1971, pp. 279–283, and information from the Polish reply to the questionnaires.

<sup>443</sup> Information from the Romanian Ministry of Education, October 1972.

<sup>444</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Narodnoe khoziaistvo SSSR v 1970 godu* [The National Economy of the USSR in 1970] (Moscow, "Statistika", 1971), p. 640.

<sup>445</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *SSSR v tsifrakh v 1970 godu* [The USSR in Figures, 1970] (Moscow, "Statistika", 1971), p. 188.

<sup>446</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 189.



described as "Russian" was 29.5 per cent. The highest proportion (37.5 per cent) was reported for the Latvians, and the lowest (15.5 per cent) for the Moldavians. Other nationalities evidently still suffering from a lack of educational advantages were the Khirgiz and Tadzhiks (26 per cent) and, somewhat surprisingly, the Lithuanians (17 per cent).<sup>454</sup>

522. There was, however, a substantial difference between the urban and the rural population in this respect, the average proportions which had passed through higher or secondary education being reported as 37.6 and 19.4 per cent, respectively.<sup>455</sup>

523. In the Byelorussian SSR, the minimum age of entry into university and other institutes of higher learning is 17 years, and courses last five or six years. In 1970/71 the number of students enrolled was 192 800, while a further 235 000 were studying in medium-specialist and professional-technical institutions. In the Ukrainian SSR, the corresponding figures were 807 000 and 798 000 respectively.<sup>456</sup> The provisions governing entry to higher education and students' stipends are similar in all Union Republics of the USSR.

524. In Yugoslavia, higher education is pursued in eight universities, embracing 105 faculties with courses ranging in duration from four to six years, and 229 other establishments (two-year and four-year high schools and various academies). The number of students enrolled in 1970/71 was 256 500 with annual graduations of 35 000 on average.<sup>457</sup> Admissions policy is the responsibility of the educational establishments themselves, on the basis of entrance examinations. Full-time students are not charged for tuition and, if at least one of their parents is in employment, receive an allowance of 40 dinar per month up to the age of 23 or 25. Particularly able students receive stipends in addition to this. These vary in size from one republic to another, and were awarded to about 16 per cent of all students in the middle 1960s (the percentage decreased rapidly to well under 10 per cent towards the end of the decade).<sup>458</sup> A system of student loans out of republican funds is developing rapidly and benefited some 20 per cent of all students in 1967/68. The obligation to repay these lapses in certain cases if the student per-

forms well in his course. Stipends may also be awarded by the student's former school, his employing organization, the armed forces etc. In some cases, these are linked to an obligation on the part of the student to work on specified tasks for a number of years immediately following graduation.<sup>459</sup>

525. In 1968/69, about one third of the students in faculties, higher schools, and academies were studying engineering or technological subjects (including forestry, agronomy and veterinary science), while 11 per cent pursued medical or pharmaceutical studies. The proportion in the humanities and social sciences was 48 per cent.<sup>460</sup>

526. All the socialist countries of eastern Europe make liberal provision for adult education and part-time study while at work. In the USSR, for instance, persons studying without interrupting their employment are granted—in addition to their normal leave entitlements—20 to 30 days a year for evening courses in higher education (10 to 20 days for evening classes in specialized secondary educational establishments) and 30 to 40 days for correspondence courses.<sup>461</sup>

### C. The right of parents to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children

527. All the socialist countries of eastern Europe recognize this right and link it to the provision of career counselling services and vocational guidance.<sup>462</sup> Teaching is available in the languages of national minorities, e.g., Hungarian, German, Serbian, and Slovak in Romania, 9 non-national languages in Yugoslavia (including that used in the Albanian University in Priština), and 66 languages in the USSR. Parents have the right to place their children in a school teaching in their native language or in one teaching in the national language, according to their wishes, but there appears to be no provision for confessiona! schools or schools run by religious or voluntary associations or private individuals in the CMEA countries of eastern Europe.

528. The state school system in all the countries under review offers an educational ladder, adapted to the requirements of later life, to which, within the prevailing social system, there could be few alternatives.

<sup>454</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 234.

<sup>455</sup> Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Vysshie obrazovanie v SSSR [Higher Education in the USSR]* (Moscow, 1961), pp. 31 *et seq.*

<sup>456</sup> From the replies of the Byelorussian and Ukrainian SSR to the questionnaires.

<sup>457</sup> *Facts about Yugoslavia* (Belgrade, 1972), p. 90.

<sup>458</sup> M. Filipović, *Higher Education in Yugoslavia* (Belgrade, 1971), p. 74.

<sup>459</sup> Information from the Yugoslav Federal Institute for Educational Research, September 1972.

<sup>460</sup> M. Filipović, *Higher Education in Yugoslavia* (Belgrade, 1971), p. 270.

<sup>461</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.3, p. 42.

<sup>462</sup> For example, Bulgaria (E/CN.4/1011/Add.2, p. 4) and Poland (E/CN.4/1011/Add.1, p. 54).



## **Part Four**

### **THE DEVELOPED MARKET-ECONOMY COUNTRIES**



## Chapter I

### GENERAL

1. In this part of the present study, a review has been made of the realization of economic and social rights in western Europe, Australia, Canada, Malta, New Zealand, Japan, Israel, the United States of America and South Africa—in short, the countries with developed market economies.<sup>1</sup> Owing to limitations of time, it was not possible to make this review complete or comprehensive.

2. The progress achieved by these countries in general in the realization of these rights may be regarded as substantial in relation to that achieved in less developed areas of the world. However, when measured against the standards set by the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the Declaration on Social Progress and Development, and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and when viewed in the light of the vast material abundance that many of these countries command, it may not be considered so satisfactory.

3. During the 1960s, the developed market economies experienced continuous and rapid growth. This was coupled with a rather low increase in population, caused by low birth rates (see tables IV.1–IV.3). As shown in table IV.2, during the period 1965–1970 the developed market economies and the eastern European countries had the lowest rate of natural increase of population in the world. Again, as shown in table IV.3, the same countries, together with Australia and New Zealand, had the highest expectation of life at birth. The number of third-level students per 100 000 inhabitants given for the United States of America in table IV.5 is one of the highest in the world. Table IV.4 records the United States *per capita* income for 1969 as being the highest in the world.

4. The *1970 Report on the World Social Situation*<sup>2</sup> states in the first paragraph of chapter VI on social development in western Europe:

The continuation of rapid economic development in western Europe during the 1960s led to considerable increases in national and personal incomes virtually everywhere in the region. In so far as the economically active population was concerned, this trend generally resulted in a noticeable rise in material levels of living, although there were differences in the extent to which various social and occupational groups shared in the rise.

It is observed in the first paragraph of chapter VII of the

<sup>1</sup> For many purposes, it is convenient to distinguish the less from the more developed countries within the developed market economies. The countries surveyed have therefore been classified as follows, largely according to *per capita* income (see table IV.4): “Leading”: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Israel, Japan, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, the United States of America; “Transitional”: Italy; “Peripheral”: Greece, Ireland, Malta, Portugal, Spain; Unclassified: South Africa.

<sup>2</sup> United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.IV.13.

same report, on social development in North America, Australia and New Zealand, that:

Over-all economic progress was especially striking in the United States, where in 1968 the economy grew by \$70 000 million while unemployment dropped to 3.3 per cent, the lowest level in fifteen years. Disposable personal income *per capita* reached a record level of \$2 922; and output per man hour rose 3.3 per cent, twice the 1967 rate. Levels of living recorded incremental improvements in terms of more satisfaction of physical and cultural needs, including leisure-time activities. While private consumption as a percentage of gross national product decreased slightly between 1963 and 1967, there was . . . a noticeable increase in personal savings.

5. Chapters VI and VII of the report also make it clear that the rapid economic growth, the high levels of living and the high levels of educational standards achieved, both quantitatively and qualitatively, by the countries in question have in recent years brought into sharper focus the problems of wide disparities in income and of poverty in the midst of affluence. This is what has come to be known as the problem of poverty in the developed market economies, in reference to the condition of those individuals or groups still outside the mainstream of national prosperity, despite all the material progress achieved by these countries. This problem remains valid, in spite of the fact that the levels of living enjoyed by some of the poor in these countries are considered adequate, and even affluent, compared with those of some other countries.

6. A recent report of the United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare on the social situation in the United States of America shows that “although personal income in the United States is the highest in the world and the number of persons below the poverty line has declined steadily in recent years, the distribution of income has remained practically unchanged over the last twenty years”.<sup>3</sup>

7. In the *1970 Report on the World Social Situation*, it is pointed out that:

The recognition of poverty as a national problem within the past decade has led to the expansion of existing training and assistance programmes and to the development of more refined policy instruments to deal with the unemployed and minority groups, many of whose members have not benefited from the prosperity of the 1960s. In the United States, the maturing social security system has substantially reduced the number of the poor. At the same time, the persistence of poverty amidst prosperity has contributed to widely shared criticism of welfare policies and has led to proposals to overhaul the entire welfare system; doubts have also been expressed in Canada, where welfare policies have come under critical review at several levels of government.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 125. For original source, see United States Government, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, *Toward a Social Report* (Washington, D.C., United States Government Printing Office, 1969), p. 42.

<sup>4</sup> *1970 Report on the World Social Situation . . .*, p. 127.

TABLE IV.1

## Developed market-economy countries: population and vital statistics

Continent and country	Population (latest population census)			Vital statistics					
	Date	Population	Year	Births registered		Deaths registered		Infant deaths registered	
				Number	Rate	Number	Rate	Number	Rate
<b>Europe</b>									
Austria <sup>a</sup> .....	12 5 71	7 456 400	1971	107 798	14.5	96 791	13.0	2 792	25.9
Belgium <sup>a</sup> .....	31 10 70	9 650 944	1971	140 663	14.5	118 547	12.2	2 908 <sup>b</sup>	20.5 <sup>b</sup>
Denmark <sup>a</sup> .....	27 9 65	4 767 597	1971	75 550	15.2	49 010	9.9	1 005 <sup>b</sup>	14.2 <sup>b</sup>
Finland <sup>a</sup> .....	31 12 70	4 622 299	1971	61 164	13.1	45 777	9.8	723	11.8
France <sup>c</sup> .....	1 3 68	49 778 540 <sup>d</sup>	1971	881 400	17.2	553 500	10.8	12 540	14.4
Germany, Federal Republic of <sup>a</sup> ..	26 5 70	59 378 500	1971	758 034	12.8	690 696	11.7	17 568	23.2
Greece .....	14 3 71	8 768 648 <sup>e</sup>	1971	141 220	16.0	73 795	8.3	3 818	27.0
Holy See .....	30 4 48	890	1947	3		11	11.4	..	..
Iceland <sup>a</sup> .....	1 12 70	204 930	1971	4 023 <sup>b</sup>	19.7 <sup>b</sup>	1 501	7.3	53 <sup>b</sup>	13.2 <sup>b</sup>
Ireland .....	18 4 71	2 971 230	1971	67 752	22.8	31 375	10.6	1 233 <sup>b</sup>	19.2 <sup>b</sup>
Italy .....	24 10 71	54 025 211	1971	907 380	16.8	519 612	9.6	24 668	28.3
Liechtenstein .....	1 12 70	21 350	1969	420	19.5	168	7.8	7	
Luxembourg <sup>a</sup> .....	31 12 70	339 848	1971	4 512	13.2	4 416	12.9	92	20.4
Malta <sup>f</sup> .....	26 11 67	315 765	1970 <sup>g</sup>	5 314	16.3 <sup>h</sup>	3 070	9.4 <sup>h</sup>	148	27.9
Monaco <sup>a</sup> .....	1 3 68	23 035	1970	214	9.2	264	11.4	5	
Netherlands <sup>a</sup> .....	31 5 60	11 461 964	1971 <sup>i</sup>	247 997	18.8	110 208	8.4	2 747	11.1
Norway .....	1 11 70	3 888 305	1971	66 182	16.9	38 848 <sup>j</sup>	9.9 <sup>j</sup>	933 <sup>k</sup>	13.8 <sup>k</sup>
Portugal <sup>l</sup> .....	15 12 70	8 668 267	1971	189 057	19.3 <sup>b</sup>	95 005	10.4 <sup>b</sup>	9 001	47.6
San Marino .....	28 9 47	12 100	1970	288	15.0	133	6.9	4	
Spain <sup>m</sup> .....	31 12 70	33 956 376	1970	663 687	19.6	287 694	8.5	18 501	27.9
Sweden <sup>a</sup> .....	1 11 70	8 076 903	1971	114 488	14.1	82 700	10.2	1 264 <sup>k</sup>	11.7 <sup>k</sup>
Switzerland <sup>a</sup> .....	1 12 70	6 269 783	1971	96 097	15.1	57 751	9.1	1 495 <sup>b</sup>	15.1 <sup>b</sup>
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland .....	25 4 71	55 348 957	1971	901 503	16.2	645 108	11.6	16 272	18.0
<b>Oceania</b>									
Australia <sup>a</sup> .....	30 6 71	12 728 461	1971	276 362	21.7	110 886	8.7	4 817	17.4
New Zealand <sup>o</sup> .....	23 3 71	2 862 631	1970	62 207	22.1	24 840	8.8	1 040	16.7
<b>America, North</b>									
Canada <sup>a</sup> .....	1 6 71	21 569 000	1971 <sup>p</sup>	370 651	17.2	155 961 <sup>b</sup>	7.3 <sup>b</sup>	7 001 <sup>b</sup>	18.8 <sup>b</sup>
United States of America <sup>q</sup> .....	1 4 70	203 235 298 <sup>r</sup>	1971	3 558 871	17.3	1 921 397	9.3	68 221	19.2
<b>Asia</b>									
Japan <sup>s</sup> .....	1 10 70	103 720 060	1971 <sup>t</sup>	2 000 981	19.2	684 532	6.6	24 800	12.4

Source: United Nations, *Population and Vital Statistics Report: Data available as of 1 October 1972* (Statistical Papers, Series A, vol. XXIV, No. 4 (ST/STAT/SER.A/102)).

<sup>a</sup> Population is *de jure*.

<sup>b</sup> For 1970.

<sup>c</sup> Population is *de jure* but excluding diplomatic personnel outside the country and including foreign diplomatic personnel not living in embassies or consulates.

<sup>d</sup> Excludes military personnel stationed outside country who do not have a personal residence in France, numbering about 16 000.

<sup>e</sup> Including armed forces stationed outside the country, but excluding armed forces stationed in the area.

<sup>f</sup> Population excludes non-Maltese armed forces stationed in the area, includes civilian nationals temporarily outside the country.

<sup>g</sup> Deaths exclude non-Maltese armed forces stationed in the area but include Maltese armed forces outside the country.

<sup>h</sup> Computed on population excluding non-Maltese armed forces stationed in the area but including civilian nationals temporarily outside the country.

<sup>i</sup> Including residents outside the country if listed in a Netherlands population register.

<sup>j</sup> Including deaths of residents temporarily abroad.

<sup>k</sup> For 1969.

<sup>l</sup> Including the Azores and Madeira Islands.

<sup>m</sup> Including the Balearic and Canary Islands; also including Alhucemas, Ceuta, Chafarinas, Melilla and Peñón de Vélez de la Gomera.

<sup>n</sup> Population excludes armed forces stationed outside the country, numbering 48 106 in May 1959.

<sup>o</sup> Population excludes diplomatic personnel and armed forces stationed outside the country, the latter numbering 1 936 at 1966 census; also excluding alien armed forces within the country.

<sup>p</sup> Including Canadian residents temporarily in the United States of America but excluding United States residents temporarily in Canada.

<sup>q</sup> Population is *de jure* but excluding civilian citizens absent from the country for an extended period of time.

<sup>r</sup> Excludes armed forces overseas.

<sup>s</sup> Excluding diplomatic personnel outside the country and foreign military and civilian personnel and their dependants stationed in the area.

<sup>t</sup> Data are for Japanese nationals in Japan only.

8. The promotion of economic growth under conditions of relative price stability, the establishment of new machinery and the rectification of existing machinery on the wage-price relationship have been among the cardinal economic and social policies of most of the developed market-economy countries. For instance, Norway reported that in 1968, in connexion with the income negotiations then taking place, a committee responsible for technical calculations had been appointed, as a successor to a previously established research committee. In the new committee, known as the income negotiation

committee, the Ministry of Finance and the Ministry of Prices and Pay were represented, together with the Norwegian Federation of Farmers, the Norwegian Federation of Fishermen, the General Confederation of Trade Unions in Norway and the Norwegian Employers' Confederation. This committee has become a permanent part of the established co-operation between the authorities and the main organizations of employers and employees concerning the income negotiations. According to its terms of reference, the committee is to present the best possible factual numerical background material,



TABLE IV.2

Estimated rates and average annual amounts of natural increase,  
1960-1965 and 1965-1970, in major areas and regions of the world

Areas and regions	Rates, per 1 000		Average annual amounts (millions)	
	1960-1965	1965-1970	1960-1965	1965-1970
<i>World total</i> . . . . .	19.4	19.8	61.1	68.2
More developed regions . . . . .	11.5	9.5	11.5	10.0
Less developed regions . . . . .	23.2	24.5	49.6	58.2
<i>East Asia</i> . . . . .	17.5	17.5	14.4	15.5
Mainland region . . . . .	17.8	17.8	12.1	12.9
Japan . . . . .	9.9	11.0	0.9	1.1
Other East Asia . . . . .	28.3	25.0	1.4	1.5
<i>South Asia</i> . . . . .	24.8	27.5	23.1	28.6
Middle South Asia . . . . .	24.5	27.2	15.6	19.1
South-East Asia . . . . .	25.3	28.1	5.9	7.5
South-West Asia . . . . .	26.4	28.2	1.6	2.0
<i>Europe</i> . . . . .	8.4	7.8	3.7	3.4
Western Europe . . . . .	7.2	6.3	1.0	0.9
Southern Europe . . . . .	11.3	10.1	1.4	1.2
Eastern Europe . . . . .	8.1	7.8	0.8	0.8
Northern Europe . . . . .	6.7	6.6	0.5	0.5
<i>Soviet Union</i> . . . . .	15.2	10.2	3.4	2.4
<i>Africa</i> . . . . .	24.1	25.5	7.0	8.3
Western Africa . . . . .	23.8	24.5	2.2	2.6
Eastern Africa . . . . .	22.8	24.8	1.8	2.1
Middle Africa . . . . .	18.9	21.0	0.6	0.7
Northern Africa . . . . .	28.4	30.0	2.0	2.4
Southern Africa . . . . .	22.4	23.3	0.4	0.5
<i>Northern America</i> . . . . .	13.4	9.8	2.7	2.2
<i>Latin America</i> . . . . .	28.2	28.4	6.6	7.6
Tropical South America . . . . .	29.6	29.8	3.8	4.3
Middle American Mainland . . . . .	33.4	33.6	1.7	2.0
Temperate South America . . . . .	17.5	17.2	0.6	0.7
Caribbean . . . . .	24.7	24.1	0.5	0.6
<i>Oceania</i> . . . . .	16.9	14.5	0.2	0.2
Australia and New Zealand . . . . .	13.9	11.5	0.2	0.2
Melanesia . . . . .	24.2	24.1	0.0	0.0
Polynesia and Micronesia . . . . .	31.1	30.9	0.0	0.0

Source: *The World Population Situation in 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.XIII.4), p. 41.

so that disagreement between the parties on facts may, as far as possible, be avoided. Further, it is to analyse the effects on prices, income and income distribution resulting from alternatives in the income negotiations.<sup>5</sup>

9. Since minimum "felt needs" of individuals or households vary according to the wealth of the society to which individuals or households belong, poverty has become a relative concept in countries experiencing rapid economic growth, and the acceptable minimum will increase with the growth of national income. The new concept of poverty has been summed up as follows:

People are "poor" because they are deprived of the opportunities, comforts and self-respect regarded as normal in the community to which they belong. It is, therefore, the continually moving average standards of that community that are the starting points for an assessment of its poverty, and the poor are those who fall sufficiently far below these average standards. Their deprivation can be measured

and their numbers counted by comparisons with average personal income . . . or with a standard of living currently sanctioned by government . . . or with average life chances. . . .<sup>6</sup>

10. For practical purposes, therefore, it is considered that an objective measurement of poverty could be made by comparing a person's or family's income with the average personal or family income of the community concerned:

In the United Kingdom, for example, the numbers of the "poor" are periodically ascertained or estimated along these lines in connexion with the British system of poverty relief, which, under specified conditions, provides various types of monetary assistance to persons or family units whose incomes are below the "poverty line", determined in relation to the remuneration of the average manual worker.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>6</sup> 1970 *Report on the World Social Situation* . . . , p. 109. Original source of citation: Social Science Research Council, *Research on Poverty* (London, 1968), p. 5.

<sup>7</sup> 1970 *Report on the World Social Situation* . . . , p. 109.

<sup>5</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.11, p. 52.

TABLE IV.3

Estimates of expectation of life at birth, 1965-1970,  
in major areas and regions of the world

Areas and regions	Expectation of life (years) 1965-1970
<i>World total</i> .....	53
More developed regions .....	70
Less developed regions .....	50
<i>East Asia</i> .....	52
Mainland region .....	50
Japan .....	71
Other East Asia .....	60
<i>South Asia</i> .....	49
Middle South Asia .....	48
South-East Asia .....	50
South-West Asia .....	51
<i>Europe</i> .....	71
Western Europe .....	72
Southern Europe .....	70
Eastern Europe .....	71
Northern Europe .....	72
<i>Soviet Union</i> .....	70
<i>Africa</i> .....	43
Western Africa .....	39
Eastern Africa .....	42
Middle Africa .....	39
Northern Africa .....	50
Southern Africa .....	48
<i>Northern America</i> .....	70
<i>Latin America</i> .....	60
Tropical South America .....	60
Middle American mainland .....	60
Temperate South America .....	65
Caribbean .....	58
<i>Oceania</i> .....	65
Australia and New Zealand .....	72
Melanesia .....	47
Polynesia and Micronesia .....	61

Source: *The World Population Situation in 1970* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.XIII.4), p. 32.

11. The 1960s could be considered as the era of soul-searching in the recent history of the developed market-economy countries. The decade was one during which a vastly improved understanding of the requirements and the needs for the creation of a greater degree of social justice was manifested. As has rightly been said, people get restless and rebellious when they are getting a little better off but feel that progress is not fast enough.

12. A work cited in the *1970 Report on the World Social Situation* in connexion with social development in these countries stated that an investigation of the broad relationships between economic and social factors of development had indicated that:

Improved amenities and social infrastructures have a positive effect on economic growth. Higher expenditure on the health, personal well-being, and the knowledge and skills of human resources is an economically profitable investment for a nation and an area. Countries with higher levels of social well-being also tend to enjoy a higher *per capita* product. The healthier and better

educated people are, the higher their hourly, annual and life-time earnings are likely to be.<sup>8</sup>

The 1970 report goes on to state that the results of sectoral studies on housing, health and social welfare institutions point to similar conclusions, and that even more detailed research into processes of change in specific localities further suggests that the availability of appropriate social infrastructure, including modern housing, cultural amenities and recreational facilities, are important considerations in inducing both prospective employees and industrial decision-makers to move to another area.

13. Increasing awareness of the relationships between economic and social factors of development, together with the existing interest in industrial decentralization that can be witnessed amongst the Western European countries, has contributed to a growth of co-ordinated planning for the creation or development of conditions favouring the establishment of modern industrial zones, either outside traditional areas of industrial concentra-

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 113. Original source: L. H. Klaassen, *Social Amenities in Area Economic Growth: an analysis of methods of defining needs for local social amenities* (5th report in the series "Developing Job Opportunities") (Paris, OECD, 1968), p. 9.

TABLE IV.4

Developed market-economy countries:  
*per capita* income in 1969

Country	Per capita income in dollars
<i>Leading</i>	
United States of America .....	4 151
Canada .....	3 068
Sweden .....	3 205
Switzerland .....	2 642
Denmark .....	2 610
France .....	2 485
Australia .....	2 434
Germany, Federal Republic of .....	2 246
Norway .....	2 191
Belgium .....	2 150
Netherlands .....	1 976
Luxembourg .....	1 907 <sup>a</sup>
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland .....	1 817
New Zealand .....	1 769
Finland .....	1 745
Austria .....	1 547
Israel .....	1 450
Japan .....	1 396
<i>Transitional</i>	
Italy .....	1 420
<i>Peripheral</i>	
Ireland .....	1 111
Greece .....	891
Spain .....	811
Malta .....	635
Portugal .....	570
<i>Unclassified</i>	
South Africa .....	682

Source: *Yearbook of National Accounts Statistics, 1970*, vol. II, *International Tables* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.XVIII.3, vol. II), table 1B, pp. 8-12.

<sup>a</sup> 1968.

tion, or in areas where traditional industrial activities are declining. Regional development planning along these lines has become quite widespread in western Europe in recent years. It is aimed at achieving a more balanced distribution of economic, social and cultural benefits, as well as a reduction of population concentrations.<sup>9</sup>

14. In the United States of America in the 1960s, many new government institutions, at both federal and state levels, were created whose functions relate solely to the improvement of the economic and social conditions of those considered to live under conditions of poverty.<sup>10</sup> The following may be considered as instances of such action taken at the federal level. In 1964, the Economic Opportunity Act was passed, establishing the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO) with the mandate to carry out the programmes of the "war on poverty". These programmes were developed in four main fields: (a) manpower development training and mobility programmes, (b) individual improvement or educational programmes, (c) community action programmes, and (d) income maintenance programmes. The 1968 federal budget had earmarked \$1 800 million for this purpose. The total federal social welfare expenditure for the same year was \$22 100 million. In 1969, two programmes previously administered by OEO, namely, Head Start and the Job Corps, were made the direct responsibility of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) and the Department of Labor respectively. The transfer of the Job Corps programme to the Department of Labor was done with a view to incorporating the full range of federal

job training and employment services in a comprehensive manpower programme to be developed for the entire nation. The purpose of placing Head Start—an educational programme for pre-school children—under the Department of Health, Education and Welfare was to strengthen it by association with other child development programmes of the National Institutes of Health, of Mental Health and of Child Health and Human Development.

15. The 1970 report states:

The Comprehensive Health Services programmes, including family planning services, reached many individuals who had not previously had access to comprehensive medical care; the programme is geared to providing free and full health care to one million residents of impoverished neighbourhoods. It is expected, however, that the transfer of OEO health services to HEW will bring about a more unified approach within the structure of the Department.<sup>11</sup>

16. The Community Action Programme (CAP) has been one of the most far-reaching OEO activities. Six million people participated in 1968 in CAP activities administered by 1 012 locally controlled and 5 000 delegate agencies. The legal services programme has also had far-reaching effects. In 1968, there were 1 600 full-time lawyers helping to provide legal services for the poor in 267 projects throughout the country. Providing legal assistance to the poor and using the law as a strategy to expand social welfare services have attracted many law school graduates into the welfare-poverty field and have stimulated the development of a body of law responsive to the needs of the poor and the consumer. Another programme for the poor is carried out by the Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA). They have been recruiting volunteers with specialized skills in the organization of credit unions, city planning, education and medical care. These are but some examples of action taken at the federal level to combat the problems of poverty in the country.

17. Other countries in this group have also devised institutions and implemented policies aimed at narrowing the gap between rich and poor. It is now an accepted fact in all these countries that continued poverty, in addition to being socially unjust, unacceptable and degrading, is increasingly costly to the national economy. For example, it is said that in the United States of America, where the number of poor decreased from 38 095 000 in 1961 to 26 146 000 in 1967, federal funds devoted to programmes assisting the poor increased from \$9 800 million in 1961 to \$22 100 million in 1968. It has been estimated that the cost of maintaining one poor person between the ages of 17 and 57 years can cost the public purse in the United States as much as \$140 000.<sup>12</sup> The 1970 report states:

With the recognition that a disjointed sectoral and incremental approach as practised in the past is not sufficient to overcome the basic conditions of poverty, the new anti-poverty strategies have tended to focus on three major areas of effort: (a) planned concentration of development programmes on a regional or multi-state basis for the purpose of improving economic and social conditions in rural or urban communities where the incidence of poverty is most prevalent; (b) improved co-ordination of federal, state and

<sup>9</sup> The progress of regional development in western European countries in the 1960s is described in *1970 Report on the World Social Situation . . .*, pp. 112–116.

<sup>10</sup> "Success in the formulation and implementation of national policies in the countries of North America and in Australia and New Zealand depends to a large extent upon the reconciliation of the powers and functions of the central Governments with those of the state or provincial and local governments. In the federal system of government that is common among three of the four countries—the United States, Canada and Australia (New Zealand has a unitary form of government)—national authority in certain spheres is exclusive, whereas in others it is concurrent with that of the states or provinces, and in still others, states or provinces claim exclusive authority. In the welfare field, there is a tendency for responsibility to be shared between the Federal Government and the states or provinces, with the central authority assuming a significant and growing role. In any event, the relationship between the various levels of government is not constant but varies with changing political and economic circumstances. Under the 'New Federalism' concept in the United States, a greater role is envisaged for the states as part of a deliberate effort to redirect power away from Washington and towards the state capitals. In Canada, where the power of the provincial governments is generally growing, constitutional reform involving a realignment of the respective powers and responsibilities of the federal and provincial governments has been a matter of national priority during the last few years and the subject of several conferences. Thus, efforts to initiate national social or welfare policies involve a continuing process of political bargaining and negotiation between the central and state authorities, and in all the countries this is further complicated by the not insubstantial powers exercised by local governments. In this process, the aim of the central Governments to promote acceptance of national welfare or other policies is facilitated by the state, provincial and local governments' growing need for external financial support. Thus, financial assistance constitutes one of the most effective instruments available to the national Government to secure co-operation at lower levels of government. This aid, which is often earmarked for specific programmes, is usually provided on a matching basis, with the size of the grant as a rule varying inversely with *per capita* income in the state or province concerned. Such a formula is designed to overcome the reluctance of the less affluent states to take full advantage of available federal grants." (See *1970 Report on the World Social Situation . . .*, p. 128.)

<sup>11</sup> *1970 Report on the World Social Situation . . .*, p. 130.

<sup>12</sup> See United States Census Bureau study as reported in *The New York Times*, 3 May 1968, p. 37, col. 8. The threshold of poverty as established by the Social Security Administration was a family income below \$3 060 in 1959 and below \$3 335 in 1967. See also Office of Economic Opportunity, *Review of Economic Opportunity Programs*, Report to the Congress of the United States (March, 1969), p. 22.

**TABLE IV.5**  
**Over-all social and economic trends by selected indicators for North America, Australia**  
**and New Zealand**

<i>Indicators</i>	<i>Year or period</i>	<i>United States of America</i>	<i>Canada</i>	<i>Australia</i>	<i>New Zealand</i>
Population (thousands) .....	1963	189 417	18 925	10 950	2 532
	1967	199 114	20 441	11 810	2 726
Annual rate of population increase (percentage) .....	1967	1.3	1.9	1.9	1.5
<i>Per capita</i> GNP at current market prices (dollars) .....	1963	3 166	2 121	1 810	1 756
	1967	4 037	2 805	2 253	2 001
Average annual rate of growth of real GDP at market prices (percentage) .....	1960-1967	5.1	5.7	4.8	4.5
Average annual rate of growth of real GDP at market prices <i>per capita</i> (percentage) .....	1960-1967	3.6	3.8	2.8	2.5
Index of production in manufacturing (1963 = 100) .....	1967	128	129	120	125
Index of employment in manufacturing (1963 = 100) .....	1967	114	116	111	114
Index of production in agriculture (1963 = 100) .....	1967	105	97	101	116
Private consumption expenditures as percentage of GNP .....	1963	63	63	64	62
	1967	61	61	63	61
Savings as percentage of personal disposable income .....	1963	5	9	11	13
	1967	8	10	7	15
General Government consumption expenditure as percentage of GNP .....	1963	19	14	10	13
	1967	21	15	13	15
General Government civil expenditures as percentage of GNP .....	1963	9.97	10.86	7.51	11.29
	1967	11.41	12.01	8.62	12.57
General Government civil expenditures on education and research as percentage of GNP .....	1963	6.1	..	2.56	2.72
	1967	7	..	3.01	3.39
General Government civil expenditures on health services as percentage of GNP ....	1963	1.11	..	1.20	2.18
	1967	1.19	..	1.31	1.81
General Government civil expenditures on social welfare as percentage of GNP .....	1963	0.41	..	0.52	0.15
	1967	0.77	..	0.49	0.12
General Government expenditures on defence as percentage of GNP .....	1963	8.73	3.95	2.52	1.75
	1967	9.32	3.18	4.13	2.08
Number of third-level students per 100 000 inhabitants .....	1960	1 983	293	785	837
	1965	2 840	1 651	1 159	2 100

*Source: 1970 Report on the World Social Situation (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.IV.13), p. 126.*

local social services in these areas to facilitate comprehensive approaches to the alleviation of poverty and to increase efficiency and eliminate waste and duplication, and (c) revision of welfare programmes, with emphasis on "humanizing" the services, on preventive rather than curative measures and on increased involvement of the poor and minority groups in planning and implementing programmes which directly affect them.<sup>13</sup>

<sup>13</sup> 1970 Report on the World Social Situation . . . , p. 127.

18. As noted in this brief general review of the 1960s, a new consciousness of economic, social and cultural rights has caused a more egalitarian outlook and approach, and corresponding policies and institutions, to make themselves felt in the current of thought and in private as well as public action in the countries with developed market economies. The result remains to be seen in the decade to come.



## Chapter II

### WORK

19. The state of employment security, wages, hours, health and safety, and other matters connected with the right to work in the countries with developed market economies are considered in the various sections of the present chapter.

#### A. Employment security

20. Employment is unquestionably more secure now than in the not so remote past, when Governments took no responsibility for moderating the impact of business fluctuations on the economy. Table IV.6 shows that in all these countries there has been a substantial improvement over past performance. Since the Second World War, the unemployment rate in these countries has never climbed above 7 per cent.

21. The leading European countries may owe part of their success in holding down unemployment to their reliance on foreign workers in the more volatile sectors of the economy, such as manufacturing and construction. Foreign workers are less likely to come when business conditions are unfavourable and no jobs are in prospect. To some extent, particularly in the Federal Republic of Germany, Switzerland, and Sweden, the inflow of foreign workers is deliberately regulated in accordance with economic conditions; and regulating the inflow is normally sufficient to regulate the supply, since there is a continual stream of voluntary returnees who have

acquired the capital they set out for, or have become homesick, or end their stay abroad because they have acquired skills and thus possibilities of good earnings at home as well, or for other reasons.

22. It is not possible, however, to make an exact quantitative assessment of the importance of migration in accounting for the relatively low levels of unemployment in some of the leading developed market economies.

23. Over-all rates hide much else that is important about unemployment. Since the over-all rate is an average over the whole year, it does not show the number of people who experience unemployment at one time or another during any one year. Statistics from Sweden, which has one of the lowest unemployment rates in the countries under consideration, illustrate this point. As table IV.7 shows, approximately 1 out of 10 economically active Swedes was without work at some time during 1966, although the average unemployment rate was less than 2 out of 100. This fact of course also shows that unemployment is not a phenomenon that affects only one group of individuals during any given period of time, but that it is more or less spread out and shared by a larger number of people. Therefore its over-all effects are felt less than they would otherwise be. In the United States of America, according to table IV.8, the 3.5 per cent unemployment in 1969 was shared by 14 per cent of the labour force in all income brackets. That is probably the reason why its ill effects were not felt by one and the same

TABLE IV.6

Percentage unemployment rates in selected developed market-economy countries, 1960-1969

	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Canada .....	6.8	7.0	5.8	5.4	4.6	3.9	3.5	4.0	4.8	4.6
United States of America .....	5.5	6.7	5.5	5.7	5.2	4.5	2.8	3.8	3.6	3.5
Japan .....	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.1
Austria .....	2.6	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.6	1.4
Belgium .....	3.2	2.4	2.0	1.7	1.5	1.7	1.8	2.4	2.9	2.3
Denmark .....	1.9	..	..	..	..	1.2	..	1.2	..	1.1
Finland .....	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.6	2.8	4.0	2.8
France .....	1.2	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.8	2.1	1.7
Germany, Federal Republic of .....	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6	1.7	1.2	0.7
Greece .....	..	5.9	..	..	..	..	..	4.0	..	..
Iceland .....	..	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	1.3	..
Ireland .....	5.6	5.0	4.8	5.0	4.7	4.6	4.7	5.1	5.4	5.1
Italy .....	3.9	3.4	2.9	2.5	2.7	3.6	3.9	3.4	3.5	3.4
Netherlands .....	1.2	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.9	1.7	1.3
Norway .....	1.2	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.7	1.1	1.0
Portugal .....	2.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Spain .....	1.5	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.9	1.9	1.5
Sweden .....	1.8	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.6	1.2	1.6	2.1	2.2	1.9
United Kingdom .....	1.3	1.1	1.6	1.9	1.4	1.1	1.1	1.9	2.1	2.0

Source: OECD, *Basic Statistics: Labour Force Statistics, 1958-1969* (Paris, 1971); United States of America, Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Handbook of Labor Statistics, 1971* (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office).

TABLE IV.7  
One concept of unemployment: Sweden, 1966

	Persons (thousands)	Percentage of average labour force
Average labour force.....	3 841	100
Average unemployment .....	59	1.5
Experienced unemployment some time during the year.....	363	9.5

Sources: *Statistical Abstract of Sweden, 1971*; OECD, *Basic Statistics: Labour Force Statistics, 1958-1969* (Paris, 1971); I. Sjöberg and K. Lindquist, *Sysselsättning, Arbetslöshet, Förvärvsförhinder* (Employment, Unemployment, and Inability to Work), vol. 8 in the series "Low Income Studies" (Stockholm, Allmänna Forlaget, 1971).

TABLE IV.8  
One concept of unemployment:  
United States of America, 1969

	Persons (thousands)	Percentage of average labour force	Percentage of total working or seeking work
Average labour force.....	84 239	100	
Total working or seeking work during the year.....	93 640		100
Average unemployment .....	2 831	3.5	
Experienced unemployment some time during the year..	11 744	14.0	12.5

Source: United States of America, Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Handbook of Labor Statistics, 1971* (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office).

group during the same year but were spread over a larger group of the labour force. The unemployment situation in the United States, as shown in table IV.8, reveals that about 14 per cent of the labour force in the country on an average experienced three months' unemployment during 1969.

24. In addition, the average unemployment rates do not give indications of differences between categories of workers. In Sweden, private sector blue-collar workers experience unemployment rates about twice the average for all groups in the adult population.<sup>14</sup> In the United States of America, average unemployment rates for operatives are 50 per cent above the national average, for labourers about 100 per cent.<sup>15</sup> As regards sex, the record, as table IV.9 shows, is mixed. In some countries higher unemployment rates apply to women than to men, but in others the opposite is the case. It is likely, however, that married women drop out of the labour force more readily than men when they cannot find jobs, which would tend to depress the reported unemployment rates for women.

25. American negroes, particularly before the 1960s, have generally been the "last hired, first fired". The results of this situation are reflected in the figures in table IV.10. This is in spite of all government reforms to

<sup>14</sup> I. Sjöberg and K. Lindquist, *Sysselsättning, Arbetslöshet, Förvärvsförhinder* (Employment, Unemployment and Inability to Work), vol. 8 in the series "Low Income Studies" (Stockholm, Allmänna Forlaget, 1971), table 2.19.

<sup>15</sup> United States of America, Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Handbook of Labor Statistics, 1971*, table 65, pp. 129 and 130.

correct the injustices of the past and in spite of the constant improvement of the condition of negroes.<sup>16</sup> On the average, American negroes, although their position has greatly improved in the 1960s, still suffer about twice as much unemployment as whites.

26. The case of South Africa and the effects of its inhuman policy of *apartheid* constitute, of course, a totally different matter.<sup>17</sup> In the United States of America, forces have been at work for many decades in the direction of correcting the inhumanities of the past. In governmental circles, at the federal level and in many cases at the state level, there has been continuous awareness of the problem. Measures have in fact been taken, on both the legal and the practical levels, to eliminate discrimination. However, the problem has not yet been totally resolved. In South Africa, the situation is the reverse of what has been stated as applying to the United States. It is the declared policy of the South African Government to practise segregation and to discriminate on grounds of race and ethnic origin. *Apartheid* is discrimination and segregation both in fact and in law.

27. Differences in average unemployment rates by occupation, sex, and race cannot be directly related to differences in unemployment experience, as distinct from average unemployment rates.<sup>18</sup> But the differences in averages indicate that rights to employment security are not enjoyed equally. Unemployment strikes hardest at the economically weak—at unskilled workers, women, and negroes.

28. It is, of course, not possible to judge the social or personal significance of unemployment from over-all statistics or from unemployment rates alone. It is obvious that, for some unmarried men and women, a period of unemployment can even provide some mild interest and amusement—provided they manage to maintain their morale and find new jobs before their unemployment insurance runs out. But it is quite another matter for a married worker, with few or no savings, especially for one who has children to support.<sup>19</sup> In such circumstances, even the threat of unemployment is heavily charged emotionally.

29. The meaningful exercise of a right to gain one's living by work which one freely chooses or accepts is not

<sup>16</sup> "In the United States, the Civil Rights Act of 1965, the 'Open Housing' Act of 1968 and Supreme Court decisions outlawing segregation in public schools, transportation and other public facilities, removed legal grounds for racial discrimination and provided for integration in schools, equality of opportunity in education, in housing, in employment and the protection of human and civil rights in all aspects of social life. Federal efforts to promote equal opportunity for minority groups have been supplemented by state and local legislation. The effectiveness of all these legislative measures, however, is as yet difficult to assess." (1970 *Report on the World Social Situation* . . . , p. 137.)

<sup>17</sup> For the situation with regard to economic, social and cultural rights in that country, see the reports of the Special Rapporteur entitled "Study of *apartheid* and racial discrimination in southern Africa", submitted to the Commission on Human Rights at its twenty-fourth and twenty-fifth sessions (E/CN.4/949 and Corr.1 and Add.1 and Add.1/Corr.1 and Add.2-5, and E/CN.4/979 and Add.1 and Add.1/Corr.1 and Add.2-8, respectively).

<sup>18</sup> Unskilled workers in the United States of America appear to be unemployed for a somewhat shorter period, on the average, than the more skilled. This would suggest a lower ratio of unemployment experience to average unemployment. (See United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Employment and Earnings*, vol. 19, No. 3, September 1972 (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office), table A-16, p. 32.)

<sup>19</sup> See section C of chapter IV below for a discussion on the question of unemployment insurance.

TABLE IV.9  
Unemployment by sex in selected developed market-economy countries, 1969

	Women			Men		
	Unemployment (thousands)	Labour force (thousands)	Unemployment rate (percentage)	Unemployment (thousands)	Labour force (thousands)	Unemployment rate (percentage)
Canada .....	245	5 328	4.6	70	2 366	3.0
Germany, Federal Republic of .....	335	16 720	2.0	124	9 532	1.3
Italy .....	487	14 222	2.4	202	5 287	3.8
Japan .....	350	29 920 <sup>a</sup>	1.2	280	19 910 <sup>a</sup>	1.4
Sweden .....	48	2 391 <sup>a</sup>	2.0	34	1 425 <sup>a</sup>	2.4
United Kingdom ....	404	16 451	2.5	99	9 127	1.1
United States of America .....	1 507	48 986	3.1	1 468	28 360	5.2

Source: OECD, *Basic Statistics: Labour Force Statistics, 1958-1969* (Paris, 1971).

<sup>a</sup> Includes armed forces.

TABLE IV.10  
United States of America: unemployment rates by colour, 1955-1969

	1955	1960	1965	1967	1968	1969
Unemployment rate (per cent):						
All workers .....	4.4	5.5	4.5	3.8	3.6	3.5
White .....	3.9	4.9	4.1	3.4	3.2	3.1
Male .....	3.7	4.8	3.6	2.7	2.6	2.5
Female .....	4.3	5.3	5.0	4.6	4.3	4.2
Negro and other .....	8.7	10.2	8.1	7.4	6.7	6.4
Male .....	8.8	10.7	7.4	6.0	5.6	5.3
Female .....	8.4	9.4	9.2	9.1	8.3	7.8
Ratio, Negro and other to white .....	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.1	2.1

Source: United States of America, Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1971* (92nd edition) (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971), table 60, p. 118.

yet a reality for a portion of the population in the developed market-economy countries.

30. Nearly all these countries have had as one of their main objectives the policy of full employment. This objective is, for instance, expressed in the constitution and other basic laws of most of the northern European countries. Article 110 of the Norwegian Constitution, as amended in 1954, states that "it is incumbent on the authorities of the State to create conditions which make it possible for every person who is able to work to earn his living by his work".

31. Full employment in most of these countries has in the main depended on the total demand for goods and services being maintained at a high level. Given the economic, social and political systems of these countries, there will at all times exist certain groups of the population which face special difficulties in obtaining employment. A high level of employment is not considered in itself enough to ensure a satisfactory geographical and occupational balance in the labour market. Thus, these countries have generally found it essential to engage in an active labour-market policy. This policy means, on the one hand, providing expanding industries and localities with sufficient manpower, and on the other, ensuring employment for those persons who are wholly or partly unemployed. The Governments of these countries have in the post-war era tended to resolve the

conflict between high employment and price stability in favour of high employment. But actual performance has fallen short, both in countries with a relatively good performance and in those with a relatively poor one.

## B. Wages

32. Table IV.11 shows the average level of wages in 1969 in various of the countries under consideration. To some extent, the range between the richer and the poorer countries may be exaggerated by the use of official exchange rates for the conversion of national currencies into a common unit of account, but substantial gaps would still remain after the application of any reasonable adjustment procedures. Virtually all countries, however, registered substantial gains in wages over the decade of the 1960s, and table IV.12 reflects this consistent upward trend in wages. This is true even when the erosion of the purchasing power of money is taken into account, as the indices of "real" wages in table IV.12 show.

33. However, like all averages, neither the absolute level nor the indices reveal anything about the underlying distribution. The adequacy of wages at the lower end of the spectrum to sustain a decent level of consumption will be considered in chapter VI below, in which the question of standards of living is examined. In this section of the present chapter, the distribution of wages between

TABLE IV.11

Average hourly wages in non-agricultural sectors, in local currencies and United States dollars, in selected developed market-economy countries, 1970<sup>a</sup>

	Local currency	Equivalent in dollars
United States of America.....	\$3.22	3.22
Japan.....	¥397	1.11
Denmark.....	DKr16.70	2.23
France.....	FF5.84	1.06
Germany, Federal Republic of.....	DM6.09	1.67
Ireland <sup>b</sup> .....	£0.33	0.78
Italy.....	Lit617	0.99
Luxembourg <sup>c</sup> .....	Fr72	1.45
Spain.....	Pta40	0.57
New Zealand <sup>d</sup> .....	NZ\$1.29	1.43

Source: ILO, *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, 1971, Thirty-first issue (Geneva, International Labour Office), table 18, pp. 551-558.

<sup>a</sup> It should be noted that these figures cannot be directly compared as indicators of the material standard of living, since prices and social security benefits differ so much from country to country. For example, the average standard of living in France is higher than the average in Italy, notwithstanding the near equality of wages.

<sup>b</sup> Figure for 1968.

<sup>c</sup> Figure for 1969.

<sup>d</sup> Includes salaried personnel.

men and women and between races will be considered. In these terms, the capitalist world cannot be said to have performed very well.

34. With respect to the question whether women do in fact receive "equal pay for equal work", table IV.13 tells a story of consistent differences based on sex. The ratio of women's to men's wages appears to be highest in the Scandinavian countries. Danish women, for example, receive on average three quarters of the pay of Danish men. In most countries, however, the trend—as well as the current situation—is discouraging; differentials have hardly narrowed in a decade.

35. The United Kingdom Government in its latest periodic report to the Commission on Human Rights stated, on the question of equal pay for women, that "the Government have decided to introduce equal pay legislation in the 1969/70 session of Parliament to ensure the full implementation of the equal pay principle by 31st December 1975". The Government reported that women continue to face considerable discrimination in industry, where certain jobs are still regarded as men's prerogative at all levels.<sup>20</sup>

36. For the present, it must suffice to point out that a society hardly offers women a "free" choice of work when that choice in fact requires women to forego either a career or a family.

37. But this is only part of the story. In Sweden, where equal pay for equal work is more of a reality than elsewhere, a study of the position obtaining in 1966 showed substantial differences between men's and women's incomes from full-time work, even after allowances had been made in respect of age, education, and branch of industry. The results of the study given are in table IV.14. There are differences in the pattern of inequality between age groups and branches of industry, but these differences are relatively minor, and there is almost no difference as

<sup>20</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.2, pp. 21, 24 and 33.

TABLE IV.12

Average hourly money wages and real wages (at 1963 prices) in non-agricultural sectors in selected developed market-economy countries

	1961	1963	1970
<i>United States of America</i>			
Money wages .....	\$2.14	\$2.28	\$3.22
Consumer prices (1963 = 100) ..	97.7	100	126.8
Real wages .....	\$2.19	\$2.28	\$2.54
<i>Japan</i>			
Money wages .....	¥132	¥166	¥397
Consumer prices (1963 = 100) ..	87.0	100	144.4
Real wages .....	¥152	¥166	¥275
<i>Denmark</i>			
Money wages .....	DKr6.78	DKr8.09	DKr16.70
Consumer prices (1963 = 100) ..	88.3	100	145.4
Real wages .....	DKr7.68	DKr8.09	DKr11.49
<i>France</i>			
Money wages .....	..	FF3.29	FF5.84
Consumer prices (1963 = 100) ..	..	100	130.9
Real wages .....	..	FF3.29	FF4.46
<i>Germany, Federal Republic of</i>			
Money wages .....	..	DM3.53	DM6.09
Consumer prices (1963 = 100) ..	..	100	120.5
Real wages .....	..	DM3.53	DM5.05
<i>Ireland</i>			
Money wages .....	£0.19	£0.22	£0.33 <sup>a</sup>
Consumer prices (1963 = 100) ..	93.6	100	124.7 <sup>a</sup>
Real wages .....	£0.20	£0.22	£0.26
<i>Italy</i>			
Money wages .....	..	Lit400 <sup>b</sup>	Lit <sup>c</sup> 17
Consumer prices (1963 = 100) ..	..	110.6 <sup>b</sup>	128.2
Real wages .....	..	Lit362	Lit481
<i>Luxembourg</i>			
Money wages .....	Fr44.3	Fr48.4	Fr72.2 <sup>c</sup>
Consumer prices (1963 = 100) ..	96.3	100	123.5
Real wages .....	Fr46.0	Fr48.4	Fr58.5
<i>Spain</i>			
Money wages <sup>d</sup> .....	..	Pta16.2	Pta40.1
Consumer prices (1963 = 100) ..	..	100	155.1
Real wages .....	..	Pta16.2	Pta25.9
<i>New Zealand</i>			
Money wages <sup>d</sup> .....	NZ\$0.80	NZ\$0.85	NZ\$1.29
Consumer prices (1963 = 100) ..	95.5	100	136.0
Real wages .....	NZ\$0.84	NZ\$0.85	NZ\$0.95

Source: ILO, *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, 1971, Thirty-first issue (Geneva, International Labour Office), table 18, pp. 553 *et seq.*, and table 25, pp. 690 *et seq.*

<sup>a</sup> Figure for 1968.

<sup>b</sup> Figure for 1965.

<sup>c</sup> Figure for 1969.

<sup>d</sup> Includes salaried personnel.

far as educational background is concerned. However well educated a woman is, she earns an average of only 60 per cent of what an equally well educated man earns, assuming that both work full time. It is hard to escape the conclusion that a pattern of discrimination exists that extends beyond the limitation of opportunities imposed by the traditional assignment of household duties to women. It appears that even when women opt for full-time work, they receive far less than equal treatment.

38. Discrimination on grounds of sex, in short, shows up at every stage of a woman's working life, whether it be



TABLE IV.13

Hourly wage rates in non-agricultural sectors, by sex, in selected developed market-economy countries, 1961 and 1970

	1961			1970		
	Hourly wage rates		Women : men ratio	Hourly wage rates		Women : men ratio
	Women	Men		Women	Men	
Belgium .....	Fr151.0	Fr263.2	0.57	Fr334.9	Fr526.1	0.64
Denmark .....	DKr4.98	DKr7.43	0.67	DKr12.90	DKr17.53	0.74
Germany, Federal Republic of .....	DM2.12	DM3.17	0.67	DM4.49	DM6.49	0.69
Ireland .....	£0.13	£0.22	0.59	£0.22 <sup>a</sup>	£0.38 <sup>a</sup>	0.58
Switzerland .....	SFr2.33	SFr3.62	0.64	SFr4.39	SFr7.05	0.62
United Kingdom .....	£0.19	£0.32	0.59	£0.37	£0.61	0.61

Source: ILO, *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, 1971, Thirty-first issue (Geneva, International Labour Office), table 18, pp. 553 et seq.

<sup>a</sup> Figures for 1968.

in the form of arbitrary job classifications that differentiate between essentially equal work in order to circumvent public policies and laws designed to ensure equal pay for equal work, or in the form of (male) stereotypes of what constitute appropriate jobs and roles for women.

39. A similar pattern of discrimination exists against blacks or coloured people in those parts of the developed

market economies where they are present in significant numbers.

40. In South Africa, as has been noted, not even lip service is paid to equality.

41. The picture, as has already been pointed out, is not so grim in the United States of America, but there is still a long way to go towards equality in fact as well as in law

TABLE IV.14

Sweden: income from full-time and full-year employment, by sex, 1966

	Men	Women	Men	Women
Average wage (Swedish kronor).....	27 580	16 810	100.0	100.0
	<i>Deviation from average income (SKr)</i>		<i>Relative wages (percentage of mean,<sup>1</sup>)</i>	
<i>Age group</i>				
19 years and under.....	-13 940	-5 410	49.5	67.8
20-24 years.....	-7 710	-3 280	72.0	80.5
25-34 years.....	-2 370	-130	91.4	99.2
35-44 years.....	+1 820	+2 160	106.6	112.8
45-54 years.....	+3 990	+2 260	114.5	113.4
55-64 years.....	+2 270	+2 670	108.2	115.9
65 years and over.....	-2 690	-3 160	90.2	81.2
<i>Education</i>				
Elementary school.....	-4 010	-2 190	85.5	87.0
Elementary school plus vocational training.....	-470	-410	98.3	97.6
Junior high or equivalent.....	+2 100	+620	107.6	103.7
Junior high plus vocational training.....	+6 020	+2 580	121.8	115.3
High school diploma.....	+9 330	+6 390	133.8	138.0
High school diploma plus vocational training.....	+14 770	+10 130	152.7	160.3
University degree.....	+28 750	+18 110	204.2	207.7
<i>Branch of industry</i>				
Agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing.....	-4 490	-3 360	83.7	80.0
Textile and wood processing.....	-1 000	-1 630	96.4	90.3
Metal-working, mining and printing.....	-220	-540	99.2	103.2
Other processing.....	-320	-40	98.8	97.6
Construction.....	+3 760	+4 160	113.6	124.7
Finance, wholesale trade.....	+2 230	+560	108.1	96.7
Retail trade.....	-1 570	-250	94.3	98.5
Transport and communications.....	-510	-2 720	98.2	116.2
Service, public.....	-1 400	+1 050	94.9	106.2
Service, private.....	+2 140	-1 700	107.8	89.9

Source: Sweden, Arbetsgruppen för Låginkomstfrågor (Working Group on Low-Income Questions), *Kompendium om Låginkomstutredningen* (Compendium of Low-Income Studies) (Stockholm, 1971).

throughout the country. In some parts of the country, progress has been faster than in others. In chapter III of the analytical summary of reports and other material on economic, social and cultural rights for the period 1 July 1966 to 30 June 1969, received under Economic and Social Council resolution 1074c(XXXIX), it was stated that in the United States of America the Equal Pay Act of 1963 had been amended in 1966 to broaden its scope and eliminate certain exemptions, and that since that time equal pay laws had become effective in 10 states, making a total of 35 states with such laws.<sup>21</sup>

42. Table IV.15 indicates the distribution of family income according to both colour and education. On the basis of the figures for median family income, the typical black family receives between \$2 000 and \$3 000 per year less than the typical white family. This difference is lowest at the top of the educational scale. In relative terms, the typical black family receives about two thirds the income of a white family in the lower part of the educational spectrum, and nine tenths in the upper part.

<sup>21</sup> E/CN.4/1024, para. 103.

TABLE IV.15  
United States of America: percentage distribution of families<sup>a</sup> by income level, by years of school completed and race of head of family, 1969

Race of head of family and income level	Total	Years of school completed							Median school years completed
		Elementary school	High school			College			
			Total	1 to 3	4	Total	1 to 3	4 or more	
All Families									
Number (in thousands).....	47 713	12 840	23 162	8 104	15 058	11 711	5 220	6 491	12.2
Per cent .....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	(×)
Under \$1 000 .....	1.4	2.4	1.2	1.5	1.1	0.7	0.8	0.6	9.8
\$1 000 to \$1 499.....	1.3	3.0	0.9	1.1	0.7	0.3	0.5	0.1	8.2
\$1 500 to \$1 999.....	1.8	4.2	1.1	1.8	0.8	0.5	0.7	0.3	8.3
\$2 000 to \$2 499.....	2.3	4.9	1.5	2.3	1.0	0.9	1.2	0.7	8.6
\$2 500 to \$2 999.....	2.2	4.8	1.4	2.4	0.9	0.6	0.9	0.4	8.5
\$3 000 to \$3 499.....	2.5	5.2	1.8	2.5	1.5	0.8	1.0	0.7	8.7
\$3 500 to \$3 999.....	2.6	5.1	2.0	2.7	1.7	0.9	1.1	0.7	8.9
\$4 000 to \$4 999.....	5.1	9.1	4.4	5.9	3.5	2.2	3.1	1.5	9.3
\$5 000 to \$5 999.....	5.5	8.5	5.4	6.3	4.9	2.5	3.2	2.0	10.4
\$6 000 to \$6 999.....	6.1	7.5	6.8	7.6	6.3	3.3	4.6	2.2	11.4
\$7 000 to \$7 999.....	7.0	7.4	8.0	8.8	7.5	4.6	6.0	3.5	12.0
\$8 000 to \$8 999.....	7.3	7.0	8.4	7.8	8.7	5.4	6.3	4.6	12.2
\$9 000 to \$9 999.....	7.0	6.2	7.9	7.4	8.2	6.0	7.4	4.8	12.2
\$10 000 to \$11 999.....	13.2	9.1	15.4	13.6	16.4	13.5	15.0	12.4	12.4
\$12 000 to \$14 999.....	14.2	8.2	15.8	13.8	16.9	17.7	18.2	17.4	12.5
\$15 000 to \$24 999.....	16.6	6.7	15.7	12.9	17.3	29.2	23.8	33.5	12.8
\$25 000 to \$49 999.....	3.5	0.8	2.1	1.3	2.5	9.2	5.5	12.2	15.6
\$50 000 and over.....	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.6	0.7	2.3	16.5
Median income.....	\$9 721	\$6 386	\$9 897	\$8 893	\$10 390	\$13 304	\$11 760	\$14 654	(×)
Mean income .....	\$10 853	\$7 358	\$10 563	\$9 563	\$11 100	\$15 258	\$13 024	\$17 054	(×)
White									
Number (in thousands).....	42 967	10 852	20 984	7 026	13 958	11 131	4 914	6 216	12.3
Per cent.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	(×)
Under \$1 000 .....	1.2	2.0	1.1	1.3	1.1	0.7	0.8	0.6	10.6
\$1 000 to \$1 499.....	1.0	2.3	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.3	0.5	0.2	8.4
\$1 500 to \$1 999.....	1.5	3.6	1.0	1.5	0.8	0.4	0.5	0.4	8.5
\$2 000 to \$2 499.....	2.1	4.7	1.3	2.0	0.9	0.9	1.2	0.7	8.6
\$2 500 to \$2 999.....	1.9	4.8	1.2	2.0	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.4	8.5
\$3 000 to \$3 499.....	2.2	4.8	1.5	2.1	1.2	0.8	0.9	0.7	8.7
\$3 500 to \$3 999.....	2.4	4.9	1.9	2.4	1.6	0.9	1.1	0.7	8.9
\$4 000 to \$4 999.....	4.7	8.9	3.9	5.3	3.2	1.9	2.6	1.3	9.3
\$5 000 to \$5 999.....	5.2	8.2	5.1	6.0	4.6	2.4	3.0	1.9	10.6
\$6 000 to \$6 999.....	5.9	7.4	6.5	7.3	6.0	3.2	4.5	2.2	11.6
\$7 000 to \$7 999.....	6.9	7.5	7.9	8.8	7.4	4.6	6.0	3.5	12.1
\$8 000 to \$8 999.....	7.4	7.4	8.5	8.0	8.7	5.3	6.3	4.6	12.2
\$9 000 to \$9 999.....	7.1	6.5	8.1	7.6	8.3	5.9	7.1	4.8	12.2
\$10 000 to \$11 999.....	13.8	9.7	16.0	14.8	16.7	13.6	15.0	12.4	12.4
\$12 000 to \$14 999.....	15.0	8.9	16.4	14.6	17.4	18.1	18.8	17.6	12.5
\$15 000 to \$24 999.....	17.6	7.4	16.6	14.1	17.8	29.4	24.4	33.4	12.8
\$25 000 to \$49 999.....	3.8	0.8	2.3	1.5	2.7	9.5	5.7	12.4	15.6
\$50 000 and over.....	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	1.6	0.7	2.3	16+
Median income.....	\$10 089	\$6 769	\$10 181	\$9 342	\$10 563	\$13 426	\$11 949	\$14 685	(×)
Mean income .....	\$11 231	\$7 649	\$10 854	\$9 973	\$11 297	\$15 436	\$13 235	\$17 176	(×)

TABLE IV.15 (continued)

Race of head of family and income level	Total	Years of school completed							Median school years completed
		Elementary school	High school			College			
			Total	1 to 3	4	Total	1 to 3	4 or more	
<i>Negro and other races</i>									
Number (in thousands).....	4 746	1 988	2 178	1 078	1 101	580	306	274	10.1
Per cent .....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	(x)
Under \$1 000 .....	2.9	4.2	2.4	2.8	2.0	0.3	0.6	—	3.1
\$1 000 to \$1 499.....	4.0	6.3	2.8	3.4	2.1	0.5	0.9	—	<8
\$1 500 to \$1 999.....	4.4	7.3	2.4	4.0	1.0	1.7	3.2	—	<8
\$2 000 to \$2 499.....	4.1	6.1	3.1	4.4	2.0	0.8	0.4	1.4	<8
\$2 500 to \$2 999.....	4.1	5.2	3.9	5.0	2.8	1.0	1.2	0.7	8.7
\$3 000 to \$3 499.....	5.4	7.1	4.8	5.0	4.6	1.7	2.5	0.8	8.3
\$3 500 to \$3 999.....	4.3	6.0	3.6	5.3	2.0	1.2	1.0	1.4	8.4
\$4 000 to \$4 999.....	9.2	10.4	8.4	9.9	7.0	8.1	10.8	5.2	9.4
\$5 000 to \$5 999.....	8.9	10.0	8.7	8.3	9.0	5.6	6.7	4.2	9.4
\$6 000 to \$6 999.....	8.4	7.8	9.9	9.6	10.2	4.4	6.8	1.7	10.2
\$7 000 to \$7 999.....	7.5	6.6	8.8	9.0	8.5	6.0	6.7	5.1	10.4
\$8 000 to \$8 999.....	6.1	4.8	7.1	6.5	7.6	6.5	6.7	6.3	11.1
\$9 000 to \$9 999.....	6.1	4.6	6.8	6.5	7.1	8.5	12.3	4.2	11.3
\$10 000 to \$11 999.....	8.3	5.4	9.6	6.2	12.9	13.3	14.8	11.7	12.2
\$12 000 to \$14 999.....	7.6	4.5	9.7	8.6	10.8	10.4	8.2	12.8	12.0
\$15 000 to \$24 999.....	7.9	3.0	7.7	5.5	9.9	25.3	15.5	36.2	12.6
\$25 000 to \$49 999.....	1.0	0.6	0.4	0.1	0.7	4.4	1.5	7.5	(B)
\$50 000 and over.....	0.1	0.1	—	—	—	0.3	—	0.7	(B)
Median income.....	\$6 340	\$4 754	\$7 002	\$6 217	\$7 875	\$10 555	\$9 194	\$13 682	(x)
Mean income .....	\$7 424	\$5 770	\$7 757	\$6 893	\$8 604	\$11 844	\$9 639	\$14 300	(x)

Source: United States of America, Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Handbook of Labor Statistics, 1971* (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office), table 166, p. 369.

