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## PREFACE

This monograph has been prepared by the Economic Commission for Africa as the fifth in the monograph series, "Social Welfare Services in Africa". This series, which was begun in 1964 with publication of *Directory of Regional Social Welfare Activities*, is being undertaken in response to Economic Commission for Africa resolution 88 (V) of 1963 in which the Commission, among other things, requested the Executive Secretary "to undertake studies of the planning and financing, priorities and equitable distribution of social services ..." in the region. The present monograph, *Family, Child and Youth Welfare Services in Africa*, has also been undertaken in relation to Economic and Social Council resolution 1086G (XXXIX) which requests the "preparation of monographs on the development and operation of welfare services for families, children and youth in selected countries at different stages of development, in order to provide more specific information on a basis for national social welfare planning, including appropriate priorities and allocation of resources", etc. In connexion with this and other resolutions, the United Nations Secretariat prepared a report on Family, Child and Youth Welfare Services in 1965 which may be read in conjunction with the present study.

This study is based upon material supplied by governments in response to a questionnaire sent to member countries of the Economic Commission for Africa in the latter part of 1964 as well as upon material collected by a member of the secretariat of the Commission in the East African sub-region. Material available to the secretariat from other sources has also been utilized.

Much assistance has also been received from the following agencies: WHO, UNICEF, ILO and UNESCO. They have supplied much material which has been utilized in this study and have commented upon the drafts of this monograph.

## INTRODUCTION

The family is the basis of all human societies. As such it has been expected to assume certain common and broadly conceived social, economic and psychological obligations towards its members. Apart from the basic needs of food, clothing and shelter, the family which unlike the “nuclear” type (consisting of father, mother and children) but more so like the “consanguinal” type (made up mostly of blood relations sometimes far removed and not always including the father and the mother together in the unit) has been responsible for inculcating in its younger members the acceptable standards and values—moral and spiritual—and, in this way, has ensured their being transmitted from one generation to another, as the stabilizing basis of the culture of the society. Added to the above are the personal and economic security which the family offers to its members. In Africa where development has not advanced to a highly technical stage, many of these functions are, to some extent, effectively being carried out in the familial framework.

This is a period of rapid change for African societies generally. In the readjustment processes, the family has become most vulnerable in terms of its ability to perform its functions adequately or satisfactorily. Some of the modification or transformation which has been taking place in the traditional family structure, role and functioning of the African family, particularly in the urban centres, have been occasioned by more or less deliberate actions on the part of colonial administrators and missionary agents, “who (sought) to influence their development towards conformity with standards regarded as desirable in the Western world...”<sup>1</sup>

Many changes that have taken place have been occasioned by the sheer force of contemporary economic and technological development. The family, thus caught in the stresses and strains of the political, social and modern economic situation, is no longer able to set any significant pace or determine the standards for its members. The illiterate parent, unaccustomed to the intricacies of the new shape of things, looks to the school teacher to cultivate and control both the physical and emotional needs of the child. The former authority of the tribal chief has now shifted to an impersonal government authority; and the strong personal loyalty to and identification with the tribal “stool”, “skin” or chieftaincy, now rests uncertainly on the distant central government or the political party head. It is also easy to see or imagine the disruptive influence that a foreign educational system which has not been based primarily on the people’s own traditional and social philosophy and ideals could have on family and social life.

Today, the schools have virtually taken over the socializing functions of the family, markets and stores are carrying on the economic functions; the police have taken over general protection of the citizenry and other institutions are actively engaged in tasks and activities once considered to fall exclusively within the domain of the traditional African family system.

At school, the children enter into a world different from that of their parents. They are pre-disposed to peer group standards and freedom of choice which characterize Western European education; and they grapple with abstract situations of knowledge and skills which are beyond the comprehension

<sup>1</sup> International African Institute, *Survey of African Marriage and Family Life* (London : Oxford University Press) p.1

of the older generations. Back at home their parents, at a loss as to what to expect, still insist on the children's "behaving"—meaning, of course, "be obedient to your elders and follow their examples", in the only fashion they understand.

Choices within the traditional and the contemporary culture are far from similar and, in many respects, no longer certain. The strict demand made on the child (particularly if it is a girl) in an African home—her active participation in the domestic chores, the rigid rules about recreation, use of money, observance of cultural and religious rites—often no longer have the same social backing. The child himself, by acquiring new systems of values and the magic key of "Western" education, finds himself and his peers somewhat cut away from the spirit and personal influence of the home and his family elders, with a great deal more freedom than can be socially controlled by them.

The role of parents towards children becomes even more uncertain and confused than the children's own role towards parents. In addition to the gulf between the generations, a gulf between husband and wife as a result of the lag in the development of women's education may also indirectly be opened. Furthermore, as a result of the African education system not keeping duly in step with the opportunities provided by the labour market, the child leaves school only to discover to the bitter frustration of himself and his parents (who have struggled to keep him at school) that no openings exist in the sort of occupations he desires and for which he may or may not be already qualified.

#### **Major factors affecting the family**

Within the wide range of social change in Africa, certain features stand out prominently. First, there is the changing emphasis from the importance of the group to that of the individual; second, the changing character of the family; third, the change in the character of leadership; and, lastly, the adjustments and conflicts in the areas of race and ethnic relations<sup>2</sup>.

#### **Political factors**

From 1960 to 1966, no less than thirty former colonial territories in Africa have attained independence. Political independence, in most cases, has come about as a result of national revolutionary action, varying in duration and intensity from one country to another. For example, during the Mau-Mau revolt in Kenya (1952 - 1956), whole communities of families were violently displaced; in the Congo (Kinshasa), Rwanda, Zanzibar and the Sudan, following local conflicts, thousands of refugees have crossed their respective home frontiers and have become destitute and separated from their families, relying upon international support for their existence. In Algeria, where large numbers of able-bodied men were killed in a war of liberation, several thousand children have been turned into war orphans or abandoned, while their mothers have also become war widows—all depending upon extensive State assistance programmes. In the areas having settled European or other minority groups, a crucial aspect of the political change is the rise of tensions and conflicts in relationships between the different ethnic and racial groups.

#### **Economic Reconstruction**

As a direct consequence of the political change, the newly-independent countries of Africa are all faced with the very urgent task of evolving new economic

<sup>2</sup> United Nations. *Report on the World Social Situation*, 1963, p.176

patterns and institutions. Perhaps not without some justification, the objectives of the African development programmes have tended to give predominant emphasis to purely quantitative or materialistic factors and have not always given due recognition to social implications and human aspects. The social and human factors have often been forced into play as a result of obstacles which the society has encountered in the process of economic development, or by the obstacles which the human factor itself has presented to the exercise of interests that run counter to it, or by the new laws which have neglected it.

The introduction of modern technology has brought about a change in job techniques—whether in agriculture or industry, on the land or in a factory, new tools and new techniques are being evolved. In agriculture, the family is no longer a self-sustained unit producing for its own consumption. Production is increasingly for the market. Initiative and new methods have to be employed in order to improve the soil and improve production. Thus, a change within a given occupation has necessitated a corresponding change in attitude and behaviour, which is really a readjustment to new techniques of production. It also gives impetus to a number of new needs, e.g. for clothing, for improved home conditions and for education for the younger members of the family who are no longer needed to work on the land.

The family craftsman is fast disappearing in many African communities, giving place to the factory; and more and more, the individual is losing his importance as head of the family economy and is becoming engulfed in a more impersonal group where he has to learn a new technique, while receiving orders instead of giving them. He also has to learn a new pattern of behaviour, since he has by now become a member of a new group—a member of a local project and of a national trade union, having international affiliations and distinct obligations.

### **The demographic and urbanization situation**

Briefly stated, the following distinctive characteristics have been observed: a definite upward trend in population growth; a relatively youthful population; and an exodus from the countryside, promoting rapid growth of towns. Although urbanization is still very low in Africa compared with other regions of the world, the rate of urban growth has been considerable.

Sociologically, urbanization implies social and cultural change: the substitution of primary contacts by secondary ones. In the urbanization process, contacts with family, clan, neighbourhood are replaced by contacts with fellow workers, and in business dealings with landlords and so on. Change in the social significance of the family, the virtual disappearance of the neighbourhood and the undermining of the basis of social solidarity are all possible. The effects of all these elements on the family and on the social fibre of a community is one of general disruption—the disorganization of institutional relationships and established behavioural patterns which were once an integral part of the social structure. New patterns of behaviour are slowly established so that a society may find itself carrying values and institutions that belong to an age that is gone.

The elementary family is no longer necessarily a part of a large kinship structure with clearly defined rights and duties. The traditional marital unions in many countries was concerned with an alliance between family groups rather than between the two individuals immediately involved, and the joint families of both wife and husband were concerned to ensure the success and continuance of the



marriage. In the towns, the survival of the union and the carrying out of the parental role are becoming more and more dependent on the will of the husband and wife.

#### Meeting the needs of the family, children and youth

In the state of flux which characterizes the African family system of today, children, adolescents and youth have been developing needs beyond those which their families are equipped to meet. The families themselves have been outgrowing their traditional self-sufficiency. Civic institutions such as the churches, schools, libraries, recreation and social centers, clubs, health and social services provided by local and central government agencies help to support and supplement parental care and the training of the young. Similarly other agencies take care of the youth and adult members of the family—especially mothers. The external support required by the family has been growing daily. There is a need not only for direct services, but also for advice and aid in learning about the existence of resources and how to use them.

The needs of families, children and youth in Africa were discussed at the 1960 Accra Workshop on Extension of Family and Child Welfare Services within Community Development Programmes.<sup>3</sup> The needs were grouped first, as those of the normal family and secondly, as those of families and children in special situations. Emphasis was then placed on the importance of safeguarding the stability of the family through legal and social measures that would, on the one hand, help to protect the family and improve levels of living and the quality of family life; and, on the other, to obviate adverse conditions likely to cause the breakdown of family life. It was generally agreed that an effort should be made to strengthen the traditional family pattern and the tribal extended family units as well as to safeguard family life from urban pressures and the demands of city life. Measures recommended as required for this purpose were classified and commented upon as follows:<sup>4</sup>

- (a) *Legal*: The family should be protected as the basic unit of society by special legislation on family and child welfare designed to embrace family ties during the time when traditional customs are being codified.
- (b) *Economic*: Basic measures for the progressive improvement of family levels of living and the alleviation of widespread poverty and its consequences should be taken.
- (c) *Education*: The greatest need in all countries was agreed to be the establishment of a system of education for all children up to the age when they can enter employment.
- (d) *Environmental*: Deep concern was expressed at the lack of adequate housing in rural areas, and particularly for family units that have drifted from rural areas to urban centres.

<sup>3</sup> See ECA Document E/CN.14/FCW/3

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, pp.12-15.

- (e) *Medico-social*: Emphasis was laid on health needs of the family and children, and especially on the nutritional needs of the pre-school and school child.
- (f) *Cultural and recreational*: Urgently needed is planning for recreational and leisure activities for the family as a whole and for adolescents and children through provision for playgrounds, community centres, clubs and holiday camps.

The basic needs of families, children and youth in Africa are similar to those of families, children and youth in other parts of the world. To satisfy the needs of children and young persons, the following services exist or are required in different countries at different times and in differing combinations<sup>5</sup>:

1. **Services for infants and young children**
  - (a) Provision for ante-natal and post-natal care and hygienic delivery.
  - (b) Provision for supervision and advice on physical and mental health.
  - (c) Provision for birth registration.
  - (d) Provision of an immunization programme.
  - (e) Provision of adequate diet and arrangements for supplementary feeding.
  - (f) Provision for the needs of children whose mothers are unable to look after them.
  - (g) Provision for care and after-care during illness, including hospital services.
2. **Services for children of an age to go to school**
  - (a) Preventive health services including mental health; medical examinations at regular intervals while attending school and follow-up.
  - (b) Provision for care and after-care during illness, including convalescent care.
  - (c) School feeding services and education about nutrition.
  - (d) Education, including broad training for citizenship.
  - (e) Recreation, including individual and group facilities.
  - (f) Provision for spiritual and ethical needs.
  - (g) Protection against unsuitable employment.
  - (h) Supervision of hours and conditions of part-time employment.
  - (i) Vocational guidance and training.
3. **Services for adolescents and young workers**
  - (a) Vocational guidance, vocational training and placement in employment.
  - (b) Protection of hours of work and rest and conditions of work.
  - (c) Health protection and supervision.
  - (d) Canteens and other measures to ensure satisfactory nutrition.
  - (e) Continued education, including general education, vocational education and training, and education for marriage and parenthood.
  - (f) Group activities to promote health, culture, recreation, spiritual, social and ethical standards and citizenship.
  - (g) Counselling services including vocational guidance.

<sup>5</sup> Some of these services are applicable to more than one category. Vocational guidance, for example, must begin with the school and continue up to entry into employment or other career.

#### **4. Special services for children and young persons**

- (a) For children deprived of normal home life, including children neglected in their own homes.
- (b) For handicapped children and young persons.
- (c) For prevention and treatment of juvenile delinquency.

The needs of mothers necessitate the following also:

- (a) Provision for early and regular pre-natal examination and advice, and facilities for medical care if required.
- (b) Obstetrical service, either at home or in the hospital, and after-care during lying-in period.
- (c) Improvement of nutrition, including provision of dietary supplements to meet specific nutrient requirements during pregnancy and lactation.
- (d) Health protection of pregnant women and nursing mothers in employment.

#### **Priorities in the services for children and youth**

While it is not possible to state categorically what the priorities in this field are, for all countries in the region, it is necessary to stress the need for careful examination of country and local needs in order to determine services that must be given priority among those of the list above. Some ideas of priorities may be seen from the report of the meeting held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, in 1966 under the auspices of the UNICEF Executive Board<sup>6</sup>. At this meeting which had been organized "to provide an opportunity for Executive Board members to listen to outstanding representatives of African countries discuss the problems of their children and youth..." and which was attended by delegations and non-governmental organizations from 24 African countries together with those of countries from all over the world, the following conclusions and observations on the subject of priorities were made:

##### **Children aged 0 - 3**

The meeting recognized that the local means available to cope with the problems of children aged 0 - 3 were limited, and that emphasis should be laid on priorities and on undertaking preventive measures, particularly in the field of health and nutrition. Children's needs should no longer be viewed with sentiment only, but should be regarded as the necessary premise on which to build the future. Of particular importance in this connexion were considered to be:

- (a) increased protein and vitamin-rich food production and consumption, supported by education in better feeding habits;
- (b) safe water, and environmental situation;
- (c) better medical care in general, and particularly improved health care for mothers and young children;
- (d) effective control of communicable diseases, immunization campaigns;
- (e) intensified health education leading to improved personal hygiene;
- (f) health education of mothers and girls on all of the above matters.

##### **The pre-school child**

The meeting recognized that many of the problems of later life may be traced back to loss of security and emotional disturbance suffered during the

<sup>6</sup> See E/ICEF/549 of 30 July 1966 pp.6-20. See also UNICEF, *Children and Youth in National Planning and Development in Asia* (Bangkok, 1966)

vulnerable years of the pre-school child. It strongly stressed that the responsibility of parents and elders whether in the family or the community, should be secured in order to ensure maximum sense of security to the child and to encourage the natural growth, preferably in simple play, congenial care and the development of the language, manual skill and physical and mental potentialities of the child. The most evident needs recognized by the meeting were food and health protection. Prevailing ignorance on both these subjects were considered to be responsible for appalling loss of lives and great human suffering in Africa. It therefore urged the following measures:

- (a) Education of mothers to begin before childbirth;
- (b) The securing of the co-operation of the father in programmes aimed at changing attitudes of the mother in this direction;
- (c) Programmes to encourage breast-feeding as preferable to bottle-feeding where not medically indicated;
- (d) Provision for good pre-natal care as being an indispensable feature which midwifery nursing services could provide;
- (e) Family planning towards wise spacing of children as being necessary even where there is no population problem, if abortion and unnecessary suffering are to be reduced;
- (f) The need for the child to grow up in and as part of the family rather than be brought up in orphanages and institutions for the care of children.

#### **School age children**

The meeting noted that the essential basis for development lies in the strengthening of education. There is also the need to provide for school meals and snacks to obviate problems of stress upon children who often reach school after walking long distances and without breakfast. For this purpose the meeting agreed that there was the need:

- (a) to get a larger proportion of children into school while at the same time reducing the cost of education;
- (b) to adapt curricula to local and national needs (many curricula based on European models take no account of local conditions and aspirations);
- (c) to solve the problem of scholastic failure and the high drop-out rate;
- (d) to educate those who do not attend school including both youths and adults in at least basic literacy and some notions of agriculture and useful crafts;
- (e) to spread education in health and nutrition, and to develop a civic sense in as broad a sector of the population as possible and as quickly as possible.

#### **Youth**

One of the major problems discussed in connexion with youth was that of absorbing young people into the labour force. In this connexion, four major factors were noted:

- (a) Lack of skills or training because of which rural young people tend to migrate to towns, mistakenly seeking employment and creating new problems in overcrowded and unsympathetic conditions;
- (b) The fact that such migration is likely to increase rather than diminish over coming years and that special and appropriate efforts to encounter unemployment and maladjustment of youth are therefore urgently necessary;
- (c) The need for planning to cover preparation of youth for employment,

identification of talent and opportunity for full development of ability; and,

- (d) The need for suitable guidance as essential for young people whether they do well at school or not, whether they become drop-outs or not and whether they live in rural or in urban areas.

Other services of a general nature required by the community as a whole are essential to the proper upbringing of children and youth. These include economic opportunities, better sanitary facilities, parenthood education programmes, training for midwives and programmes that build better community and family relationships such as parks, recreation areas and facilities, etc.

It is obvious that for the various needs and corresponding services required to meet the needs which have been enumerated above, the family alone, especially in newly developing countries such as those in Africa, is not competent or capable to meet them. The welfare of children, youth and mothers can only be achieved satisfactorily when the material (economic) well-being of the family as a whole is properly secured both in periods of normal family prosperity or earning and during times of special difficulties. Various economic measures in favour of the family, including social security and social assistance schemes which centre around the needs of the family, may enable the family temporarily to discharge adequately its financial responsibilities resulting from the presence of dependents in general and of children in particular—especially where such programmes cover the most vulnerable elements of the population in a programme with nation-wide coverage. But these cannot be considered as a positive means of eliminating social and personal difficulties.

In an affluent society measures relating to the maintenance of the standards of living of the family, particularly of the large family, in periods of normal family earning may include benefits varying with the needs of the family and designed either to supplement the family income or to assist the family to meet its various consumption expenses. Furthermore, exceptional expenses caused by the sickness or death of dependents may be compensated by the provision of comprehensive medical care and of funeral and other social benefits covering all members of the family, etc.

These and other desirable measures, however, are rarely, or to any extent, available to families living in Africa. Yet it is in the countries of Africa—as in the other developing countries of the world—that the family as such is found to be vulnerable because of low income, under-employment and the shifting of rural populations to urban, industrial and mining centres. In such countries, however, measures of assistance covering needy families may well precede schemes of a more general coverage. Such measures providing for various social and welfare services may also include feeding projects for needy families, distribution of clothing, relief in difficult circumstances, and emergency assistance in case of calamities.

In the under-developed state of many African countries, attention could be focussed on, and encouragement given to formation of, friendly societies and mutual benefit groups as complementary to governmental efforts in social security schemes. The neglect of this field is disadvantageous to the development of any sound government-sponsored assistance programmes to families in Africa, particularly in the rural areas.

While there appears to be increasing recognition of the need for more adequate services for mothers, children and youth in all fields, countries in Africa are con-

fronted with the problems of limited resources and the lack of trained personnel, or limited numbers of persons with sufficient educational background for technical or professional training. This has frequently resulted in growing competition among agencies for funds from governmental and private sources and for personnel. Such conditions emphasize the necessity for effective organization and administration of these services.

**Patterns of organization:**

The nature and extent of responsibility assumed by governments for services for family, child and youth welfare, and the distribution of authority and responsibility among national, provincial or local government bodies, vary essentially from country to country. Similarly, the organizational framework through which such services are administered and the combination of functions assigned to particular agencies differ at the national level from country to country. The following governmental agencies are usually involved in such welfare services at the national level, however:

- (a) The Ministry of Social Welfare (incorporating Community Development or in addition to it), usually in association with Labour, has generally had responsibility for social welfare and community development aspects of family, child and youth services;
- (b) The Ministry of Youth which, usually in association with a Ministry of Social Welfare and/or Community Development, has responsibility for youth services;
- (c) The Ministry of Health generally has responsibility for health welfare of family, child and youth;
- (d) The Ministry of Education which is to be found often in association with a Ministry or Department of Youth, provides educational and other facilities for children and youth.

These four principal ministries are to be found in various combinations such as a Ministry of Education and Youth, Ministry of Public Health and Social Affairs, Ministry of Education and Social Welfare.

