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COMMITTEE ON INFORMATION FROM NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES

Fifth Session

SUMMARY RECORD OF THE NINETY-FOURTH MEETING

Held at Headquarters, New York,  
on Thursday, 26 August 1954, at 2.15 p.m.

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PRESENT:

<u>Chairman:</u>	Mr. KHALIDY	(Iraq)
<u>Members:</u>	Mr. PETHERBRIDGE	Australia
	Mr. FRAZAO	Brazil
	Mr. HLA AUNG	Burma
	Mr. LIU	China
	Mr. BRUN	Denmark
	Mr. SVEISTRUP	
	Mr. APUNTE	Ecuador
	Mr. HURE	France
	Mr. MOURRUAU	
	Mr. ARENALES	Guatemala
	Mr. SINGH	India
	Miss ROESAD	Indonesia
	Mr. SPITS	Netherlands
	Mr. GRADER	
	Mr. SCOTT	New Zealand
	Mr. GIDDEN	United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
	Mr. LEYDEN	
	Mr. GERIG	United States of America
	Mr. BORNN	

Representatives of specialized agencies:

Mr. MATHEWS	International Labour Organisation
Mr. VOGEL	Food and Agriculture Organization
Mr. ARNALDO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
Dr. COIGNY	World Health Organization
<u>Secretariat:</u>	Assistant Secretary-General
Mr. HOO	Secretary of the Committee
Mr. BENSON	

ECONOMIC CONDITIONS IN NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES: (a) GENERAL DEVELOPMENTS  
CONSIDERED IN THE LIGHT OF THE 1951 REPORT ON ECONOMIC CONDITIONS AND DEVELOPMENT  
IN NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES (A/1836; A/AC/L.156, L.156/Add.1-4, L.159,  
L.161) (continued)

Mr. FRAZAO (Brazil) said that the remarks he was about to make did not go beyond the terms of reference of the Committee, whose members should honestly express their opinions and endeavour to co-operate with the Administering Powers in seeking a solution of the problems which were delaying the attainment of full self-government by the Non-Self-Governing Territories. While not deeming it necessary to discuss the question of the constitutionality of the Committee, he observed that the main point was that the machinery necessary for the implementation of Chapter XI of the Charter existed. All but one of the Administering Powers were, by their presence, fulfilling the wishes of the majority of the General Assembly. As for the fact that the Committee was obliged to limit itself to work of a technical nature, he agreed that it would be easier and more practical to proceed immediately to an examination of the political situation in the Territories. Nevertheless the improvement of the economic, social and cultural conditions of the peoples also helped to prepare them for self-government and made use of the means provided by the Charter to restore to the peoples the right of self-determination denied them by colonialism. In practice, therefore, the technical nature of the Committee did not restrict the scope of its work. In fact, although the Charter had not pronounced upon the legality of colonial conquests and although they were not openly contested at San Francisco, it was nonetheless true that the Administering Powers had not only rights but also duties towards the inhabitants of the Territories. Furthermore, the progress achieved by the Charter as compared with the Covenant of the League of Nations in the solution of the colonial problem was immense: colonial subordination was now no more than a transitory condition. Under the terms of Articles 73 and 74, the colonial peoples were helped and encouraged to obtain self-government. Chapter XI of the Charter went still further: it placed the colonial question within the framework of the legal system of the international community. On the one hand it admitted that the

welfare of the inhabitants of the Non-Self-Governing Territories was in the long run inseparable from their attainment of political independence; on the other it declared that the promotion of prosperity among those peoples was one of the means of ensuring international peace and security.