<sup>a</sup> Data are restricted to families with heads of family 25 years old and over. NOTE. (x) = not applicable; (B) = base less than 75 000.

43. The picture appears to have improved over the past decade, particularly in the southern states, where discrimination has traditionally been greatest. Table IV.16 shows that the gap between the earnings of black and white craftsmen and operatives has narrowed from about one third to about one quarter during the 1960s.

44. In its report on economic, social and cultural rights covering the period from 1 July 1966 to 30 June 1969, the United Kingdom reported the coming into force of the 1968 Race Relations Act. Under this Act,

“a person discriminates against another if on the ground of colour, race or ethnic or national origins he treats that other, in any situation (to which the Act applies), less favourably than he treats or would treat other persons . . .”. The Act extends the principle of the 1965 Act that racial discrimination is unlawful in certain public places to the whole field of the provision to the public of goods, services and facilities. Particular sections of the Act cover employment, trade union membership, housing and advertising. The Act does not prejudice the exercise of the proper commercial judgement of, for example, the employer and landlord, nor does it place anyone in a privileged position. By seeking to remove the disadvantages from which racially identifiable minority groups suffer, the Act establishes their right to equal treatment.<sup>22</sup>

45. On the basis of reports for the period 1 July 1966 to 30 June 1969 received from Governments on economic, social and cultural rights, it can be said that

A number of other countries which have accepted the principle of equal pay for work of equal value have, during the period under review, reported progress towards the achievement of that principle, notably through the provisions of collective agreements. They

include in particular the following countries: Australia, Austria, Finland, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, . . . Italy, . . . the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway. . .<sup>23</sup>

### C. Hours

46. From a survey of average working hours in the countries with developed market economies, it would appear that workers enjoy an impressive amount of leisure, particularly in the leading countries. Table IV.17 indicates the position in average terms. However, a relatively large proportion of workers work more than 48 hours per week. Such figures are not available for all of these countries. From what information is available, the pattern seems to be very uneven, as table IV.18 indicates. In France, nearly 10 per cent of manufacturing workers work more than 48 hours (though the percentage is falling), and in the United States of America the figure for all non-agricultural workers is closer to 14 per cent. In Austria and Israel, by contrast, the proportion of manufacturing workers at work more than 48 or 49 hours per week is significantly smaller, and in Israel it has hardly exceeded 4 per cent.

47. In any event, a “reasonable limitation” on working hours cannot be specified in isolation from other conditions. For many people, much more than 48 hours is not only tolerable, but desirable—provided their work is challenging, comfortable, physically safe, and meaningful. But for the ordinary job that is the lot of the ordinary man and woman, 48 hours may appear to be a generous

<sup>22</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.2, p. 33.

<sup>23</sup> E/CN.4/1024, para. 105.

United States of America: percentage distribution of all husband-wife families and median earnings of husband

Residence	March 1970 Current Population Survey					
	White				Negro and other races	
	Craftsmen and operatives	Professional and managerial workers	Clerical and sales workers	Service workers and labourers	Total employed	Craftsmen and operatives
<i>Number of families (thousands)</i> .....	14 285	11 394	4 310	2 986	3 060	1 417
<i>Per cent</i> .....	100	100	100	100	100	100
North and West .....	72	71	71	76	53	51
In metropolitan areas .....	50	52	55	51	49	48
In central cities .....	18	17	22	24	38	38
Outside central cities .....	31	36	32	26	11	10
Outside metropolitan areas .....	23	19	16	25	4	3
Urban .....	9	9	8	10	2	2
Rural .....	14	10	8	15	2	1
South .....	28	29	29	24	47	49
In metropolitan areas .....	13	17	20	12	26	28
In central cities .....	5	7	9	6	19	21
Outside central cities .....	8	10	11	6	8	7
Outside metropolitan areas .....	15	11	10	12	21	21
Urban .....	4	5	4	4	6	7
Rural .....	11	6	6	8	14	15
<i>Median earnings of husband</i>						
Total .....	\$8 025	\$11 074	\$8 333	\$6 259	\$5 934	\$5 979
North and West .....	8 402	11 458	8 547	6 734	7 225	7 242
In metropolitan areas .....	8 806	11 968	8 794	7 034	7 265	7 286
In central cities .....	8 341	11 146	8 139	6 491	7 117	7 227
Outside central cities .....	9 063	12 149	9 310	7 578	7 759	7 499
Outside metropolitan areas .....	7 616	10 073	7 724	6 177	6 578	(B)
Urban .....	7 775	10 292	7 678	6 011	(B)	(B)
Rural .....	7 492	9 877	7 756	6 307	(B)	(B)
South .....	7 070	9 958	7 819	4 876	4 561	4 758
In metropolitan areas .....	7 830	11 019	8 104	5 448	5 382	5 525
In central cities .....	7 152	10 486	7 595	5 053	5 271	5 427
Outside central cities .....	8 198	11 313	8 421	6 046	5 590	5 778
Outside metropolitan areas .....	6 411	8 453	7 344	4 480	3 717	4 012
Urban .....	6 546	8 888	7 234	4 752	3 968	4 099
Rural .....	6 373	8 186	7 407	4 346	3 584	3 977

Source: United States of America, Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports*, Series P-60, No. 73, 30 December 1970, "Occupation and earnings of family heads in 1969, 1965, and 1959" (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970), p. 11.

interpretation of what constitutes a "reasonable limitation" on working hours in the developed market-economy countries.

#### D. Health and safety

48. The accident records summarized in table IV.19 do not suggest that any marked improvement has taken place during the decade of the 1960s; nor do they suggest a marked deterioration. Indeed, without a detailed study, country by country and industry by industry, it is impossible even to suggest reasonable reference norms, much less to judge performance. The absence of such a study does not, however, affect awareness of the differential impact of hazardous and unhealthy work. Although within any industry particularly dangerous work may command premium pay, it is nevertheless true that in general when one speaks of hazardous and unsafe work one is speaking of blue-collar work and not white-collar

work. A recent survey of American workers<sup>24</sup> revealed a high correlation between occupation and the frequency of health and safety hazards, as well as between occupation and work-related illness and injury. The incidence of work-related illness or injury reported in that study for blue-collar workers was approximately double that reported for white-collar workers.

49. Moreover, in Europe, foreign workers appear to be disproportionately "accident-prone", both because the jobs available to them are the more hazardous ones and because they lack the background for industrial work. According to a study by the University of Ankara,

The number of accidents suffered at work by Turks in Germany is more than double the number among insured workers in Turkey.

<sup>24</sup> The University of Michigan Survey Research Center, *Survey of Working Conditions: Final Report on Univariate and Bivariate Tables* (November 1970) (Washington, D.C., United States Government Printing Office, 1971).



in 1969, 1965 and 1959 (in constant 1969 dollars) by selected occupation group and race of head of family

March 1966 Current Population Survey						1960 Census					
White				Negro and other races		White				Negro and other races	
Craftsmen and operatives	Professional and managerial workers	Clerical and sales workers	Service workers and labourers	Total employed	Craftsmen and operatives	Craftsmen and operatives	Professional and managerial workers	Clerical and sales workers	Service workers and labourers	Total employed	Craftsmen and operatives
13 755	10 002	4 046	3 066	2 905	1 289	13 343	7 797	4 339	3 006	2 660	972
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
72	74	74	75	51	55	74	73	75	77	48	54
51	55	57	52	47	51	52	54	58	53	45	51
20	20	24	25	37	42	23	23	27	27	37	43
30	35	34	27	10	10	29	31	31	26	8	8
22	19	17	23	4	4	22	19	16	24	3	3
10	9	9	10	2	2	11	11	9	11	1	1
12	10	8	13	2	2	12	9	7	13	2	1
28	26	26	25	49	46	26	27	26	23	53	46
14	16	17	11	26	26	13	16	16	11	26	24
6	7	8	6	21	21	6	8	9	7	19	19
8	9	9	5	5	5	6	8	7	5	7	6
14	10	9	14	23	19	13	11	10	12	27	22
4	5	4	5	7	7	5	6	5	4	10	10
10	5	5	9	16	12	8	5	5	8	17	12
\$6 998	\$9 686	\$7 366	\$5 513	\$4 561	\$5 032	\$6 408	\$8 658	\$6 678	\$5 150	\$3 714	\$4 213
7 468	9 995	7 779	5 866	5 724	6 094	6 616	8 887	6 779	5 451	5 279	5 565
7 874	10 509	8 095	6 201	5 744	6 056	6 838	9 347	6 937	5 701	5 320	5 546
7 126	10 011	7 304	6 144	5 682	5 958	6 603	8 666	6 654	5 571	5 265	5 495
8 227	10 798	8 507	6 260	5 987	6 430	7 033	9 949	7 275	5 826	5 570	5 773
6 711	8 576	6 854	5 265	5 532	(B)	6 068	7 697	6 139	4 958	4 125	(B)
6 966	9 245	7 012	5 436	(B)	(B)	6 217	8 140	6 250	5 055	(B)	(B)
6 443	7 862	6 698	5 133	(B)	(B)	5 917	7 129	5 966	4 863	(B)	(B)
6 114	8 692	6 466	3 988	3 418	3 842	5 546	7 890	6 362	3 823	2 735	3 054
6 752	9 780	6 811	4 977	4 106	4 275	6 266	8 815	6 716	4 450	3 485	3 551
6 251	9 293	6 654	4 396	4 051	4 270	5 954	8 646	6 631	3 985	3 645	3 620
7 065	10 200	6 968	5 472	4 508	(B)	6 491	8 971	6 847	4 925	2 958	(B)
5 464	6 911	5 923	3 518	2 483	3 089	4 730	6 677	5 567	3 393	1 971	2 394
5 833	7 231	6 372	3 547	2 927	2 943	5 198	7 291	6 000	3 728	2 493	2 609
5 262	6 678	5 514	3 500	2 187	3 188	4 478	6 032	5 100	3 221	1 634	2 224

NOTE. (B) = base less than 75 000.

The risk of accident has a strict relationship with the level of preparation for industrial life of the worker. The highest rate of accidents occurred among workers who before coming to Germany were engaged in agriculture, and the next highest among those who previously had been in commerce and low grades of the civil service.<sup>25</sup>

50. Hazardous work is in general dirty, disagreeable, and unpleasant in a variety of other ways. It will therefore fall disproportionately to those who lack the economic, social and educational background for higher paying and otherwise more rewarding jobs.

### E. Intrinsic job qualities

51. It is becoming fairly widely recognized that "healthy" working conditions must be defined compre-

<sup>25</sup> P. Grandjeat, "Les migrations de travailleurs en Europe", *Cahiers de l'Institut international d'études sociales*, Cahier No. 1 (Paris, October–November 1966), p. 68.

hensively to include qualities of the job itself; the content of work and work relations are determinants not only of job satisfaction but also of the mental health of workers. In a study of industrial workers in the 1950s, for example, Arthur Kornhauser found a reasonably strong relationship between job satisfaction and mental health and between both of these and the skills utilized in various jobs.<sup>26</sup> Kornhauser's specific conclusion was that "decidedly the strongest influence [in mental health] is exerted by workers' feeling that the job does or does not give them a chance to use their abilities",<sup>27</sup> and this conclusion seems not at all out of line with the data he gives. Nor does his general conclusion, which is as follows:

Jobs in which workers are better satisfied are conducive to better mental health; jobs in which larger numbers are dissatisfied are

<sup>26</sup> A. Kornhauser, *Mental Health of the Industrial Worker: A Detroit Study* (New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1965).

<sup>27</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 129.

TABLE IV.17

Average working hours per week in manufacturing industries in selected developed market-economy countries, 1961-1970

	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
Canada <sup>a</sup> .....	40.6	40.7	40.8	41.0	41.1	40.8	40.3	40.3	40.0	39.7
United States of America <sup>a</sup> .....	39.8	40.4	40.5	40.7	41.2	41.4	40.6	40.7	40.6	39.8
Israel <sup>b</sup> .....	42.3	41.7	41.8	42.6	41.9	41.7	39.9	41.7	42.5	42.1
Japan .....	47.0	45.8	45.5	45.2	44.3	44.6	44.8	44.6	43.9	43.3
Austria <sup>b</sup> .....	39.5	38.7	38.6	38.8	38.7	38.7	38.4	38.6	38.6	37.4
Belgium .....	41.4	41.0	41.2	40.9	40.8	40.4	39.6	39.5	39.1	37.9
Finland <sup>b</sup> .....	44.6	42.9	44.1	44.0	44.0	42.1	39.8	39.1	38.8	38.3
France .....	46.0	46.2	46.3	46.1	45.6	45.9	45.4	45.3	45.4	44.8
Germany, Federal Republic of <sup>a</sup> ..	45.3	44.7	44.3	43.6	44.1	43.7	42.0	43.0	43.8	43.8
Greece <sup>a</sup> .....	44.7	44.1	43.4	43.9	43.8	43.3	43.6	43.7	43.8	44.6
Ireland .....	45.2	44.6	44.6	44.1	44.0	43.8	43.3	43.3	42.9	42.7
Italy <sup>c</sup> .....	8.08	8.00	8.00	7.92	7.87	7.88	7.92	7.92	7.83	7.80
Luxembourg .....	..	..	..	..	..	44.8	43.9	44.6	45.0	44.0
Malta <sup>a</sup> .....	47.0	47.0	46.5	46.5	46.8	46.2	46.2	46.2	45.3	44.2
Netherlands .....	46.5	46.5	46.6	46.1	46.1	46.1	45.3	45.3	45.1	44.2
Norway										
Men <sup>b</sup> .....	38.5	38.6	38.4	38.7	38.3	38.1	37.8	36.7	35.6	35.3
Women .....	34.3	34.2	34.3	34.5	34.0	33.9	33.1	32.3	31.6	30.9
Spain .....	43.5	44.6	44.8	44.2	44.4	44.4	44.1	44.1	44.1	44.1
Sweden <sup>d</sup> .....	165	165	163	162	161	161	158	155	152	..
Switzerland <sup>a</sup> .....	45.8	45.6	45.5	45.4	44.9	44.8	44.7	44.6	44.7	44.7
United Kingdom										
Men .....	46.8	46.2	46.8	46.9	46.1	45.0	45.3	45.8	45.7	44.9
Women .....	39.6	39.3	39.6	39.3	38.6	38.0	38.0	38.2	37.9	37.7
Australia <sup>a</sup>										
Men .....	..	..	42.8	43.4	..	43.5	43.7	43.7	44.1	44.0
Women .....	..	..	39.5	39.7	..	39.4	39.3	39.3	39.8	39.7
New Zealand .....	40.2	40.2	40.5	40.7	40.7	40.6	40.2	40.2	40.5	40.4

Source: ILO, *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, 1971, Thirty-first issue (Geneva, International Labour Office), table 13A, pp. 467-469.

<sup>a</sup> Hours paid for.

<sup>b</sup> Including mining and quarrying.

<sup>c</sup> Hours per day.

<sup>d</sup> Hours per month.

correspondingly conducive to poorer average mental health. Moreover, in each occupational category the better-satisfied individuals enjoy better mental health than those less satisfied. Finally, the satisfied in lowest-level jobs have mental-health scores similar to those of workers in higher jobs, and the dissatisfied among skilled and high semi-skilled workers tend to resemble the lower-skill groups (this last for middle-aged only). The evidence as a whole accords with the hypothesis that gratifications and deprivations experienced in work and manifested in expressions of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction constitute an important determinant of workers' mental health. Our interpretation is that job conditions impinge on working people's wants and expectations to produce satisfactions and frustrations which in turn give rise to favourable or unfavourable perceptions of self-worth, opportunities for self-development, and

prospective gratification of needs. These effects are reflected in the occupational mental-health differences revealed in our assessments.<sup>28</sup>

52. A more recent survey of working conditions, based on a larger and more diversified sample, also questioned respondents about job satisfaction and mental health. The results, like Kornhauser's, reveal a correlation between job satisfaction and mental health,<sup>29</sup> and between job satisfaction and mental health on the one hand and

<sup>28</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 89.

<sup>29</sup> The University of Michigan, Survey Research Center, *Survey of Working Conditions* . . . , p. 67.

TABLE IV.18

Percentage of manufacturing workers at work for 49 hours per week or more in selected developed market-economy countries, 1961-1970

	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
Austria .....	4.1	8.5	7.4	8.0	7.9	7.7	6.7	6.9	7.3	..
France .....	17.4	..	18.6	17.7	15.8	..	13.9	12.6	11.3	9.0
Israel <sup>a</sup> .....	3.7	..	3.7	4.0	4.1	3.9	4.0	3.9	4.2	5.2
United States of America <sup>b</sup> .....	13.9	14.2	14.7	14.8	15.6	15.6	15.2	15.7	14.8	13.3

Source: ILO, *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, 1971, Thirty-first issue (Geneva, International Labour Office), table 13C, pp. 514-516.

<sup>a</sup> Base: 50 hours per week.

<sup>b</sup> Non-agricultural workers.

TABLE IV.19

## Developed market-economy countries: accident rates by country and industry, 1961-1970

	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	Code
<i>Mining and Quarrying</i>											
United States of America .....	0.53	0.61	0.58	0.53	0.53	0.52	0.51	0.66	0.48	0.51	I/d
Israel .....	0.67	2.67	0.66	1.14	0.29	0.48	0.23	1.25	0.44	..	II/b
Japan .....	0.69	0.65	1.60	0.65	1.26	0.72	0.59	0.74	0.57	0.69	I/d
Austria .....	0.53	0.93	0.54	0.81	0.78	0.66	0.50	0.39	0.42	..	I/c
Belgium .....	0.98	0.93	1.13	0.79	..	..	0.89	..	..	..	II/a
Finland .....	1.04	1.03	0.75	0.86	0.28	1.01	0.36	..	..	..	II/a
France .....	0.79	0.66	0.65	0.76	0.74	0.77	0.57	0.68	0.72	0.78	I/a
Germany, Federal Republic of .....	0.93	1.53	0.92	0.97	0.82	0.88	0.82	0.73	0.71	..	II/a
Ireland .....	1.31	1.83	0.76	1.01	1.30	1.11	1.08	1.02	0.47	0.67	I/b
Italy .....	0.68	0.62	0.55	0.58	0.44	0.50	0.45	0.45	0.47	..	II/a
Luxembourg .....	0.73	0.26	—	0.63	0.22	0.27	—	0.50	1.18	—	II/d
Norway .....	1.28	3.87	0.74	0.91	0.77	0.52	1.18	1.01	1.40	..	I/a
Spain .....	1.11	1.10	0.81	0.69	0.73	..	..	..	..	..	I/a
Sweden .....	0.49	0.45	0.34	0.38	0.30	0.40	0.31	0.59	..	..	II/d
United Kingdom .....	0.55	0.62	0.64	0.53	0.63	0.50	0.52	0.45	0.44	0.45	I/a
Australia .....	0.69	1.01	0.63	0.69	1.11	1.24	0.79	0.93	0.70	..	I/c
New Zealand .....	0.62	1.36	1.40	1.42	0.51	1.54	3.37	..	..	..	II/c
<i>Coal Mining</i>											
Canada .....	2.15	2.50	1.86	2.63	1.86	2.07	4.06	1.32	3.03	1.81	I/b
United States of America .....	1.13	1.14	1.10	0.94	1.02	0.93	0.90	1.30	0.84	1.00	I/d
Japan .....	0.79	0.77	2.12	0.81	1.70	0.91	0.67	0.89	0.67	0.85	I/d
France .....	0.74	0.63	0.59	0.70	0.78	0.79	0.58	0.63	0.64	0.76	I/a
Ireland .....	0.83	0.81	—	1.68	—	1.00	—	—	—	—	I/b
Netherlands .....	0.36	0.33	0.47	0.33	0.27	..	..	0.22	..	..	I/a
Spain .....	1.28	1.27	1.05	0.70	0.86	..	..	..	..	..	I/a
United Kingdom .....	0.54	0.61	0.64	0.53	0.62	0.50	0.50	0.44	0.43	0.43	I/a
Australia .....	0.65	1.24	0.46	0.53	1.11	1.24	0.76	0.79	0.10	..	I/c
New Zealand .....	0.49	1.56	1.09	0.83	—	0.89	6.40	..	..	..	II/c
<i>Manufacturing</i>											
Canada .....	0.15	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.16	0.15	0.12	0.12	0.13	0.10	I/c
United States of America .....	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.04	..	I/d
Israel .....	0.12	0.06	0.10	0.09	0.18	0.10	0.15	0.12	0.14	..	II/b
Japan .....	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	I/d
Austria .....	0.34	0.33	0.33	0.32	0.37	0.31	0.36	0.33	0.28	..	I/c
Belgium .....	0.19	0.18	0.14	0.16	..	..	0.13	..	..	..	II/a
Finland .....	0.25	0.17	0.24	0.11	0.13	0.12	0.12	..	..	..	II/a
France .....	0.12	0.13	0.10	0.10	..	..	..	..	..	..	I/c
Germany, Federal Republic of .....	0.20	0.20	0.18	0.19	0.18	0.20	0.20	0.16	0.17	..	II/a
Ireland .....	0.11	0.10	0.08	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.09	0.09	0.08	0.06	I/b
Italy .....	0.20	0.17	0.14	0.19	0.15	0.11	0.10	0.10	0.10	..	II/a
Luxembourg .....	0.17	0.22	0.11	0.41	0.19	0.46	0.26	0.22	0.17	0.14	II/d
Malta .....	..	..	..	..	0.50	0.21	—	0.10	—	0.13	II/c
Netherlands .....	0.16	0.20	0.16	0.19	0.19	..	..	0.04	..	..	I/a
Norway .....	0.10	0.10	0.11	0.05	0.12	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.09	..	I/a
Spain .....	0.13	0.09	0.10	0.09	0.10	..	..	..	..	..	I/a
Sweden .....	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.04	0.05	..	..	II/d
Switzerland .....	0.19	0.20	0.19	0.18	0.19	0.17	0.18	0.18	0.18	..	II/a
United Kingdom .....	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	I/c
New Zealand .....	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.07	0.06	..	..	..	..	II/a
<i>Construction</i>											
Canada .....	1.42	1.15	1.29	1.31	1.25	1.20	0.96	0.95	1.03	0.79	I/c
United States of America .....	0.18	0.28	0.21	0.24	0.28	0.18	0.19	0.16	0.19	..	I/d
Israel .....	0.23	0.27	0.28	0.21	0.31	0.30	0.14	0.32	0.47	..	II/b
Japan .....	0.53	0.44	0.34	0.38	0.39	0.38	0.29	0.31	0.21	0.23	I/d
Finland .....	0.45	0.56	0.48	0.31	0.33	0.05	0.63	..	..	..	II/a
Germany, Federal Republic of .....	0.56	0.51	0.46	0.48	0.51	0.46	0.50	0.47	0.40	..	II/a
Ireland .....	..	0.12	0.11	0.09	0.09	0.20	0.14	0.09	0.09	0.16	I/b
Italy .....	1.00	0.89	0.91	0.88	0.82	0.69	0.74	0.73	0.70	..	II/a
Malta .....	..	..	..	..	0.15	0.43	0.41	0.30	—	0.08	II/c

TABLE IV.19 (continued)

	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	Code
<i>Construction (continued)</i>											
Netherlands .....	..	0.33	0.32	0.35	0.33	..	..	0.23	..	..	I/a
Norway .....	0.44	0.44	0.35	0.45	0.44	0.47	0.43	0.27	0.23	..	I/a
Spain .....	0.44	0.34	0.36	0.36	0.36	..	..	..	..	..	I/a
Sweden .....	0.13	0.12	0.10	0.12	0.11	0.09	0.12	0.09	..	..	II/d
Switzerland .....	0.77	0.81	0.71	0.70	0.84	0.79	0.61	0.65	0.72	..	II/a
United Kingdom .....	0.22	0.22	0.20	0.21	0.14	0.21	0.16	0.19	0.22	0.19	I/c
New Zealand .....	0.39	0.19	0.26	0.19	0.17	0.24	..	..	..	..	II/a
<i>Railways</i>											
Canada .....	0.27	0.27	0.25	0.33	0.27	0.31	0.30	0.31	0.34	0.19	I/c
United States of America .....	0.11	0.13	0.14	0.16	0.15	0.14	0.15	0.14	0.16	0.16	I/d
Japan .....	0.10	0.10	0.07	0.08	0.06	0.07	0.06	0.07	0.06	0.04	I/d
Austria .....	0.36	0.35	0.31	0.40	0.32	0.35	0.32	0.25	0.33	..	I/c
Belgium .....	0.26	0.11	0.19	0.16	0.14	0.07	0.11	0.34	0.13	0.14	II/b
Finland .....	—	0.53	0.19	0.05	0.05	0.28	0.10	..	..	..	I/a
France .....	0.27	0.27	0.25	0.24	0.25	0.23	0.21	0.19	0.13	..	I/c
Germany, Federal Republic of .....	0.35	0.30	0.35	0.38	0.30	0.29	0.26	0.27	0.38	..	II/a
Ireland .....	—	0.47	0.69	0.19	0.38	0.59	0.19	0.19	—	0.40	I/c
Italy .....	0.34	0.34	0.29	0.21	0.26	0.18	0.13	0.10	0.21	0.20	II/c
Netherlands .....	0.21	0.44	0.37	0.10	0.14	0.25	0.33	0.19	0.27	0.44	I/a
Norway .....	0.22	0.14	0.18	0.14	0.10	0.34	0.20	0.15	0.34	0.30	I/c
Sweden .....	0.13	0.08	0.08	0.10	0.08	0.06	0.09	0.16	..	..	II/d
Switzerland .....	0.62	0.69	0.48	0.40	0.34	0.47	0.44	0.43	0.46	..	II/a
United Kingdom .....	0.38	0.29	0.29	0.26	0.31	0.23	0.27	0.21	0.28	..	I/b
New Zealand .....	0.42	0.71	0.21	0.65	0.50	0.67	0.16	..	..	..	II/a

Source: ILO, *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, 1971, Thirty-first issue (Geneva, International Labour Office), table 26, pp. 721-732.

Code:

I: Reported accidents.

II: Compensated accidents.

a: Rates per 1 000 man-years of 300 days each.

b: Rates per 1 000 wage earners (average numbers).

c: Rates per 1 000 persons employed (average numbers).

d: Rates per 1 000 000 man-hours worked.

occupation on the other.<sup>30</sup> Moreover, job content is related both to job satisfaction and mental health. Non-repetitive jobs, jobs requiring skills, jobs providing autonomy—all are more conducive to job satisfaction and to greater mental health.<sup>31</sup> But the results of the survey, it should be said, are much less dramatic than Kornhauser's; the within-group variations are surprisingly large relative to the variations over groups of workers. In part, the survey results probably reflect over-wide occupational categories that blur job-content distinctions. And to some extent there are, of course, factors other than job content that determine job satisfaction and mental health. Finally, the summary presentation of the data in bi-variate form may simply obscure a stronger relationship between the variables at issue that would assert itself in a multi-variate analysis.

53. As long as ordinary production workers believe that technology, bureaucracy or the employers' power leaves them no chance to use their abilities, they are disposed to acquiesce in their own impotence. When ordinary workers are not allowed to participate, the effects of their importance on job satisfaction and mental health show up in high labour turnover, absenteeism, and such random acts as "wild-cat" strikes. In the long run, the developed market economies are learning the central

importance to the stability of the pyramidal hierarchy of the workers' acquiescence, which can be secured only through their participation.<sup>32</sup>

54. Abraham Maslow suggested<sup>33</sup> plausibly 30 years ago that human needs are ordered hierarchically from physiological needs such as food and needs for safety and physical security, to emotional needs for love, esteem, and finally "self-actualization", which is the need "to become everything that one is capable of becoming".<sup>34</sup> The higher needs—love, esteem, and "self-actualization"—can in Maslow's view come into play only after more basic needs are met, a view not very different from the one expressed by Berthold Brecht in the refrain, "*Erst kommt das Fressen, dann kommt die Moral*" ("First food, then morality"). It follows from this view that the better the developed market economies succeed in fulfilling the basic needs of food, shelter, and protection against the hazards and dangers of nature and the economy, the

<sup>32</sup> For examples of some recent action in this regard in France, see E/CN.4/1011/Add.20, pp. 2-5. See also the competence and scope of activities of the Austrian "Chamber of Labour" as they appear in the Austrian Government's reply to the questionnaire sent out by the Special Rapporteur.

<sup>33</sup> A. H. Maslow, "A theory of human motivation", *Psychological Review*, vol. 50, 1943, pp. 370-396, reprinted in V. H. Vroom and E. L. Deci, eds., *Management and Motivation* (London, Penguin Books Ltd., 1970), pp. 27-41.

<sup>34</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 33.

<sup>30</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 78.

<sup>31</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 391-400.



more prominent will emotional needs become in people's lives. Not all of these, of course, relate to the focus of our concern in the present study. To return to Maslow, no one expects his work place to satisfy his need for love, but it seems that even esteem and self-actualization have no place in the work role of the ordinary worker.

#### F. Trade union rights

55. As part one of the present study shows in regard to constitutional provisions, in almost all the countries concerned, employees of civilian status are by law and in fact guaranteed the right to join and form trade unions, though in "white-collar" employment in the private sector management is on the whole still reluctant to recognize unions. Thus, recognition of trade unions and collective bargaining machinery and the exercise of the right to strike seem to be well established in nearly all the developed market-economy countries. Of course, South Africa is a notorious exception so far as the rights of blacks, Asians and the so-called "Coloured" are concerned.

56. In most of the countries with developed market economies, various types of action have been undertaken in past years to encourage workers' participation in negotiations and improved and extended collective agreements. In the United Kingdom, for instance, in 1969 a Commission on Industrial Relations was established to encourage improved collective agreements and to deal with questions of trade union recognition. It was intended to introduce legislation under which an employer could be compelled to recognize and negotiate with any union recommended for this purpose by the Commission on Industrial Relations.<sup>35</sup> A further proposal was the addition to the law of the principle that no employer has the right to prevent an employee from belonging to a union. This principle was to become part of all contracts of employment, and legislation was to provide that any stipulation contrary to it would be null and void in law.<sup>36</sup>

57. As already pointed out, in the great majority of these countries the right to strike is in practice recognized as meaning basically a right to withdraw labour in combination. Exceptions are made in many countries in regard to the armed forces, law enforcement agencies and essential services.

<sup>35</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.2, pp. 24 and 25.

<sup>36</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 25. At the time of writing, it was not clear whether the modifications of the law reported by the United Kingdom Government in 1969 as envisaged had in fact been carried out.

58. The 1970 *Report on the World Social Situation* included the following comment on the situation in western European countries:

Improved levels of living and the pressure of mass media have conditioned a considerable part of the western European population, including the historically revolutionary working class, to find satisfaction with existing conditions and to visualize change mainly in terms of further personal material improvement and gratification. With only a few exceptions, one of the traditional instruments of working class struggle for collective improvement—the militant political grouping based on personal participation in party life and decision-making—has fallen into disuse or has become transformed into a self-perpetuating organization of professional politicians. The other main instrument of working-class action, namely, the trade-union movement, has also tended to become heavily bureaucratized, with its activities confined to the useful but undramatic function of periodic meetings with the representatives of management in order to reach agreements concerning the division of benefits from rising industrial production. For millions of workers, the living-room with its enthroned television receiver has replaced the union hall and the political club, and spectator participation in competitive sports has diverted some of the energies that formerly went into traditional forms of political activity.

Nevertheless, various socio-economic groups continue to suffer deep dissatisfactions. These groups include migrant workers, alien to the places where they live and work, and discriminated against on grounds of national or regional prejudice; small farmers, squeezed between rising costs and the gradual creation of industrial farming serving multinational markets; and small businessmen, afflicted by heavy competition from large businesses. . . .

Traditional ways of bringing the views of dissatisfied groups to general attention and of settling grievances have proved largely ineffective under current conditions. Political parties and other mass organizations have in some important aspects become less and less responsive to popular demands, and this had led the dissatisfied groups to experiment with unorthodox ways of making their complaints and wishes known. Where such groups are active in the production process, disruption by means of strikes remains the most important technique of protest. However, lack of empathy among the leadership of labour organizations, with respect to protests emanating from the base, often causes such demonstrations to take irregular forms such as unofficial "wild-cat" strikes in industry, in which *ad hoc* representatives elected directly by the workers may take positions contrary to those of the official union leaders. "Strikes" by small farmers, over unsatisfactory prices for agricultural products, were in the past usually limited to the interruption of deliveries and destruction of perishable produce, but on a number of recent occasions they have been expressed in the form of general traffic interdictions in the areas concerned.<sup>37</sup>

<sup>37</sup> 1970 *Report on the World Social Situation* . . . , pp. 123 and 124.

## Chapter III

### EQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY

59. It is said that the system prevailing in the countries with developed market economies comes reasonably close to a "meritocracy" and that while larger prizes go to the winners, at least the race is fair; everybody has more or less an equal chance. It is important to analyse this claim in any survey of the realization of economic and social rights, for it is presumably to guarantee equality of "chances in life" that the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and its ancillary instruments have included lower-level education, as well as access to higher education and job promotion on the basis of competence, in their enumeration of fundamental human rights.

#### A. Social mobility

60. The claim that there is equality of opportunity in these countries is often supported by studies on the extent of social mobility. Such studies generally show that, to the extent that social class can be identified with occupation, no social class is self-perpetuating, and that occupational mobility is of interest as an index of equality of chances in life.

61. All in all, there are two conclusions that emerge from studies that have been carried out in the United States of America. First, "short-distance" mobility—mobility from one occupational group to a nearby one—is very frequent, especially in the middle range of occupations. Second, the top (professional) and bottom (labourer) groups are more stable than the middle groups. This is a pattern that mobility studies in several of the leading developed market economies of Europe tend to confirm.

62. Although the studies that have been carried out in the various European countries are not directly comparable, they do suggest a disproportionate access to elite jobs for the sons of the élite.

63. Comparable studies made at different times in a single country were not available, so it was not possible to assess trends in mobility rates.

64. The European developed market economies on which data are available, as well as the United States of America, do show evidence of considerable occupational mobility, particularly short-distance mobility.

#### B. The role of education

65. Equality in education is of obvious importance. As might be expected, educational inequalities are greater in the peripheral countries of southern Europe than in the most economically advanced nations, although it is fair to say that in virtually every country there has been steady progress in extending education at all levels. At the time of the present study, indeed, every country

with a developed market economy has compulsory free education of at least six years' duration, and most of them considerably longer. What is more impressive still, the laws appear to be rigorously enforced in practically every country. The exceptions are Spain and Portugal, where only three quarters and five sixths, respectively, of the population of primary-school age attended school, according to the latest information. The situation in South Africa is, as is to be expected, totally different; the realities of the policy of *apartheid* deny decent educational opportunities to African, Asian and "Coloured" children, whose chances in life are consequently not even a fraction of those of children of European descent. The relevant figures are reported by UNESCO.<sup>38</sup> Secondary education is in general neither compulsory nor in fact universal, though it is clear that here too great increases in enrolment have been registered since the Second World War.

66. In almost all the countries with developed market economies—the glaring exception being South Africa—substantial progress has been made in opening up higher education since the Second World War. Sweden offers a notable example of such progress; whereas in 1947 children from a working-class background comprised only 8 per cent of university students, by 1956/57 the percentage had risen to 15 per cent, and in 1967 the figure was approximately 20 per cent.

67. Educational inequality is particularly pronounced with respect to two factors which can only be touched upon in this discussion of chances in life; these are sex and race. The number of girls and boys in primary schools is now roughly the same in the developed market-economy countries, but there are many more young men than young women who receive a higher education.<sup>39</sup> In the United States of America, negroes are still under-represented in institutions of higher learning, though their position, in this respect also, has improved in the last two decades.

68. Much evidence, as well as considerable popular opinion, suggests that inequality in education is the most important means by which occupational selection takes place, and hence the most important means by which advantages and disadvantages are transmitted from generation to generation.

69. It is difficult to escape the conclusion that education is important, but hardly all-important, as a determinant of social class. As education becomes universalized, educational achievement will no longer be the distinguishing mark of an élite, even if the importance of education lies primarily in cognitive skills. It may be that at a particular period of time education is the dominant

<sup>38</sup> UNESCO, *Statistical Yearbook 1969* (Paris, 1970), table 2.12.

<sup>39</sup> *Ibid.*, table 2.5.

determinant of occupation and conditions of life, but not at others. If the process of economic development entails a marked increase in the proportion of professional and élite jobs, then education may be both necessary and sufficient for high status and income. In the past half century, the shift from agricultural to non-agricultural pursuits, the expansion of the public sector of the economy and, more recently, the introduction of large numbers of foreign workers have all contributed to the multiplication of élite jobs for nationals of developed market-economy countries.

70. It is the imbalance between demand and supply, and not the intrinsic value of educational credentials, that has made education the passport to success and helped to bring the chances in life of those in the lower social strata close to the chances of those in the higher social strata.

### C. The role of family circumstances

71. At the present time, it is fair to say that in the developed market economies education is more or less necessary for economic and social success but increasingly less than adequate to guarantee status and income. Whatever the exact role of education, however, it is evident that family background, parents' income and fathers' occupations and education play an important, if not decisive, role in determining children's success.

72. It is certainly true that grants and loans afford a means of mitigating the benefits conferred by parental income and wealth, by making available to all the advantages offered by higher education. As in other areas, Sweden is relatively advanced in its system of financial assistance to students. University students who show "a certain aptitude for study" qualify for financial assistance of approximately \$2 000 per year.<sup>40</sup> This undoubtedly has played a large part in opening Swedish universities to working-class children.

73. There are, of course, advantages afforded by favourable economic and social circumstances during the years before young people even reach university age. Clearly, money does not necessarily buy happiness, but it does buy a home environment more suitable for preparation for university. One of the most crude and basic factors to be considered is that of space, and in particular space for quiet academic pursuits. Although housing, like much else in Sweden, is probably more equally distributed than in most other countries, a Swedish study discovered that almost one half of working-class homes with children under 16 were overcrowded; not uninhabitable, to be sure, but overcrowded in the sense that there were more than two persons per room (not counting the living-room and kitchen). By contrast, only about one fifth of middle-class homes with children under 16 were similarly overcrowded, and only 4 per cent of the homes of the élite social classes.<sup>41</sup>

74. But probably much more important are the many intangible advantages that money and status afford children. Surrounded by books and the trappings of

culture, raised in an environment of self-confidence engendered by success, and normally expected by their parents to enter high-status occupations, the children of middle-class and upper-class parents learn more easily the life-style of success—the speech, manners and attitudes that appear to be at least as important as intellectual aptitude in shaping future success.

### D. Limits to the equalization of opportunity

75. It is not clear how far the effects of inequality of opportunity could be removed by equalizing those background variables (like education) subject to direct governmental control, or even by equalizing the economic background of children. Sociologists like Peter Blau and Otis Duncan have gone to great pains to stress the large component of success that is not explained by economic, social, status and ability variables.<sup>42</sup> More recently, Christopher Jencks and his associates at the Harvard School of Education have elaborated this theme, stressing "that inequality is recreated anew in each generation, even among people who start life in essentially identical circumstances".<sup>43</sup>

76. To say the very least, this overstates the case considerably. There is, to be sure, great mobility, whether measured by income or occupational status correlation, between generations; but mobility appears to be much greater in the middle of the spectrum than at the two ends. Reliance on summary measures of correlation for the whole spectrum, like the proportion of total variance "explained" by background variables, can easily obscure the distinct advantages of the élite and the distinct disadvantages of those at the bottom of the social scale. Moreover, regional disparities, differences between lifetime income gradients in different careers, variations in work time, and other variables obviously have an enormous impact on income inequalities. And until the influence of education, intelligence and family are analysed in a model which takes these variables into full account—something no one has yet attempted—it may be premature to claim that inequality is created anew in each generation rather than transmitted from generation to generation.

77. Family background appears to remain an important determinant of chances in life no matter how much progress might be made in opening up education by removing fees and providing grants and loans for study. Some further progress towards equalizing those chances might be made by equalizing the economic circumstances of children; however, this could not be done without creating conditions leading to the removal of wide income and wealth disparities. There are reasons to doubt that education is as general a means to mobility as it appears to have been in the past half century. And many of the advantages that better situated families afford their children are only indirectly economic, particularly the cultural and behavioural advantages.

78. As stated in a UNESCO study:

Entering the educational process is a child with a cultural heritage,

<sup>40</sup> A.J. Gilderson and E. Marshall, *Social Benefits in Sweden: 1972* (Stockholm, Trygg Hansa, 1972), pp. 7 and 8.

<sup>41</sup> Sweden, Arbetsgruppen för Låginkomstfrågor (Working Group on Low-Income Questions), *Kompendium om Låginkomstutredningen* (Compendium of Low-Income Studies) (Stockholm, 1971), p. 130.

<sup>42</sup> P.M. Blau and O.D. Duncan, *The American Occupational Structure* (New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1967), chap. 5, p. 163 *et seq.*, and O.D. Duncan, "Ability and achievement", *Eugenics Quarterly*, vol. 15, No. 1 (Chicago, Ill., University of Chicago Press, March 1968), pp. 1–11.

<sup>43</sup> C. Jencks *et al.*, *Inequality: A Reassessment of the Family and Schooling in America* (New York, Basic Books, 1972), p. 8.

with particular psychological traits, bearing within him the effects of his family environment and surrounding economic conditions. And, involved in continual education, we have the adult—producer, consumer, citizen, parent—and a happy or unhappy creature.

...  
Societies in our time have the experience and the existing or potential resources required (but we do not underestimate the difficulties involved) to help man fulfil himself in every possible

way—as agent of development and change, promoter of democracy, citizen of the world, author of his own fulfilment—and to help him find his path through reality towards the ideal of the complete man.<sup>44</sup>

---

<sup>44</sup> UNESCO, *Learning To Be: The World of Education Today and Tomorrow* (Paris, UNESCO, and London, Harrap, 1972), pp. 157 and 158.



## Chapter IV

### SOCIAL SECURITY<sup>45</sup>

79. The social security systems of the developed market-economy countries are without doubt one of their most impressive features, although the impressiveness is not uniform. The basic outlines of the social security system in general antedate the Second World War, but all countries have updated and revised their systems in the post-war years. Table IV.20 gives the years in which various social security programmes were first initiated and table IV.21 the breakdown of social security expenditures in selected countries with developed market economies.

#### A. Family allowances

80. The most important post-war revision of social security systems has been the introduction of family allowances. Among the major developed market-economy countries, only the United States of America has not adopted this instrument for providing "protection and assistance . . . to the family". Instead, the United States allows a tax exemption for each dependant (including

wife and each child), the value of which varies directly with taxable income.

81. Countries differ as far as both the amounts and the steepness of the payment gradient with respect to the number of children are concerned. France, the Federal Republic of Germany and Norway have steep gradients. A French family qualifies for an allowance of approximately F85 per month for the second child, F145 for the third and the fourth, and F130 for the fifth and each additional child. There is in France an additional allowance for families in which there is only one wage earner. For each child (from the first one) under two years, the "single-wage" allowance is just under F100. For each child over two years, the supplementary allowance is F40. In the Federal Republic of Germany, low-income families qualify for DM25 monthly for the second child, and all families qualify for DM60 for the third and fourth, and DM70 for the fifth and each additional child. In Norway, the scale runs from NKr500 annually for the first child to NKr1 500 for the second, NKr2 000 for the third, NKr2 200 for the fourth, and NKr2 400 for the fifth and each additional child.

82. By contrast, Italy, Denmark and Sweden pay a fixed amount for each child, regardless of the number of children. In Italy, the rate per child is Lit68 640 per year, in Denmark the basic rate is DKr1 124 per year and in Sweden it is SKr1 200. Thus, a Swedish family with two

<sup>45</sup> The data given in this chapter, other than those in the relevant tables, refer to the year 1971 unless otherwise stated. The source of the figures, unless otherwise indicated, is: United States of America, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Social Security Administration, Office of Research and Statistics, *Social Security Programs throughout the World, 1971: Research Report No. 40* (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971).

TABLE IV.20  
Dates on which the first statutory social security schemes were set up in  
selected developed market-economy countries

<i>Country</i>	<i>SM</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>OH</i>	<i>U</i>	<i>FA</i>
Australia . . . . .	1912	1908	1900	1944	1941
Austria . . . . .	1854	1854	1888	1920	1948
Belgium . . . . .	1844	1884	1903	1920	1930
Canada . . . . .	1935	1927	1902	1940	1944
Denmark . . . . .	1892	1891	1898	1907	1952
Finland . . . . .	1963	1937	1895	1917	1943
France . . . . .	1928	1885	1898	1905	1932
Germany, Federal Republic of .	1883	1889	1884	1927	1954
Greece . . . . .	1926	1922	1914	1945	1958
Iceland . . . . .	1936	1890	1903	1936	1946
Sweden . . . . .	1891	1913	1901	1934	1947
Switzerland . . . . .	1911	1916	1911	1924	1952
United Kingdom . . . . .	1911	1908	1897	1911	1945
United States of America . . . . .	1965	1935	1908	1935	*

*Source:* G. Perrin, "Reflections on fifty years of social security", *International Labour Review*, vol. 99, No. 3 (Geneva, International Labour Office, March 1969), pp. 285-287.

NOTE. SM = Sickness or maternity benefit schemes.

P = Invalidity, old-age and survivors' pension schemes.

OH = Schemes of protection against occupational hazards.

U = Unemployment benefit schemes.

FA = Family allowances schemes.

\* = No statutory social security scheme under this particular heading.

TABLE IV.21

**The structure of social security benefits (percentages) in selected developed market-economy countries, 1960**

Country	Health and welfare <sup>a</sup>	Employment injuries	Family allowances <sup>b</sup>	Unemployment	Pensions <sup>c</sup>	War victims
Austria .....	23.2	2.8	12.4	3.7	51.8	6.1
Belgium.....	35.1	4.6	17.6	7.1	29.8	5.8
Denmark.....	36.2	3.1	5.8	4.6	49.9	0.4
Finland .....	34.7	3.2	17.5	0.1	39.0	5.5
France.....	24.8	5.4	28.6	0.2	33.0	8.0
Germany, Federal Republic of.....	27.6	3.6	3.1	1.5	55.7	8.5
Ireland.....	38	2	13	8	39	—
Italy.....	19.1	3.0	18.8	—	50.1	9.0
Netherlands .....	29.6	2.5	18.0	1.6	47.4	0.9
Norway .....	42.4	2.9	8.5	2.6	42.3	1.3
Sweden .....	42.7	1.1	14.1	1.3	40.6	0.2
Switzerland.....	47.2	8.3	0.7 <sup>d</sup>	0.3	43.5	—
United Kingdom .....	49.7	1.9	5.2	1.3	38.3	3.6
Canada .....	30.3	3.7	16.9	13.2	27.6	8.3
United States of America..	21.6	4.6	—	9.5	48.9	15.4

Source: *Incomes in Postwar Europe: A Study of Policies, Growth and Distribution (Economic Survey of Europe in 1965, part 2)* (United Nations publication, Sales No. 66.II.E.14), chap. 6, table 6.9.

<sup>a</sup> Including sickness insurance, public health, public assistance, school meals.

<sup>b</sup> Includes household help, mothers' pensions, rent allowances.

<sup>c</sup> Old-age, invalidity and survivors' pensions, including old-age homes and pensioners' homes.

<sup>d</sup> Only federal family allowances are included.

children would receive an allowance of SKr2 400 per year, approximately \$480, while the corresponding family in the Federal Republic of Germany would receive \$100 or less.

83. The pattern of difference between various countries changes when income differences are taken into account. A French family with two children, one of them under two years, qualifying for the single-wage supplement, would receive an annual allowance of approximately F2 700, or \$530, approximately 10 per cent more than the corresponding Swedish family. But for a working-class family, the allowance would represent about double the increment relative to wage income for the French family as for the Swedish, since French wages average about half of Swedish wages.

84. In the more advanced countries, there is little selectivity in the payment of family allowances. There is neither an income ceiling nor a "means test", though at least one country (Denmark) has provision for supplementary grants in case of need. The peripheral countries of southern Europe—Portugal, Spain, Italy, and Greece—either exclude agricultural workers and domestic servants from coverage altogether or provide a separate, probably inferior, system of coverage for them. European countries do not in general discriminate between their own citizens and aliens as long as the aliens are resident, but, as indicated in chapter V below, there is considerable discrimination against foreign workers whose children remain abroad. South Africa excludes its black, as well as its Asian and "Coloured", population entirely from coverage. In nearly all these countries, family allowances, like other social security benefits, are subject to regular review and revision to meet changes in the cost of living. In the United Kingdom, for instance, family allowances are reported to have increased several times within the last decade. The Government reports that this has been done "particularly as there is a strong indication that the

more extreme cases of poverty are to be found in the families with most children".<sup>46</sup>

### B. Old-age pensions

85. In other areas of social security, the primary thrust in the post-war years has been in the direction of the extension of existing programmes. Italy, for example, had by 1966 included its entire economically active population in some sort of old-age pension scheme, compared with 47 per cent in 1955. For Austria, the figures are 77 per cent in 1965 and 59 per cent in 1955. Similarly, Japan increased the percentage of the economically active population covered from 36 per cent to 89 per cent between 1960 and 1966. Portugal also managed by 1965 to include 45 per cent of the economically active population in some form of old-age pension scheme, as against 25 per cent in 1957. The most advanced countries, as table IV.22 shows, had already reached virtually complete coverage in 1955.

86. Of course, the quality of these programmes differs markedly from country to country. Most combine a basic pension with a graduated pension proportional to previous earnings, but the relative emphasis on the minimum benefit and the portion that varies with income differ greatly. At one extreme, the United Kingdom currently allows old-age pensioners a basic minimum of £260 (approximately \$650) per year, together with a graduated pension that works out to about one quarter to one third of average earnings for workers with 40 years of work experience in the salary range of £465 to £1 560 per annum before retirement. At the other extreme, the Federal Republic of Germany pays no basic pension but a pension that could be as high as 75 per cent of assessed wages, "assessed wages" being computed by determining

<sup>46</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.2, p. 31.

TABLE IV.22

The coverage of statutory pension insurance schemes in selected developed market-economy countries

Country	Year	Number of insured persons (in thousands)	Number of insured persons as a percentage of the estimated total economically active population
Austria .....	1955	1 938	59
	1965	2 544	77
France .....	1955	18 390	94
	1964	20 540	100
Federal Republic of Germany .....	1955	20 370	84
	1967	25 791	93
Israel .....	1956	560	90
	1965	870	99
Italy .....	1955	9 701	47
	1966	19 985	100
Japan .....	1960	15 880	36
	1966	43 349	89
Portugal .....	1957	834	25
	1965	1 593	45
United Kingdom .....	1955	21 990	90
	1965	21 830	85
United States of America ..	1955	57 700	87
	1965	67 800	85

Source: ILO, *Poverty and Minimum Living Standards: the Role of the ILO* (Report of the Director-General, part 1) (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1970), p. 33.

the ratio of earnings to the national average over the period of coverage and multiplying this ratio by the average national wage over the three years preceding the claim. Sweden, not surprisingly, provides both a high minimum pegged to the cost of living, equal to SKr5 760 (or \$1 150) in 1971, and a supplementary pension with a maximum of 60 per cent of average annual covered earnings in excess of SKr6 400.

87. Most countries (the Federal Republic of Germany is an exception) provide supplements for spouses and some even for dependent children. In the United States of America, the social security scheme was expanded in 1967 by the adoption of an amendment to the 1966 "Medicare" programme liberalizing the cash benefits available under the old age, survivors and disability programmes. Monthly beneficiaries on the rolls received an average increase in benefits of 13 per cent. Monthly benefits now range from a minimum of \$55 to a maximum of \$218 for a single worker or \$434.40 payable to a family. Among other changes, a new category of beneficiary was added and disabled widows or widowers may now receive survivor benefits at age 50 years. The age for receiving widow's benefits—although at a reduced rate—was lowered to 60.

88. Most countries in principle treat resident aliens on precisely the same basis as their own citizens, although most impose some restriction on aliens desiring to return with their pensions to their own countries. South Africa, in keeping with its policies of *apartheid*, has a system of old-age pensions attuned to skin colour, the maximum allowances being R38 per month for whites, R18 for "Coloured" and Asians, and R5.75 for Africans. All pensions in South Africa are subject to a means test, with the means sufficient to prevent a white from qualifying set at R640 per year, as against R300 for an Asian or Coloured, and R99 for an African.

89. The treatment of widows of pensioners and older workers is surprisingly uniform, at least in view of the diversity that reigns throughout most social security programmes. In general, a widow receives 50 to 60 per cent of her husband's pension, with Sweden, the other Nordic countries, and the United Kingdom—each maintaining a universal pension system along with an employment-related system—providing a substantially higher fraction for widows of low-wage earners.

### C. Unemployment insurance

90. All of the leading developed economies provide some sort of unemployment insurance, and even the less advanced countries have introduced at least rudimentary coverage in the post-war period, the single exception being Portugal. Israel had, by 1971, enacted a law providing for contributions, but had not yet enacted a law providing for benefits. Agricultural workers are regularly excluded from coverage in both the more advanced and the peripheral countries, and coverage is by no means adequate, certainly not in the countries with the highest unemployment rates. A sum equal to 50 per cent of wages is a typical unemployment benefit rate, though the exact amount varies significantly from country to country.

91. In the United States of America, for example, benefits average about 50 per cent of wages, but in some states they average less than one third. Table IV.23 shows that over the years the ratio of benefits to average covered wages has fallen sharply since the 1930s, when unemployment insurance legislation was first enacted.

92. Moreover, insured unemployment in the United States appears to be about one third of total unemployment. Table IV.24 shows that, in some states, insured unemployment is not more than one fifth of the total. The President's Commission on Income Maintenance Programs concludes that the reasons why such a small fraction of unemployment is insured reflect badly on public policy in the United States.<sup>47</sup> Agricultural workers and employees of firms processing agricultural products, as well as new entrants and re-entrants into the labour force, are exempted, and these are among the most vulnerable groups. Another obstacle is that rights to benefits are generally based on a record of employment during something like four out of the previous five quarter-year periods. Indeed, some states base coverage on a flat amount of earnings, which does not favour the low wage earners, who require proportionately more work time to establish their eligibility under the flat amount system. In addition, workers who leave their jobs voluntarily or for misconduct, and workers who refuse "suitable" work or are involved in labour disputes are not eligible for unemployment compensation. Finally, all states impose a maximum benefit duration, which varies from state to state. In some states it is a uniform 26 weeks, but more typically it is shorter, with the effective maximum dependent on the worker's past earnings or employment experience. Among those who exhausted this benefit in 1968, the average duration was 21 weeks. During periods of sharp recession, the national Government has, however, extended the maximum benefit period.

<sup>47</sup> This discussion of unemployment benefits in the United States of America is based on: United States, President's Commission on Income Maintenance Programs, *Background Papers*, pp. 178–190.

TABLE IV.23

United States of America: maximum weekly benefit amount in unemployment insurance schemes,  
by state, in 1939, 1963, and 1968

	Maximum weekly benefit amount 1939		Maximum weekly benefit amount Jan. 1, 1963 <sup>a</sup>		Maximum weekly benefit amount Dec. 31, 1968 <sup>a</sup>	
	Amount in dollars	Percentage of average weekly covered wage	Amount in dollars	Percentage of average weekly covered wage	Amount in dollars	Percentage of average weekly covered wage
Alabama.....	15	85	32	40	44	41
Alaska.....	16	45	45-70	30-47	55-80	31
Arizona.....	15	61	35	35	50	41
Arkansas.....	15	94	30	44	44	50 <sup>c</sup>
California.....	18	59	55	49	65	46
Colorado.....	15	61	48-60 <sup>b,c</sup>	50-62 <sup>c</sup>	56	60 <sup>c</sup>
Connecticut.....	15	55	45-67	44-65	60-90	52 <sup>c</sup>
Delaware.....	15	56	50	46	55	40
District of Columbia...	15	58	49 <sup>c</sup>	50 <sup>c</sup>	60	48 <sup>c</sup>
Florida.....	15	81	33	34	40	36
Georgia.....	15	85	35	45	45	43
Hawaii.....	15	81	55	65	68	61 <sup>c</sup>
Idaho.....	18	83	44 <sup>c</sup>	52½ <sup>b</sup>	53	52½ <sup>c</sup>
Illinois.....	16	55	38-59	35-55	42-70	33
Indiana.....	15	57	36	35	40-52	33
Iowa.....	15	65	30-44	43-47	55	50 <sup>c</sup>
Kansas.....	15	66	45 <sup>c</sup>	50 <sup>b</sup>	53	49 <sup>c</sup>
Kentucky.....	15	71	40	47	49	46½ <sup>c</sup>
Louisiana.....	18	88	35	40	45	42
Maine.....	15	74	34	43	49	50 <sup>c</sup>
Maryland.....	15	63	38-46	42-51	56	51
Massachusetts.....	15	57	30 <sup>d</sup>	43 <sup>d</sup>	54	47 <sup>d</sup>
Michigan.....	16	53	30-55	26-48	46-76	31
Minnesota.....	15	62	38	40	50	47
Mississippi.....	15	96	30	44	30	41
Missouri.....	15	60	40	42	53	42
Montana.....	15	59	34	39	34	39
Nebraska.....	15	65	34	37	44	44
Nevada.....	15	56	37.50-57.50	34-62	43-63	36
New Hampshire.....	15	72	40	49	54	49
New Jersey.....	15	55	50	47	62	47 <sup>c</sup>
New Mexico.....	15	70	36	39	40	50
New York.....	15	49	50	47	65	46
North Carolina.....	15	87	35	48	42	50
North Dakota.....	15	69	36	45	49	50
Ohio.....	15	54	42-53	40-50	47-66	34
Oklahoma.....	15	61	32	36	38	33
Oregon.....	15	52	40	42	49	45
Pennsylvania.....	15	60	40	42	60	49
Puerto Rico.....	e	e	16	36	33	50 <sup>c</sup>
Rhode Island.....	16	69	36-48	43-57	53-73	50 <sup>c</sup>
South Carolina.....	15	98	25 <sup>c</sup>	50 <sup>c</sup>	46	50 <sup>c</sup>
South Dakota.....	15	68	33	38	41	42
Tennessee.....	15	77	32	40	42	44
Texas.....	15	65	37	41	45	38
Utah.....	16	67	45 <sup>c</sup>	50 <sup>c</sup>	51	50
Vermont.....	15	67	41 <sup>c</sup>	50 <sup>c</sup>	53	50
Virginia.....	15	73	34	42	48	44
Washington.....	15	56	42	40	42	31
West Virginia.....	15	60	32	33	47	40 <sup>c</sup>
Wisconsin.....	15	55	52 <sup>c</sup>	52½ <sup>c</sup>	63	52 <sup>c</sup>
Wyoming.....	18	77	49-55 <sup>c</sup>	55-62 <sup>c</sup>	51	50 <sup>c</sup>

Source: United States of America, President's Commission on Income Maintenance Programs, *Background Papers*, p. 181.

<sup>a</sup> When two amounts are given, the higher includes the maximum allowance for dependants; Alaska, Ohio, and Wyoming limit the maximum weekly benefit amount paid to interstate claimants.

<sup>b</sup> The maximum is increased 25 per cent for claimants with specified five-year earnings records and no benefits received.

<sup>c</sup> The maximum is determined periodically at a specified percentage of the average wage in covered employment.

<sup>d</sup> The maximum augmented payment is not shown, since such augmentation is limited only by the claimant's average weekly wages.

<sup>e</sup> No provision for unemployment insurance under Federal-State programmes.