Because of the diversified nature of the services, as many as six Ministries may be involved:

- (a) The Ministry of Social Welfare and or Community Development would be responsible for family, child and overall youth welfare programmes;
- (b) The Ministry of Labour would be responsible for the Youth Employment programme;
- (c) The Ministry of Health would be responsible for the health needs of the family and children, and operate through pre-natal clinics, children's hospitals and weighing centres, health visiting services and national nutrition programmes;
- (d) The Ministry of Education would be responsible for school welfare programmes and such uniformed youth organizations as the Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, etc.
- (e) The Ministry of the Interior would work in liaison with the welfare ministry and, through the Police, to guard the interests of children in need of care or protection, and of delinquents;
- (f) The Ministry of Justice would be responsible for Juvenile Courts which it might be operating in liaison with the Ministry of Social Welfare, and with the latter supplying Probation Officers.

In addition to governmental agencies that direct welfare services for families, children and youth there are several voluntary local and international agencies

which are active in the field. These organizations include Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, Religious Youth Organizations, YMCAs, YWCAs, Boys' Brigades, Young Farmers Clubs, etc. In many of the countries, government-sponsored or government-encouraged co-ordinating organizations are very active in the youth field and many youth organizations are affiliated with international youth organizations. The relationship between government and private or voluntary programmes in this field is generally one where private or voluntary programmes are within the framework of the government programme for the country as a whole.

### **Personnel Selection, Training and Recruitment**

One of the major difficulties facing governmental programmes in the field of family, child and youth are in recruitment, selection and training of personnel. This is also to say that shortage of qualified personnel is being experienced in all fields and by virtually all governmental agencies. On the other hand, it may be observed that the major difficulty is not shortage of personnel *per se*, but the maximum utilization of available staff. The difficulty experienced by all developing countries is not always that resources are scarce but that inadequate use is made of what is available. With careful planning and judicious use of resources, including qualified manpower, much can be accomplished while the situation is being improved.

Staff have often been recruited separately for the different welfare services for mothers, children and youth with the result that co-operation and co-ordination is often difficult. Training programmes are also diversified depending upon the emphasis. Health-oriented services follow relevant health-education programmes while social welfare, sport and legal personnel avail themselves of training programmes in the respective disciplines. Schools of Social Welfare, Midwifery and Nursing Training Schools, Teacher Training Schools and Universities produce a variety of personnel of varying grades such as Community Development Assistants and Officers, Probation and Parole Officers, Welfare Officers, Health Visitors, Midwives, Nurses, Teachers and Doctors all of whom are actively engaged in promoting the welfare of mothers, children and youth in Africa.

# Chapter I

## THE MOTHER AND THE FAMILY

Societies in Africa are divided between maternal and paternal types but in none is the role of the *mother* diminished by the father's position in the home. The position of the woman may generally be low *vis-à-vis* that of the man. However, there has always been the distinction between a member of the female sex being a *woman* and a *mother*. This is largely a characteristic of folk societies which is merely qualified in technologically advanced societies. In the African's adulation of the family system, it is often the "mother" relationship that is being referred to. For when the mother is removed from the scene, much that is cherished in the family system dies with her. This is not to deny or to diminish the role of the father in the family system. He has been the catalyst in the system, and has played a significant and often a dominant role in it. But whereas the husband is free to (and often does) leave the wife and the children, the mother seldom deserts the offspring and helps to sustain much of the values of family life long after the union has been dissolved. It is also interesting, in this connexion, to note that welfare services for the "father" as such is rarely to be found and only in connexion with his occupational pursuits (which admit of female participation also); while for the mother, several services are in existence and the need is felt by both husbands and the society generally. These include maternity homes, child care institutions, home-making establishments and mother-craft institutions.

The "mother", however, cannot be divorced from her position as a woman in the African society—a position which has given cause for concern both in Africa and in the rest of the world. In this capacity, she has been handicapped in the legal, educational, political and social fields. The generally disparate status between men and women all over the world prompted the founders of the United Nations "to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women..." One of the "functional commissions" of the Economic and Social Council has been the Commission on the Status of Women which has been concerned primarily with working towards the goal of "equal rights for men and women" set forth in the Charter of the United Nations. As a result of the work of the Commission on the Status of Women over the years, three international conventions have been adopted under United Nations auspices. These are:

- (a) The Convention on Political Rights of Women, adopted in 1952 providing that women shall be entitled, on equal terms with men: to vote in all elections, to be eligible for election to all public bodies, and to hold public office and to exercise public functions.
- (b) The Convention on the Nationality of Married Women, adopted in 1957, establishing the principle that marriage to an alien shall not automatically affect the nationality of the woman.



- (c) The Convention of Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage and Registration of Marriages, adopted in 1962, affirming that no marriage shall be entered into without the full and free consent of both parties; that States shall take legislative action to specify a minimum age of marriage; and that all marriages shall be registered in an appropriate official register<sup>7</sup>.

The UNESCO also adopted in 1960 a Convention against discrimination in education which has been ratified by several countries.

Through the auspices of international agencies, the position of women is being enhanced in national programmes. Polygamy, for example, is now being abolished or gradually severely restricted in several countries of the world. It was abolished in India by the Hindu Marriage Act of 1955. The Women's Equal Rights Act of 1951 of the State of Israel makes polygamy by any person (including Moslems) punishable. Criminal penalties for polygamy were introduced in Tunisia in 1957. Polygamy was abolished in Vietnam in 1959. In Iraq, in 1959, a law was enacted providing that marriage to more than one woman can be legal only under certain conditions and must be approved by a judge. In Africa, polygamy is officially prohibited in countries like Kenya, Ghana, Sierra Leone, Gambia, Rhodesia, Nigeria and Ethiopia for persons who elect to be married under the respective Civil Codes or Marriage Ordinances.

To enhance the position of the working mother, provision has been made in almost all the countries of the region for continued employment after delivery, and maternity leaves and benefits. Such provisions have, however, markedly ignored the plight of women workers in agricultural and other non-commercialized and rural occupations.

In the social service field, the following services are available that have a bearing on womanhood and motherhood in Africa:

1. Education
2. Health and Nutrition
3. Social Welfare Services

#### 1. Education

The education of women is directly related to the education of girls—a most neglected venture on the African scene. If generally few young people ever get through primary education in Africa, the number for girls is fewer, and fewer still is the number of girls who are able to avail themselves of secondary school and college education.

The final report of the Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa observes<sup>8</sup>:

Great need exists to increase the number of girls receiving education at all levels. Research indicates that girls make up less than 30 per cent of the present total African primary school enrolment. Unfortunately, the factor of conservatism in certain areas has slowed the expansion of education for girls because of its imagined effect on established traditions. The

<sup>7</sup> See United Nations Document. Sales No. 1957.IV.8. *Legal Status of Married Women*; also United Nations Sales No. 64. I. 10. *The United Nations and the Status of women*.

<sup>8</sup> Page 6 of the *Final Report* of the 1961 Conference

need is urgent for the increased use of educated “woman power” in the working life of the community in such callings as nursing, social work and teaching. Increasing attention in school curricula and in adult education must be given to child care and domestic science. Most urgent is the need to develop a new conception of the role of women in the life of the community—to improve their condition as home-makers, to expand their opportunities of employment, to encourage a greater participation and leadership by women in community affairs and public life.

The Development Plan for Community Development in Kenya drawn up in 1964 states:

“We have been most concerned to ensure that adequate provision is made to create opportunities for our womenfolk in order that they can make their full contribution in the field of social development. The necessity to provide increased opportunities for women is two-fold. Firstly, it is recognized that women are the guardians of our homes, the guidance of our children is in their hands, and we look to them to take positive action in improving domestic standards. In order that they may carry out such responsibilities with competence, there must be facilities whereby all women have the opportunity to acquire home economics skills in relation to their roles as mothers and wives. Secondly, women also must be assisted, through constructive tuition and guided participation, to develop and accept leadership in social and civic affairs at both local and national levels”.

Female education in Africa is important for all the above reasons. But of greatest importance, perhaps, is the enlightenment it brings to married life and family development. The home is the basic educational institution in the development of the personality. Any neglect of this institution retards personality development and slows down the process, but more importantly the quality of socialization. In Africa where civic institutions for socialization and child development have not yet kept pace with needs and requirements, this is doubly significant. Fortunately, the trend is towards a reduction in the gap between education for boys and girls; and in time some satisfactory ratio will be established. But there is much to be done towards this end; and there are also large segments of the adult female population requiring bringing up-to-date on basic aspects of family living, such as health and hygiene, child care, and home-making, as well as development of basic skills necessary for personality and financial needs. In the long run, education for family living is more useful for the proper basis of successful marriage than marriage counselling bureaus.

The task of improving education for girls has not been an easy one. For example the Uganda Education Commission reported in 1963:

“We do not think girls’ education can be satisfactorily established in some parts of Uganda until customary attitudes are changed. The custom of early marriage and the institution of bride-wealth, for example, call for examination in the light of needs of a modern State. As we have mentioned, areas where the status of women is low are also areas where the education of girls is most neglected. This observation accords with the significant and widely accepted view that where girls’ education is backward a country is also backward in other parts of its social economy. But we have noted that in rural settings where women have been encouraged by their men-folk to receive adult education the local communities have prospered. Finally, apart from these practical

considerations, we must accept the truth of the words spoken by the Secretary-General of the United Nations when referring to a woman's status in society: "if her worth and dignity as a human being are not recognized she will have little chance of making any contribution to the well-being of the community". "In a developing society boys' education and girls' education will usually demand different treatment, for it is generally true to say that while boys prepare for one career, girls prepare for two. Although most girls will become home-makers they will also play a significant role in establishing Uganda's economic and social stability. This implies that girls' secondary education should be both general, to satisfy the criteria for any educated person; and vocational, to lay the foundations of a useful career in the world and in the home".<sup>9</sup>

Through formation of women's groups as part of the community development programmes and in co-operation with the Ministries of Health, several programmes have been mounted in many countries of this region to educate women—especially in the rural communities—in nutrition, child care and house-keeping. In Liberia a Home and Family Education Programme "offers to women as mothers, wives, and citizens courses designed to give them the opportunity to develop themselves as useful participating members of their communities". Classes in sewing, cooking, meal planning, budgeting, home and child care, and better family and community relationships are among the many projects included in the Programme. Here, a training course leading to a certificate in Domestic Service, a nine-month course in Beauty Culture and a cultural Dance Programme for women, form part of the adult education programme. The Home Economics Extension Programme of Liberia "designed to teach village women and girls practical Home Economics basic to their needs" includes among these needs, "sanitation and health in the home and surroundings, child care and feeding, food and nutrition, and the production and use of essential foods for family consumption". Similar services are to be found throughout Africa with the active and vigorous support of UNICEF, FAO and WHO.

## 2. Health and Nutrition

The objective of maternal health programmes is the saving of the lives of expectant mothers and their infants. The approach has been along three lines: education of the expectant mother to take advantage of available services, availability of facilities and services for maternal (pre-natal and post-natal) health, and training of what in some countries are called "empirical midwives" who have traditionally undertaken these tasks especially in areas where maternity services are non-existent.

Maternity services form part of medical services and are generally under the Ministry of Health. They are either available in general hospitals or are given in maternity hospitals and clinics which are specially established to cater to the needs of this group. Even where such facilities exist, strong educational programmes have had to be mounted which are designed to encourage expectant and post-natal mothers to avail themselves of the facilities. In co-operation with Social Welfare or Community Development departments, extension campaigns have generally yielded startling results although in many instances these results are

<sup>9</sup> Uganda Government, *Education in Uganda : The Report of the Uganda education Commission* (Entebbe : The Government Printer, 1963) pp.66-67

short-lived due to lack of consistent follow-up action. In French-speaking Africa, health and social welfare services are closely inter-related. The *foyers femins* and *centres sociaux* commonly found in these countries are very much a part of the material and child health programme.

The use of traditional accoucheurs in modern health programmes has been a controversial point but one which is nevertheless worthy of further exploration—particularly in rural health and mother-child welfare programmes. The report of the 1960 Workshop on Extension of Family and Child Welfare Services within Community Development Programmes, has this observation to make in this regard<sup>10</sup>:

“It was felt that not enough use was being made of these traditional educators in rural societies, the wise old women who educate young wives during pregnancy and establish patterns of behaviour for mother and child. The tendency has been to discourage their efforts; but a better plan would surely be to try to interest them in modern hygienic methods and use their influence to make these methods acceptable to the people. They could not, of course replace professionally trained midwives, health and social workers; but where rapid changes are taking place in health and social patterns their support could be invaluable, provided the teaching was related to the aspects of hygiene and child care introduced by the professional worker. Social workers should take advantage of the unique opportunities derived from gaining these women’s confidence, and from collaborating with medical departments to ensure the backing of traditional education”.

Nutrition of expectant mothers has formed part of maternity and child welfare programmes in Africa. However most countries which have any programmes for nutrition of mothers have confined services merely to advising the mother on dietary matters, although some have taken advantage of the UNICEF milk programme. Pregnant and nursing mothers are supplied UNICEF-provided milk in Malagasy, Zanzibar, Kenya, Togo, Sudan, Tunisia, Ghana, Ethiopia, etc.

### 3. Social Welfare Services

Available welfare services to women include the following: (a) marriage counselling and guidance; (b) marriage grants and family allowances; (c) women’s activities in community development programmes.

(a) *Marriage counselling and guidance*: Very few countries in the region reported any regular programmes and services for marriage guidance. This, of course, is a service which many consider is much neglected and long overdue. It is more properly undertaken in schools and in institutions which cater to adolescent girls in the form of education for family living; and also in agencies with which young and married women come in regular contact. In countries where some such programmes are available, as in Nigeria and Rhodesia, Government departments are usually the responsible agencies. In Rhodesia marriage counselling and family advice bureaux are available in both governmental and voluntary agencies. “All personnel in the Department’s (of Social Welfare) regional Offices are fully trained and undertake marriage counselling in certain circumstances. In addition voluntary bodies like the Marriage Guidance Council, the Family Planning Association, and the Citizen’s Advice Bureaux, exist in the main centres” to offer

<sup>10</sup> ECA Document E/CN.14/FCW/3, pages 31 - 32.

service in this field in Rhodesia. The Alexandria (UAR) Planned Parenthood Centre has a counselling programme devoted almost exclusively to family planning and guidance under auspices of the Department of Social Affairs and with the assistance of social workers, school teachers and health officers.

In Lagos, Nigeria, a Family Welfare Centre under the Department of Social Welfare has for many years been concerned with encouraging the stability of family life and with helping individuals and married couples to maintain satisfactory marital relationships. Operated with competent family case workers, an increasing number of young people have sought premarital advice. Some of the cases arise out of impending separations as a result of one of the partners proceeding overseas for higher studies; of pregnant wives who are required by their husbands to leave Lagos for their home towns or villages before childbirth; of husbands failing to provide adequate maintenance either to the family as a whole, or to their children at school; or by problems over the custody of children which constitute by far the greatest source of family conflict.

There is a marked absence of marriage counselling services in French-speaking Africa. English-speaking countries without regular Government-sponsored programmes, such as Tanzania, Uganda, Ghana and Zambia, etc., reported some form of counselling service available through regular social welfare department offices, but mostly through churches, voluntary agencies and traditional bodies. Chad is among such countries.

(b) *Marriage grants and family allowances*: Not a single English-speaking country, in 1964, had a programme of marriage grants or family allowances. This seems to be largely French-oriented. Some English-speaking countries have social security programmes which are not particularly family-oriented. In Libya, for example, a Social Insurance Law provides for free medical treatment for workers and their families as well as for financial assistance in cases of disablement. The practice seems to be one that is linked to the population policies of the respective countries. For example, in the case of Tanganyika, Tanzania, "no marriage grants are awarded, although family allowances are provided in terms of reduced income tax obligations". The position of these countries might well be summed up by Ghana's response, "Not available. Perhaps not yet considered as an apparent need in view of the lingering idea of traditional responsibility of the extended family for its members in need."

Family compensation and family allowances, however, seem to form the core of French-speaking social welfare service where, particularly in the urban areas and among government employees and wage earners, a whole system of family insurance has evolved.

In Gabon, for example, Government officials and wage earners of both sexes who come under provisions of decree 2073 IT-GA of 22-8-56 and law 88/61 of 4-1-62 are entitled to:

- (a) a pre-natal allocation amounting to CFA francs 9,000 which is payable in two instalments of CFA francs 4,000 upon first medical examination at the end of the third month of pregnancy, and CFA francs 5,000 at the sixth month of pregnancy; or CFA francs 4,000 to be given to mothers at the 8th month of pregnancy and a premium of CFA francs 5,000 at the birth of the child; and
- (b) a family allowance of CFA francs 1,000 per month per child up to 14 years of age and up to 17 years in the case of children in school or apprenticeship,

and up to 20 years for sick and invalid children. For those not covered by the above provisions, decree 170/MTAST of 25-10-60 entitles them to a payment of CFA francs 3,000 to legally married mothers on the 3rd month of pregnancy. During 1964, for example, the sum of CFA francs 25 million was paid to those in the second category alone.

In Niger, a National Fund for Family Allowances and Compensation for Industrial Accidents (Caisse Nationale de Compensation des Prestations Familiales et des Accidents du Travail) allows payment to families in accidents on the job as well as the following family allowances:

- (i) allowances paid to legally married wives at the birth of the first three children which equal CFA francs 7,000 and payable thus:  $\frac{1}{2}$  at birth,  $\frac{1}{4}$  after 6 months, and  $\frac{1}{4}$  at one year of age;
- (ii) maternity allowances given at the birth of every child;
- (iii) a pre-natal allowance of CFA francs 700 per month per child;
- (iv) half-salary monthly payments to wives on maternity leave beginning 6 weeks before birth and ending 8 weeks after delivery.

Similar allowances and compensation payments to mothers are available in many of the French-speaking countries of Africa such as Tunisia, Chad, Malagasy, Togo and Algeria. These provisions and payments are generally restricted to government employees and wage earners in urban localities. To cover rural communities and the non-wage earning population, friendly societies and mutual aid associations exist independently of or with the assistance of government, to fill a need which the more formal agencies of government serve for the wage-earning group. The English-speaking countries have shown interest in the formation of these friendly societies and mutual aid groups.

(c) *Women's activities in community development programmes*: All the countries of the region have community development programmes designed to raise the socio-economic level of communities with their active participation and with government support. An aspect of this programme is "women's work" which emphasizes the role of women in community and national development, and which involves also programmes for the development of womanhood and home life. In this respect, mothercraft programmes, educational facilities for parents, and counselling service are provided through multi-purpose community centres which exist in countries such as Kenya, Uganda, Ivory Coast and Senegal.

In French-speaking countries the programmes are tied-in more closely with public health and maternal and child welfare programmes. In the English-speaking countries there is a tendency to separate these two aspects of the programme—the health and the social welfare aspects. Nevertheless, it is becoming increasingly the practice to treat both the health and social welfare aspects of women's work in the rural areas as complementary to each other where they are not integrated. These programmes generally include maternal and child welfare services to rural mothers and their children, establishment, promotion or supervision of Girls and Women's Vocational Training Centres, literacy classes among women, home economics or domestic science classes and groups, cooking classes, handicraft groups and centres which sell or exhibit women's handicrafts, and programmes and activities intended to promote better housewifery and home development.

Through community development programmes much of the difficulties faced in the rural areas are alleviated and their basic needs met. Some of the basic needs

centre around provision of drinking water, access roads to farms, techniques and methods of agricultural and domestic production. With the assistance of the men, wells have been dug near dwelling houses so that the time normally taken in bringing water from distant streams has been reduced considerably. Roads have been built, farming has been made easy for the women and many amenities such as recreation and health facilities have been provided for rural communities which have greatly assisted in improving conditions of women in the rural areas.

## Chapter II

### THE PRE-SCHOOL CHILD

Disease, malnutrition, ignorance and inadequate social protection are to a very large extent, responsible for the ills of children in all developing countries of the world. Their corresponding needs—health, food, education and social welfare—are fundamental.

The particular manifestation of these general needs vary considerably according to age group and environment. Thus, an analysis along these lines is necessary. An examination of the needs of children must necessarily include the family and community needs. However, as children are not only the future community but also its most vulnerable element and have specific needs that go beyond those of the contemporary community, it would be appropriate in this study to give due attention to the special needs of children of different age groups.

#### A. HEALTH PROBLEMS

##### Pre-natal obstetrical and post-natal care of infants

During the neonatal (0-1 month) and post-natal (1-12 months) periods, infants are susceptible not only to childhood diseases but also to most of the infection diseases that threaten adults. Malaria, while sometimes of secondary importance, may do great damage before the child acquires partial resistance to the disease. Infantile diarrhoea, dysenteries and other diseases related to unhygienic conditions are also widespread and are the principal cause of infant mortality in most African countries. Malnutrition and under nutrition in all their forms can be found in very young children and are often either the principal or a contributing cause of death. Acute tuberculosis appears to be the most common in large towns and cities where overcrowding facilities help it to spread. Syphilis is not only a factor in sterility, miscarriage and still-birth, but also a significant cause of infant mortality. Some diseases, like smallpox, that have almost completely been wiped out in a good part of the world, still contribute significantly to infant mortality in most African countries. In this age group, the most important need is to survive. The institution of the family as well as all the social apparatus of the State are useful only in so far as it ensures the survival of the infant. Not only is it incapable of self-survival, but it has not yet acquired any personality or creative faculties of any significance. It is utterly dependent.