The Committee's task was to consider the economic progress made in the Territories between 1951 and 1953 on the basis of the 1951 report, and to see how far the principles laid down and the recommendations made in that report had been followed. It was impeded in its task, however, because, for lack of sufficient data, it was unable to form a clear idea of the social, economic and cultural conditions in those Territories or of the real intentions of the Administering Power, and consequently could not make an effective appraisal of the economic tendencies in the Territories and to assess the value of development plans. As the 1951 report had pointed out, the economic policy in the Territories had to reconcile three different sets of interests: those of the peoples themselves, which required the raising of their standards of living, those of the Administering Powers, who were watchful of the legitimate interests of the metropolitan countries, and the broader interests of world economy as a whole. The purpose of an economic development plan was to bring the economy of an under-developed country out of its stagnation by altering its structure and by bringing into being economic factors to stimulate a rise of per capita income. To be consonant with the democratic ideal, economic policy must tend towards a fair distribution of the national income. Nevertheless as document A/AC.35/L.156/Add.4 showed, and as his delegation fully admitted, the execution of development plans was made difficult by the very nature of local conditions. But those difficulties were precisely what characterized the state of under-development of the Territories and they required to be eliminated by means of a balanced programme and not by measures directed towards isolated sectors of production. It could be seen from documents A/AC.35/L.156/Add.1 to 3 that the development plans had benefited from large financial contributions. Nevertheless, the nature of the benefits could be ascertained only by dynamic analysis, and it could not be concluded that all the interests of the local economies were fully satisfied or that the risk of creating conditions of unsatisfactory competition had been avoided. It was to be noted that recent investments of capital in certain of the Territories had been prompted by a desire to profit from the exceptional demand for primary products; the real

object of investment should be the improvement of the Territory's economy, and not high returns. Nevertheless he recognized that certain non-speculative investments had been made in sectors such as those of energy and transport.

He had some doubts as to whether the economic policy adopted in the Territories took sufficient account of the needs of world economic stability. Further, with regard to industrial possibilities in the Territories, he thought that the 1951 report had somewhat under-estimated the possible influence of development plans. Economic progress was assuredly not dependent on the equal participation of both the industrial and the agricultural sectors in the formation of the national income, but to assume, as did the 1951 report, that agriculture would remain the basis of Territories' economies, to adopt a kind of agricultural fatalism with regard to the majority of the peoples of the Non-Self-Governing Territories, might obscure the fact that it is sometimes necessary to redress an unfavourable balance.

It was clear from the documents prepared by the Secretariat that the economic development plans had had considerable repercussions on the Territories' economies. However, the Committee lacked adequate information on which to base a real assessment of the progress made by those economies. Although the Administering Powers had replied to the main points of the standard form approved by the Committee in 1951, yet, as a result of the incompleteness of the questionnaire, the replies did not make it possible to judge how far the recommendations made in the 1951 report had been put into practice. It was therefore impossible to tell whether the development plans had been used to favour the import and export markets of the metropolitan country at the expense of the economy of the Territory, or how far the two economies benefited from each other, or what was the degree of irreversibility in the relations between the dominant and the dominated economy. To what degree did induced savings depart from reinvestment in the Territory, either on account of its natural propensity to import or on account of legislation, particularly fiscal legislation? What is the proportion of participation in the national income of the indigenous and non-indigenous factors of production? What percentage of total savings was represented by indigenous savings, or what was the native per capita income or the level of savings? None of those questions could be answered from the documentation in its present state. Furthermore, the Administering Powers seemed at times to be led by mercantilist considerations rather than by consideration of the need to increase per capita income, which was

the main economic goal to be attained in the Territories. There were many dangers in trying first and foremost to offset deficits in the balance of payments.

Turning to the fiscal sphere, he noted that in many Territories there existed a customs policy which discriminated in favour of the metropolitan country. In addition, a policy of exchange control often led a Territory to purchase in the metropolitan market, thus serving the interests of a given monetary area. It was a matter of doubt whether such a policy was in accord with the principles of international agreements and in particular with the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT). Such policies might well harm the Territories by preventing them from benefiting from international competition, with a resulting rise in costs of production which might affect the execution of the development plans. With regard to taxation, he said that the fiscal system should be subordinate to economic development and that efforts should be made to establish a more equitable distribution of the burden of taxation. Otherwise a privileged class would develop which would become rich at the expense of a wretched proletariat. He also noted that export duties very often constituted a Territory's main source of income. The results might be catastrophic if there were a sudden drop in prices paid for the products concerned on the world market. For that reason the Committee ought to recommend that a study should be undertaken for the purpose of diversifying the forms of taxation.