TABLE IV.24

## United States of America: total unemployment and insured unemployment, by state, in 1968

	Total unemployment		Insured unemployment		Uninsured unemployment	
	Number in thousands	Rate	Number in thousands	Rate	Number in thousands	As percentage of total unemployment
United States.....	3 114	3.8	1 110.6	2.2	1 997.4	64.3
Alabama.....	57	4.6	17.1	2.6	39.9	70.0
Alaska.....	9	9.2	3.6	8.2	5.4	60.0
Arizona.....	22	3.7	7.1	2.3	14.9	67.7
Arkansas.....	31	4.4	10.3	2.8	20.7	66.8
California.....	367	4.6	177.6	3.7	189.4	51.6
Colorado.....	25	3.0	4.0	0.9	21.0	84.0
Connecticut.....	50	3.8	22.5	2.4	27.5	55.0
Delaware.....	8	3.2	2.7	1.7	5.3	66.2
District of Columbia.....	27	2.3	4.2	1.2	22.8	84.4
Florida.....	70	2.9	20.4	1.6	49.6	70.9
Georgia.....	63	3.5	12.8	1.3	50.2	79.7
Hawaii.....	9	2.9	4.0	1.9	5.0	55.6
Idaho.....	12	4.3	4.5	3.2	7.5	62.5
Illinois.....	150	3.0	47.6	1.5	102.4	68.3
Indiana.....	68	3.2	19.3	1.4	48.7	71.6
Iowa.....	30	2.5	7.3	1.3	22.7	75.7
Kansas.....	23	2.7	5.7	1.4	17.3	75.2
Kentucky.....	44	3.9	14.2	2.5	29.8	67.7
Louisiana.....	67	4.8	16.9	2.4	50.1	74.8
Maine.....	16	4.2	6.4	2.9	9.6	60.0
Maryland.....	46	3.2	15.4	1.8	30.6	66.5
Massachusetts.....	103	4.1	48.1	2.9	54.9	53.3
Michigan.....	155	4.7	55.9	2.4	99.1	63.9
Minnesota.....	51	3.1	14.8	1.7	36.2	71.0
Mississippi.....	37	4.6	7.4	2.1	29.6	80.0
Missouri.....	69	3.4	24.0	2.1	45.0	65.2
Montana.....	13	4.7	3.7	3.1	9.3	71.5
Nebraska.....	16	2.5	3.5	1.3	12.5	78.1
Nevada.....	11	5.0	4.9	3.8	6.1	55.5
New Hampshire.....	5	1.8	1.6	0.9	3.4	68.0
New Jersey.....	133	4.6	61.1	3.3	71.9	54.1
New Mexico.....	19	5.2	4.8	2.8	14.2	74.7
New York.....	285	3.5	137.2	2.5	147.8	51.9
North Carolina.....	70	3.3	20.7	1.7	49.3	70.4
North Dakota.....	10	4.1	2.4	3.0	7.6	76.0
Ohio.....	126	2.9	35.3	1.3	90.7	72.0
Oklahoma.....	36	3.6	10.1	2.3	25.9	71.9
Oregon.....	39	4.4	15.8	3.2	23.2	59.5
Pennsylvania.....	157	3.2	69.4	2.1	87.6	55.8
Puerto Rico.....	93	11.6	30.6	7.2	62.4	67.1
Rhode Island.....	14	3.7	8.5	3.1	5.5	39.3
South Carolina.....	45	4.5	10.0	1.8	35.0	77.8
South Dakota.....	8	3.0	1.4	1.6	6.6	82.5
Tennessee.....	61	3.8	21.9	2.5	39.1	64.1
Texas.....	118	2.7	19.5	0.9	98.5	83.5
Utah.....	21	5.2	6.3	3.1	14.7	70.0
Vermont.....	7	3.7	2.4	2.5	4.6	65.7
Virginia.....	48	2.7	6.5	0.7	41.5	86.5
Washington.....	59	4.3	25.9	3.3	33.1	56.1
West Virginia.....	41	6.5	11.2	3.2	29.8	72.7
Wisconsin.....	64	3.5	21.1	1.9	42.9	67.0
Wyoming.....	6	4.1	1.0	1.6	5.0	83.3

Source: United States of America, President's Commission on Income Maintenance Programs, *Background Papers*, p. 180.

#### D. Medical, sickness, disability, and maternity benefits

93. With regard to medical, sickness, disability, and maternity benefits, again, the picture varies greatly from country to country. Some countries have special systems for agricultural workers, others include agricultural workers in the general coverage. Some limit maternity benefits to 6 weeks before and after childbirth. Others

grant maternity benefits for 14 weeks (France and the Federal Republic of Germany), 18 weeks (United Kingdom), 21 weeks (Italy, for industrial workers) and even 26 weeks (Sweden). The amounts of sickness, disability and maternity benefits vary also.

94. In France, cash sickness and temporary disability benefits of between 50 and 66 per cent of earnings are

paid, depending on the length of the illness or disability and the number of children. In addition, approximately 75 per cent of the medical costs of illness are reimbursed for the insured and dependants as well, and 100 per cent of work-injury medical costs. Permanent disabilities receive disability pensions that vary with the severity of the disability and the previous level of wages. For 100 per cent disabilities, there is provision for pensions equal to 100 per cent of the previous year's wages, with an additional provision for a "constant attendance" supplement of 40 per cent, if necessary. Maternity benefits were paid at a rate of 90 per cent of earnings in 1971, up to a maximum of F49.50 per day.

95. The Federal Republic of Germany has a similar system. Sickness and temporary disability and maternity benefits are higher, however: 100 per cent of wages for maternity and the first six weeks of illness or disability, with subsequent periods covered at the rate of 75 per cent. Medical care and medicines are provided free or at minimal cost to insured persons and their dependants. Partial permanent disability is insured according to loss of earning capacity, and total disability is covered at the rate of two thirds of the latest year's earnings (up to DM2 000 per month), and supplements are provided for minor children, as well as for constant attendance.

96. In the United Kingdom, medical benefits are part of the National Health Service, in which membership is open to all. There are no charges for doctor's services and minimal charges for dental treatment, dentures, eye glasses, and medicine. Maternity benefits are paid at the flat rate of £5 per week, with supplemental allowances for dependants. Sickness and temporary disability benefits add one third of wages between £9 and £30 per week to the basic benefits of £5 (for sickness) and £7.75 (for disability). There are also supplementary allowances for dependants. Permanent disability benefits range up to £13.40, with dependants' supplements and constant attendance allowances extra.

97. The Swedish system combines partial reimbursement of medical costs with cash benefits that vary with income. Hospital treatment is free; some medicines are available free and some at half price; patients pay SKr7 for office visits and SKr15 for house calls, which works out respectively to about 18 and 33 per cent of the total cost. Cash benefits for sickness, temporary disability, and maternity begin at SKr6 for housewives and the lowest-income groups, and are supplemented at a rate equal to about 25 per cent of wage income up to a total of SKr52 per day. Supplementary family allowances are available. Permanent disability pensions are paid according to the seriousness of the disability. The maximum is  $\frac{11}{12}$  of earnings, up to SKr22 000 per year, plus a constant attendance supplement of up to 30 per cent of the base amount.

98. South Africa excludes those Africans employed as agricultural workers and domestic servants and those earning less than R546 per annum from most sickness and maternity arrangements and discriminates against all Africans as far as permanent disability pensions are concerned. Non-Africans receive sickness and maternity benefits ranging between 26 and 75 per cent of earnings, the amount varying inversely according to wage bracket. Total disability is compensated by a pension of 75 per cent of earnings, up to R200 per month, for non-Africans. Africans receive much lower benefits, the lowest-paid workers (earning up to R40 a month) receiving a lump

sum equivalent to 48 months' earnings. There is no provision for medical benefits, except for work injury.

99. In the United States of America, sickness and maternity benefits exist in only five states, and government provision of medical benefits is as yet non-existent, except for the elderly and workers injured on the job. Under "Medicare", those over 65 receive 90 days of in-patient hospital care for each illness, the patient paying the first \$60 and \$15 daily after 60 days. Post-hospital nursing-home care is provided for an additional 100 days, with the patient paying \$7.50 daily after 20 days. "Medicare" pays 80 per cent of "reasonable charges" for doctors' services. Work-related disability insurance exists in all states, with payments ranging between 60 and 66 per cent of earnings, up to a maximum between \$40 and \$150 per week.

100. In short, the Governments of the leading developed market-economy countries, with the exception of that of the United States of America, in one way or another, through publicly supported programmes, protect most of their population against the hazards of illness and disability. For instance,

Canada in 1958 adopted a national hospital insurance plan for Canadians of all age groups. While the plan was a subject of much public discussion, it had the approval of every important health association, including the Canadian Medical Association. All provinces and territories now have hospital insurance programmes in operation and about 99 per cent of the Canadian population is insured for hospital care benefits. Under the Medical Care Act, passed in December 1966 but not made effective until July 1968, the Federal Government contributes approximately 50 per cent of the cost of provincial medical insurance plans and it is expected that by the end of 1970 all provinces will be participating in the plan. The federal commitment to contribute half the costs is contingent upon the medical insurance plan of each province meeting certain minimum criteria related to the comprehensiveness of the insured services, the universality of the coverage, portability of benefits and operation of the plan on a non-profit basis by a public authority.<sup>48</sup>

In the United States of America,

medical care for the majority of the people is provided by physicians in private practice on a fee basis. Similarly, health insurance is provided primarily by private health insurance companies but nearly 40 per cent of enrolments are in plans operated by non-profit organizations. Nearly all persons aged 65 and over (about 20 million) are protected by Medicare, while about half of these persons have, in addition, complementary private insurance protection against expenses not covered by Medicare. At the end of 1969, among those under the age of 65, 81.3 per cent had insurance for hospital care, 78.8 per cent had insurance for surgical services, 69.6 per cent had insurance for services of physicians in the hospital and 47.9 per cent had insurance for prescribed drugs outside the hospital.<sup>49</sup>

It may be added that another major programme also came into being in the United States in 1966. This is the "Medicaid" programme, which

provides grants to States to administer medical assistance programmes that benefit: (a) the needy—all public assistance recipients in the federally-aided categories, including the aged, the blind, the disabled and families with dependent children, and those who would qualify for that assistance under federal regulations; (b) at the State's option, the medically needy and people in the four groups mentioned . . . above who have enough income or resources for daily needs but not for medical expenses; and (c) all children under 21 whose parents cannot afford medical care. All States were required

<sup>48</sup> 1970 Report on the World Social Situation . . . , p. 133.

<sup>49</sup> Ibid.

to set up Medicaid programmes by 1 January 1970, or forgo federal funds for medical assistance... given under public assistance grants.<sup>50</sup>

101. According to table IV.25, which reflects the situation as it was several years ago, the proportion of the population for which medical benefits in kind were provided exceeded three quarters in many countries. The figures on coverage for cash sickness benefits are somewhat more out of date, but in the same countries in 1960, as table IV.26 shows, a somewhat lower percentage of people generally were eligible for cash sickness benefits.

<sup>50</sup> *Ibid.*

TABLE IV.25

Percentage of population covered by medical insurance in selected developed market-economy countries<sup>a</sup>

Country	Percentage of population
Austria .....	71
Belgium.....	79
Denmark.....	97
Finland .....	100
France.....	88
Germany, Federal Republic of .....	87
Iceland .....	94
Italy .....	88
Japan.....	98
Luxembourg.....	97
Netherlands .....	75
New Zealand .....	100
Norway.....	100
Sweden .....	100
United Kingdom .....	100

Source: F. Paukert, "Social security and income redistribution: a comparative study", *International Labour Review*, vol. 98, No. 5 (Geneva, International Labour Office, November 1968), table V, p. 437.

<sup>a</sup> Relates to protection for medical care in the event of sickness under statutory schemes covering at least one major category of employed persons and to the situation in 1964 or 1965, with the exception of Austria, Denmark and Iceland (1962), and Finland (1967).

TABLE IV.26

Percentage of economically active population protected for cash sickness benefit<sup>a</sup> in selected developed market-economy countries

Country	Percentage of economically active population protected
Austria .....	67
Belgium.....	60
Finland .....	100
France.....	76
Germany, Federal Republic of .....	85
Ireland.....	61
Italy .....	36
Japan.....	50
Luxembourg.....	66
Netherlands .....	61
Norway.....	84
Sweden .....	100
Switzerland.....	87
United Kingdom .....	87

Source: F. Paukert, "Social security and income redistribution: a comparative study", *International Labour Review*, vol. 98, No. 5 (Geneva, International Labour Office, November 1968), table VI, p. 438.

<sup>a</sup> Relates to the situation for the latest available year; for most countries, 1960; for Ireland, 1957.

102. This description of various social and health security protection programmes, though brief and sketchy, may serve to illustrate the major points relative to an appreciation of the realization of economic and social rights. First, there has been considerable progress since the nineteenth century, when workers generally had only their own resources and public charity to fall back upon during periods of unemployment, ill health, and old age, as well as for the support of their children. Second, progress has been uneven in the developed market economies. The peripheral countries have lagged behind the more advanced countries of Europe and, among the leading countries, there are differences in approach, as well as in the systems for protection against natural and economic hazards.

## E. Social security and income redistribution

103. It must be understood that, whatever their virtues, social security systems remain primarily a means of effectuating horizontal transfers within categories of individuals who command roughly equal amounts of resources over their lifetime. As economists might put it, social security is a means of wiping out negative transitory components in income so that actual income corresponds reasonably closely to "permanent" income. Viewed in this way, the social security system is the answer to the individual's inability to anticipate the future and to lay up financial resources against unemployment, ill health, and old age. Social security is also a means of transferring income from the childless to families with children, in order to spread the costs of child rearing over the entire population.

104. The horizontal thrust of the transfer mechanism implicit in most social security systems is clear, but the extent of vertical redistribution is obscured in a statistical fog. The Confédération générale du travail did not need to limit the applicability of its observation to France when it stated that

The essential element of French social policy may be summarized as a series of transfers of funds: from the active population to the young and the old, from workers to those deprived of employment... from single people to heads of families, and perhaps from the rich to the poor.<sup>51</sup>

The problem of calculating how much vertical transfer exists is a complicated one for several reasons. First of all there is the question of the relevance of data. Many studies that seem to show that substantial vertical redistribution does take place rely on the fact that at a given moment in time, a disproportionately high proportion of the income of lower-income classes consists of social security benefits. But this is not clear evidence of vertical redistribution. A temporarily disabled Swedish civil servant may be classified in a low-income bracket during the period of his disablement, but the real redistribution appears to be from the able-bodied civil servants to the disabled, one between people in the same income brackets. It does not appear to be a redistribution from "rich" to "poor". The problem is that in distinguishing vertical from horizontal transfers, the relevant variable is not a short-run concept like income, but a long-run one like wealth or lifetime

<sup>51</sup> CGT-Force Ouvrière, "Le budget social de la nation", *Force Ouvrière Informations, Bulletin mensuel*, No. 118 (July 1962), quoted in A. Schorr, *Social Security and Social Services in France* (Washington, D.C., United States Government Printing Office, 1965), p. 5.

**TABLE IV.27**  
**Social security contributions in selected developed market-economy countries, 1960**  
*(In percentages)*

Country	Financing of social security (Total receipts = 100)				Employees' contributions as a percentage of personal primary income
	Contributions		General government	Other sources	
	Employers	Employees			
Austria .....	50.5	24.4	20.6	4.5	5.3
Belgium.....	41.5	18.5	31.4	8.7	3.6
Denmark <sup>a</sup> .....	10.6	14.9	74.0	0.5	2.1
Finland .....	36.7	9.0	47.6	6.7	1.2
France .....	61.5	15.4	19.8	3.3	3.0
Germany, Federal Republic of .	41.2	24.9	26.1	7.9	6.0
Ireland <sup>a</sup> .....	21.2	5.0	72.8	1.0	0.6
Italy .....	59.0	11.9	23.0	6.1	2.4 <sup>b</sup>
Netherlands .....	39.2	40.3	12.7	7.7	7.1
Norway <sup>a</sup> .....	26.5	31.7	40.0	1.7	5.4
Sweden <sup>c</sup> .....	11.0	20.5	66.9	1.6	3.3
Switzerland.....	23.8	32.9	27.4	16.0	4.3
United Kingdom <sup>d</sup> .....	17.0	18.9	59.2	4.9	2.8

Source: *Incomes in Postwar Europe: A Study of Policies, Growth and Distribution (Economic Survey of Europe in 1965, part 2)* (United Nations publication, Sales No. 66.II.E.14), chap. 6, table 6.4.

<sup>a</sup> Fiscal year 1959/60.

<sup>b</sup> Estimate by the ECE secretariat.

<sup>c</sup> Personal primary income includes depreciation allowances of unincorporated enterprises.

<sup>d</sup> Fiscal year 1960/61.

earnings. There do not seem to be studies that examine transfers in such long-run terms.

105. Moreover, the redistribution consequences of the provision of social security cannot be analysed by looking at the distribution of benefits alone. It is necessary to examine the method of payment and the resulting distribution of costs as well. Since employers' and employees' direct contributions to social security schemes are in general proportional to income or regressive, the greater the reliance on direct contributions, the less the vertical redistribution. Thus, as table IV.27 shows, Austria, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Italy and the Netherlands would appear on this account to pursue a markedly less (vertical) redistributive policy than Denmark, Sweden, Ireland, and the United Kingdom. For a given amount of general government contribution,

the greater the share of transfers financed by direct taxes, particularly by taxes on households, the more vertical the redistribution is, for in general direct taxes on households are the most progressive. Thus, for this reason too, France, according to table IV.28 once again would appear to exert a relatively small (vertical) redistributive thrust, and the Nordic countries a relatively large redistributive thrust.

106. Benefit systems are in most countries more regressive than first appearances would indicate. Equi-proportional allowances, for example, when they are tax-free, are in fact regressive in nature as long as higher income groups are taxed at higher rates.

107. A detailed country-by-country study of both tax and benefit systems would be necessary for a final judgement on vertical redistribution. A step in the right

**TABLE IV.28**  
**Breakdown of tax receipts in selected European countries, 1953-1964**  
*(In percentages)*

Country and period	Tax receipts as percentage of GNP at market prices	Share in total tax receipts of:				
		Direct taxes			Social security contributions	Indirect taxes
		Total	Paid by households	Other		
<i>Austria</i>						
1953-1955 .....	30.6	38.7	31.7	7.0	17.9	43.4
1956-1958 .....	30.8	35.4	28.1	7.3	19.9	44.6
1959-1961 .....	31.3	33.9	26.7	7.2	20.1	46.0
1962-1964 .....	34.2	34.4	27.2	7.2	20.7	44.9
<i>Belgium</i>						
1953-1955 .....	22.5	33.2	26.0	7.2	23.1	43.8
1956-1958 .....	23.7	31.2	24.3	6.9	24.8	44.1
1959-1961 .....	25.4	29.9	23.7	6.2	24.6	45.5
1962-1964 .....	27.9	29.7	23.6	6.1	26.7	43.5



TABLE IV.28 (continued)

Country and period	Tax receipts as percentage of GNP at market prices	Share in total tax receipts of:				
		Direct taxes			Social security contributions	Indirect taxes
		Total	Paid by households	Other		
<i>Denmark</i>						
1953-1955 .....	23.2	47.7	41.6	6.1	6.0	46.3
1956-1958 .....	24.6	47.6	42.3	5.3	5.7	46.7
1959-1961 .....	25.2	45.6	41.0	4.6	5.8	48.5
1962-1964 .....	27.4	45.5	41.1	4.4	5.2	49.3
<i>Finland</i>						
1954-1955 .....	26.9	41.8	28.2	13.6	9.6	48.6
1956-1958 .....	29.1	41.9	28.2	13.7	8.2	49.9
1959-1961 .....	27.1	40.0	28.7	11.3	9.4	50.6
1962-1964 .....	27.7	41.7	30.9	10.8	10.6	47.7
<i>France<sup>a</sup></i>						
1953-1955 .....	32.6	15.6	9.7	5.9	32.5	51.9
1956-1958 .....	33.5	17.1	10.2	6.9	33.1	49.8
1959-1961 .....	34.5	18.1	11.1	7.0	33.8	48.1
1962-1964 .....	36.5	16.4	10.8	5.6	36.2	47.4
<i>Germany, Federal Republic of</i>						
1953-1955 .....	32.7	30.3 <sup>b</sup>	20.7 <sup>c</sup>	9.6 <sup>c</sup>	24.6 <sup>c</sup>	45.1
1956-1958 .....	32.5	28.0 <sup>b</sup>	18.5	9.5	27.9	44.0
1959-1961 .....	34.0	28.9 <sup>b</sup>	19.9	9.0	28.5	42.6
1962-1964 .....	35.2	31.2 <sup>b</sup>	23.1	8.1	27.9	40.9
<i>Ireland</i>						
1953-1955 .....	21.4	23.6	14.5	9.1	4.8	71.6
1956-1958 .....	22.6	21.6	13.6	8.0	4.6	73.9
1959-1961 .....	22.1	21.0	14.3	6.7	5.3	73.6
1962-1964 .....	23.3	24.6	15.7	8.9	6.7	68.7
<i>Italy</i>						
1953-1955 <sup>d</sup> .....	25.6	19.5	..	..	29.1	51.4
1956-1958 .....	27.3	21.0	..	..	29.6	49.4
1959-1961 .....	28.4	20.7	..	..	31.3	48.0
1962-1964 .....	30.7	19.9	..	..	35.4	44.7
<i>Netherlands</i>						
1953-1955 .....	27.8	42.7	29.6	13.1	16.7	40.6
1956-1958 .....	29.5	42.5	30.4	12.1	23.1	34.3
1959-1961 .....	30.3	40.7	30.3	10.4	26.6	32.7
1962-1964 .....	32.0	39.1	30.7	8.4	29.6	31.3
<i>Norway</i>						
1953-1955 .....	29.3	44.7	32.6	12.1	9.1	46.3
1956-1958 .....	31.3	44.8	35.4	9.4	10.2	45.0
1959-1961 .....	32.8	38.5	32.0	6.5	17.0	44.5
1962-1964 .....	34.6	38.1	33.4	4.7	19.3	42.5
<i>Sweden</i>						
1953-1955 .....	27.5	63.0	50.7	12.3	4.4	32.6
1956-1958 .....	29.6	59.2	46.9	12.3	8.2	32.6
1959-1961 .....	31.6	53.6	45.4	8.2	11.5	34.9
1962-1964 .....	35.9	49.6	43.5	6.1	15.3	35.1
<i>Switzerland</i>						
1953-1955 .....	18.7	42.9	34.2	8.7	22.5	34.6
1956-1958 .....	19.0	43.1	33.5	9.6	22.1	34.8
1959-1961 .....	19.8	42.5	32.9	9.6	22.7	34.8
1962-1964 .....	21.1	43.3	32.9	10.4	22.3	34.3
<i>United Kingdom</i>						
1953-1955 .....	29.0	41.8	23.8	18.0	10.5	47.7
1956-1958 .....	28.3	41.1	25.7	15.4	11.5	47.4
1959-1961 .....	28.1	39.5	27.9	11.6	13.3	47.2
1962-1964 .....	29.1	38.9	28.9	10.0	14.7	46.4

Source: *Income in Postwar Europe: A Study of Policies, Growth and Distribution* (Economic Survey of Europe in 1965, part 2) (United Nations publication, sales No. 66.II.E.14), chap. 6, table 6.1.

<sup>a</sup> From 1958 onwards, new revised series.

<sup>b</sup> Including other current transfers from corporations to general government.

<sup>c</sup> Estimate by the ECE secretariat.

<sup>d</sup> 1955 only.

TABLE IV.29

Total short-term social security benefits<sup>a</sup> as a percentage of earnings in selected European countries

Category by assumed earnings	Austria		France		Federal Republic of Germany		United Kingdom	
	Gross benefits <sup>b</sup>	Net benefits <sup>b</sup>	Gross benefits <sup>b</sup>	Net benefits <sup>b</sup>	Gross benefits <sup>b</sup>	Net benefits <sup>b</sup>	Gross benefits <sup>b</sup>	Net benefits <sup>b</sup>
<b>75 per cent of reference earnings</b>								
Single man .....	6.33	-11.35	8.89	-21.22	7.05	-5.19	4.50	1.33
Man and wife .....	9.70	-7.67	15.01	-15.10	9.68	-2.58	8.25	5.08
Man/wife/2 children .....	27.48	10.22	42.38	12.27	13.46	1.22	16.71	13.54
Man/earning wife .....	7.67	-9.44	10.46	-19.65	7.92	-4.47	6.37	2.48
<b>100 per cent of reference earnings</b>								
Single man .....	4.95	-10.78	7.86	-22.09	5.47	-4.17	3.39	1.02
Man and wife .....	7.55	-7.84	12.54	-17.41	7.55	-2.09	6.23	3.86
Man/wife/2 children .....	21.00	5.69	33.16	3.21	10.40	0.76	12.58	10.21
Man/earning wife .....	6.21	-9.82	8.94	-21.07	6.52	-4.29	4.80	1.87
<b>150 per cent of reference earnings</b>								
Single man .....	3.42	-9.94	5.93	-14.01	3.87	-3.07	2.26	0.67
Man and wife .....	5.21	-7.93	9.12	-10.82	5.38	-1.56	4.15	2.56
Man/wife/2 children .....	14.19	1.05	22.90	2.96	7.30	0.36	8.38	6.79
Man/earning wife .....	4.57	-9.49	6.91	-17.02	4.78	-3.35	3.20	1.25
<b>200 per cent of reference earnings</b>								
Single man .....	2.56	-9.25	4.76	-10.23	3.06	-2.52	1.69	0.48
Man and wife .....	3.91	-7.68	7.18	-7.81	4.29	-1.29	3.11	1.90
Man/wife/2 children .....	10.65	-0.94	17.52	2.53	5.75	0.17	6.30	5.09
Man/earning wife .....	3.56	-9.02	5.47	-12.77	3.77	-2.71	2.39	0.93

Source: *Incomes in Postwar Europe: A Study of Policies, Growth and Distribution (Economic Survey of Europe in 1965, part 2)* (United Nations publication, Sales No. 66.II.E.14), chap. 6, table 6.21.

<sup>a</sup> Short-term benefits include family allowances, medical care, maternity benefits, sickness benefits, death grants, employment injury, and unemployment insurance

benefits. 100 per cent of reference earnings is the average annual full-time rate of earnings of either male or female wage- and salary-earners, excluding agriculture and the armed forces, in the spring of 1965.

<sup>b</sup> Net benefits are equal to the difference between gross benefits and (employer and employee) contributions.

## EXPLANATORY NOTE

For short-term benefits in the four countries selected, estimates of average annual benefits for each type of benefit have been made. These benefits have been calculated at four different national wage/salary levels. These four earnings levels are described as percentages of "reference earnings": 75 per cent, 100 per cent, 150 per cent and 200 per cent. Thus, 100 per cent of reference earnings is the appropriate average annual full-time rate of earnings of adult male, or female, wage- and salary-earners, excluding those in agriculture and the armed forces, in the spring of 1965. The figure is the gross average annual wage or salary before deduction of taxes or social security contributions. It does not include family allowances or any other state benefits. These earnings for male and female employees are as shown in table below.

The distinction between short-term benefits and pensions may not be as sharp as the terms suggest. For example, a pension element may occur in a sickness insurance scheme. In the United Kingdom, for example, sickness benefits are payable for an indefinite period. All sickness benefits are considered, however, for present purposes to be short-term benefits. Invalidity and survivors' pensions arising from employment injury have been included in short-term benefits. The reason is that, while benefits may be paid for a long period, the amount of benefit is generally related to earnings at the time of the injury or shortly before. Moreover, an employee becomes eligible for benefit after a relatively short period of membership; in the case of employment injury benefit, there is usually no qualifying period. Only general statutory social security schemes are taken into consideration here. As a rule, the same definitions apply as those used in the ILO inquiries into the cost of social security.

## Average annual wages and salaries for male and female employees

Country	Percentage of reference earnings			
	75	100	150	200
<b>Austria (Sch.)</b>				
Male .....	35 500	47 000	70 500	94 000
Female .....	22 000	29 500	44 500	59 000
<b>France (NF)</b>				
Male .....	9 250	12 300	18 450	24 600
Female .....	5 950	7 900	11 850	15 800
<b>Federal Republic of Germany (DM)</b>				
Male .....	8 250	11 000	16 500	22 000
Female .....	6 250	7 000	10 500	14 000
<b>United Kingdom (£)</b>				
Male .....	790	1 050	1 575	2 100
Female .....	375	500	750	1 000

direction has been taken by ECE, although only for a limited sample of countries and for a limited range of benefits. In table IV.29, net, as well as gross, short-term social security benefits at different levels of earnings in Austria, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, and the United Kingdom are compared. Of these four countries, only the United Kingdom can be said to exhibit

a clear pattern of vertical redistribution. Family allowances are apparently the chief instrument of horizontal redistribution in these countries' systems of social security.

108. Even in the absence of the requisite information for all countries, however, it is not too risky to hazard the guess that Sweden and Denmark have the largest degree

of vertical redistribution built into their systems, both because of the relatively generous levels of family allowance and basic old-age pensions and because of the relatively strong reliance on personal income taxes to finance their programmes.

109. However, it is considered by some observers that further improvement would appear to run into heavy political opposition from the *élite* and middle classes, at pains to maintain their income and status against the threat of "equality". Their support of social security

programmes thus far has, according to one informed observer, been bought by emphasizing horizontal rather than vertical transfers, and any reversal of the emphasis is likely to make for serious political difficulties.<sup>52</sup>

110. Sweden and Denmark unquestionably demonstrate the possibilities of reform and improvement which exist for the rest of the developed market economies.

---

<sup>52</sup> T. R. Marmor, "The conditions for future social policy: some political considerations", *International Institute for Labour Studies Bulletin*, No. 8 (Geneva, 1971), pp. 88-104.

## Chapter V

### FOREIGN WORKERS

111. The number of foreign workers today, particularly in Europe, is of such magnitude that no account of the realization of economic, social and cultural rights can be complete without a separate and unified evaluation of their status. In the present chapter, the only concern is to assess the extent to which foreigners enjoy economic, social and cultural rights on a par with nationals, and to attempt to assess the possibilities for improving the position of foreigners. This assessment is confined to the condition of foreign workers in some western European countries, since those countries have the only complete and up-to-date statistics on the subject. The question is, of course, a much broader one—a fact that should be borne in mind in any search for a solution.

112. In Europe, in only one country (Switzerland) do foreigners make up more than 10 per cent of the labour force; in France, the Federal Republic of Germany and Sweden, the figure ranges between 6 and 8 per cent. But these aggregates fail to reflect the true importance of foreign workers. In Switzerland, for example, where foreign workers make up about one sixth of the total, they are concentrated in unskilled work, "so much so that all Swiss now hold down skilled or semi-skilled jobs".<sup>53</sup> In Sweden, foreign workers make up hardly 6 per cent of the labour force, but they constitute 11 per cent of production process workers. In the Federal Republic of Germany, the over-all figure is not quite 8 per cent, but foreign workers constitute 20 per cent of the construction labour force and 13 per cent of manufacturing workers. Sectoral breakdowns for the Federal Republic of Germany and Sweden are summarized in table IV.30. In France, for which comparable figures are not available, the over-all picture appears roughly similar. A correspondent of the newspaper *Le Monde* recently estimated that foreigners constitute 20 per cent of the industrial work force, compared with 8 per cent of the over-all population.<sup>54</sup>

113. Recent history, as well as projections for the future, suggest an even more important role for foreign workers not only in the countries surveyed in this part of the present study but in many other regions of the world. Lessons that may be drawn from this chapter therefore serve other regions facing similar problems, though of smaller magnitude and different nature.

114. The United Kingdom and Switzerland took measures to limit immigration in the late 1960s. Between 1969 and 1971, the number of foreign workers in Sweden grew from 176 000 to 224 000, an increase of more than 25 per cent. During the same period the number of

foreign workers in the Federal Republic of Germany grew from 1 366 000 to 2 128 000, an increase of more than 50 per cent. The 1971 OECD survey of the Swedish economy quoted official Swedish projections which forecast that more than half the new workers added to the labour force between 1970 and 1975 would be foreign workers.<sup>55</sup> Also, in a United Nations survey of Europe, a shortage in the advanced countries of some 5 to 10 million workers by 1980, presumably to be met by immigration from the periphery, has been predicted. In relative terms, the shortfall is even more striking.<sup>56</sup> Increases in the domestic labour supply are expected to satisfy only one third to one half the projected increases in demand.

115. These workers, drawn from the periphery of the developed market economies—from Turkey, Greece, Italy and Yugoslavia to the Federal Republic of Germany; from Finland and increasingly from southern Europe to Sweden; from Spain, Portugal, Italy, North Africa, and the French-speaking countries of sub-Saharan Africa to France; from Ireland and the "coloured" Commonwealth countries to the United Kingdom—face basic problems on the economic, social and cultural levels that deserve particular consideration.

116. They tend to be as segregated, in the labour market as in the wider society in which they dwell. Though it may appear surprising, in view of the generally successful insistence of labour unions that foreigners be paid the same wages as nationals doing the same work, foreign labour is still cheap labour.<sup>57</sup>

117. The significance of the desire for mobility in the developed market economies cannot be over-emphasized. The contribution of foreign workers to the mobility of the host population is likely to increase over time, as the importance of the reserve of domestic agricultural workers recedes; thus the need for foreign workers will probably increase as times goes on. It is probably a fair generalization to say that in Europe today foreign workers are the single group most excluded from the full enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights. To say that their conditions would be worse had they not had the opportunity of finding a job or a higher paying job in these countries is to avoid the real issue.

118. With respect to economic rights, though foreign workers in principle earn equal wages for equal work,

<sup>55</sup> OECD Economic Surveys, *Sweden*, No. 8 (Paris, OECD, April 1971), pp. 12 and 13.

<sup>56</sup> For projections of demand for and supply of labour in the developed market-economy countries of Europe, see *Economic Survey of Europe in 1969*, part I (Structural trends and prospects in the European economy) (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.70.II.E.1), table 3.37.

<sup>57</sup> An article by M. Bosquet entitled "*Marchands d'esclaves*" in *Le Nouvel Observateur* (Paris, 31 July 1972) deals with this question.

<sup>53</sup> C.P. Kindleberger, "Mass migration, then and now", *Foreign Affairs*, vol. 43, No. 4 (New York, July 1965), p. 648.

<sup>54</sup> J.-P. Bumont, "New Deal for Immigrants", *Le Monde*, Weekly English edition, 23 September 1972.



TABLE IV.30

## Federal Republic of Germany and Sweden: foreign workers and total employment

## A. FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

Sector	Foreign workers <sup>a</sup>	Total employment <sup>b</sup>	Foreigners as percentage of total employment
	In thousands		
Farming, fishing, hunting, etc.....	22	2 200	1.0
Mining, energy production, etc.....	73	528	13.8
Processing industries.....	1 313	10 265	12.7
Construction and related.....	380	1 976	19.2
Trade and finance.....	112	3 869	2.8
Services (including government services).....	110	5 682	1.9
Transportation.....	49	1 493	3.2
TOTAL	2 169	26 013	8.3

## B. SWEDEN

Occupation	Foreign workers <sup>c</sup>	Total employment <sup>d</sup>	Foreign workers as percentage of total workers
	In thousands		
Professional, technical, administrative, clerical and related work . . . . .	26.9	1 214	2.2
Commerce . . . . .	3.4	348	1.0
Farming, fishing, lumbering, etc. . . . .	8.4	325	2.6
Mining, energy production, process work, etc. . . . .	138.9	1 241	11.2
Transport and communications . . . . .	9.5	247	3.8
Services . . . . .	35.0	48.3	7.2
Other . . . . .	2.1	4	52.5
TOTAL	224.1	3 866	

Source: Federal Republic of Germany, *Statistical Yearbook*, 1972; Government of Sweden, *Statistical Yearbook*, 1971; Government of Sweden, *Labor Force Surveys 1961-1969*.

<sup>a</sup> As at 30 June 1971.

<sup>b</sup> In April 1971.

<sup>c</sup> As at 1 July 1971.

<sup>d</sup> Total employed, ages 16-74 years, as at 1 August 1971; occupational composition in 1969.

they perform in general inferior work. And even the principle of equal pay for equal work is not honoured as it should be. Pierre Grandjeat, commenting on the difference between legality and reality, stated:

It is correct that workers recruited abroad according to official procedures sign, before their departure, a contract in which the basis of the calculation of their remuneration is clearly written, which they accept implicitly. But this legalistic picture must be touched up. In the first place, the possibility cannot be excluded that in certain cases the level of wages corresponds to a job which the candidate accepts, even though it corresponds to a lower position than he in fact qualifies for, because the corresponding remuneration exceeds what he could get in his own country. Besides, the stipulated wages are often, at the beginning, the minimum salary stipulated by legislation or union agreements. In a tight labour market, however, the national workers easily obtain a wage decidedly in excess of the theoretical wage level.<sup>58</sup>

This particular form of discrimination is most keenly felt by foreign workers who stay for only a short period. Grandjeat states that the foreign worker can certainly obtain parity after a year. But the discrimination is none the less real in spite of this qualification, especially in

countries that make a policy of maintaining a relatively rapid rate of replacement in the foreign labour force.

119. In no country are foreigners on a par with citizens with respect to "the right . . . to work which he freely chooses or accepts". Sweden appears to be the most liberal, but even there "unlimited rights to assume employment and establish residence" are conceded to non-Nordics only after two years.<sup>59</sup> In other continental countries, according to a survey made in 1965, the right to change occupation and residence requires previous residence of 5 to 13 years.<sup>60</sup> France has the most stringent requirements, 10 years of residence before a change of place of work (5 years for Greeks and Spaniards) and 13

<sup>59</sup> *Immigration and Immigration Policy in Sweden* (Stockholm, Swedish Institute, 1972), p. 3.

<sup>60</sup> This section draws heavily upon T. Stark, "Situation of migrant workers from countries of EEC as compared with that of workers from other countries" (prepared for the International Institute of Labour Studies Symposium on Migration for Employment in Europe, Geneva, 12-15 October 1965), reproduced in A.M. Rose, *Migrants in Europe* (Minneapolis, University of Minnesota Press, 1969), appendix B, pp. 166-173. In respect of the right to change occupation and residence, as in many other respects, Italians enjoy a preferential status in countries of the European Economic Community other than Italy, by virtue of Italian membership in the Community: they may change their residence or occupation after two years.

<sup>58</sup> P. Grandjeat, "Les migrations de travailleurs en Europe", *Cahiers de l'Institut international d'études sociales*, Cahier No. 1 (Paris, October-November 1966), p. 32.

years of residence before a change of occupation (10 years for Greeks and Spaniards).

120. Even when possessed of nominal rights to free choice of occupation, the foreigner generally finds himself at a severe disadvantage in practice. Both linguistic barriers and ethnic prejudices appear to play substantial roles in this discrimination, and though some countries—Sweden being again in the forefront—appear to be making efforts to overcome these barriers and prejudices, the situation still appears in all cases to be one of substantial inequality.

121. Foreigners suffer similar discrimination with respect to many aspects of social security. Policies differ greatly between countries even on the admission of the immigrant's family, which is presumably basic to its "protection and assistance", and most countries discriminate among different nationalities, according to bilateral agreements. In France, though government policy is to encourage the establishment of foreign families, at least for Europeans, this policy is not always carried out because of the housing shortage. Although, as has already been noted, foreign workers constitute 20 per cent of the industrial labour force, less than 7 per cent of low-cost housing is allocated to foreigners.<sup>61</sup> The Federal Republic of Germany and Switzerland seem to be less hospitable, officially, and the lack of housing reinforces the official policy. Sweden, by contrast, "does not issue work permits unless housing accommodation is also arranged" and "the spouse and minor children of a person holding a work permit are also entitled to live in Sweden".<sup>62</sup>

122. In the past even the countries of the European Economic Community have discriminated between their own nationals and immigrant workers with respect to family allowances, foreigners generally receiving reduced allowances or no allowance at all for their children left at home (though it would appear that most countries afforded equal treatment to resident children, regardless of nationality), but an agreement has recently been concluded between these countries, as noted in the *1970 Report on the World Social Situation*:

Reference was made in the *1967 Report on the World Social Situation* to the agreement between EEC countries concerning guaranteed freedom of migration within the Common Market area and the granting of equal rights to immigrants with regard to wages, social security, family allowances, housing entitlement and related matters. Preparations for implementing this agreement were made during 1968, by EEC authorities, and the agreement went into force at the end of that year. A further provision, establishing the right of any national of a Common Market country to remain permanently with his family in another country of the area, after having been employed there, is now in the process of enactment. The same right is guaranteed by the European Social Charter, an instrument adopted by the Council of Europe; this would appear to extend the right beyond the Common Market area, since the Governments that have ratified the Charter include six which are not members of the Common Market. In some instances, however, actual implementation of the immigrant workers' "right to remain" appears to have lagged behind proclaimed principles.

Now that immigrant workers' rights concerning equality of treatment under social security and family allowances programmes have been recognized, the EEC has turned its attention to problems of inequity in social security contributions, resulting from migration;

<sup>61</sup> J.-P. Bumont, "New Deal for Immigrants", *Le Monde*, Weekly English edition, 23 September 1972.

<sup>62</sup> *Immigration and Immigration Policy in Sweden* (Stockholm, Swedish Institute, 1972).

in many instances migrant workers contribute to the social security systems of at least two countries, but normally draw benefits from only one. Any remedial measures must obviously be preceded by research, and such research is now envisaged in connexion with the forthcoming major study of comparative social security costs in Common Market countries.<sup>63</sup>

123. With regard to benefits such as those in respect of unemployment, maternity, sickness and invalidity, and old age, most countries afford equal treatment for foreigners at least in principle. But differences in qualifying periods and limitations on transfer of benefits abroad probably make for a great deal of inequality in practice.

124. Moreover, there are other cases in which the principle of equality does not appear to be fully applied. For example, in France, maternity benefits granted to nationals and foreigners are apparently not the same, and no birth allowance is provided unless the child is declared French; Switzerland provides no maternity allowance outside Switzerland, and no confinement allowance is granted to foreign workers.

125. But perhaps the worst domain of all for foreigners is the cultural. At one extreme, foreigners live in perpetual awareness, if not outright fear, of racist violence. "Paki-bashing", a tribal custom of English youth, as recently reported by *The New York Times*, has been transplanted to the Netherlands and used against Turks working there;<sup>64</sup> and these incidents become known only because they are sufficiently sensational to attract the attention of the press. Ethnic and racial discrimination may be more muted, without being absent. In France, a 1966 public opinion poll reported that 51 per cent of the adult population felt there were too many foreigners in the country.<sup>65</sup>

126. Even if outright discrimination or hostility is absent, inferiority of status and income, language handicaps, and social isolation combine to cut off foreigners from effective participation in the cultural life of their "host" countries. And they are equally cut off from their own cultures. The problem of the reintegration of migrant workers in their own cultures appears to be one of the least studied aspects of the post-war wave of international migration, but it seems reasonable to anticipate that when foreigners finally return home, they all too often become, to borrow a phrase from a description of Puerto Ricans returning from the mainland United States, strangers in their own lands.<sup>66</sup>

127. This account of the position of foreign workers may appear one-sided, for thus far no attention has been paid to the benefits reaped by the foreigners themselves. Indeed, orthodox *laissez-faire* economics would even suggest that the continued flow of immigrants, who come "of their own free will", is sure evidence that the benefits outweigh the drawbacks. However, the continued willingness to emigrate points rather to lack of work and low wages in the countries of emigration.

128. From the point of view of the economic life of the peripheral countries, the results of emigration are, in any case, quite mixed. Emigration is of course a method

<sup>63</sup> *1970 Report on the World Social Situation* . . . , pp. 116 and 117.

<sup>64</sup> *The New York Times*, 8 September 1972, p. 2.

<sup>65</sup> A.M. Rose, *op. cit.*, p. 103.

<sup>66</sup> W.M. Knowles, "Puerto Rico: problems of returning migrants", in OECD, Manpower and Social Affairs Directorate, Social Affairs Division, *Emigrant Workers Returning to their Home Country—International Management Seminar, Athens, 18th–21st October, 1966: Supplement to the Final Report* (Paris, 1967), p. 87.

of drawing off surplus labour, and this undoubtedly contributes to the workers' strength in bargaining for wage increases. Indeed, so much was this the case in Portugal that protests from local employers led during the 1960s to restrictions on emigration and the phenomenon of clandestine movement, largely to France.<sup>67</sup> But at the same time, migration exposes the peripheral countries to the shocks of business fluctuations abroad.

129. It is questionable to what extent life abroad, such as workers experience it, contributes to their capacity to build a decent society at home. To be sure, spokesmen for the host countries, particularly employers' representatives, stress the benefits of exposure to industrial discipline. For example, a representative of the German Employers' Association stated that "by merely becoming

---

<sup>67</sup> These restrictions were relaxed in 1970 (OECD Economic Surveys, *Portugal*, No. 17 (Paris, OECD, September 1971), p. 16).

accustomed to the working rhythm of a modern industrial undertaking and to the obligations associated with this—working carefully, punctuality, reliability, and acquiring the ability to organize—the worker has already gained a great deal".<sup>68</sup> The secretary of the Central Union of Swiss Employers stressed the value of introducing workers to "new conditions . . . in a good industrial atmosphere", which he went on to define as one "where strikes are a rare occurrence and working conditions are negotiated in the best possible spirit, on a basis of mutual respect, by the two sides of industry, and where class warfare is unknown".<sup>69</sup>

---

<sup>68</sup> R. Weber, "The employment of foreigners in Germany", in OECD, *Emigrant Workers Returning to their Home Country . . .* (Paris, 1967), p. 316.

<sup>69</sup> E. Duc, "Switzerland", in OECD, *Emigrant Workers Returning to their Home Country . . .* (Paris, 1967), p. 288.

## Chapter VI

### STANDARDS OF CONSUMPTION AND HEALTH

130. The average standard of consumption in the developed market-economy countries, and possibly the average standard of health too, is the highest in the world. Indeed, it is one of capitalism's greatest achievements that it has proved such a productive system, at least in some parts of the world. Whatever might be said about the credit due to the capitalist system for achieving high levels of output and consumption, the high average standard of health is at best only partly attributable to capitalism, for the result of the establishment of systems of social security has been to remove medical care from the market, which is in effect to isolate it from the market economy's production and distribution cycle. But in part, and up to a point, good health derives from high consumption—for food and shelter are at least as important as medicine in determining average levels of physical well-being. Table IV.31 gives summary income, food consumption, and longevity data for selected countries. The *per capita* daily calorie and protein intake for these countries is among the highest in the world.

131. Moreover, the rate of growth of output in the aggregate has been high. Not one of the developed market economies for which data were available failed to register an increase of at least 20 per cent in *per capita* output during the 1960s, and the country with the highest rate of growth, Japan, more than doubled its *per capita* output.<sup>70</sup>

132. In spite of the generally high standards of consumption and health in the developed market economies, the persistence of pockets of poverty in some areas is a limiting factor as far as the enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights is concerned.

133. One thing that no statistics will ever capture is the indignity the poor must suffer for most of the economic assistance the Government affords. Whenever a means test is imposed, the almost inevitable result is to add the insult of inferiority to the injury of deprivation. "The kids laughed at him," an American mother said feelingly of her child who was obliged to stand in a separate line to receive his free lunch at school: "Your mother is too poor to afford to buy your food".<sup>71</sup> Coercion, intimidation, fear, shame—these are not new words in the lexicon of means-tested public assistance. Nor are they likely to disappear very soon, for wherever there is poverty, the poor are likely to be powerless.

134. In the building of a decent society, a high priority

<sup>70</sup> For the relevant figures, see United Nations, *Yearbook of National Accounts Statistics, 1970*, vol. II, *International Tables* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.XVII.3, vol. II), table 7.

<sup>71</sup> United States of America, United States Senate, Ninetieth Congress, Second Session, and Ninety-first Congress, First Session, Select Committee on Nutrition and Human Needs, *Nutrition and Human Needs*, part 7, *District of Columbia* (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969), p. 2201.

needs to be assigned to removing the causes and effects of poverty.

At the present stage of development in western Europe . . . general material abundance is in sight, and the elimination of remaining shortages (such as that of housing), as well as of existing pockets of poverty, appears to be more of a political than a strictly economic question. Public interest is therefore shifting from the quantitative problems of production to issues relating to the quality of life, and . . . the notion is gaining ground that there was in the past too much emphasis on quantitative achievements alone, neglecting the qualitative aspects of growth.<sup>72</sup>

It would appear that, for the most part, the developed market-economy countries in other parts of the world are also showing an increased regard for the qualitative aspects of growth and for the full realization of economic, social and cultural rights.

#### A. Nutrition

135. Although, as table IV.31 shows, the United States of America enjoys one of the highest *per capita* calorie intakes in the world, a recent government study of nutrition in several states confirms that nutritional problems are widespread and that many of these problems are inversely related to income. Some of the highlights of the 900-page *Ten-State Nutrition Survey*<sup>73</sup> are the following. First, and most important, the survey concludes that a significant proportion of the population surveyed was undernourished or ran a high risk of developing nutritional problems. Moreover, generally there was increasing evidence of malnutrition as income level decreased. The extent of nutritional problems and their relationship to income are both illustrated by the incidence of iron deficiency in five states that are among the poorest in the nation. (The Spanish-American population would appear to be an exception, but this may be due to the small number of Spanish Americans in the highest income group.) As table IV.32 shows, whites in the lowest income class are three times as likely to be deficient in iron as whites in the highest income class, and low income blacks are eight times as likely to suffer iron deficiency as high-income blacks. There was no difference in incidence between high-income blacks and high-income whites. The income gradient of iron deficiency was much less pronounced in the high-income states that were covered by the other half of the survey.

136. Nutritional studies of similar depth and completeness do not seem to exist in any other country. However, as part of the Swedish low-income study, respondents were questioned about their dietary intakes. Based on

<sup>72</sup> 1970 *Report on the World Social Situation* . . . , p. 107.

<sup>73</sup> United States of America, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Health Services and Mental Health Administration, U.S. Center for Disease Control, *Ten-State Nutrition Survey 1968-1970* (DHEW publication No. (HSM) 72-8130) (Atlanta, Ga., 1972).



TABLE IV.31

Average income, calorie and protein consumption and life expectancy in developed market-economy countries

	Per capita income in 1969 (dollars)	Per capita daily food consumption			Life expectancy at birth		
		Calories	Protein (grams)	Year(s) of estimate	Years		Year(s) of estimate
					Male	Female	
Australia .....	2 434	3 220	106	1968/69	67.9	74.2	1960-1962
Austria .....	1 547	2 950	87	1969/70	66.3	73.5	1970
Belgium .....	2 150	3 150	92	1968/69	67.8	73.5	1959-1963
Canada .....	3 068	3 150	97	1969	68.8	75.2	1965-1967
Denmark .....	2 610	3 140	89	1969/70	70.7	75.6	1968-1969
Finland .....	1 745	2 960	91	1969/70	65.4	72.6	1961-1965
France .....	2 485	3 270	104	1969/70	67.6	75.3	1969
Germany, Federal Republic of .....	2 246	2 940	82	1969/70	67.6	73.6	1966-1968
Greece .....	891	2 900	99	1967	67.5	70.7	1960-1962
Iceland .....	1 648	2 900	99	1964-1966	70.8	76.2	1961-1965
Ireland .....	1 111	3 450	93	1968	68.1	71.9	1960-1962
Israel .....	1 450	2 930	90	1968/69	69.6	73.0	1970
Italy .....	1 420	2 950	88	1968/69	67.2	72.3	1960-1962
Japan .....	1 396	2 450	75	1969	69.1	74.3	1968
Luxembourg .....	1 907 <sup>a</sup>	3 150	92	1968/69	61.7	65.8	1946-1948
Malta .....	635	2 680	86	1964-1966	68.5	72.2	1967-1969
Netherlands .....	1 976	3 030	84	1968/69	71.0	76.4	1968
New Zealand .....	1 769	3 320	106	1969	68.4	73.8	1960-1962
Norway .....	2 191	2 900	82	1968/69	71.0	76.0	1961-1965
Portugal .....	570	2 730	79	1969	60.7	66.4	1959-1962
South Africa .....	687	2 730 <sup>b</sup>	77 <sup>b</sup>	1964-1966 <sup>b</sup>	49.0		1965-1970
Spain .....	811	2 750	84	1969/70	67.3	71.9	1960
Sweden .....	3 205	2 750	79	1969/70	71.9	76.5	1967
Switzerland .....	2 642	2 990	84	1967/68	68.7	74.1	1958-1963
United Kingdom .....	1 817	3 180	88	1968/69	68.5	74.7	1967-1969
United States of America .....	4 151	3 290	97	1969	66.6	74.0	1968

Source: *Yearbook of National Accounts Statistics, 1970*, vol. II, *International Tables* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.XVII.3, vol. II) table 1B; *Statistical Yearbook 1971* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F.72.XVII.1), tables 160 and 19.

<sup>a</sup> Figure for 1968.

<sup>b</sup> Includes data for Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia and Swaziland.

72-hour recall, 30 per cent of respondents in the lowest income level were judged to have insufficient intake within two (or more) of the following broad categories: grain products, milk products, meat and fish, vegetables. In the highest income bracket, by contrast, only 16 per cent of respondents were judged deficient in two or more areas.

Thus, the incidence of dietary insufficiency was almost twice as high among the lower income respondents.<sup>74</sup>

<sup>74</sup> Sweden, Arbetsgruppen för Låginkomstfrågor (Working Group on Low-Income Questions), *Kompedium om Låginkomstutredningen* (Compendium of Low-Income Studies) (Stockholm, 1971), p. 121.

TABLE IV.32

United States of America: percentage of sample having deficient haemoglobin values in five low-income states<sup>a</sup>

Poverty income ratio <sup>b</sup>	Ethnic group					
	White		Black		Spanish American	
	Total <sup>a</sup> number	Percentage with deficient values	Total <sup>a</sup> number	Percentage with deficient values	Total <sup>a</sup> number	Percentage with deficient values
Combined .....	3 822	1.8	8 590	7.6	1 896	5.5
<0.50 .....	496	3.2	2 206	8.2	497	4.8
0.50-0.99 .....	829	1.7	2 946	7.4	668	6.0
1.00-1.99 .....	978	1.5	1 207	5.7	334	6.3
2.00-2.99 .....	454	1.1	193	5.2	52	0.0
>2.99 .....	293	1.0	97	1.0	36	5.6
Unknown .....	772	2.0	1 941	8.8	309	5.5

Source: United States of America, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Health Services and Mental Health Administration, U.S. Center for Disease Control, *Ten State Nutrition Survey 1968-1970*, DHEW publication No. (HSM) 72-8132 (Atlanta, Ga., 1972), chap. IV (Biochemical), p. IV-56.

<sup>a</sup> The five states are Kentucky, Louisiana, Texas, South Carolina, and West Virginia.

<sup>b</sup> "Poverty income ratio" is defined by the ratio of the respondent's family income to the official poverty level of income. In 1970, the official poverty level was approximately \$4 000 for a family of four.

As in the United States study, low income would appear to be an important determinant of nutritional status. But it is clearly not the only one. Lack of education and tastes for food of dubious nutritional value must be important contributing factors.

137. The Swedish and United States studies reveal that there is a substantial population running the risks of the adverse effects of malnutrition. But what are these risks? Much more is known about the effects of severe malnutrition than about the relatively mild forms that would seem to be dominant among the undernourished populations of the developed market-economy countries. But what is known about malnutrition in its acute forms is sufficiently alarming—even if the effects are much attenuated in its milder forms—to ensure awareness of the fact that malnutrition has a profound effect on the question of equality with respect to basic social and economic rights.

138. According to a recent survey of the literature on malnutrition,<sup>75</sup> poor diet in childhood leads to poor body development and poor mental development. It also leads to greater risk of infection and illness. Indeed, the risks begin before birth, since the risks of birth complications increase for poorly nourished mothers. And they continue well beyond childhood, because poor physical and intellectual development coupled with illness obviously interferes with education, and education, as noted in paragraph 69 above, is necessary, if not always adequate, to provide income and status. The consequences of

<sup>75</sup> H.G. Birch, "Malnutrition, learning and intelligence", *American Journal of Public Health*, vol. 62, No. 6 (Washington, D.C., June 1972), pp. 773-781.

malnutrition continue beyond one's own lifetime, not only because of the perpetuation of inequality through the family and the school, but more directly as well, because of the effects of malnutrition on body stature and the effects of body stature on childbearing capacity. It is medically confirmed that the risks of pregnancy to the foetus as well as to the mother are statistically much greater in shorter women than in taller women, and the difference appears to be nutritionally determined.

## B. Housing

139. Bad housing is second only to bad nutrition among the hazards of poverty. A United States Government study concludes with a warning that

There are an estimated 6.7 million (9.9 per cent of the total) occupied substandard dwellings. Four million of these lack one or more essential indoor plumbing facilities (water supply, toilet facilities or bathing facility), and 2.7 million are in such a dilapidated condition that they cannot be rehabilitated without major repairs.<sup>76</sup>

Table IV.33 summarizes the distribution of sub-standard housing in the United States of America, by race, income class, and location of residence (metropolitan or non-metropolitan).

<sup>76</sup> United States of America, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Public Health Service, "Issue study on housing, urban-rural problems and sanitation" (CPEHS-OPD, Program Analysis Series) (August 1969); quoted in United States Senate, Ninety-first Session, Second Session, Select Committee on Nutrition and Human Needs, *Nutrition and Human Needs—1970*, part 6, *Health and Housing* (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970), p. 1787.

TABLE IV.33  
United States of America: substandard housing<sup>a</sup> by race, income,  
and location of residence  
(In percentages)

	1950	1960	1968
Percentage of all occupied units rated as substandard:			
All United States households.....	35.9	16.0	7.7
Metropolitan households.....	21.0	9.5	4.0
Non-metropolitan households.....	54.9	27.7	14.4
All white households.....		13.0	5.8
All non-white households.....		44.0	23.7
White metropolitan households.....		7.3	3.1
White non-metropolitan households.....		22.9	10.5
Non-white metropolitan households.....		28.2	10.8
Non-white non-metropolitan households.....		77.3	55.3
Households by income levels:			
Incomes under \$4000.....	45.5	31.8	
Incomes of \$4,000-\$7999.....	14.1	8.8	
Incomes of \$8000 and over.....	6.6	2.5	
Metropolitan households:			
Incomes under \$4000.....	28.8	20.9	
Incomes of \$4000-\$7999.....	9.4	6.1	
Incomes of \$8000 and over.....	3.3	1.7	
Non-metropolitan households:			
Incomes under \$4000.....	62.6	44.0	
Incomes of \$4000-\$7999.....	25.2	14.2	
Incomes of \$8000 and over.....	15.8	5.2	

Source: United States of America, United States Senate, Ninety-first Congress, Second Session, Select Committee on Nutrition and Human Needs, *Nutrition and Human Needs—1970*, part 7, *Rural Housing* (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971), p. 2012, table 3 (testimony of G.W. Rucker, Research Director, Rural Housing Alliance).

<sup>a</sup> Sub-standard housing is defined as dilapidated or lacking in essential plumbing facilities: hot and cold running water, a bath or shower, and an inside toilet.

140. In 1965, a Department of Housing and Urban Development was created in the United States, placing federal housing and urban programmes under a single agency. The new Department has encouraged the greater use of industrial techniques to overcome the worsening housing shortage in many of the nation's cities. Legislation was enacted to provide a modest amount of funds to subsidize rents in public housing for eligible low-income tenants, and a federal housing allowance was established, which would give low-income families the money to find their own housing in the private market. New subsidies for both rented housing and house purchase were added in 1968. Attention has also been given to the construction of low-income housing in suburban areas, as a means of improving mobility for racial and ethnic minorities, though some difficulties have been encountered in achieving this goal in practice.

141. The following account has been given of the housing situation in Canada:

In Canada, the outlines of a critical nation-wide housing problem became visible in 1967 with rising land prices, a shortage of mortgage money and a sharp increase in the rate of family formation and non-family households. To the long-standing problem of inadequate housing among low-income groups, a new dimension was added as increasing numbers of middle-income families found themselves unable to afford the sharply rising costs of accommodation. With the extension of the problem to the middle-income group, housing became a political issue of national concern, in marked contrast with the public indifference of preceding years. A federal task force on housing and urban development, appointed in 1968, recommended against the construction of large public housing projects because of their ghetto-like qualities, and also recommended a freeze on urban renewal programmes involving the wholesale destruction of older housing. The task force proposed that consideration be given to a programme of income supplements to permit low-income families to rent or purchase housing in the private market. Subsequently, the Federal Government announced its intention to devote a larger proportion of funds than in previous years to housing for low-income families, the elderly and the disadvantaged, and made available in 1970 a sum of \$200 million for experimental housing programmes for low- and moderate-income families.<sup>77</sup>

142. In the United Kingdom, the National Plan for Housing of 1965 envisaged construction of 500 000 houses a year by 1970, an increasing share of which would be allocated to the public sector, with a view to helping to meet the shortage of houses to rent. It was reported in January 1970, however, that the building target had been reduced to about 400 000 houses a year, as it was expected that there would be a 5 per cent surplus of houses over households by 1973. Also in the United Kingdom, the Housing Subsidies Act came into force in May 1967 to provide greater help to the public sector (building for rent), especially to those local authorities facing particularly high costs. A large slum clearance programme was also continuing, and it was hoped to raise the rate of slum clearance to around 140 000 units a year and to speed up the improvement of the more than 5 million dwellings that were in need of basic amenities or substantial repair.<sup>78</sup>

143. The Government of Denmark reported in 1969 that the Rent Subsidies Act of 8 March 1967 had placed low-income groups in a better position to obtain a reasonable housing standard.<sup>79</sup>

144. In Europe and Japan, the general situation is one of housing shortage, but while this may mean generalized inconvenience for the middle classes, it means much worse for the poor. Presumably the fact that foreign workers in France have the worst housing is a contributing factor to a high incidence of communicable diseases like tuberculosis. A recent survey by French doctors found the tuberculosis rate for black Africans in a Paris suburb to be 156 times the rate for the rest of the population.<sup>80</sup>

145. In Sweden, which by virtue of its higher income level and its social policies probably does better than other European countries, the low income study found that 11 per cent of working-class households—which include many “non-poor” along with the poor—had “non-modern” housing equipment, as against 4 and 1 per cent, respectively, of middle-class and upper-class households.<sup>81</sup> Overcrowding was an even more serious problem. More than 26 per cent of working-class households had more than two persons to a room (not counting living-room and kitchen), as against 15 and 3 per cent in middle and upper-class households.<sup>82</sup> Among households with children under 16, overcrowding was naturally even more prevalent. Of working-class households, 46 per cent were overcrowded, as against 22 and 4 per cent, respectively, in middle- and upper-class households.<sup>83</sup> It cannot be concluded from these statistics that these percentages of Swedes necessarily suffer serious psychic or physical damage from inadequate housing, but it appears fair to conclude that bad housing exposes a substantial portion of the working class to an increased risk of such damage.