During the pre-school (1-4) years, communicable diseases of children are common intestinal and respiratory diseases, whose incidence has been sharply cut in the developed countries by various techniques of preventive medicine such as vaccination, still take their toll in great numbers in many African countries. Malnutrition also plays a considerable role in pre-school mortality. Children of this age are also especially liable to accidents at home and at playgrounds in the neighbourhoods.



In Africa the major cause of sickness and death among children are such diseases as malaria, the treponematoses—yaws, venereal syphilis, and malnutrition, which are discussed under Section B on Food Nutrition. While poor health conditions and lack of proper environmental sanitation make it difficult to check the spread of pathogenic organisms, malnutrition and under-nutrition actively lower the child's resistance to these diseases.

#### **Principal afflictions of children in Africa<sup>11</sup>**

*Malaria.* Of the total population of Africa south of the Sahara, an estimated 167 million live in malaria-ridden areas where they are continuously exposed to the risk of catching the disease. Of this population an estimated 158 million people are not benefiting from an eradication programme<sup>12</sup>. Great progress towards eradicating this disease has been made since World War II. The Western coast of Africa that used to be called "The White Man's Grave" has for some time been free of much of the dread; yet malaria is still prevalent. Of the tropical diseases, malaria is undoubtedly the most devastating. It is not so much a killer disease as one which slowly weakens the human body, thus preparing the way for fatal developments. In its chronic form it causes anemia, hypertrophy of the spleen, apathy, and in some cases general debility.

*Bilharziasis.* The second most prevalent communicable disease in Africa is still bilharziasis which it appears is increasing from the number of cases reported in such countries as Botswana, Central African Republic, Madagascar, and Niger<sup>13</sup>. This is also prevalent in the United Arab Republic. Bilharziasis causes enormous amount of ill health and disabilities to all segments and age-groups of the population in countries reporting incidence of this disease.

*Yaws.* The second International Yaws Conference, held in Nigeria in 1965, indicated that, among the 400 million people living in the rural areas of the tropical belt, some 200 million were exposed to the risk of endemic treponematoses, particularly yaws. WHO has been working with governments in this field and the effort to eliminate yaws as a most crippling disease in children and adolescents has been continuing with some results. Through the use of penicillin, eradication of yaws has been magical. But the effort is still handicapped by the often hostile attitude of the population, the frequency with which huts and houses are closed to health personnel.

Difficulties of transport and access to rural communities as well as unfavourable climatic conditions—for instance during the rainy season when ordinary means of transport have to be abandoned or when certain areas may be temporarily inaccessible, lack of vital statistics, which forces yaws eradication teams to take their own census of population, or in the case of nomads when a great deal of hunting is required before they can be localized; and finally, the difficulties of storage of penicillin—a drug which has to be kept from sun and heat and often kept under lock and key—have all contributed to delay progress in the fight against yaws.

<sup>11</sup> See "Report of the World Health Organization" in UNICEF, *The Needs of Children*, 1963, pp.73-90 ff; also UNICEF, *Children of the Developing Countries*, 1963 pp. 19-43.

<sup>12</sup> See WHO supplement to the *Second Report of the World Health Situation*, 1961-1962, pp.10ff

<sup>13</sup> *Ibid*, p.11

*Tetanus neonatorum*, an infection of the umbilicus of the new-born occurring frequently where deliveries take place under unhygienic conditions, is also one of the causes of death of infants.

*Infantile diarrhoea*. This constitutes one of the major causes of death between birth and the age of two years. Preliminary estimates indicate that diarrhoeal disease may account for 30 to 50 per cent of the infant mortality in some areas.

*Amoebic and bacillary dysenteries* are frequently contracted by children in their first years of life.

*Smallpox*. Where vaccination has been very widely practised for some years, this disease, which for centuries was one of the most murderous diseases among children, is disappearing. It is nevertheless endemic throughout the countries of the region and is prone to flare up periodically in limited areas into epidemic proportions. Emphasis upon vaccination is attested to by the fact that the following quantities of smallpox vaccine was obtained through WHO sources alone during 1963-1964:

Liberia	200,000	Mali	999,200
Sierra Leone	50,000	Togo	200,000
Upper Volta	450,000		

*Leprosy*. Leprosy still survives in many parts of Africa. Susceptibility to this disease is greatest in childhood, and the child who contracts leprosy may become a permanent invalid by the time he reaches adulthood. A number of leprosy control programmes have been in progress in the region for several years with the material assistance of UNICEF and WHO. In the Cameroon, the Central African Republic, Chad, Congo (Kinshasa) Dahomey, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Madagascar, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Togo, Uganda and Upper Volta this programme has been carried out with much success.

*Trachoma and related eye infections*. Contracted in infancy and childhood, these may cause partial or total blindness. In a number of countries in West Africa, onchocerciasis or river blindness constitutes a major public health and socio-economic problem, and is most prevalent in Ghana, Togo and Upper Volta.

*Parasitic diseases*. These include the various infectional parasitic infestation of which filariasis which is transmitted by mosquito bites; trypanosomiasis, transmitted by the tsetse fly in many parts of sub-Sahara Africa and schistosomiasis, transmitted by snails of various species, are among the most common.

Skin diseases, most notably ringworm and various forms of eczema, are widespread among children of Africa.

Much activity has been reported by governments in connexion with action to eradicate many of the health hazards to children in the region. In co-operation with educational, agricultural and welfare agencies the effort has involved an inter-disciplinary approach. Health Departments, through vaccination and inoculation programmes, have been trying to eradicate tuberculosis and virus diseases such as smallpox and poliomyelitis. Through programmes in environmental hygiene and health education malaria, leprosy and many diseases that normally afflict children are being eradicated also.

Maternal and child health services are available in all the countries of the region. They form part of both the social and health welfare services. In certain of the countries, the two are separated; in others, an integrated approach has been adopted.

**Major public health problems causing major concern to select  
Governments in Africa**

	Malaria	Bilharziasis	Tuberculosis	Malnutrition	Leprosy	Yaws	V. D.	Intestinal worms	River blindness	Small-pox	Trypanosomiasis	Ancylostomiasis	Trachoma	Rickettsial
Angola	x	x	x	x	x	x								
Lesotho			x	x	x									
Botswana	x	x	x				x					x	x	
Cameroon	x					x	x							
Central African Republic	x	x	x	x	x							x		x
Chad	x		x	x										
Congo (Brazza)	x	x				x								
Rhodesia	x		x							x				
Gabon	x			x		x	x	x						
Ghana	x				x				x					
Liberia	x	x		x	x					x	x			
Madagascar	x	x			x	x	x							
Mauritania		x	x											
Mauritius	x	x	x					x						
Mozambique	x	x		x		x		x						
Nigeria	x		x		x						x			x
Portuguese Guinea	x	x	x						x		x	x	x	
Sierra Leone	x	x	x		x	x								
Swaziland	x	x	x					x						
Tanzania		x		x	x			x		x				
Togo		x			x	x			x					
Uganda		x	x	x					x					
United Arab Republic	x	x	x	x						x			x	

**B. FOOD AND NUTRITION**

The problem of nutrition is intimately linked to the problems of agriculture and soil erosion. It is also closely related to the supply of meat and fish, and even to certain taboos. Nutritional diseases result from dietary deficiencies or as a consequence of infectious and parasitic diseases and principally affect the vulnerable groups of the population—especially children from 1-3 years of age.

“Malnutrition, unlike most of the communicable diseases, can be a slow, insidious process; moreover, its manifestations are frequently marked by the more dramatic symptoms of other morbid conditions for which, by undermining the body’s resistance, it has paved the way”<sup>14</sup>

In Africa, children suffer from malnutrition as a result of poverty, lack of suitable food, ignorance and superstition. It is during the rapidly growing period of infancy and early childhood that this malnutrition is most marked, having a high morbidity and mortality effects, and probably leaving physical and psychological scars in later life on those who survive.

The Governments of the region have for many years endeavoured to assess the true state of nutrition in their respective countries and the WHO has reached the conclusion that “Africa is not so much an under-nourished as a malnourished continent, where an unbalanced diet may lead to serious physiological disorders”<sup>15</sup>. The most serious syndrome is called “kwashiorkor” and may be fatal. On the other hand it has been shown that nutritional deficiencies, if not always resulting in such serious disorders as kwashiorkor, favours the occurrence of debilitating diseases. The most dangerous period is that immediately following the weaning of the infant, where breast milk is replaced by adult diet which is often poor in protein, particularly animal protein.

Since malnutrition is basically a dietary deficiency disease not always associated with unavailability of the proper food, health education and nutrition programmes have been the chief means of combating it. The Governments of the region, in co-operation with WHO, UNICEF and FAO have been engaged upon nutrition education programmes, food distribution programmes involving large-scale distribution of milk and high protein foodstuffs, and have been ensuring proper distribution systems. Activities in this field vary:

(a) Basic surveys on the nutritional state of communities have been undertaken in the Central African Republic, Kenya, Mali, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Congo (Brazzaville), Gabon and Guinea. These surveys have been undertaken principally among young children, pregnant and lactating women, and have given a general picture of the frequency and extent of nutritional diseases, as well as on their effects on the state of health of the population.

(b) The training of health service personnel in nutrition has been pursued in almost all the countries of the region. For example training courses for intermediate level and auxiliary personnel have been organized by WHO experts in Kenya, Mauritius and Tanzania.

(c) Infant welfare clinics and hospitals have been established in many, but not by any means all, of the countries in the region, which specialize in diseases of infants and children. The Princess Marie-Louise Hospital in Ghana, for example, has pioneered in infant and child health problems—especially in nutritional deficiency diseases. In Uganda, an Infantile Malnutrition Research Unit has been established and is functioning in conjunction with the Makerere Medical College and the largest of the Government hospitals. This is in addition to several programmes that are geared towards the prevention and treatment of protein-calorie malnutrition, in that country.

<sup>14</sup> UNICEF, *The Needs of Children*, 1963, p.38

<sup>15</sup> WHO, *Public Health Book in Africa -Ten Years of Progress*, p.27

(d) The teaching of nutrition in Africa within the framework of university activities is being pioneered.

(e) Nutrition activities in maternal and child health programmes have been expanded in countries like Burundi and Guinea, and many countries are directing the care given to children and advice given to mothers at health centres towards the treatment and prevention of malnutrition. Joint programmes under FAO/WHO/UNICEF guidance are going on in connexion with some 20 programmes of applied nutrition (canteens, school gardens, feeding, etc.) in the region.

(f) Short-term consultants have been studying ways and means of integrating nutrition activities in the development plans for health services.

### C. SOCIAL WELFARE

Inadequate levels of living, the growth and movements of population, industrialization and urbanization, as well as the changing conception of the family as a social institution, have made necessary a recognition of the need to pay greater attention to national programmes of social services for families and children in any balanced programme for economic and social development in Africa.

#### **Problems affecting welfare of children**

*Poverty* is a great hazard to children and their families. Poverty and such of its common effects as poor sanitation, overcrowding and poor diet are responsible for considerable disease, disability, health and family disorganization.

*Population growth.* High birth rates may aggravate the problem of poverty unless progress can be made—especially in the rural sector—in economic development so that family levels of living can be raised generally. Increases in population require stepping up the number and quantity of the educational, health and social services required especially by children.

*Urbanization.* Industrialization in the newly developing areas has greatly accelerated urbanization. The individual who moves from the security of his family, his tribe or his village into the town or city must adapt to new ways of making a living, a money economy, a radical change in physical setting, and many impersonal relationships which have replaced the close contacts of primary societies. If he left his family behind, his mobility between the city and his village may affect the stability of his employment and hence his income. The family left behind is faced with economic and social strains of separation. If they accompany him, parents and children are likely to be bewildered by the new surroundings, to be badly housed and deprived of the warmth and support of the extended family group. Social disorganization, which manifests itself (among other things) in acute problems such as child labour, separation or divorce, and delinquency, is far beyond the ability of the family to control. To avoid loss of pay or employment, the pregnant woman must often work until the very day before delivery and must return to employment very soon after her child is born. The city mother who works will often have to wean her child while he still needs breast milk and turn him over to the care of old relatives or neighbours.

#### **Programmes and services for the welfare of children**

*Birth registration.* One of the services that is fundamental to any welfare

programme for infants is facility for registration. And yet this is one area which is neglected. Only about a third of the countries in the region had birth registration programmes in 1964. Many of the countries which reported having birth registration programmes, like Tanganyika, Tanzania for example, said that "birth registration facilities are available but not as yet compulsory, although local authorities may have a local ruling on this. For non-Africans however, such registration is compulsory". While Zanzibar reported having "nationwide" birth registration, the pattern was generally, as it is for example in Ghana, for registration to be available and compulsory for residents of municipal and urban areas only. In such cases, registration is free of charge for the first few months only, after which a fee is payable. Zambia is now in the process of drafting a bill on birth registration. In Rhodesia, "birth registration is compulsory throughout the country for Europeans, Coloured, and Asians, and in respect of Africans residing in specific areas. For example, all Africans living in urban areas would, by legislation, be expected to register the birth of their babies". All the other countries have facilities for birth registration on a voluntary basis; and the educated or literate population generally take advantage of this facility and register their new-born children.

Many people utilize baptism certificates for certification of age and a majority are able to tell their ages in relation to national events of significance at the time of birth. Difficulties resulting from lack of adequate facilities for birth registration are those in connexion with health examinations, school enrolment and labour registration as well as other social and economic programmes in later years.

*Day-care and nursery services.* Day-care has been defined as "an organization service for the care of children away from their homes during some part of the day, when circumstances call for normal care in the home to be supplemented"<sup>16</sup>. The primary objective of day-care services has been to help parents in the daily care and up-bringing of their children and thus to support the continuing care of children in their own homes. Day-care services are properly those services which provide care on a group and individual basis for the primary purpose of meeting needs of a social nature with certain educational objectives although excluding services and programmes designed primarily for the child's education, such as nursery schools or kindergartens. Nevertheless, day-care has come to have other designations in other countries and come by the names day-care centre, crèches, day nursery, day-home, after-school centre, nursery school and kindergarten. But day-care with education as the primary aim is properly educational and does not come under the service defined above.

In the context of African conditions, organized day-care services do (and should) provide excellent opportunity for socialization of children, for correction of faulty dietary and health habits, for introducing the children to play materials, and for instilling regular habits of hygiene and personal cleanliness. Different kinds of services are provided in these centres and some of the centers integrate health, education and welfare programmes in this service.

Day-care programmes in Africa are sponsored by a variety of agencies and their administration come under various ministries. Government-sponsored or government-operated day-care services are available in the UAR, Tunisia, Ghana,

<sup>16</sup> United Nations, "Day-Care Services for Children" in *International Social Service Review*, No.1, 1956 (Sales No.55.IV.20).

Libya and Uganda; voluntary day-care services are also reported in the UAR, Ghana and Sierra Leone.

In Togo, where mothers do not feel the necessity for crèches but entrust the care of babies to relatives and nurse maids, private day-care centres are operated. A majority of countries with day-care and nurseries have privately operated centres with governmental assistance and supervision. In Zambia, "a number of private nurseries are operated but these are primarily for the people in the upper income groups". There is better provision for infant nurseries by mothers. In Ghana, the Salvation Army and the Roman Catholic Church run nurseries in certain parts of the country while day-care services for children are provided by private bodies under the administrative guidance of a day-care service organizer of the Department of Social Welfare and Community Development. In Tanganyika, Tanzania, few nurseries exist for working mothers, but the National Council of Tanganyika Women intend to establish, first in the major towns, centres where mothers can safely and usefully leave their young children while they go to work or to attend self-help or educational undertakings. Some of the big industrial concerns such as the Tanganyika Planting Co., provide day-care and nursery services for the children of their employees.

*Foster care and adoption.* Adoption is the legal basis for the establishment of parent-child relationship where a consanguinal relationship does not exist between a husband and/or wife on the one hand, and a child on the other. For orphans and neglected children, adoption often provides one satisfactory solution to the problems of the child. For married people, this is also one means of legally admitting into membership of a family an individual—generally a young person—with whom it is intended to establish a permanent attachment.

The concept of adoption is new in Africa as is also the concept of illegitimacy. By virtue of the extended nature of the family system, adoption has not been necessary in the past and has been looked down upon. Children have been valued in and of themselves and relatives have considered it their obligation to look after orphans and neglected children. For example the response to the ECA questionnaire from Sierra Leone comments, "There are no adoption laws, but the family system is such that as a rule there are hardly unwanted children. Children are cared for even by non-relatives".

Adoption laws are not designed primarily for unwanted children, and the fact that relatives and friends are eager to look after children who might be placed for adoption, is no indication that such children are properly looked after or receive the parental affection which is possible in an adoption situation. It is largely for occasional individuals who, by mutual consent or of necessity, wish to adopt children, that provision for this has begun to be made in many of the countries in the region. Countries that now have adoption laws include Tanzania, Ghana, Zambia, Uganda, Rhodesia, Spanish Africa, Tunisia, Ethiopia and Malawi. In many of these countries, adoption laws, like birth registration, are only applicable to urban localities or to certain classes of inhabitants.

Foster-care services appear at the present time to provide a more realistic basis for the care of children without parents as well as those in need of care and protection. Several countries of the region provide such services in the form of "boarding out" programmes and foster-care services. But the traditional family

structure is perhaps the best basis yet for the development of “orphans” and “neglected” children where such a family is available.

*Recreational facilities.* Recreational facilities for youth are generally accepted and provided. But it does not seem that children’s needs in this field are yet appreciated. Much of this is provided in day-care and educational centres. Community provisions for these services must also be considered and are provided in a few countries, in the form of play centres and amusement parks to which parents may take their children. One such centre which meets a great demand is to be found in Kampala, Uganda. Children need to learn to be sociable early and the social and psychological as well as physical advantages provided by departments of parks and gardens—such as to be found in Accra, Ghana,—and amusement parks—such as in Kampala, are invaluable.

*Institutional care of infants and children.* Besides facilities for adopting orphans, illegitimate, and deprived children, several countries in Africa now make provision for the placement of infants and children needing care in foster homes or in children’s homes in connexion with “boarding-out” programmes with “fit persons”. Institutional care of children is undertaken by governmental agencies such as the Osu Children’s Home in Accra, Ghana; voluntary agencies such as the Antoinette Tubman Child Welfare Centre located in Virginia, Liberia and operated by the Children’s Welfare Foundation; or the home for boys run by the Child Welfare Society of Kenya.

Religious organizations and private individuals and foundations also run agencies. An example of this is the Orphanage in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, which is run by the Haile Selassie I Foundation. Private individuals, with community support, have also undertaken similar programmes for children. For example, in the Congo (Kinshasa) a local Congolese moved by the plight of children in the town without home care, founded a society which obtained a grant of quarters from the Bourgmestre and set up an institution. Women members of the Committee give of their own time to run it, look after the children, clean rooms and prepare food, etc. This they do without any pay and the orphanage which has taken in children from Kisangani (and now has 35 children in all) depends upon voluntary subscriptions.

### **Gaps and weaknesses in service to meet the needs of children**

Greater integration of all skills within the child welfare field is urgently needed; it is rare that any one of the recognized needs of children, including their psychological needs, can be met by the use of a single skill or with the knowledge of one particular discipline. In the literature of all the helping professions, there is an increasing acceptance of the concept of the “whole person”, but this concept has by no means been fully incorporated into the planning or implementation of services designed to meet the needs of children. The fragmentation of services for children places serious organizational and financial strains upon the limited resources of governments. The interlocking needs of children and the necessity for rational use of available resources demand a comprehensive approach to planning for children by countries and among inter-governmental organizations.

While there is a continuing need to strengthen services for children who are deprived temporarily or permanently of normal home life and while it may be



necessary to give first priority to their needs, especially in newly independent countries of Africa, the needs of the family, which is universally regarded as the best environment for the nurture of children, should also receive more attention. Social services that will help the family more adequately discharge its functions are of great importance and must be preferred as a preventive measure to the more esoteric forms of curative measures represented by institutional care.

## Chapter III

### SERVICES FOR THE CHILD OF SCHOOL AGE

The age group with which we are concerned in this chapter is that from 5 to 15 years. African children who survive to the age of six or seven have surmounted the greatest hazards of disease and malnutrition. For as we have seen in the preceding chapter, the struggle for survival is the greatest task that faces the African infant and child. Within the school-age group, sickness may still be common, but better health rather than survival becomes the dominant health problem. With this group the greatest need becomes education and preparation for life.

#### A. EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

From an educational standpoint, the age-group 5-15 may be divided into four categories:

- (a) The children of age 8-15 who have not attended any primary school at all or who have attended for less than 3 years;
- (b) Children between the age 5-15 who are currently attending primary school;
- (c) Children of age 11-15 who have completed the full primary course, or the greater part of it, but without secondary school education; and,
- (d) Children of age 11-15 who have completed primary school and are currently attending secondary school.