He proposed that in accordance with resolution 551 (VI), the Sub-Committee should be requested to consider the advisability of revising the standard form in the ways he had indicated. The Sub-Committee might also define the general objectives of the economic development of the Territories.

In conclusion, he regretted the absence from the Committee of the representative of Belgium and hoped that the spirit of collaboration prevailing the Committee would finally persuade the Belgium Government to reconsider its earlier decision.

Mr. MOURRUAU (France), replying to certain comments about the so-called expropriation of lands for the benefit of non-indigenous inhabitants, pointed out that in Morocco, for example, the area of land owned by non-Moroccans did not exceed one million hectares or 6 per cent of arable territory. During the last fifteen years no land had been allotted to colonists. Not only had the principle of the inalienability of collective land and of estate belonging to a religious foundation (Habous) been strictly adhered to but new provisions protected the fellah's private property.

The sale of land to persons not belonging to tribes occupying territories which were to be subjected to intensive development was forbidden. Moreover, in 1945 an inalienable family title had been established by guaranteeing to the fellah the ownership of a plot of land of an average area of seven and one-half hectares. Finally, a modern system of land registration had been introduced into Morocco for the purpose of ensuring stable ownership. Although optional, the system had enjoyed the fellah's increasing support; at present, the area registered had reached about three million hectares and 85 per cent of new applications came from Morocco owners. As for the quality of the land, whether in Morocco or in any other territory, it was extremely flattering to European colonists to allege that they could select good land infallably. In actual fact they had settled where they could and if they had prospered it was because their land had long been cultivated according to suitable modern methods. In that connexion, the official agricultural services demonstrated to Africans how they could obtain much greater yields if they used certain methods. Such publicity did have some effect. However, for a combination of technical, economic, psychological and financial reasons, the complete mechanization of Moroccan agriculture could not yet be contemplated. Furthermore, in order to ensure that the fellah's economic and social development was as rapid as possible, the Government had sought to alleviate farm taxes as much as it could; in 1952 such taxes represented only 8 per cent of the Moroccan budget, i.e. 4,250 million francs out of a total of 53,000 million as compared with 29 per cent in 1920.

If his delegation had not submitted information on the distribution among the various races, of the wealth derived from economic development it was because such racial discrimination, viewed as a basic criterion for the appraisal of incomes, was completely foreign to the French way of thinking and to the ideas of the elected members of the local Assembly. Moreover, before such information could be submitted a very careful and exact definition of the statistical methods to be used would be necessary. All the operations of conversion, transportation and marketing involved both groups of individuals and for research into the question to be successful, statistical machinery far superior to any at present possessed by French dependent territories would be required. The economic problems arising between the metropolitan country and the territories concerned the people as a whole, whatever their origins.

Certain representatives had advocated freedom and even economic independence for the territories. However, the often arduous discussions between the Minister for Overseas France and the metropolitan ministers were concerned, not with economic independence but, on the contrary, with the economic protection which the territories sought from the metropolitan countries in the form of coverage for budgetary deficits, price guarantees to producers, guaranteed markets for exports, increased technical assistance and larger credits for capital equipment. Moreover, did not the highly industrialized nations, such as those of Western Europe, themselves feel it necessary to relinquish their economic sovereignty in successive sectors and to adopt a policy of mutual dependence in order to cope with the problems created by the world situation?

Mr. LEYDEN (United Kingdom) said that the economies of Non-Self-Governing Territories were fundamentally agricultural and that their future depended on increased agricultural production. The distinguished economist, Arthur Lewis, had said in his report on the prospects of industrialization in the Gold Coast: "The secret of industrialization is a rapidly progressing agriculture and more particularly, since food production is the major part of agriculture, the number one priority in any programme of development is measures which increase food production per head..." The over-riding objective of United Kingdom economic policy in the dependent territories was a sustained improvement in the standard of living of the inhabitants. The United Kingdom Government, conscious of the need stressed by the representative of India, to insure territories against the risk involved in dependence upon a single crop or very few crops, was anxious to encourage as far as possible the development of alternative export crops and also the increased production of subsistence crops in order to avoid local food shortages. The Administration's guiding principle was that each territory should produce the foodstuffs it required for its own use and much had been achieved in that respect. The measures taken for the development of rice production provided a good illustration. Irrigation schemes and the cultivation of new types of paddy had resulted in the production of 441,000 tons of rice in Malaya in 1953, or 30 per cent more than in the preceding year. The United Kingdom Government had made available up to three million pounds for the investigation of long-term schemes for increasing peasant