146. Among the dangers of overcrowding must be reckoned infectious diseases, skin diseases, home accidents, and emotional disturbances.<sup>84</sup> Moreover,

Overcrowding affects privacy and often results in family members spending more time outside the home. When recreation is not available, families have been observed to show aggravation of any predisposition to neurotic behavior. When overcrowding forces children to find activity space outside the home, children's study habits suffer and parental supervision and control is reduced.<sup>85</sup>

While these examples of the consequences of overcrowding are drawn from studies made in the United States of America, it is hard to imagine any cultural characteristics that would make them inapplicable elsewhere.

147. Thus, it is by no means just in luxuries that the standard of life of the poor measures up badly in developed market-economy countries, not in relationship to the standard of life prevailing in most other parts of the world, but in relationship to the abundance of material goods that these countries produce.

<sup>80</sup> R.D. Nicholas *et al.*, “Guilty of being ill”, *Droit et liberté*, No. 280 (March 1969). Reported in S. Castler and G. Kosack, “The function of labor immigration in Western Europe”, *New Left Review*, No. 73 (May-June 1972).

<sup>81</sup> “Non-modern” is defined as lacking three or more of the following: hot water, drainage, toilet, central heating, shower or tub, modern cooking stove, refrigerator.

<sup>82</sup> Sweden, Arbetsgruppen för Låginkomstfrågor, *Kompendium om Låginkomstutredningen* . . . , p. 130.

<sup>83</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 132.

<sup>84</sup> United States of America, Department of Health, Education and Welfare . . . , “Issue study on housing, urban-rural problems and sanitation” . . . ; quoted in . . . , *Nutrition and Human Needs—1970*, part 6, *Health and Housing* . . . , p. 1789.

<sup>85</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>77</sup> 1970 *Report on the World Social Situation* . . . , pp. 136 and 137.

<sup>78</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.2, pp. 26 and 27.

<sup>79</sup> E/CN.4/1011/Add.1, p. 40.



### C. Infant and child health

148. As table IV.34 indicates, the developed market economy countries as a group have made steady progress in reducing their infant-mortality rates, which are now among the lowest in the world.

TABLE IV.34

Infant (under one year) mortality rates in developed market-economy countries (per thousand live births), 1948, 1959 and 1970

	1948	1959	1970
Canada .....	44.4	28.4	19.3 <sup>a</sup>
United States of America .....	32.0	26.4	19.8
Israel .....	36.3 <sup>b</sup>	27.3 <sup>b</sup>	22.9
Japan .....	61.7	33.7	13.1
Austria .....	76.2	39.8	25.9
Belgium .....	59.1	29.9	20.5
Denmark .....	35.3	22.4 <sup>c</sup>	14.8 <sup>a</sup>
Finland .....	51.9	23.6	12.5
France .....	55.9	29.5	15.1
Germany, Federal Republic of ..	68.1	34.3	23.6
Greece .....	..	..	29.3
Iceland .....	26.2	18.8 <sup>c</sup>	11.3
Ireland .....	50.3	32.0	19.2
Italy .....	72.1	44.9	29.2
Luxembourg .....	56.8	37.3	24.6
Malta .....	113.0	34.9	27.9
Netherlands .....	29.3	16.8	12.7
Norway .....	29.6	20.0 <sup>c</sup>	13.8 <sup>a</sup>
Portugal .....	100.2	88.6	58.0
Spain .....	70.0	47.1	27.9
Sweden .....	23.2	16.4	11.7 <sup>a</sup>
Switzerland .....	35.9	22.2	15.1
United Kingdom .....	36.0	23.1	18.3
Australia .....	27.8 <sup>d</sup>	21.5 <sup>d</sup>	17.9
New Zealand .....	27.5	23.9	16.7
South Africa			
White population .....	36.0	27.7	..
Coloured population .....	133.2	106.8	..
Asiatic population .....	77.1	65.0	..

Source: *Statistical Yearbook, 1960* (United Nations publication, Sales No. 61.XVII.1), table 4; *ibid.*, 1971 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F.72.XVII.1), table 19.

<sup>a</sup> Figure for 1969.

<sup>b</sup> Jewish population only.

<sup>c</sup> Figure for 1958.

<sup>d</sup> Excludes aboriginal population.

149. Figures for Austria, the United Kingdom, and the United States of America which relate to the early 1950<sup>86</sup>—indicate that economics play an important part in determining life expectancy, all three countries showing markedly higher death rates for people in the lowest group of occupations. Unfortunately, no more recent data were available for these countries, and none were available for other countries, so it must be regarded as an open question whether developments since the early 1950s have markedly altered the picture.

150. It may be noted that the British data support the proposition that class differences with respect to mortality have narrowed over the years.

151. There are probably several reasons for the relationship between income level and mortality rates.

<sup>86</sup> A. Antonovsky, "Social class, life expectancy, and overall mortality", in E. G. Jaco (ed.), *Patients, Physicians and Illness*, 2nd ed. (New York, Free Press, 1972), pp. 24-27.

Diet and housing have already been mentioned, and the physical environment probably ranks high on the list. In rural areas of the United States of America, particularly in the south, water contamination continues to be a major health problem,<sup>87</sup> and this is also a problem in the cities, particularly in slum areas:

Inner-city residents are delivered the same water as any other urban residents . . . . But pipes in inner-city housing are sometimes old and ill-kept and often contain pipe or joint-cementing compound made of lead (no longer used in construction). Under such conditions, water containing as much as 920 micrograms of lead per litre has been found in inner-city areas, compared to an average of 20 micrograms per litre elsewhere.<sup>88</sup>

152. A related problem, lead poisoning from lead-based paint, appears to exist in epidemic proportions in certain (slum) areas in the United States. But since it is a disease that strikes mainly at the poor, it "exists in obscurity", in the words of Jane Lin-Fu, a specialist in this disease, and, she adds, "little is heard of it" and "even less is done about it".<sup>89</sup> Because of its obscurity, its incidence cannot be accurately gauged, but Dr. Lin-Fu estimated "that over 50 per cent of children from some high-risk areas have absorbed an excessive amount of lead into their bodies".<sup>90</sup> The consequences of lead poisoning, ranging from brain damage to death, are one more risk to which the poor are disproportionately exposed.

### D. The problem of air pollution

153. Air pollution is a serious problem in cities. While everybody suffers to some extent, a recent medical study in a medium-sized United States city showed what a striking difference there is in the experience and impact of air pollution between children of different income groups. It indicated that not only do lower-income-group children tend disproportionately to live in areas of high air pollution, but also they tend as a result to suffer disproportionately from allergic diseases exacerbated by air pollution. Although the absolute number of cases is relatively small and tests of statistical significance have not been performed, it seems clear that the children of the lowest income group suffer disproportionately from serious effects brought about by those illnesses and, moreover, that their disproportionate exposure to air pollution is an important contributing cause. The effects are not limited to childhood, for the authors of this study quote another study to the effect that "about 50 per cent of the infant eczema cases have some form of respiratory allergy in later life".<sup>91</sup>

154. This difference can hardly be dismissed as an isolated finding. After a careful review of a variety of studies in both the United States of America and the United Kingdom of the relationship between air pollution

<sup>87</sup> . . . *Nutrition and Human Needs—1970*, part 4, *Housing and Sanitation* . . . , p. 919.

<sup>88</sup> United States of America, Council on Environmental Quality, *Environmental Quality* (Second Annual Report) (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, August 1971), p. 196.

<sup>89</sup> . . . *Nutrition and Human Needs—1970*, part 5, *Environmental Health Problems* . . . , p. 1386.

<sup>90</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 1385.

<sup>91</sup> H. A. Sultz *et al.*, "An effect of continual exposure to air pollution on the incidence of chronic childhood allergic diseases", *American Journal of Public Health*, vol. 60, No. 5 (Albany, N.Y., May 1970), p. 900. The other study referred to is H. S. Andrews, "Infantile eczema", *Pediat. Clin. N. America*, vol. 8 (1961).



on the one hand and bronchitis, heart disease and cancer on the other, Lester Lave and Eugene Seskin concluded that an "objective observer would have to agree that there is an important association between air pollution and various morbidity and mortality rates".<sup>92</sup>

155. It is likely that the problems of air pollution will grow rather than diminish with time, unless the trend of recent years is reversed, for although there are notable exceptions, it is hard to escape the general conclusion that total pollution—air and water pollution, noise, solid wastes—has grown at a rate at least comparable with the growth in industrial output. And according to a United Nations survey, such leading developed market-economy countries as the United States of America, Sweden, and the Federal Republic of Germany anticipated public expenditures to improve the environment, or at least to check its deterioration, of the order of approximately 1 per cent of GNP over the years 1971–1975.<sup>93</sup> This would hardly appear to be sufficient to reverse the trend.

### E. Health care

156. Removing medical care from the sphere of market relations would appear to be a positive step towards mitigating the inherent inequalities in consumption, health, and even life expectancy among different income groups. Martin Rein, a leading expert on social welfare planning, recently concluded from studies of the British National Health Service that a "free-on-demand, comprehensive care system appears to contribute to equalization of care among social classes".<sup>94</sup> If the British lower classes suffer greater illness, they also consult doctors more frequently. Among adults, consultation rates in the lowest social class are almost twice as great as consultation rates in the highest class.

157. This contrasts sharply with the United States of America, where consultation rates in the age group 15 years and over are approximately the same for all income categories. Lest it be thought that this demonstrates true equality in the provision of medical care, it should be borne in mind that serious illness is clearly experienced disproportionately by the poor;<sup>95</sup> moreover, in the absence of comprehensive medical benefits in kind and cash sickness benefits, serious illness can easily lead to poverty.

<sup>92</sup> L. B. Lave and E. B. Seskin, "Air pollution and human health", *Science*, vol. 169, No. 3947 (Washington, D.C., 21 August 1970), p. 729.

<sup>93</sup> *Economic Survey of Europe in 1971*, part I, *The European Economy from the 1950s to the 1970s* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.II.E.1), p. 123.

<sup>94</sup> M. Rein, "Social class and the utilization of medical care services", *Hospitals*, vol. 43, No. 13 (Chicago, Ill., American Hospital Association, July 1969), p. 52.

<sup>95</sup> W. C. Richardson, "Poverty, illness, and the use of health services in the United States", in E. G. Jaco (ed.), *Patients, Physicians and Illness*, 2nd ed. (New York, Free Press, 1972), pp. 242 and 245.

158. The difference between the free-on-demand system typified by the British National Health Service and the fee-for-service system typified by United States medical care is perhaps best brought out by a comparison of children's consultation rates; children's consultations tend to be more in the nature of preventive medicine than adults'. In the United States, children in families in the highest income group are approximately twice as likely to consult a doctor as children in families in the lowest income group. In the United Kingdom, the consultation rates for children in all social classes are about the same.

159. There may well be differences between the quality of care that various social classes receive in the United Kingdom, particularly with respect to intangibles that escape the statistician's net.<sup>96</sup> The Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the American Medical Association may be right when he contends that "the quality of medicine in this country is unexcelled; the problem is distribution",<sup>97</sup> but distribution is the all-important factor, at least so far as the realization of human rights is concerned. And in respect of distribution, the free-on-demand approach would seem clearly to have demonstrated its superiority over the fee-for-service approach.

160. Of course, if medical care is necessary in order to maintain good health, then the general position is far from satisfactory. As Jack Geiger stated in testimony before the United States Senate Committee on Nutrition and Human Needs,

If an infant is brought to the health centre with diarrhoea, and is examined by a well-trained, board-certified paediatrician, is given expert nursing care, [if] the appropriate [laboratory] tests [are] ordered and accurately conducted, the correct diagnosis made and the right drugs dispensed and administered—all of which [leads] to the desired termination of the infant's disease—if all this is done—that is, the best of modern medicine [is applied]—and then the infant is returned to the same home environment in which he acquired his disease—nothing has been accomplished but to prepare the infant for his next bout of illness.<sup>98</sup>

The same could be said for other diseases referred to above, in which medical care is an essential element—but only one element—in the total environment.

<sup>96</sup> Experts disagree on this point. Richard Titmuss strongly believes that such differences do exist, according to his *Commitment to Welfare*, quoted in Rein, *op. cit.* Rein himself, relying on the available statistical indicators, believes that the quality, as well as the quantity, of care has been equalized under the National Health Service.

<sup>97</sup> United States Senate, Ninety-second Congress, First Session, Subcommittee on Health of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, *Health Care Crisis in America, 1971*, part 4 (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971), p. 647.

<sup>98</sup> Hearings before the Select Committee on Nutrition and Human Needs of the United States Senate, Ninety-first Congress, Second Session on Nutrition and Human Needs, *Nutrition and Human Needs—1970*, part 4, *Housing and Sanitation* (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970), p. 910.



## **Part Five**

# **INTERNATIONAL ACTION FOR THE PROTECTION AND PROMOTION OF ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND CULTURAL RIGHTS**





## INTRODUCTION

1. The intergovernmental bodies whose activities are described in this part of the present study are the United Nations and its subsidiary organs; those specialized agencies which are entrusted with responsibilities directly related to the formulation and observance of economic, social and cultural rights or to the creation of the conditions needed for their enjoyment; the World Intellectual Property Organization; and three regional organizations—the Organization of American States, the Council of Europe and the League of Arab States.

2. The specialized agencies dealt with are the International Labour Organisation, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, the World Health Organization and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. The World Intellectual Property Organization has been included because it is the organ charged with the task of administering the international conventions and agreements covering the protection of intellectual property and is involved in certain aspects of cultural rights; it works in close liaison with the United Nations and UNESCO.

3. In the United Nations system, the United Nations itself occupies a central position, both as a link between the individual components and as possessing, by virtue of the relevant Articles of the Charter of the United Nations, a constitutional competence that extends to all economic, social and cultural affairs and to all activities of the related agencies. For human rights, in particular, the United Nations has a direct responsibility; it also provides over-all inspiration and guidance to the entire system. Accordingly, United Nations organs, and in particular the General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council, have frequently taken the initiative of requesting from specialized agencies action in their own fields, such as the

prevention of discrimination in employment, education, freedom of association, and the abolition of forced labour. United Nations activities are thus not only general in character; they also encompass the contributions made by the sectoral bodies to the problems of human rights. In view of the primary responsibility of the ILO in the field of trade-union rights, the joint machinery established by the United Nations and the ILO to deal with complaints of violations of these rights is described in the chapter relating to the ILO (see para. 115 below).

4. Standards and activities are described in separate chapters for each of the organizations concerned, with each chapter divided as required into sections under four main headings: (a) organs concerned with the formulation of standards, (b) international instruments, including the machinery for their implementation, if any, (c) promotional activities and (d) advisory services, including technical assistance.

5. In so far as is appropriate, particularly for the headings (b), (c) and (d), the rights under consideration are listed as they were in the subject and country index to reports on economic, social and cultural rights covering the period from 1 July 1966 to 30 June 1969, transmitted to the Commission on Human Rights in a note by the Secretary-General (E/CN.4/1025). But there are obviously border-line cases, in which a classification by type or by subject is bound to be arbitrary in character. For instance, medical care provided under a social security system is shown under the right to social security, and not under the right to an adequate standard of health; similarly, seminars are generally considered as appertaining to advisory services, although their promotional character is also evident. In such cases, a pragmatic approach is of course required.

## Chapter I

### UNITED NATIONS

6. As noted above, United Nations actions are generally directed at the entire body of economic, social and cultural rights. The Organization has nevertheless specific responsibilities of its own for some of the sectoral matters covered by these rights, such as housing, social services and family protection.

#### A. Organs concerned with the formulation of standards

7. The permanent organs concerned with the formulation of standards in the field of economic, social and cultural rights include the General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council and some of its subsidiary bodies, notably the Commission on Human Rights and the Commission on the Status of Women. In addition, conferences of plenipotentiaries have been convened to deal with the status of refugees and of stateless persons. Two of these conferences adopted conventions having a direct bearing on some economic, social and cultural rights: the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, and the 1954 Convention relating to the Status of Stateless Persons.

##### 1. GENERAL ASSEMBLY

8. According to Article 10 of the Charter of the United Nations, the General Assembly may discuss and make recommendations on any matters within the scope of the Charter. Under Article 13, it is one of its functions to initiate studies and make recommendations for the purpose of assisting in the realization of human rights.

9. Under Article 22, the General Assembly "may establish such subsidiary organs as it deems necessary for the performance of its functions". Among these organs, the United Nations Children's Fund, the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East and the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees are especially concerned with economic, social and cultural rights, in that they are entrusted with the protection of children and of refugees. Other organs contributing to the creation of conditions required for the full enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights include the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, the United Nations Industrial Development Organization, the United Nations Development Programme and the joint United Nations/FAO World Food Programme.

10. In the General Assembly, items concerning economic, social and cultural rights originate for the most part in reports of the Economic and Social Council and of the Secretary-General. They are referred to the Assembly's Third Committee (responsible for social, humanitarian and cultural questions).

##### 2. ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL

11. Under Article 62 of the Charter, the Council "may make or initiate studies and reports . . . and may make recommendations for the purpose of promoting respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all". It may also "prepare draft conventions for submission to the General Assembly, with respect to matters falling within its competence".

12. Article 63 provides that the Council may, subject to approval by the General Assembly, bring specialized agencies into relationship with the United Nations. It is also authorized to co-ordinate their activities and, under Article 64, to obtain regular reports on their work.

13. On the basis of Article 71, the Council may make "arrangements for consultation with non-governmental organizations which are concerned with matters within its competence". To a certain extent, this institutional relationship relates to economic, social and cultural rights.

14. During its sessions, the Council is assisted by three sessional committees: the Economic Committee, the Social Committee and the Co-ordination Committee. Items concerning human rights are normally referred to the Social Committee.

##### 3. COMMISSION ON HUMAN RIGHTS

15. According to Article 68 of the Charter, which provides that the Council may "set up commissions in economic and social fields and for the promotion of human rights", the Council established, by resolution 5 (I) of 16 February 1946, the Commission on Human Rights, with the task (as later revised) of submitting proposals, recommendations and reports to the Council regarding:

- (a) An international bill of rights;
- (b) International declarations or conventions on civil liberties, the status of women, freedom of information and similar matters;
- (c) The protection of minorities;
- (d) The prevention of discrimination on grounds of race, sex, language or religion;
- (e) Any other matter not covered by items (a), (b), (c) and (d) above.

16. The Commission is now composed of one representative from each of 32 States Members of the United Nations selected for three years by the Council on the basis of an equitable geographical representation. It meets once a year and reports to the Council. It may establish subsidiary bodies either on a permanent basis or on an *ad hoc* basis. One of the latter kind is the *Ad Hoc* Committee on Periodic Reports.

17. The *Ad Hoc* Committee on Periodic Reports was established by the Commission following a request made

by the Council in its resolution 1074 C (XXXIX), which invited Governments to supply regular reports on human rights and fundamental freedoms in territories subject to their jurisdiction. The task of the Committee is to study and evaluate these reports and to submit its comments, conclusions and recommendations to the Commission. At present it consists of eight members chosen by the Commission from its membership. It meets regularly before the Commission's sessions. Further details on its tasks and procedure will be found in paragraphs 72 to 74 below.

#### 4. COMMISSION ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN

18. While its responsibilities embrace all the problems related to women's rights, the Commission on the Status of Women plays an important part in the realization of economic, social and cultural rights. Initially established as a sub-commission of the Commission on Human Rights it was given, by Council resolution 11(II) of 21 June 1946, the full status of a functional commission.

19. As subsequently defined, the functions of this Commission include the preparation of recommendations and reports to the Economic and Social Council on the promotion of women's rights in political, economic, civil, social and educational fields.

20. The Commission is now composed of 32 representatives of States Members of the United Nations, elected by the Council on the basis of an equitable geographical distribution. It meets once every two years and reports to the Council.

#### 5. COMMISSION FOR SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

21. The Commission for Social Development, as a functional commission of the Council, is its primary instrument for dealing with the widest range of social problems. As such, it is called upon to advise the Council on major issues of a social character and, under its authority, to contribute to the improvement of standards of living and of the quality of life. One of its major achievements in recent years has been the preparation and formulation of the Declaration on Social Progress and Development referred to in paragraph 67 below.

#### 6. COMMITTEE FOR DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

22. A similar organ, but concerned with economic matters, is the Committee for Development Planning. Created in 1965 as a standing committee of the Council, this body's functions are to consider and evaluate the programmes and activities of the United Nations system relating to economic planning and projections and to propose measures for their improvement, and also to review the progress made in the transfer of knowledge to developing countries and in the training of personnel needed by them for economic planning and projections.

#### 7. ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON THE APPLICATION OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY TO DEVELOPMENT

23. Mention must also be made here of the existence and work of the Advisory Committee on the Application of Science and Technology to Development. Established in 1963 by Council resolution 980 A (XXXVI), subsequently endorsed by the General Assembly in its resolution 1944 (XVIII), this body, now composed of 24

independent experts, has, among others, the task of keeping under review progress in the application of science and technology and proposing to the Council practical measures for such application for the benefit of the less developed areas. It thus provides guidance and inspiration to the organizations of the United Nations system in their efforts to bring science and technology into play in social and economic advancement.

#### 8. COMMITTEE ON REVIEW AND APPRAISAL

24. Finally, in view of the impact of the Second United Nations Development Decade on the economic and social work of the system, the Committee on Review and Appraisal established by the Council in 1971 in its resolution 1621 C (LI) also deserves to be listed among the organs concerned with the promotion of the conditions required for the exercise of economic, social and cultural rights. The Committee is composed of 54 members; its assigned objective is to enable the Council to discharge its responsibility to assist the General Assembly in its over-all assessment of the progress made towards achieving the goals and objectives of the Decade, as provided in General Assembly resolution 2626 (XXV).

#### 9. UNITED NATIONS INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATION

25. The main task of UNIDO is to promote industrial development, with special reference to developing countries. While its activities have no direct bearing on economic, social and cultural rights, they nevertheless contribute to the creation of the conditions that are required for their realization, particularly in providing assistance to these countries in building up their economic infrastructure.

26. Thus, the diversification of the economy that is a main objective of industrialization is likely to multiply the opportunities for the exercise of the free choice of employment and, in a more general way, to strengthen the economic and financial basis upon which the right to social security, to medical care and to an adequate standard of living may be established. A brief account of the work of UNIDO is, therefore, not out of place in the present survey.

27. In the discharge of its responsibilities, UNIDO gives special consideration to the needs of the developing countries and to the problems of the least developed ones among them, following a recommendation formulated in that connexion by its first Special International Conference, held at Vienna in June 1971. A list of 25 such countries has been established on the basis of criteria developed by the Committee for Development Planning, and UNIDO has been actively engaged in providing assistance to them. In 1971, its operational programmes in those countries amounted to \$2.6 million. Plans for future activities in this direction have been and are being developed.

28. The assistance furnished by UNIDO to developing countries is financed from the United Nations regular programme of technical assistance, UNDP, direct contributions of Governments and special funds-in-trust. These sources are supplemented by the UNIDO General Trust Fund, which serves to provide assistance outside the framework of the traditional programmes, such as the supply of industrial equipment, the creation of new industries and the support of regional organizations.



29. The relative importance of these different modes of financing is illustrated by the resources available in 1972:

	Millions of dollars
Regular programme.....	1.5
UNDP.....	22.9
Special industrial services.....	6.0
General Trust Fund.....	2.5
Funds-in-trust .....	0.5
TOTAL	33.4

30. Under the regular programme, assistance to Governments may be given in the form of experts' services and training fellowships for one year or less.

31. UNDP financing is used for technical assistance, long-term pre-investment projects, research or training institutes and pilot demonstration plants. More specifically, these activities are directed at the following objectives:

(a) Feasibility studies to identify investment opportunities and determine the extent of available resources and markets;

(b) Development centres to promote and establish new industries through the utilization of local resources and outside help;

(c) Research institutes to develop and adapt technology to the needs of local industries;

(d) Design centres to turn out modern industrial designs for local industries;

(e) Standards institutes to prepare standards of quality and methods of quality control;

(f) Industrial estates to assist in the servicing and development of industries;

(g) Pilot plants to set up and launch the initial operation of industrial enterprises for demonstration purposes.

32. From its General Trust Fund, UNIDO finances the organization of seminars, workshops, in-plant training and expert group meetings. It also provides special industrial services designed to make available to developing countries a broader range of technical assistance services under procedures adapted to the particular requirements of industrial projects. This programme is aimed at supplementing existing activities and its main purpose is to assist in the successive steps which are normally required to make feasible the capital financing of industrial projects. Examples of these services are:

(a) *Ad hoc* assignment of high-level experts to advise on specific questions;

(b) Assistance in the various stages of new manufacturing projects;

(c) Expert services on an intermittent basis during the development of projects;

(d) Co-operative attention of various specialists in projects involving complex manufacturing techniques;

(e) Bringing national technicians to the source of specialized knowledge abroad;

(f) Support in solving specific problems, such as the need for complex technical documentation, data and analyses of the type not available locally;

(g) Confidential consultations at a high policy level on matters involving either specific project or industrial development policies;

(h) "Trouble-shooting" assignments to solve special technical problems.

33. In these activities, UNIDO is somewhat hampered by the lack of sufficient funds. It nevertheless makes a

significant contribution to the advancement of economic conditions and, in this way, to the progress which developing countries may be able to achieve in the realization of economic, social and cultural rights.

## 10. UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE ON TRADE AND DEVELOPMENT

34. As determined by the General Assembly in 1964 in resolution 1995 (XIX), UNCTAD is established as a permanent organ to promote international trade, especially with a view to accelerating economic development, and, to this end, to formulate principles and policies on international trade and related problems of economic development. Its tasks are therefore of a comprehensive character. As they have developed over the years, they have come to include, in addition to trade, on which they remain centred, such concerns as the international monetary system, shipping, tourism, the transfer of technology, the activities of multinational corporations, the exploitation of the sea-bed, and environmental questions.

35. UNCTAD must accordingly be viewed as an important factor contributing to the improvement of the economic and social conditions governing the enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights. The Final Act of the first session of the Conference, held at Geneva in 1964, contains, with respect to this over-all objective, significant pronouncements such as those in annex A.1.1:

*General Principle Four:* Economic development and social progress should be the common concern of the whole international community and should, by increasing economic prosperity and well-being, help strengthen peaceful relations and co-operation among nations . . .

*General Principle Five:* National and international economic policies should be directed towards the attainment of an international division of labour in harmony with the needs and interests of developing countries in particular, and of the world as a whole. Developed countries should assist the developing countries in their efforts to speed up their economic and social progress, should co-operate in measures taken by the developing countries for diversifying their economies, and should encourage appropriate adjustments in their own economies to this end.

36. Similarly, the Conference at its second session, held at New Delhi in 1968, recommended in its resolution 24 (II) that:

Special measures be devised, within a global strategy, of convergent measures in order to enable the least developed among the developing countries to derive equitable benefits so that all the developing countries are enabled to gain comparable results from the co-operation of member States of UNCTAD, particularly the co-operation between developing and developed countries.

37. Still in the general endeavour to promote economic development, the Conference at its third session, held at Santiago de Chile in 1972 decided to establish a working group with the task of drawing up the text of a draft charter of the economic rights and duties of States, based on (a) the general, special and other principles approved by the Conference at its first session, (b) any proposals and suggestions made during the third session of the Conference, (c) the relevant resolutions adopted in the United Nations system, especially in connexion with the Second United Nations Development Decade, and (d) the principles formulated in the Charter of Algiers and the Declaration and Principles of the Action Programme of Lima

38. Among other resolutions of a general character should also be mentioned resolution 44 (III) which, in



support of the views expressed at the International Conference on Human Rights held at Teheran in 1968 (see paras. 80 and 81 below), urges member States to envisage the use of resources freed through concrete measures in the field of disarmament for the financing of economic and social programmes particularly in the developing countries. In addition, resolution 46 (III), outlining the steps required to achieve a greater measure of agreement on principles governing international trade relations and policies, proclaims that the international community has the responsibility of eliminating any impediment to the growth and development of developing countries, and thus of contributing to the creation of a world economic development conducive to progress, prosperity and collective economic security.

39. Some of the activities of UNCTAD are, however, more directly related to the realization of economic, social and cultural rights. General Principle Four, part of which was quoted in paragraph 35 above, states with respect to the right to an adequate standard of living:

All countries pledge themselves to pursue internal and external policies designed to accelerate economic growth throughout the world and in particular to help promote, in developing countries, a rate of growth consistent with the need to bring about a substantial and steady increase in average income, in order to narrow the gap between the standard of living in developing countries and that in the developed countries.

40. The Final Act of the first session of the Conference elsewhere underlined the duty of developing countries to raise their standards of living and called for the adoption of international policies which would increase productivity and contribute to economic growth.

41. On the other hand, General Principle Five, also quoted in paragraph 35 above, may, in promoting greater diversification and a more balanced international division of labour, facilitate the exercise of the right to work, and, particularly, the right to free choice of employment, in the developing countries.

42. More specifically, the continued concern of UNCTAD with the need to facilitate the transfer of technology from developed to developing countries can be viewed as a transposition from the individual to the national level of the right to enjoy the benefits of scientific progress and its applications, even though it may affect the protection of the material interests resulting from scientific and technological production.

43. On this point, the Conference at its first session had taken a lead by recommending (annex A.IV.26) that:

Developed countries should encourage the holders of patented and non-patented technology to facilitate the transfer of licences, know-how, technical documentation and new technologies in general to developing countries, including the financing of the procurement of licences and related technology on favourable terms;

and that:

Competent international bodies, including United Nations bodies and the Bureau of the International Union for the Protection of Industrial Property, should explore possibilities for adaptation of legislation concerning the transfer of industrial technology to developing countries, including the possibility of concluding appropriate international agreements in this field.

44. UNCTAD gave further impetus to this idea and recommended the setting up of an intergovernmental committee to examine the over-all question of the transfer of technology to developing countries. At its third session, the Conference extended this concern to the

initiation and implementation, through UNDP and in co-operation with other competent bodies, including WIPO, of training programmes for personnel needed in this connexion in developing countries. It also requested the Secretary-General of UNCTAD to carry out with WIPO a joint study of possible bases for a new international legislation regulating the transfer from developed to developing countries of patented and non-patented technology. It finally recalled that none of the United Nations bodies has the exclusive task of dealing with the question of the transfer of operative technology and decided that UNCTAD would perform its functions in this field in co-operation and co-ordination with the other bodies of the United Nations system and with the other international organizations concerned, with a view to avoiding any overlapping and unnecessary duplication of activities.

## 11. UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

45. Among United Nations bodies, UNDP occupies a special position. By contrast with the others, it was created not to deal with any substantive issue but to superpose on the entire range of economic and social questions an integrated type of development assistance, which includes technical assistance proper, training, feasibility surveys and pre-investment studies.

46. UNDP activities, therefore, coincide in substance with the tasks assigned to other organizations, but at the level of operational assistance. It may nevertheless be of interest to identify those among them which can be viewed as contributing to the realization of economic, social and cultural rights.

47. This contribution is to be found mostly in the group of projects designed to foster human capabilities. Action to promote education and training, to raise standards of health, to improve social welfare, to provide decent housing and to strengthen public administration as a necessary infrastructure reflects many of the concerns expressed in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, notably in the rights to work, to education, to the best attainable standards of health, to social services and to adequate housing.

48. The total sums spent in these fields by UNDP, and by the recipient Governments in the form of counterpart support in cash and in kind, for the period 1959-1968, were as follows:

	<i>Millions of dollars</i>
Education and training.....	485.7
Health.....	131.8
Social welfare.....	29.0
Housing, building and physical planning.....	50.8
Public administration and services.....	152.2
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>849.5</b>

49. Projects in these fields are entrusted to the organs and agencies in the United Nations system which have the competence to carry them out. They are included in the activities summarized in the relevant sections below.

## 12. CONFERENCES OF PLENIPOTENTIARIES

### (a) *United Nations Conference of Plenipotentiaries on the Status of Refugees and Stateless Persons*

50. Convened by General Assembly resolution 429 (V), this Conference met in 1951 at Geneva "to complete the

drafting of and to sign both the Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and the Protocol relating to the Status of Stateless Persons". Details of the Convention are given in paragraph 59 below.

(b) *United Nations Conference of Plenipotentiaries on the Status of Stateless Persons*

51. Convened by Economic and Social Council resolution 526 A (XVII), this Conference met in New York in 1954. It adopted a Convention relating to the Status of Stateless Persons (see para. 60 below).

**B. International instruments and machinery for implementation**

**1. CHARTER OF THE UNITED NATIONS**

52. Article 55 of the Charter makes it a duty for the United Nations to "promote . . . higher standards of living, full employment and conditions of economic and social progress and development", as well as "universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion". In addition, under Article 56, "All Members pledge themselves to take joint and separate action in co-operation with the Organization for the achievement of the purposes set forth in Article 55".

53. These two provisions give to the promotion and observance of human rights and the obligation of Member States in this respect the character of a rule of international law. They must be viewed, therefore, as the foundation upon which all subsequent action in this field rests.

**2. INTERNATIONAL BILL OF RIGHTS**

54. As recommended by the 1945 Preparatory Commission, the General Assembly, at its first session, assigned to the future Commission on Human Rights the task of undertaking the "formulation of an international bill of rights". This instrument eventually took the form of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and of two Covenants: the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, the latter with an Optional Protocol.

(a) *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*

55. While it lacks the legal force of an international treaty, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted by the General Assembly on 10 December 1948, is nevertheless possessed of such authority as to constitute a source of inspiration for all international and regional instruments relating to human rights. It is indeed from those of its provisions dealing with economic, social and cultural rights that the more detailed and binding standards later incorporated in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights were derived. The Covenant, in turn, was the origin of, or influenced, most of the other international and regional conventions adopted in this field. In view of the enormous moral authority of the Declaration, which was emphasized by the International Conference on Human Rights held at Teheran in 1968, it may be looked upon as more of a legal document now than when it was adopted, in regard to the priorities of life in different parts and regions of the world. The Declaration also inspired the relevant provisions in

many of the new or revised constitutions of the countries of the world and in the legislation and jurisdictions of many States.

(b) *International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights*

56. The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights provides the immediate basis for action at the international and regional levels, as well as for the translation of its standards into national reality. The principles it formulates reappear throughout this study; and even where it has not been formally ratified, it is often considered as a guide for action. This is indeed one of the most important international instruments adopted by the United Nations. Its only drawback is that in most of the less developed countries its provisions can only be implemented progressively, according to the level of their development, the availability of their resources and the size of their population. It is probably for that reason that most of these countries have found it difficult to accept global international obligations in respect of all rights provided for in the Covenant. The Covenant has, however, acted as a catalyst in developing national consciousness and, in many cases, legal norms guiding national development planning for the promotion of balanced economic and social development.

57. The principles cover the following rights:

(a) *The right to work*, and more specifically the right to free choice of employment; to just and favourable conditions of work; to protection against unemployment; to just and favourable remuneration; to equal pay for equal work; to rest, leisure and reasonable limitation of working hours, and periodic holidays with pay; the right to form trade unions and to join trade unions of one's choice; and the right to strike;

(b) *The right to social security*, including social insurance;

(c) *The right to an adequate standard of living*, including adequate food, adequate clothing and housing, necessary social services and the continued improvement of living conditions;

(d) *The right to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health*, in particular, through the reduction of the still-birth rate and of infant mortality; the healthy development of the child; the improvement of environmental and industrial hygiene; the prevention, treatment and control of diseases; the creation of conditions ensuring to all medical service and attention in the event of sickness;

(e) *The right to family, motherhood and childhood protection and assistance*, including family protection and assistance, special care and assistance for mothers and special care and assistance for children and young persons;

(f) *The right to education*, including free primary education, equal access to higher education, and the right of parents to choose the kind of education to be given to their children;

(g) *The right to participate freely in cultural life*, and specifically to enjoy the benefit of scientific progress and its applications, and to benefit by the protection of moral and material interests arising out of scientific, literary or artistic work.

58. The Covenant was adopted by the General Assembly on 16 December 1966; it will enter into force after it has been accepted by 35 States. On 31 December 1972,



18 such ratifications or accessions had been registered.<sup>1</sup> The General Assembly has repeatedly urged Governments to ratify this instrument, together with the companion International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. Thus, in 1967, by resolution 2337 (XXII), it invited them to hasten their formal adhesion to it; in 1969, it reiterated this request in resolution 2543 (XXIV) and in 1971, in resolution 2788 (XXVI), it asked the States concerned to accelerate the formal procedures required to that effect.

### 3. CONVENTIONS CONCERNING REFUGEES AND STATELESS PERSONS

#### (a) *Convention and Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees*

59. Following and reinforcing the international agreements concluded under the auspices of the League of Nations, the Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, adopted on 28 July 1951 by the Conference of Plenipotentiaries referred to in paragraph 50 above, contains a number of provisions designed to ensure the application to refugees of many economic, social and cultural rights. It protects their right to artistic and industrial property and seeks to give them the same position as nationals of the countries in which they have taken residence or as aliens subject to reciprocity clauses, in respect to the right of association, gainful employment, welfare, housing, public education, public relief and to the benefits of labour legislation and of social security. The Convention is accompanied by the 1967 Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees, which deals with some additional aspects of the same problem. Both require the States parties to communicate to the Secretary-General the laws and regulations which they have adopted to ensure their application.

#### (b) *Convention relating to the Status of Stateless Persons*

60. Adopted on 28 September 1954 by the Conference of Plenipotentiaries referred to in paragraph 51 above, this Convention also provides for the application to stateless persons of laws and rules normally devised for the benefit of nationals or of aliens covered by a clause of reciprocity. Like the Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, it ensures that persons covered by its provisions are given the benefit of the right to association, gainful employment, welfare, housing, public education and public relief, and are included in the scope of application of labour legislation and of existing social security schemes.

### 4. OTHER INSTRUMENTS

61. Five other formal declarations deserve to be mentioned here. The authority of these declarations far exceeds that provided in normal General Assembly resolutions. They give more precise definition to what is found in the provisions of the Charter and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. They are as follows: the Declaration of the Rights of the Child, the United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (which was followed by the adoption of the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination), the Declaration on the

Elimination of Discrimination against Women, the Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples, and the Declaration on Social Progress and Development.

#### (a) *Declaration of the Rights of the Child*

62. Adopted by the General Assembly in 1959 in its resolution 1386 (XIV), this instrument, which recalls the Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child of 1924, reflects the objectives of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in its requirement that special care and assistance be given to children and young persons. More concrete provisions relate to the benefits of social security and education, and to the prevention of employment above an appropriate minimum age.

#### (b) *United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination*

63. In 1963, the General Assembly adopted its resolution 1904 (XVIII), containing the United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. This text, based on the principle of the dignity and equality of all human beings set forth in the Charter, solemnly condemns discrimination between human beings on the ground of race, colour or ethnic origin as an offence to human dignity, as a denial of the principles of the Charter and as a violation of the human rights and fundamental freedoms proclaimed in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

#### (c) *International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination*

64. Following the United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, which it had adopted in 1963, the General Assembly adopted in 1965 its resolution 2106 A (XX), containing the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. In article 1, racial discrimination is defined as "any distinction, exclusion, restriction or preference based on race, colour, descent, or national or ethnic origin which has the purpose or effect of nullifying or impairing the recognition, enjoyment or exercise, on an equal footing, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural or any other field of public life". A specific reference is made in article 5 to the economic, social and cultural rights listed in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. In this Convention, the States parties condemn racial discrimination and undertake to pursue a policy of eliminating it by appropriate means and without delay. The Convention came into force on 4 January 1969.<sup>2</sup> The Committee on the

<sup>1</sup> Those of Bulgaria, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cyprus, Denmark, Ecuador, Iraq, Kenya, Lebanon, the Libyan Arab Republic, Madagascar, Norway, Sweden, the Syrian Arab Republic, Tunisia, Uruguay and Yugoslavia.

<sup>2</sup> As at 31 December 1972 the following States had ratified or acceded to this Convention: Algeria, Argentina, Austria, Barbados, Bolivia, Brazil, Bulgaria, the Byelorussian SSR, Cameroon, Canada, the Central African Republic, Chile, Costa Rica, Cuba, Cyprus, Czechoslovakia, Democratic Yemen, Denmark, Ecuador, Egypt, Finland, France, Germany (Federal Republic of), Ghana, Greece, Haiti, the Holy See, Hungary, Iceland, India, Iran, Iraq, Jamaica, Kuwait, Lebanon, Lesotho, the Libyan Arab Republic, Madagascar, Malta, Mauritius, Mongolia, Morocco, Nepal, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Niger, Nigeria, Norway, Pakistan, Panama, Peru, the Philippines, Poland, Romania, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Spain, Swaziland, Sweden, the Syrian Arab Republic, Togo, Tonga, Tunisia, the Ukrainian SSR, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, the United Republic of Tanzania, Uruguay, Venezuela, Yugoslavia, Zambia.

Elimination of Racial Discrimination provided for in the Convention was established in 1969 to examine the information submitted by the States parties on the steps they had taken to give effect to the provisions of the Convention. The Committee reports annually to the General Assembly.

(d) *Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women*

65. Adopted in 1967 by the General Assembly in its resolution 2263 (XXII), the Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women elaborates upon those aspects of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights which emphasize the need to eliminate all forms of discrimination based on sex.

(e) *Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples*

66. The Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples, adopted by the General Assembly in 1960, in its resolution 1514 (XV), has a bearing on the realization of economic, social and cultural rights in proclaiming that the subjection of peoples to alien subjugation constitutes a denial of fundamental human rights, and that all peoples have the right to self-determination and the right to pursue freely their economic, social and cultural development.

(f) *Declaration on Social Progress and Development*

67. The Declaration on Social Progress and Development, adopted in 1969 by the General Assembly in its resolution 2542 (XXIV), is, as the most comprehensive statement of social policy objectives ever made by the United Nations, of particular importance for the equitable realization of economic, social and cultural rights. Recalling the principles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, of the International Covenants on Human Rights, of the United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, of the Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples, of the Declaration of the Rights of the Child and of the standards set by the various components of the United Nations system, the Assembly called for national and international action for the use of the Declaration on Social Progress and Development as a common basis for social development policies.

68. Among the principles, objectives and methods advocated in this Declaration, the following may be mentioned as of immediate import to the exercise of economic, social and cultural rights:

The elimination of all forms of discrimination, inequality, colonialism and *apartheid*, and exploitation among peoples and individuals;

National independence and non-interference in the internal affairs of States and respect for their sovereignty and territorial integrity;

Agrarian reforms in which the ownership and use of land will be made to serve best the objectives of social justice and economic development;

The recognition and effective implementation of civil and political rights as well as of economic, social and cultural rights;

Protection of and assistance to the family, maternity and infancy;

The development of an adequate organizational and legal framework conducive to an uninterrupted and diversified growth of the industrial sector;

The maintenance of a proper balance between rural and urban development;

The assurance at all levels of the right to work; to free choice of employment, with elimination of unemployment and underemployment, without any discrimination and with sufficiently high wages, and provision of vocational training; to equitable and favourable conditions of work, including improvement of occupational health and safety provisions; the right to form and join trade unions of one's choice; to bargain collectively and to strike, but with the development of harmonious industrial relations; and the right to just and equal remuneration, with a statutory minimum sufficient for a decent living,

The just and equitable distribution of national wealth and income among all members of the community; the removal of all sorts of inequality; the elimination of poverty, with steady improvement in levels of living, and of hunger and malnutrition; and the provision of adequate housing for all, particularly for low-income groups and large families;

The achievement of the highest standards of health and health protection and services, if possible free of charge;

The eradication of illiteracy, with free education at all levels, and universal access to cultural activities;

The establishment of comprehensive schemes of social security, insurance and welfare, covering in particular the needs of those unable to earn their living;

The improvement in the position of the developing countries in international trade, *inter alia*, through achievement of favourable terms of trade;

The provision of greater assistance on better terms to the developing countries, reaching a volume target of a minimum of 1 per cent of the GNP at market prices of the economically advanced countries;

The intensification of international co-operation, with a view to ensuring the international exchange of information, knowledge and experience concerning social progress and development.

## 5. MACHINERY FOR IMPLEMENTATION

69. The mechanism provided in the United Nations for ascertaining the extent to which international instruments on economic, social and cultural rights are effectively applied is related either to the instrument or to the organ concerned. In both cases, the operation of the mechanism is entrusted to the Commission on Human Rights, to the Economic and Social Council and to the General Assembly.

(a) *Provisions of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights*

70. The implementation process devised in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights requires the States parties to report on the measures taken to achieve the objectives set forth in that instrument. Reports are to be furnished in stages, as determined by the Economic and Social Council, and may indicate factors and difficulties that affect the fulfilment of the obligations assumed under the Covenant. The Council can also make arrangements with the specialized agencies for their reporting on the progress made, within the scope of their activities, in advancing the realization of the rights em-



bodied in the Covenant. The Council may refer the reports thus received to the Commission on Human Rights for study and general recommendation, or for information. The States and specialized agencies concerned are entitled to present to the Council their comments on the recommendations made by the Commission after consideration of their reports.

71. From time to time, the Council may submit to the General Assembly recommendations of a general nature on the measures taken and the progress achieved in the implementation of the rights proclaimed in the Covenant.

#### (b) *Periodic reporting system*

72. In advance of the coming into force of the Covenant and of the implementation machinery provided by it, the Economic and Social Council initiated in 1959 a system, revised in 1965, of periodic reporting under which States Members of the United Nations or members of any of the specialized agencies are invited to supply information on human rights and fundamental freedoms in the territories or areas subject to their jurisdiction. The reports are submitted within a continuing six-year cycle, successively on civil and political rights, economic, social and cultural rights, and freedom of information. Non-governmental organizations in consultative status with the Council may also present objective information on any of these topics.

73. In its review of this process in 1965, the Council pointed out, in resolution 1074 C (XXXIX), that the reporting system not only was a source of information but also provided a valuable incentive to governmental efforts to protect the rights in question and to implement the principles set forth in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. It therefore requested the Commission on Human Rights to plan for the effective consideration of the periodic reports and to establish to that end an *ad hoc* committee (see para. 17 above), with the mandate to study and evaluate the periodic and other information thus received, and, in the light of the comments of the Commission on the Status of Women and of the Sub-Commission on Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities, to submit to the Commission on Human Rights conclusions and recommendations of an objective character.

74. Also, in 1962, in paragraph 10 of its resolution 888 B (XXXIV), the Council invited the non-governmental organizations in consultative status "to submit comments and observations of an objective character on the situation in the field of human rights to assist the Commission in its consideration of the summaries of periodic reports".

#### C. *Promotional activities*

75. The promotion by the United Nations of the protection and observance of economic, social and cultural rights is a continuing process. It takes many forms. In most cases it originates in initiatives of the Commission on Human Rights and the Commission on the Status of Women, followed by endorsing resolutions of the Economic and Social Council and the General Assembly. There is indeed hardly a session of these bodies in which some aspect of these rights is not the subject of a request for further action. Such action is generally specified as the holding of special meetings, the undertaking of special studies, the organization of specific manifestations, or the formulation of statements of a promotional charac-

ter. The preparation of information of a purely factual nature, such as that in the *Yearbook on Human Rights*, which, while constituting a necessary instrument for promotional action, seeks to inform rather than to stimulate, is not dealt with here.

76. It would take too much space, and be no doubt unnecessary, to list here all these promotional activities. A few significant examples should suffice to show that the furtherance of economic, social and cultural rights remains a permanent concern of the Organization at all levels.

#### 1. HUMAN RIGHTS DAY

77. In 1950, in its resolution 423 (V), the General Assembly invited all States to adopt 10 December of each year as Human Rights Day and to mark it by appropriate manifestations. This practice, which helps to draw attention to human rights and their importance for all mankind, is now followed in many parts of the world.

#### 2. ANNIVERSARIES OF THE ADOPTION OF THE UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS

78. As requested by the General Assembly, United Nations organs made extensive arrangements, including publicity and educational measures, for the commemoration of the tenth (1958) and fifteenth (1963) anniversaries of the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

#### 3. DESIGNATION OF 1968 AS INTERNATIONAL YEAR FOR HUMAN RIGHTS

79. In 1963, the General Assembly, by resolution 1961 (XVIII), designated 1968—the twentieth anniversary of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights—as International Year for Human Rights. The programme envisaged for that year included the use of publicity and of educational methods. It involved United Nations offices everywhere in the organization of a programme of measures and activities, including lectures, the translation of important United Nations documents in the field of human rights, the writing of articles on the Declaration, and, in co-operation with local authorities, the preparation of appropriate celebrations. In respect of Member States, the programme recommended special efforts in the field of education. Radio and television networks were also invited to organize special programmes, and newspapers and other periodicals were asked to publish articles designed to publicize the Declaration and its objectives. Finally, private organizations having an interest in the promotion of, and respect for, human rights were likewise requested to support—and participate in—all these activities.

#### *International Conference on Human Rights*

80. One of the major features of the International Year for Human Rights was the International Conference on Human Rights, held at Teheran from 22 April to 13 May 1968. It was attended by representatives of 84 countries, of 4 specialized agencies and of 4 regional organizations. Certain non-governmental organizations were also invited to send observers. The agenda included consideration of "measures to strengthen the activities of the United Nations in promoting the full enjoyment of political, civil,

economic, social and cultural rights, including the improvement of methods and techniques and such institutional and organizational arrangements as may be required".<sup>3</sup>

81. The major outcome of the Teheran Conference was, however, the adoption of the Proclamation of Teheran.<sup>4</sup> Adopted on 13 May 1968, the Proclamation constitutes a solemn affirmation of human rights in general. In paragraph 13, it is stated that "the full realization of civil and political rights without the enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights, is impossible", and that "the achievement of lasting progress in the implementation of human rights is dependent upon sound and effective national and international policies of economic and social development". The Conference also adopted a number of resolutions, several of which must be mentioned here as having a direct bearing on economic, social and cultural rights. They are:

Resolution III, entitled "Measures to achieve rapid and total elimination of all forms of racial discrimination in general and the policy of *apartheid* in particular", in which the Conference condemns the Government of South Africa for its continued implementation of the policy of *apartheid*, declares that policy to be a crime against humanity, and appeals to all States and organizations to give appropriate moral, political and material assistance to the non-white people of southern Africa in their struggle to achieve the rights recognized in the Charter, and urges all States to comply with the resolutions adopted by the Security Council and the General Assembly in that connexion;

Resolution V entitled "Observance of the principle of non-discrimination in employment", in which Governments are called upon to observe fully the principle of non-discrimination in employment laid down in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the 1958 ILO Convention concerning Discrimination in respect of Employment and Occupation;

Resolution XII, entitled "Illiteracy" appealing for increased efforts for the eradication of illiteracy, in which the United Nations and the specialized agencies, especially UNESCO, are invited to stimulate efforts for enhancing the contribution which literacy can make to the development and promotion of human rights;

Resolution XVI entitled "Disarmament", in which the Conference recognizing the world-wide economic and social consequences that disarmament could have in the implementation of human rights and fundamental freedoms, requests that resources released as a result of general and complete disarmament be employed for economic and social progress throughout the world;

Resolution XXI, entitled "Realization of economic, social and cultural rights", in which the Conference calls upon all States to ratify the International Covenants on Human Rights; asks that increased attention be given to economic, social and cultural rights in the activities of the United Nations system and suggesting close co-ordination in this respect; welcomes the action of the Commission on Human Rights in providing for a study of the realization of economic, social and cultural rights; requests the United Nations organs and the specialized agencies to intensify their efforts, including advisory

services, towards the effective observance of these rights; and invites Governments to develop the material and legal means required for their protection and enjoyment.

#### 4. DESIGNATION OF 1971 AS INTERNATIONAL YEAR TO COMBAT RACISM AND RACIAL DISCRIMINATION

82. In 1969, the General Assembly decided, by resolution 2544 (XXIV), to designate the year 1971 as International Year to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination, asking that it be observed in the name of the ever-growing struggle against racial discrimination in all its forms and manifestations. It approved the programme prepared by the Secretary-General for the observance of the Year and appealed to all States to intensify and expand their efforts at the national and international levels towards ensuring the rapid and total eradication of racial discrimination, in all its contemporary forms, including the policy of *apartheid*. It also invited the organs of the United Nations and the specialized agencies to co-operate and participate in the programme for the Year.

#### 5. INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION YEAR

83. An International Education Year was proclaimed by General Assembly resolutions 2306 (XXII) and 2412 (XXIII) to mobilize energies and inspire initiatives in education and training. The year 1970 was designated for that purpose and UNESCO was asked to assume primary responsibility for the preparation and execution of an international programme of action. As approved by the UNESCO General Conference in 1968, that programme called upon States, among other things, to take stock of the existing situation in the field of education, to initiate and stimulate studies for possible improvements and to make specific efforts to increase financial resources for educational development and to eliminate all forms of discrimination.

#### D. Substantive and sectoral concerns

84. Without going into detail, mention must be made here of those sectoral activities which contribute to the conditions required for the full enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights. They all derive from the over-all responsibility assigned to the United Nations for economic, social and cultural development. It would, however, exceed the scope of the present study to review them in their totality. It will suffice to note that some of the major subsidiary organs and programmes established by the General Assembly have also been given general tasks in the promotion of economic and social development, with particular reference to developing countries, and that their activities are accordingly, at the same time, basic to the realization of economic, social and cultural rights.

85. The two United Nations Development Decades (1961-1970 and 1971-1980) deserve to be mentioned here. They have provided a global framework for all activities of the United Nations system in the economic, social and cultural fields. Both aim at the fulfilment of conditions that will ensure a firm basis for the realization of the rights set forth in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. The first of these Decades was inaugurated by the General Assembly in 1961, in its resolu-

<sup>3</sup> *Final Act of the International Conference on Human Rights* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.68.XIV.2), chap. I, para. 21.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, chap. II.



tion 1710 (XVI). It stressed the importance of economic and social development to the countries concerned and to the attainment of peace and security. The objectives assigned to this common effort included the development of human resources—a goal that has a direct bearing on human rights—and the expansion of specific programmes such as UNDP, WFP and the FAO Freedom from Hunger Campaign. The link between the first United Nations Development Decade and human rights was emphasized by General Assembly resolution 2027 (XX), in which reference was made to “the need . . . to devote special attention on both the national and the international level to progress in the field of human rights, and to encourage the adoption of measures designed to accelerate the promotion of respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms”.

86. Though the results of the first Decade were not fully up to expectations, the concept itself of the Decade received wide acceptance and support, and it developed into a true focus for joint international and national action. The General Assembly was thus doubly moved to decide on the proclamation of a Second United Nations Development Decade from 1971 to 1980 in its resolution 2626 (XXV). Among the goals assigned to it are those of bringing about a more equitable distribution of income and wealth for promoting both social justice and efficiency of production, of raising substantially the level of employment, of achieving a greater degree of income security, of expanding and improving facilities for education, health, nutrition, housing and social welfare, and of safeguarding the environment. All these objectives reflect a great concern for economic, social and cultural rights.

87. The four regional economic commissions, for Africa (ECA), Asia and the Far East (ECAFE), Europe (ECE) and Latin America (ECLA), together with the United Nations Economic and Social Office in Beirut, are also given, at the regional level, functions of a general character in parallel with those of the Economic and Social Council. They deal, within their geographical areas, with all problems of advancement that are involved in the realization of economic, social and cultural rights, and since these commissions are empowered to make recommendations for policies and action to the Governments of their member States, they are in a position to make significant contributions to the fulfilment of the conditions required to ensure respect for and observance of these rights.

88. In addition, in so far as they may influence the enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights, sectoral responsibilities entrusted to the Organization in specific fields should be noted. They are assigned to bodies established either under the Economic and Social Council's authority or under that of the General Assembly. The distribution of these responsibilities does not, however, fully coincide with the classification adopted in respect of economic, social and cultural rights. But as they sometimes cover several of these rights, it will be more practical to record them here by organ rather than by subject.

89. Under the Council's authority, the Committee on Housing, Building and Planning is concerned with the conditions required for the enjoyment of the right to adequate housing.

90. Under the General Assembly's authority:

(a) The United Nations Children's Fund plays an important role in ensuring the observance of the rights of

children and young persons to special care and assistance. As stated by the General Assembly in resolution 1391 (XIV), “the aid provided through the Fund constitutes a practical way of international co-operation to help countries carry out the aims proclaimed in the Declaration of the Rights of the Child”. Its programmes include the building of health services for mothers and children, the strengthening of social services, the distribution of food and improvement of nutrition, aid to education and vocational training; they extend therefore to many of the rights formulated in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

(b) The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees established in 1950 by General Assembly resolution 428 (V), has continued on a greater scale the work initiated in this field by the League of Nations. It is entrusted with the task of providing protection and assistance to refugees, on the basis of the Convention and Protocol referred to in paragraph 59 above and of the relevant decisions of the General Assembly. Its activities are thus instrumental in ensuring the application to refugees of many economic, social and cultural rights.

(c) The United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East, established in 1949 by General Assembly resolution 302 (IV), is responsible for carrying out relief and works programmes for the benefit of the refugees displaced at the time of the creation of the State of Israel and in subsequent developments. Its activities cover the provision of shelter, food, health services and educational facilities. They are carried out, where appropriate, with the co-operation of the competent specialized agencies, notably WHO and UNESCO.

(d) The World Food Programme, jointly established by the United Nations and FAO in 1961 and extended in 1965 (General Assembly resolutions 1714 (XVI) and 2095 (XX)) in their effort to meet the needs of food-deficient countries, assists in the creation of the material conditions that are necessary for the realization of the right of everyone to be free from hunger, set forth in article 11 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. (See para. 201 below for further details.)

### E. Advisory services

91. The programme of advisory services in the field of human rights established in 1955 by General Assembly resolution 926 (X) authorizes the Secretary-General, subject to the directions of the Economic and Social Council, to provide requesting Governments, with the co-operation if required of the specialized agencies concerned and without duplicating their existing activities, with the following forms of assistance: advisory services of experts; fellowships and scholarships; and seminars.

92. The type of advisory assistance to be rendered by experts is determined by the requesting Government. Similarly, the choice of the recipients of fellowships and scholarships is made on the basis of proposals received from Governments.

93. For 1972, the credit included in the United Nations budget for advisory services in human rights was \$250 000. No separate allocation, however, within that credit was made for economic, social and cultural rights.

#### *Advisory services of experts*

94. While a few Governments have availed themselves of the services of experts in respect of civil and political

rights, none have so far requested this type of aid for economic, social and cultural rights.

#### *Fellowships and scholarships*

95. Most fellowships are granted for advanced study and special training. Nominations are generally made for government officials of a certain standing. In respect of economic, social and cultural rights, typical grants have been made in the following fields:

Protection of human rights of immigrants and resident aliens;  
Advancement of human rights in the formulation and implementation of economic and social legislation;  
Legislation, decrees and regulations concerning human rights, in relation to the implementation of national development plans;  
Drafting and implementation of legislation related to the protection of the rights of the child and of the family;  
Rights of the child, with particular reference to the protection of the rights of children placed for adoption and of children born out of wedlock;  
Equal employment opportunities for women.

#### *Seminars*

96. Seminars are organized on a regional or inter-regional basis. Their purpose is to provide for reciprocal assistance in the form of exchange of experience and information, and of discussion of common problems. They are attended by highly qualified practitioners designated by Governments, who attend in their personal capacity, by representatives of the specialized agencies concerned and by observers from non-governmental organizations in consultative status with the Economic and Social Council.

97. The following seminars have been organized on aspects of economic, social and cultural rights and related matters:

The status of women in family law (Bogotá, Colombia, 1963);  
The rights of the child (Warsaw, Poland, 1963);  
Human rights in developing countries (Kabul, Afghanistan, 1964);  
The status of women in family law (Lomé, Togo, 1964);  
Human rights in developing countries (Dakar, Senegal, 1966);  
The realization of economic and social rights contained in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Warsaw, Poland, 1967);  
Special problems relating to human rights in developing countries (Nicosia, Cyprus, 1969);  
The realization of economic and social rights with particular reference to developing countries (Lusaka, Zambia, 1970);  
The participation of women in the economic life of their countries (Moscow, USSR, 1970);  
The participation of women in economic life (Libreville, Gabon, 1971).

#### **F. United Nations Children's Fund**

98. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) co-operates with the less developed countries in their efforts to improve the situation of children and adolescents and to prepare them for the future.

99. UNICEF's assistance to countries is directed specifically to children and mothers, the basic approach

being humanitarian. Over the years, UNICEF's activities have gained an important dimension. They seek not only to meet some of the immediate needs of the younger sections of the population, but also to assist countries in establishing and strengthening their long-range services for children, especially those relating to health, nutrition, education and social welfare and development. These services have come to be recognized as essential parts of the over-all effort for economic and social development.

#### *Organization of UNICEF*

100. As a member of the United Nations family, UNICEF is a semi-autonomous organization with its own governing body and secretariat. It works under the direction of a 30-member Executive Board, 10 members of which are elected each year for a three-year term by the Economic and Social Council. The Board meets annually, establishes policy, reviews progress, considers specific recommendations for assistance, and determines the long-range objectives of the organization. UNICEF's work is reviewed annually by the Economic and Social Council and the General Assembly of the United Nations. As an international organization, UNICEF is financed by voluntary contributions from Governments in the more as well as the less developed regions of the world and also from organizations and individuals. About three fourths of UNICEF's income comes from more than 110 contributing Governments. Income from other sources comes mainly from fund-raising campaigns in the more developed countries, from donations from individuals, and from the sale of UNICEF greeting cards.