- (a) *Children who have not attended primary school or who have attended less than three years*

This group constitutes quite a sizable proportion of the school age population with a preponderance of females over males, and a solution to this problem is most difficult to devise. One partial solution has been and can be the organization of literacy programmes, such as that which can be organized in co-operation with UNESCO within the framework of a world campaign for universal literacy. In Ethiopia for example, make-shift classes are provided in community and social centres for certain of this age group in Addis Ababa. A few of these children eventually find their way into the educational system. This, however, cannot be considered as a satisfactory substitute for school education for children who have their whole life as citizens and producers before them.

A bolder experiment has been attempted in Upper Volta, under the Médard-Christol plan. This plan, is aimed at extending primary instruction to some 70 per cent of the school-age population within the next 10 or 15 years. For this purpose the duration of primary school education is reduced to 3 years. Simultaneously, this kind of education is offered to children of 11 to 14, on the assumption that the acquisition of knowledge will be easier at that age, and that pupils will then have

such motivations as will make it possible to give them a pre-agricultural or pre-vocational education combined with general instruction. A network of almost 200 rural education centres corresponding to this pattern, started operating in October 1961. The Plan is supervised by an inter-ministerial Commission. Although this and other similar attempts represent a valuable and original effort to extend education to children too old for ordinary schooling, it must be pointed out:

- (i) that such a programme must be supplemented by adult education programmes; children with only three years of schooling quickly relapse into illiteracy;
- (ii) that it does not dispense with the provision of primary school education of the ordinary even if adapted type, if only for the sake of children who will continue on to secondary education.

Already it has been found that the age group catered to by this Plan, when they graduate, are too young to have any influence on the development of the country since they are not listened to by their elders. Consideration is being given to the possibility of providing this education for young people of 17 or 18 years of age in order to permit the graduates to go immediately into production of their own farms. Moreover, the cost of this system is only a fraction of that of operating classical schools.

(b) *Children attending primary school*

Thirteen African countries out of the twenty-six which furnished relevant information in respect to primary school enrolment and provisions for same have as of 1962 or 1963 already attained the goal of devoting to education 4 per cent of the national income (or 3.2 per cent of the gross domestic product), fixed by the Addis Ababa Plan for 1965. Public expenditure on education per pupil has been shown to have increased on an average to a figure approximating US\$ 56 per pupil—the target fixed by the Plan for 1980. The cost of implementing the Plan therefore requires an increase in public expenditure proportionate to the rise in school enrolment.

In trying to accelerate the expansion of primary education, there are the basic problems of shortage of qualified teachers; special difficulties in recruiting more women teachers and in providing teachers for rural areas, where the shortage is far more acute than in towns. The shortage of school buildings, equipment and houses for teachers may be described as the second urgent problem. The lack of premises is a factor which hampers the extension of rural education and it leads to overcrowding in existing schools. The shortage of textbooks and teaching material may also be cited as a major problem.

(c) *Children who have attended the whole primary education course or the greater part of it, but who are not attending secondary school (11-15)*

It may be assumed that children under this category have received adequate education to qualify for semi-skilled jobs. They may, however, be unemployed as is the case in many African countries. The problem, therefore, differs in nature in the case of the two groups:

*Children who are employed after attending primary school.* The problem here is one of continued education which can be provided by developing adult education schemes. It is assumed that such a formula, although not equivalent to continuous formal education at school, permits supplementing the formal education

of the child at a lesser cost to government or other sources of financing while at the same time enabling the child to play his part as a producer. In Ghana, Nigeria, Tanzania and in other countries as well, "extra-mural" university and college departments have provided facilities for advanced out-of-school education to hundreds of youngsters which have enabled them to complete secondary school education. Such schemes of adult and youth education have the aim of performing a two-fold function:

- (i) to enable the child to do his or her job with greater competence and efficiency especially where the educational programmes have been devised so that they provide an additional background of general education and perhaps some education in citizenship and concentrate on technical and vocational instruction;
- (ii) to enable the most gifted children to be promoted to higher levels of qualification and, possibly, to be directed towards other sectors of employment. Such schemes can include both general education programmes and specialized technical and vocational instruction.

Programmes such as have been suggested above call for educational experiments and studies of all the related social and occupational problems, as a prerequisite to implementation on a scale of any significance since it does not appear that much has been done in Africa so far in providing continuing education to this sub-group within the age group 11 to 15.

*Children who are not employed after attending primary school.* The problem has both a negative and a positive aspect. On the negative side, such youngsters might drift into delinquency and become a liability to society. On the other hand it is possible to prevent such a situation from occurring through a positive approach to the problem. This can be done by extending to this category of children, agricultural, vocational and technical education which will permit them to find employment and give them civic education as well. This has been tried, for instance, in Ivory Coast, where a farm school scheme has been developed; it is difficult to say at this stage how convincing the results are. Here again, the development of educational facilities of this kind would call for provision for them in educational plans, and for experimental pilot projects.

(d) *Children attending secondary school*

All types of post primary education—technical or general, short or long courses—fall under secondary education, whose function is twofold:

- (i) to train the middle level cadres, administrative and technical, which countries need for staffing their public services and their private sectors, and
- (ii) to provide a basis for higher education.

In order to enable secondary education to discharge this two-fold function, several conditions must be met:

- (i) adequate secondary education facilities must be provided to accommodate primary school leavers, in relation to numerical requirements in terms of middle level cadres and of "elites" trained at the University or higher education level;
- (ii) a satisfactory balance must be achieved between educational facilities offered in the way of general educational and of vocational and agricultural education;

- (iii) it must be possible to transfer from a general education course to agricultural or technical and vocational course of the secondary level, and vice versa.

This is why many African countries, particularly among French-speaking areas, move in the direction of a “tronc commun” extending a common basis of knowledge and corresponding to a first cycle, after which either a long course in general education or specialized instruction is provided. However, short secondary courses in agricultural or technical and vocational education are also obviously needed.

All these are problems of educational planning and must be studied within the framework of educational plans, if a proper balance between long and short courses, and academic or specialized education, is to be achieved. It would seem that in the majority of African countries, the priority need in this respect is for expanding the first cycle of secondary education (short course) which will ensure the required output of middle level cadres. Where this has not been done, it is essential that steps be taken to plan, adapt, and expand, as required, secondary level facilities, general or vocational, in relation to estimates of manpower requirements. But even this is too ambitious in a group of countries—including the group of countries of the Sahel—where neither the number of primary school leavers nor the number of openings in the public or private sector warrant even such a modest secondary school expansion.

Educational problems of African countries may be seen more graphically, and in their acute form, in the three countries of Mali, Niger and Upper Volta. In these countries, the proportion of illiterates is almost 95 per cent of the total population. The lack of education makes contact between Government and the citizens very difficult. It hampers any degree of communication with the people—especially concerning matters of development and productivity. Ignorance has virtually put the brakes on progress and makes further effort of raising the cultural level of the population as a whole and of bringing literacy to the masses very difficult. Generally speaking, in these three countries:

- (i) the level of school attendance is low;
- (ii) the rate of “follow-through” is very low, as the number of pupils who complete a full course of study is small in comparison with the number of pupils admitted. In Niger, for example, for every 100 pupils that enter primary school, only 18 obtain the CEP certificate while more than 40 do not even continue beyond the third year of primary school;
- (iii) the level of school attendance is very uneven from one district to another. For example while in Niger it varies only between 4.6 per cent (for schools in the Tahona area) and 16 per cent (in Niamey town) with attendance of 2.5 per cent in the Ouallam district, it fluctuates between 2.5 per cent (Bobo-Dioulasso district) and peaks at 70 per cent (Banfora town) and 92 per cent (Degougou town) in Upper Volta;
- (iv) the level of school attendance does not bear a direct relation to the percentage of the budget allocated to education nor to its absolute value. The largest budget (both relatively and absolutely) is that of Upper Volta. Yet Upper Volta has fewer pupils attending schools than Mali, where the educational budget is very small in relation to the general budget.

Mali, Niger and Upper Volta have faced the problem, and have tried in varying degrees to reform education so as to adapt it to the new situation at the attainment of independence..

	% of the National budget allocated to education	Educational budget as % of the G D P	% of children of school age attending school	CEPE Certificat d'Etudes Primaires et Elémentaires	Diplomas per year			
					Entry to 6th Grade	BE Premier Cycle	Brevet Elémentaire	Baccalauréat
Niger	11.0	1.4	8.9	757	559	174	94	18
Upper Volta	14.6	3.3	9.5	2260	264	?	70	77
Mali	8.3	1.2	11.4	abolished	1809	418	19	46

Source: E/CN.14/SWCD/29. Report of a Mission for the Study of Problems and Prospects in Rural Development of Mali, Niger and Upper Volta, p. 184

The situation as regards general education is summarized in the following table:

Until very recently, the French system of education was rigidly applied to the three countries. This form of education was selective and was geared to non-existent opportunities in the countries. Education seemed to have been conceived as a factory for providing personnel for subordinate and lower grade governmental and other posts—albeit a “factory” of low productivity.

Mali has attained a most far-reaching reform both as regards the structure of curriculum and educational aims. Mali and Upper Volta are now taking into account the tremendous part that agriculture plays in the national economy in planning their educational system. Mali, for example, has made agricultural training compulsory in all educational establishments, except those in towns, even though this feature of the programme has not yet (in 1965) been implemented.

Beginning in 1961, Upper Volta has instituted rural education which runs parallel with traditional education and which is designed for children between 14 and 16 years who have not attended formal school. The latter system has perhaps more in common with adult education (education of young adults) than with formal education. At present (in 1965) there are 300 rural education centres.

## **B. HEALTH AND NUTRITION**

Children of the school age group represent a select community. As has already been pointed out, by the time they reach the age of six or seven, they have surmounted the hazards of infancy and early childhood. The range of their activities beyond the immediate family circle may bring them into contact with fresh sources of infection or expose them to new risks of accident or exploitation; but, in general, the prospects of survival tend to improve throughout childhood. On the other hand, children attending school are likely to be subjected to influences which conflict with the traditional patterns of life at home.

Adolescence is a period subject to particular stress, not only because of the problems arising from puberty, but also because of the difficult social adjustment that the child may be called upon to make. In the age group 12 to 16, they are already beginning to face the problems of puberty and the health problems of adult life, which mainly stem from the always present possibility of epidemic disease and from health hazards resulting from occupation, and in the case of girls, from pregnancy. There are also certain more chronic but crippling disorders which result from diseases maintained in the population because the environment favours them. Examples of the various diseases are bilharziasis, yaws, trypanosomiasis, onchocerciasis and dracontiasis which afflict rural populations in certain areas and countries but not in all; and tuberculosis, malaria and trachoma which affect both urban and rural populations.

In Africa it is also likely that the young people suffer from a degree of under-nutrition due not so much to lack of food as to a failure to prepare what they have in the best way, and, in many parts of Africa, south of the Sahara, to an over-reliance on cassava in the diet. They have their inevitable incidence of gastrointestinal infection and infestation, and it is likely that their normal standard of health is below par when compared with children in other countries at comparable ages. The diet is very important at the age when growth is still being made.

The problem therefore of young people in this age group seems to be that of preparing them to meet life, and to do it thoroughly in such a way that when they become parents themselves they will pass on to their children what they have themselves learnt, and accept with open minds the newer ideas which their own children will bring home to them. In urban areas the problem is not too difficult because the population is exposed daily to changing ideas and to altering habits and customs and to all the restless life of the crowd. In rural areas, however, the problem is quite different. If young people are to be persuaded to remain in these areas, then it is necessary for governments to cease to treat them as derelict areas and to accept the responsibility of reviving them probably by some form of direct action.

The health measures which should be provided for the 11 to 16 age groups are those required by the community itself—good water supply, adequate method of nightsoil disposal, prevention of fly and of mosquito breeding, measures to control local pests such as the tsetse fly and the snail vector of bilharziasis, a proper village layout and household drainage system. Additionally at this age measures for immunization against certain diseases should be undertaken such as smallpox vaccination, if not previously received. *Vaccination for Smallpox, TAB, whooping cough, polio and so on, should be available to all children free of charge by the Public Health Services. And it should be made clear where such services can be had.*

For girls, this is the period when they should be prepared for marriage and child-bearing. Only in very few African countries—Tanganyika, Uganda, Ghana and the UAR—is sex instruction included, even in the most superficial manner, in the school curriculum. Where the subject is considered at all, it is discussed in classes—often male classes—in biology and hygiene. In Tanganyika, for example; “sex education is offered to the more mature students within the general context of the respective curricula subjects, particularly in relation to religious instruction and the sciences. Much of it is still left to the parents”. In Uganda, “some attention to sex education is given at the secondary school level in biology classes...”, in Ghanaian schools the subject is discussed in biology classes superficially and “by doctors operating in limited areas under the aegis of the Christian Council” even though Ghana appears to be the one country where a textbook for this purpose *Marriage Guidance for Young Ghanaians*<sup>17</sup> suited to this age group is available based on local research material.

In the United Arab Republic alone does it appear that “sex education is provided for boys and girls in the schools, and is incorporated in the curriculum of hygiene and biology in their different levels” with the teaching being carried out by “specialized teachers of science and hygiene” and assisted by school doctors and nurses.

The young people themselves consider that such instruction is highly necessary. The point in schooling at which such instruction should be given depends on the age of marriage or of child-bearing in countries. Many ancient and unhealthy customs dominate child-bearing and the life of the infant in most countries and need to be overcome.

School health programmes generally consist of vaccination and X-ray facilities in connexion with small-pox and tuberculosis etc., and establishment of infir-

<sup>17</sup> T. Peter Omari, *Marriage Guidance for Young Ghanaians* (London : Thomas Nelson and Sons Ltd.) 1962



maries and clinic facilities. Countries like Chad make available visits of nurses to schools and have established clinics in the vicinity of schools in the provinces. For those not in school, the problem is generally considerably more difficult. Medical attention is not usually within the reach of those unable to afford such services financially. Several programmes are being instituted to meet this problem. In Ethiopia, some of the hospitals have special hours during which fees paid for medical attention are reduced so that the general public can avail themselves of some medical attention. But since fees are required to be paid in advance before any possibility of seeing a medical officer (otherwise, through the intervention of the social worker), the system is not altogether satisfactory. Countries which require all hospitals and doctors to examine and if necessary to admit sick people brought to the hospitals and clinics before the question of fees even arise, seem to have gone a long way to meet this problem. Mobile Red Cross and hospital vans which go to the rural areas and a widely dispersed hospital and clinic system are necessary aspect to a satisfactory solution of the health problem of school and non-school going children and young people in Africa.

Rural housing can of itself be a major health hazard in some areas of Africa. The great epidemics of cerebro-spinal meningitis in West Africa occurred in the cold season when the population which normally lived and slept on their roof tops moved down into the house rooms and huddled together for warmth at night. The rooms lacked any form of ventilation. Such rooms also form a major tuberculosis risk. In Ethiopia too, tuberculosis takes a great toll in life during the rainy season when poorly-built houses become damp and flooded. While people are not likely to accept radical new types of homes in such areas where the family is a very large and close-knit unit, modifications and improvements in traditional methods of construction would probably be possible, particularly with village youth who have been taught to be carpenters, glaziers, masons, thatchers and so on, and know how to use local materials to the best advantage. In other parts of Africa, wood fires for cooking are normally lit in the main living rooms, resulting in serious eye infections from the smoke which pervades every corner of the rooms and sets up a chemical inflammation providing an ideal base for bacterial and virus infection to invade. In Ethiopia, for instance, lack of adequate housing facilities for the mass of the people coupled with lack of other amenities contribute to the prevalence of diseases that are preventable and curable. Also during the rainy season, because the weather becomes extremely cold at night, many poor people who heat their poorly ventilated bedrooms with charcoal pots, die from carbon monoxide fumes and from asphyxiation.

#### **Nutrition during school age**

The child of school age is in a much better position than the toddler, since he is better able to adapt to the adult household diet, inadequate though this might be. School meals and the distribution of milk or milk substitutes at school are effective methods of providing children of this age with needed supplements. School gardens can produce much of the food needed for school meals and at the same time provide valuable experience in practical nutrition. But school meal programmes are as yet novel in educational planning in the region. It is the general situation for many youngsters to attend school on an empty stomach. A Ghanaian doctor once remarked that in certain countries in Africa (Ghana included at the time) the amount of meat (protein) a child got to eat depended upon the rank of esteem he had in the eyes of the mother. The situation may be presumed to be

improving. But it is a long way yet from the time when some concerted action in this respect will not be necessary. Even in the more developed countries school meal programmes are considered a necessity even though the standard of meals at home is very high. In parts of Africa, it has been found that strict supervision of the itinerant traders who sell food to the school children helps to raise nutritional standards. Children of this age who do not go to school are harder to help, particularly since their symptoms of malnutrition and infection may go undetected.

Teaching the essentials of nutrition should be given a high priority in health education programmes. Nutrition teaching must fulfil at least the following requirements:

- (a) It must be based on a knowledge of local food habits and taboos, cooking facilities, available commodities and prices, and the income levels of the communities;
- (b) It must be flexible and persuasive, adapted to local conditions rather than guided by rigid principles, and it must be interesting;
- (c) Demonstrations, filmstrips, flannelgraphs, etc. are more effective visual aids than posters.

### C. SOCIAL WELFARE NEEDS

General social welfare needs of African children and youth in the age group, 6-16 years, are basically those concerned with their active and purposeful preparation for full participation in adult community life, while providing special support and protection for the "social casualties"—the handicapped, the needy, the abandoned, the neglected, etc. This age group marks the period of transition for the African child. For the great number of them whose future does not lie with any formal education, it is a period of sharp breakaway from sheltered homelife and an early struggle to assist with the family budget.

The instability of the family in times of social transition, for example, may lead to widespread abandonment of children. Juvenile delinquency is also common when the stability of the family is disturbed or broken. Poverty and poor housing cannot always be blamed. While the only remedy to poverty, poor housing etc. is general economic advancement, some of the effects of poverty may be attacked by co-ordinated social measures.

The slum is one of the most serious manifestations of poverty. In both urban and rural areas, poor housing conditions, overcrowding and the lack of environmental sanitation are critical problems. It has proved practical, under certain circumstances, for poorly-housed people to band together to construct their own housing with governmental assistance. Regional and urban planning that takes into account all the relevant economic and social factors (including the drawing power of new industries and the exodus of rural populations to the cities) is the ideal approach. Programmes to improve environmental sanitation, with special emphasis on safe drinking water; playgrounds and day-care centres for children; broader housing programmes, broader health, education and welfare programmes will not lead to a spectacular amelioration of conditions caused primarily by family poverty. But, where the needs of the child are involved, they can at any rate help.

Rapid expansion of youth programmes and services, by both public and private agencies, is occurring in most countries of Africa today. Many of them, unfortunately, are still geared to the historical (colonial) setting and strictly to the

needs of the minority school-going population consisting mainly of spare-time recreational and club activities. Some newly independent countries in Africa, faced with the urgent task of mobilizing all available human resources for accelerated nation-building, have resorted to national youth movements with programmes covering basic education, citizenship, agriculture and national development. In the Congo (Kinshasa), a programme called "Centre de l'Union Congolese" has been set up to bring youths who find no place at school or at work into groups for civic and vocational training. Similar national movements in Ivory Coast, Senegal, Ghana, Uganda, Tanganyika, etc. have been established by direct Governmental effort and with bilateral assistance.

Welfare services for the school-going group in this age-range have covered a wide variety of fields. For example, in the United Arab Republic there are several departments in the Ministry of Education which provide social, cultural and economic services for young people in this age group. These are:

1. The Department of Central Services, which includes different divisions some of which are mainly responsible for providing the necessary social and cultural services for children;
  - (a) Department of Youth Care: responsible for physical and social activities of pupils;
  - (b) Department of Pre-military Training: responsible for the training of pupils in military activities and civil defence;
  - (c) Department of Educational Aids;
  - (d) Library services;
  - (e) Museum of Education.
2. Department of Administrative and Financial Affairs, including school meals, transportation and textbooks.
3. Department of Public Relations, responsible for planning and implementation of certain services such as reading competitions, and radio and TV Programmes for school children. All these Departments are engaged in drawing up plans of services required for the children of school age, and in following up the application of these plans in the different Governorates. In each of the educational zones in the various Governments, there are local divisions, similar to the above-mentioned Central Departments, concerned with the execution of the plans with due consideration to local needs. Education is provided free of cost to this age-group, and textbooks and meals are provided free of charge in the primary, preparatory and secondary stages.

In addition to welfare services provided by the Ministry of Education, there are also in the UAR a national programme of school social work which is extended to both primary and secondary schools, and services extended by the Ministry of Social Affairs to children of school age.

In Libya, library facilities, textbooks, free tuition and mid-day meals are provided to all students through the Ministry of Education; but footwear and clothing are made available only to poorer pupils in school. In some of the countries such as Spanish Africa, mobile libraries, mobile teaching centres and other facilities are offered to non-school going and out-of-school children. It is estimated that by 1967 facilities will be available for all school-age children in Tunisia. Ample facilities already exist for a school meal service to over 160,000 pupils.