cultivation of rice. Pilot schemes had been started in several areas with a view to introducing mechanized rice production. In Jamaica, the Agricultural Development Corporation had made loans to farmers which were expected to double rice production and increase the area sown from 4,000 to 14,000 acres.

The Indian representative had mentioned three ways of improving agricultural productivity.

The first was to increase the area of land under cultivation and for that purpose the Government had adopted measures for irrigation, reclamation and pest control. There were a few cases of privately-owned land which was not occupied, particularly in Nyasaland. There, the Government was seeking to secure unoccupied land which was suitable for development.

The second method suggested by the representative of India was the increased use of fertilizers and insecticides. With the help of local administrations and co-operatives, African farmers, particularly in Nigeria, Basutoland and the Gold Coast were making increasing use of phosphatic fertilizers.

With regard to the third method, mechanization, producer-co-operative societies owning their own tractors and implements were now being set up. They were based on the idea of community work, which was prevalent among many African tribes and often found in other spheres of social activity. However, despite its advantages, mechanization raised several problems which local authorities were striving to solve in co-operation with metropolitan bodies.

While it was necessary to build up soil fertility by means of chemical or natural fertilizers, the fundamental need was to conserve fertility by checking soil erosion. Document A/AC.35/L.160 described the high priority work being done in almost all United Kingdom territories. Several methods had been employed, including the development of alternative crops, contour cultivation, the planting of tree belts, the development of new forests and the protection of existing ones, the construction of dams, etc. The Gold Coast development plan involved a grant of 900,000 pounds (of which one-half was to be provided by the United Kingdom taxpayer) for the implementation of the soil conservation programme. However, the most important task was to ensure the co-operation of the indigenous population and to acquaint it with the methods employed.

Remarkable results had been attained in the Kigezi district of Southwest Uganda. Special intensive courses had been organized by the Local District Officer and the Agriculture Officer in co-operation with the farmers of the area. They had been attended by chiefs, teachers, village headmen and indigenous farmers and had been followed up by extensive propaganda in the villages, thus enabling the population to improve methods of cultivation and cattle-raising.

During the same period, 15,000 people from the most thickly populated area (the density of population amounting in places to 718 inhabitants per square mile) had been permanently resettled in the north of the district. The cost of that operation had been 18,000 pounds or 24 shillings per head of population.

Turning to research work in agriculture, he described the training of agricultural experts called upon to supply technical assistance, which, in one form or another, seemed to have become the main function of the British Colonial Office.

He cited several examples of the considerable efforts that had been made in the Non-Self-Governing Territories with regard to cattle breeding to improve the quality of the cattle and the standards of animal husbandry.

The Administration had been equally active in plant breeding and had succeeded in developing new disease-resistant species.

Although the Administration had concentrated on the development of subsistence crops, it had not neglected the production of cash crops and export crops on which the prosperity of the African farmer would continue to be based. In Kenya, for instance, the number of African coffee-growers had increased from 8,208 in 1951 to 11,864 in 1952 and 15,019 in 1953. The yield of their plantations had doubled between 1952 and 1953. There had also been a considerable increase in the production of cotton, cereals, pineapples, hides and other products. Among the new agricultural industries that of pyrethrum was noteworthy; it had been practically unknown in 1946 and its sales had increased from £8,000 to £13,000 between 1951 and 1952.