#### *UNICEF assistance to countries*

101. UNICEF assistance takes three main forms. First, UNICEF works with Governments to assist them in developing plans and programmes for meeting the needs of children in an increasingly comprehensive manner. Secondly, UNICEF provides material aid in the form of a wide range of supplies and equipment for services benefiting children. Thirdly, UNICEF provides financial aid to meet local costs, especially in the form of stipends for training of local personnel. Particular attention is given to working with countries in elaborating national policies for children and youth.

102. Within the framework of its general concerns, UNICEF follows a country approach. That is to say, it believes that each Government has to evolve its own policies, priorities and action programmes for the benefit of the up-coming generation, according to its own special circumstances and opportunities. Programmes thus formulated for the protection of children and adolescents constitute an organic part of national development planning. There is increasing emphasis on integrated programmes for services for children in rural areas as well as in slums and shanty-towns and the poorer neighbourhoods of cities. Such integrated programmes facilitate co-ordinated action as between different services directed to children and also support co-ordination in a wider sense as between social and economic development.

#### *Areas of concentration*

103. Whatever influences the cause of development in a country bears directly on the well-being of children and adolescents. In turn, action taken on behalf of children and adolescents has important social and resource implications which can influence different sectors of development in different ways. Without attempting to draw too



sharp a line, much of the specific action of national agencies on behalf of children and adolescents is concentrated in the following areas:

- (i) Development of services for health, maternal and child health, family planning, supply of potable water, and environmental sanitation;
- (ii) Improved nutrition, especially for infants and young children and pregnant and nursing mothers;
- (iii) Development of human resources, including provision of minimum educational opportunities for children, educational and vocational preparation of adolescent boys and girls, and expansion of opportunities for absorbing adolescents and youth entering the labour market into productive work; and
- (iv) Development of appropriate welfare services, community institutions and voluntary agencies to provide, in particular, for the growth and development of the young child. More generally, it is considered necessary to strengthen the family and the community, to prepare citizens for responsible parenthood, and to develop skills and opportunities for gainful and productive work for girls and women.

Each of these areas of concentration falls within the purview of one or more sectors of development. Therefore, UNICEF is concerned not only to strengthen planning and implementation within each sector but also, in co-operation with other agencies, to ensure that various activities are undertaken in an interrelated and complementary manner, so that action in one field may make possible and stimulate action in others.

104. Up to the present nearly one half of UNICEF's assistance has been devoted to the strengthening and expansion of basic health services, especially for maternal and child health. For several years, on request, UNICEF has provided assistance for family planning as part of national maternal and child health services. In the area of nutrition, two main approaches are stressed, namely: (a) processing and distribution of protein-rich weaning foods, prepared to the greatest extent possible from indigenous sources, and (b) village programmes, commonly described as "applied nutrition". In the field of education,

UNICEF is specially concerned with primary education, education and training of women and girls, pre-occupational training of adolescents, and promotion of non-formal methods of education which both supplement and are better integrated with formal methods of education. About one third of UNICEF's programme assistance is devoted to training personnel, especially those working near the community level.

#### *Special priorities*

105. In recent years, certain priorities have come to be increasingly stressed in UNICEF's work. These include measures of development on behalf of the children of the poorest population groups, development in the least developed countries, concern with the young child, and development of integrated services in rural and urban areas, especially on behalf of the more disadvantaged and backward social groups.

#### *Emergencies*

106. Although, for many years, the creation and expansion of permanent services for children has been the main preoccupation of UNICEF, from time to time UNICEF is called upon to provide emergency aid for children in situations of disaster, whether natural or man-made. In principle, even in emergency situations, when sufficient help from other sources is available for immediate relief, UNICEF prefers to concentrate on the rehabilitation phase.

#### *Partnership with other agencies*

107. Within the United Nations system, several agencies, notably WHO, FAO, UNESCO and ILO and the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs share with UNICEF a common interest in the well-being of children. These agencies provide technical guidance in their fields of competence, including, where needed, the service of experts. They supplement UNICEF's own assistance which, more generally, takes the form of material aid and of funds to cover local training costs. The preparation of policy guidelines, planning and programmes, implementation and evaluation are undertaken, whenever possible, in partnership with the agencies concerned within the United Nations.

## Chapter II

### INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION

108. The objectives, programmes and activities of the ILO encompass many of the rights covered by the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. The ILO is, in fact, the agency which, in the United Nations system, is primarily responsible for problems related to the right to work and to social security; it also deals with certain aspects of the right to an adequate standard of living, to family protection and to education.

109. Traditionally, the ILO operates to a far greater extent than other agencies by way of international standards in the form of conventions and recommendations. Both are subject to a strict constitutional procedure, requiring that they be brought to the attention of the national authorities competent to implement them, and that Governments report on the measures taken in relation to them.

110. Conventions possess a binding character when ratified. Their ratification opens the way to a formal procedure of complaint for non-compliance by other ratifying countries. Recommendations, on the other hand, do not create such legal obligations, but they advocate more detailed rules and sometimes higher standards and are often linked to a particular convention which they complement in this way. For that reason, recommendations, when relevant, are listed here together with the related conventions.

111. Conventions come into force through a process of formal ratification. But their effect may, in some cases, reach beyond the scope of that process. It was found, for example, that in 1961 the Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention (No. 102) of 1952 was more widely applied throughout the world than could be assumed from the modest number of ratifications, which at the time was 11.

112. As far as economic and social rights within the field of activity of the ILO are concerned, much material is available to indicate the extent of acceptance and implementation of the relevant ILO standards, particularly in the annual reports of the Committee of Experts and the Conference Committee on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations and the general surveys of the position in relation to selected standards made by the Committee of Experts, which in recent years have dealt with subjects such as forced labour (1968), discrimination in employment and occupation (1971), employment policy (1972) and freedom of association (1973). The ILO has also been using its regional machinery to review the situation with regard to the ratification and application of selected Conventions.<sup>5</sup>

<sup>5</sup> Reference may be made in this connexion to the following documents: *Asian region: Ratification and Implementation of Selected International Labour Conventions in Asian Countries*, Report I

113. By the range of its activities and the mode of its operation, the ILO has produced a substantial number of formal instruments covering some or the whole of the substance of many economic, social and cultural rights. It is not possible to give details here, owing to space limitations, but in most cases, the mere title of the instrument suffices to define its contents.

114. The conventions (and related recommendations) are reported here in the order used for the periodic reports on human rights. Those that affect several categories of rights are listed under each of them. It should be noted, in this connexion, that in the ILO classification, the term "social security" covers several rights, such as the right to medical care, the right to family and child protection and the right to protection against unemployment, which, in the Covenant, appear under other headings. In such cases, the ILO classification is used, with appropriate cross-references under the other headings concerned.

115. To supervise the application of conventions and recommendations, a committee of independent experts examines the reports submitted by Governments and comments on them, either directly to Governments or in its published report placed before the General Conference, which decides on any further action that may be required. In addition, procedures of impartial inquiry into conflicts regarding divergencies in application are provided and resorted to in certain cases.

116. Under article 2 of the Covenant, developing countries may determine the extent to which economic rights may be guaranteed to non-nationals. Certain of the ILO conventions contain provisions under which the rights of non-nationals may be restricted, but they are of equal application to all ratifying States, whatever the degree of their economic development.

117. Promotional activities include resolutions of the General Conference, the Governing Body, and special and regional conferences, as well as conclusions reached in surveys, seminars and other similar activities.

118. Finally, advisory services are available to requesting Governments in the form of technical assistance projects, financed either from the regular ILO budget, UNDP or trust funds.

(Part 2), 7th Asian Regional Conference (Teheran, 1971); *Review and Evaluation of ILO Activities in Asia, Part III: International Labour Standards*, Asian Advisory Committee, 15th Session (Bangkok, 1973) (AAC/XV/1/2).

*Africa: The Ratification and Implementation of International Labour Conventions in Africa, with Special Reference to Conventions relating to Employment Policy, Forced Labour, Social Policy and Labour Inspection*, Report I (Part 2), 4th African Regional Conference (Nairobi, 1973).

*American region: Review and Evaluation of the ILO's Activities in the Americas, Part III: International Labour Standards*, Inter-American Advisory Committee, 3rd Session (San José, Costa Rica, 1972) (AM.A.C./III/1/2).

## A. Organs concerned with the formulation of standards

119. One of the most distinctive features of the ILO is its tripartite structure. It is an intergovernmental agency, but employers and workers, as well as Governments, take an equal part in its work.

120. The International Labour Conference, which meets annually, is the supreme deliberative and standard-setting body. Each national delegation is composed of two government representatives, one employer and one worker representative. The Conference is the sole organ empowered to adopt conventions and recommendations. For that purpose, a majority of two thirds is required.

## B. International instruments and machinery for implementation

### 1. INSTRUMENTS OF A GENERAL CHARACTER

121. While the relevant ILO conventions and recommendations may be related to several of the rights included in the Covenant, the ILO Constitution and the Declaration concerning the Aims and Purposes of the International Labour Organisation (the 1944 Declaration of Philadelphia), which forms part of it (the annex), were directed at the general objective of advancing the development of the economic and social environment which conditions the realization of economic, social and cultural rights.

122. In its preamble, the Constitution of the ILO urges the improvement of labour conditions as a prerequisite for peace and harmony in the world. The Declaration of Philadelphia affirms, in section II, that

all human beings, irrespective of race, creed or sex, have the right to pursue both their material well-being and their spiritual development in conditions of freedom and dignity, of economic security and equal opportunity.

123. The same Declaration, in section III, sets forth the obligation of the ILO to further programmes that will achieve:

(a) Full employment and the raising of standards of living;

(b) The employment of workers in the occupations in which they can have the satisfaction of giving the fullest measure of their skill and attainments and make their greatest contribution to the common well-being;

(c) Facilities for training and labour mobility;

(d) Equitable remuneration;

(e) The effective recognition of the right of collective bargaining, the co-operation of management and labour in the improvement of efficiency, and the collaboration of workers and employers in the preparation and application of economic and social measures;

(f) The extension of social security measures to provide a basic income and comprehensive medical care;

(g) Protection for the life and health of workers;

(h) Provision for child welfare and maternity protection;

(i) Adequate nutrition, housing and facilities for recreation and culture;

(j) Equality of educational and vocational opportunity.

124. It will be noted that some of these objectives, notably in respect of adequate nutrition, child welfare, cultural facilities and education, are the primary responsibility of other United Nations agencies.

## 2. MACHINERY FOR IMPLEMENTATION

125. In so far as it applies to all ILO standards, the implementation machinery used by the ILO is threefold: it provides for scrutiny by supervisory bodies, expert or representative; a quasi-judicial procedure of complaint in respect of non-observance, followed by impartial inquiry; and a system of enforcement at the level of the undertaking.

126. In addition, sectoral enforcement systems are provided. A joint United Nations/ILO mechanism deals with complaints of violations of trade-union rights against countries not members of the ILO. A parallel ILO procedure covers similar complaints against States members of the ILO. These procedures are described in connexion with the application of the right to form and to join trade unions (see paras. 166-167 below). Another joint ILO/United Nations procedure, which has been used in the past to supervise the prohibition of forced labour, is reviewed under the heading "Specific rights" (see para. 143 below). While these specialized mechanisms are designed to deal with sectoral problems of application, ILO standards are all subject to the general implementation machinery summarized in the following paragraphs.

### (a) *Supervision by expert and representative bodies*

127. Under the ILO Constitution, Governments undertake to bring newly adopted conventions and recommendations before the competent national authorities for the enactment of legislation or other action and to inform the ILO of the measures taken. The ILO Constitution also requires from Governments that they report annually on the conventions which they have ratified, and, when requested by the Governing Body, on their position with respect to unratified conventions and to recommendations. Copies of these reports and information must be communicated to the representative organizations of employers and workers.

128. These reports are submitted to the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations, consisting of 19 independent persons. It meets annually to examine the reports received from Governments and formulates its conclusions and recommendations in the form of requests or observations for the benefit of the Governments and the General Conference. In addition to this annual review, the Committee undertakes from time to time, with the assistance of the ILO secretariat, surveys in depth in specific fields covered by the conventions. In 1971, for instance, it carried out a general survey of the effect given to the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention and Recommendation (No. 111) of 1958 in all the member countries and in 1973 a similar survey was made in respect of conventions relating to freedom of association, the right to organize and collective bargaining.

129. In the Conference, a tripartite sessional committee reviews the experts' report and transmits it to the plenary Conference with its comments and conclusions.

130. At the Conference level, the tripartite committee regularly calls upon representatives of the Governments concerned to examine with it specific points concerning the situation described in the reports.

### (b) *Representations alleging non-observance of conventions*

131. Article 24 of the Constitution provides for the possibility of representations by employers' or workers'



organizations alleging non-observance of a ratified convention. The Governing Body may communicate such a representation to the Government concerned and has the right to publish the representation together with any statement made in reply, as well as its own findings on the matter.

### *(c) Impartial inquiry*

132. Article 26 of the Constitution provides that complaints may be filed by a Government against another Government for non-compliance with the terms of a convention which they have both ratified.

133. The Governing Body may refer such complaints to a Commission of Inquiry. (Up to 1972, three cases had been brought before the Commission.) After hearing the Governments concerned and giving full consideration to the complaint, the Commission reports to the Governing Body its findings on the facts and recommends steps that may be taken to meet the complaint.

134. Any of the Governments parties to the dispute may state within three months whether or not it accepts the Commission's recommendations and, if not, whether the complaint should be referred to the International Court of Justice. If so, the decision of the Court, affirming, modifying or reversing the Commission's proposals, is final.

135. If the defendant Government fails to comply with the recommendations of the Commission of Inquiry or with the decision of the Court, the Governing Body may recommend to the General Conference "such action as it may deem wise and expedient to secure compliance therewith" (article 33).

### *(d) Control at the level of the undertaking*

136. Control of the application of ILO standards at the level of the undertaking naturally belongs to the Government concerned. Its action here is, however, supported by ILO standards embodied in conventions and recommendations. They provide for a labour inspection system, and representations by workers' representatives within the undertaking.

#### *Labour inspection*

137. While the ILO supervision machinery applies to the application of its standards both in law and in practice and both at the national level and at the level of the undertaking, the Labour Inspection Convention (No. 81) of 1947 stresses the day-to-day role of labour inspectors in securing compliance with accepted standards. The Plantations Convention (No. 110) of 1958 contains similar provisions. Labour inspection standards were extended to agricultural workers by the Labour Inspection (Agriculture) Convention (No. 129) of 1969.

#### *Action by workers' representatives in the undertaking*

138. Another factor of implementation at the level of the undertaking is provided by the supervision exercised by the professional organizations concerned, notably the trade unions. A number of international instruments deal with the procedures to be followed when individual rights are denied. Such is the case, for example, with the instruments relating to minimum wages, social security and termination of employment. The Recommendation concerning the Examination of Grievances within the Undertaking with a View to their Settlement (No. 130) of 1967 further strengthens existing procedures by giving any

worker the right to submit grievances without suffering prejudice and to have such grievances examined according to appropriate rules. More recent instruments, the Workers' Representatives Convention (No. 135) and Recommendation (No. 143) of 1971, are aimed at ensuring protection and certain facilities to workers' representatives in the undertaking.

## **C. Specific rights**

### **1. THE RIGHT TO WORK**

139. The right to work is essentially conditioned by policies designed to achieve full employment. It also requires, for the exercise of free choice, guarantees of mobility as well as facilities for vocational training and improvement. Thus the Declaration of Philadelphia, in section III, affirms the obligation of the International Labour Organisation to further programmes which will achieve full employment, the possibility for workers to be employed in occupations in which they can give the fullest measure of their potentialities and contribute to the common well-being, and the provision of adequate facilities for labour training and mobility.

#### *(a) The right to free choice of employment*

140. Among ILO conventions and recommendations, the most comprehensive instruments designed to protect and promote the right to work are the Employment Policy Convention (No. 122) and Recommendation (No. 122) of 1964. The Convention prescribes measures to promote full and freely chosen employment, adopted and supervised in consultation with employers' and workers' representatives. The Recommendation provides more detailed guidance and deals more specifically with the matters referred to in article 6, paragraph 2, of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

141. Other instruments deal with particular aspects of the right to work. The Employment Service Convention (No. 88) and Recommendation (No. 83) of 1948 provide for free employment services. Other conventions aim at abolishing fee-charging employment agencies. Further measures to assist workers to find suitable employment may be found in part VI of the Social Policy (Basic Aims and Standards) Convention (No. 117) of 1962, the Vocational Guidance Recommendation (No. 87) of 1949, the Vocational Rehabilitation (Disabled) Recommendation (No. 99) of 1955 and the Vocational Training Recommendation (No. 117) of 1962. Separate recommendations deal with the vocational training of seafarers, fishermen and agricultural workers.

142. The principle of free choice of employment is given specific expression in the Forced Labour Convention (No. 29) of 1930 and in the Abolition of Forced Labour Convention (No. 105) of 1957. Under the latter, States parties undertake to suppress and not to make use of forced or compulsory labour.

143. As noted in paragraph 126 above, a special mechanism has been used to ensure the abolition of forced labour. In 1951, after an inquiry initiated by Economic and Social Council resolution 195 (VIII), adopted in 1949, a joint United Nations/ILO *ad hoc* Committee on Forced Labour, composed of independent persons, was set up to make a survey and study of systems of forced labour. The Committee found, when it completed its work in 1953, that its inquiries had indeed revealed the existence of



forced labour systems so grave as to threaten basic human rights. After further consideration of the Committee's findings by the Council and the General Assembly, the ILO Governing Body decided in 1955 to establish a new independent *ad hoc* Committee on Forced Labour, whose work led to the adoption in 1957 of the second of the conventions mentioned in the preceding paragraph.

(b) *The right to just and favourable conditions of employment*

144. Article 7 of the Covenant requires fair remuneration providing a decent living; safe and healthy conditions of work; equal opportunity for promotion; and reasonable rest and holiday periods.

*Remuneration*

145. In this field, the ILO has adopted a number of instruments dealing with the minimum-wage-fixing machinery, the protection of wages and the need for equal remuneration. In addition, instruments concerning labour clauses in public contracts may have important effects for wage rates.

146. Provisions concerning minimum wages are contained in the Minimum Wage-Fixing Machinery Convention (No. 26) and Recommendation (No. 30) of 1928, applicable to industry and commerce (including home-working trades), the Minimum Wage Fixing Machinery (Agriculture) Convention (No. 99) and Recommendation (No. 89) of 1951, applicable to agriculture, the Social Policy (Non-Metropolitan Territories) Convention (No. 82) of 1947 and the Social Policy (Basic Aims and Standards) Convention (No. 117) of 1962, and in part IV of the Plantations Convention (No. 110) of 1958. Mention must also be made here of the Minimum Wage Fixing Convention (No. 131) of 1970, which has special reference to developing countries. As regards seafarers, actual minimum wage rates have been laid down in several instruments, notably in the Wages, Hours of Work and Manning (Sea) Conventions No. 76 of 1946 and No. 93 of 1949, revised by No. 109 of 1958, none of which has yet entered into force, but which nevertheless have been used extensively as a standard of reference.

147. The payment of fair wages to workers engaged in the execution of public contracts is one of the objects of the Labour Clauses (Public Contracts) Convention (No. 94) and Recommendation (No. 84) of 1949.

148. In addition, the Protection of Wages Convention (No. 95) and Recommendation (No. 85) of 1949 contain provisions to protect wages from improper abuses.

149. The principle of equal remuneration for men and women for work of equal value has been laid down in the Equal Remuneration Convention (No. 100) and Recommendation (No. 90) of 1951. The Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (No. 111) and Recommendation (No. 111) of 1958 prohibit discrimination on the ground of sex, race, colour, religion, political opinion, national extraction or social origin. The Social Policy (Non-Metropolitan Territories) Convention (No. 82) of 1947 and the Social Policy (Basic Aims and Standards) Convention (No. 117) of 1962 similarly provide for the abolition of any discrimination on the basis of race, colour, sex, belief, tribal association or trade union affiliation. While they cover the main cases of discrimination likely to occur, these instruments do not establish a general right to equal remuneration for work of equal

value, without any distinction "of any kind", as prescribed by the Covenant.

150. As regards a decent standard of living, the conventions concerning wage-fixing machinery referred to in paragraph 135 above do not lay down rules regarding the actual level of wages, but the complementary recommendations provide that, in fixing wages, account should be taken of the need to maintain a suitable standard of living. The Social Policy (Non-Metropolitan Territories) Convention (No. 82) of 1947 and the Social Policy (Basic Aims and Standards) Convention (No. 117) of 1962, already mentioned above, require that the improvement of standards of living be regarded as the principal objective of economic development.

*Safe and healthy conditions of work*

151. ILO standards of safe and healthy conditions of work are directed either at specific branches of activity or at particular aspects of health and safety problems.

152. Dealing with specific branches of activity are, for dock work, the Marking of Weight (Packages Transported by Vessels) Convention (No. 27) of 1929 and the Protection Against Accidents (Dockers) Convention (Revised) (No. 32) of 1932; for building and construction, the Safety Provisions (Building) Convention (No. 62) and Recommendation (No. 53) of 1937; for office and commercial work, the Hygiene (Commerce and Offices) Convention (No. 120) and Recommendation (No. 120) of 1964; for seafarers, the Food and Catering (Ships' Crews) Convention (No. 68) of 1946, the Accommodation of Crews Convention (Revised) (No. 92) of 1949, the Accommodation of Crews (Fishermen) Convention (No. 126) of 1966, the Accommodation of Crews (Supplementary Provisions) Convention (No. 133) of 1970, and the Prevention of Accidents (Seafarers) Convention (No. 134) of the same year.

153. The ILO has also drawn up a series of model codes, or codes of practice, covering such fields as safety regulations for industrial establishments, safety and health in dock work, safety in mines, protection against ionizing radiations, and safety and health in agricultural and forestry work.

*Equal opportunity for promotion*

154. The Covenant provides for equal opportunity for everyone to be promoted subject to no other consideration than seniority and competence. This right is reflected in most instruments already mentioned prohibiting discrimination in employment, notably: the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (No. 111) and Recommendation (No. 111) of 1958, the Social Policy (Non-Metropolitan Territories) Convention (No. 82) of 1947 and the Social Policy (Basic Aims and Standards) Convention (No. 117) of 1962.

*Rest, leisure, limitation of working hours and holidays*

155. To regulate hours of work, two conventions lay down the standard of the 8-hour day and the 48-hour week: the Hours of Work (Industry) Convention (No. 1) of 1919 and the Hours of Work (Commerce and Offices) Convention (No. 30) of 1930. The Forty-Hour Week Convention (No. 47) of 1935 proclaims the principle expressed in its title, to be applied to different classes of employment in separate instruments. Three more specific conventions were subsequently adopted: the Reduction of

Hours of Work (Glass-Bottle Works) Convention (No. 49) of 1935, the Reduction of Hours of Work (Public Works) Convention (No. 51) of 1936 and the Reduction of Hours of Work (Textiles) Convention (No. 61) of 1937.

156. Instruments were also adopted to regulate more specifically the hours of work in industrial branches already covered by the 1919 Convention. They are: the Sheet-Glass Works Convention (No. 43) of 1934, the Hours of Work (Coal Mines) Convention (Revised) (No. 46) of 1935 and the Hours of Work and Rest Periods (Road Transport) Convention (No. 67) of 1939. Provisions concerning seafarers are laid down in the Wages, Hours of Work and Manning (Sea) Convention (Revised) (No. 109) of 1958.

157. Also on the question of hours of work, there are a certain number of recommendations which advocate more detailed standards than those in the conventions or cover categories excluded by them. They are: the Reduction of Hours of Work Recommendation (No. 116) of 1962, designed to achieve the social standard of the 40-hour week, the Plantations Recommendation (No. 110) of 1958, the Hours of Work (Fishing) Recommendation (No. 7) of 1920 and the Hours of Work (Inland Navigation) Recommendation (No. 8) of the same year.

158. Provisions for weekly rest are to be found in the Weekly Rest (Industry) Convention (No. 14) of 1921, the Weekly Rest (Commerce and Offices) Convention (No. 106) and Recommendation (No. 103) of 1957, the Hours of Work and Rest Periods (Road Transport) Convention (No. 67) of 1939, the Plantations Convention (No. 110) of 1958 and the Wages, Hours of Work and Manning (Sea) Convention (Revised) (No. 109) of 1958.

159. The more specific problems of night work are covered by the Night Work (Women) Convention (Revised) (No. 89) of 1948, applicable to industrial undertakings, the Night Work of Young Persons (Industry) Convention (Revised) (No. 90) of 1948, the Night Work of Young Persons (Non-Industrial Occupations) Convention (No. 79) of 1946, applicable to occupations other than industrial, agricultural or maritime, and the Night Work (Bakeries) Convention (No. 20) of 1925.

160. Night work is prohibited for young persons on board ship under the age of 16 years by the Wages, Hours of Work and Manning (Sea) Convention (Revised) (No. 109) of 1958.

161. Minimum daily rest periods are prescribed in the Hours of Work and Rest Periods (Road Transport) Convention (No. 67) of 1939. In agriculture, they are advocated for women and young persons in the Night Work of Women (Agriculture) Recommendation (No. 13) and the Night Work of Children and Young Persons (Agriculture) Recommendation (No. 14), both of 1921.

162. Provision for annual holidays with pay is made in the Holidays with Pay Convention (No. 52) and Recommendation (No. 47) of 1936; the Holidays with Pay (Agriculture) Convention (No. 101) and Recommendation (No. 93) of 1952; the Paid Vacations (Seafarers) Convention (Revised) (No. 91) of 1949; the Plantations Convention (No. 110) of 1958; the Holidays with Pay Recommendation (No. 98) of 1954, and the Holidays with Pay Convention (Revised) (No. 132) of 1970.

### *(c) The right to form and join trade unions*

163. Article 8 of the Covenant seeks to provide guarantees for the right to form trade unions and to join the

trade union of one's choice; the right of trade unions to form national and international federations; the right of trade unions to function freely; and the right to strike.

### *Instruments*

164. The first three rights mentioned above are covered by the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention (No. 87) of 1948 which, in a number of respects, prescribes more detailed rules than the Covenant or supplements them with additional guarantees. In the Convention, the restrictions authorized on the exercise of these rights are generally more limited than in the Covenant. Despite these differences, the obligations under the Convention are fully protected by the saving clause contained in article 8, paragraph 3, of the Covenant. The Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention (No. 98) of 1949, and the Workers' Representatives Convention (No. 135) and Recommendation (No. 143) of 1971 also contain provisions relevant to article 8 of the Covenant. Reference should moreover be made to the resolution concerning trade union rights and their relation to civil liberties adopted by the International Labour Conference at its fifty-fourth session in June 1970.

165. The Covenant recognizes the right to strike, which ILO instruments do not. But the conclusions of the Governing Body's Committee on Freedom of Association and of the Fact-Finding and Conciliation Commission on Freedom of Association have produced a substantial body of established principles providing considerable protection to workers' organizations in their exercise of the right to strike as a legitimate means of defending their occupational interests. As a counterpart of this right, the Voluntary Conciliation and Arbitration Recommendation (No. 92) of 1951 advocates methods and processes of settling labour disputes without recourse to direct action.

### *Machinery*

166. The implementation machinery described in paragraphs 125 to 135 is applicable to the ILO instruments relating to trade union rights, but in addition special machinery has been established for examining complaints alleging violation of trade union rights, which may be invoked whether or not the State concerned has ratified the relevant Conventions.

167. In 1950, the Governing Body established, at the request of the Economic and Social Council, the Fact-Finding and Conciliation Commission on Freedom of Association, composed of independent persons, to which allegations of infringements of trade-union rights received from Governments and employers' and workers' organizations against States members of the ILO may be referred, with the consent of the Government concerned. Allegations against countries not members of the ILO are considered by the Council itself (see para. 126 above).

168. In addition the Governing Body decided in 1951 to set up its own Committee on the Freedom of Association with the task of screening such allegations so as to determine the appropriateness of referring particular cases to the Fact-Finding Commission. By August 1973, the Committee had considered 750 cases, and reached conclusions in almost 700.

169. A third type of device has been used to ensure the application of the right to form and join trade unions. In 1968, the Governing Body appointed, at the request of the Spanish Government, a Study Group composed of three



independent persons to examine the labour and trade union situation in Spain in relation to the ILO standards. The Group's final report, submitted in 1969, provided an opportunity for a full and free debate on the position, present and future, of the trade unions in Spain.

## 2. THE RIGHT TO SOCIAL SECURITY

170. Briefly expressed in article 9 of the Covenant, the right to social security has in the ILO been the subject of a number of international instruments. They are divided into nine branches, several of which overlap the rights proclaimed in articles 10 and 12 of the Covenant. These branches are: medical care; cash sickness benefit; maternity benefit; invalidity benefit; old-age benefit; survivors' benefit; employment injury benefit; unemployment benefit; family benefit.

171. The ILO instruments of a comprehensive nature include the Income Security Recommendation (No. 67) of 1944, which advocated these nine types of benefits; the Medical Care Recommendation (No. 69) of 1944, providing for comprehensive medical care for all members of the community; the Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention (No. 102) of 1952, laying down minimum standards for the nine branches of social security and requiring, in case of ratification, acceptance of at least three of them; the Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention (No. 118) of 1962, covering the same branches and requiring in case of ratification, acceptance of at least one of them, and the Plantations Convention (No. 110) and Recommendation (No. 110) of 1958, which contain social security provisions.

### (a) *Medical care*

172. The Sickness Insurance (Industry) Convention (No. 24) and the Sickness Insurance (Agriculture) Convention (No. 25) of 1927 provide for a system of compulsory sickness insurance giving entitlement to medical treatment and the supply of medicines and appliances. Similar provisions are made applicable to seafarers in the Sickness Insurance (Sea) Convention (No. 56) of 1936. The Shipowners' Liability (Sick and Injured Seamen) Convention (No. 55) of 1936 establishes the right to medical care as an employer's liability in respect of sickness occurring during the employee's service. The Social Security (Seafarers) Convention (No. 70) of 1946 prescribes medical benefits similar to those applicable to industrial workers.

173. The Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention (No. 102) of 1952 provides for wider benefits than the earlier social insurance conventions. The Medical Care and Sickness Benefits Convention (No. 130) of 1969 goes further, by including in the benefits dental care and rehabilitation, and by extending the range of persons to be covered to 75 per cent of the economically active population or 75 per cent of all residents. The Medical Care and Sickness Benefits Recommendation (No. 134) of the same year advocates the extension of these provisions to all economically active persons and to their wives and children.

### (b) *Cash sickness benefit*

174. The Conventions on medical care also deal with the payment of cash benefits. The Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention (No. 102) of 1952 makes provision for a minimum level. While it does not

prescribe coverage of the entire population, it requires protection in this respect of at least 50 per cent of all employees, or 20 per cent of all residents, or to all residents whose means do not exceed a certain level. The Medical Care and Sickness Benefits Convention (No. 130) of 1969 extends this coverage to all employees or to 50 per cent of the economically active population, and the corresponding Recommendation (No. 134), of the same year, advocates its extension to all economically active persons.

### (c) *Maternity benefit*

175. ILO instruments handle maternity benefits from two different standpoints: as a protection for women workers, and as a branch of social security. The Maternity Protection Convention (Revised) (No. 103) of 1952 requires specific periods of maternity leave, and medical care and cash benefits during these periods. The Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention (No. 102) of 1952 provides for cash benefits in respect of suspension of earnings resulting from pregnancy and confinement, and for medical care beyond the period of maternity leave. It covers all women in prescribed classes constituting not less than 50 per cent of all employees, or women in prescribed classes of the economically active population constituting not less than 20 per cent of all residents.

### (d) *Invalidity benefit*

176. The Invalidity Insurance (Industry, etc.) Convention and the Invalidity Insurance (Agriculture) Convention were adopted in 1933 (Nos. 37 and 38 respectively). The Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention (No. 102) of 1952 also provides invalidity benefits. The standards established by these instruments were revised by the Invalidity, Old-Age and Survivors' Benefits Convention (No. 128) of 1967. It prescribes invalidity benefits at a given level, as well as rehabilitation and placement services. This protection is to be secured to all employees, or to 75 per cent of the economically active population, or to all residents with means below a certain level. The Invalidity, Old-Age and Survivors' Benefits Recommendation (No. 131) of the same year advocates the extension of this protection to all economically active persons.

### (e) *Old-age benefit*

177. Revising the earlier old-age insurance conventions (Nos. 35 and 36) of 1933, as well as the standards laid down in the Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention (No. 102) of 1952, the Invalidity, Old-Age and Survivors' Benefits Convention (No. 128) of 1967 provides for old age benefits at a prescribed level to persons defined in the same terms as those used for the applicability of invalidity benefits. The companion Recommendation (No. 131) advocates the extension of the range of the persons to be covered.

### (f) *Survivors' benefit*

178. The same Invalidity, Old-Age and Survivors' Benefits Convention (No. 128) of 1967 requires payment of survivors' benefits to wives, children and other dependants of persons who were employed or belonged to prescribed classes of the economically active population constituting not less than 75 per cent of the whole economically active population, or to survivors who are also resident and whose means are below a certain level. The complementary Recommendation (No. 131) is designed to extend this protection to the survivors of all economically active persons.

(g) *Employment injury benefit*

179. The Employment Injury Benefits Convention (No. 121) of 1964, revising earlier standards, provides for medical care and allied benefits as well as cash benefits of a prescribed level in cases of morbidity, incapacity, loss of earning capacity and loss of support due to employment injury for all employees, subject to certain exceptions. The Employment Injury Benefits Recommendation (No. 121) of the same year advocates the extension of this protection to further categories of persons.

(h) *Unemployment benefit*

180. The Unemployment Provision Convention (No. 44) of 1934 prescribes the maintenance of schemes ensuring unemployment benefits related to the contributions paid in respect of previous employment, and for additional allowances in case of need. Such schemes are to be applicable to all persons habitually employed, except seamen, fishermen and agricultural workers. Seafarers are covered by the Social Security (Seafarers) Convention (No. 70) of 1946. The Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention (No. 102) of 1952 extends unemployment benefits to further categories of workers.

(i) *Family benefit*

181. The Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention (No. 102) of 1952 prescribes benefits for the assistance of children. It requires coverage of not less than 50 per cent of all employees, or of categories of persons constituting not less than 20 per cent of all residents, or of all residents whose means are below a certain level.

3. THE RIGHT TO AN ADEQUATE STANDARD OF LIVING

182. The guarantee of an adequate standard of living and the continuous improvement of living conditions is the aim of a large number of ILO instruments, most of which have already been mentioned, particularly in respect of the right to just and favourable conditions of work and of the right to social security. More general provisions are contained in the Social Policy (Non-Metropolitan Territories) Convention (No. 82) of 1947 and in the Social Policy (Basic Aims and Standards) Convention (No. 117) of 1962. Other instruments having a direct bearing on standards of living are the Indigenous and Tribal Populations Convention (No. 107) and Recommendation (No. 104) of 1957, the Plantations Convention (No. 110) and Recommendation (No. 110) of 1958, the Workers' Housing Recommendation (No. 115) of 1961, the Co-operatives (Developing Countries) Recommendation (No. 127) of 1966 and the Tenants and Share-Croppers Recommendation (No. 132) of 1968.

4. THE RIGHT TO THE ENJOYMENT OF THE HIGHEST ATTAINABLE STANDARD OF PHYSICAL AND MENTAL HEALTH

183. ILO standards in the field of occupational safety and health have been reviewed in respect of the right to the enjoyment of just and favourable conditions of work and of the right to social security. Both the Indigenous and Tribal Populations Convention (No. 107) of 1957 and the Plantations Convention (No. 110) of 1958 lay down requirements for the provision of medical services.

5. THE RIGHT OF THE FAMILY, MOTHERHOOD AND CHILDHOOD TO PROTECTION AND ASSISTANCE

184. This right may be considered under three main headings:

(a) *Protection and assistance to the family*

185. While the ILO is not primarily responsible for this field of activity, some of its standards have a bearing upon certain of its aspects. General principles relevant to it may be found in the Income Security Recommendation (No. 67) of 1944, which advocates the co-operation of society with parents through general measures of assistance to secure the well-being of dependent children. This notion is developed in the Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention (No. 102) of 1952. Reference must also be made here to the Employment (Women with Family Responsibilities) Recommendation (No. 123) of 1965.

(b) *Maternity protection*

186. The Maternity Protection Convention (Revised) (No. 103) of 1952 has already been noted under the heading of social security (see para. 175 above). The companion Recommendation (No. 95) of the same year prescribes more advanced standards of leave and benefits; it also provides for facilities for nursing mothers and infants. Standards similar to those required by Convention No. 103 are contained in the Plantations Convention (No. 110) of 1958.

(c) *Protection of children and young persons*

187. The Social Policy (Aims and Standards) Convention (No. 117) of 1962 sets forth general standards for the school-leaving age, a minimum age for employment, and conditions of employment. On the minimum age, standards for specific sectors of activity are contained in the Minimum Age (Agriculture) Convention (No. 10) of 1921; the Minimum Age (Trimmers and Stokers) Convention (No. 15) of 1921; the Minimum Age (Sea) Convention (Revised) (No. 58) of 1936; the Minimum Age (Industry) Convention (Revised) (No. 59) of 1937; the Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment) Convention (Revised) (No. 60) of 1937; the Minimum Age (Fishermen) Convention (No. 112) of 1959, and the Minimum Age (Underground Work) Convention (No. 123) of 1965. In 1973, the International Labour Conference adopted comprehensive new standards—the Minimum Age Convention (No. 138) and Recommendation (No. 146)—aimed at the abolition of child labour and the progressive raising of the minimum age for admission to employment: the general minimum age is set at 15 years, with 18 years for dangerous work (developing countries being enabled initially to fix a general minimum of 14 years and to limit the application of the Convention to certain sections of economic activity).

188. Medical examination for entry into employment and annual re-examination are prescribed by the Medical Examination of Young Persons (Sea) Convention (No. 16) of 1921; the Medical Examination of Young Persons (Industry) Convention (No. 77) of 1946; the Medical Examination of Young Persons (Non-Industrial Occupations) Convention (No. 78) of 1946; the Medical Examination (Fishermen) Convention (No. 113) of 1959, and the Medical Examination of Young Persons (Underground Work) Convention (No. 124) of 1965.



## 6. THE RIGHT TO EDUCATION

189. The right to education falls primarily within the competence of organizations other than the ILO. Certain ILO instruments, however, have a bearing upon it. The Social Policy (Non-Metropolitan Territories) Convention (No. 82) of 1947 and the Social Policy (Basic Aims and Standards) Convention (No. 117) of 1962 provide for the development of education, vocational training and apprenticeship systems, and for the prescription of a school-leaving age. The Indigenous and Tribal Populations Convention (No. 107) and Recommendation (No. 104) of 1957, as well as the Plantations Recommendation (No. 110) of 1958 also contain provisions concerning education and vocational training. More general standards relating to vocational training have been mentioned in connexion with the right to the enjoyment of just and favourable conditions of work.

## 7. THE RIGHT TO PARTICIPATE IN CULTURAL LIFE

190. Here again, the primary competence belongs to other organizations, more particularly to UNESCO. It may nevertheless be noted that the ILO joined with UNESCO and the International Union for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works (now WIPO) in the preparation of the International Convention for the Protection of Performers, Producers of Phonograms and Broadcasting Organizations, adopted at Rome in 1961 (see para. 294 below).

### D. Promotional activities

191. The promotion by the ILO of the observance of economic, social and cultural rights, in so far as they fall within its competence, is essentially directed at the acceptance and implementation of its own conventions and recommendations. To go into the detail of this promotional work would involve a review of practically all the activities of the ILO and therefore exceed the limits of this study. It may, therefore, suffice to note here that, while the ILO standards are prepared through a process of extensive consultation with expert bodies, employers' and workers' organizations, regional and special conferences, and Governments, their application becomes the continuing concern of the ILO at all levels and is the subject of frequent admonitions by the Governing Body and the General Conference. In this connexion mention should be made of the ILO's promotional programme in the field of equality of opportunity and treatment in employment and occupation, designed to supplement the ILO's standard-setting activities in this area by studies, publications, seminars, etc.

192. An important initiative taken by the ILO may, however, be singled out as potentially effective in promoting opportunities for the enjoyment of the right to work. It is the World Employment Programme, launched in 1969, which has as its aim "to make productive employment for large numbers of people a major national goal of national and international policies for development". To assist member States in the drawing up and implementation of plans of action, the ILO undertakes, at the request of Governments, a series of comprehensive employment strategy missions. Such missions visited Colombia in 1970 and Iran, Kenya and Sri Lanka in 1971. They are conceived on a multidisciplinary basis and carried out with the co-operation of the other agencies concerned, with the

financial assistance of UNDP. Other employment promotion missions were sent in 1971 to Liberia and Madagascar, similarly financed by UNDP. In addition, regional teams are at work in Latin America, Asia and Africa.

193. A special mention should also be made of the support given by the ILO to the celebration of the International Year for Human Rights in 1968. In 1966, the General Conference adopted a resolution at its fiftieth session pledging its co-operation in the activities contemplated for that year and calling on employers' and workers' organizations everywhere to work towards the advancement of human rights, through the acceptance of ILO standards and their implementation, and to help in the review and assessment of the role of the ILO and the co-ordination of its activities into a concerted programme.

194. In 1967, another Conference resolution (adopted at the fifty-first session) invited Governments to ratify the International Covenants on Human Rights, as well as the ILO conventions having a bearing on human rights, and requested that a comparative study be made of the relevant provisions of the International Covenants on Human Rights and ILO conventions and recommendations, so as to determine how the organization could best assist in their observance. This study was published in 1969.<sup>6</sup>

195. As a further contribution to the Year, part 1 of the Director-General's report to the General Conference at its fifty-second session in 1968 was entitled "The ILO and Human Rights" and provided a basis for a general review by the Conference of ILO action in this field. Following this review, a resolution was adopted, dealing in particular with the right to freedom of association. It called for a concerted programme that would form the basis and inspiration for future ILO action in the field of human rights. It also emphasized the fact that the whole of the research, operational and standard-setting work of the ILO is aimed at promoting human rights and extending their application to increasing numbers of people.

### E. Advisory and assistance services

196. To supplement the process of supervising the application of ILO standards, described above, the provision of advisory and assistance services, mostly in the form of operational programmes of technical co-operation, aims at helping requesting Governments in the progressive realization of these standards. More precisely, the operational programmes are designed not only to eliminate obstacles that are in the way of the full enjoyment of the rights concerned but also to create the conditions in which they may be exercised.

197. In accordance with the tripartite nature of the ILO, the participation of employers' and workers' bodies in the framing of assistance policies and in the establishment of priorities is given particular importance and is frequently stressed by the General Conference.

198. On that basis, the advisory assistance services provided by the ILO are generally directed at the following objectives: (a) the preparation of labour legislation to conform with ILO standards; (b) the development and strengthening of labour administration, particularly of

<sup>6</sup> International Labour Office, "Comparative Analysis of the International Covenants on Human Rights and International Labour Conventions and Recommendations", *Official Bulletin*, vol. LII, 1969, No. 2, pp. 181 *et seq.*

labour inspection services, so as to ensure the effective application of the legislation; (c) research into appropriate methods of protecting the rights of individuals, including the role of labour courts and of similar judicial institutions; (d) informational and educational activities, with special reference to workers' education programmes, geared to the needs of workers' organizations, and (e) seminars and similar meetings, designed as in the United Nations, to provide for exchanges of views and experience among officials of Governments and employers' and workers' organizations. Since 1964, the ILO has organized regional

seminars with the object of acquainting the national officials concerned with the obligations and procedures relating to international labour standards.

199. Many of these assistance activities are financed by UNDP and carried out under its auspices, or from other external sources. Those that do not lend themselves to the type of operations carried out by UNDP are supported by the ILO regular budget. In 1971, expenditure under these three headings amounted to approximately \$33.2 million for UNDP, \$3.0 million for other external sources and \$1.7 million for the regular budget.

### Chapter III

## FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS

200. The main contribution of FAO to the realization of economic, social and cultural rights relates to the right to adequate food. Its role in this field is not expressed by the formulation and promotion of nutritional standards, which would rather be within the province of WHO, but by action to provide the necessary basis for the full enjoyment of this right, namely by the production of food and the improvement of nutrition opportunities.

201. The World Food Programme, created jointly by FAO and the United Nations (see para. 90 (*d*) above), initiated a vast action designed to provide food as an instrument of development. Though WFP is also expected to help victims of emergencies, its main function is to foster development by granting food aid as a form of capital aid. Its assistance may be channelled, for example, through labour-intensive projects, the feeding of school children as an investment in future human resources, or the resettlement of displaced or nomad communities on new land. Up to July 1971, the cumulative total contributions made to the Programme amounted to \$737 million in cash, commodities and services. The annual target is of the order of \$100 million.

202. Likewise, the Freedom from Hunger Campaign, a popular movement launched by FAO in 1960, has seen the mobilization and distribution of hundreds of thousands

of tons of food to people suffering from malnutrition throughout the world.

203. In addition, the FAO Indicative World Plan for Agricultural Development serves as an over-all guide for feeding the world and defining agricultural targets. The plan embodies the results of four regional studies—on the Near East, South America, Africa south of the Sahara, and the Far East—covering a total of 64 countries. It sets 1975 and 1985 as target dates for the objectives it proposes.

204. Already, the plan has helped FAO to identify five areas of the food and agricultural situation in which particular effort is called for, namely (a) more extensive cultivation of high-yielding cereal varieties, (b) greater efforts to reduce wastage and loss of farm production, (c) expansion of programmes to narrow the protein gap, (d) greater efforts to increase the earning and saving of foreign exchange resources by the developing world and (e) expansion of programmes to enhance the quality of life and the effectiveness of rural labour.

205. The plan is continuously reviewed and updated. It has now evolved into a perspective study of world agricultural development and serves as the broad strategy for FAO in its contribution to the enjoyment of the right to adequate food.

## Chapter IV

### UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION

206. The task of UNESCO is to stimulate educational, scientific and cultural progress and to encourage international co-operation by assisting member States and serving as a clearing-house in these fields.

207. In respect of human rights, its action may be viewed from the angle of the three main functions with which it is entrusted. In science and culture, the organization contributes to the creation and development of the conditions required for the realization of the right to take part in cultural life and to enjoy the benefits of scientific progress set forth in article 15 of the International Covenant on Economic, Cultural and Social Rights. In education, its task is more specific, inasmuch as the obligation proclaimed in the Covenant to provide for compulsory education at the primary level and for accessibility to the higher levels constitutes for the individual a subjective right of a concrete nature, calling for the formulation of binding standards.

208. Standards of a legal nature are, in UNESCO, embodied in conventions and recommendations. Their application is ensured by a reporting process and by specific measures provided in some of the conventions.

209. Promotional activities are carried out with the assistance of the organization's national committees through surveys, resolutions, campaigns, programmes and other appropriate action.

210. Advisory services are rendered to requesting Governments, or to regions, in the form of seminars or technical assistance projects, and through co-operation with other international organs, such as UNICEF and IBRD.

#### A. Organs concerned with the formulation of standards

211. The General Conference is the sole organ competent to adopt formal conventions and recommendations. For conventions, a two-thirds majority is required. The Executive Board prepares the work of the General Conference, examines the programme and budget of the organization and submits them to the Conference with its recommendations. It is responsible, through the Director-General and the secretariat, for the execution of the programme adopted by the Conference.

#### B. General instruments and machinery for implementation

212. The UNESCO Constitution provides in article I that:

the purpose of the Organization is to contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the nations through education, science and culture in order to further universal respect for justice, for the rule of law and for . . . human rights and fundamental freedoms . . . without distinction of race, sex, language or religion. . .

213. In the same article, UNESCO is given the task of "instituting collaboration among the nations to advance the ideal of equality of educational opportunity without regard to race, sex or any distinctions, economic or social".

214. The implementation machinery is closely related to the instruments designed to protect specific rights. It is reviewed under the relevant headings below. The Constitution, however, contains, in article VIII, a general rule to the effect that "each Member State shall report periodically to the Organization . . . on its laws, regulations and statistics relating to educational, scientific and cultural life and institutions, and on the action taken upon the recommendations and conventions referred to in article IV, paragraph 4". According to paragraph 6 of article IV, the General Conference is responsible for receiving and considering these reports. The Executive Board's competence in this respect is limited to powers specifically delegated to it by the Conference. To that extent, both these bodies are in a position to supervise the application of the standards adopted by UNESCO.

#### C. Specific rights

##### 1. THE RIGHT TO EDUCATION

215. The Covenant proclaims in article 13 the right to education, as: free, at least at the elementary and fundamental levels; compulsory at the elementary level; generally available at the technical and professional levels; and equally accessible to all on the basis of capacity at the higher level.

##### (a) Instruments

216. The instruments designed by UNESCO in this field are the Convention against Discrimination in Education and the companion Recommendation, both adopted on 14 December 1960. The Convention had been ratified by 59 States at the end of 1972.

217. According to their titles, these instruments appear to be primarily directed at the elimination of discrimination. In fact, however, their contents also include the more general standards contained in article 13 of the Covenant.

218. Other instruments relevant to the right to education are the 1962 Recommendation concerning Technical and Vocational Education, the 1966 Recommendation concerning the Status of Teachers and the 1958 Recommendation concerning the International Standardization of Education Statistics.

219. The Convention against Discrimination in Education prohibits any distinction, exclusion, limitation or preference based on race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinions, national or social origin,



economic condition or birth, that has the purpose of impairing equality of treatment in all types of education, including access, standards, quality and similar factors.

220. The following are not considered as discriminatory: separate systems differentiating by sex, provided they offer equivalent conditions, or by religion or language, provided that participation remains optional. In addition, private institutions may be established or maintained if their object is not to discriminate but to offer additional facilities.

221. More generally, the parties to the Convention undertake to formulate, develop and apply national policies ensuring equal opportunities in education and, in particular, to make primary education free and compulsory, secondary education open to all and higher education equally accessible on the basis of individual capacity, to ensure equivalent standards of education, to encourage continuing education and to provide training for teachers.

222. The Convention also requires that the freedom of parents to choose for their children educational institutions other than those maintained by public authorities be fully respected.

223. The Recommendation of the same date contains provisions that are similar but presented as guiding principles for those member States which do not wish to be bound by the formal obligations resulting from ratification of the Convention.

#### *(b) Implementation machinery*

224. The Convention requires the States parties (article 7) to report on the legislative and administrative measures they have taken for its application. Periodic reports have been called for on two occasions and have been examined by a Special Committee set up by the Executive Board at the invitation of the General Conference; the Committee submits its reports to the General Conference through the Executive Board. The Convention further determines (article 8) that any dispute between parties concerning its interpretation or application that cannot be settled by negotiation may, on request, be referred to the International Court of Justice.

225. More specific machinery is offered by the Protocol instituting a Conciliation and Good Offices Commission to be responsible for seeking a settlement of any disputes which may arise between States Parties to the Convention against Discrimination in Education. This Protocol was adopted by the General Conference on 10 December 1962, and up to the end of 1972 had been ratified by 20 States. It had entered into force on 24 October 1968.

226. The Commission instituted by the Protocol consists of 11 members elected for six years by the General Conference and serving in their personal capacity.

227. Disputes between parties to the Protocol concerning the application of the Convention may, if not adjusted by bilateral negotiation, be referred by any of them to the Commission, which, after ascertaining the facts and attempting to bring about an amicable solution, must draw up a report and indicate the recommendations it has made with a view to conciliation. It may recommend to the Executive Board or the General Conference that the International Court of Justice be asked for an advisory opinion on any legal question connected with the dispute.

228. Beginning six years after the coming into force of the Protocol, the Commission may, subject to their agreement, also serve in the same capacity regarding disputes between parties to the Convention which are not parties to the Protocol.

229. The Recommendation concerning the Status of Teachers offers detailed guidelines for the building up of the teaching profession as a necessary basis for the exercise of the right to education. It stresses the fact that advances in education depend largely on the existence of a qualified teaching staff, whose profession should be regarded as a public service and whose status should be commensurate with the high objectives of education.

230. On a more specific subject, the 1962 Recommendation concerning Technical and Vocational Education calls upon Governments to adopt policies for all forms of education given in schools and other similar institutions, so as to prepare persons for work in such fields as industry, agriculture, commerce and related services. It advocates their inclusion in national plans for economic development as an integral part of an over-all system of education and states that in such plans care should be taken to place the cultural content of this type of education at such a level as to prevent specialization from stifling broader interests. Facilities for women should be the same in importance and range as for men.

## 2. THE RIGHT TO PARTICIPATE FREELY IN CULTURAL AND SCIENTIFIC LIFE

231. Under this heading, the Covenant distinguishes between the right to take part in cultural life and to enjoy the benefits of scientific progress and its applications, and the right to the protection of the moral and material interests arising out of scientific, literary or artistic work. These two aspects, the subjective and the objective, cover both cultural life and scientific progress. They are closely linked. The second indeed conditions the first, since the enjoyment of culture and science requires that the creation and existence of cultural and scientific assets be effectively safeguarded.

232. As noted above, the task of UNESCO in this field is twofold: to press for the protection of the cultural and scientific heritage, and to ensure that it is available for the enjoyment of the rights proclaimed by the Covenant. The organization's formal standards are mainly directed at the realization of the first of these objectives, while its direct and promotional and advisory action embraces both the first and the second, aiming at the availability to all of the benefits provided by art and science.

#### *(a) Protection and enjoyment of cultural assets*

233. To propagate the general use of museum collections, the Recommendation concerning the Most Effective Means of Rendering Museums Accessible to Everyone was adopted in 1960.

234. The Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the event of Armed Conflict, and Regulations for the Execution of the Convention and attached Protocol, was adopted in May 1954. It provides for centres and refuges created to shelter immovable and movable cultural property to be placed under special protection and entered in an International Register of Cultural Property under special protection maintained by UNESCO. It further entrusts the Director-General with the task of compiling an international list of persons

qualified to carry out the functions of a Commissioner-General for Cultural Property. As a means of ensuring implementation, it finally prescribes publication by the States parties of the measures taken in fulfilment of the Convention and of the related Regulations.

235. The General Conference adopted in 1964 the Recommendation on the Means of Prohibiting and Preventing the Illicit Export, Import and Transfer of Ownership of Cultural Property, the purpose of which is to ensure that countries are not deprived of their cultural heritage by illegal means and to promote international co-operation to that end. In 1970, a formal Convention was adopted, giving to the recommended rules the character of binding obligations. It entered into force on 24 April 1972 and had been ratified or acceded to by five States up to the end of 1972.

236. In 1968, the General Conference adopted the Recommendation concerning the Preservation of Cultural Property Endangered by Public or Private Works. It stresses the fact that contemporary civilization and its future evolution rests, among other elements, upon cultural traditions and that it is consequently indispensable to protect cultural property and to reconcile the demands of economic and social development with this requirement. The Recommendation defines cultural property and outlines measures designed to preserve or salvage it.

237. Other recommendations in this field are the 1956 Recommendation on International Principles Applicable to Archaeological Excavations and the 1962 Recommendation concerning the Safeguarding of the Beauty and Character of Landscapes and Sites.

(b) *The right to share in scientific advancement and its benefits*

238. The draft of a recommendation concerning the status of scientific research workers is in preparation for adoption in 1974. Otherwise, the right to participate in scientific advancement is in UNESCO mainly promoted by direct action of a promotional and advisory nature.

(c) *Protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production*

239. The Universal Copyright Convention, with appended declaration relating to article XVII and resolution concerning article XI, and annexed Protocols, containing provisions complementary to those of the 1886 Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Work (see para. 291 below) and the Inter-American Copyright Conventions, was adopted in 1952. The United International Bureaux for the Protection of Intellectual Property (now WIPO) was one of the parties associated with the preparation of this Convention. It was revised in 1971 to take account of the economic, social and cultural conditions obtaining in developing countries, while ensuring authors a reasonable degree of effective protection. The revision introduced other modifications of a technical nature. Article XI of the Convention and the appended resolution concerning article XI provide for the establishment of an Intergovernmental Copyright Committee to prepare periodic reviews of the instrument and to examine related problems. The Convention further prescribes that any dispute not settled by negotiation is to be brought before the International Court of Justice for determination by it.

240. The International Convention for the Protection of Performers, Producers of Phonograms and Broadcasting Organizations, prepared in co-operation with the ILO and the United International Bureaux for the Protection of Intellectual Property, was adopted at Rome in 1961 by an intergovernmental conference jointly convened by the three organizations. An Intergovernmental Committee, assisted by a tripartite secretariat, ensures the application of its provisions.

#### D. Promotional activities

241. In one way or another, UNESCO activities are all directed at the promotion of the right to education and to the enjoyment of culture and of scientific progress. In more specific terms, they include, under resolutions of the competent bodies, studies and surveys, the translation and publication of representative works, and meetings designed to stimulate thought on such topics as the objectives of education, the diversity of cultures and the universality of science. UNESCO promotional work also extends to the implementation of conventions and recommendations adopted by the organization.

242. A full picture of UNESCO promotional activities would accordingly exceed the scope of the present study. Selected examples, taken mainly from recent activities, will, however, suffice to illustrate the way in which the organization approaches its task of advancing the realization of the right to education, culture and science.

#### 1. EDUCATION

243. UNESCO helped to organize the World Congress of Ministers of Education on the Eradication of Illiteracy held at Teheran in 1965, which provided the starting-point for a campaign that has since developed into many programmes and projects. Another major step in the furtherance of the right to education was the organization's acceptance of primary responsibility for the preparation and execution of the programme for the International Education Year referred to in paragraph 83 above.

244. In this connexion, a report prepared in 1972 for UNESCO by the International Commission on the Development of Education deserves to be mentioned here;<sup>7</sup> it presents "a critical reflection by men of different origins and background, seeking, in complete independence and objectivity, for over-all solutions to the major problems involved in the development of education in a changing universe".<sup>8</sup>

245. Apart from such action of a general character, UNESCO has directed its attention to the situation of particular categories of people whose need for education requires special care. It has thus promoted the access of women and girls to technical and vocational education, as well as their right to literacy, combining in this way the right to education with the fight against discrimination.

246. Another class of individuals who need promotional assistance is that of handicapped and retarded adults and children. A review covering 38 countries was published in 1970 and more specialized studies were under-

<sup>7</sup> UNESCO, *Learning to Be: The World of Education Today and Tomorrow* (Paris, UNESCO, and London, Harrap, 1972).

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, p. v.

taken on various aspects of educational rehabilitation. Interagency consultations were held on this subject with the other United Nations organizations concerned.

247. Similarly, an analytical survey of research on the antecedents and consequences of early school leaving was made for the International Bureau of Education (now a branch of UNESCO). This study, prepared under the auspices of the Graduate School of Education of Harvard University, is centred on the educational problems of the developing countries; it is accordingly particularly relevant to the realization of the right to education.

## 2. CULTURE

248. On cultural rights, UNESCO promotional activities are governed by the Declaration of the Principles of International Cultural Co-operation, adopted in 1966 by the General Conference. This statement of policy, to which the broadest diffusion was given, aims at contributing to the application of the relevant tenets advocated by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and by the Declaration of the Rights of the Child. To that end, it sets forth principles of international co-operation covering all aspects of intellectual and creative activities relating to education, science and culture.

249. In accordance with this objective, studies were undertaken and programmes of action put into execution to facilitate general access to the world cultural heritage. They include the *Journal of World History*, studies of African, Asian, Latin American and European cultures and the convening of the Intergovernmental Conference on Cultural Policies in Europe at Helsinki in June 1972.

250. Since the enjoyment of culture depends on its diffusion, mention may be made here of the UNESCO programme to promote the free flow of information and ideas, which has been in force for several years. While the suggestions made to Governments in this connexion have no formal regulatory character, they are undoubtedly effective in furthering the realization of the right to participation in cultural activities.

251. In addition, UNESCO finances a number of institutes dealing with the theatre, music, art, literature, architecture and African culture. It also continues the printing of its *Index translationum* and its series of publications contributing to the world-wide dissemination of knowledge in all aspects of art.

252. An important factor in the exercise of cultural rights is general access to museum collections. Here, too, UNESCO is active in promoting international co-operation, involving the training of specialists and the regular exchange of information and experience.

## 3. SCIENCE

253. The right to participate in the progress of science and technology is, in UNESCO, supported by its comprehensive programme of international scientific co-operation and, more specifically, by its contribution to the application of science and technology to development, in which the entire United Nations system participates under the over-all guidance of the Advisory Committee on the Application of Science and Technology to Development (see para. 23 above).

## E. Advisory and development assistance services

### 1. EDUCATION

254. In general, UNESCO advisory and development assistance work is financed by the UNESCO budget, by trust funds contributed by individual Governments for special purposes and by UNDP. In 1971, the funds allocated from this last source amounted to about \$37 million. In addition, the organization co-operates in IBRD projects that have an educational component.

255. The Participation Programme of UNESCO makes it possible for a number of developing countries to obtain expert services on such problems as the application of research methods to special education, the training of teachers for handicapped children and other similar needs. Technical assistance is also provided under UNDP for such purposes.

256. UNESCO co-operates with UNRWA in the education of refugees from Palestine by providing textbooks and assisting in the organization of school-leaving examinations. It similarly helps UNHCR and OAU by giving educational assistance for African refugees and other peoples struggling to liberate themselves from colonial domination and all forms of *apartheid*.

257. To reinforce the educational infrastructure as a necessary basis for the enjoyment of the right to education, UNESCO organizes seminars, meetings of experts, and special conferences designed to facilitate the exchange of information and experience. It also supports its permanent organs, such as the UNESCO Institute for Education in Hamburg and the International Commission on the Development of Education.

258. Under the Co-operative Programme, with IBRD and IDA, UNESCO participation is directed at (a) the formulation of basic standards for national systems of education and their development, (b) the preparation of "country profiles" of national educational systems, (c) the programming of specific projects for IBRD financing, (d) the preparation of technical papers relating to particular aspects of educational development, and (e) the provision of technical assistance for the implementation of projects financed by IBRD and IDA.