Greater emphasis seem to be placed on out-of-school facilities for young people in the broadly conceived youth movements. Much thought, energy and finance seem to be expended on youth movements as an aspect of national development. Judging from the programme of activities and results achieved so far, one is inclined to question the need for such emphasis in relation to current expectations.

### **School health programmes**

In virtually all countries of the region health services are available to school-going children in differing forms and varying degrees. The general pattern is for teachers to send sick children to government (or government-assisted) hospitals for treatment free of charge. Hospitalization is generally free but charges are usually made for the more expensive forms of dental care, and medical treatment. School health programmes, as such, are uncommon. All schools have first aid kits under the supervision of a staff member of the school but organized programmes are to be found in only a few countries such as Senegal, Ivory Coast, Chad, the UAR and Rhodesia.

Up-to-date school health inspection and health education systems exist in Senegal and Ivory Coast. In the UAR medical services are undertaken for children of school-age by a specialized department attached to the Ministry of Public Health. This Department provides free medical treatment for school children. In Rhodesia, a school inspection service is provided by the Ministry of Health and parents are advised if their children require medical or dental attention.

The children of indigent parents obtain free medical and dental treatment by Government Medical Officers through the Department of Social Welfare. In Chad, all pupils and students have health files in which is recorded their medical case history. In the towns and cities, doctors pay periodic visits to schools to give medical examination to pupils and to ensure that vaccination for tuberculosis and smallpox are administered. X-ray examination of all pupils is also carried out and results recorded in the pupils' medical files. In the rural communities, tuberculosis, smallpox and other vaccinations are administered to pupils and X-ray examinations are made. Here, each school has the services of a male nurse and sick children have the use of facilities of the nearest health centre.

## Chapter IV

### SERVICES FOR YOUTH

The period of youthfulness overlaps the period of adolescence. While it is difficult to determine the chronological delimitations of "youth", adolescence is fairly accurately conceived of as being the period embracing the ages of 11 and 18. "Youth" as an age range, may stretch from 15 to 25; and in Africa fairly adult persons are to be found in almost all youth movements and organizations. Also many of the countries responding to the ECA questionnaire include in programmes for youth, activities which involve much younger children than are considered here. But we are concerned in this chapter with the age group 15 to 25.

The main general problem facing African countries is the great number of young people who have reached adolescence without any schooling, or with only a short period of primary education, with perhaps a poor foundation of health; with little or no training for the newer types of employment that are becoming available, especially in the big towns and cities, and with great uncertainty as to how best they can be involved in the national development effort.

The problems and needs of youth have in recent years been given growing attention and consideration by the United Nations Family and particularly by UNESCO, ILO, FAO and BSA.

The UNESCO International Conference on Youth in Grenoble (France) held in 1964, dealt with the many aspects of out-of-school education and particularly recommended<sup>18</sup>:

- (a) Preparation of young people for working life;
- (b) Preparation of young people for leisure time activities;
- (c) Preparation of young people for civil and social life;
- (d) Preparation of young people for international life and understanding.

The needs of youth in relation to work and preparation for work have been summarized by ILO as follows<sup>19</sup>:

- (a) The need for a good foundation for work, including a good general education and appropriate training;
- (b) The need for work;
- (c) The need for development and learning at work;
- (d) The need for health care and for opportunities for sound physical and psychological development;

<sup>18</sup> UNESCO/ED/211. *Final Report of the International Conference on Youth*, (Paris, Nov. 10, 1964)

<sup>19</sup> ILO : *Youth Vocational Centres Exploratory Memo*, ICEF, 11-1

- (e) The need for leisure for opportunities for rest, relaxation and recreation for over-time activity;
- (f) The need for confidence in society and its future, for opportunities and constructive community co-operation for adherence and dedication to a worthy cause.

The twelfth session of the FAO Conference, Rome, 16 November-5 Dec. 1963, discussed "measures to develop rural youth activities in the world especially with a view to improving agricultural production and social conditions in developing countries"<sup>20</sup>. The Conference was in unanimous agreement about the increasing importance of activities on behalf of rural youth particularly in regard to out-of-school agricultural training and welcomed the proposal for intensifying FAO's work in this field<sup>21</sup>.

The conference also adopted a resolution which *inter alia* (a) recognized FAO's responsibility towards the future farmers and farm wives who form an important part of the world population and on whose training and abilities the future development of agriculture will largely depend; (b) considered the important contribution which rural youth organizations and out-of-school training programmes are making in several countries to improve the standard of living in rural districts through the diffusion of modern up-to-date production techniques; and (c) considered that FAO should play a leading role in the promotion of rural youth programmes.<sup>22</sup>

The Economic and Social Commission of the Organization of African Unity, meeting in Niamey, Niger, in December 1963, and in Cairo, UAR, in January 1965, devoted part of its deliberations to the problems of Youth in relation to the economic and social development of the region within the context of African Unity. It adopted resolutions which, *inter alia*, called for:

- (a) The harmonization and co-ordination of the various cultural activities of the Youth Open Air Education Movement<sup>23</sup>;
- (b) The organization of inter-African and international Youth work camps for voluntary work<sup>24</sup>;
- (c) The promotion of a policy of vocational training on an African regional scale<sup>25</sup>; and
- (d) expressed its view on co-ordinating the efforts of FAO with the ECA Secretariat for the implementation of such resolutions<sup>26</sup>.

#### MEETING THE NEEDS OF YOUTH

To meet the needs enumerated above, services under health, educational, vocational and social welfare auspices are necessary. In urban areas, these services need to be brought into focus and given opportunity for concerted action in comprehensive urban programmes for families, children and youth. In rural areas,

<sup>20</sup> FAO : *Report of the twelfth session of the Conference 16 Nov.-5 Dec.1963*,p.67

<sup>21</sup> *Ibid*, p.67

<sup>22</sup> *Ibid*.

<sup>23</sup> OAU ECOS/19/RES/5(1) para. 5(b), (c). Niamey, 13 December 1963

<sup>24</sup> OAU ECOS/18/HES/4(1) para.5, Niamey, 13 December 1963

<sup>25</sup> OAU ECOS/RES.11(II) Cairo, 22 January 1965

<sup>26</sup> *Ibid*.

they can have a part in integrated rural development programmes, perhaps on the pattern of the "Combined Units" of the United Arab Republic. Of considerable importance in rural areas is agricultural extension and home economics extension services which reach young people, especially through young progressive farmers' activities.

Programmes for youth may focus around three major fields of activities:

- (a) Activities connected with the preparation of young men and women for effective participation in the social and economic life and development of their communities and countries as well as their involvement in the development process of their communities and countries as the best "agents of development";
- (b) Activities connected with the preparation of young men and women for constructive citizenship and their active participation in service to their communities and countries;
- (c) Activities to enable youth to make constructive use of their leisure time for the promotion of their physical and mental development.

The needs and programmes for youth must be conceived, first, as falling within a two-fold classification of those in school and those not in school.

#### **The in-school youth**

There is little question that the primary needs of this group are training and recreational facilities. Young people of this category who are not in school or in some form of training are handicapped. All consideration of "mobilization of the youth for national development" presupposes a state of preparedness on the part of the individual adolescent which has equipped him for useful participation in some sector of the national development programme.

All other factors are secondary. If the educational needs of this age group are accepted as paramount, and if the possibility exists for all young men and women of this age group to be enrolled in educational institutions and in other vocational and training programmes, then the major problem is contained.

The needs and problems of this age group can therefore be conceived as one which arises out of inadequate educational and training facilities, and unavailability of recreational and other leisure time activities and facilities. There is no question of availability—for national development in an unprepared State; and the question of employment hardly arises before completion of training except in the case of drop-outs.

The problems and needs of adolescents and the youth are:

- (a) Secondary and technical (vocational) education;
- (b) Recreational facilities;
- (c) Sex education and guidance;
- (d) Moral protection.

(a) *Secondary and technical (vocational) education.* Secondary education in Africa has generally taken the form of "grammar" schooling of the type intended largely to prepare young people for admission to the universities. Few young people are privileged to avail themselves of this opportunity. At the 1961 Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa held in Addis Ababa, it was noted that "some African countries have unduly neglected secondary and higher education in proportion to primary education" and it went further to say

that "Economic development is highly dependent on skills of the sort which are taught in institutions to students of 15 years of age and upwards. It is of the highest priority", the report continues, "to ensure that an adequate proportion of the population receives secondary, post-secondary and university education; this should be put before the goal of universal primary education if, for financial reasons, these two are not yet compatible".<sup>27</sup>

Financial expenditures for youth programmes in the various countries of the region are not readily available. But judging from the scale on which they are organized and administered and the expectations held out for them, these must be enormous. Yet their contribution to national development is negligible in comparison with expenditures on them. It is to be expected that investment in youth movements could yield more that is directly relevant to national development if at least a part of such sums were diverted to provision for secondary and technical education for the youth. The Addis Ababa Conference obviously had such a situation in mind, and out of the concern for shortage of *educated* youth, had this to say further to the quotation above, "Plans for economic and social development depend upon an adequate supply of teachers, technicians, agricultural assistants, nurses, book-keepers, secretaries, medical technologists, clerks and other secondary level skills. Whereas the numbers required at the university level are so small that deficiencies can be met by external recruitment at relatively small cost, the numbers required at the secondary level are so large that deficiencies seriously handicap development".<sup>28</sup>

Vocational training is also of major importance here. Many of the difficulties that African countries are now experiencing in connexion with mounting unemployment among school leavers, are due to the fact that the education for this group has lacked vocational bias. The "classical" and "grammar" school education which they have received have prepared the young people only for further studies and not for employment. At best many of them can be clerks of a low grade and are generally unsuited for independent action. Vocational and technical schools are in fact the best answer to the needs of the educational system of many countries of the region. This fact has just recently been appreciated so that much effort is now being put into the establishment of vocational and technical education for the youth—especially for girls.

Traditionally Africans have trained their youth in various occupations through an apprenticeship system whereby a young person is attached to a blacksmith, carpenter or some such occupation in order that through the years and by the time he reaches adulthood he becomes a master craftsman and is so established. Where modern educational, vocational and technical facilities are not available, especially in the villages, such a system of apprentice training may be developed and supervised within the framework of formal educational systems. Some countries have begun to look into this neglected field. In Nigeria young boys and girls are attached to Nigerian-owned private enterprises and grow up learning various trades. This system is described by Mr. Archibald Callaway in his informative article, "Nigeria's Indigenous Education: the Apprenticeship System".<sup>29</sup>

<sup>27</sup> *The Final Report*, p.10

<sup>28</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>29</sup> *Odu: University of Ibadan, Journal of African Studies* (Vol.1 No.1 July 1964 pp.1-18)



“Within the walls of the old city of Kano, a 14-year old boy sews strips of leather for an elaborate harness to be used in a durbar; during the day he learns leatherwork from his uncle and in the evening he studies the Koran under a mallam. In Benin City, a boy who completed primary school at his home 40 miles away bends over the greasy motor of a transport lorry as the master mechanic cleans its carburettor. A 12-year-old girl in Akwete, Eastern Nigeria, comes home from primary school and goes to her mother’s loom where she practises the complex patterns of a weaving which has become widely known. Setting off in a canoe from Clerk Town near Calabar, a young boy goes with an itinerant trader to help sell an assortment of imported articles in nearby villages. Under a thatched shelter in Aiye, a remote village in Kabba province, a school leaver patches a bicycle tyre and then silently watches his master repair a broken brake cord.

“These are random examples of apprentices—some two million of them—found throughout Nigeria learning a wide range of arts and crafts, from the traditional skills of wood-carving and bronze-casting to the contemporary ones of electrical wiring and dry-cleaning. These young people spend long hours in markets, in workshops, on building sites, in motor parks, and behind the tailboards of lorries plying between near and distant points. They are learning to trade, to drive vehicles, to collect passengers and freight, to handle tools and machines. They are learning to make clay bricks and concrete blocks, to build houses, to bake bread, and to repair cars, trucks, typewriters, and household electrical equipment. They are acquiring the techniques of working with wood (carvers, carpenters), with metals (blacksmiths, tinsmiths, goldsmiths), with leather (shoe and sandal makers, tanners), with cloth (tailors, seamstresses), with raffia and cane (hat, chair, and mat makers).”

In Ghana, *The Apprentices Act (45) of 1961* established “an Apprentices Board to co-ordinate and regulate matters relating to apprentices and to provide for purposes connected therewith or incidental thereto” and it provides the formal framework for a similar system whereby young people receive much-needed training in the trades and crafts.

(b) *Recreational facilities.* It has become fashionable to speak of “youth” largely in terms of out-of-school young men and women. With current awareness of the motive power of young people in the age group 15 to 25, several programmes have been designed to include also those in school attendance. In the United Arab Republic, the Supreme Council for Youth Welfare caters to the following categories of “youth”: children, students, workers, farmers, professionals, employees. Activities are designed so that school-going young people participate in all aspects of the programme, for example:

- (i) Students who excel in social fields are encouraged to enter the universities, higher institutes and colleges even if their academic performance is not of the highest calibre;
- (ii) A student bank has been founded to assist, financially, needy students. After graduation, the students refund the loans in long-term instalments;
- (iii) Adequate student houses which are provided now afford students decent social care and enable them to pursue their studies;

- (iv) Libraries are established in universities, institutes, colleges, schools and various centres to help widen the scope of students' knowledge, and to make them familiar with various cultures;
- (v) Universities, higher institutes, academies, police and the armed forces participate in annual sports, social, cultural and art contests;
- (vi) Holiday camps are organized for all students during vacation and holidays<sup>30</sup>.

Almost all schools make provision for participation of pupils and students in various forms of recreational activities. That students are largely pre-occupied with academic pursuits tends to diminish the extent of their participation in comparison with non-school-going youth. Nevertheless many of the athletes produced by the various countries in the region — in the lawn-tennis, table-tennis, track and other indoor games—have come from the educational institutions.

(c) *Sex education and guidance.* Reports from the various countries of the region indicate only superficial attention to the need in this field. It would appear that sex education and guidance of the youth is a most neglected field both for the school-going and the out-of-school youth<sup>31</sup>.

(d) *Moral protection.* Statistics on crime and delinquency on school-going youth are not available; nevertheless such behaviour among this group may be considered rare. Concern for the moral welfare of this group have been confined to film censorships and occasional outbursts against promiscuity among school girls<sup>32</sup>. Delinquent behaviour appears to be more prevalent among children than among the 15-25 school-going age group. Among the non-school going group, youthful delinquency involving both boys and girls has given cause for widespread concern. But among the student group, alcoholism appears to be on the increase and so is smoking and other behaviour traditionally absent from among student groups on this continent.

#### The out-of-school youth

Given the limited education of most of the youth, "it seems reasonable to make the assumption that the youth problem is fundamentally one of finding employment and that it is therefore indissolubly linked with general economic and social development and will not be resolved except in association with efforts directed at raising the whole standard of living, that is, levels of both production and consumption" of the countries as a whole<sup>33</sup>.

Unemployment among youth has now become a matter of concern for many governments in Africa (as is also the case in Asia and Latin America). One of the contributing factors is the high proportion of young people under the age of 15 in the population and programmes of accelerated expansion of primary and middle school education without corresponding facilities for higher and technical education. For example in Ghana, between 1957 and 1963, just over 100,000 extra

<sup>30</sup> See *Compendium of Youth Welfare in the United Arab Republic*, issued by the Supreme Council for Youth Welfare.

<sup>31</sup> See Omari T. Peter, *op. cit.*, pp.1 - 4

<sup>32</sup> See, for example, Callebach, Julius, *Juvenile Prostitutes in Nairobi* (Kampala : East African Institute of Social Research, 1962)

<sup>33</sup> Comment by Mr. Peter Kuenstler, United Nations Inter-regional Youth Adviser on a visit to Dahomey, October 31 - November 8, 1965

employment places became available, whereas in the same period over 160,000 left elementary schools<sup>34</sup>.

The situation in Nigeria was similar where, in the Western Region the output of successful school leavers rose from 54,000 in 1958 to 129,000 in 1960 while in the Eastern Region above 800,000 primary school-leavers are expected to be looking for employment by 1968<sup>35</sup>.

The only asset of school leavers is their literacy, for they have no skills. Previously, they had some reasonable assurance of clerical jobs in the cities; but now the situation has changed. And since for a vast majority of them there is no hope of secondary education and even less the inclination of returning to their rural environment from which many of them have come to the cities, the seed of disillusionment has taken root in the minds of many.

All of this strengthens the view that provisions for educational and training facilities for youth commands the highest priority. Several of the countries, notably Ghana, had attempted to provide training on the mass level to the youth through organizations and movements such as the Workers' Brigade.<sup>36</sup>

The Builders' Brigade, later designated as the Workers' Brigade—"The Agricultural Army of Ghana" came into being in 1957, immediately after Ghana's independence, and as a result of restlessness among a vast number of young unemployed youth. The Brigade was intended to provide useful occupation in the trades to the unemployed youth who were unable to secure either formal apprenticeship or steady employment; to afford the youth of the country an opportunity to give patriotic service in the development of the country; and to assist in the execution of development projects, especially in rural areas.

Through the Brigade it was intended to create work for as many men and women as possible between the ages 25 and 45 who were without employment, and for young persons between 15 and 24 years. Men were to be employed on building feeder roads, small water works, schools and communal buildings, drainage schemes, rural electricity supplies and low-cost housing. Unemployed women, also eligible to enlist in the Brigade, were to be engaged in cooking, sewing, marketing of produce, office work, farming, poultry raising, food preservation and household duties in the camps. Some of the girls even underwent training to become fitters and automechanics. The Department of Social Welfare and Community Development was entrusted with the task of establishing the Brigade and the first enlisted group consisted of one-third ex-service men (veterans), one-third persons recommended by the Trades Union Congress (TUC), and one-third from among the general public.

The Brigade's operation proved to be far more expensive than was anticipated, and having from the beginning become a depository for youthful malcontents removed from the political scene, it became difficult both to operate and to show results.

From the beginning Brigaders who had completed a course of training were supposed to leave the organization and to seek employment elsewhere or be

<sup>34</sup> *West Africa*, No.2,394, 20 April 1963

<sup>35</sup> Eastern Nigeria Development Plan, 1962 - 1968, Chapter 3

<sup>36</sup> See Hodge, Peter. The Ghana Workers Brigade : A project for unemployed youth" in *The British Journal of Sociology*, June 1964, pp. 113-128

enabled to operate on their own, in order that a new batch of trainees could be recruited. But the members of the Brigade became a self-perpetuating entity and the size increased by additional intake. It is difficult to assess now the contribution of the Ghana Workers Brigade to the aims for which it was first-established.

On a smaller scale are the efforts of several countries such as Ethiopia and Tanzania to orient students and graduates of the universities (Ethiopia) and of young men generally (Tanzania) towards a realization of the needs of the countries by requiring them to do work for certain periods of time in the rural areas either on a patriotic basis or as a requirement of the university educational programme.

In Ethiopia, particularly, students of the Haile Selassie I University must work for one year in the rural areas and in the field of their specialty before diplomas and certificates are issued to them at the end of their course. The programme has been in existence for little more than a year and has already begun to run into much difficulty on purely organizational grounds. But students and faculty alike admit the programme's usefulness. Such a programme should be conceived more as a special educational requirement than as of a welfare potential.

#### **Organizational framework for youth work programmes**

Programmes for youth in Africa are carried out within the following organizational framework:

- (a) *Voluntary local youth organizations.* The local youth club within a community centre in urban and rural areas, the independent youth club, the youth club initiated, organized and supervised by local groups; all these with or without municipal or governmental assistance, with or without national set-ups.
- (b) *Voluntary national and international youth movements,* such as the Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, YMCA, YWCA, Red Cross, Special Interest Groups, such as International Voluntary Work Camps, etc., whose activities are or should be spread all over a country and whose local clubs and formations are all affiliated in a National Association which in turn is a member of its International Association. Such voluntary youth movements may or may not be assisted by government or municipalities or private sponsoring bodies.
- (c) *Rural Youth Organizations,* such as the 4-H Clubs and Young Farmers' Organizations whose activities are usually spread all over the rural areas of the country. These and other such organizations are normally supported, advised and assisted at the local, district, provincial and national level by the Extension Service of the Ministry of Agriculture.
- (d) *State National Youth Organizations.* Organized and run by governments to meet specific needs of African youth and the practical part they should play in the development of their countries along government policies and plans.

State National Youth Organizations are usually arranged into two sub-divisions of National Youth Work:

- (a) State National Youth Organizations or movements mainly working with the age groups up to 18.

- (b) State National Youth Organizations, such as the National Youth Service, *Service Civique* or National Pioneering Youth composed of young men and women of the higher age groups (18-25). The task of these organizations (National Youth Service, *Service Civique* etc.) is mainly to fulfil in practice specific social, educational (including literacy, vocational and agricultural education and training) and economic needs of the country and its youth such as youth employment, specific training for needed skills, new modern agricultural villages, (may be in a co-operative way) special development projects, road building, clearing bush, etc. In this organizational frame for youth activities, young men and women are usually occupied "full time" in training and work for relatively long periods (6 - 30 months).