A good deal had been rightly said about the importance of an equitable and efficient distribution of land in those territories. It must be the constant concern of the Government to ensure that the land was not squandered by its occupiers. The immigrants, who in many cases had occupied their land longer than the so-called indigenous inhabitants, had contributed to a very large extent to the economic development of those territories. In almost all British territories in Africa alienation of land could take place only under strict Government control. The policy followed at the beginning of colonization had been that settlers should occupy only land which was uninhabited; that was what had occurred in most cases. However, the large increase in population during the past two generations had raised serious problems about the use of the land. In East Africa, a Royal Commission instructed to make recommendations in that connexion was studying those problems with an eye to social, agricultural and industrial action.

Meanwhile, the Administration had been paying close attention to the solution of the essential problem of the agricultural development of Africa - the way in which modern methods of agriculture designed to increase productivity could be combined with traditional systems of land tenure. Various factors prevented the most efficient use of the land. First, there was fragmentation of holdings, which was an obstacle to mechanized agriculture, and the occupiers' wish to extract maximum yields without thought for future fertility. Another example was the fact that, in accordance with certain tribal customs, the farmer had no rights of use over land which he did not occupy, which was the more regrettable inasmuch as rotation of crops was at present regarded in many areas of Africa as one of the best methods of cultivating the land. The system of communal grazing rights in force among almost all the tribes gave the farmer almost no incentive to improve the pastures. Various steps had been taken both by the Administration and by the indigenous authorities to counteract those drawbacks. Finally, one of the disadvantages of parcelling out the land was that it prevented the improvement of productivity, since the efficient producer controlled the same resources as the inefficient. Obviously, large farms made for greater agricultural efficiency. Some were to be found in certain parts of

Africa, in Buganda, for instance, where some indigenous farmers cultivated up to 150 acres of land and employed farm labourers. A solution more in accord with African social ideas, however, was group farming, which might cover several forms of association, ranging from the co-operative society to fully collectivized enterprises. The most noteworthy and best known was that at Gezira in the Sudan.

Turning to another aspect of agricultural policy to which the Indian representative had drawn attention, he observed that agricultural production could not be increased unless its marketing was organized in such a way as to ensure to the producer an equitable share of the profits. In most cases, the producers had associated in marketing bodies such as the Western Pacific Copra Board, composed almost entirely of representatives of the local producers, the purpose of which was to place producers in a stronger position as against overseas buyers and to improve the quality of the product. A common feature of the Market Boards in Africa was their statutory monopoly over exports, which had the overriding justification of the necessity to ensure a high standard of quality in the products exported. The Boards also had the obligation to buy all produce of exportable quality which producers offered. Most of the members were non-official; they represented the producers rather than trading enterprises. Obviously, to decide whether the policy followed by each Market Board had been wholly wise was difficult. It remained true, however, that they had succeeded in ironing out seasonal fluctuations in the prices paid to the producers. Long-term stabilization was certainly desirable, not only in the interest of the producers, but also in that of the territory as a whole. Although an almost uninterrupted rise in prices had taken place since the Boards had been set up - which accounted for their large surpluses - the upward movement seemed to be coming to an end in the case of cotton and copra and its derivatives. The success of price stabilization efforts could not be judged until a general recession occurred again. The International Bank had already estimated that if a crisis similar to that of 1930 occurred, the reserves accumulated by the Nigerian Oil Palm Produce Board would be only just enough to keep producer prices stable. He would say in conclusion that policies

in those matters were by no means inflexible. The Government was constantly concerned to try to devise methods which would make the price paid to the producers responsive to trends in world prices without sacrificing their stability. As other members of the Committee had already pointed out, those problems were common to all territories and nations whose economy depended to a large extent upon the export of raw materials. He would accordingly welcome any suggestions which other members of the Committee might make.

Referring to a remark by the Iraqi representative, he explained that the market boards, the organization of which varied from territory to territory, were in most cases run by the local population. The outstanding example was that of the Nigerian Regional Production Development Boards, which had been set up in each of the three Regions of Nigeria by Ordinance in 1949. Those Market Boards were corporate bodies with a predominantly African membership. They derived their funds from grants made by one or more of the Nigerian Marketing Boards. Their function was to formulate and execute schemes for the development of the producing industries. Each Board had the power to acquire and hold land and to enter into partnership with the Government or any other duly constituted authority. As Nigeria's resources were primarily agricultural, each Board was concentrating on schemes designed to improve methods of cultivation in the area and thus to develop hitherto unproductive land. The yields thus obtained were used both for local consumption and for export. In each region co-operative societies had been established under the guidance of the Nigerian Co-operative Department.