### 2. CULTURE

259. In addition to its promotional work in the cultural field, UNESCO develops a substantial advisory and assistance activity through its Clearing House and Research Centre for Cultural Development.

260. Under its Participation Programme, UNESCO also gives assistance to member States for the conservation of their cultural heritage, through the organization of expert meetings, publications, the provision of equipment and research for exhibitions and the presentation of museum collections.

261. Assistance is similarly made available for the preservation and development of sites, monuments and works of art. Countries assisted recently in this way have included Indonesia, Pakistan, Egypt, Afghanistan and Italy.

### 3. COPYRIGHT

262. An African study meeting on copyright (Brazzaville, 1963) was convened jointly by UNESCO and the



International Union for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works (see para. 273 below) to assist African States in defining the general principles applicable in their respective territories to the protection of authors. A subsequent meeting of African experts (Geneva, 1964) was organized by UNESCO and the United International Bureaux for the Protection of Intellectual Property to study a draft model law on copyright for African countries. As it was recognized that the existence of national copyright legislation and the adherence of a country to a multi-lateral copyright convention were not sufficient in themselves to safeguard effectively the moral and economic interests of creators of intellectual works, and that a necessary complement would appear to be the creation of a national society or association of authors, an African Committee of Experts (Abidjan, 1969) was convened by UNESCO and the United International Bureaux for the Protection of Intellectual Property for the purpose of drafting model statutes for societies of authors in African countries.

263. Similarly, UNESCO organized in 1966, in co-operation with the International Confederation of Societies of Authors and Composers, an international meeting of copyright experts to study national legislation and make recommendations for its improvement.

264. UNESCO has also continued to participate, upon request, in the activities of member States by assisting them in matters concerning the national and international regulation of copyright, particularly by allocating fellowships for the training of copyright specialists, by sending experts to assist the States concerned in formulating their national legislation or in bringing the existing laws into line with international standards, in setting up local societies of authors and in improving ways and means of collecting and distributing royalties.

265. Finally, studies have been undertaken aimed at improving the status of translators, with a view to determining whether it is advisable to adopt an instrument for the international regulation of protection for this category of intellectual workers. Similar consideration has been given to the technical and legal aspects of the photographic reproduction of copyrighted works, in particular, to the desirability of adopting an international regulation concerning such reproduction, on the possible scope of a regulation in this area and on the method that should be adopted for this purpose. UNESCO, in co-operation with

other interested intergovernmental organizations, has also continued its studies on problems in the field of copyright and the protection of performers, producers of phonograms and broadcasting organizations raised by transmissions via space satellites. Two committees of governmental experts, convened jointly by UNESCO and WIPO, met in Lausanne and in Paris in 1971 and 1972 respectively, to make a thorough study of the problems involved and to formulate recommendations calculated to resolve them. A third committee of experts was scheduled to meet in 1973 to examine further the problems raised in this area. UNESCO, jointly with WIPO, has also undertaken a study of the copyright problems arising from the use of electronic computers and other types of technological equipment.

266. Pursuant to the recommendation of the International Copyright Joint Study Group (Washington, D.C., 1969), an International Copyright Information Centre has been established in UNESCO, designed to afford developing countries greater access to works protected by copyright. Some of the main functions of the Centre are to collect copyright information on books that can be made available to developing countries on terms as favourable to them as possible, to arrange for the transfer to developing countries of rights ceded by copyright holders and to study ways and means of securing copyright and other rights where foreign currency is not available.

#### 4. SCIENCE

267. Advisory services to member States in the planning of science policy and the organization of research include the experimental evaluation of research units, staff missions and the planning of national centres for scientific and technological research.

268. Assistance is also furnished to requesting Governments for the development of science education. Under the UNESCO Participation Programme, aid missions to that end have been assigned to a number of developing countries.

269. In the training of technicians, assistance is provided to numerous countries in the form of expert missions, fellowships and study grants. Similar action is undertaken in respect of engineering education and training in the engineering sciences.



## Chapter V

### WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION

270. When it was written in 1946, the Constitution of WHO anticipated the formulation of the right proclaimed in article 12 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in enunciating the principle that "the enjoyment of health is one of the fundamental rights of every human being without distinction of race, religion, political belief, economic or social condition". The objective of the World Health Organization is the attainment by all peoples of the highest level of health.

271. The contribution of WHO to the realization of human rights does not, however, take the form of the elaboration of international legal instruments creating binding obligations. Its role is rather to act as the directing and co-ordinating authority on international health work, to stimulate and advance programmes for the eradication of epidemic, endemic and other diseases and for training and teaching in health, medical and related professions, to establish and stimulate international standards for all products relating to health and to foster activities in mental health.

272. Norms creating subjective rights are left to national legislation. At the international level, formal standards can be found in the ILO conventions and recommendations on social security, which have already been reviewed in chapter II above.

273. WHO co-operates closely with the other organizations of the United Nations system. It naturally assumes the primary responsibility for all health matters arising at that level. It participates in human rights seminars and other similar activities. It is concerned about the effects on human rights of advances in science and technology, particularly in biology, medicine and biochemistry, and of the continued increases in the cost of medical care.

274. WHO's activities include the control of communicable diseases, the improvement of environmental health, research, education and training. Advisory assistance is furnished to requesting Governments on the planning of their public health services, either on an independent basis or as a part of wider schemes of economic and social development. In this respect, WHO plays a major role in the implementation of the conventions and recommendations concerning social security. In addition, it operates a number of world-wide services, such as the notification of communicable diseases and the compilation of an international pharmacopoeia.

275. In this way, WHO bears the main burden at the international level for the creation of the conditions required for the enjoyment of the right to the highest standards of health.

## Chapter VI

### INTERNATIONAL BANK FOR RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT

276. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and its affiliates, the International Development Association and the International Finance Corporation, play an important role in the United Nations system in promoting the realization of the economic conditions required for the enjoyment of the rights recognized in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

277. Among the purposes of the World Bank Group is the encouragement of international investment for the development of productive resources, which assists in raising productivity, standards of living and conditions of labour.

278. Recent reviews of the Group's activities show that its concern has over the years broadened to include areas of direct relevance to the exercise of economic, social and cultural rights, such as urban and rural development, nutrition, education and population, which all affect the rights recognized in the Covenant.

279. The problems of urban growth in developing countries, for example, led IBRD to find more effective approaches of use in promoting the provision of home sites and public services for families in the lower income brackets. In the field of nutrition, the Group is now con-

cerned with the action undertaken to fight protein deficiency and has become a sponsor of the Protein Advisory Group. In education, it is giving assistance to the development of primary, secondary and technical education. In the financial year ending 30 June 1972, the total outlay (loans and credits) of the World Bank Group totalled some \$3 100 million, as compared with \$2 600 million for the previous year.

280. These and other examples show that problems such as income distribution and other factors affecting the quality of life are receiving growing attention in the planning, execution and evaluation of the Group's work. Indeed, as stated by its President before the Board of Governors in September 1972, the Group is resolved to shift its emphasis into different sectors and different geographical areas. In a developing world in which hunger is chronic, which is darkened by functional illiteracy and caught up in the threat of unmanageable population pressures, this means intensifying the Group's operations in agriculture, expanding its efforts in education and facing up to the complex and controversial strains which runaway population growth may create both at the family and the national level for any country struggling with the task of improving the lot of its people.

## **Chapter VII**

### **OTHER ORGANIZATIONS OF THE UNITED NATIONS SYSTEM**

281. The other agencies of the United Nations system participate less directly in the realization of economic, social and cultural rights, although they all make, within their own sphere of competence, contributions to it.

282. The Universal Postal Union and the International Telecommunication Union, for instance, by facilitating international communications, assist in the promotion of the free flow of information and ideas which is essential to the full enjoyment of cultural rights; the International Civil Aviation Organization and the Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization deal with the transport of persons and goods which is the prerequisite for the exercise of many human rights; IMCO is also engaged in the formulation of rules for the safety of merchant seamen and of seamen on board fishing vessels, thereby contributing to the improvement of their conditions of work; the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade works towards the development of trade with a view to raising standards of living and fostering full employment.

283. Thus, while the activities of all the components of the system are directed at the improvement of economic, social and cultural conditions throughout the world, and more particularly in developing countries, it will suffice to note here that their work is instrumental in providing, at the international level, the concrete framework for the efforts undertaken in the United Nations to ensure the full realization of the rights set forth in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

## Chapter VIII

### WORLD INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY ORGANIZATION

284. In 1972, the World Intellectual Property Organization was the only world-wide intergovernmental organization outside the United Nations system that made a significant contribution to the realization of economic, social and cultural rights. In this field, as in others, it co-operated closely with the units of the system, more particularly with UNESCO.

285. WIPO came into being in 1970 as the successor to the United International Bureaux for the Protection of Intellectual Property, which had been in existence for over 80 years. WIPO is responsible for the administration of the International Union for the Protection of Industrial Property and the International Union for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works, each established on the basis of a multilateral treaty. The field of action of WIPO, that of intellectual property, covers industrial property, chiefly in the form of inventions, trade marks and designs, and copyright, chiefly in the form of literary, musical, artistic, photographic and cinematographic works.

286. The organization thus plays an important part in ensuring the right of everyone "to benefit from the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he is the author" (article 15 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights). By providing for the conditions required for scientific, technological and cultural creation, it parallels, but with a higher degree of specificity, certain aspects of the activities of the ILO and UNESCO concerning the protection of authors and performers. Altogether, by the establishment of legal norms internationally recognized, WIPO promotes access on reasonable terms to the results of scientific, literary and artistic work.

#### A. International instruments and their implementation

287. A major part of the work of WIPO consists in the preparation and administration of international treaties and agreements. Ten such instruments were in force in 1972, and others were awaiting the necessary number of ratifications to become applicable. In acceding to them, the contracting parties accept binding obligations. To a greater extent than any of the other international organizations reviewed, WIPO acts through the medium of positive international law.

#### 1. INDUSTRIAL PROPERTY

288. The main instrument in this field is the 1883 Paris Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property. Revised in 1900, 1911, 1925, 1934, 1958 and 1967, it applies to industrial property in the widest sense and provides for the granting to non-nationals of the same

protection as is given to nationals, the right, within a prescribed period, to priority in the territory of all contracting parties for the protection given in that of one of them, and common rules for the granting of patents, trade marks and other similar protective measures.

289. Agreements complementing on more specific points the provisions of the Paris Convention include: the 1891 Madrid Agreement for the Repression of False or Deceptive Indications of Source on Goods; the 1891 Madrid Agreement concerning the International Registration of Marks; the 1925 Hague Agreement concerning the International Deposit of Industrial Designs; the 1957 Nice Agreement concerning the International Classification of Goods and Services for the Purposes of the Registration of Marks; the 1958 Lisbon Agreement for the Protection of Appellations of Origin and their International Registration, and the 1968 Locarno Agreement Establishing an International Classification for Industrial Designs.

290. In the same field, a Patent Cooperation Treaty was signed in 1970 by 35 States but was not yet in force in 1972. It provides for a central registry of inventions where protection is sought in several countries. The 1971 Strasbourg Agreement concerning the International Patent Classification, which also lacked at that time the required number of ratifications, places the International Patent Classification under the administration of WIPO.

#### 2. CULTURAL PROPERTY

291. The 1886 Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works sets forth three main principles: (a) the extension of equal protection to all contracting parties for works protected in the territory of one of them, (b) the automaticity of that protection, without the need for any formality, and (c) the independence of that extended protection from the continued existence of the protection afforded in the country of origin of the work.

292. The Convention covers "every production in the literary, scientific and artistic domain, whatever may be the mode or form of its expression". Developing countries may, under certain conditions, depart from the prescribed minimum standards of the protection with regard to the rights of translation and of reproduction.

293. The Universal Copyright Convention of 1971 has already been mentioned in paragraph 239 above. It was prepared jointly with WIPO and provides that its Director-General, as well as the Director-General of UNESCO and the Secretary-General of OAS, may attend in an advisory capacity the meetings of the Intergovernmental Copyright Committee established by that instrument.



294. In the related field of the protection of performers, the 1961 International Convention for the Protection of Performers, Producers of Phonograms and Broadcasting Organizations has already been mentioned in the chapters relating to the ILO and to UNESCO. By the terms of the Convention, WIPO, jointly with those two agencies, has the responsibility for its administration. The 1971 Geneva Convention for the Protection of Producers of Phonograms against Unauthorized Duplication of their Phonograms, which had been signed by 31 States but in 1972 was not yet in force, entrusts WIPO with the task of providing its secretariat.

295. The implementation of the standards set forth in these various instruments includes the provision of advice to Governments on legislation compatible with the provisions of the conventions which they have ratified. It also takes the form of servicing their operation. WIPO accordingly maintains three international registration services for trade marks, with the publication of a monthly review, *Les marques internationales*, the international deposit of industrial designs, with the publication of a monthly review, *Les dessins et modèles internationaux*, and the international registration of appellations of origin, with the occasional distribution of a review, *Les appellations d'origine*.

## **B. Promotional activities**

296. WIPO initiates new projects and carries on existing projects for the promotion of increased international co-operation in the field of intellectual property. It is, for example, now preparing the operational phase of the Patent Cooperation Treaty, the revision of the Madrid Agreement concerning the International Registration of Marks, and possible international measures for the protection of signals transmitted by communication satellites and computer programmes.

## **C. Advisory and assistance services**

297. WIPO assists developing countries in the promotion of their industrialization through the modernization of their industrial property systems. It prepares model laws for their possible use, offers traineeships to their nationals, organizes seminars, finances assistance for them by experts and, mainly under the Patent Cooperation Treaty, will attempt to meet some of their problems in scientific documentation and the transfer of technology and know-how. In addition, jointly with the ILO and UNESCO, WIPO has started work on a model law to deal with the related rights of the protection of performers, producers of phonograms and broadcasting organizations.

## Chapter IX

### ORGANIZATION OF AMERICAN STATES

298. As the first regional organization created at the intergovernmental level, the Organization of American States was also the first regional organization to concern itself with questions of human rights. In the initial decades of its existence, it dealt mostly with civil and political rights. Immediately following the Second World War, it directed its attention to the new field of economic, social and cultural rights. Here, its normative action includes the American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man, the Inter-American Charter of Social Guarantees and the draft American Convention on Human Rights. Its institutional creations are the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights and the Inter-American Commission of Women.

#### A. Normative action

##### 1. AMERICAN DECLARATION OF THE RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF MAN

299. This Declaration, approved at Bogotá in 1948 by the Ninth International Conference of American States, defined a set of principles designed to govern the position and policies of the organization's members. In so far as it has a bearing on economic, social and cultural rights, it proclaims the right to equality before the law, without any distinction as to race, sex, language, creed or any other factor; to the protection of the family; to the preservation of health and well-being; to full equality of opportunity in education, with free primary schools to the benefits of culture and science, including protection of the moral and material interests of authors and inventors; to work, including free choice and fair remuneration; to leisure and free time; and to social security, covering old age, unemployment and disability.

##### 2. INTER-AMERICAN CHARTER OF SOCIAL GUARANTEES

300. This instrument, adopted at the same 1948 Conference, is broadly directed at the need for social and economic development. But it also gives a more concrete content to the objectives listed in the American Declaration, which are not of a binding nature. In terms of the rights listed in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, they may be summarized as follows.

#### (a) *The right to work*

301. Labour is described as a social function and duty which require special protection. The workers' rights, which may not be renounced, include the free choice and fair conditions of employment and vocational guidance. Employment should provide guarantees of stability, with due regard to the nature of the work, and arbitrary dismissals should open the right to indemnification.

302. Workers are supposed to have the right to a remuneration providing a decent existence; to equal pay for equal work; to a minimum wage, fixed in consultation with the employers' and workers' organizations concerned; to an annual bonus, determined on the basis of the number of days worked; and to a fair share of profits. Wages and social benefits should not be subject to attachment, except in cases of support ordered by a court.

303. The normal working hours should not exceed 8 per day and 48 per week (9 and 54, respectively, in agriculture), with appropriate reduction for night work. Weekly rest periods should be established by law, and remuneration should continue during civil and religious holidays as well as during annual vacations.

304. The right to form and join trade unions should be ensured, without restrictive formalities. The right to strike is to be respected, subject to the conditions specified by law.

305. Each state should establish a special system of labour courts and promote conciliation and arbitration procedures for the settlement of labour disputes.

#### (b) *Social security*

306. Workers should have the right to a compulsory system of social security, designed to attain the following objectives: the elimination of the hazards that might deprive wage earners of their ability to provide the necessary means of support for themselves and their dependants; the rapid and complete restoration of their wage-earning capacity lost by accident or illness; and the provision of means of support in the case of termination or interruption of their occupational activity, by maternity, old age, unemployment or death.

307. In the absence of a social security system, employers should be made responsible for providing the benefits that would be covered by it.

#### (c) *Standard of living*

308. Workers should have the right to share in an equitable distribution of the national well-being and to obtain food, clothing and housing at reasonable prices.

#### (d) *Family protection*

309. No child labour should be allowed under the age of 14, or above that age within the period of compulsory education. Hazardous or unhealthy occupations should be altogether prohibited for children.

310. Dangerous or injurious work should similarly be banned for women. Maternity should open the right to paid leave of 6 weeks before and 6 weeks after confinement.

311. As already stated, this Charter is by no means an instrument of a binding character. In fact, it is no more

than a declaration of intention and merely sets a common standard of achievement.

### 3. AMERICAN CONVENTION ON HUMAN RIGHTS

312. In addition to adopting the American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man, the 1948 Bogotá Conference decided to entrust a body of jurists with the task of preparing a draft American Convention on Human Rights, which would embody in terms of strict legal obligations the principles proclaimed in the Declaration. The jurists' work resulted in the approval in 1959 by the Fifth Meeting of Consultation of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of a final draft. After several postponements, the Inter-American Specialized Conference on Human Rights considered this draft in 1965 and decided to submit it to Governments for observations and suggestions. The Convention was finally signed at San José, Costa Rica, on 22 November 1969.

#### B. Institutional action

##### 1. INTER-AMERICAN COMMISSION ON HUMAN RIGHTS

313. In 1959, the Fifth Meeting of Consultation of Ministers of Foreign Affairs decided to create an Inter-American Commission on Human Rights. According to its Statute, adopted in 1960, the Commission is an autonomous organ, composed of seven members elected for four years in their personal capacity. Its task is to develop awareness, to make recommendations, to collect information and undertake studies, and to serve as advisory body to OAS in all matters pertaining to human rights as defined in the American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man.

314. In addition, the Commission was given the competence to receive and examine communications and complaints, to ask Governments to furnish pertinent information relating to them and to recommend measures for the effective observance of the rights.

315. Broadly speaking, the activities of the Commission may be divided into three groups: continued review of the human rights situation in the member States, consideration of communications and complaints, and preparation of studies and reports.

316. The second of these groups deserves particular attention as involving a specific process of implementation. If, after considering the complaint and ascertaining its validity, the Commission finds that rights have been violated, it can make appropriate recommendations to the Government concerned. Should the latter fail to take action, the Commission can report to the Inter-American Conference or to the Meeting of Consultation of Ministers of Foreign Affairs. If neither of these bodies objects, the Commission may publish its report and recommendations.

317. Thus, there is here, as in other cases, a process of independent scrutiny, followed by consideration at the political level, with publicity as the ultimate sanction.

##### 2. INTER-AMERICAN COMMISSION OF WOMEN

318. As in the United Nations system, women's rights occupy in OAS a special place in the general picture of

human rights. An Inter-American Commission of Women was created in 1954 to deal with all social and economic problems relating to women. It is composed of one representative from each member State.

319. In respect of human rights, the Commission's functions include: the extension of the civil, political, economic and social rights of women; the submission of reports to the Council of OAS on its activities; and the submission to the Inter-American Conferences of reports on civil, political, economic and social rights and on the problems that need to be considered in respect of them.

#### C. Promotional action and advisory services

320. Under standards approved by the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights, the Rómulo Gallegos Fellowship programme offers to requesting Governments technical advice in the form of fellowships granted to experts and public officials dealing with questions relevant to the exercise of human rights. Candidates are proposed by their Governments and selected by the Commission's standing sub-committee.

321. A seminar on trade-union freedom was held in November 1972 in Venezuela to provide for an exchange of information and experience among experts in labour or public law or officials who, by reason of their position, deal with matters related to high-level activities of trade unions.

322. Among the activities of the Inter-American Commission of Women, the following seminars which it organized or planned in 1971 may be mentioned as relevant to economic, social and cultural rights:

Sixth Course of the Inter-American Training Programme for Women Leaders (Caracas, Venezuela, May-June 1971);

Second Seminar on the Incorporation of Rural Women in the Development of their Community (Asunción, Paraguay, June 1971).

323. Continued concern with the rights of the child is expressed by the activities of the Inter-American Children's Institute. It convened the Fourteenth Pan-American Child Congress, held at Port-au-Prince in June 1972, to deal with the world-wide protection of children and adolescents in abnormal situations. The Institute also carried out a number of activities, among which the following may be viewed as having relevance to economic, social and cultural rights:

Inter-American course in the teaching of children with difficulties in learning (in co-operation with UNICEF) (Buenos Aires, Argentina, April 1971);

Third Inter-American Regional Seminar on Recreation for Children, Adolescents and Young People (Managua, Nicaragua, May 1971);

Seminar on Child and Family Nutrition (Oruro, Bolivia, June 1971);

Course on the Organization of Sanitary and Social Services for Small Infants (Buenos Aires, Argentina, October-November 1971);

Participation with a team of experts in the Tenth Central American Congress of Pediatrics (Tegucigalpa, Honduras, November-December 1971).



## Chapter X

### COUNCIL OF EUROPE

#### A. Regional instruments and implementation machinery

324. At the European regional level, the organization dealing with the protection of human rights is the Council of Europe, which consists of 17 member States. Its Statute of 5 May 1949 provides, in article 3, that every member of the Council must accept the principles of the rule of law and the enjoyment by all persons within its jurisdiction of human rights and fundamental freedoms and collaborate sincerely and effectively in the realization of the aims of the Council.

325. Under the Council's sponsorship, the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (the European Convention on Human Rights) was concluded in 1950. By the end of 1972, it had been ratified by 15 States.<sup>9</sup> Though mainly devoted to civil and political rights, it also covers some economic, social and cultural rights, notably in prohibiting forced labour (article 4.2) and discrimination "on any ground" (article 14), and in affirming the right of everyone to enjoy freedom of association, "including the right to form and join trade unions for the protection of his interests".

326. In addition, a Protocol of 1952 prescribes that "no person shall be denied the right to education", and that the right of parents to ensure for their children a teaching in conformity with their religious and philosophical convictions must be upheld.

327. The provisions concerning implementation are worth consideration. They are contained in the Convention itself and in related protocols and constitute the most advanced process of this kind in any intergovernmental system. They establish (article 19) two permanent organs, the European Commission of Human Rights and the European Court of Human Rights.

328. The Commission consists of a number of independent members equal to the number of the contracting parties, elected by the Committee of Ministers from a list drawn up by the Bureau of the Consultative Assembly on the proposal of the national groups of representatives. It may receive complaints from any contracting party and petitions from any person, group or non-governmental organization, provided the Government concerned recognizes the Commission's competence. By the end of 1971, 11 States had done so.<sup>10</sup>

329. The Commission determines the facts alleged in the complaint or petition and attempts to bring about a friendly settlement of the dispute. If it fails, it draws up a

<sup>9</sup> Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Turkey and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

<sup>10</sup> Austria, Belgium, Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany, Iceland, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands (also for Surinam), Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

report stating its opinion on the validity of the case and submits it to the Committee of Ministers and to the States concerned. If the question is not referred to the Court within three months, the Committee of Ministers must decide, by a two-thirds majority, whether there has been a violation of the Convention, prescribe a time-limit for corrective measures and, if none are taken, publish the report.

330. The Court consists of a number of judges equal to that of the members of the Council of Europe. It is competent to deal with all cases relative to the interpretation and application of the Convention, but only after the efforts of the Commission to achieve a friendly settlement of the dispute have failed. Any member of the Council may declare that it accepts as compulsory *ipso facto* the Court's jurisdiction. Where such compulsory jurisdiction has been recognized, cases may be brought before the Court by the Commission or by the contracting party concerned. The Court's judgement is then final.

331. The European Agreement relating to Persons Participating in Proceedings of the European Commission and Court of Human Rights was signed on 6 May 1969 to provide for immunity from legal process of any person appearing before these bodies in respect of statements made before them, and to ensure free correspondence and travel.

332. A further implementation method is offered by article 13 of the Convention, which states: "Everyone whose rights and freedoms as set forth in this Convention are violated shall have an effective remedy before a national authority notwithstanding that the violation has been committed by persons acting in an official capacity". This provision deserves close attention; not only does it ensure access to national courts, it also precludes the excuse that the violation has been committed in an official capacity.

333. However, only a few economic, social and cultural rights are dealt with in the Convention. The Council of Europe has taken the view that such rights essentially belong to a separate instrument. This instrument, the European Social Charter, was drafted by a European Tripartite Conference in 1959 and signed on 18 October 1961. In part II, the economic and social rights to be protected and realized are listed. They include all the economic and social rights proclaimed in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and, in addition, the right to vocational guidance and training, the right of everyone to engage in lucrative occupations and the right to protection of migrant workers (as a major element in the European labour market).

334. In part III of the European Social Charter, it is recognized that the rights enumerated in part II can be realized only progressively. Those to which priority should be given are specified. They are the right to work,



the right to form and join trade unions, the right of collective bargaining, the right to social security, the right to medical and social assistance, the right to family protection and the right of migrant workers to protection. Also, in part II, the Charter goes into certain of the rights to be protected in some detail, recommends policies of full employment and prescribes standards for minimum wages, holidays with pay and the age of admission of juveniles to employment.

335. The implementation process provided for in part IV of the Charter is similar to that applied by the ILO. It requires biennial reports from Governments on the effect given to its provisions, the submission of these reports to a committee of independent experts which, in its turn, comments upon them for the benefit of a representative body (a sub-committee of the Governmental Social Committee of the Council) and of the Consultative Assembly, with final consideration by the Committee of Ministers, which makes appropriate recommendations to the contracting parties concerned.

336. The Charter came into force on 26 February 1965. At the end of 1972, it had been ratified by nine States and signed by five others.<sup>11</sup> The first cycle in the supervision of its application resulted in a report of the Governmental Social Committee, which, as a useful innovation, was transmitted by the Committee of Ministers to the Consultative Assembly so that it could express its opinion on its contents.

337. Cultural rights are not included in the Charter. They are, however, recognized in the European Cultural Convention of 19 December 1954, which has the broad objective of promoting and facilitating the participation of individuals in cultural life.<sup>12</sup>

<sup>11</sup> *Ratifications*: Austria, Cyprus, Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany, Iceland, Ireland, Norway, Sweden, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. *Signatures*: Belgium, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Turkey.

<sup>12</sup> This convention entered into force on 5 May 1955. By the end of 1972, 21 ratifications or accessions had been registered.

## B. Promotional activities

338. Promotional activities are naturally directed in the Council of Europe at the realization of the rights proclaimed in these various instruments. Yet, the Council has not neglected world-wide requirements. It contributed to the celebration of the International Year for Human Rights in 1968 by recommending to its members that they participate fully in the manifestations organized on that occasion. More recently, on 8 July 1971, the Consultative Assembly, after discussing problems arising out of the coexistence of the European and United Nations standards and instruments (see para. 359 below), recommended that the Committee of Ministers invite the member States which had not yet done so to ratify the International Covenants on Human Rights.

339. On the regional level, a Parliamentary Conference on Human Rights was convened by the Consultative Assembly to enable parliamentarians to compare the trends in legislative programmes regarding the protection, promotion and development of human rights, and to draw up a programme of joint action to be carried out in the near future by harmonizing action within the Council of Europe, other international organizations and national parliaments. The Conference met in Vienna from 18 to 20 October 1971. It adopted a final resolution in which it drew attention, *inter alia*, to the transformations that had taken place in society since the signature of the European Convention on Human Rights, and to the need to give individuals more effective protection by the establishment at the national level of organs authorized to receive and examine individual complaints, with the right of access to the files of government departments, functioning on the lines of the *ombudsman* as known in Scandinavian countries.

340. 1971 also marked the tenth anniversary of the signing of the European Social Charter. Many ceremonies of commemoration were organized on that occasion. They provided a suitable opportunity for stock-taking.

## Chapter XI

### LEAGUE OF ARAB STATES

341. Many of the activities of the League of Arab States are devoted to problems related to civil and political rights and fundamental freedoms, but the League has not neglected consideration of matters related to economic, social and cultural rights. Within the framework of the International Year for Human Rights, it convened in 1968 an International Arab Conference to discuss, among other topics, "Arab practice in the protection of human rights in the social, cultural, legislative and economic fields", and to review Arab League activities in various areas of human rights".

#### A. Regional standards and instruments<sup>13</sup>

##### 1. THE RIGHT TO WORK

342. The League has developed standards on the right to work in its Charter for Arab Labour, which affirms the need to raise the living standards of the workers in the Arab world and, with the assistance of the Arab Labour Organization, to unify labour standards among Arab countries.

343. The Agreement on Labour Standards, more particularly, formulates in article 8 the following requirements:

(a) The protection determined by labour standards must be equal, without discrimination among workers as to race, origin, colour, religion or political belief;

(b) The legislation of each State should regulate the hiring of workers who are citizens of Arab countries;

(c) Every Arab State should aim, as far as possible, at providing labour and social security legislation that would ensure the workers mentioned above all the benefits and rights provided for in that legislation.

344. In addition, according to article 42 of the Agreement, working women should be guaranteed equal pay for equal work.

##### 2. THE RIGHT TO AN ADEQUATE STANDARD OF LIVING

345. The Economic Unity Agreement, which came into force on 30 April 1964, aims at the economic liberation of the Arab and at the improvement of his standard of living. It provides for freedom of movement, residence, work and participation in economic activities on a basis of equality. It requires the States parties to co-ordinate legislation on labour and social security matters. Its implementation is entrusted to the Arab Economic Unity Council.

##### 3. THE RIGHT TO EDUCATION

346. The Arab Cultural Unity Pact, concluded in 1964 and replacing an earlier agreement, requires, in

article VI, the States parties to co-operate for the development of their educational systems and to work for the implementation of compulsory education in the elementary stages and for the elimination of illiteracy. They should also provide opportunities for access to higher and technical education.

347. Article IX of the same instrument invites agreement on the advancement of co-education, in conformity with religious principles, Arab values and modern scientific progress.

##### 4. THE RIGHT TO PARTICIPATE FREELY IN CULTURAL LIFE

348. The Arab Cultural Unity Pact similarly provides, in article XXI, that the member States shall work for the adoption of legislation that will protect scientific, artistic and literary ownership and copyright.

#### B. Promotional activities

349. In addition to its efforts to promote the application of the general principle of equality and non-discrimination, the League has, in the more specific context of economic, social and cultural rights, organized a number of seminars on social problems with particular reference to the following topics: (a) social welfare in relation to health, education, economic and social development, (b) social reform in rural areas, (c) social cohesion in the Arab-Islamic society, (d) social welfare in relation to the situation of labour in both the agricultural and industrial sectors, (e) advancement of local society within the framework of national planning, (f) the Arab family in society, including the study of motherhood and childhood.

350. From these seminars emerged a series of recommendations which, from the angle of economic, social and cultural rights, may be summarized as calling for:

(a) The consideration, in the planning of economic development, of the need to provide employment to all individuals able to work;

(b) Protection against occupational hazards and diseases, with compensation for their victims; rehabilitation of the handicapped;

(c) The establishment of a minimum wage;

(d) The institution of adequate social security systems, with guaranteed assistance in case of old age, sickness and incapacity;

(e) Protection of the rights of the child and of the family; the prohibition of night work and limitation of hours of work for women and juveniles; the adoption of a minimum age for admission to employment; the provision of maternity leave with pay on a percentage basis, and the creation of institutions for child care.

<sup>13</sup> These instruments are declaratory in character.

351. The League also continued its efforts to eliminate discrimination based on sex and to raise the status of women in the Arab world. It prepared a number of studies on the rights of women and on the most suitable occupations open to them. It has devoted particular attention to raising the status of women in rural areas.

352. In the promotion of the right to the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health, the League, through its secretariat, has been engaged in making studies of health problems and their solution in the Arab world, including the need for the exchange of information and for the co-ordination of efforts and resources within the League and with other countries. To that effect, the secretariat has also organized seminars on such matters as liquor and drugs, food and nutrition,

child care and health, the provision of health experts, health in rural areas and workers' health.

353. On education, the League has held several conferences, dealing with such subjects as school examinations, textbooks, the teaching of history and geography, co-education, and education planning in Arab States. Other meetings, seminars or conferences were concerned with compulsory education and the eradication of illiteracy. On this last point, the most important recommendation calls for the establishment of Arab regional departments and the creation of a joint Arab fund. In addition, a conference on vocational and technical education was held in 1966 and seminars were organized to further the spread of vocational and technical education in the Arab countries, and to consider problems of higher education.

## Chapter XII

### CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS ON INTERNATIONAL AND REGIONAL ACTION

354. As is shown in the foregoing brief review of international and regional action, measures for the realization of economic, social and cultural rights take a variety of forms. For the purposes of this analysis, these measures may be classified according to their scope, their mode of operation, and the process of their implementation.

#### A. Scope

355. The United Nations bill of rights and the regional instruments are all intended to guarantee better conditions of economic and social well-being and constitute a comprehensive body of rights universally applicable. The instruments of the specialized agencies and WIPO, by contrast, aim at specific goals generally restricted to definite categories of rights and beneficiaries.

356. This difference in approach between the general and the specific reflects, of course, the divergent character of the organizations concerned. The United Nations and the regional organizations, on the one hand, pursue objectives of an over-all nature, and the specialized agencies and WIPO, on the other, are concerned with the specific subjects which they were established to deal with.

357. Thus, while the standards and scope of action of the United Nations bill of rights and of the regional instruments are, or can be, inclusive in character, those of the other organizations, directed as they are at particular sectors of the human landscape, may leave gaps of unprotected humanity. This situation clearly emerges from the consideration of the ILO Conventions on social security or of certain WHO programmes, which, while laying down precise standards, do not necessarily protect every individual.

#### B. Mode of operation

358. The modes of operation here include standard-setting, promotional activities, and advisory services.

##### 1. STANDARD-SETTING

359. In standard-setting, the ILO and WIPO, among the world-wide organizations, are the foremost in using formal instruments. But there are differences between them; the ILO conventions essentially prescribe norms of national conduct that are deemed to possess universal validity. They are, as they have been termed, "law-treaties". Their observance or non-execution in one country does not affect their observance or non-execution in other countries, except indirectly. The WIPO conventions, on the other hand, are, by virtue of their objectives, in the nature of international contracts, anchored to the need to balance divergent national interests by way of reciprocal national obligations. Violations, here, are of

direct concern to the other States parties, as well as to individuals.

360. At the other end of the spectrum, other organizations of the United Nations system, like FAO and WHO, use the more direct method of assisting Governments in the formulation of policies and in the building-up of the infrastructure, which are both designed to provide the necessary conditions for the enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights.

361. UNESCO, as befits its extensive mandate, is more eclectic in its methods. Its instruments are, in the field of culture, rather specific, and, in the field of education, of a more comprehensive character. Some of the former, exemplified by the 1964 Recommendation on the Means of Prohibiting and Preventing the Illicit Export, Import and Transfer of Ownership of Cultural Property, tend to rely on a contractual type of obligation, while in the latter group the 1960 Convention against Discrimination in Education may serve as an illustration of the "legislative treaty" type.

##### 2. PROMOTIONAL ACTIVITIES

362. Promotional action is used in all the organizations reviewed. But, as is natural, in those whose action is based on formal instruments, it is mainly directed towards the application and improvement of those instruments, while in others promotion is the primary mode of operation.

363. In addition, promotional activities are strongly reinforced by the existence of permanent representative bodies specifically created to foster the realization of human rights. Such is the case in the United Nations, where the presence and action of the Commission on Human Rights has a powerful influence on developments throughout the world. The same can be said of the ILO Committee of Experts and the ILO Committee on Freedom of Association, which, in addition to their functions concerned with implementation, contribute, though in a more limited field, to the protection and understanding of trade-union rights.

##### 3. ADVISORY SERVICES

364. Depending on the mode of operation, advisory services may be designed to assist Governments in the application of the international or regional standards which they have accepted, or, within the framework of the organization's over-all objectives, in solving their own policy and institutional problems. The distinction between these two types of service is, however, mostly academic. Most advisory programmes are intended to permit exchanges of information and experience or directed at the satisfaction of concrete needs in the receiving countries, whether or not those needs result from



the acceptance of formal instruments or from the demands of general policy. In all cases, advisory services are meant primarily to help the less developed countries, which are in the process of removing imbalances in the economic and social fields and of building up the required infrastructure necessary for the real enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms.

### C. Implementation

365. The realization of standards devised at the international or regional level depends in the final analysis on the readiness of Governments to carry out the obligations which they have assumed. Even in the more advanced mechanisms created by the Council of Europe, there is no true coercive power to ensure compliance.

366. The ILO implementation machinery, for instance, which is the most elaborate of the United Nations system in providing for successive stages of scrutiny by independent and quasi-judicial organs, ceases to function at the political level, where implementation becomes the responsibility of representative or executive bodies. And where the International Court of Justice becomes involved, its decisions are, if not carried out, referred to the International Labour Conference for "such action as it may deem wise and expedient to secure compliance therewith".

367. UNESCO also provides in some cases for referral to the International Court of Justice, but such referral, as in the case of the Convention against Discrimination in Education, is for an advisory opinion only. The Universal Copyright Convention, in which WIPO is also concerned, goes one step further by stating, in one of its attached Protocols, that any dispute that is not settled by negotiation is to be brought before the Court for determination by it.

368. It should be mentioned, however, that hitherto recourse to the Court has not been chosen as a means of enforcing respect for obligations under human rights instruments. Yet, their influence should not be underrated; they have, especially when accompanied by appropriate publicity, proved in many cases to constitute a reasonably effective instrument.

369. For the developing countries, the problem is above all one of economic and social advancement. The legal and institutional provisions are nothing but a necessary framework. They are of little value if they are not given concrete substance by policies and action that create the conditions required for the enjoyment of the rights prescribed by the international and regional instruments. It is for that reason that article 2 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights accepts the idea, shared by the European Social Charter, that economic, social and cultural rights can be realized only progressively.

370. Economic and social development is, of course, one of the main concerns of the United Nations system. In formulating rights and advocating their implementation, the international and regional organizations have added a new dimension to development. They can, however, only propose standards and, where these are adopted, endeavour to ensure their observance. The burden of translating them into actual rights remains with the national authorities within the means and resources available. They are the instruments through which the high principles of the United Nations bill of rights can become a reality.

371. A further point remains: the coexistence of standards and instruments at both the international and regional levels may give rise to problems. This question was examined, at the level of the Council of Europe, by the Council's Consultative Assembly in July 1971. In recommendation 642 (1971), the Assembly noted the conclusions reached on this subject by its Committee of Experts on Human Rights and agreed that the measures indicated by the Committee as necessary to remove possible difficulties would indeed enable the Council's members to ratify the International Covenants on Human Rights without their position under the European Convention on Human Rights being affected. Within the United Nations family itself, it will be important to establish arrangements for collaboration between the United Nations and the various specialized agencies concerned in supervising the implementation of the International Covenants on Human Rights.



## **Part Six**

### **OBSERVATIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**





## Chapter I

### OBSERVATIONS

1. Parts two, three and four of the present study provide—depending on the availability of data, which are particularly lacking for many of the less developed countries—information and indices concerning the way of life and level of living throughout the world in terms of the distribution of income, the number of inhabitants per doctor and per hospital bed, the ratio of school attendance in the various school-going age groups, the rate of school drop-out, housing conditions, unemployment conditions, infant mortality, life expectancy, etc.

2. The study shows that in the decade of the 1960s all countries, including the less developed, made substantial gains in broadening education and in improving nutrition and health standards. In addition, their total GNP rose significantly, although the increase was to a large extent, particularly in the case of the less developed countries, offset by accelerated population growth. *Per capita* GNP in the less developed countries increased by only about 25 per cent between 1960 and 1969. This rate, being an average for all less developed countries, conceals cases where the rates were much lower and even negative, as well as cases where higher rates were achieved.

3. The less developed countries, which form 64 per cent of the world's population, managed on average after 1970 to achieve an annual growth rate of 4.1 per cent in their GNP. Most of this was, however, offset by high population growth and inflation. Hence, there was very little improvement—or none at all—in the desperately low standard of living of more than 1 100 million people.

4. An average world growth rate of 4.1 per cent may seem a reasonable achievement, but it masks the fact that some less developed countries are moving forward far faster than others.

5. Mr. Robert S. McNamara, President of the World Bank, stated in the Bank's annual report for 1972 that there were huge inequalities in wealth inside any developing country. The report stated that in 39 countries studied the top 5 per cent of the population in the highest-income group earned over 30 times more than the 40 per cent in the lowest-income group. This is the group that presents the largest, most pervasive and most persistent poverty problem of all. Contrary to the traditional economists' point of view, the Bank's report also observes that there is very little difference between the average rate of growth in the group of countries with the greatest income inequalities and in the countries with the smallest. It says that a fairer income distribution could lead to a reduction in demand for luxury goods for the rich and more investment in the production of essential commodities.

6. With regard to the particular problems of the less developed countries, the former United Nations Secretary-General, U Thant has said that mankind all over the world, after centuries of fatalistically enduring political subjugation and suffering, after millenia of accepting

social discrimination as a decree of the gods and the existence of economic disparities as an unalterable fact of life, has been awakened by science and technology to the realization that these things need no longer be endured or accepted.<sup>1</sup>

7. The report of the Secretary-General on the Expert Group Meeting on a Unified Approach to Development Analysis and Planning, held at Stockholm from 6 to 10 November 1972, includes the following passage:

The rapid growth in the labour force, the growing demand for change as a result of spreading education and improved communications, the movement of population to the cities, the absence of widespread popular participation in development, the maldistribution of social services such as health services and benefits, the slowness of social reform—these and many other forces are generating acute tensions throughout most of the developing countries.<sup>2</sup>

8. Very often it has been not the impoverishment of a people that has led to rebellion and disorder but rather the failure to meet their expectations of improvement in their living conditions. This is indeed no more than a definition of what is meant by the phrase "revolution of rising expectations". As Myrdal says, people get restless and rebellious when they are getting a little better off but not fast enough.

9. The present study shows that, in spite of improvements, vast numbers of people in Asia, Africa and Latin America live in conditions of bare subsistence and sometimes starvation. Millions of migrants from the farms to the cities fail to find jobs. They become dwellers in huge, ever-growing slums and transitional settlements in which poverty, the lack of any standard of sanitation, illiteracy and malnutrition offset the alluring prospects of social equity and provide the breeding ground for delinquency and crime.

10. In a number of less developed countries around the world, people living in transitional urban settlements have demonstrated remarkable vigour and ingenuity in improving their living conditions, despite enormous obstacles, including strong initial institutional opposition to the very existence of these settlements. The current evidence from the less developed countries indicates that when these population groups obtain minimally secure employment and a measure of security of tenure in the land they occupy, they act to improve their environment through the investment of their major resources, money and labour, in the gradual improvement of their dwellings and surroundings. Unfortunately, not all transitional urban settlements tend to improve. Central city slum areas, which in some less developed countries are generations or even centuries old, for the most part do not undergo the

<sup>1</sup> See *Long-term Planning* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.E.3), p. 3.

<sup>2</sup> E/CN.5/490, para. 9.

kind of progressive environmental improvement that can be found in many newly established central or peripheral squatter areas. This may be due in large part to their being tenement areas which absentee landlords have no incentive to improve.

11. Large masses of people in the less developed countries suffer from undernutrition, malnutrition, lack of elementary health and educational facilities, and extremely bad housing conditions and sanitation. This situation impairs their capacity and ability to work and to contribute to higher production. As a result, productivity is held down and national progress is retarded.

12. Statistics provided in this study show that the gap is widening in most countries between the urban and the rural population and between the high and the low income groups. This is particularly so in the case of the less developed countries. On the other hand, the phenomenal technological gap existing between the more developed countries and the less developed countries and the high rate of population growth in the latter as compared with their meagre utilization of material and human resources have led to an ever-widening gap between the two groups of nations. That condition is creating a politically explosive situation at both the national and the international levels.

13. Although there can be but one definition of "human rights and fundamental freedoms", the term, in view of the economic and social realities of life in different parts of the world, conveys different needs and expectations and a different order of priorities for those living below the poverty line as compared with those enjoying higher standards of living. Thus, while the gap between the rich and the poor, the privileged and the underprivileged keeps on widening both within and between countries, the possibilities of the uniform definition and application of those standards tend to diminish. Such conditions are harmful not only for national integration and consolidation but also for international co-operation.

14. The population in Africa, Latin America and much of Asia continues to grow at the explosive rate of 2.5 per cent yearly. This uncontrolled population growth is one of the basic reasons for the continuing poverty of the less developed countries. The estimated total population in the less developed world rose from some 2 000 million in 1960 to 2 500 million a decade later. Projections of the figures, moreover, indicate that the present population of the less developed countries may double by the year 2000. In contrast, the total population in more developed regions—which increased from some 1 000 million in 1960 to 1 100 million in 1970—is projected to rise only to about 1 500 million at the end of the century. The picture is even more startling in the case of the urban population, which is expected to increase in the less developed countries more than threefold during the same period.<sup>3</sup>

15. The present study shows that one of the major social problems in the world today is that of unemployment and underemployment. The situation is nowhere as critical as in the less developed countries. One estimate is that one adult in every three or four is unemployed or underemployed in the less developed countries. This means that probably as many as 200 million jobs need to be created in those countries now and many more in the near future, in view of their rapidly increasing population. Unemployment means frustration and demoralization among young men and poverty

for their families in countries where there are few or no unemployment benefits.

16. A major UNESCO study on education throughout the world states that in the education race, as in the march to economic progress, attempts to narrow the gap between the more developed countries and the less developed countries have all failed. The enormous difference in educational experiences between the "have" and the "have-not" nations is still widening, despite "large-scale efforts, financial sacrifices and considerable results" in the 1960s. The study goes on to say that in 1968 the more developed countries spent more than \$120 000 million on education while the less developed countries spent less than \$12 000 million. Yet the more developed countries have only one third of the world's population and only one fourth of its young people. The study notes that "the most serious aspect of this enormous difference is that it is growing larger".<sup>4</sup> During the period 1960–1968, the more developed countries had about half the number of students in the world. In Europe, the Soviet Union and North America, elementary and secondary school enrolment ran parallel with the growth in the population of young people between the ages of 5 and 19 years. But in the less developed countries the population in that age group increased by 36 million more than the increase in school enrolments. In this respect, Africa was in the worst position.

17. As for the situation prevailing in various parts of the world with regard to health protection, the present study shows that there have been great improvements in the socialist countries and also in the developed market-economy countries, particularly in those which have instituted national health protection schemes. Conditions in the less developed countries have also improved; however, protection in this field is generally less equal as between rural and urban coverage and as regards the coverage provided for people in different income groups, and is generally much less adequate. It has been noted in part two of the present study that, though nearly 70 per cent of the world's population in 1967 lived in the less developed countries, these countries had, in all, only 25 per cent of the world's physicians, 28 per cent of its dentists, 20 per cent of its nurses and 30 per cent of its hospital beds. In addition, between 70 and 80 per cent of their medical personnel lived in large cities, thus leaving 80 per cent of the population of the less developed countries with only 20 per cent of the available medical personnel. This explains, in part, the high death and infant mortality rates in Africa, Asia and Latin America.

18. The welfare State, as Gunnar Myrdal observes, emerges "as more than an achieved situation" in developed market-economy countries, and the trend towards it has become almost inevitable. Myrdal concludes: "Its further development can be slowed down for a time and occasionally even slightly reversed. But after such a stop it can be expected to continue its course". He adds: "Only in countries that are the most advanced as welfare States, and only in very recent years, has the idea emerged that welfare reforms, instead of being costly for society, were actually laying a basis for a more steady and rapid economic growth".<sup>5</sup>

<sup>4</sup> UNESCO, *Learning To Be: The World of Education Today and Tomorrow* (Paris, UNESCO, and London, Harrap, 1972), p. 50.

<sup>5</sup> G. Myrdal, "The place of values in social policy", *Journal of Social Policy*, vol. I, part I (Cambridge University Press, January 1972), pp. 3 and 5.

<sup>3</sup> World Bank, *Trends in Developing Countries* (Washington, D.C., 1972).

19. Improvements in economic and social conditions in socialist countries have brought about a vast increase in the enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights by all citizens of those countries.

20. The present study shows that among the aspects of social structure and social institutions that impede the realization of economic, social and cultural rights for all, the following are important: excessive concentration of wealth and income; large areas of poverty or stagnation; marginal participation in or actual exclusion from economic and social progress; lack of mobility (often associated with inequalities in educational opportunities and an inequalitarian social and power structure); discrimination against women; and other traditions which retard progress. The extended family and kinship system also often acts as an impediment in this regard, although it could, with proper planning and direction, be turned into an important instrument for the realization of the rights concerned. Such aspects, as stated in the report of the Meeting of Experts on Social Policy and Planning, held at Stockholm from 1 to 10 September 1969, "represent foci for further research, planning and improvement of policies".<sup>6</sup> The present study also shows that there is a clear contradiction between the effective realization of economic, social and cultural rights for all and the maintenance of the dominance of an economic, social and political élite.

21. As noted in the present study and as experience in some Latin American countries shows, a high-growth strategy based on maldistribution of income and a poor network of social services is not conducive to sustained growth. In fact, social problems like the population explosion, social and political instability, insufficiency of purchasing power and lack of a reliable domestic market create obstacles to continuous and healthy economic growth. The concentration of wealth in the hands of a small group of landlords and entrepreneurs leads to the development of a market for imported luxury and semi-luxury items and a pattern of life aptly described by Thorstein Veblen as "conspicuous consumption" in the midst of absolute poverty and human degradation. Veblen maintained:

The institution of a leisure class acts to make the lower classes conservative by withdrawing from them as much as it may of the means of sustenance, and so reducing their consumption, and consequently their available energy, to such a point as to make them incapable of the effort required for the learning and adoption of new habits of thought. The accumulation of wealth at the upper end of the pecuniary scale implies privation at the lower end of the scale. It is a commonplace that, wherever it occurs, a considerable degree of privation among the body of the people is a serious obstacle to any innovation.<sup>7</sup>

22. Thus, any strategy based on income disparity prevents the State that pursues it from realizing the full potential of the capacities and capabilities of its citizens.

23. The less developed countries bear the primary responsibility for their own development; however, their efforts will be insufficient unless they are assisted by increased financial resources and more favourable economic and commercial policies on the part of the more developed countries. Under Article 56 of the Charter of the United Nations, all Members pledge themselves to take joint and

separate action in co-operation with the Organization to promote higher standards of living, full employment and conditions economic and social progress and development throughout the world.

24. The Second United Nations Development Decade set a target of an annual rate of growth of 6 per cent for the less developed countries. To achieve this, the industrialized countries were to devote 0.7 per cent of their GNP to aiding the less developed countries. That goal was to be reached by 1975. In the fourth year of the Decade, official development assistance to less developed countries was averaging out at only 0.34 per cent. The President of the World Bank, at the resumed fifty-fifth session of the Economic and Social Council, stated that on the basis of available information it would not exceed 0.35 per cent even in 1975, and that this remained the case in spite of the fact that the achievement of the target would not require the developed nations to reduce their already high standards of living or neglect their domestic priorities.

25. The publicly guaranteed debt of the less developed countries currently stands at about \$80 000 million, with an annual debt service of approximately \$7 000 million. As the President of the World Bank stated in his address to the Bank's Board of Governors, delivered at Nairobi, Kenya, on 24 September 1973:

It is important to understand what the essence of the debt problem is. It is not the fact that there is debt, nor even the size of the debt. It is, rather, the composition and dynamics of the debt; the fact that debt, and debt payments, are growing faster than the revenues required to service them.<sup>8</sup>

26. Hence, one of the major difficulties facing most of the less developed countries in their efforts towards the realization of economic, social and cultural rights is the growing burden of external debt. This is, in part, a function of the acute shortage of official development assistance. As the President of the World Bank has stated, the current flow of this financial aid on concessionary terms is far below what the developing nations need, and it is far below what the affluent nations can readily afford.

27. As the Director-General of UNESCO has observed, it is a "hard political fact that the rich countries are unwilling to devote a greater share of their prosperity to assisting the poor".<sup>9</sup>

28. The report of the Secretary-General on the Expert Group Meeting on a Unified Approach to Development Analysis and Planning states that:

the current policies of the advanced countries with respect to foreign aid, foreign trade, foreign investment, immigration etc. are not always in the form that is most conducive to the unified economic and social development of the third world.<sup>10</sup>

29. In a review and appraisal of the International Development Strategy, the Secretary-General observes that "the International Development Strategy remains much more a wish than a policy".<sup>11</sup>

30. During the Second United Nations Development Decade, the annual GNP of the affluent nations will grow, in constant prices, from \$2 million million in 1970 to ap-

<sup>8</sup> IBRD, IFC and IDA, *1973 Annual Meetings of the Boards of Governors: Summary Proceedings* (Washington, D.C.), pp. 18 and 19.

<sup>9</sup> UNESCO document DG/73/10, p. 2.

<sup>10</sup> E/CN.5/490, para. 10.

<sup>11</sup> A/C.2/L.1287, annex, para. 32.

<sup>6</sup> E/CN.5/445, para. 13.

<sup>7</sup> T. Veblen, *The Theory of the Leisure Class* (New York, Mentor Books, 1954), pp. 140 and 141.



proximately \$3.5 million million in 1980. The President of the World Bank stated, in his 1973 address to the Board of Governors of the Bank, that:

In order to double the official development assistance flows, and thereby raise them to the targeted 0.7%, the developed countries would need to devote to that end less than 2% of the amount by which they themselves will grow richer during the period. The remaining 98% of their incremental income would provide them with more than sufficient funds to meet their domestic priorities.<sup>12</sup>

31. Developments during 1973, an important element of which was the world-wide energy crisis, show, however, that times are changing and a new phase must begin to appear in the relations among nations, with requirements, opportunities and responsibilities different from those of both the past and the present. That calls for new policies, directives and attitudes, particularly on the part of the

<sup>12</sup> IBRD, IFC and IDA, *1973 Annual Meetings of the Boards of Governors . . .*, p. 16.

more developed countries in increasing official development assistance to the less developed countries.

32. The Special Rapporteur wishes to draw the attention of the Commission on Human Rights to a new departure on the operational side by the World Bank Group, in which emphasis is given to activities in the fields of urban and rural development, nutrition, education and population. Subjects such as income distribution and other considerations affecting the quality of life of individuals are receiving ever growing attention in the planning, execution and evaluation phases of the World Bank Group's work.

33. This is not a time for pessimism or for optimism, but for realism. There is need, as always, for words of caution and constructive criticism. Facts must be faced and decisions courageously made, based on what comprises the interest of all and what is best in the long run for the welfare of man.



## Chapter II

### CONCLUSIONS

#### A. General

34. There is an urgent need for a broad-scale attack on poverty, particularly in the less developed world. It is the responsibility of every country to recognize the inequities existing within its boundaries and to move to correct them. What the less developed countries need today for rapid and steady development is far-reaching radical reforms. Cosmetic treatment is far from enough.

35. The actual realization of economic, social and cultural rights is primarily the sole concern of each State acting by itself and determining its policies within the prevailing political, economic, social, cultural, legal and ideological setting, which is not the same in any two countries in the world. Therefore, each country is entitled to develop its own forms and methods for the realization of economic, social and cultural rights, although it can, of course, make use of the successful experience of other countries, if it so desires.

36. The most important prerequisite for the meaningful realization of all rights, in particular economic, social and cultural rights, is independence, territorial integrity and national sovereignty, without which no effort towards economic or social development could lead to a more egalitarian and just society.

37. Foreign models do not provide a satisfactory solution to the unique economic, social, cultural and political problems of each country. The best model is that which is made to suit the special circumstances and needs of the country concerned. In some cases, particularly in developing countries, the limited resources available and other factors, such as administrative problems and the scarcity of qualified manpower, will often make it advisable to establish priorities appropriate to the social, economic, political and cultural conditions and circumstances of the country concerned.

38. Scarcity of means and resources necessitates making a choice and makes it essential to lay down priorities. From the point of view of social development and human rights, the priorities dictate a series of balances, such as the balance between the various levels of education, between technical and liberal education, between the country and the town, between skills and jobs, between poor and rich regions, and between the present and the future.

39. The Special Rapporteur believes, as does the Meeting of Experts on Social Policy and Planning, that the implementation of the concept of the minimum level of adequacy in each country is essential for the guaranteeing of economic, social and cultural rights to all. The Meeting of Experts recommended that:

the elaboration of a minimum level of adequacy, including levels of adequacy for young children, should be undertaken both within countries and in the United Nations. . . . This will involve combina-

tions of statistical analysis with penetrating social-cultural analysis. The concept of a minimum level cannot be based on *per capita* GNP, which is misleading even at the country level. It must also not be confused with the concept of minimum wage legislation. In some countries, a minimum level of adequacy may have to be defined separately for different regions or groups, to take account of socio-cultural differences.<sup>13</sup>

40. A major prerequisite for this effective realization of economic, social and cultural rights in the less developed countries today is peaceful, radical social change, as speedily as possible, which would allow all the human and material resources of the nation full and dynamic participation in the process of development. Rapid modernization by necessity requires institutions that would make popular participation more effective. In this connexion, the Meeting of Experts on Social Policy and Planning emphasized that

A special effort aimed at the process of making women politically aware and . . . more effective participants in determining the directions of social change is needed. For many societies, the problem of making women politically and socially active needs special attention within a broader programme of increasing participation.<sup>14</sup>

41. The emancipation of women in fact as well as in law is an absolute precondition for their effective participation in planning and carrying out policies and plans directed towards the enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights by all without discrimination of any kind.

42. An area in which extensive research, training and attention is most urgent for the equal realization of economic, social and cultural rights for all is that of increasing popular participation and "animation" in regard to policies, planning and development. An identification with development goals and methods would diminish the sense of alienation from society, particularly among young people, who constitute the bulk of the population of the less developed countries. To ensure participation in implementation, it may also be necessary to give a sense of participation at the stage of plan formulation.

43. The success of an economic and social plan that aims at the creation of a more egalitarian distribution of income and consumption and at guaranteeing social welfare depends on the creation of a political power structure conducive to these aims. Otherwise, in practice goals and aims will change in character, since those who can exert power, either openly or covertly, are apt to change plans to suit their own desires and interests.

44. This calls for governmental decentralization, together with central guidance, assistance and control. It should not lead in practice to the creation of a body of power-hungry government officials throughout the country.

<sup>13</sup> E/CN.5/445, para. 36.

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*, para. 22.

45. Without political development the desired economic and social development cannot take place. In other words, political development is the precondition for arriving at the desired rate of economic and social progress, quantitatively as well as qualitatively. Political development may be defined as the creation of a political system capable of satisfying the needs and requirements of economic and social progress. The political apparatus must be reformed so as to be capable of assuming its present and future responsibilities in the effective realization of economic, social and cultural rights.

46. Even in those economies where enterprises are the freest, government has historically played a crucial role in the process of economic development. The critical role of government in this process is now acknowledged by economists of almost all ideological persuasions. In the less developed countries, no matter what their different political systems may be, Governments will have to assume the leadership in removing the major institutional barriers to development, while planning for the respective roles the public and private sectors must play in this process. When government bureaucracy itself becomes one of these institutional barriers to the development process, as is the case in some less developed countries, the country concerned is faced with a serious bottleneck that calls for the utmost attention. The modernization of public administration with the aim of reorienting it towards development tasks must therefore be a major goal of development-minded politicians and public servants.

47. One of the great paradoxes facing most of the less developed countries is that their newly formed governments—that is, the governments with the least experience—are in general called upon to face the severest difficulties. A small and ill-trained bureaucracy often has the task of preparing and implementing programmes that would tax the capacity of some of the world's most developed administrative systems.

48. Most of the less developed countries have, over the past two decades, been formulating policies and guidelines for administrative reforms intended to rationalize the unwieldy and ill-motivated bureaucracies, in most cases overstuffed, that hamper the desired development towards the effective realization of economic, social and cultural rights. This is the time for the *bona fide* implementation of those policies and guidelines.

49. To correct the ills of the past, the less developed countries, as noted in paragraph 34 above, are in need of far-reaching radical reforms. First in order of priority is land reform. Without that, inequalities in the rural sector and between the rural and urban sectors are apt to increase. The educational system and the system of government administration are, as already pointed out, in urgent need of reform. Myrdal rightly says in this regard: "The 'soft State' should be changed into an effective strong State".

50. Radical reforms in the less developed countries must be based on social justice, national consolidation and solidarity, the full and equal participation of women in the economic, social, political and cultural life of the country, the equitable distribution of income, wealth and services, the bringing of rural and urban income levels closer together, an increased respect for manual work, the removal of any kind of discrimination in fact as well as in law, and the decentralization of decision-making and the system of government within the framework of a strong central Government, as well as a unified national development

plan. The creation, expansion and consolidation of links between labour and ownership in industries, the training of skilled workers, a radical change of educational system implying an increase not only in the quantity of schooling but also an improvement in its content and its very spirit, the stamping out of corruption and the creation of more social discipline throughout society are essential for faster economic and social development. Without a sufficient core of well qualified, dedicated and honest administrators, the realization of economic, social and cultural rights will be delayed. The exercise of social discipline and the participation of people in all walks of life are the corner-stones of success in implementing economic and social plans aimed at speeding up the enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights by all.