"National co-ordinating bodies" such as National Youth Councils, a National Youth Bureau within a Ministry or a Ministry for Youth or a National Board for Youth have the task of planning, co-ordinating, aiding and supervising all youth work in various organizational frames for youth existing in a country. They play an important role in the promotion and development of youth activities and in meeting their specific needs.

#### **Activities for Youth**

Activities for youth are to be found mainly in provision for:

(a) *Physical recreation and sports.* Youth welfare can legitimately be deemed to involve facilities for recreation. If a state of full employment and training existed for them, physical development and recreational activities would constitute the priority for youth for the major part of the year.

In this, all the countries of the region make some provision. In the United Arab Republic, for example, physical recreation and sports are available in private clubs, ministerial clubs, youth centres and in popular centres or rural clubs. In Malawi, a National Council for Sport and Culture was established by law in 1963 to encourage the promotion of sports and cultural activities throughout the country and the Department of Community Development and Social Welfare has provided playing fields in every district and at certain educational institutions. It also provides grants-in-aid to local authorities to employ sports organizers. In Rhodesia, local government and private bodies sponsor recreational and sports clubs throughout the country, while in the Sudan a Sports Control Section has been established under the Ministry of Information and Labour to supervise, initiate and actively participate in sports of all kinds throughout the country. In many others such as Gabon, Ghana, Ivory Coast and Tanzania physical recreation and sports are provided through various sports associations and youth movements such as the YMCA, YWCA, Boy Scouts, etc., which are supported financially and encouraged by the appropriate governmental agencies for youth. Similar facilities are also offered by industrial and commercial concerns. Schools and colleges promote sports and recreation also.

(b) *Holiday schemes and vacation camps.* These services, provided as governmental programmes, are available only in a few countries—notably the United Arab Republic. Here, holiday schemes and vacation camps are organized as governmental programmes for students in the form of camping, excursions and recreational activities for workers, farmers and employees, in youth camps and non-governmental recreational and educational camps are sponsored by private and voluntary bodies as well.

In Uganda there is a beginning effort in the operation of voluntary work camps, drawing upon young people of secondary school and college levels, with the arrival of a director of the voluntary work camps association, in the country. For the most part voluntary organizations and youth clubs and organizations such as the Boy Scouts and Girl Guides, organize such schemes. For the non-school-going youth, there is seldom the opportunity for direct participation in holiday and vacation camps, however.

(c) *Vocational guidance and youth employment agencies.* It appears that, with the exception of moral guidance, which is provided in some YMCA and YWCAs, little in the way of guidance of any kind is available even in the schools. But vocational guidance of some type is given by a few labour agencies and departments of government in two or three countries reporting. In Tanganyika, Tanzania, no formal organization as such exists for vocational guidance to school children, although teachers perform this task as part of their normal duties, and representatives of various professional, commercial and industrial concerns visit schools at specified periods for the express purpose of enlightening prospective candidates of the nature and prospects of work within their respective enterprises.

Facility for youth employment, where they exist at all, such as in the UAR, Ghana, Tanganyika, Zambia, Rhodesia, Sierra Leone, Tunisia, Malawi, Chad, etc., only represent limited opportunities offered as part of the regular employment facilities of Labour Departments and Exchanges. Some of these Labour Departments endeavour to place young persons in positions best suited to their abilities. Much of the unemployment problem facing African countries goes directly to lack of vocational guidance and counselling centres and programmes. For even the few that are able to avail themselves of technical and vocational training do so without benefit of guidance and counselling and therefore embark upon courses irrelevant to the realities of the labour market. Even university graduates come to the labour market without any information as to their chances of employment or the suitability of their qualifications for the occupations they wish to pursue. The result is generally wastage of scarce manpower and under-employment in civil service departments.

(d) *Literacy.* Out-of-school education is generally designed for adults and young people as a substitute for formal schooling when the latter cannot be provided, or as a supplement to it in the light of the needs and requirements of the individuals and society. The types of training which it provides, varying from reading and writing to the starting levels of higher education, and the flexibility of its organization, could make of it an ideal means of helping rural populations—especially rural youth—to obtain access to the different forms of education. Even though it is often difficult to assess the scope of the effort undertaken in the field of education outside school, it does not appear that maximum use is being made of the material available in the rural areas. Through Mass Education and literacy campaigns some segments of the adult population are reached.

But adult literacy campaigns and activities have not been known to produce sufficient literate persons for employment purposes. Much progress has, nevertheless, been made through university extension and extra-mural studies which have sponsored evening classes leading to university degrees and diplomas and post primary and secondary school qualifications. Some technical schools have begun to offer evening classes and refresher courses to unemployed and out-of-school youth generally.

Up to now, programmes of extra-mural studies of the Universities, have been planned to meet the requirements of secondary school leavers. Consideration needs to be given to the formulation of schemes which would include audio-visual aids for the illiterate sections of the community. The use of mass media in this way will enable large sections of the community to keep in touch with current economic, social, political and technological developments. This is not ideal approach. But it does not confuse literacy, which is a means, with the end - the sharing of knowledge and experience and the creation of an ethos for a community.

It is generally assumed that the provision of universal education, including mass literacy, is desirable. Though this assumption cannot be challenged, it is becoming apparent that the budget of most African countries cannot bear the burden. When sacrifices are made to increase the output of primary schools the problem of unemployment of primary school leavers begins to loom large. There is need, therefore, for a strategy of education which will make it possible to educate an optimum rather than a maximum number of persons who can be absorbed by an expanding economy. This raises the question of what the modern communities of Africa should do with those who do not have opportunities for schooling.

(e) *Other services.* Other services provided to the youth of the region include libraries and library facilities, musical academies, dancing and drama groups or academies, singing schools and classes. In Rhodesia, for example, an "Outward Bound School" for youth between 16 and 25 offers courses designed to stimulate leadership and to develop character.

For the moral protection of youth, laws exist in almost all the countries of the region either in respect of employment of young persons or sale of alcoholic beverages to minors, participation of young girls in prostitution, etc. Film censorship is undertaken and measures are taken to prevent delinquency, which have resulted in the establishment of places of detention, industrial schools, approved schools and reformatories, etc. The extent to which these measures in fact protect young people and keep them from involvement in immoral and delinquent behaviour is open to both question and further research.

## B. YOUTH AND THE PROBLEM OF RURAL EXODUS

In Africa, it has, for some time, become fashionable to cry for a return of the youth to the land. Governments have mounted campaigns to get the youth into agriculture; and incentives of all sorts have been offered the enterprising youth who return to farming. Educationists have soliloquized loudly on the subject of whether the educational programmes are suited for this "return" to the land. Colonial regimes have received their share of blame for conditions that are supposed to have led to such an "undesirable" state of affairs; and, in short, almost everybody has some expertise on this problem. The fault is perhaps not due to lack of knowledge but more to inaction.

Raymond Humbert of UNESCO posed the problem at the 1962 World Assembly of Youth Seminar on Rural Exodus as to whether rural exodus exists at all. "Should we not talk about a general urbanization of the population? Should not the phenomenon of human evolution be considered as normal, which means that it is no longer a phenomenon and completely reversible, but something which

has lasted since time immemorial”<sup>37</sup>. It has been suggested here and elsewhere that this exodus is perhaps nothing more than a normal process of migration resulting in a healthy urbanization of the population. According to the recent census in 1962, the following French towns, in comparison to 1954, had a population increase of: Marseilles 16.9 per cent; Lyon 11.3 per cent; Toulouse 20.6 per cent; Nice 19 per cent; Nantes 8.2 per cent; Toulon 19 per cent; Grenoble 36.8 per cent. During the same time the population of Dakar increased 20.2 per cent, which is markedly lower than the rate of increase of the rest of the cities of West Africa.<sup>38</sup>

Rate of urban growth in Eight West African countries

Country	Total population	Total population	Current Total population	Rate of increase
Dakar(Senegal)	30,000 in 1936	305,000 in 1953	366,600	20.2
Lagos(Nigeria)	99,700 in 1921	230,000 in 1950	350,000	52.2
Accra(Ghana)	38,400 in 1921	135,000 in 1948	388,231	187.4
Abidjan (Ivory Coast)	17,500 in 1936	86,800 in 1951	212,000	143.7
Freetown (Sierra Leone)	44,100 in 1921	85,000 in 1953	125,000	47.1
Conakry(Guinea)	13,600 in 1936	52,900 in 1951	112,491	111.3
Porto-Novo (Dahomey)	21,643 in 1928	33,525 in 1950	60,000	81.8
Bathurst (Gambia)	9,400 in 1921	19,600 in 1951	30,000	53.0

Rural exodus as conceptualized in Africa is distinct from migration, however, in the sense that although both imply and involve movement of people from one locality to another in response to some real or fancied benefits at the receiving end, the former is imbued with all the undesirable qualities of mass movement resulting in a depletion of the youthful elements from the rural communities to an urban locus. While rural migration may imply movement from rural to rural or from rural to urban areas and vice versa, rural exodus implies a one-way movement and it is a negative force in rural development in much of the developing countries of the world today. “For the people of my generation”, according to Mr. Humbert, “the word exodus summons up the idea of people on the roads fleeing from bombardments and blown-up bodies. And, basically, it means that it is an uncontrollable phenomenon which is affected not only by rational causes”.<sup>39</sup>

Rural exodus is not to be seen only in terms of a reduction in the population size of the rural areas. It is a recognized fact that the rural population of all agricultural countries of the developing world are proportionately too big, which results in under-employment and disguised unemployment. According to some economists there is need for a planned reduction of the rural population in these

<sup>37</sup> Raymond Humbert, “Why Workers leave the Countryside” in WAY, *Rural Exodus*; causes and cures, 1962, p.45

<sup>38</sup> See Table of Rate of Urban Growth in Eight West African Countries

<sup>39</sup> Raymond Humbert, *Op. cit.*, p.46



countries—"anything they could produce elsewhere would be a clear addition to the real national income."<sup>40</sup> In the more advanced countries such as the United States and Britain, only 10 per cent of the population is engaged in agriculture while in Africa the percentage is upwards of 90 per cent in some countries. In rural exodus, we are concerned with a reduction in the quality of the rural population.

The combined effect of "rural exodus" and normal rural-to-urban migration presents us with a situation in which the larger proportion of school-leavers and the youthful and able-bodied members of the rural society leave their normal residences for the urban centres for a variety of reasons.

The African population is, on the whole, very youthful. An analysis of the age composition of twenty-three selected African countries shows that the present age structure is not expected to alter significantly as a result of population growth, so that the three age categories, under 15, 15-59 and 60 or older, would constitute approximately 40 per cent, 55 per cent and 5 per cent respectively of the population.<sup>41</sup> It is hypothesized that the youthful and working population are the ones more involved in this movement away from the rural areas. The general nature of this migration has often been described.<sup>42</sup>

In Central Africa, for instance, countries such as Zambia, Angola, Mozambique, Rwanda, Burundi and the High Commission territories constitute reservoirs of labour for other countries. Here, it is estimated that "about 40 per cent of the adult male population of the areas may be away from their tribal areas, and that in some areas the proportion may be as high as 75 per cent."<sup>43</sup>

If in addition to such high proportions of normal migration the youth begin to desert the rural communities, a situation of having no residents in these communities other than women — and old women at that — old men and children will begin to be widespread. The consequences of such a situation are real.

The exodus from the countryside and the rapid growth of towns all over Africa pose some of the most acute economic and social problems for Governments in both their rural and their urban development programmes. In the rural areas, the absence of large numbers of young adult males (who, rather than females, tend to migrate) has resulted, in many areas, in the deterioration of agriculture and the lowering of output. Even when agricultural output has been maintained, it is generally recognized that in the absence of a large proportion of the adult male population, the rate of improvement in farming methods is considerably lower than it should have been.<sup>44</sup> This was obviously the situation at the root of Ghana's food shortages during 1965-1966; for not only had increased school enrolment in the countryside deprived farmers of the services of "children who were available in the past to work several hours a day, but mainly to assist in carrying crops from the farms to the main roads, sometimes over a distance of fifteen miles on foot...", the shortage might also be attributable, in part, to this exodus because

<sup>40</sup> See Ragnar Nurske, *Problems of Capital Formation in Under-developed Countries* (Oxford, Basil Blackwell, 1963) p.36

<sup>41</sup> See United Nations *Report on the World Social Situation*, 1963, p.178

<sup>42</sup> No study has been conducted yet as to the nature and extent of this "exodus". See ILO, *African Labour Survey, Studies and Reports*, New Series, No.48, Geneva, 1958.

<sup>43</sup> United Nations, *World Social Situation*, 1963, p.178

<sup>44</sup> *Ibid.*

“labour actually involved in the growing and harvesting of crops has probably migrated to industrial areas”.<sup>45</sup>

A recent study, for example, indicate that while women provide the main form of labour in subsistence farming in Zambia, they are little interested in agricultural improvement.<sup>46</sup> In Sierra Leone, migrating to the towns has deprived the countryside of labour and has especially affected palm-kernel production, since it has always been the young men’s job to cut the fruit.

### Push-pull factors of migration

Rural residents are motivated by certain factors towards migrating. What are some of the factors that promote this exodus? Such reasons as can be given are general and fall within the following categories:

1. Sociological
2. Economic
3. Psychological

1. *Sociological conditions.* Many studies of migration in Western countries show that even though economic conditions attract or “pull” migrants to a particular location, the “push” factor — that which finally “pushes” them out—is largely sociological in the broadest sense. Given conditions that have existed in most of the rural areas in Africa, many young people who migrate to the urban areas would do so even if the economic incentive there were not so favourable. In short, many people leave the countryside because social conditions in these places offer them no incentives to stay—given the educational opportunities, family structure and avenues for self-improvement that are available to them in the rural communities.

In listing the reasons “why workers leave the countryside”<sup>47</sup> Mr. Humbert gives us the first reason for rural emigration. The fact that “Parental authority, which is often very strict and conservative, provokes among youth educated in modern schools, who have a deep sense of liberty and who want liberty above all, a feeling of revolt which makes them leave the clan.” African family solidarity which many educated people tend to view as one of the more positive aspects of life in Africa today, could also in a different way cause the exodus to the towns for it enables the youth to rid themselves of much of the traditional close supervision of relatives as well as ensures them the freedom of action which they seek.

Michael Banton in his study of tribal life in Freetown<sup>48</sup> found that although “the young men themselves stressed that the foremost reason for coming to the towns was that money was so easily obtained there”, most of the reasons given in the second, third and fourth places concerned the fact that (a) “in Freetown they were free whereas in their chiefdoms they were subject to oppression and extortion,” (b) “there was too much palaver over women in the country,” and (c) the fact that “immigrants who had received any schooling .....could never achieve their ambitions in the country.”

<sup>45</sup> *Report of the Commission of Enquiry into Trade Malpractices in Ghana* (Accra Office of the President, 1966)

<sup>46</sup> Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, *Report on an Economic Survey of Nyasaland 1958-1959*, Salisbury

<sup>47</sup> It is interesting, in this respect to note that the title of this talk was not “why the unemployed leave the countryside”. Humbert, *Op. cit.*, p.48

<sup>48</sup> *West African City* (London, Oxford University Press, 1957) p.57

The overriding factor in this migration from the countryside on the social level is the lag in social change between town and country. In social as well as in economic matters, according to Mr. Banton, town and country in Africa have not yet struck a balance. The country is so much more inferior than the city in the social attractions it offers an ambitious man in Africa today that the economic factors that pull him to the city is only in order that these social benefits can be acquired. Only the countryman who has not travelled is not attracted by the social and economic benefits of city life. "The freedom offered by the atmosphere of the towns is proving especially attractive to native women, who find there greater equality, better medical facilities and nutrition, and freedom from the witchcraft which they often hold responsible for the death of their babies"<sup>49</sup>

The educational system which presents more a sociological problem than an economic one, is one of the main causes of the exodus of rural youth to the urban centres. Given the state of development of the rural areas, and the general lack of facilities for pursuing the calling for which the young adult has been prepared, it is only natural that he must leave this community in search of greener pastures. The educational system may be "ill adapted"; but to the environment more so than to the young person himself. "It perpetrates a colonial complex and only offers a purely intellectual training devoid of any technical bias or even practice."<sup>50</sup> This is largely the reason why almost all "return-to-the-land" programmes for school-leavers have failed.

The young person returning to the land has never really been part of the land. True, he has lived most of his life in the country but he had had little or no agricultural experience—experience of the sort that should interest him in that occupation. Almost all primary schools have "gardening" as a subject which forms part of the curriculum. But this class inevitably has the deleterious effect of alienating the young from activities involving the tilling of the soil because of the way it is organized and how the practical aspect is carried out.

The countryside does not offer the possibilities for cultural activities that are available in the cities and urban centres — activities such as cinemas, orchestras and sports displays. These are the major things which greatly delight youth. Such recreational activities as exist in the rural areas are confined to singing traditional songs, drumming and dancing, and story telling — activities in which the rural school-going youngster does not excel.

Until a system of education is evolved which will promote agriculture in developing countries in Africa, hasty campaigns for the youth to return to the land are doomed to failure from the start. Agriculture is an occupation requiring availability of land and capital as well as technical facility. Experience in the more developed countries of the world indicates that farming is largely a family enterprise in which parents and children participate as a way of life. The evidence from Ghana in State farm experimentation is that such farming is likely to produce little return to justify the enormous expenditure involved as well as to reduce total food production as a result of unfair competition with traditional farmers who produce the bulk of the food required. In Ghana, this resulted in the rise of the cost of locally produced foodstuffs, and a lowering in the morale of traditional farmers.<sup>51</sup>

<sup>49</sup> *West African City* (London, Oxford University Press, 1957) p.57

<sup>50</sup> Humbert, *Op.cit.*, p.48

<sup>51</sup> See *Report of Commission of Enquiry into Trade Malpractices, Op.cit.*

2. *Economic conditions.* Economic conditions militate against young people remaining in the rural areas in two ways : (a) because the general economic standard of the rural areas as a whole is so much more inferior to the urban areas that a determined rural youngster who wishes to remain in that environment has little or no occupational choice other than farming and retail salesmanship, generally of the traditional type. The rate of absorption of new manpower into the activities of the secondary and tertiary economic sectors is very limited indeed. There is hardly a local administrative service in which he may enter with any certainty of remaining in that locality for long even if he so wished, since most civil servants are subject to regular transfers. The local government services cannot be said to offer prospects for security and advancement. (b) Secondly, the individual cannot substantially seek economic and social advancement in the static rural economy and society as a result of the overall economic situation in this area.

For reasons of purely economic import, almost all commercial and industrial enterprises are centred in the capitals and the few other big cities in the countries of Africa. As a result of central planning and limited infrastructural facilities, the distribution of industries is very much restricted to few localities with the result that vast areas of the rural communities are by-passed in the development process. Since modern amenities such as good housing, water and irrigation, medical facilities, modern school buildings and good teaching staff all seem to go with commercial and industrial development, there does not now appear to be the possibility of rural development until such time that economic development comes to these rural areas. Furthermore, economic development does not seem yet to have acquired the significance for agricultural development that it has for industrial development in most of the developing countries of Africa.

3. *Psychological factors.* What young people do not get in the rural areas is what they seek in the towns—economic security, liberty, freedom from parental authority as well as the authority of the clan, and the myths they no longer believe in. “Alone or almost alone, they think they can live as they wish in the town. They can meet whom they like, especially young girls. They seek dignity and believe that in the town they can educate themselves and, if already educated, get an office job, the height of their ambitions. By leaving the countryside they could dress properly which is the outward sign of the modern man’s dignity. They would form part of the modern world as presented to them at school and which seemed a mirage, the town with its bright lights and neon signs, with its cinemas and cars. Perhaps they would also have the opportunity of rubbing shoulders with all the dignitaries about whom so much has been heard in the village, but who are very rarely seen.”<sup>52</sup>

These are psychological reasons for the exodus of young people from the rural areas and the attractions which exist for them in the cities and towns which are the result of both the sociological and economic factors outlined above. And the psychological factor gives us an indication of the difficulties to be met with in any effort at a solution to the problem of rural-urban emigration of the youth. When they emigrate to the towns the youth envisage that here, in addition to any economic benefits, they would be able to discuss various problems which interest them such as political and international problems, with knowledgeable people. “They come to the town looking for money to be taken back to the village in order to pay the dowry of the girls they love and wish to marry; they want to return in triumph, well-dressed, with their pockets full of presents. In the town they are looking for

<sup>52</sup> Humbert, *Op.cit.*, p.51

something new which is no longer the same deadly, boring daily work without end, ceremonies which have no more meaning for them. They are looking for a life more lively with a certain dash of adventure which they do not often find in the village. And what he finds in the town, a life in some respects worse than in the village, does not change his mind.”<sup>53</sup> As Mr. Humbert points out, migrants do not always accomplish their purpose of migration. But they continue to hope. Their individual lack of success might be the exception; the rainbow must end somewhere and they are intent and persevere in finding it. After all “peasants doing manual labour in the northern mines live in shocking slums but they do not return to cultivate their land. The pioneers of the Far West were worse off than in Europe, but they continued to look for gold.”<sup>54</sup>

To tackle the problem of mass movement of people from the rural to the urban areas, it is necessary to improve the social and economic conditions existing in centres of the rural areas. Educational and recreational facilities must be provided: cultural and health facilities must be found here. Economic incentives must be available. In fact, life must be tolerable if not enjoyable in these localities in order that the psychological atmosphere necessary for the retention of the rural population can exist. The educational system alone is not to be blamed in this exodus; neither is lack of economic facilities alone responsible. The totality of life in the rural areas need to be seen as not favourable for self-improvement for many who would otherwise like to remain here in order to raise the general standard of living here to an acceptable standard, and must therefore be improved.