Reviewing the activities of the market boards in Nigeria, he said the Northern RPDB had concentrated on agricultural products, whereas the Eastern RPDB had paid most attention to oil mills and to the establishment of large-scale plantations for cashew nuts, oil palm, coffee, coconuts and rubber. The rubber project was the only one in which recourse had been had to foreign investment.

In addition, the boards had engaged in operations not usually considered the responsibility of development agencies. Between 1949 and 1954 they had expended £850,000 on road construction. The Western Board had financed operations of the cocoa division of the regional agricultural department, and the Eastern Board had made grants to the rice mills established by the department. The Rural and Industrial Development Authority in Malaya was another example of a board with mixed functions that were not strictly economic. The Authority, which had been working for four years with great success, emphasized self-help in the planning and execution of all projects. The object was to teach people to stand on their own feet, economically and socially. A variety of projects had been financed by the Authority, including loans for the erection of rubber factories, vocational training, the development of small industries and handicrafts, the establishment of recreation centres, etc. At the end of March there had been 39 local organizations of that type in the United Kingdom Territories.

The Administration had tried to attain the objectives of the policy set forth in the Committee's report for 1951. The Committee could only be helpful to the people working in the field to achieve those objectives if it showed that it had taken into account some of the practical problems that confronted them every day and gave them a little credit for the very great achievements their work had already produced. By "people working in the field" he meant not only European civil servants but also the far greater number of Africans, West Indians, Malays, Chinese, Indians and people of all races who gave up so much of their time and energy to work in district committees and legislative assemblies on the problems of agricultural development.

The meeting was suspended at 4.25 p.m. and resumed at 4.55 p.m.

Mr. GRADER (Netherlands) pointed out that the economy of Netherlands New Guinea was primarily agricultural and that it was therefore of great importance to determine the type of soil available. Although, also as stated in paragraph 81 of document A/AC.75/L.158, only one-sixtieth of the Territory's 41.6 million hectares had been explored, it was known that a vast area was mountainous and swampy and unsuitable for any crops. However, thanks to the development of aerial photography, the authorities had been able to survey and study the agricultural value of the land.

The surveys showed that the general fertility of the land was not high. The indigenous inhabitants cultivated burned-over land, which exhausted the soil and led to the destruction of the humus by sun and rain when the inhabitants abandoned the land and moved to another plot. The introduction of a system of permanent cultivation would also involve danger since, as the agricultural experts of the 1953 Visiting Mission had pointed out, the soil was leached by the rains and its fertility could only be maintained through the use of fertilizers. However, the Territory had no cattle other than pigs and manure was therefore unobtainable. In addition the indigenous inhabitants had no animals to use for draught work or as beasts of burden.

In the circumstances, the first objective must be to improve methods of agriculture on the burned-over land, introduce new crops and teach the people rudimentary methods of erosion control. The best method was to provide the indigenous inhabitants with examples in the form of pilot projects; agriculture training courses were being set up in suitable areas and young people were going to be taught how to use modern methods to till a plot that would be allotted to them and of which they would later become the owners. In the past graduates of then existing courses returned to their original communities, but proved unable to overcome the influence of age-old traditions still prevailing there. For that reason, this new resettlement scheme had been launched.

On the basis of those experiments, the Administration would later be able to draw up a general programme. The scope of the programme currently being undertaken in Netherlands New Guinea explained why the percentage of expenditure devoted to the training of farmers in relation to the total budget for agriculture was higher than in the other Non-Self-Governing Territories(A/AC.35/L.166, Table II and paragraph 14).