51. Policies designed to protect economic, social and cultural rights are directly related to population policies in the area of the reconciliation of individual rights and responsibilities with regard to fertility, morbidity and mortality, and population distribution. They are in addition indirectly related, since the success of both is dependent upon the achievement of economic and social justice. The objective of population policies is to contribute to the removal of problems that have arisen because of an imbalance between demographic behaviour and social and economic behaviour in national societies. The means whereby they can be implemented is the modification of popular attitudes towards fertility, mortality and population distribution. Although to a considerable extent contemporary problems are influenced by the inertia resulting from earlier demographic events, to a predominant degree they arise from inconsistencies within economic and social systems. In particular, the maldistribution of national wealth, including the denial of basic services to underprivileged sections of the population, and the failure to bring about needed structural changes such as land reform, are responsible not only for the problems themselves—whether those of sterility, subfecundity, unwanted children, induced abortion in substandard conditions, denial of information and materials needed for contraception, high morbidity, low life expectancy, or unsatisfactory population distribution—but also for the constraints and difficulties experienced in formulating and implementing appropriate policies. Thus, both the protection of individual economic, social and cultural rights and the resolution of problems associated with population are dependent upon the success of appropriate social and economic policies. However, the relationship is not a passive one, for the formulation of appropriate policies in the areas both of individual human rights and of population can effectively contribute to the removal of inconsistencies in the social and economic structures of countries.

52. The importance of research in working out policies for the effective realization of economic, social and cultural rights, particularly in the less developed countries, cannot be over-emphasized. In this connexion, the Meeting of Experts on Social Policy and Planning concluded:

In identifying social bottle-necks and the mechanism by which they affect development, the role of research is obviously great. However, this research must be specific to the individual country and the Group would emphasize training, technical assistance, field work and strengthening of local institutions rather than broad general research. In addition, the United Nations can compare experiences and help people from different countries to exchange views and experiences.<sup>15</sup>

<sup>15</sup> *Ibid.*, para. 14.



53. One area where higher expenditure on research and development is essential in the less developed countries is that of agriculture. The "green revolution" has demonstrated the importance of specifically developed agricultural technology. However, it is now understood that biological technology is not readily transferable between regions and that each region has to develop the technology most suited to its local conditions. It will be useless to invest in extension services where the new technology to be transmitted to the farmers is not available or is not relevant. Therefore the less developed countries need to place more emphasis on the expansion of agricultural experimental stations throughout the country.

54. Rural public works, credit and marketing and extension services—agricultural inputs which must be provided as an integral part of an effective land reform policy—are an absolute necessity in the less developed countries and need to be guided by a well-conceived and conscientiously pursued social policy. Rural education (including adult education) and health care and sanitation are basic in harmonizing land reform with other agricultural policies and making it a real instrument of social change and progress.

## B. Particular aspects

### 1. UNIFIED NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

55. Today many countries of the world, particularly the less developed countries, are in need of a strategy of development that gives a weight to the qualitative aspects of development at least equal to that given to the quantitative aspects. This calls for the adoption of a unified development planning approach devoting particular attention to the problem of the progressive realization of economic, social and cultural rights. Traditional approaches to development and development planning are no longer adequate to the task of changing a social system of "underdevelopment and poverty" that has to be fundamentally altered institutionally and in all its aspects. Benjamin Higgins states:

It is clear that the whole planning operation must be much more interdisciplinary and cover much wider ranges of professional knowledge than has typically been the case to date, if a truly unified approach is to be pursued.<sup>16</sup>

56. This approach is needed in order to incorporate the social and cultural factors of development in the elements that make up the matrix of variables in comprehensive development planning. Some obvious implications of the unified approach to development relate to the need for planners to be wary of the use of simple aggregate economic models and easily quantifiable variables, which have tended to encourage the exclusion from economic development models of important social and cultural factors in development, such as nutrition, income distribution and popular participation in decision-making. The implications of a unified approach for the training of planners include the avoidance of excessive specialization and compartmentalization. Development is not everything. It should be considered only as a means to the attainment of other goals. Without development, however, the rapidly growing masses of the third world will remain deprived of the most elementary economic and social rights. There is a need for a new approach to development.

<sup>16</sup> "Nature of the unified planning approach: technical and institutional implications", paper for a United Nations Research Institute for Social Development correspondence course, Geneva, 14-16 April 1971.

57. The unified development approach requires that human and social goals be given pride of place. The concern is essentially to meet the needs of the mass of the population and to ensure that the development process embraces the goal of greater equity and justice. As stated in the report of the Secretary-General on the Expert Group Meeting on a Unified Approach to Development Analysis and Planning, "In unified development, the very core of 'planning' is to mobilize the population for developmental tasks and ensure that the unified approach is a societal process" and a unified approach to development "means development for the people and through the people".<sup>17</sup> The report goes on to state:

Certain patterns of economic growth are more conducive to the attainment of social goals than other patterns, and certain types of social programmes are of greater assistance to economic growth than others. It is one of the major tasks of a unified approach to identify these complementarities and to make use of them in formulating strategies of development.<sup>18</sup>

58. At the heart of the new approach is the concept of the broad-based development strategy. This means the establishment of a set of institutions that give the underprivileged an opportunity to take part in the decision-making process. In this context, one may distinguish between "dual" and "modernizing" Governments. In a "dual" society, important decisions are made at the top. "Modernizing" Governments, on the other hand, bridge the gap between traditional élites and what ought to be the "rising mass of the nation".<sup>19</sup> In "dual" societies, the mass of average citizens exert very little influence on public affairs and Governments achieve economic growth with little trust in the ability of their people. Investments and profits are in the hands of a few. Small farmers, artisans and businessmen do not have access to the means of production, the financial system, the market and the knowledge base. In "dual" societies, Governments have not learnt that it is difficult for a single individual, however eminent he may be, to grasp everything and to govern from a distance; "modernizing" Governments, on the other hand, do not work directly with the great mass of the people. They work with local institutions. They rely on local leaders who work with the people. The relation of Government and citizens evolves along lines of mutual confidence and respect. The delegation of decision-making does not mean that local governments are free to do as they wish. The central Government is alert both to restrain and to stimulate. The control of the central over the local government is threefold—judicial, legislative and administrative. Local authorities are in no real sense autonomous; if they exceed their powers or neglect their duties, they may find themselves in conflict with the law, with parliament, or with one or more central administrative departments. Three essential elements of problem-solving institutions are:

(a) A decision-making system that permits decisions to be made by appropriate local institutions;

(b) A system for the establishment at pivotal centres of a base of pragmatic knowledge accessible to the masses, so that decisions are based on experience and applied knowledge; and

<sup>17</sup> E/CN.5/490, paras. 21 and 26.

<sup>18</sup> *Ibid.*, para. 27.

<sup>19</sup> E. Owens and R. Shaw, *Development Reconsidered: Bridging the Gap between Government and People* (Lexington, Mass., Lexington Books, 1972).

(c) Effective linkages, with respect to planning, financial and technical matters, between the different strata of the system (the multifaceted relationship between central, provincial and local governments).

These elements are absent in "dual" societies.

59. In successful "modernizing" economies, six basic tenets prevail, although their application is flexible. First, the national Governments lay down the policy framework. Secondly, there is a clear identification and definition of functions that are delegated to regional and local governments. Thirdly, central Governments prescribe minimum standards of performance and enforce them through supervision and inspection, auditing the accounts, and imposing sanctions if the norms are violated. The central Governments see that the "modernizing" institutions work for the benefit of the masses and not for that of a few individuals. Fourthly, central Governments establish a modern problem-solving mechanism at the local level, so that the mass of the people can learn how to solve technological problems. In a nutshell, this entails the definition of minimum performance norms, conditions of access for small producers to sources of finance, to the market, advisory services, etc., and the establishment of viable local administrations, co-operatives and other local institutions. Fifthly, central Governments actively promote the development of local leadership. The creation of a large number of positions of leadership may well lead to a loosening up of the stratified social structures that are characteristic of traditional societies. Sixthly, authorities provide sufficient incentives to induce a gradual transfer of loyalty from traditional to modernizing institutions. The new institutions aim at mitigating the incidence of the irrationality syndrome characteristic of some village communities, enlarging the very small world in which villagers live and through participation making the villager realize that the interest of the community is more important than traditional family and factional ties.

60. In the economic field, the major thrust of the "modernizing" societies is the creation of work opportunities for everyone. Full employment gives everyone a chance to partake of the fruit of the country's development. Labour productivity is not developed in a lop-sided fashion so that some earn fat wages and others a meagre pittance. Consequently, a modernizing society does not subsidize the use of capital and thus the import of labour-displacing technologies at the expense of the unemployed and the underemployed. In fact, these policies are an integral part of the income distribution strategy of a "modernizing" economy.

61. An appropriate strategy of unified national development in the less developed countries also includes the following essential elements: (a) a high priority for national independence; (b) a high priority for economic growth; (c) a high priority for social justice; (d) the safeguarding of individual freedom and initiative; (e) national mobilization through political participation; (f) international and regional co-operation for trade and development; and (g) the safeguarding of the human environment against the thoughtless exploitation of nature.

62. Although the literature of development is as rampant with dispute and controversy as the process of development itself, there seems to be a growing consensus as to the essential features of the process. The term "unified national development" suggests two things: first, that the process is multidimensional, comprising economic, social, political and cultural aspects; and secondly, that it takes

place within the framework and particular conditions, facts and realities of a nation-State. Different nations have taken widely divergent paths in this regard. The following features, however, seem to be essential to the development process: (a) an increase in national and *per capita* income; (b) progress in social welfare and justice; (c) greater national consolidation and solidarity; (d) a more pronounced structural/functional differentiation; (e) the strengthening of national autonomy; (f) the strengthening of subnational autonomy; and (g) the enhancement of civic and political identity and culture.

63. High growth rates alone are therefore no guarantee against worsening poverty and human degradation. Social justice, defined as the increasing equality of wealth, income and opportunity, is not an eventual outcome of economic growth. It is rather an essential prerequisite to integrated and sustained national development. There is substantial evidence that those countries that have chosen a strategy of development giving high priority to social justice, considering man as the subject rather than the object of development, as the end rather than the means of economic progress, have not suffered in terms of their economic growth. On the contrary, they have proved to have better prospects for a self-sustaining and integrated national development than those which have placed the main emphasis on economic growth.

64. The new perspective ultimately calls, therefore, for the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the Declaration on Social Progress and Development and their ancillary texts to be taken not simply as declarations of pious aspirations but as statements of the first priorities for unified national development efforts.

65. Given the present conditions in most of the less developed countries, with the general scarcity of capital and the abundant supplies of labour, their strategy for national development seems to require the following elements:

(a) A high-employment strategy with the choice of labour-intensive technologies wherever possible;

(b) The provision of widely spread minimum social services (including compulsory elementary education, free medical care, and housing and community facilities) commensurate with the level of *per capita* income a country has reached;

(c) The invention of soft and intermediate technologies to bridge the technological gap as well as to protect the environment;

(d) The creation of institutions and mechanisms of popular participation in the development process through *bona fide* labour unions, professional associations, political parties and other institutions, appropriate to the social and cultural conditions of each country;

(e) A policy of non-entanglement in international power struggles; and

(f) The maximization of regional and international co-operation for trade and development, as well as for economic and technical assistance.

66. The report of the Meeting of Experts on Social Policy and Planning, held at Stockholm from 1 to 10 September 1969, states:

It has been common in the past to draw a distinct line between economic phenomena on the one hand and social ones on the other, opposing social to economic development, economic objectives to social objectives and economic factors to social factors, etc. This is partly due to the rather narrow approach to the development process characteristic of past thinking in economics, which relied heavily on



simplistic econometric models with highly aggregated variables. This school of thinking has influenced planning methods and techniques on the national level (in the developing countries) and also economic projections of a wider scope, as well as the work of the United Nations in this area. This approach using relatively simple models with easily quantifiable variables, such as GNP, capital investment, exports and imports, leads to a neglect of certain very important factors and aspects of the development process. Thus neglected are all matters relating to differences in income and levels of living—between classes, regions, sectors, age groups, town and country—matters relating to human development—health, education, children—and matters relating to consumption—nutrition, housing, social services. To these neglected factors should be added the crucial problem of social stratification and many other aspects outside the sphere of the narrow economic models, particularly the vast under-utilization of labour. Considering the great importance of those aspects for the development process, the Group believed that the time had come when the economic approach to development analysis and planning had to be integrated with a social approach which was different in nature and would be more relevant to the problems of developing countries in the coming decade.

It should be stressed that economic phenomena are, in fact, social phenomena; they are social in nature, are socially conditioned and have social consequences, and any development planning, if limited to economic interrelationships and neglecting social conditions and social implications, is bound to be misleading. . . . It is most necessary to view the development process as a complex whole, comprising economic elements *sensu stricto*, but also other social as well as political and administrative elements. Any design for a development strategy, national or international, has to cover all the above-mentioned fields if it is to be meaningful, internally consistent and capable of effective implementation.<sup>20</sup>

67. The American sociologist Daniel Bell states: "Every society today is consciously committed to economic growth, to raising the standard of living of its people and therefore to the planning, direction and control of social change".<sup>21</sup>

68. Planning, whether short-term, medium-term or long-term, must involve programmes based on numerical indexes of the progress made and the progress to be made in matters of full employment, distribution of income, *per capita* income, health, education, food, housing and culture, as well as in the removal of major discrepancies between regions and between different sectors of the economy.

69. Development plans should above all contain explicit employment objectives on a fairly specific regional basis. Regional planning should be closely associated with over-all social planning. Polarized growth should be avoided. Action on behalf of depressed regions should not obscure the problems of inequality of income distribution within the depressed regions themselves, and should also focus upon the poorer groups within them.

70. In planning for economic and social development, the need for a better dialogue and more confrontation between planners—those conducting research into the problems—and the political decision-makers is urgent, since "many plans suffer in implementation from a lack of commitment by the decision-makers to the published or promulgated plans".<sup>22</sup>

71. A unified national development plan should therefore provide for all a purposeful and continuous education, an acceptable standard of health and nutrition, proper

housing, social insurance and social welfare and the right of individuals to participate in social, cultural and political activities. These desiderata should be considered not as the by-products of economic growth to be postponed for later stages of development but as the basic policy tools for mobilizing human resources, a type of resource that the less developed countries have in abundance but utilize the least.

72. It needs to be emphasized that the problems posed by development cannot be seen independently from questions of population. The principles embodied in the concept of a broad development strategy as enunciated above, the nature of its component elements and of the basic policy tools for mobilizing human resources require more than ever a more adequate comprehension of the nature of demographic trends, of their consequences for development and of the socio-economic determinants of population growth and distribution. It is evident that population trends and policies form an integral part of a unified development strategy. Policies aimed at influencing population growth or distribution, however designed, cannot by themselves solve the development problem and should therefore in every case be an integral part of the development effort. By the same token, policies aimed at the development of the poorer nations, social justice and greater opportunity for the underprivileged cannot be effectively formulated or implemented without regard to demographic conditions and trends.

73. As has already been pointed out, social services are not necessarily competitive with productive sectors in so far as financial resources are concerned. They are rather complementary, in the sense that they aim at the elimination of obstacles to increasing labour productivity. In addition, expenditures on social services may have to be financed by the application of a progressive tax policy or out of savings in military and other ordinary expenditures. The allocation of military personnel and facilities for literacy campaigns, technical training, health services, etc., as undertaken in some countries, also constitutes a form of such savings.

74. As tables II.74 and II.75 of part two of the present study indicate, it is not beyond the ability of the less developed countries to spend as much as 40 per cent of the total public resources on social development and services, provided that political leaders have a firm belief in social progress and that it is built into the national plans.

75. Finally, an over-all plan for social and economic progress embracing all segments of the population with no differentiation with respect to sex, race or ethnic group, religion, language, place of birth, or national or social origin sets the basis for national integration and consolidation, which is in turn fundamental for national independence and development.

## 2. POVERTY

76. The present study shows that income distribution patterns are severely skewed within most of the less developed countries. The problem is one of such human dimensions that it requires immediate action by the Governments of virtually all the less developed countries. It also calls for further appropriate action in many of the more developed countries.

77. Absolute poverty, a condition of life so debased by disease, malnutrition, squalor and illiteracy as to deny its victims the enjoyment of even minimal stan-

<sup>20</sup> E/CN.5/445, paras. 5 and 6.

<sup>21</sup> In p. XXV of his introduction to H. Kahn and A.J. Wiener, *The Year 2000: A Framework for Speculation on the Next Thirty-three Years* (London, Macmillan, 1969).

<sup>22</sup> E/CN.5/445, para. 15.

dards of basic human rights, constitutes the sad lot of at least 40 per cent of the entire population of the less developed countries, that is, at least 40 per cent of the nearly 2 000 million inhabitants of Asia, Africa and Latin America. They are in fact denied the enjoyment of all human rights and freedoms, in particular economic, social and cultural rights. Despite a decade of unprecedented increase in the GNP, the poorest segments of the population of the less developed countries survive on incomes estimated, on the basis of United States purchasing power, at 30 cents per day. One third to one half of over 2 000 million human beings living in Asia, Africa and Latin America suffer from hunger and malnutrition. From 20 to 25 per cent of their children die before the age of 5 years. Their average life expectancy is 20 years less than it is in the more developed countries. Over 800 million of them are illiterates and this figure is growing constantly.

78. The most pressing duty of the Commission on Human Rights lies in placing the weight of its moral authority behind a world-wide campaign for the elimination of conditions of mass poverty. Since it has been proved that the more egalitarian a nation's income and wealth distribution is, the better it copes with the guarantee of at least the minimum standards of economic, social and cultural rights for all its citizens, the Commission could recommend that all countries, and in particular the less developed ones, should institute necessary measures so that the distortion in income distribution within them might at least stop increasing by 1975 and begin to narrow within the last half of the present decade.

79. Though each country would need to study its own situation, define its objectives and goals, choose its indicators and determine the relevant unit for planning, there is also a need for countries to determine the minimum universal standards. If it is difficult to define and quantify international poverty norms and minimum standards of living consistent with human dignity, then the conditions within each country or within groups of countries with which poverty is mainly associated should be studied, with a view to its elimination.

80. As the President of the World Bank has said, the goal should be to put an end to absolute poverty by the close of the century; to put an end to massive malnutrition and illiteracy, and to achieve a reduction in infant mortality and a lifting of life-expectancy standards to those enjoyed in the developed nations.

### 3. LAND REFORM

81. As part two of the present study shows, while some owners have large tracts of land which they do not cultivate, peasants remain underemployed and poor because they have no land. A recent FAO survey indicates that in most of the less developed countries 20 per cent of the landowners own between 50 and 60 per cent of the cultivable land. In Venezuela, they own 82 per cent; in Colombia, 56 per cent; in Brazil, 53 per cent; in the Philippines, India and Pakistan, about 50 per cent. Tenancy arrangements, as the President of the World Bank stated at the resumed fifty-fifth session of the Economic and Social Council, are generally insecure, and often extortionate: in many countries the farmer must pay over half or more of his crop as rent, and yet he is constantly under the threat of eviction.

82. The implementation of land reform in less developed countries in favour of the farmers, who form the majority

of the population, would mean uprooting the feudal lords from the ruling circles of these countries. It would win the support and active participation of the masses, especially the workers and the farmers, for the implementation of economic and social plans intended to establish a more egalitarian society. Land reform must be combined with measures to increase agricultural employment. Such measures would particularly benefit the small farmers, as well as the landless agricultural workers.

### 4. EMPLOYMENT POLICY

83. Tens of millions of people in the prime of active life are unemployed and hundreds of millions more are underemployed in Asia, Africa and Latin America. This problem will become even more grim unless massive measures are undertaken. A 1972 report of the International Labour Office shows that unemployment increased during 1971 in two out of every three of the 50 countries for which statistics were available. At the same time, consumer prices rose more rapidly than in the preceding two years in two countries out of three. Real wages kept pace with price increases in most countries.

84. The Special Rapporteur considers the following excerpt from the report of the Meeting of Experts on Social Policy and Planning fully relevant to the question of the realization of economic, social and cultural rights and commends it to the attention of the Commission:

The fact that development either leaves behind, or in some ways even creates, large areas of poverty, stagnation, marginality, and actual exclusion from economic and social progress is too obvious and too urgent to be overlooked. It must enter into the analysis and approaches of the United Nations through the front door, and not through the back door of modification of approaches in terms of more simple and often spurious national aggregates and averages. Particularly ominous and perhaps the central problem of the Second United Nations Development Decade is the dualism created through the existence of heavy and rising unemployment in town and countryside. Unemployment is taken as including all forms of underutilization of labour—that part of the labour force which does not work at all, that part which works for short hours per day, or short days per week, and that which works at low levels of efficiency. Fundamental to it are questions of population growth on the one hand, and the present lack of modern labour-intensive technology on the other hand. Both these problems should be dealt with as part of an integrated social policy directed towards the key issue of employment policy.

In a broader sense, the lack of satisfactory or even positive feedback mechanisms between agriculture and industry, modern and traditional technology, town and country, advanced and retarded regions, and upper and lower income groups, continues to hold back the development of the poorer countries and prevent their national integration. Questions of social structure and social institutions are important factors causing the absence of such feedbacks, and, together with the dualistic framework, this concept of feedbacks represents another approach in analysis and planning.<sup>23</sup>

85. In the development strategies of the less developed countries particular attention should be paid to the maximization of employment in the different regions of the country concerned as one of the primary goals of those strategies.

86. Contrary to the generally held belief, there is significant scope for the development of the capital goods sector in many less developed countries; this sector tends to be more labour-intensive than the consumer goods sector, primarily because the latter is based on mass production,

<sup>23</sup> *Ibid.*, paras. 11 and 12.



while the former relies on individual orders. Thus the capital goods sector is characterized by a large number of small specialized firms. The development of this sector is essential not only because of its effect on the employment situation but also because of its contribution to the domestic development of technology.

## 5. POPULATION

87. Particularly with regard to fertility, morbidity and mortality, and population distribution, it is essential that Governments give appropriate attention to the need to achieve an acceptable compromise between the rights and the obligations of individuals, and between the desire of the society as a whole for economic and social progress and the rights of individuals. Thus, with regard to the right of individual parents to choose the number of children in their completed family, Governments have both the obligation of providing all protection and assistance necessary for the achievement of such individual goals, including information and means of contraception and protection from conditions causing sterility and subfecundity, and the obligation of providing such information as will enable parents freely and responsibly to change their goals for their own and their children's future welfare, and for that of society as a whole. Thus, the individual's right to choose the size of his completed family must be tempered by an obligation neither to restrict nor to enlarge the number of children to the extent that resultant social or economic processes bring about a reduction in the ability of other members of society to achieve their own individual rights, particularly rights to education, and adequate standard of living, health and employment.

88. With regard to the right of the family, motherhood and childhood to protection and assistance, individuals have the obligation not to take advantage of the availability of government benefits and services in order to have large families if this is inconsistent with the requirements of society. Conversely, Governments have the obligation not to use the threat of the withdrawal of benefits and services to coerce parents in the matter of their desired family size. Rather, Governments and individual citizens should achieve an appropriate consensus concerning the proper compromise between rights and obligations. It is emphasized that the achievement of such a compromise is dependent upon the existence of mutual confidence between Government and citizens. This confidence cannot coexist with social injustice and extreme inequality in the distribution of national wealth.

89. With regard to the right to an adequate standard of living, and the right to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standards of physical and mental health, it is the obligation of Governments to provide equal and rapid access to health services and to seek in their locational policies to avoid the concentration of population in high health risk regions. It is the obligation of individuals, when improvement in health results in higher levels of maternal and infant survival, to make use of effective contraception in order to avoid inappropriate increases in the size of families and in the rate of population growth. It is also the obligation of Governments to ensure the accessibility of information and material needed for the efficient practice of contraception to all individuals, including the least privileged, and if such provision is delayed, then to make possible recourse to induced abortion in acceptable conditions in cases of unwanted pregnancies. With

regard to the right to education, Governments have the obligation to make accessible to all individuals education and information concerning human reproduction, family formation, maternal and child health, family welfare, and the implications for society of individual fertility behaviour. Conversely, individuals are obliged to seek and use such information for their own and society's benefit.

90. With regard to the right to work, the individual's right to freedom of choice of residence and of place of work must be protected and at the same time tempered by the responsibility to choose that place of employment, and hence residence, which will permit his greatest contribution to the achievement of society's objectives in social and economic development, and certainly not to choose a place of work that will result in the denial of his contribution to society. On the other hand, Governments have the obligation to provide appropriate employment for populations at their preferred place of residence, as far as is possible within the context of its over-all societal obligations. In particular, Governments have the obligation to make unnecessary the involuntary migration of family members without their dependants, and to remove the need for the worker to commute over long distances.

91. In summary, it is necessary for Governments to give the closest attention to the development of population policies—including not only fertility policies but also those concerned with morbidity and mortality, internal distribution and international migration—which will permit the best compromise between individual rights and social obligations in the context of rapidly changing and complex situations. In many instances, such policies will have to be innovative and may break not only with some traditions of society but with current views of growth, development and modernization. Governments are urged to consider the benefits of borrowing from the experience of other countries, including the borrowing of specific policies and measures from countries whose total ideological approach to development might not be fully acceptable.

## 6. EDUCATION

92. Although the percentage rate of illiteracy has declined everywhere, the absolute number of illiterates has increased in Asia and Africa. Today there are over 800 million illiterates in Asia, Africa and Latin America and their number is increasing. In these countries, the illiteracy rates continue to be very high among women and among the rural population. That is because the literacy campaign has focused more on men and on the urban population than on women and on the rural population. Although adult education is necessary if general literacy in a reasonably short time is aimed at and if the school education of children is to be made effective, it has been neglected in most of the less developed countries. Owing to many factors, as is explained in part two of the present study, the enrolment ratios as well as school standards at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels in almost all the less developed countries are quite low. Generally speaking, what is sought by pupils and students is status and degrees and some preparation for desk jobs. As Myrdal observes, the whole school system is thus antidevelopmental; it swells the ranks of administrative personnel, particularly in the lower brackets, and the "educated unemployed", who do not want to soil their hands.

93. The educational system in most of the less developed countries is only remotely relevant to the requirements of

these countries. It has developed alongside economic growth rather than contributed to it. On the whole, the system remains general, academic and non-vocational, as in colonial times. Its aims and purposes are not clear. The less developed countries urgently need to restructure their education system, in order to make both content and method more relevant to local development needs and the roles that school-leavers are likely to be called upon to play. New emphasis should be given to science-based subjects, to agriculture, to technical training, to functional literacy, and to education outside the formal school framework.<sup>24</sup>

94. Today it is generally agreed that the linear expansion of education alone cannot provide the solution to the problems of the present and the near future. As the Director-General of UNESCO has observed, this has been found to lead to socially intolerable contradictions:

the lack of any proper link between education and employment, evidenced by the underemployment of graduates; the prohibitive cost of a sector which is of benefit only to a fraction of the population and which compromises the development of other sectors; the failure to adapt the content of education to real situations; the rigidity of structures contrasting with the needs and aspirations of an evolving society; internal inefficiency resulting in the dropping out during their studies of a growing number of young people who are left without qualifications.<sup>25</sup>

95. Education should no longer be thought of in terms of the development of narrowly defined skills and the satisfaction of the manpower needs of the economy, but of the growth of the whole man to the full breadth and scope which his potential encompasses. Furthermore, it should no longer be thought of as a task for a certain period of one's life but as a continuing process for all life. In technological development, less developed countries should no longer automatically adopt the Western imported technologies that tend to alienate men from the fruits of their own labour but should try to devise technologies that give full scope to human individuality and creativity.

96. The economic and social status of teachers seems to have deteriorated in recent years in most of the less developed countries as a result of inflation and other factors. This has had the effect of discouraging capable people from joining the teaching profession. In addition, the training provided for teachers is often archaic and inadequate for a modernizing society. These deficiencies were also noted by the 1969 Meeting of Experts on Social Policy and Planning. They have to be urgently corrected if teachers are to play the dynamic role expected of them in the process of development.

97. On the question of anti-illiteracy campaigns, the experience of the Iranian Education Corps, which, together with the Health Corps and the Development Corps, has within a period of 10 years sent some 215 000 young men and women into villages to combat illiteracy and assist villagers in various fields of social and economic development, may prove useful in other parts of the less developed world.

## 7. HEALTH PROTECTION

98. There is an urgent need for a national health protection scheme in all less developed countries and in those developed market-economy countries which have not yet

instituted such a system. All countries, particularly the less developed, should pay increasing attention to the training of more doctors, nurses and other auxiliary medical personnel. There is a pressing need for the construction of more clinics, hospitals and health care centres, particularly throughout the less developed countries. These countries need to pay more attention to preventive measures without in any way neglecting the expansion of curative facilities. In most countries, particularly in those of Asia, Africa and Latin America, there is need for radical reforms to improve the system of health protection. For the countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America, the example of the network of health protection systems set up in China and that country's experience in this connexion might prove valuable.

## 8. CULTURE

99. A UNESCO study, prepared for the Intergovernmental Conference on Cultural Policies in Europe (Helsinki, June 1972) and entitled "Larger access to and participation in culture", states that in the more developed countries "the rising standard of living, the spread of education, the advent of the mass media, the increase in leisure and the improvement in social and other conditions have given the vast majority of people unprecedented opportunities for cultural advancement".<sup>26</sup> Paradoxically, the technological and scientific achievements of these countries have caused upsets and disturbances in living conditions, as well as in the mental outlook of individuals, proportionate to the benefits they have brought with them.

100. As the study observes:

Machines have indeed altered the relationship between man and the world; and the acceleration of change has transformed notions of value by blowing apart the closed system of the village, the family, occupations, beliefs, etc., more than ever before, causing societies to be concerned about the way they are heading and man to wonder about the very purpose of his existence.

It is just such distressing uncertainties that cultural action may allay by helping the individual to cope with such change, to experience it as enrichment rather than suffer it as mutilation, by enabling him to rediscover his identity, his roots, his independence, and to discover authentic causes to which he can commit his life. Because it affects every aspect of the life of man, i.e. of societies, because the quality of life is indivisible, cultural action is among the primary duties of States.<sup>27</sup>

101. Boutros-Ghali states that it would be a mistake, when defining the concept of cultural rights in a less developed society, to follow exactly the same lines as those applying to a consumer society.<sup>28</sup> The right to culture cannot have the same content in the less developed world as it has in the more developed. In the consumer society, he says:

1. The practical realization of cultural rights must allow a larger participation of man in the communal life to make up for the mechanization and anonymity of industrial society. One might speak of arriving at a shared management of industrial society through the influence of culture.

2. Implementation of cultural rights must enable man to free himself from the grip of publicity by giving him the means to contest and to discriminate between the different sources of information.

<sup>26</sup> UNESCO document SHC/EUROCULT/4, para. 9.

<sup>27</sup> *Ibid.*, paras. 10 and 11.

<sup>28</sup> B. Boutros-Ghali, "The right to culture and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights" in UNESCO, *Cultural Rights as Human Rights* (Studies and Documents on Cultural Policies), No. 3 (Paris, 1970), p. 74.

<sup>24</sup> E/AC.54/L.51, p. 7.

<sup>25</sup> UNESCO document DG/73/10, p. 5.



3. A consequence of effective cultural rights is to make known to the consumer society the existence of other societies and other cultures . . . [so] as to bring them to a better understanding of their interdependence . . .

4. The wider spread of culture will also allow the consumer society to pay more heed to the dangers of its power and to the vulnerability of any civilization.

In short, full development of the cultural rights of a consumer society must lead it to restrain its desire for power and to understand better the determination to exist of the developing societies.<sup>29</sup>

102. As this author observed, the content of cultural rights in a less developed society is closely linked with the political right of self-determination and with the enjoyment of the right to an adequate standard of living and the right to education,<sup>30</sup> that is, a practical education which helps the individual to overcome the curse of poverty, which is his lot, before being concerned with his culture or that of the community. Thus, the right to culture for the poor begins with their liberation from subjugation, poverty, disease and illiteracy.

103. A minimum of material well-being is therefore needed if the very notion of culture is to have the least significance. There are cultural variations or "subcultures" within each society. These often coincide with social stratification such as "middle class cultural values", "rural culture" and "the culture of poverty". Cultural inequalities within the same society are the result of social inequalities. The removal of social inequalities paves the way for a more effective realization of cultural rights for all within any given society.

104. The Director-General of UNESCO has said that "the recognition of the right to culture as a human right marks the end of culture as an object and of culture for élites, quite as much as of the laissez-faire abstentionist attitude of the State in cultural matters".<sup>31</sup> He has also noted that:

culture offers each of us the means of recovering his identity and his capacity for creation and expression; when the new systems of communication, the so-called mass media, subject the individual to a stream of undifferentiated information and turn him into a passive spectator, culture offers each of us the means of finding his own place in the world, appreciating what is happening, and reacting; when the pressure to consume turns the individual into a conditioned being, culture offers each of us the means of choosing, of refusing any form of subjection, of preferring reflection to reflexes; when urbanization cuts off the individual from his roots and traditions, culture means being able to re-establish links with his own inheritance, while gaining access to the cultural heritage of all mankind. Lastly, when man in post-industrial society asks himself what he is doing on earth, culture can give him guidance in seeking a reply.

It is thus apparent that culture today amounts to more than merely a few artistic pastimes reserved for an élite; it is both enacted and received, it constitutes the quality of existence and gives meaning both to everyday life and to the quest for the eternal.<sup>32</sup>

105. The Special Rapporteur agrees that:

The aim of culture should be to free man's personality, to enable him to be creative, to enable his personality to develop to its full dimensions in order that he may take an active part in everyday life; he should not just be the object of the policy of a State.<sup>33</sup>

As the study on cultural rights as human rights concludes,

means have to be found to mobilize those cultural traditions the richness of which can provide people with a sense of belonging to coherent groups and which can contribute to the development of a sense of personal identity in the face of forces which often tend to alienate or estrange men from the organized centres of power.<sup>34</sup>

106. The Director-General of UNESCO states that:

If cultural development is to take its rightful place in over-all development, specialists in cultural development, and those in charge of it, must be able—in establishing data, in analysing problems, and throughout the processes of decision-making, planning and execution—to apply a methodology sufficiently rational to enable those controlling over-all development to incorporate this new information and these new approaches in their own procedures, even if the latter—still too strongly influenced by economic considerations—are subsequently altered by the give-and-take that any sort of integration necessarily entails.<sup>35</sup>

## 9. HOUSING

107. As is clear from parts two, three and four of the present study, housing conditions, although strikingly different in the more developed countries and the less developed countries, still leave much to be desired in most countries, especially for the rural and the low-income urban groups. This is particularly true in the less developed countries, especially in regard to sanitation, including clean water, toilet facilities and sewerage.

108. Population growth, and particularly the increase in urban areas caused by natural population growth and the exodus from the rural areas, has made the housing situation of the less developed countries much worse than it was 10 years ago.

109. Only a few of the less developed countries have announced housing policies and only a few have any housing programme integrated in the national development plan. Housing schemes are carried out on an *ad hoc* basis as and when funds can be made available. Housing has a low priority and is still regarded in the majority of countries as a social service. Only in countries where the exploitation of natural resources has increased the national income is housing receiving what might be described as a "fair share" in the allocation of national income to different sectors.

110. In a 1970 ECAFE review, it has been stated that as long ago as 1960 the housing shortage in Asia, exclusive of China and some small countries, had been placed at about 145 million units, of which 23 million were needed in urban areas. The shortage of housing was continuously mounting; for example, in India it was said to have increased by nearly 50 per cent during the 1960s, and in Pakistan by approximately 100 per cent.<sup>36</sup>

111. The general situation is not much different in Africa or in Latin America. As was observed in paragraph 185 of part two of the present study, in the less developed countries fewer than 2 houses per thousand inhabitants are being built each year, whereas the desirable range is between 7 and 10. Even so, housing activity is usually concentrated in urban areas.

112. Experts in these countries, rather than attempt to introduce exotic types of houses for which expensive or imported material is used, should study the construction

<sup>29</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>30</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>31</sup> UNESCO document SHC/EUROCULT/4, para. 8.

<sup>32</sup> UNESCO document DG/73/10, pp. 7 and 8.

<sup>33</sup> UNESCO, *Cultural Rights as Human Rights* (Studies and Documents on Cultural Policies), No. 3 (Paris, 1970), p. 82.

<sup>34</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 106.

<sup>35</sup> UNESCO document DG/73/10, p. 8.

<sup>36</sup> "Social development in Asia", *Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East*, vol. XX, No. 3, December 1969 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.69.II.F.12), p. 21.

methods and materials used locally and try to improve them. Fuller advantage should be taken, particularly in rural areas, of the potential of spare-time and self-help methods of improvement, including technical assistance and the supply of needed materials and tools. The Meeting of Experts on Social Policy and Planning was of the opinion that the same should apply to the improvement of sanitation, although here part-time work must clearly be linked with community action in the provision of clean water, sewerage, etc.<sup>37</sup>

113. In the world's poor countries, given the scarcity of government resources for the housing sector in relation to need, attempts to provide finished public housing for the urban and rural poor have almost without exception produced units too few in number to meet the demand and too expensive to be within the grasp of the poor. Pending a vast improvement in the level of resources available for the housing sector, Governments may be best advised to act to identify those spheres of action in which individual families and communities cannot readily act alone and work in partnership with popular efforts for the development of housing in communities. For example, while the poor can often construct their basic shelter, they are not equipped for the medium and long-range planning of physical development and the establishment of basic physical and social services such as water supply, sewerage, health and education. The largest number of urban and rural poor in the less developed world can be assisted in important ways at an early date if government concentrates its resources at the initial stage on improving the environmental framework within which the poor now live, and on planning and developing areas for further population growth in a manner that will allow these areas to be established and improved within a healthy environment. Economic and Social Council resolutions 1224 (XLII) and 1670 (LII) dealt in some detail with these points.

#### 10. THE HUMAN ENVIRONMENT

114. As it evolved in the context of the preparations for the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment, held at Stockholm in June 1972, and of the follow-up to that highly successful Conference, the phrase "human environment" came to be used to encompass both the problems of "affluence" (e.g., industrial pollution), experienced most acutely in the advanced industrialized societies, and the environmental problems of poverty—inadequate housing, hunger, disease—that are associated with a lack or a low level of development and are the major environmental problems confronting two thirds of mankind.

115. In both contexts, therefore, that of affluence and that of poverty, but particularly in the latter, improving the human environment can be viewed as a necessary condition for the realization of basic human rights in the interrelated economic, social and cultural fields.

116. Indeed, this relationship is recognized in the Declaration of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment, adopted unanimously at Stockholm and endorsed by the General Assembly in its resolution 2994 (XXVII). In that Declaration, it is proclaimed that "both aspects of man's environment, the natural and the man-made, are essential to his well-being and to the enjoyment of basic human rights—even the right to life itself".

<sup>37</sup> E/CN.5/445, para. 49.

117. Seen in this perspective, the improvement of the human environment, whether by the mitigation of pollution or the acceleration of economic development, is a means for the attainment of certain human rights, defined, for example, as the right to be free from hunger or the right to a decent standard of living, many of which are already set forth in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

118. There is, however, the further question of whether a "salubrious environment", that is, one conducive to human well-being, may not only be regarded in an instrumental sense but may also constitute a normative goal in itself, defined as a basic human right.

119. Although the Declaration on the Human Environment is fundamentally directed towards improving the quality of life, it does not proclaim this improvement as such as a "human right" to which the individual is entitled.

120. For example, principle 1 of the Declaration, which is most applicable in this connexion, states that "man has the fundamental right to freedom, equality and adequate conditions of life, in an environment of a quality that permits a life of dignity and well-being . . .". The passage we have placed in italics also suggests an instrumental rather than an end-in-itself usage.

121. Therefore the question whether an "environment of quality" or an "environment conducive to human well-being" should be elevated formally to the status of a basic human right is left open for further consideration.

#### 11. PARTICIPATION

122. The basic principle governing the question of human rights in development should be the participation of the people in deciding their own style of individual and corporate life in general, and in particular their participation in decision-making in connexion with development programmes, in the implementation of those programmes and in the benefits derived from them. Rural democratic institutional mechanisms for plan formulation, designed to ensure the participation of the whole of the population, should be universally established. They should become part of a government-recognized local government system, with corporate powers, finances, and specific responsibilities. This set-up should also be responsible for the implementation of plans at the local level. Without an involvement of this type, there is little possibility of strengthening the underprivileged groups in the less developed countries or of diminishing the sense of alienation from society, particularly among young people, who constitute the bulk of the population of the less developed countries.

123. Governments should recognize young people as partners in nation-building by involving them in planning, decision-making and programme implementation and by enabling and encouraging them to participate in advisory bodies. Efforts should be made to establish a meaningful dialogue with youth on matters relating to society, especially those pertaining directly to youth.

#### 12. TECHNOLOGICAL KNOWLEDGE AND TECHNICAL SKILL

124. Increased employment and a more equitable distribution of income are not in conflict with, but rather promote, rapid economic development.

125. Since the less developed countries have to import the capital goods and also a high proportion of the capital



needed for economic development, the greater proportion of which has to be repaid, the income retained in the economy consists largely of the wages and salaries of their nationals—the wages and salaries paid to those directly employed in particular projects, as well as those paid to the producers of local raw materials and other intermediate goods utilized in the projects. Consequently, the higher the employment and wages and salaries are, the less the return movement of capital to the more developed countries and the greater the increase in the national income in the less developed countries will be.

126. Unfortunately, this relationship has not been obvious, in view of the difficulty in computing national income in the less developed countries, which has resulted in the utilization of GDP in place of net national product in the measurement of economic growth.

127. It is necessary to describe what is really meant by a more equitable distribution of income. If it just means taxing the high-income groups in the less developed countries more heavily and distributing the proceeds to the low-income groups, then little can be achieved either in raising the income of the low-income groups or in promoting economic development, since the size of the high-income groups is very small.

128. A more equitable distribution of income really involves orienting economic development towards the low-income groups by increasing employment and lessening underemployment, in urban and rural areas, and in industry and agriculture. Economic development so directed will yield higher dividends, in view of what has been stated above about the leakage of capital and income resulting from the repatriation of funds and crippling interest and loan repayments—mostly to international financial institutions—and in view also of the tendency of the high-income groups to spend their income on imported consumption goods, while the low-income group spend theirs largely on local products, thereby creating linkages and assisting further development.

129. This process, however, necessitates the direction of economic development also towards the development of technological knowledge and the expansion of technical skill. The right to increased technological knowledge and technical skill should be included among the fundamental economic and social rights. It is the best means of ensuring that man shall be considered the subject rather than the object of development.

130. The lack of technological knowledge and technical skill has resulted in a high rate of unemployment and underemployment, and thus low income, in the less developed countries. It is not enough to provide incentive or “animation”. Such an incentive or “animation” proves ineffective if the people do not have the knowledge and skill required to exploit the incentive. Direct action in importing technological knowledge and skill is necessary. Technical skill and institutions are more important factors for economic development than the mere availability of capital. Education restricted to reading, writing and arithmetic is not enough for the promotion of economic development. Indeed, it has resulted in increased unemployment.

131. The acquisition of technological knowledge and technical skill should be given at least as much emphasis as education itself. The two should be promoted simultaneously and, if possible, jointly. Indeed, the non-acquisition of technological knowledge and technical skill would appear to be a more fundamental reason for possible social

discontent, whereas their acquisition enables the underprivileged to take part in the decision-making process and in the solution of technological problems.

### 13. TRANSFER OF TECHNOLOGY

132. The transfer of technology from developed to developing countries often applies to techniques designed for the needs, tastes, culture and purchasing power of developed countries, which are very different from those of developing countries.

133. The products are designed for different consumer habits, the manufacturing processes are capital-intensive and labour-saving, they use different raw materials, particularly plastics and synthetic products. These technologies are therefore frequently inappropriate for the needs of developing countries.

134. The Advisory Committee on the Application of Science and Technology to Development, in its *World Plan of Action for the Application of Science and Technology to Development*,<sup>38</sup> has pointed out the need for research on and the development of indigenous technologies more suited to the needs and requirements of developing countries. These “appropriate technologies” would aim at designing more adapted products, at using local raw materials, such as natural fibres, and utilizing labour-intensive and capital-saving techniques in the manufacturing processes.

135. For this purpose, it is necessary to build up the staff engaged on research and development so that it may be able to adapt existing technologies or create new ones when necessary. Scientific institutions and laboratories have to be created or strengthened, and training and education programmes have to be designed with a view to elaborating these technologies. Existing technologies from developed countries should be evaluated and their technological, sociological and environmental impact should be assessed.

136. For example, solar pumps are now available and operational; if they had been used during the recent drought in the Sahel for pumping water out of the wells of the deserts, they would have saved thousands of lives. The automobiles and trucks for developing countries should meet specific requirements, such as suitability for use on rough roads, and low maintenance and operating costs; the specifications for automobiles designed mainly for highways are quite different.

137. Therefore, a very important objective is the preservation of the right of the potential scientific and technological community of developing countries to receive the necessary education and training and thus to be able to conduct research and development activities aimed at fulfilling the specific needs of developing countries and elaborating more appropriate technologies.

138. The outflow of trained personnel from developing to developed countries is impeding the building up of this indigenous capacity and the formation of skilled personnel. The outflow of medical doctors, scientists and engineers is particularly detrimental in the field of health, science and technology.

### 14. CHILD AND FAMILY WELFARE

139. The need for reform and for greater attention directed towards the welfare of the family and of children

<sup>38</sup> United Nations publication, Sales No. E.71.II.A.18.

is felt throughout the world. Reforms may be of a "preventive" or "prophylactic" nature, and should encompass the fields of housing, nutrition and, more broadly, health and education. Reforms aimed at income redistribution to protect the level of living of families with children and, in particular, underprivileged families would also be helpful in this connexion.

140. In planning for economic and social development, an overriding priority has to be allocated to investment in nutrition, which, as well as education, is essential to the development of the potential capacity of children. Special emphasis should be placed on measures aimed at preventing inadequacy in the nutrition of young children, which can permanently impair the development of the brain and the body.

## 15. CONSUMER RIGHTS

141. People must know and assert their rights as consumers, if they are to get the maximum benefit from the development process. The most important aspects of consumers' rights are: the right to safety, to be sure that no hazardous or deleterious product comes on the market; the right to be adequately informed about products and services and the conditions of sale; the right to choose among alternative goods of satisfactory quality at fair, competitive prices, or, as in the case of utilities, fair regulated prices; and the right to be heard in the decision-making process of government when consumer interests are affected.

## 16. TAX REFORM

142. Estate and inheritance taxes are universally accepted instruments for influencing the distribution of wealth without interfering with private ownership as such. To be effective, they require, however, a relatively advanced and honest tax administration.

143. In a progressive system of taxation, the burden of paying for social reforms should fall more heavily on people in the higher income bracket. This is the redistributive effect of tax reform. Its proper implementation is badly needed in many parts of the world, particularly in the less developed countries. Progressive taxes have been notoriously difficult to collect in the less developed countries and limited in their application by the need to stimulate productive investment.

## 17. USE OF ARMED FORCES

144. An innovation which, together with other appropriate measures, could help in bringing fast and radical change towards the effective realization of economic, social and cultural rights, particularly in rural areas and among low-income groups, is the use of armed forces personnel and facilities for the construction of a new society based on the equal enjoyment of these rights by all. Iran has been using them for such purposes with great benefit. Other countries could be invited to do so too.

## 18. THE ROLE OF VALUE SYSTEMS IN DEVELOPMENT

145. On the role of traditional values in the development process and the need for changes in attitudes, the report of the 1969 Meeting of Experts on Social Policy and Planning stated:

The necessary imposition of new industrial value systems has often led to unnecessary suffering and friction, and wider and deeper research is needed to identify values and attitudes which must or must not change, as well as measures to facilitate attitude changes. The role of the social planner should be to make clear to those making the allocation decisions what the necessary changes are, what the consequences and problems involved in changing attitudes are likely to be and the relative costs to society of the imposition of unwanted values compared with the benefits of increased production. More knowledge is needed on these matters. Since development by necessity involves a good measure of radical change in attitudes, it would be of importance to obtain knowledge and guidance as to whether such radical changes are more easily made than a succession of small changes.<sup>39</sup>

146. Increased attention must be given, particularly in the less developed countries, to dealing with the divergencies between societal value systems and the requirements of development and hence to guaranteeing economic, social and cultural rights to all.

## 19. THE ROLE OF LAW IN DEVELOPMENT

147. Although material means and technical know-how are essential for raising the living standards of a nation and for creating the conditions for economic democracy, a framework of law is the basic precondition for balanced economic and social progress.

148. There are those who believe that law should essentially follow, not lead, and that it should do so slowly, in response to clearly formulated social sentiment. The requirements for the effective realization of economic, social and cultural rights for all dictate, however, that law be looked upon as a determining factor in the creation of new norms and standards and as an instrument of, or catalyst in, social change and development. Therefore law should be "made" rather than "found"—that is, law in its dynamic sense, which is diametrically opposed to a purely formalistic approach. There is no need to wait for custom, as in part articulated by lawyers, to evolve fully before adopting new legal provisions to take effective action against socio-economic structures and systems which hamper the effective realization of economic, social and cultural rights and perpetuate discord in society.

149. Governments have the obligation to combat relentlessly any form of exploitation of man by man, whether it be in the form of feudalism, colonialism, neo-colonialism or the protection of the interests of a few as opposed to the interests of all. What may be good for a specialized service is not necessarily good for all the people. If a Government were to make the necessary action for the fulfilment of its obligation to protect the health of individual members of society contingent on meeting the views of most members of the medical profession, it is probable that the medical profession would thrive under a *laissez-faire* system.

150. Law could play a leading role, both on the national and the international level, in the creation of the necessary economic and social bases for the effective application of economic, social and cultural rights in all countries—that is, law in its dynamic and progressive sense, meaning a set of rules and regulations which would be not only the expression of the will of the majority but also that of their long-term interests and which would guarantee the objective conditions for all-round economic, social and cultural development aimed at the constant improvement of

<sup>39</sup> E/CN.5/445, para. 16.



living conditions for all. Such law can be "made" and endure to the extent that it is in the common interest of all and provided that all recognize that it is in their common interest.

151. As has already been stated in the introduction to part one (para. 1) of the present study, dealing with national norms and standards governing the realization of economic, social and cultural rights, that part is incomplete, because it is limited to constitutional aspects. To be complete, it should have extended to the legislation in force in the various countries. That would have vastly exceeded the scope and space allotted to the study. Such a comprehensive study, however, should be undertaken in the future.

## 20. THE ROLE OF STATISTICS IN DEVELOPMENT

152. There is a great need for the improvement of statistics in the less developed countries. There are many gaps, particularly in social statistics. More resources must be allocated to the collection of social data in all less developed countries. Although direct responsibility in this regard rests with each Government, the Special Rapporteur's view is that Governments should be assisted with additional funds and resources for this purpose. Thus, a concerted effort for the development of statistics is needed, comprising the following:

At the national level, the importance of social statistics needs to be recognized and the appropriate machinery for the collection and compilation of the data needs to be developed; an essential element of this machinery would be an organization for conducting household sample surveys, which constitute the most convenient means of collecting social and socio-economic statistics;

At the regional level, arrangements need to be made for the formulation of guidelines applicable to the developing countries of the region, the provision of regional advisory services and the organization of working groups, seminars, workshops and subregional training courses in social statistics;

At the international level, further work needs to be done towards the development of appropriate methodology and the preparation of technical manuals; funds should be made available by UNDP, UNFPA, UNICEF and IBRD in an increasing measure for the development of demographic and social statistics;

The United Nations and the specialized agencies concerned (namely, the ILO, FAO, UNESCO and WHO) should co-operate and co-ordinate their activities in the development of social statistics at the international level, as well as at the regional level.

The need for the improvement of statistics should, however, not be put forward as an obstacle to the formulation of national and international strategies for socio-economic development.

## 21. THE ROLE OF TRADE IN DEVELOPMENT

153. The less developed countries' share of world trade has fallen from a third to a sixth in the last 20 years. The prices they obtain for their goods fluctuate widely. These countries find themselves competing on world markets with countries that could easily afford to stay out of certain areas of world trade, such as food production, instead of competing with those whose need to trade in them is the greatest.

154. The rich countries have been showing an increasing tendency in recent years to trade with each other.

In 1960, the developing countries' share of world trade was 23 per cent. In 1970, it was 18 per cent and it is probably still falling. At the same time, it has become less profitable, mainly because the prices of the manufactures that the developing countries need have risen faster (because of the rich world's inflation) than the prices of commodities that the developing countries sell. Finally, there has been a tendency for the rich countries, first in North America and now in Europe too, to protect their domestic agricultural industries.<sup>40</sup>

155. Increasingly, the less developed countries are having to work harder to produce more for export markets merely to be able to keep themselves from getting poorer. "It now costs a country like Ghana five tons of cocoa exports to pay for the import of a single tractor—five times more than in 1960".<sup>41</sup>

156. One feasible course for the less developed countries could be, wherever possible, to expand trade among themselves, to initiate real economic co-operation and to undertake economic policies to offset the adverse effects of regional economic groupings of rich countries. But before doing so, the less developed countries should first put their own house in order by implementing long overdue radical economic and social reforms.

157. The duty of the more developed countries towards the less developed countries both in reforming their trading policies and in granting aid in a more favourable and egalitarian way, as well as in contributing to the promotion of economic, social and cultural rights in these countries, should be emphasized in clear and precise terms. The motivation which can be presented to the peoples of the more developed countries in favour of such policies are that they are required by justice, compassion and human solidarity.

158. To assist the less developed countries in their efforts to realize economic, social and cultural rights, there is need for a world trade policy that aims at lowering national barriers and narrowing the present wide gap in levels of income between nations. This will involve, first, an accelerated reduction of the duties imposed by industrial countries, in favour of the manufactured goods exported by the less developed countries and, secondly, the establishment of an internationally guaranteed price-support system for primary products supplied by the less developed countries. It is of much greater help to these countries to guarantee them a fair price for what they sell than to give them aid as a partial compensation for their loss of purchasing power.

## 22. THE ROLE OF DISARMAMENT IN DEVELOPMENT

159. The report of the Secretary-General which was prepared, at the request of the General Assembly in its resolution 2667 (XXV) with the assistance of the Group of Consultant Experts on the Economic and Social Consequences of the Arms Race and Military Expenditures, appointed by the Secretary-General, drew, *inter alia*, the following conclusions:

The cost of the arms race is enormous, and because of it, resources have been denied almost every other field of social activity. In total, it consumed nearly \$1 900 billion from 1961 to 1970. If annual mili-

<sup>40</sup> See "Forever poor", in *The Guardian* (London), weekly edition, 8 April 1972.

<sup>41</sup> "The new politics of poverty", *The Observer* (London, 9 April 1972), p. 8.

tary expenditures continue to absorb their present percentage of world GNP, they could well reach the level of \$300-350 billion (at 1970 prices) by the end of the decade, with a total outlay for the decade of some \$750 billion more than was spent from 1961 to 1970.

The military expenditures which cast the greatest shadow over the world are those of the major Powers, which between them account for the bulk of all such spending. Arms races between the developing countries are, however, no less dangerous.<sup>42</sup>

160. The arms race buries under mountains of weapons of mass destruction a substantial part of the resources which could best be used for the realization of man's economic and social rights. It is astonishing that the world should be spending at the present time over \$200 000 million annually on military account. This is estimated to be a sum at least equal to two thirds of—and according to some estimates of the same order of magnitude as—the entire annual national income of all less developed countries. At present, over 60 per cent of all scientists are either directly or indirectly engaged in activities directed towards war. These figures show the enormous importance which disarmament would have for the attainment of accelerated economic and social progress for the benefit of mankind throughout the world. The arms race increases tension and mistrust between nations. Tension and mistrust between nations promote the arms race. This is a vicious circle. However, disarmament is not only imperative, it is possible. Therefore, the conclusion of a general agreement on disarmament, in connexion with international measures to be taken for the full realization of economic, social and cultural rights, should be sought as speedily as possible.

161. The Special Rapporteur shares with the Secretary-General the conviction and the hope that, amongst other economic and social advantages, increased aid to the less developed countries would be a natural consequence of substantially reduced military expenditures. As the Group of Consultant Experts observed: "the arms race must be stopped, not only because of the immediate perils it holds for us all, but because the longer it continues, the more intractable the problems of economic growth, social justice and the environment will become".<sup>43</sup>

162. The Special Rapporteur also shares the unanimous conclusion of the Group of Consultant Experts:

A halt in the arms race and a significant reduction in military expenditures would help the social and economic development of all countries and would increase the possibilities of providing additional aid to developing countries.<sup>44</sup>

### 23. OBLIGATIONS OF STATES WITH RESPECT TO DEVELOPMENT

163. The complex society of today calls upon States to harmonize the interests of individuals with those of the community as a whole, and thus to limit their full freedom of action in a manner which exceeds by far, in scope and intensity, that adopted at any other period in history. The State has thus felt obliged to take over many obligations formerly confined to the individual and the family. These include State responsibility for food, housing, clothing, education and health protection. They are in part guaranteed by securing for all the right to employment, to fair wages, to family allowances, pensions and unemployment

<sup>42</sup> *Economic and social consequences of the arms race and of military expenditures* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.72.IX.16), paras. 114 and 115. In this quotation, a billion means 1 000 million.

<sup>43</sup> *Ibid.*, para. 119.

<sup>44</sup> *Ibid.*, para. 120.

compensation. The prevailing view today is that only through State action and planning can the effective enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights be realized for all the members of society. The modern concept of the functions of the State is expressed in international instruments, in particular in the Charter of the United Nations, by which Members have pledged themselves to take joint and separate action to promote higher standards of living, full employment, conditions of economic and social progress and development and universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms.

164. Half a century ago, the notion of social justice was foreign to the governmental system of even the most advanced nations. Since that time, the world has moved a long way. Today, as the Shahanshah of Iran writes in his book on the Iranian revolution, it is held that "political rights without social rights, legal justice without social justice and political democracy without economic democracy no longer have any genuine significance".<sup>45</sup>

### 24. INTERNATIONAL OBLIGATIONS FOR DEVELOPMENT

165. The obligations of States in this regard are clearly defined in Articles 55 and 56 of the Charter of the United Nations. Article 55 states that the United Nations shall promote "higher standards of living, full employment and conditions of economic and social progress and development". Article 56 states: "All Members pledge themselves to take joint and separate action in co-operation with the Organization for the achievement of the purposes set forth in Article 55".

166. Arnold Toynbee has stated:

Never before have we been so promptly and fully informed as we are today of the wrongs that human beings, all round the globe, are inflicting and suffering. Yet never before have we been so sluggish in our reaction . . .

This blunting of our sensitivity has led us to ignore the infliction of grievous wrongs that have been perpetrated, in some cases for generations and even for centuries.

He goes on to conclude that even the meekest population will be driven to active resistance if it is provoked and badly treated "without redress for a long time".<sup>46</sup>

167. Similar views were expressed by the President of the World Bank on 25 September 1972 at the annual meeting of the Bank's Board of Governors. He said:

Absolute human degradation—when it reaches . . . 30 to 40 per cent of an entire citizenry—cannot be ignored, cannot be suppressed, and cannot be tolerated for too long a time by any government hoping to preserve civil order.

It would be naive not to recognize that time in many quarters of the world is running out.<sup>47</sup>

168. Before the Second World War, hardly anyone saw a common responsibility on the part of the more developed nations to aid the less developed. Now such a responsibility is being more and more recognized as a general proposition. We have probably reached the time when public international law should address itself, in the interest of world peace, human solidarity and international co-operation, to the world-wide problem of mass poverty

<sup>45</sup> M.-R. Pahlavi Aryamehr, *La révolution sociale de l'Iran*, 1st ed., (Teheran, Pahlavi Imperial Library, 1967), p. 151.

<sup>46</sup> In an article entitled "The only way to stop terrorism" in the Teheran daily *Keyhan International*, 3 October 1972.

<sup>47</sup> IBRD, IVC and IDA, *1972 Annual Meetings of the Boards of Governors: Summary Proceedings* (Washington, D.C.), p. 30.

and human degradation and to the obligations of the international community with respect to that problem. The United Nations International Law Commission should have already deliberated on this matter in its work on the

progressive development of international law. The Commission on Human Rights may now recommend that the question be placed on the agenda of the International Law Commission with the priority that it deserves.

## Chapter III

### RECOMMENDATIONS

169. The Special Rapporteur wishes to submit the following recommendations to the Commission on Human Rights:

(1) All Governments should devise more effective action with respect to the elimination of sexism, racism, caste distinctions and any other kind of discrimination in the enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights.

(2) Narrowing the economic, social and cultural gap requires that one of the primary objectives for all Governments should be a more equitable distribution of wealth, income, opportunity and social services. A more equitable distribution of wealth, opportunity and social services would ultimately lead to a better distribution of income.

(3) The reduction of inequalities in the rural sector and between the rural and urban sectors needs urgent attention. With that consideration in mind, the Commission should strongly recommend the immediate institution of land reform in all the less developed countries where this has not yet taken place.

(4) Ensuring an adequate income to each household should constitute a primary goal of all Governments. This calls for a review of the existing social and economic policies of Governments, with a view to reorienting them towards the eradication of poverty. As a matter of policy, the main objective of all development planning should be the full productive utilization of manpower so that at one stroke countries may achieve high GNP growth rates and better living standards for all. China is an excellent example of a country where this policy is applied, and a lot can be learnt from its experience and its priorities in rural infrastructural development and in the rural dispersal of small industries.

Full employment, therefore, should constitute the primary goal of all countries. Its implementation should not involve treating it merely on a par with price stability, growth, a favourable trade balance and other goals. Full employment is not an easy thing to achieve, even for countries with developed market economies, but making it the primary goal of each country's macro-economic policy would contribute to making the "right to a job" and adequate income a reality.

It should be the Government's responsibility, particularly in the developed market-economy countries, considering their present stage of development, to supply the requisite opportunities for vocational training during transition between jobs or retraining for new types of employment at rates of pay at least equal to industrial wage levels, and it should be equally the Government's responsibility to provide childcare facilities adequate to permit women to pursue careers. It will almost certainly be necessary to adjust hours of work to permit women to pursue careers while discharging responsibilities for the care and bringing of children. In any case, Governments should

consider the need to establish explicit job quotas in order to overcome the legacies of discrimination.