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<sup>53</sup> *Ibid.*, pp.51-52

<sup>54</sup> *Ibid.* p.52

# Chapter V

## SPECIAL SERVICES

### A. SERVICES FOR CHILDREN AND YOUTH IN DELINQUENCY

Although it may be difficult at the present to state with any degree of confidence in quantitative terms the extent of the problem of delinquency in any one country, and how much it has increased or decreased, yet there is a growing body of reporting which lends support to the finding that juvenile delinquency is becoming more pronounced as a social phenomenon in the Africa region. There is general acceptance of the observation that the traditional forms and means of social control of juvenile behaviour through the family and the tribe has either broken down completely or is quite ineffective in exerting any influence in the new situation of increased geographical and social mobility, urbanization, industrialization and formal school education.<sup>55</sup> The gradual replacement of the old system of social control by modern statutory provisions and special juvenile correctional institutions, albeit based upon the European pattern, to cope with the problem is not only an acknowledgement of the changed social situation but is in itself evidence of the problem having made sufficient serious impact upon the conscience and the administrative circles as to call for action. Thus, throughout the region the ex-colonial administrations, and the remaining colonial administrations, enacted special legislation (or special chapters of criminal legislation) to deal with juvenile delinquency<sup>56</sup>. The statutory mode of dealing with juvenile and young offenders, or juveniles in need of care and protection, has been continued upon the attainment of independence<sup>57</sup>.

Evidence of another kind that the problem is of sufficient dimensions to stir the public conscience and governmental concern may be found in the attention given to it in study groups, conferences and workshops and social investigations. For example, the Commission for Technical Co-operation in Africa south of the Sahara (CCTA) held an Inter-African Conference in 1956 in Kampala, Uganda to review the extent of the problem, the legislation, and current practice in the prevention and treatment of juvenile delinquency in the region. In 1959 the CCTA and the International Children's Centre organized a symposium in Lagos on child welfare in Africa south of the Sahara, and here again special attention was given

<sup>55</sup> Clifford, *Op. cit.*, p.19; *Africa: Social Change and Mental Health*, pp.14-15 W.F. M.H. 1959, London. United Nations *Report of the World Social Situation, 1957*, pp. 166-169. *Processes and Problems of Industrialization in Under-developed Countries*, p.123. United Nations Sales, No.1955.11B.1.

<sup>56</sup> Report of the Inter-African Conference on the Treatment of Offenders (Juvenile Delinquents) convened under the auspices of the Commission for Technical Co-operation in Africa south of the Sahara (CCTA) in Kampala, 1956. See also W. Clifford, *Op. cit.*, pp.19-21

<sup>57</sup> Lack of adequate treatment facilities often resulted in not strictly enforcing the law but this is another matter and does not do away with the existence of the problem.

to juvenile delinquency under Section one of the agenda.<sup>58</sup> At this symposium it was reported that juvenile delinquency was already a considerable problem in the Belgian Congo, Madagascar and Lagos (Nigeria); and a study was also presented on the Thieve's Market in Treichville (Abidjan) in which juveniles played a prominent role.<sup>59</sup> Again the ECA Workshop on the Extension of Family and Child Welfare Services within Community Development Programmes (1960)<sup>60</sup> and on urbanization in Africa (1962)<sup>61</sup> also devoted attention to this issue and found that the problem was growing and merited attention. Furthermore, the sending of two United Nations technical experts to Dahomey and the Cameroon, at the request of the Governments, to study the problem of juvenile delinquency and advise on the measures to be taken<sup>62</sup> and a recent request of the Imperial Ethiopian Government for similar assistance, are also indicative of the serious view taken by Governments in the region of the situation. Country statements of Northern Rhodesia, Nigeria, Ethiopia and Sierra Leone, at the recent Expert Group Meeting on Social Defence (1964), for example, note with concern the growth of the problem in the urban areas especially since the Second World War.

Geographically the incidence of juvenile delinquency is in the towns and cities. It is essentially an urban problem. This fits in with the findings of studies on urbanization, not only in Africa but also in the other regions<sup>63</sup>.

To put this social problem in the proper perspective, it should, however, be stated that juvenile delinquency is fractional in relation to the host of other urgent problems which confront Governments in the Africa region, as for example, unemployment and under-employment, shortage of trained manpower, illiteracy and inadequate educational facilities, low standard of health and nutrition, endemic diseases of man and animal, low agricultural productivity, poor communications and marketing facilities, low levels of personal income and purchasing power, sub-standard housing, rural exodus and urban overcrowding, disruption of family life and stability, antiquated and inequitable land tenure systems, and so on. At this stage of its development African society is overwhelmed with the primary problems of securing enough food, clothing, shelter and jobs; and while recognizing that crime and juvenile delinquency are on the upward trend the attitude of the leadership is, and rightly to a great extent, that with the solution of these issues juvenile delinquency will be eliminated or, at least, considerably reduced.

<sup>58</sup> *Child Welfare in Africa South of the Sahara*. Centre International de l'Enfance, 1959. Paris

<sup>59</sup> *Ibid.*, pp.44,96,104.

<sup>60</sup> E/CN.14/79, pp.19-26

<sup>61</sup> E/CN.14/170, p.51

<sup>62</sup> (i) *Prévention et traitement de la délinquance au Dahomey*, by Mustapha El Aougi. Aug. 1963. United Nations Commissioner for Technical Assistance, New York.

(ii) *La délinquance juvénile au Cameroun*, by Pierre Zumbach, June 1963. TAO/CAMER/2. United Nations Commissioner for Technical Assistance, New York.

<sup>63</sup> United Nations *Report on the World Social Situation, 1957*. Sales No. 1957. IV.3.p. 141ff. Studies and surveys of the problem have shown that incidence of juvenile delinquency is significantly higher in those countries of the world where economic prosperity and technology have advanced to a high degree than in the developing countries. By this it is not implied that delinquency must necessarily follow economic prosperity and technological advancement. However, this is a point worth noting, in view of the aspirations and deliberate efforts of the economically underdeveloped countries to speed up their economic growth and achieve higher material standards of living for their people.

*Factors contributing to Juvenile Delinquency.* Theories of delinquent causation are now generally considered to be sociological or economic or medico-psychological in nature. Some believe that a combination of these factors offers a better explanation. The position today is that our knowledge has not advanced sufficiently far to determine the "causes" of juvenile delinquency. At best we may only speak of "contributing factors". There are so many variables involved, and the complexity of their interaction is so bewildering, that it is difficult to arrive at the real aetiology. Delinquent behaviour is not an isolated phenomenon and cannot be dealt with in a manner unrelated to the social matrix. Juvenile delinquency presents its own particular characteristics in each region or even in each country. The Africa region has not advanced very much in its study and treatment of crime and delinquency partly because of its pre-occupation with a number of other political and economic problems and partly because it lacks much of the basic data from the other social sciences which are needed for the purpose. The analysis of the contributing factors presented below, therefore, suffers from this limitation, but nevertheless it attempts to summarize the observation and experiences of those most qualified to speak on the African situation.

Practical measures for prevention and treatment cannot, however, await scientific precision, and administration must proceed on what knowledge of the contributing factors is available.

The first major observation that may be made is that the emergence and increase of juvenile delinquency (and crime generally) is associated with the rapid social changes that are taking place side by side with the accelerated pace of political and economic development in the Africa region. Similar trends in crime and delinquency have been observed in the economically less developed regions of Asia and Latin America which are also undergoing rapid social and economic transformation. The underlying factors are to a great extent different from those currently contributing to an increase of juvenile delinquency in the economically more advanced countries.

European colonization of Africa, the rise of African nationalism, and the achievement of national independence by most countries in the region within the last decade, have all set into motion powerful forces making for far-reaching economic, political, cultural and social change. For example, the traditional subsistence economy around which the village social structure and tribal traditions were built has been forced to give way to a market and money economy. This change is by no means complete and, indeed, is likely to be deliberately speeded up to bring about greater economic growth. The new pattern of economic activity has induced mass migration (internal as well as inter-territorial), the concentration of population in towns and cities, the establishment of modern forms of commercial enterprise and industrial production, and the training of labour in new kinds of skills and habits of work. Overlaying this basic economic revolution is the equally important intellectual and spiritual revolution brought about by the proselytizing activities of Christian missionaries, the dissemination of new skills of learning, and new ideas and ways of thought through a network of schools, colleges and other mass media of communication.

It was inevitable that all these developments would bring about changes in family life and social relations. Politics, economics and religion have thus combined to shake up and re-shape traditional African society. Large masses of the people have been affected by these conditions but they have yet to be adequately



adjusted to and assimilate the new elements of living. African society is in the midst of a cultural, economic and political transition. It is a fluid, dynamic and creative phase but nonetheless unsettled and unsettling, and conducive to the emergence or increase of different types of criminality and delinquent behaviour.

It should be noted, however, that criminality and delinquency are not necessarily a consequence of social changes accompanying economic development. Social changes and economic development are both inevitable and welcome. Under proper conditions these may even contribute to a decrease in criminality, in so far as criminal tendencies and activity have been stimulated by the lack of certain basic economic necessities and social amenities. The crucial aspect of social change which appears to be associated with the growth of delinquent behaviour lies in the manner and rate of change. The findings of the Second United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders are their cultural instability. The weakening of primary social controls and the exposure to conflicting social standards are related to criminality, and these features are intensified when social change is disorderly, when the degree of social change is high, and when the gap between the breakdown of old social institutions and the creation of new institutions is great. Social change is subject to a certain degree of control and should be a matter for national planning.

Economic development is accompanied by migration (especially internal migration), urbanization and generally also by industrialization. These three aspects have often been erroneously assumed to be direct contributive factors to juvenile delinquency (and criminality). The viewpoint today is that it is not migration, *per se*, that is conducive to criminality, but perhaps the cultural instability, the weakening of primary social controls and the exposure to conflicting standards of behaviour associated with migration which are to be identified with crime causation. The same conclusion is also to be applied to urbanization and industrialization. The breakdown of social institutions and methods of social control (such as that exercised by the family and the tribe), and the failure to establish equally effective measures immediately were what mattered. The remedy indicated was planning for urbanization and industrialization accompanied by migration but without social breakdown and criminality.

The unfavourable results which may accompany rapid migration to urban centres may be ameliorated by providing the rural areas with the social and economic advantage in search of which the rural inhabitants leave the land for the city. The social integrity of the rural migrant into an urban area is assailed immediately by the unfamiliarity of the urban setting and way of living. It has been noted that the bulk of the criminal prosecution in certain African (and Asian) communities were for non-compliance with regulations peculiar to urban living, and little understood by the people recently arrived from rural settings. It has been recommended that rural migrants might be prepared for this experience and that the urban community itself should also be prepared to receive them.<sup>64</sup> This is a task in which the community development organization and services could play an important role. Urban preparedness would involve the provision of reception and orientation services, including temporary shelter; town planning, including housing; educational

<sup>64</sup> United Nations Report on Second World Congress, etc, *Op. cit.*, A/CONF.17/20, p.62 Section 3, para.8

and vocational opportunities for the new population; and family and child welfare services.<sup>65</sup> The unpreparedness of rural juveniles for the urban experience is great and the resulting cultural shock upsets the social and moral integrity of the individual quite readily, predisposing them to delinquency.

Lack of educational facilities and opportunities may also contribute to juvenile delinquency. But there is a direction in which education actually seems to contribute to juvenile delinquency. Educated youth from the rural areas drift to the towns and seaports in search of non-manual or "white collar" jobs. These jobs are either scarce or the job seekers do not have an adequate educational background to qualify for them (having left school too early). Consequently they tend to drift from place to place or live in comparative idleness, and sooner or later are driven to commit delinquent acts, such as thefts. W. Clifford reports that even after several periods in prison the young prisoners he had interviewed were still not prepared to accept work which they regarded as having no status. They preferred to dress well and to keep up appearances by illegal practices rather than to accept the level in society which would otherwise be their lot, (i.e. by engaging in unskilled labourers' jobs).<sup>66</sup>

Thus, in the short run because the educational systems are incomplete in that they are not diversified enough curriculum-wise and not adapted to industrial, commercial and agricultural development, and also because enough employment opportunities of the kind sought after by African youth are not available at this stage of economic growth, we have a situation in which the army of unemployed school-leavers is growing. This also is a strong contributing factor to the emergence and increase of juvenile delinquency.

A point that has been well made in respect of urban occupational opportunities for youth and which is directly related to delinquency proneness, is that youth is shunted into precarious employment, often on the fringe of legality, and very often, in settings of considerable moral hazard. Youths are also frequently economically exploited and gravitate towards jobs in street trades or cafe-bar service, or as tools in organized crime. A direct contribution to the prevention of urban youthful criminality would be to increase opportunities for youth employment in socially desirable enterprises, vocational preparation for such employment and the full surveillance and control of the employment of youth.

The educational and employment factors contributing to juvenile delinquency are matters which would have to be dealt with in a comprehensive manner under a national economic and social development plan. The demographic structure complicates the solution for the African population as a "youthful population" — about 45 per cent are under 15 years of age. The gap between population growth and economic growth is large.

There are also other environmental conditions such as stresses of family poverty, poor housing, and lack of recreational facilities which contribute to juvenile delinquency. It is more than probable that such conditions have a direct bearing on the development of the individual personality. However, two investigators <sup>67</sup>

<sup>65</sup> See Omari, T. Peter, "Factors Associated with Urban Adjustment of Rural Southern Migrants" in *Social Forces*, Vol.35.No.1

<sup>66</sup> *International Review of Criminal Policy*, No.21, 1964, p.24

<sup>67</sup> S.P. Tschboungui and Pierre Zumbach in their study of Cameroon, *Op. cit.*, pp. 45-46

are convinced that the juvenile delinquent, in the Cameroon at least, does not suffer from character and behaviour disturbances requiring costly rehabilitation and very individualized and thorough medical or psychological treatment such as that provided for nowadays in Europe and the economically more affluent countries.

According to them, delinquent children in Cameroon are merely uneducated and not ill-bred and once they are educated, they can become extremely valuable citizens. However, the field of psychological and psychiatric aspects of juvenile delinquency in the Africa region is still relatively unexplored and awaits careful scientific investigation.

*Services for delinquents.* Services that are available in the region follow closely those with which the Western World is familiar :

*Remand homes*, where young offenders are detained or remanded in custody for periods of one to six weeks, while enquiries are being made or reports being prepared for their first hearing before a juvenile court;

*Borstals*, which are an institution for convicted delinquents with the purpose of rehabilitating them through their learning such trades as carpentry, masonry, tailoring, etc;

*Probation homes*, generally established for juveniles awaiting discharge from offenses committed;

*Industrial schools*, which are special technical and industrial schools established to train delinquents and to supervise their rehabilitation to employment, and other services such as fit persons and supervision orders etc.

Critics of these institutional services are inclined to argue that not much use is made of traditional authority patterns in rehabilitating modern delinquents. While further research in this area is certainly called for, great caution must be exercised in any attempt to use wholly traditional methods in the solution of modern problems. It is nevertheless obvious that in many circumstances, institutional treatment of the delinquency problem merely succeeds in worsening the juvenile's rebellious condition and must be avoided if at all possible. An extreme case of the unwise use of these institutions is that of a predominantly rural African country with a full complement of delinquency "rehabilitation institutions" which for lack of "proper" delinquents sets up a "manhunt" to fill the institutions and therefore arrest on charges of vagrancy young boys and girls who are lost in the market places and who are no more vagrant and delinquent than the officers themselves.

### **The Starehe Experiment**

A more imaginative approach to dealing with juvenile delinquents may be seen in the *Starehe* experiment in Nairobi, Kenya.

During the Mau Mau emergency in Kenya, many Kikuyu were put in detention camps or killed. By the end of the emergency, and when restrictions were lifted by 1958, many people drifted into Nairobi in search of prosperity. By 1959 there was tremendous juvenile delinquency problems - with kids living in a world of their own, running away from the police and hiding along railway tracks.

In mid-1959 Starehe was founded with five members of staff and a handful of boys taken off the streets. The Kenya Shell and B.P. Companies and the Sheikh Trust gave initial equipment and paid the salaries, and the Centre was

managed by the then Kenya Youth Adviser. Recently a Primary School has been added to the Centre through funds provided by the Oxford Committee for Famine Relief (OXFAM).

Each month, the Centre received a number of boys from the Nairobi Juvenile Court, usually committed for a period of years or until they attain the age of 18 years. Equally, boys are referred by the Social Welfare Department of the Nairobi City Council, the Child Welfare Society of Kenya, etc. The majority of the intake is made up of referrals from relatives and guardians; sometimes through the Administration, but more often direct. Starehe has laboured to build up a reputation whereby parents will turn to it readily in a time of need, in the confidence that immediate, sympathetic and effective help will be made available. To contact cases of need which remain unreached by the two methods above, Starehe maintains Caseworkers whose duties include touring the City, calling on Chiefs, Headmen, Police Stations, etc. From these sources, information is often obtained as to families where the children appear to be lacking in care, out of control, and so on. The Caseworker then sets out to establish a friendly relationship with the family concerned, and eventually to steer the boys into Starehe.

But the Centre also receives a steady stream of children who refer themselves. These are the boy vagrants who have no families (at any rate in the City) and who maintain themselves on the streets by begging, dustbin-scavenging and petty crime. Working in close co-operation with Starehe, the Save the Children Fund has established a Rescue Centre-cum-Soup Kitchen and a Place of Safety in Nairobi, and has achieved astonishing success in gaining the confidence of these ragged and half-starved children. An average of 40 boys come to the Rescue Centre each night for food and shelter. As trust is built up, and a boy is induced to tell his story and to seek permanent help, he is transferred to the Place of Safety. Here every effort is made to find a relative who will give the boy a stable home; but, in up to about 25 per cent of the cases, no such solution can be found, and the boy comes through into Starehe.

The Starehe Centre now has over 200 day boys and some 300 boarders. Full primary schooling, trade training workshops and other facilities are available here. The Centre has no wall or fence around it and makes an effort not to refuse needy children even though it does not accept repeated criminals or recidivists.

The uniqueness of Starehe centres around its method of community-oriented treatment, based on the belief that a high percentage of young offenders can be reclaimed by being kept in contact with the stresses and temptations of everyday life, while being trained to resist them. Where home conditions are completely intolerable, or where a boy is so seriously delinquent that intensified effort is necessary, the residential facilities of the Centre are brought into use.

Boys, generally, stay at the Centre until they are 17 or 18. The failure rate is about 10 to 15 per cent. Of the boarders, 70 per cent settle down. Ten per cent will run away but settle later, 10 per cent will run away, keep running away until after a year before finally settling down, while 10 per cent end up in trouble after running away.

## **B. SERVICES FOR PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN AND YOUTH**

The rehabilitation of physically and mentally handicapped persons in society is of major concern today not simply on humanitarian grounds but also because

it affords the disabled an opportunity for contributing to the national economy. To allow the disabled to remain uneducated and unemployed involves a double loss to society; for not only must they be maintained, but the country is deprived of their potential output.

Programmes for the disabled as a government concern are in their infancy in this region. Many such programmes involve private welfare organizations which have limited funds and staff to carry out the enormous work involved in the rehabilitation work. Such work generally involves:

- (a) Registration and classification of handicapped persons;
- (b) Provision for special schools and training programmes for the various classes of disabled;
- (c) Facilities of medical assistance to those in need of medical attention;
- (d) Industrial and rehabilitation centres and other welfare institutions.

Voluntary societies have a valuable part to play in all this. But for the programme to be really effective, governments must, and have, begun to play a major part in its establishment and administration.

Countries that have made the greatest advance in this field include<sup>68</sup>:

(a) *Ethiopia*: Up till 1960 there were no facilities for physically handicapped children in Ethiopia apart from those provided by a few orphanages run by missionary societies and welfare groups. For adults, shelter and some food were provided at the municipal centre at Kolfe on the outskirts of Addis Ababa. Through the intervention of Dr. Oscar Barry, F.R.C.S. to the Kolfe Institute in 1960, a number of cripples were admitted one or two at a time to his hospital, the Princess Tsehai Memorial Hospital in Addis Ababa, for corrective orthopaedic operations. At the same time a considerable number of children suffering from orthopaedic disabilities began to arrive at the Ethio-Swedish Paediatric Clinic, where Dr. Barry worked also.