In view of the fact that steps were now being taken to improve the situation it might be asked why action had not been taken earlier. Health conditions had been the obstacle. Malaria was prevalent throughout the Territory and it was only recently that it had been possible to control it effectively. The Administration could now undertake development programmes which had hitherto been impossible.

Mr. SINGH (India) said that the economies of the Non-Self-Governing Territories were still agricultural and in many cases offered only an extremely low standard of living for the indigenous inhabitants. Development plans should concentrate on raising the standard of living. One possible measure would be to develop industrialization which had already been tried in some areas and would reduce the number of people dependent on agriculture. The Administering Authorities should also encourage people to move from the countryside to urban centres. In that connexion, he pointed out the contrast between Belgian policy in the Congo, where the indigenous inhabitants were encouraged to build their own houses and to become house owners, and the policy in Southern Rhodesia. The Administering Authorities should be asked to encourage migration of people to the cities and to provide them with facilities for re-settlement.

He realized that the Administering Authorities had tried to raise the standard of living of pastoral nomadic tribes, whose small flocks provided them with only a very small income, by controlling their movements and settling them in villages. Much still remained to be done in that field, however.



With respect to the question of land distribution, he thought that document A/AC.35/L.158 did not furnish information on several very important subjects, such as the area of land under cultivation and the amount of land which could be brought under cultivation. It also failed to indicate average area and yield of land held by the indigenous inhabitants and of land held by colonials. Without that information it was impossible to judge whether the distribution of land was equitable or not.

His delegation was opposed to the reservation of land for different racial groups. He hoped, for instance, that in Kenya where there were still about a million acres of land which could be developed, the indigenous inhabitants would receive part of the land reserved for Europeans and not yet distributed. He also hoped it would be ensured that when land was given to co-operatives and companies at least the majority of the shares was owned by the indigenous inhabitants so that they would get the benefit of the land that belonged to them.

With respect to soil conservation, it was evident from document A/AC.35/L.160 that some Administering Authorities recognized the necessity of taking measures to prevent soil erosion and exhaustion. However, the funds and staff available were insufficient. He was glad to note that sound schemes were being carried out in certain territories such as French West Africa and Uganda and that soil conservation and forestry conferences were being held in Africa. He urged Administering Authorities which had not already done so to take suitable measures to conserve the soil and increase its fertility.

The co-operative movement was a relatively recent development in the Non-Self-Governing Territories (A/AC.35/L.162). He noted with satisfaction that France and the United Kingdom were taking a great interest in the various types of co-operatives in their territories. He recommended that the Administering Authorities generally should pay special attention to the question and appoint officials to study ways of adapting the system to the communities concerned and to help them to set up co-operatives.

He had read with interest the FAO reports entitled "Adequacy of Government Service to Agriculture" (A/AC.35/L.166) and "The relative progress of production for local consumption and export in the Non-Self-Governing Territories " (A/AC.35/L.169). He hoped that the Administering Authorities would take the necessary action to carry out the recommendations made in the reports.

With regard to the first report, he expressed concern at the low percentage of total expenditure devoted to agriculture although agriculture was the basis of the economy of the Territories. He recommended that the Administering Authorities should increase appropriations for agriculture and institute advisory systems and extension services.

As regards the second report, he drew the Administering Authorities' attention to the need to ensure the balanced development of production for export and for local needs.

In the light of the report, he once again urged the Administering Authorities to give further consideration to the question of produce marketing boards which would stimulate production by paying producers a reasonable price. The possibility of introducing a direct tax on a sliding scale should also be considered.

As marketing facilities were predominantly for export crops, the organization of marketing for internal consumption was much less advanced. The Administering Authorities should therefore promote the building of warehouses, roads, and transport systems and give their backing to farm credit institutions. In view of the importance of local processing for the Non-Self-Governing Territories, he wished to know the present scope of the industries concerned and the outlook for the future, and recommended that a planned effort should be made to accelerate their development.

Turning to the question of prices, he noted that some Territories had not been benefited as much as others by the rise in world prices. It was only natural that the Administering Authorities should assist the economy of the Territories by providing them with assured markets; they would in return get an assured source of supply. But when Administering Authorities entered into contracts with the Non-Self-Governing Territories, they should pay for the commodities a price which bore a close relation to the world price. Whenever there was great disparity between the two prices then new agreements should be arrived at.