(5) Essentials, starting with education and health care, and working to wards food, housing and clothing, should be removed from market relations of production and distribution. Thus health care should be provided by Governments, along with education, free of charge to all citizens and residents. The right to freedom from starvation should be recognized and effectively implemented by all Governments acting individually and in concert with others.

Decent housing within a household's ability to pay should be recognized as a fundamental right. Governments should take the responsibility, on the one hand, of providing decent housing, whether new or existing, at minimum prices of construction and financing, using innovative techniques and/or price controls. On the other hand, they should do as much as they can to bridge the gap between the ability of poorer households to pay for decent housing and the actual price of such housing, by using housing subsidies and/or supplements according to need.

(6) The urban crisis presents a challenge to all Governments, since it is in urban areas that social inequities are concentrated and the greatest environmental conflicts exist. Central to these inequities are the prevailing patterns of land ownership, which are not responsive to social and economic conditions, hinder social mobility, prevent the satisfaction of social needs and work against the redistribution of national wealth. Prevailing legal systems regulating land ownership, particularly those binding together land ownership and land use, are not adaptable to the dynamics of urbanization. They have a pernicious influence on the environment of human settlements, since they respond only to the narrow motives of individual owners and disregard the needs of society as a whole and of the environment.

The right to the use of land should be made available to all citizens. Nations should treat urban land as a natural resource (unless they find other effective means of ensuring for each citizen the right to the use of land) to be developed and conserved in accordance with the values and priorities of society. Individual rights of ownership and use of urban land should be limited. The right to determine the use of land and to enjoy the benefits that accrue from the collective action of society, such as action bringing about changes in the nature and intensity of land use, should belong to society as a whole.<sup>48</sup>

(7) The educational system in the less developed countries should be geared to the requirements of speeding up economic and social development and the realization of economic, social and cultural rights. As the UNESCO

<sup>48</sup> Adapted from the conclusions and recommendations of the *Ad Hoc* Expert Group Meeting on Urban Land Policies and Land-Use Control Measures (30 November-4 December 1970) (see E/C.6/118, para. 47).



International Commission on the Development of Education concluded in its report:

Whatever power education has, or has not, to alleviate in its own domain inequalities among individuals and groups, a resolute social policy to correct unfair distribution of educational resources and effort is the obvious pre-condition for any progress in this respect.<sup>49</sup>

The equalization of educational opportunities is particularly important as an instrument towards reducing inequalities. Educational policy should have as an objective the equalization of educational opportunities and should reflect societal values in harmony with a more equal income distribution.

The right to increased technological knowledge and technical skill should be recognized as a fundamental economic and social right of individuals. It is the best means of ensuring that man shall be considered the subject rather than the object of development.

(8) "Horizontal" and "vertical" redistribution of income is among the essential functions of social security. The basic thrust of social security schemes should therefore be the combination of the social objectives of horizontal redistribution with the obligation of the society to guarantee—through vertical redistribution—a basic level of benefits, at least for old age, illness and disability, which would have to be high enough to permit a decent standard of living. The means of doing so is to increase the importance of minimum standards, such as universal flat-rate benefits, and to institute forms of social security, such as wage-related social benefits, which are a given return for the insured person's work during his working life. The cost of social security systems should be shifted away from regressive taxes, like payroll taxes, to progressive forms of taxation, like personal income tax. Unemployment protection should be extended for an indefinite period of time, and it should be the Government's responsibility, as an "employer of last resort", to provide suitable jobs (suitability being defined in terms of the worker's qualifications and geographical residence).

Rural social security is one way of achieving equality of income in rural areas. The ILO has been considering this question. So far social security measures have been restricted to the formation of urban organizations of the trade union type. This question should be examined more seriously and something positive should be done in the field.

Today all developed market economies and the socialist countries of Europe have reached a stage of development at which they can easily implement this recommendation wherever they fall short of it in practice. Governments of other countries should direct their plans and policies in this direction.

(9) If economic and social development is to be pursued in a vigorous and orderly way, the establishment and strengthening of appropriate social institutions as agents of social change should be recognized as an essential feature of national policy. Such a policy should provide in particular for the right of employers and workers, in all sectors of the economy, to establish organizations of their own choosing, which enable them to defend their interests, to bargain collectively and to have a say in economic and social decisions that concern them, at every level of society and more particularly at the national level in the elaboration of development plans or programmes. Governments

should also encourage the creation and effective operation of co-operatives as instruments likely to contribute to economic development and to ensure an authentic popular participation in economic and social development efforts.

(10) Since population is a key factor in the process of development and as the realization of economic, social and cultural rights is intimately related to population growth, structure and distribution, Governments, the United Nations, the specialized agencies and non-governmental organizations should give high priority to the adoption of policies appropriate to the solution of problems associated with fertility, morbidity and mortality, population structure, internal population distribution and international migration. The following recommendations are concerned principally with population policy measures significant for the achievement of individual rights.

With regard to fertility, it should be urged that all Governments respect the right of couples to determine in a free and responsible manner the number and spacing of their children; ensure that parents achieve their desired number of children through the provision of programmes that aim at both the prevention of unwanted births and the elimination of sterility and subfecundity; make available information necessary for the practice of effective family planning; ensure that this information is based on valid and scientifically proved knowledge and includes appropriate information concerning associated risks; provide education in human reproduction and family welfare; secure the protection of the status of women in marriage and of children born both in and out of marriage; inform parents of the consequences of their fertility behaviour for society as well as for their family; and seek to bring about a choice of family size that adequately reflects the necessary compromise between individual rights and obligations by means of persuasion in conditions of mutual confidence rather than by means of abrupt administrative measures.

With regard to morbidity and mortality, it should be urged that Governments adopt as policies having the highest priority the provision of the necessary health, nutrition and sanitation services, making full use of local resources for this purpose, in such a way as totally to remove differences between regions and classes of the population with respect to health, nutrition and sanitation, and specifically to prevent the continued concentration of personnel and services in major urban areas to the detriment of rural populations.

With regard to internal location and migration, it should be urged that all Governments develop those policies relating to the distribution of population, employment and social services which will permit the greatest proportion of individuals and families to reside and work in the location of their choice. Where, for overriding social and economic reasons, other locations are considered by Governments to be necessary, Governments should seek to explain fully the necessity for such movements to the individuals concerned, avoid abrupt and arbitrary administrative measures and fully support and assist populations to make the relocation, reducing to the minimum the inconveniences caused thereby.

With regard to international migration, Governments should be urged to reduce both the immigration and the emigration of individuals where this is an involuntary or less preferred response to variations in levels of living between countries. In particular, Governments of countries with relatively high standards of living should be urged to undertake measures to reduce the immigration of individuals whose training and experience are vitally needed in

<sup>49</sup> UNESCO, *Learning To Be: The World of Education Today and Tomorrow* (Paris, UNESCO, and London, Harrap, 1972), p. 73.

their countries of origin. Governments of countries from which workers emigrate because of deficient employment in their region of origin should adopt policies that will permit, through the use of appropriate technologies, the productive application of surplus labour to unused resources and the construction of the infrastructural basis of future development.

(11) Living "clean" is no less important a social right than living long. Hence, the degree to which the physical environment of the community remains ecologically balanced directly affects the realization of a vital social right, that is, the right to health. There are hard facts and figures as regards the extent of air, water and soil pollution in various parts of the world. The protection and improvement of the human environment, which affects the well-being of all peoples and economic development, particularly in the less developed countries, should constitute the major concern and primary responsibility of all Governments. It is the essential duty of each Government to identify development projects that have serious adverse environmental and health hazards and to do everything in its power to eliminate or minimize such hazards.

(12) The Commission should recommend to all countries the development of effective rehabilitation programmes for the physically and mentally handicapped, where such programmes do not exist.

(13) The effective enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights also includes the right to prompt and adequate relief in the wake of natural disaster. The recent drought in the Sahel is a dramatic example of this.

(14) In most cases, the needs and problems of neighbouring countries tend to be similar and hence the possibility of reaching regional agreements on issues, goals, and targets, including the effective realization of economic, social and cultural rights, is greater. Therefore, the Commission on Human Rights, while maintaining its longstanding "universal approach", could consider encouraging the conclusion of regional agreements on economic, social and cultural rights.

(15) The Commission on Human Rights could recommend also that more intensive work be done at the national, regional and international levels on the formulation of standards, norms and indicators—both as instruments of developmental planning and as ways of measuring the realization of economic, social and cultural rights.

(16) The resources of the sea-bed and ocean floor and the subsoil thereof beyond the limits of national jurisdiction, being the common heritage of all mankind, should be used exclusively for peaceful purposes, taking into account the pressing need for the realization of economic, social and cultural rights in the less developed countries.

(17) Foreign workers should in all countries be guaranteed absolute equality with nationals in all matters concerning the enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights.

(18) Notwithstanding the possibility of the International Covenants on Human Rights coming into force at an early date and of the effect of the coming into force of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights being to direct much of the work of the Economic and Social Council towards the guidelines and goals set by that Covenant, since States parties and various organs of the United Nations and the specialized agencies will be reporting to the Council, there is an urgent need for the United Nations to devote special attention to the

question of the realization of economic, social and cultural rights throughout the world, if only because the Covenants are unlikely to be accepted by all States Members of the United Nations in the near future. There are at present various organs and departments of the United Nations and of the specialized agencies dealing with parts of the general question. An over-all approach is necessary if economic and social development is to be carried out in a manner that will promote effectively the well-being, freedom and dignity of all human beings without discrimination and the enjoyment of all the civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights recognized in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the two International Covenants on Human Rights. The Secretary-General should be requested to explore ways and means of ensuring that proper attention is paid to these considerations and objectives by all interested units and agencies of the United Nations system. Appropriate contacts and co-operation should be established between them, particularly through meetings, exchange of information and consultations, with a view to promoting in a constructive way the desirable awareness of human rights considerations in the execution of economic and social development projects.

(19) The Commission on Human Rights should arrange for the preparation of a comprehensive study on the realization of economic, social and cultural rights throughout the world for submission to it every five years.

The Commission on Human Rights, by removing questions of secondary and tertiary importance from its agenda, should devote at least 10 days at each of its sessions to the examination of matters relating to the realization of economic, social and cultural rights. It should agree to devote at least three weeks of its session every five years to the consideration of the report that would be presented in accordance with the recommendation given in the preceding paragraph.

Under the present reporting procedure (Economic and Social Council resolution 1596 (L) of 21 May 1971) Member States are asked to submit periodic reports on economic, social and cultural rights every six years. In view of the urgent need for continuous examination of progress made in this regard in different parts of the world, the Commission on Human Rights should recommend to the Economic and Social Council the adoption of a draft resolution making every four years the interval within which States would be asked to submit reports on economic, social and cultural rights. Reports to be submitted in this connexion should take the form of replies to questionnaires which would be formulated for this purpose.

The Commission on Human Rights should also, through the Economic and Social Council, invite the specialized agencies concerned with the realization of economic, social and cultural rights, as well as the regional economic commissions, to provide the Commission with reports every five years on the situation with regard to the realization of those rights falling within their respective jurisdiction and competence.

(20) The Commission on Human Rights should once again appeal to all States to ratify or accede to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination.

(21) The Commission on Human Rights should decide to keep the item on the realization of economic, social and cultural rights on the agenda of each of its future sessions and treat it at each session as an item of the highest priority.

## **ANNEXES**





## ANNEX I

### QUESTIONNAIRES SENT BY THE SPECIAL RAPPORTEUR TO STATES MEMBERS OF THE UNITED NATIONS AND MEMBERS OF THE SPECIALIZED AGENCIES

#### A. Questionnaire on economic, social and cultural rights

##### A. Population

- A.1. The population of the country in 1960 and 1970 grouped as follows:

Age group (years)	Male	Female
0-5.....		
6-11.....		
12-18.....		
19-25.....		
25-65.....		

- A.2. The population of the country by urban and rural areas in 1960 and 1970.
- A.3. The birth and death rate in 1960 and 1970.
- A.4. The rate of infantile death in 1960 and 1970.

##### B. Manpower

- B.1. The number of employed population by sectoral activities in 1960 and 1970 as given under:

	1960	1970
Agriculture.....		
Mining.....		
Industry.....		
Government.....		
Other services.....		

- B.2. The rate of unemployment during the 11 years 1960-1970.
- B.3. The wage rate (per working hour in local currency) in different sectors to be given for male and female [M and F] [workers] as under:

Sector	[1960]		[1970]	
	Average	Minimum	Average	Minimum
	M F	M F	M F	M F
Agriculture.....				
Industry.....				
Mines.....				
Government.....				
Other services.....				

- B.4. Are there workers' profit-sharing devices or shareholding by workers in your industries?
- B.5. Describe the existing unemployment security policy.
- B.6. The hours of work, duration of leisure time and holidays for different activity groups.

##### C. Income and expenditure

- C.1. Group family income for urban and rural population based on the latest family budget surveys as follows:

	Percentage of families under each category		
	High [income]	Medium [income]	Low [income]
Urban families.....			
Rural families.....			

- C.2. The average family expenditure in national currency to be given as follows:

Income groups	Expenditure on			
	Food	Clothing	Housing	All others
Urban				
High.....				
Medium.....				
Low.....				
Rural				
High.....				
Medium.....				
Low.....				

Define the income range for each category according to the prevailing standard in your country in national currency:

##### D. Social infrastructure

- D.1. The number of primary school students as divided by sex in 1960 and 1970.
- D.2. The number of secondary school students as divided by sex in 1960 and 1970.
- D.3. The number of students in technical and professional schools as divided by sex in 1960 and 1970.
- D.4. The number of university students and graduates as divided by sex in 1960 and 1970.
- D.5. The situation with regard to agricultural vocational education.
- D.6. The number of hospital beds in 1960 and 1970 as divided between rural and urban areas.
- D.7. The number of clinics in 1960 and 1970 as divided between rural and urban areas.
- D.8. The number of doctors and nurses in 1960 and 1970 as divided between rural and urban areas.
- D.9. Describe briefly social security regulations with respect to:  
Unemployment,  
Sickness,  
Disability,  
Widowhood,  
Old age,  
Other emergencies.
- D.10. How are motherhood and childhood protected under your country's laws and practice?

##### E. Social institutions

- E.1. Name the existing trade unions with respective number of membership.
- E.2. Specify the kinds of functions they perform.
- E.3. Are trade-union objectives as they are being pursued compatible with higher employment?
- E.4. Name the number of official and non-official social institutions engaged in social security, charity and other social welfare functions, as well as the scope of their activities.

## F. GNP

Give the GNP statistics as divided into the following sectoral breakdown:

	National currency—millions	
	1960	1970
Total GNP at market prices		
of which:		
Agriculture.....		
Industry.....		
Mines.....		
Government services.....		
Other services.....		

## G. Financial framework

- G.1. Give the public (federal) expenditure figures according to the following breakdown for 1960, 1965 and 1970.

	National currency—millions		
	1960	1965	1970
Total public expenditure			
of which:			
1. Education.....			
2. Public health.....			
3. Social security.....			
4. Defence.....			
5. Other expenditures.....			

	National currency—millions		
	1960	1965	1970
Total public revenue			
of which:			
1. Income and property tax.....			
2. Social security contribution by employers.....			
3. Social security contribution by workers.....			
4. Other sources of revenue.....			

- G.2. Give other financial resources and/or contributions made by other public, semi-public or private organizations or local authorities for education and social security programmes in 1970.

	1970	
	Education	Social security
Contribution or expenditure by: (organizations)		
.....		
.....		
.....		

## H. Land ownership

- H.1. What is the system of land ownership in your country?  
H.2. Do farmers own the land they till?  
H.3. Are there big landholding proprietors?

	1960		1970	
	maximum	minimum	maximum	minimum
Size				
.....				
.....				
.....				

## J. Public activities at the rural level

- J.1. What is the share, allocated to rural areas of the following facilities and services:

	Public investment and technical manpower
a. Education.....	
b. Health.....	
c. Housing.....	

- J.2. Explain the technical training being given to the rural community.

### Field

Number of trainees in 1970

.....  
.....  
.....

- J.3. Explain price stabilization policies (if any) adopted to secure [a] minimum revenue for farmers.

- J.4. Explain any other policy affecting farmers' revenue and/or welfare.

## B. Questionnaire on the realization of economic, social and cultural rights in socialist countries

It is hoped that respondents will supply as much of the information asked for as possible, and in particular that the presence of questions which they find inappropriate or cannot answer will not deter them from answering those they can. It is inevitable that certain of the subjects explored should be more appropriate to some countries than to others. The answers given should be as detailed as respondents are able to make them, and any additional information which Governments may wish to supply on related questions, not explicitly covered in this questionnaire, will be greatly appreciated and receive due attention in the final survey.

The substantive questions appear in section III of the present questionnaire and follow the major subdivisions of the outline of headings used in requesting information for periodic reports on human rights.

Whenever relevant and possible, the answer to the question in section III should be supplemented by two types of formal reference: A reference (or references) to the legal or social dispositions (provisions, enactments, etc.) supporting the answer given—described in section I as the Basic Reference to Dispositions (BRD); and a reference (or references) to the published statistical or other material, if any, from which facts and figures are quoted (or may be obtained)—described in section II as the Factual/Statistical Reference (FSR). The latter also includes references to books and/or articles of a descriptive or critical nature, and to research material on actual or desired standards not having the force of law.

## SECTION I

### 1. Method and purpose

Respondents are asked to start by defining the corpus of dispositions (Constitutional provisions, declarations, programmes or plans, legislative acts, administrative orders, etc.) which they wish to draw upon in reporting on economic, social, and cultural rights in their respective countries. For each separate Disposition, the definition should specify the *Addressor* (A), i.e. the issuing authority; the *Addressee* (B), i.e. the implementing authority; and the *Instrument* (C) i.e. the charter, law, or instruction, together with indications to facilitate the location of documentary evidence (D). It will be convenient to do this by giving each disposition a Basic Reference (BRD) in the standardized form

A/B/C or A/B/C(D),

as will be exemplified below.

Accordingly, in this first section of the questionnaire, respondents are asked to list and codify the main elements needed for this scheme, so that answers to the substantive questions in section III can be provided with Basic References (BRDs) whenever this is relevant and possible.

The entries appearing in brackets in the present draft of section I (§2) refer to the Soviet Union and are for purposes of illustration only.

Each country is asked to follow the suggested pattern as closely as possible, but to vary and supplement it in any way it considers necessary.

Entries requiring official nomenclature should be made in the original language, followed, if possible, by their Russian, English or French equivalents in brackets.

Dispositions no longer in force and quoted for reasons of historic explanation or illustration should be quoted with a cross (+) or asterisk (\*) after their BRDs.

## 2. Suggested pattern of BRD

Please list and codify the following, as far as relevant to economic, social, and cultural rights in your country:

### A. Main authorities issuing declarations and/or guarantees of rights ("Addressors")

- A1. Government legislative organs at national level.
  - A11 (. . . (Supreme Soviet of the USSR))
  - A12 (. . . (Praesidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR))
  - A13
  - A14
- A2. Other government legislative organs.
  - A21 (. . . (Supreme Soviet of a Union Republic))
  - A22
- A3. Government executive organs at national level.
  - A31 (. . . (Council of Ministers of the USSR))
  - A32 (. . . (Ministry of Health of the USSR))
  - A33
- A4. Other government executive organs.
  - A41 (. . . (Council of Ministers of a Union Republic))
  - A42
- A5. Judicial organs.
  - A51
- A6. Organs of ruling party (or parties) at national level.
  - A61 (. . . (Congress of the CPSU))
  - A62 (. . . (Central Committee of the CPSU))
  - A63
- A7. Other organs of ruling party (or parties).
  - A71
- A8. Trade union organs.
  - A81 (. . . (All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions))
  - A82
- A9. Other authorities.
  - A91 (. . . (All-Union Congress of Collective Farmers))

### B. Main authorities called upon to implement and/or verify the implementation of rights ("Addressees")

- B0. Code for universality, multiplicity, or indeterminacy of addressee.
- B1. Government organs.
  - B11 (. . . (Ministry of Agriculture of the USSR))
  - B12
- B2. Organs of ruling party (or parties).
  - B21
- B3. Trade union organs.
  - B31
  - B32 (. . . (factory, works, or local committee))
  - B33
- B4. Other organs
  - B41 (. . . (enterprise administration))
  - B42

### C. Main instruments and sources enjoining the implementation of rights

Please list dates and reference to publications, unless referring to periodical enactments whose dates are specified under D. Where alternative sources of equal importance exist, please list the one most readily available.

- C0. Unwritten convention or usage.
- C1. Constitution and constitutional amendments.
  - C11 (Constitution (Fundamental Law) of the USSR, of 5 December 1936, as amended by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on 25 February 1947; English text published by Foreign Languages Publishing House, Moscow, 1947)
  - C12

### C2. Resolutions, programmes, and plans.

- C21 (Program of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, adopted by the 22nd Congress of the CPSU, 31 October 1961; English text, Crosscurrents Press/New York, 1961)
- C22

### C3. Basic laws, codes, charters, or model statutes.

- C31 (Basic Labour Code of the USSR and Union Republics of 15 July 1970, in USSR, *Vedomosti Verkhovnogo Soveta, SSSR* [Official Gazette of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR], No. 29 (1531), 22 July 1970)
- C32 (Model Collective Farm Regulations of 28 November 1969, in *Pravda* and *Izvestia* (Moscow), 30 November 1969, p. 1)
- C33

### C4. Specific statutes and laws.

- C41
- C42

### C5. Specific instructions.

- C51
- C52

### C6. Other instruments.

- C61
- C62

### D. Indication of documentary evidence

In the case of specific statutes, laws, or ordinances issued periodically please give data of issue, unless incorporated in the instrument or source reference given under C.

In the case of voluminous sources, please add number of article or other subdivision.

### 3. Instructions for giving BRDs in connexion with answers under section III of this questionnaire

The basic references for any disposition (BRDs) bearing on rights should be given in the following form:

*A/B/C(D)* or *A/B/C*, where C already includes sufficient indications of type D.

The following examples are given for purposes of illustration:

Entitlements to personal plots for collective farmers: 92, 31, 61/42/32 (Arts. 42-44)

Normal length of the work week for wage and salary workers: 11/0/31 (Arts. 21-33)

Housing plans: 62/0/21 (31 Oct. 1961), Part Two, II (b))

## SECTION II

### 1. Method and purpose

In this section, respondents are asked to list and codify all published reference material (other than dispositions recorded in section I) on which they wish to draw, or to which they wish to refer the compilers of the final survey, in reporting on economic, social, and cultural rights in their countries. This may be statistical material, whether official or not, reference works, reports, books, articles, or research findings of a descriptive, critical, or normative nature (i.e. referring to desirable standards).

In answer to questions in section III, respondents should, wherever relevant and possible, quote a supporting Factual/Statistical Reference (FSR) as an array of figures in round brackets preceded by the letter R, e.g. *R(1.2/256)* or *R(3.15/25.371)*, where the figures after the oblique stroke (/) refer to page numbers.

Respondents should supply a list of references in accordance with the scheme below, quoting publishing house and place and date of publication in each case, and beginning with the name of the author or publishing authority. The bracketed entries below refer to the Soviet Union and are for purposes of illustration only.

### 2. Suggested pattern of FSR

Please list and codify the following, as far as relevant to economic, social, and cultural rights in your country:

1. *Official statements, publications or reports by government or ruling party organ at national level.*

1.1 (USSR, Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, *Naradnoe khoziaistvo SSSR v 1969 godu* [The National Economy of the USSR in 1969] (Moscow, "Statistika", 1970))

1.2

1.3

2. *Official statements, publications or reports by government or ruling party organ at other level.*

2.1 (USSR, Central Statistical Administration of the Council of Ministers of the Russian SFSR, *Narodnoe khoziaistvo RSFSR v 1969 godu* [The National Economy of the Russian SFSR in 1969] (Moscow, "Statistika", 1970))

2.2

3. *Official statements, publications or reports by authorities, public associations, etc. not acting as organs of government or the ruling party.*

3.1

3.2

3.3

4. *Official statements, publications, or reports by international organs based on information supplied by the authorities of your country or on independent research.*

4.1 (WHO, *World Health Statistics Annual 1967* (Geneva, 1970), vol. III)

4.2

4.3

5. *Non-official statements, publications, or reports published for purposes of reference or general systematic information at home or abroad.*

5.1 (S.G. Strumilin (ed.), *Ekonomicheskaya Zhizn' SSSR 1917-1959* (Moscow, "Sovetskaya Entsiklopediya", 1961))

5.2 (*The USSR—Questions and Answers 1917-1967* (Moscow, Novosti Press Agency))

5.3

6. *Non-official statements, publications, or reports published on special subjects in book form.*

6.1 (A.L. Maksimov, *Perevod rabochikh i sluzhashchikh promyshlennykh predpriyatii SSSR na sokrashchennyi rabochiy den'* [Change-over of workers and employees of industrial enterprises of the USSR to a reduced working day] (Moscow, "Nauka", 1965))

6.2

6.3

7. *References to articles in journals and periodicals.*

7.1 (S. Shkurko, "Voprosy stimulirovaniya proizvoditel'nosti truda" ["Problems in stimulating labour productivity"], in *Planovoe khoziaistvo* [Planned Economy] (Moscow, 1971), No. 8, p. 10)

7.2

8. *References to articles, statements, or reports in newspapers.*

8.1

8.2

9. *Other references.*

9.1

9.2

3. *Instructions for giving FSRs in connexion with answers under section III of this questionnaire*

The Factual/Statistical References (FSRs) bearing on rights should be given in the form of the capital letter R followed by the code-number of §2 in round brackets, with page numbers separated by an oblique stroke, e.g.

Number of hospital beds per

10 thousand of population . . . . . R(1.1/732)

Average monthly earnings of wage

and salary earners in the RSFSR . . . . . R(2.1/316)

Number of nurses per 10 thousand

population . . . . . R(4.1/54)

Pensioners' right to work . . . . . R(5.2/340)

SECTION III

Please answer questions as fully as possible, giving BRDs (see section I) and FSRs (see section II), wherever relevant and available.

The expression "break-down into social sectors" implies the request for separate information on (a) over-all national conditions, (b) conditions in the State sector, (c) conditions in the co-operative sector, (d) conditions in the private sector, if any, and (e) conditions in any other social sector of relevance.

The expression "at the present time", "current", or "present" implies the request for information on the latest period or date for which such information is available.

A. *The right to work*

Please give BRDs and FSRs wherever relevant and possible.

A1.1 Give Basic References to Dispositions containing declarations and/or guarantees of this and related rights, as in force at present and at selected historical junctures (with crosses or asterisks if superseded).

A1.2 What provision is made for careers counselling and information on available jobs (i) for school-leavers (ii) for others entering the labour force for the first time?

A1.3 List the chief methods of securing employment for new entrants to the labour force in enterprises, institutions or co-operatives, broken down by social sector, giving—if possible—figures for recruitment through each method in a typical year.

A1.4 List the circumstances in which employers/co-operatives are entitled to refuse employment/membership to a new applicant (broken down by social sector).

A1.5 What safeguards ensure the right of individuals to leave their jobs if they wish to do so, after due notice (specify period), in each of the social sectors?

A1.6 List the circumstances in which individuals are under an obligation to complete prescribed periods of service in designated jobs, enterprises, or localities.

A1.7 List any losses of privileges or entitlements imposed on individuals leaving their jobs voluntarily after due notice.

A1.8 List any occupations in which full-time self-employment (with family help) may be permissible, and the facilities available to follow such occupations if desired. Give numbers and trends (with and without family members) in recent typical years.

A1.9 What limitations exist on maximum holding of plots of land, farm animals, and farm buildings for individual households (i) within producer co-operatives (ii) outside producer co-operatives?

A1.10 What are the minimal work requirements on communal tasks for members of producer co-operatives to retain their entitlement under A1.9?

A1.11 In what circumstances are citizens permitted to seek or take up temporary employment in a foreign country while retaining the right to return? What are the rights of their dependents during the bread-winner's absence abroad?

A1.12 Specify the circumstances in which employers/co-operatives are entitled to dismiss/expel individuals (in each social sector).

A1.13 List the chief methods of securing employment for those who change their jobs (i) voluntarily, (ii) when dismissed without culpability on their part (e.g. redundancy), (iii) when culpably dismissed.

A1.14 Give current figures on the degree of labour mobility (ratio of annual hirings and/or departures from enterprises to average work-force of the same enterprises) (i) in the social sectors as a whole, (ii) in the industries most seriously affected, (iii) in the localities most seriously affected.



- A1.15** Specify any penalties, losses of privilege or entitlements imposed on those who change their jobs voluntarily more than a specified number of times in a given period.
- A1.16** Specify any impediments to entry or residence in particular localities for individuals in search of employment there.
- A1.17** What special provisions, if any, apply to job assignment for members of particular social or political associations?
- A2.1** By what methods are a worker's qualifications, skill-category, and status (for wage-payments and other entitlements) determined and recorded? (Please break down by social sector.)
- A2.2** List the reasons entitling employers/co-operatives to change the (i) type of job, (ii) work-place, (iii) pay category of a worker without his consent.
- A2.3** In what circumstances and by what methods can employers/co-operatives take disciplinary methods (short of dismissal) against individual workers/members?
- A2.4** Indicate any statutory obligation on employers/co-operatives to transfer workers/members to lighter work (with or without loss of earnings) in specific cases (e.g. pregnancy, disability, study, etc.).
- A3.1** What financial provisions exist, and under what conditions, for the support of workers unable to find jobs of a type, status, or in a location consistent with their reasonable expectations?
- A3.2** What is the maximum period between jobs during which (i) the support under A3.1 can continue, (ii) a worker's entitlements to various benefits are preserved?
- A3.3** List any organs or institutions set up for intermediation between employing authorities and job-seekers, and state the conditions on which their services are available to either party.
- A3.4** Give the current numbers receiving or entitled to support under A3.1, (i) in particular sectors of the economy most seriously affected, (ii) in particular localities most seriously affected, (iii) in the country as a whole.
- A4.1** List the legal minimum/guaranteed monthly wages payable, the date of their introduction, and previous levels at selected historical junctures, distinguishing different social sectors and, if relevant, urban and rural areas.
- A4.2** What proportion of wage-earners are (and were) paid at legal minimum/guaranteed wage-rates at the present time, and what percentage were paid less than this when the level was last raised? Please distinguish the social sectors, if possible.
- A4.3** List the average monthly wage/earnings of workers, excluding collective benefits, at the present time and at selected historical junctures, broken down by social sector.
- A4.4** Indicate the percentage of wage/income-earners receiving more than the averages listed under A4.3 in the country as a whole and in each social sector.
- A4.5** Indicate the percentage of individual earnings received independently of collective performance (e.g. of the profits of an enterprise or farm), and the percentage received in the line of participation in profits or other collective revenues (broken down by social sector).
- A4.6** What governs the distribution among individual workers/members of the collective profits or revenues earmarked for such distribution?
- A4.7** List the deductions made from individual wages/earnings for purposes of (i) direct taxation, (ii) social insurance contributions, (iii) subscriptions to State or other loans, (iv) other requirements, and indicate their normal levels in relation to average wages/incomes.
- A4.8** Give the result of any scientific investigation into the monthly cost per person (or household) of sustaining life at a minimal/normal level consistent with health, (i) in urban areas, (ii) in rural areas.
- A5.1** List the provisions ensuring equal employment and earning opportunities for men and women, or any differentials which may be legitimately applied.
- A6.1** List the legal maxima of working hours per day, working days per week, and working days per year (i.e. statutory paid holidays) permitted in full-time employment in each of the social sectors, and indicate statutory exceptions to this (e.g. women, adolescents, etc.).
- A6.2** Give the result of any study on time-budgets of workers/farmers, showing average time spent by men and women on work, travel to and from work, household chores, etc.
- A6.3** State the average number per household of (i) full-time workers, (ii) women, (iii) dependent non-working adults, (iv) dependent non-working children, distinguishing, if possible, between urban and rural areas.
- A7.1** Indicate the provision for unionization of workers or other representation allowed in defence of workers' interests, (i) in the State sector, (ii) in the co-operative sector, (iii) in the private sector.
- A7.2** To what extent does the individual worker have a choice between alternative trade unions or other social organizations set up to defend his interests?
- A8.1** Is the right to strike (i) explicitly recognized, (ii) explicitly denied by law?
- B. The right to social security**  
Please give *BRDs* and *FSRs* wherever relevant and possible.
- B1.** Give Basic References to Dispositions containing declarations and/or guarantees of this right, as in force at present and at selected historical junctures (with crosses or asterisks if superseded).
- B2.** List the main types of pensions, allowances, and other benefits available to workers or former workers in each of the social sectors and/or their families.
- B3.** Indicate the age of retirement at which State or other retirement pensions become available, and any provision for voluntary continuance of work beyond that age (with total or partial loss of pension). What are the minimal qualifications (length of service etc.) required?
- B4.** Indicate any legal minima and/or maxima of monthly retirement pensions, the date of their introduction, and their previous levels at selected historical junctures. Please distinguish between social sectors, and between urban and rural areas where relevant.
- B5.** What percentage of old age (retirement) pensioners receive pensions at the legal minimum rate at the present time, and what percentage received pensions below this when the minimum was last raised?
- B6.** List the average monthly retirement pension paid to pensioners at the present time and at selected historical junctures.
- B7.** Indicate the percentage of non-working persons over retirement age who are not in receipt of retirement pensions (or full retirement pensions) at the present time.
- B8.** Indicate the provisions entitling persons to pensions for permanent disability or temporary incapacity, broken down by social sector.
- B9.** Indicate the provisions entitling persons to pensions or allowances for the loss of a bread-winner.
- B10.** Indicate any provision for personal pensions, allowances, or subsidies to persons without livelihood falling outside the purview of legal entitlements.
- C. The right to an adequate standard of living**
- C1.** Report any figures for average monthly household income, household size, and monthly expenditure, that may be available from family budget or other data (broken down by social sector and urban/rural areas). Please indicate size and composition of the sample.
- C2.** Report any available figures for monthly income and expenditure of "lower-income households", indicating the percentage of households living below that standard (lower quartile, lower decile, etc.). If possible, please break down by social sector and urban/rural areas.

- C3. Give the result of any scientific investigation into the monthly cost per average-size household of sustaining life at a minimum/normal level consistent with health (broken down by urban/rural areas, if possible).
- C4. Give available monthly or annual figures per person or household of consumption of basic foods, in physical or caloric units (broken down by social sector).
- C5. Give the result of any scientific investigation into *per capita* or household food consumption required to sustain a minimum/normal standard of health.
- C6. Indicate the size of the total stock of housing (in floor space and/or living space) available at the present time (i) in urban areas, (ii) in rural areas.
- C7. Indicate the floor space and/or living space of housing available per person at the present time (i) in urban areas, (ii) in rural areas.
- C8. Give the result of any scientific investigation or social norming of minimal/desirable standards of floor space or living space per person or household.
- C9. To what extent are flats (apartments) intended for occupancy by single households at present in joint occupancy by more than one household?
- C10. How is housing allocated to families/households (i) in urban areas, (ii) in rural areas?
- C11. Give average proportions of incomes spent by household on rental payments (i) in urban areas, (ii) in rural areas, and the extent of subsidies for rents, if any.
- C12. What proportion of flats (apartments) are supplied with gas or electricity for heating, lighting, and cooking (i) in urban areas, (ii) in rural areas?
- C13. List the number and occupancy (number of inmates) of homes or establishments for (i) children without family attachments, (ii) children in need of public care for other reasons, (iii) aged people.
- C14. Indicate the growth rate in (i) nominal earnings, (ii) real earnings per head of the fully employed population between selected historical dates and the present (broken down by social sector).
- C15. Indicate the growth rates in *per capita* consumption of major categories of food (in physical units and/or calories) between selected historical dates and the present (broken down by social sector and, if possible, distinguishing urban and rural areas).
- D. The right to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standards of health**  
Please give *BRDs* and *FSRs* wherever relevant and possible.
- D1. Give Basic References to Dispositions containing declarations and/or guarantees of this right, as in force at the present time and at selected historical junctures (with crosses or asterisks if superseded).
- D2. Give figures showing the progress made in (i) infant-mortality rates, (ii) still-birth rates between selected historical dates and the present.
- D3. Give figures showing the number of beds in maternity and gynaecological wards, and the total number of live births in the country, at selected historical dates and at present.
- D4. Indicate the number and capacity of medical care and counselling units (advice centres, welfare clinics, etc.) for mothers and their children (i) in urban areas, (ii) in rural areas.
- D5. Explain the provision made for on-the-job medical care and hygiene for workers (broken down by social sector).
- D6. What provisions are made for the control of epidemic, endemic and occupational diseases?
- D7. What proportion of the cost of medical services rendered to individuals is (i) borne by the user directly, (ii) borne by the State or other collectives without direct contributions from individuals, (iii) borne by the State or other collectives out of compulsory contributions from individuals?
- D8. Are medical services available to individuals in need of them regardless of ability to pay?
- D9. Give the number of beds in general and specialized hospitals per 10 thousand of the population at present, and at selected historical dates. How many of these are (i) in general hospitals, (ii) in children's hospitals or children's departments of other hospitals, (iii) in mental hospitals?
- D10. Give the number of fully-trained doctors (physicians) per 10 thousand of population at present and at selected historical dates.
- D11. Indicate the minimum and the average length of full-time medical training of those classified as fully-trained doctors (physicians).
- D12. Give the average monthly earnings of fully-trained doctors (i) in urban areas, (ii) in rural areas.
- D13. Give the number of medical and nursing personnel per 10 thousand population in broad categories below the level of fully-trained physicians, indicating the minimum and average length of the medical training period, and average monthly earnings in each case.
- D14. What proportion of the cost of medicines are borne by individual users, and what provisions exist to help individuals unable to pay?
- D15. Give the proportion of women among fully-trained doctors and other categories of medical personnel.
- E. The right of the family, motherhood, and childhood to protection and assistance**  
Please give *BRDs* and *FSRs* wherever relevant and possible.
- E1. Give Basic References to Dispositions containing declarations and/or guarantees of this right, as in force at the present time and at selected historical junctures (with crosses or asterisks if superseded).
- E2. What is the statutory length of maternity leave on full or reduced pay, and what other entitlements (extra leave, lighter work) may be claimed by working women during pregnancy, childbirth, and the nursing period (broken down by social sector)?
- E3. What lump-sum and/or periodic payments are made to women in respect of the birth and/or upbringing of children, and how are these related to the number of children?
- E4. What lump-sum and/or periodic payments are made to unmarried mothers in respect of the birth and/or upbringing of children, and how are these related to the number of children?
- E5. What percentage of women between 18 and retiring age are in full-time employment?
- E6. What proportion of women with one or more children under school-age are in full-time employment?
- E7. What proportion of children under school-age are placed in crèches, day-nurseries, or kindergartens?
- E8. What restrictions apply to the employment of minors under designated age limits?
- E9. What privileges in the matter of working hours, conditions of work, paid or unpaid holidays, study time, and pay, are granted to young people under designated age limits (broken down by social sector)?
- F. The right to education**  
Please give *BRDs* and *FSRs* wherever relevant and possible.
- F1. Give Basic References to Dispositions containing declarations and/or guarantees of this right, as in force at the present time and at selected historical junctures (with crosses or asterisks if superseded).
- F2. Give the number of full-time pre-school establishments (crèches, day-time nurseries, kindergartens) and the number of children's places in them, distinguishing, if possible the age-groups involved in each case.
- F3. What are the charges made to parents for full-time care and education in these establishments?

- F4. What is the age for normal entry into primary (or elementary) education, and its normal duration?
- F5. What proportion of children of the relevant age group are in full-time primary (or elementary) education (i) in urban areas, (ii) in rural areas?
- F6. What proportion of the cost of primary (or elementary) education is borne directly by parental contributions, and what provisions apply in cases of inability or unwillingness to pay?
- F7. What is the age for normal entry into secondary (post-primary) education, and its normal duration?
- F8. What proportion of children of the relevant age group are in full-time secondary (post-primary) education (i) in urban areas, (ii) in rural areas?
- F9. How are primary-school leavers selected for secondary education?
- F10. What proportion of the cost of secondary education is borne by direct paternal contributions, and what provisions apply in cases of inability or unwillingness to pay?
- F11. What is the age for normal entry into, and average duration of (i) technical-vocational (post-secondary education), (ii) higher education?
- F12. How are secondary school-leavers and others selected for (i) technical-vocational, (ii) higher education?
- F13. Give the number of full-time teachers, their average pay, and, if possible, the proportion of women teachers in:
- (i) Pre-school education;
  - (ii) Primary education;
  - (iii) Secondary education;
  - (iv) Technical-vocational education;
  - (v) Higher education.
- F14. What proportion of the cost of (i) technical-vocational, (ii) higher education is borne by direct contributions from parents or students, and what provisions apply in cases of inability or unwillingness to pay?
- F15. What proportion of the present population (distinguishing between men and women) between 26 and 60 (or retiring age) have completed:
- (i) primary education and no more;
  - (ii) secondary education and no more;
  - (iii) technical-vocational education and no more;
  - (iv) higher education?

### C. Questionnaire on the realization of economic, social and cultural rights in the developing countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America

The purpose of this questionnaire is twofold: (a) to collect the latest data on the state of progress of each country in Africa, Asia and Latin America towards the realization of fundamental human rights, and (b) to make an assessment of the social and legal guarantees and sanctions in the following fields:

The right to work;  
 The right to social security, including social insurance;  
 The right to an adequate standard of living;  
 The right to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health;  
 The right of the family, motherhood and childhood to protection and assistance;  
 The right to education;  
 The right to participate freely in cultural life.

In conformity with its dual purpose, the questionnaire is divided into two sections, on the state of progress and on social and legal guarantees and sanctions.

Each section is provided with a set of questions that Member States are urged to complete to the best of their knowledge and ability. It is inevitable that certain categories should be more appropriate to some countries than to others. It is also possible that some categories appropriate to some countries may have been left out. In either case, the Special Rapporteur hopes that the respondents would not hesitate to indicate the special conditions and supply

whatever information is considered important to a valid assessment of conditions in the country concerned. The respondents' assistance in this matter will be greatly appreciated, and the information they supply will receive due attention in the final survey.

## SECTION 1. THE STATE OF PROGRESS

1960 1970

### 1.1. Population:

- 1.1.1. Total population.....  
 Female.....
- 1.1.2. Rate of growth.....
- 1.1.3. Density.....
- 1.1.4. Rural population.....
- 1.1.5. Nomadic population.....
- 1.1.6. Major ethnic groups in percentages.....
- 1.1.7. Major religious groups in percentages.....
- 1.1.8. Major racial groups in percentages.....
- 1.1.9. Major linguistic groups in percentages.....
- 1.1.10. Age structure  
 0-4 [years].....  
 5-14.....  
 15-24.....  
 25-59.....  
 60-over.....
- 1.1.11. Birth rate.....
- 1.1.12. Death rate.....
- 1.1.13. Rate of increase in urbanization.....
- 1.1.14. External migration.....
- 1.1.15. References and comments.....

Total Female

1960 1970

### 1.2. National income, consumption and growth:

- 1.2.1. National produce.....
- 1.2.2. Average growth rate [of national produce]...
- 1.2.3. *Per capita* GNP.....
- 1.2.4. Average growth rate [of *per capita* GNP]....
- 1.2.5. National income distribution (preferably in terms of what percentage of population receives what percentage of national income)
- 1.2.6. *Per capita* consumption of textile materials...
- 1.2.7. *Per capita* consumption of meat.....
- 1.2.8. *Per capita* consumption of electricity.....
- 1.2.9. *Per capita* consumption of food grains and substitutes.....
- 1.2.10. *Per capita* consumption of shoes.....
- 1.2.11. *Per capita* consumption of vegetables and dairy products.....
- 1.2.12. References and comments.

### 1.3. Manpower and employment:

Labour force as percentage of population.....  
 Labour force composition by age and sex.....  
 Labour force participation rates by age and sex.  
 Labour force, total, employed, unemployed, employment by sectors:  
   industrial and mining.....  
   agricultural (including forestry, fishery and animal husbandry).....  
   services.....  
   underemployment (estimate).....  
 Distribution of employment by key occupations\* per different social groups (racial and ethnic).....

### 1.4. Education:

- 1.4.1. Literacy rate.....
- 1.4.2. Enrolment ratios in primary schools:  
 for total population in the age group.....  
 for female population in the age group....

\* Use ILO classification with one-digit number.



- 1.4.3. Enrolment ratios in secondary schools:
  - for total respective age group (divided by academic, technical and vocational education).....
  - for female population in the respective age group (divided by academic, technical and vocational education).....
- 1.4.4. Enrolment ratios in institutes of higher education:
  - for total population in the respective age group.....
  - for female population in the respective age group.....
- 1.4.5. Total expenditure on education as percentage of GNP.....
- 1.4.6. Public expenditure on education as percentage of total government budget.....
- 1.4.7. References and comments.
- 1.5. *Public health and medical facilities:*
  - 1.5.1. Infant mortality rates.....
  - 1.5.2. Life expectancy.....
  - 1.5.3. Major causes of mortality: if possible, list malnutrition and various types of diseases
  - 1.5.4. Population per doctor.....
  - 1.5.5. Distribution of doctors in country.....
  - 1.5.6. Population per nurse.....
  - 1.5.7. Distribution of nurses in country.....
  - 1.5.8. Hospital beds per 10 000 population: public, private.....
  - 1.5.9. Distribution of hospitals and clinics in country
  - 1.5.10. Conditions of free medical care
    - In public hospitals and clinics.....
    - In private hospitals and clinics.....
  - 1.5.11. Number of pre-natal centres.....
  - 1.5.12. Number of child-care centres.....
  - 1.5.13. Environmental health
    - Per cent of population using sanitary water (including piped water and public fountains) by rural and urban dwellers.....
    - Per cent of population using sewerage system and/or septic tanks or cesspools by rural and urban dwellers.....
  - 1.5.14. Per cent of population without toilet facilities
  - 1.5.15. Total expenditures on health as a percentage of GNP.....
  - 1.5.16. Government expenditures on health as a percentage of total budget.....
  - 1.5.17. *Per capita* expenditures on health (in U.S. dollars).....
  - 1.5.18. *Per capita* calorie intake.....
  - 1.5.19. Incidence of death as a result of:
    - malnutrition.....
    - epidemic diseases.....
    - endemic diseases.....
    - occupational diseases, as a percentage of the total deaths.....
  - 1.5.20. Types of hospital beds as percentage of total:
    - children's.....
    - general.....
    - mental.....
  - 1.5.21. Annual number of graduates of medical schools
  - 1.5.22. Annual number of graduates of nursing schools
  - 1.5.23. References and comments.
- 1.6. *Housing, community and cultural facilities:*
  - 1.6.1. Average size of family.....
  - 1.6.2. Total dwelling units.....
  - 1.6.3. *Per capita* dwelling size (in square metres)....
  - 1.6.4. Residential building types by percentages
    - apartments.....
    - row houses.....
    - private detached houses.....
    - others.....

- 1.6.5. Construction types in percentages.....
- 1.6.6. Main building materials in percentages
  - mud-brick.....
  - concrete block.....
  - reinforced concrete.....
  - steel, stone, cement.....
  - wood.....
  - others.....
- 1.6.7. Availability of utilities and services in percentages
  - electricity.....
  - telephone.....
  - bath room.....
  - toilets.....
- 1.6.8. Availability of community services per 10 000 population
  - religious centres.....
  - cultural and social centres.....
  - libraries, theatres.....
  - health centres.....
  - recreational facilities.....
- 1.6.9. Reference and comments.
- 1.6.10. Availability of mass media:
  - Number of books annually published per 10 thousand.....
  - number of radio sets per 10 thousand.....
  - number of newspaper circulation per 10 thousand.....
  - number of magazine circulation per 10 thousand.....
  - number of television sets per 10 thousand..

## SECTION 2. SOCIAL LEGAL GUARANTEES AND SANCTIONS

- 2.1. *The right to work:*
  - 2.1.1. Minimum legal employment age.
  - 2.1.2. Minimum national or regional legal wage per hour.
  - 2.1.3. Maximum legal working hours per week.
  - 2.1.4. Minimum legal holidays with pay per year.
  - 2.1.5. Legal conditions of work permits.
  - 2.1.6. Conditions of dismissal from work.
  - 2.1.7. Conditions of organization and powers of trade unions.
  - 2.1.8. Conditions of membership in the trade unions of one's choice.
  - 2.1.9. Conditions of affiliation of trade unions to political parties.
  - 2.1.10. Conditions of determination of an employee's status and pay:
    - in private sector;
    - in public sector.
  - 2.1.11. Conditions of the exercise of the right to strike.
  - 2.1.12. Conditions of the right to collective bargaining.
  - 2.1.13. Conditions of refusal of employment to new entrants to the labour market.
  - 2.1.14. Conditions of transfer from one job to another after due notice (specify period).
  - 2.1.15. Legal guarantees of equal opportunities in employment for men and women and equal pay for equal work.
  - 2.1.16. Statutory obligations of employers/co-operatives to transfer workers/members to lighter work (with or without loss of earnings) in specific cases (e.g. pregnancy, disability, study, etc.).
  - 2.1.17. Conditions for technical and vocational guidance and training provided for individuals seeking employment.
  - 2.1.18. Conditions of work, environment in terms of the availability of clinical services, health facilities and safety precautions.
  - 2.1.19. List all references to laws, decrees, proclamations, etc. pertinent to the above questions.
- 2.2. *The right to social security:*
  - 2.2.1. List the main types of pensions, allowances and other benefits legally available to employees.
  - 2.2.2. Legal retirement age, length of service, and possibilities for extension of service beyond the retirement age:
    - public sector;
    - private sector.



- 2.2.3. Legal requirements for unemployment insurance compensation:  
public sector;  
private sector.
- 2.2.4. Legal requirements for social security payments:  
public sector;  
private sector.
- 2.2.5. Legal requirements for employee's compensation in case of disability:  
public sector;  
private sector.
- 2.2.6. Legal requirements for additional pay for additional dependants.
- 2.2.7. Legal requirements for life insurance against accidental death.
- 2.2.8. List any legal requirements for profit-sharing schemes for workers.
- 2.3. *The right to an adequate standard of living:*
- 2.3.1. Describe policies and programmes adopted by the Government guaranteeing minimum food, clothing and housing for the low income group of the population, including subsidized food and housing programmes. Mention what has been achieved so far, as well as any international assistance being received for those purposes.
- 2.3.2. Describe any agrarian reform which has taken place or in the course of implementation or the situation with regard to land ownership in the country.
- 2.3.3. Describe legal conditions governing land ownership in agricultural sector and the rest of the economy.
- 2.3.4. Result of any scientific findings on the monthly cost per person (or household) of sustaining life at a minimal normal level consistent with health, (i) in urban areas, (ii) in rural areas.
- 2.5. *The rights of the family, motherhood, and childhood to protection and assistance:*
- 2.5.1. Statutory length of maternity leave on full or reduced pay, and other entitlements for pregnancy, childbirth and the nursing period.
- 2.5.2. Legal compensations for childbirth, schooling of children.
- 2.5.3. Legal compensations to unmarried women and families without a bread-winner.
- 2.5.4. Social and legal provisions for pre-school children of working mothers.
- 2.5.5. List all references to laws, decrees, proclamations pertinent to the above questions.
- 2.6. *The right to education:*
- 2.6.1. Is the right to free universal education recognized by law, and up to what age or grade?
- 2.6.2. What are the entrance requirements to primary schools? What is the total number of primary school (1-6 grades) attendants in the country? What percentage are girls?
- 2.6.3. What are the entrance requirements to secondary schools? What is the total number of secondary school (7-12 grades) attendants in the country? What per cent are girls?
- 2.6.4. What are the entrance requirements to institutions of higher learning and what is the total number of university students at present: what per cent in sciences and what per cent in arts? How many in medical schools?
- 2.6.5. What are the entrance requirements to technical-vocational schools and what is the total number of enrolments in these schools at present?
- 2.6.6. What is the present total number of primary school teachers in the country?
- 2.6.7. What is the present total number of secondary school teachers in the country?
- 2.6.8. List all references to laws, decrees, proclamations, etc. pertinent to the above questions.
- 2.7. *The right to participate freely in cultural life:*
- 2.7.1. Are ethnic and religious minorities allowed to have their own schools, newspapers, associations, etc.?
- 2.7.2. Is the teaching of a state religion (if any) compulsory in the public schools?
- 2.7.3. Do the ethnic schools (if any) correspond to the size of the ethnic minorities?
- 2.7.4. Is there in practice or by law or both any form of caste system operating in the country?
- 2.7.5. What are the legal qualifications for membership in the civil and military services?
- 2.7.6. Does the Government encourage the propagation of a certain language, religion or cultural tradition? If so, why?
- 2.7.7. Is the equality of all citizens regardless of their race, religion or ethnic origin recognized by law?
- 2.7.8. Are state funds for cultural activities divided proportionately among different constituent ethnic groups?
- 2.7.9. List all references to laws, decrees, proclamations, etc. pertinent to the above questions.
- 2.8. *Public expenditures by major sectors (percentages)*
- |                               | 1960 | 1970 |
|-------------------------------|------|------|
| Development.....              |      |      |
| Housing.....                  |      |      |
| Education.....                |      |      |
| Health.....                   |      |      |
| Social security.....          |      |      |
| Roads and communications..... |      |      |
| Other services.....           |      |      |
| Defence.....                  |      |      |
- References and comments.



## ANNEX II

### STATUS OF INTERNATIONAL INSTRUMENTS RELATING TO ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND CULTURAL RIGHTS

(Ratifications and accessions as at 31 December 1972)

	Number of ratifications or accessions	Convention No.		Number of ratifications or accessions
<i>United Nations</i>				
International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1966.....	18	82.	Social Policy (Non-Metropolitan Territories), 1947.....	4
International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, 1965.....	71	87.	Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise, 1948.....	79
		88.	Employment Service, 1948.....	54
		89.	Night Work (Women) (Revised), 1948.....	52
		90.	Night Work of Young Persons (Industry) (Revised), 1948.....	36
		91.	Paid Vacations (Seafarers) (Revised), 1949....	18
		92.	Accommodation of Crews (Revised), 1949....	22
		94.	Labour Clauses (Public Contracts), 1949.....	45
		95.	Protection of Wages, 1949.....	68
		98.	Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining, 1949.....	92
		99.	Minimum Wage Fixing Machinery (Agriculture), 1951.....	40
		100.	Equal Remuneration, 1951.....	78
		101.	Holidays with Pay (Agriculture), 1952.....	38
		102.	Social Security (Minimum Standards), 1952...	22
		103.	Maternity Protection (Revised), 1952.....	14
		105.	Abolition of Forced Labour, 1957.....	90
		106.	Weekly Rest (Commerce and Offices), 1957...	35
		107.	Indigenous and Tribal Populations, 1957.....	25
		109.	Wages, Hours of Work and Manning (Sea) (Revised), 1958.....	8*
		110.	Plantations, 1958.....	9
		111.	Discrimination (Employment and Occupation), 1958.....	78
		112.	Minimum Age (Fishermen), 1959.....	29
		113.	Medical Examination (Fishermen), 1959.....	18
		117.	Social Policy (Basic Aims and Standards), 1962	23
		118.	Equality of Treatment (Social Security), 1962..	26
		120.	Hygiene (Commerce and Offices), 1964.....	33
		121.	Employment Injury Benefits, 1964.....	12
		122.	Employment Policy, 1964.....	48
		123.	Minimum Age (Underground Work), 1965....	32
		124.	Medical Examination of Young Persons (Underground Work), 1965.....	28
		126.	Accommodation of Crews (Fishermen), 1966..	8
		128.	Invalidity, Old-Age and Survivors' Benefits, 1967.....	7
		129.	Labour Inspection (Agriculture), 1969.....	10
		130.	Medical Care and Sickness Benefits, 1969....	4
		131.	Minimum Wage Fixing, 1970.....	8
		132.	Holidays with Pay (Revised), 1970.....	2*
		133.	Accommodation of Crews (Supplementary Provisions), 1970.....	3*
		134.	Prevention of Accidents (Seafarers), 1970....	2*
		135.	Workers' Representatives, 1971.....	7*
<i>International Labour Organisation*</i>				
Convention No.				
1. Hours of Work (Industry), 1919.....	35			
10. Minimum Age (Agriculture), 1921.....	41			
14. Weekly Rest (Industry), 1921.....	80			
15. Minimum Age (Trimmers and Stokers), 1921..	60			
16. Medical Examination of Young Persons (Sea), 1921.....	60			
20. Night Work (Bakeries), 1925.....	15			
24. Sickness Insurance (Industry), 1927.....	22			
25. Sickness Insurance (Agriculture), 1927.....	17			
26. Minimum Wage Fixing Machinery, 1928....	82			
27. Marking of Weight (Packages Transported by Vessels), 1929.....	50			
29. Forced Labour, 1930.....	106			
30. Hours of Work (Commerce and Offices), 1930.	23			
32. Protection Against Accidents (Dockers) (Revised), 1932.....	37			
43. Sheet-Glass Works, 1934.....	10			
44. Unemployment Provision, 1934.....	14			
46. Hours of Work (Coal Mines) (Revised), 1935..	2*			
47. Forty-Hour Week, 1935.....	5			
49. Reduction of Hours of Work (Glass-Bottle Works), 1935.....	7			
51. Reduction of Hours of Work (Public Works), 1936.....	—*			
52. Holidays with Pay, 1936.....	48			
55. Shipowners' Liability (Sick and Injured Seamen), 1936.....	13			
56. Sickness Insurance (Sea), 1936.....	11			
58. Minimum Age (Sea) (Revised), 1936.....	45			
59. Minimum Age (Industry) (Revised), 1937....	30			
60. Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment) (Revised), 1937.....	11			
61. Reduction of Hours of Work (Textiles), 1937..	—*			
62. Safety Provisions (Building), 1937.....	25			
67. Hours of Work and Rest Periods (Road Transport), 1939.....	4			
68. Food and Catering (Ships' Crews), 1946.....	16			
70. Social Security (Seafarers), 1946.....	6*			
71. Seafarers' Pensions, 1946.....	9			
77. Medical Examination of Young Persons (Industry), 1946.....	25			
78. Medical Examination of Young Persons (Non-Industrial Occupations), 1946.....	24			
79. Night Work of Young Persons (Non-Industrial Occupations), 1946.....	16			
81. Labour Inspection, 1947.....	78			
			<i>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</i>	
			Convention against Discrimination in Education, 1960	59
			Protocol instituting a Conciliation and Good Offices Commission to be responsible for seeking a settlement of any disputes which may arise between States Parties	

\* The indication (\*) against an ILO Convention means that it was not in force as at 31 December 1972.

	<i>Number of ratifications or accessions</i>		<i>Number of ratifications or accessions</i>
to the Convention against Discrimination in Education, 1962.....	20	Lisbon Agreement for the Protection of Appellations of Origin and their International Registration, 1958....	10
Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict and Regulations for the Execution of the said Convention, 1954.....	63	Locarno Agreement Establishing an International Classification for Industrial Designs, 1968.....	9
Protocol for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict, 1954.....	55	Patent Cooperation Treaty, 1970.....	4
Convention on the Means of Prohibiting and Preventing the Illicit Export, Import and Transfer of Ownership of Cultural Property, 1970.....	5	Strasbourg Agreement concerning the International Patent Classification, 1971.....	—
Universal Copyright Convention, 1962, Revised 1971..	—	Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works, 1886.....	62
Protocols to the Universal Copyright Convention, 1971	—	International Convention for the Protection of Performers, Producers of Phonograms and Broadcasting Organizations, Rome, 1961.....	13
<i>World Intellectual Property Organization</i>		Geneva Convention for the Protection of Producers of Phonograms against Unauthorized Duplication of their Phonograms, 1971.....	—
Paris Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property, 1883, Revised 1900, 1911, 1925, 1934, 1958 and 1967.....	80	<i>Council of Europe</i>	
Madrid Agreement for the Repression of False or Deceptive Indications of Source on Goods, 1891....	31	Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (European Convention on Human Rights), 1950.....	15
Madrid Agreement concerning the International Registration of Marks, 1891.....	23	European Agreement relating to Persons Participating in Proceedings of the European Commission and Court of Human Rights, 1969.....	6
The Hague Agreement concerning the International Deposit of Industrial Designs, 1925.....	15	European Social Charter, 1961.....	9
Nice Agreement concerning the International Classification of Goods and Services for the Purposes of the Registration of Marks, 1957.....	29	European Cultural Convention, 1954.....	21





---

### كيفية الحصول على منشورات الأمم المتحدة

يمكن الحصول على منشورات الأمم المتحدة من المكتبات ودور التوزيع في جميع أنحاء العالم. استعلم عنها من المكتبة التي تتعامل معها أو اكتب إلى : الأمم المتحدة، قسم البيع في نيويورك أو في جنيف.

#### 如何购取联合国出版物

联合国出版物在世界各地的书店和经售处均有发售。请向书店询问或写信到纽约或日内瓦的联合国销售组。

#### HOW TO OBTAIN UNITED NATIONS PUBLICATIONS

United Nations publications may be obtained from bookstores and distributors throughout the world. Consult your bookstore or write to: United Nations, Sales Section, New York or Geneva.

#### COMMENT SE PROCURER LES PUBLICATIONS DES NATIONS UNIES

Les publications des Nations Unies sont en vente dans les librairies et les agences dépositaires du monde entier. Informez-vous auprès de votre libraire ou adressez-vous à : Nations Unies, Section des ventes, New York ou Genève.

#### КАК ПОЛУЧИТЬ ИЗДАНИЯ ОРГАНИЗАЦИИ ОБЪЕДИНЕННЫХ НАЦИЙ

Издания Организации Объединенных Наций можно купить в книжных магазинах и агентствах во всех районах мира. Наводите справки об изданиях в вашем книжном магазине или пишите по адресу: Организация Объединенных Наций, Секция по продаже изданий, Нью-Йорк или Женева.

#### COMO CONSEGUIR PUBLICACIONES DE LAS NACIONES UNIDAS

Las publicaciones de las Naciones Unidas están en venta en librerías y casas distribuidoras en todas partes del mundo. Consulte a su librero o diríjase a: Naciones Unidas, Sección de Ventas, Nueva York o Ginebra.

---