Mr. MOURRUAU (France) said that France attached great importance to the development of agriculture in its overseas Territories and had taken decisive steps to that end. Its efforts were, however, limited by certain basic physical and human factors.

In the African savannas, the land tended to degenerate into desert as a result of erosion and laterization. The soils were fragile as well as poor. Moreover, the growing of crops on burnt forest land and the grazing methods of the indigenous inhabitants had devastating effects. The inhabitants found it difficult to adapt themselves to modern working methods. Religious obligations and traditions were an obstacle and their diets did not provide them with a sufficient number of calories.

In order to improve the economic position of the Territories, French experts had first concentrated on soil conservation. It was necessary to eliminate indigenous farming methods and grazing practices which resulted in or contributed to the formation of savannas, in particular the practice of burning the bush. A permanent soil conservation commission had been set up in the Ministry of Overseas France, and soil conservation offices had been established in each group of Territories. The problem was, however, not confined to the French Territories, and the states concerned had decided to join forces to conserve the soil and safeguard their forest resources.

He described the various aspects of his Government's water policy. Additional water holes had been provided, particularly in the cattle-raising regions. In order to expand crop production, irrigation was being developed in the form of distribution works, as in North Africa, or of dams of various sizes. In other cases, land had had to be drained. For instance, the Lake Alaotra drainage scheme in Madagascar would make an additional 30,000 hectares available for rice cultivation in three years' time.

With regard to the improvement of cultivation methods, he noted that in black Africa the problem was more complex than in North Africa. The Africans had first to be persuaded that it was possible to improve their crops. Research centres and pilot stations were working on the improvement, selection and acclimatization of different strains of plants and animals. Their work was supplemented by various major research institutions in France.

Many new crops had been introduced in the Non-Self-Governing Territories and existing crops had been greatly developed; vine and olive in North Africa, rice in black Africa, Madagascar, Sudan and Senegal. Groundnuts had become the basic crop in Senegal, and coffee was a leading crop in Madagascar, Dahomey and the Ivory Coast. Cacao, entirely cultivated by Africans, was one of the principal resources of the Ivory Coast, and banana was now Guinea's main export item. Ubangi-Shari and Chad now derived considerable income from their cotton production.

However rewarding those results might be, the desired economic balance had still not been attained. The public authorities must give the indigenous farmer technical and material assistance; the question was how that assistance should be given.

In Tunis and Morocco, assistance to farmers was provided by relatively old established provident societies and co-operatives. In Tunis it was provided by seed co-operatives, which had a monopoly of the distribution of hard wheat seed, and by power agriculture co-operatives. In 1954 farming modernization sections had been set up to supply the various regions with economic and social facilities.

In black Africa co-operative societies (provident societies) had formed the link between public action and the individual farmer. Set up by the Administration they were both compulsory and publicly administered. In order to keep pace with the changing outlook and to ensure the indigenous inhabitants' participation in the administration of those institutions, the French Government had decided to replace some of the older staff by younger officials.

In black Africa, France was endeavouring to carry out three operations simultaneously, to overhaul the co-operative movement, to transform the indigenous provident societies into mutual rural assistance societies which would be run entirely by an elected executive board on which the indigenous inhabitants would be represented; and to reform the agricultural credit institutions with a view to making credit available to persons offering satisfactory guarantees of character.

African crops were subject to price fluctuations against which the indigenous farmers should be protected. Various forms of assistance had been devised to that effect, such as stabilization funds, protective tariffs in France, price supports and guaranteed markets. Those were however only make-shift arrangements and agriculture would develop in the full meaning of the word only when farmers were able to produce at world prices. Improved output and quality were particularly important in that regard.

It was also necessary to expand existing markets and to create local industries based on agriculture. So far, only sisal and wood had been affected by falling prices but the spectacular increase of coffee and cocoa production raised a marketing problem which the French Government was currently endeavouring to solve.

The meeting rose at 6 p.m.