The following year, in 1961, the Fund for the Disabled was established (i) to establish a workshop for the disabled; (ii) to provide appliances for the poor; (iii) to improve facilities for reconstructive surgery, and (iv) to aid rehabilitation of the disabled.

A system has now been established whereby a subscriber can "adopt" a disabled person. Treatment Referral Cards form an introduction for the patient to give to the surgeon and the donor undertakes at first only the cost of the initial examination. The donor is then informed of the needs, both medical and social, of the patient and means are suggested to help the patient in consultation with the donor. The importance of this arrangement often is not so much in the financial help but in the sponsorship and follow-up given by the donor in rehabilitating the individual.

Considerable attention has been given to the bigger and, as yet, hardly touched problem of vocational rehabilitation. The emphasis for rehabilitation in Ethiopia needs to be on a rural type training, although not necessarily in farm projects alone. One such project is that for lepers which has been established under private auspices as a farm resettlement project to resettle some 100 families from a leprosarium near Addis Ababa. Existing rehabilitation services now include an

<sup>68</sup> See Duncan Guthrie. *Rehabilitation in Tropical Africa*, 1963

orthopaedic surgery in the Princess Tsehai Memorial Hospital and Appliance Workshop attached to this hospital which produce high quality prosthesis and other aids in connexion with orthopaedic surgery. This Workshop employs disabled persons only.

(b) *Congo (Kinshasa)*: In Kinshasa : The political reconstruction of the Congo has hindered progress on many points in the country not the least being in the rehabilitation field. In Kinshasa the *Centre de Rééducation pour Handicapés Physiques* is housed in a small building, supplied by the Ministry of Works within the grounds of the Veterinary Centre. The staff consists of the Director, a physiotherapist, a nurse and a receptionist. The initiative for setting up and running this Centre lies almost entirely with an honorary director who has been able to obtain a limited amount of financial support and gifts in kind from local firms as well as from Caritas Congo which pays the salary of the physiotherapist and has given the unit a small bus.

A Rehabilitation Unit is also situated at Kimpese which is attached to the hospital's 80-bed Orthopaedic department, and received patients from the western half of the Congo, from northern Angola and from the neighbouring Republic of Congo (Brazzaville). Since 1954 over 3,000 polio children have been treated. Most of them have required surgical correction of leg contractions and have been fitted with calipers. Follow-up is done at Kimpese and by six-monthly visits to Kinshasa and Matadi.

Rehabilitation has also been carried out for patients suffering from congenital deformities, bone and joint tuberculosis and traumatic lesions. Over 150 artificial legs have been made in the orthopaedic workshops and upper limb prostheses have been fitted. The new Kimpese Leprosarium, opened in 1960, offers considerable scope for the development of orthopaedic rehabilitation of leprosy patients.

At Bakwanga, nearly 750 miles east of Kinshasa, the Belgian diamond firm, MIBA, has built a rehabilitation centre as part of the new company hospital. This centre compares favourably with any such institution in Europe and consists of a waiting room, examination room, and has facilities for electrotherapy, physiotherapy, occupational therapy, exercises and games.

(c) *Ghana* : In Ghana, the programme for the rehabilitation of the physically handicapped is carried out mainly as a governmental scheme operated by a section of the Department of Social Welfare and Community Development. Nevertheless, there are several voluntary organizations which are interested in the rehabilitation service and are actively participating in it.

The Rehabilitation Service was inaugurated in Ghana in 1960 with the establishment of the National Advisory Committee for the Rehabilitation of the Destitute and the Handicapped. Later a Rehabilitation Section of the Department of Social Welfare and Community Development was created. In a "Handicapped Citizens' Week" mounted in June 1961 much publicity was given to highlight the problems of the handicapped. Rehabilitation Officers carried out a census of handicapped persons and registered 12,577 out of an estimated number of 100,000 disabled persons in Ghana. These were made up of 5,473 blind, 4,908 cripples and 2,196 deaf and dumb.

The following services are now available in Ghana :

*Rural rehabilitation*, consisting of three Rural Rehabilitation Units which cater for the rural disabled persons in three different regions of the country.

*Industrial rehabilitation*, consisting of the establishment of a National Industrial Rehabilitation Unit in Accra to give rehabilitation courses to urban workmen who become disabled through injuries or disease.

*Education of physically handicapped children*, which comprises the following institutions : (i) the School for the Blind at Akropong, Akwapim; (ii) School for the Blind at Hoa, and (iii) the Ghana School for the Deaf at Mampong.

The following voluntary societies are active: (a) The Ghana Society for the Blind inaugurated in 1958; (b) The Ghana Cripples Aid Society inaugurated in 1958; (c) St. Joseph's Clinic at Effiduase for the treatment of cripples and, (d) The Ghana Society for the Deaf formed in 1962.

### C. LEGAL MEASURES FOR THE PROTECTION OF FAMILIES, CHILDREN AND THE YOUTH

In Africa, where custom is often more binding than civil legislation, there is still a tendency for the educated and the emancipated to stress more the western forms of contractual obligations than the traditional ones even when the latter are generally more understood. In this connexion there is the tendency to misunderstand legal provisions for marriage on the part of women and at the same time a distrust of them by many of the men. Legal provisions for marriage exist in all the countries which have responded to the ECA questionnaire. These laws are generally classified as "Civil", "Christian", "Islamic" and "Native Law and Custom", etc. but they are not always mutually exclusive. Civil codes or civil laws frequently make provision for marriage of Christians and Mohammedans or recognize traditional or native customary law in whole or in part, so do divorce and other laws enacted through the civil processes.

Legal provisions regarding marriage, divorce and adoption, etc., do not usually possess national coverage. Sometimes, as is the case in the Gambia and Sierra Leone, for instance, jurisdiction of these laws are limited to the capital and the few other urban communities while other parts or segments of the countries come under the jurisdiction of other legal systems such as Islamic law or customary law.

Tanzania offers us a good case study of the nature of measures provided by law for the protection of the Family, Children and Youth Groups :

#### **Legal measures in Tanzania**

Marriage may be solemnized in accordance with the Marriage Ordinance, or Native Customary Law, or Moslem or Hindu or Buddhist law. When marriage is solemnized in accordance with Native Customary Law or Moslem or Hindu Law, or Buddhist Law, succession and all matters consequential to such marriage are governed by the law of the religion and/or custom in question. The court may ascertain the law of the religion or custom by any means and, in cases of doubt, may decide on principles of justice, equity and good conscience. When a marriage is so solemnized, the Marriage Ordinance does not apply to it.

Marriages to which the Marriage Ordinance applies require certain preliminaries. The first of these is notice to the Registrar. The Registrar may issue his certificate only between 21 days and three months after notice to him. If three months expire before the certificate is issued, or if it is issued before the marriage

is solemnized, a fresh notice must be given. Both notice and certificate, however, may be dispensed with by a special licence from the President of the Republic.

At any time after the notice to the Registrar, a caveat may be entered by any person against the issue of the Registrar's certificate and the matter must be settled by the High Court summarily and finally.

Another preliminary requirement is the consent of the parent or guardian, if any of the parties to the proposed marriage is under the age of twenty-one. The President or a Judge of the High Court may give the consent in appropriate cases and, if so given, the consent of the parent or guardian shall not be required. A third requirement relates to the time of the solemnization of marriage. Marriage may be solemnized in church by a licensed Minister, in which case the church doors must be open and the time must be between 6.30 a.m. and 6.00 p.m. If marriage is solemnized in the Registrar's office, the time must be between 10.00 a.m. and 4.00 p.m. In either cases there must be two witnesses in addition to the officiating Minister or Registrar.

Where solemnization of a native christian marriage is contemplated, notice to the Registrar is not required.

An apparent marriage ceremony may give rise to no marriage at all for several reasons. One of these is relationship by blood, such as a marriage between brother and sister; another is relationship by marriage, such as marriage between a man and his step-daughter; or relationship by law, such as marriage between a man and his adopted daughter. In the same way bigamy gives rise to no marriage at all. In addition, marriage solemnized in an unlicensed place or by an unlicensed person gives rise to no marriage. So also do all marriages solemnized under a false name or names or where the Registrar's certificate or the President's license, where necessary, has not been obtained.

An otherwise valid marriage may be declared void on the application of one of the parties, on several grounds. Impotence on the part of one or both of the parties is one of them. Another is non-consummation of the marriage. Unsoundness of mind on the part of the respondent also entitles the petitioner to a decree of nullity. Again, the petitioner is entitled to a decree of nullity if at the time of the marriage the respondent was suffering from a venereal disease in a communicable form. If, after marriage, it is found that the wife was pregnant before marriage by a man not her husband, the husband is entitled to a decree of nullity if he contracted the marriage without knowing of her pregnancy.

A marriage not void from the beginning or rendered void subsequent to its solemnization may nevertheless be legally terminated. This may be done by a decree of divorce. The grounds on which this decree may be awarded are: adultery, cruelty, desertion for three years or more, unsoundness of mind, and, on the part of the husband, rape, sodomy or bestiality.

To guard against newly-weds hastily resorting to a divorce petition, it is provided that no petition for divorce may be brought until three years have elapsed since the solemnization of the marriage. Leave, however, may be granted to present the petition within that time on grounds of exceptional hardship or depravity on the part of the petitioner or respondent respectively.

On a decree of divorce or nullity, the court may order the husband to secure to the wife such gross sum of money or annual sum of money for a term not exceeding the life of the wife, as the court deems reasonable.



There is a third decree besides that of divorce and nullity, which also puts an end to marriage. This is the decree of presumption of death and dissolution of marriage. The court will presume the other party to the marriage dead if the petitioner alleges reasonable grounds for presumption or if a continuous period of at least seven years the petitioner had no cause to believe that the other party to the marriage was alive.

A decree which still preserves the marriage but puts an end to the duty to cohabit is that of judicial separation. Grounds for a decree of judicial separation on the part of the respondent are cruelty, adultery, desertion for two years or more, failure to comply with a decree of restitution of conjugal rights and, on the part of the husband, actual or attempted unnatural offence. The wife's property during the judicial separation remains hers but the husband is not responsible for her debts unless alimony, if ordered by the court, is not duly paid by the husband. If she cohabits with him again, her property still remains hers. Where any decree of judicial separation or restitution of conjugal rights is made on the application of the wife, the court may make such order for alimony as it thinks fit.

In any matrimonial proceedings the wife is entitled to alimony pending suit not exceeding one-fifth of her husband's net income for three years next preceding the date of the order to pay the alimony. If the husband has acquired an interest in the wife's property by reason of the marriage and then desert her, the wife may apply to the court for an order to protect her interests against him and against those claiming through him.

*Custody and maintenance of children.* In proceedings for divorce, nullity or judicial separation, the court may make such provision as appears just with respect to the custody, maintenance and education of the children the marriage of whose parents is the subject of the proceedings. It may also place children under the protection of the court; the same order may be made in proceedings for restitution of conjugal rights, or if the respondent fails to comply therewith.

There are no separate family courts. Power to hear matrimonial suits is vested in the High Court and in many subordinate courts.

*Illegitimacy.* Under the Affiliation Ordinance and the Affiliation Ordinance (Amendment) Act, 1964, there is provision for maintenance by the father of the child born out of wedlock on the application of its unmarried mother or woman living apart from her husband and on proof that the man alleged to be the father is in truth and in fact the father of such child. Such maintenance terminates on the mother's getting married or resuming cohabitation with her husband. Monthly payments may not exceed Sh. 100/- ; a lump sum not exceeding Sh. 750/- may be paid in lieu; maintenance ceases when the child attains the age of 16.

There are no legal provisions for the legitimation of children other than by adoption.

*Succession.* Succession, as regards Africans, is governed by Customary Law. In some cases boys are preferred to girls in the inheritance of realty or intestacy. Succession as regards non-Christian Asiatics is governed by the religion of the particular community. Succession as regards the rest is governed by the general law which makes no distinction between boys and girls on intestacy or otherwise.

Immovable property is governed by the Tanzanian law, whereas movable property is governed by the law of the domicile of the deceased at the time of death. The domicile of a minor follows the domicile of the parent from whom he derives his domicile or origin, or if adopted, that of his parent of adoption.

*Adoption.* Application for adoption may be made by the mother or the father of the child singly or jointly. Single or joint application in respect of any other person or persons may also be made. No adoption order, in respect of a female infant may, however, be made in favour of a sole male applicant in the absence of special circumstances.

Applicants must be residents of Tanzania and infants must reside in East Africa. For at least three consecutive months immediately preceding the adoption order, the infant must have been continuously in the care and possession of the applicant.

The parent or guardian or person liable to maintain the infant must consent to the adoption, but that consent may be dispensed with on certain grounds. In the same way, the consent of the spouse of an applicant may also be dispensed with. The applicant or applicants must not have received or agreed to receive any payment or other reward in consideration of the adoption except such as the court may sanction.

Upon adoption all rights, duties, obligations and liabilities of the parents or guardians of the infant in relation to future custody, maintenance and education of the infant including rights to appoint a guardian and consent or give notice of dissent to marriage, are extinguished, vested in, are exercisable by, and enforceable against, the adopter. Adoption societies, if registered as such, may make arrangements for the adoption of infants.

*Parental rights and duties.* Parents are entitled to the custody of the children, unless otherwise provided by the court. They are also entitled to give their consent to any proposals for adoption or marriage or for the children to engage in certain occupations.

As well as rights, parents have duties to their children. It is an offence for a parent to desert a child under the age of 14 years. It is also an offence to neglect to provide food, clothing or shelter to a child of tender years.

Again, it is the duty of the parents to see that their children do not engage in certain prohibited occupations; the heads of the family have a special duty in this regard. A parent or guardian after being heard by the court may, when the child has committed a tort or crime, be asked to pay the fine or compensation imposed on the child or young person.

*Protection of minors under criminal law.* In the trial of minors other than for homicide, or jointly with an adult, there are special provisions. These include special courts which are called Juvenile Courts, and which normally sit in a different place from the usual court; or if in the usual court, then at a different time. There are, also, special procedures adopted when trying children or young persons. The charge must be explained in simple language, and the child or young person must be asked what to say in explanation. If his explanation amounts to a plea of guilty the child or young person may be convicted forthwith. The public are normally excluded from proceedings involving children or young persons. Bail for children or young persons is easier than in the case of adults.

When a child or young person is in detention, no association with criminals or convicts is allowed unless jointly charged or convicted.

On conviction for offences other than homicide, the offender may be put on probation, that is asked to enter into a recognizance to be of good behaviour and

to appear for sentence when called upon to do so. No child shall be sent to prison; he may, however, be sent to an approved school. But if a young adult person is sentenced to imprisonment, he shall not be allowed to associate with adult prisoners.

A child or young person found begging, or wandering and not having any home or settled place, or found destitute, or maltreated, or in danger of falling into immoral habits, may be brought before a juvenile court and the court may order that the child or young person be taken out of the custody or care of any person and be committed to the care of some other fit person or institution until the child or young person attains 18 years or for a shorter period. A child or young person in an approved school may, if of good behaviour, get permission for an annual holiday from the manager of the school.

*Employment of women, children and young persons.* In general, a child under the age of 12 must not be employed; if employed it must be on a daily basis and upon terms that he returns each night to the place of residence of his parent or guardian. A child or young person must not be employed in an employment which is injurious to health, or is dangerous or otherwise unsuitable. For this reason, a child may not carry a load weighing more than 25 pounds or be required to work for more than three consecutive hours.

It is necessary for a parent or guardian to give consent to the employment of the child. Children must not be employed in an industrial undertaking except in institutions approved by the Minister of Education. It is also provided that no child must be employed in any undertaking in attendance on, or in the vicinity of, any machinery, or in any open cast workings or in any sub-surface working which are entered by means of a shaft or horizontal entrance.

With some exceptions, no women or young person must be employed between 6.00 p.m. and 6.00 a.m. in any industrial undertaking. No woman should be employed on underground work, which include women in managerial positions, or in health or welfare services, or in a course of study. A woman should not be required to work during the period of six weeks following her confinement. She has a right to leave her work six weeks before her confinement; she is also entitled to half an hour twice a day for the purpose of nursing her child.

No young person must be employed in a mine unless certified fit for such work by an approved medical practitioner. No child shall be employed in a ship except one that is run solely by members of his family or one approved by the Commissioner of Labour. No young person should be employed in a ship as a trimmer or stocker; a certificate of medical officer is necessary for a young person working in any ship. It is an offence for a parent or guardian to permit a child or young person to be employed in contravention of the above provisions.

While a child is not capable of entering into a written contract of employment whatsoever, a young person is so capable if the contract is for an occupation approved by the law. The Government from time to time makes regulations for the registration and identification of children and young persons; for the keeping of their registers and making returns thereof; restricting the employment of women, children and young persons in specified occupations; prescribing further conditions upon which they may be engaged or employed. It may make further provisions for their care, safety and welfare in employment and provide for all matters relating to maternity protection for women.

## Appendix A

### FAMILY, CHILD AND YOUTH WELFARE SERVICES<sup>1</sup>

The Economic and Social Council,

*Having considered* the report of the Secretary-General on family, child and youth welfare services and the comments of the Social Commission and of its *ad hoc* Working Group on Social Welfare thereon,

*Recalling* the request contained in Council resolution 903 D (XXXIV) of 2 August 1962 for the preparation of a report "containing suggestions for the use of Governments interested in the establishment and extension of family, child and youth welfare services, training of personnel, and methods of financing these services",

*Recognizing* that social welfare services for families, children and youth constitute a vital component of broader measures for raising levels of living and the development of human resources and that United Nations activities in this field should be further developed within the context of the overall United Nations programme for improving economic and social conditions all over the world,

*Recognizing* that raising the standard of living of families, children and youth cannot be achieved without producing a sufficient quantity of material wealth as well as its fair distribution,

*Recognizing also* that the plans for the expansion of social services for families, children and youth should be made as a part of planning for overall economic and social development and that the planning organs and other competent authorities should be responsible for continuously evaluating the fulfilment of such plans,

*Noting* that the carrying out of radical democratic reforms aimed at solving such problems as the abolition of illiteracy, unemployment, the creation of national cadres, the achievement of full sovereignty over national resources, is the chief condition for an effective implementation of family, child and youth social welfare programmes,

1. *Recommends* that the report on family, child and youth welfare services including the guidelines which are set forth in the note by the Secretary-General and annexed to this resolution be given the widest possible circulation as a valuable aid to Governments, specialized agencies, and non-governmental organizations;
2. *Recommends* Governments to devote more and more national resources and efforts to:

<sup>1</sup> ECOSOC Resolution 1086G (XXXIX)

- (a) Reducing and eliminating illiteracy among children and youth;
  - (b) Providing young people with equal material opportunities for obtaining education which fully corresponds to their demonstrated abilities and reasonable aspirations;
  - (c) Eliminating child neglect and homelessness among children as rapidly as possible;
3. *Requests* the Secretary-General:
- (a) To undertake the preparation of monographs on the development and operation of welfare services for families, children and youth in selected countries at different stages of development, in order to provide more specific information as a basis for national social welfare planning, including appropriate priorities and allocation of resources;
  - (b) To undertake studies of:
    - (i) The effects on family life of rapid population growth, urbanization and labour mobility and of the social welfare measures required to assist families in these circumstances;
    - (ii) The effective use of volunteers, especially in social welfare programmes concerned with youth development;
    - (iii) The social welfare needs and problems of youth, and suitable welfare programmes to meet these needs;
4. *Further requests* the Secretary-General to give high priority to co-operation with the United Nations Children's Fund and the interested specialized agencies in the further expansion of assistance to family and child welfare programmes in developing countries in line with the objectives of the United Nations Development Decade with respect to the younger generation, and to this end, to provide as far as possible the essential supporting technical services including increased staff resources and technical assistance as requested by Governments for project planning, implementation and evaluation.

1395th plenary meeting,  
30 July 1965

## Appendix B

### POLICY STATEMENT OF ECA IN YOUTH WORK

#### Introduction

1. The situation of youth in African countries is intimately bound up with the economic and social conditions of the community in which they live and their country as a whole. The role of youth, both male and female, in the development effort of countries; the tasks in which youth are particularly suited to participate as agents of development and productivity; their preparation for such tasks and their specific social welfare and economic needs, must be taken into account in local and national planning for youth within the comprehensive general planning for social and economic development of countries. Youth cannot, and should not, be treated as a social phenomenon in itself; and organization and programmes for youth should as far as possible be included in comprehensive programmes corresponding to the interest of the adult population. Nevertheless, more and special attention should be given to the identifiable age group in the community considered as youth as it is this age group which forms the backbone of all future economic and social developments in African countries.

2. The sixth session of the Economic Commission for Africa, which met in Addis Ababa, in March 1964, was informed of special arrangements which the secretariat had made with the individual specialized agencies of the United Nations and with UNICEF "both to advise on and participate in work programmes falling within their respective fields of competency and to effect due liaison and relationship between their individual agencies and the Economic Commission for Africa secretariat as appropriate"<sup>1</sup>.

3. The United Nations *ad hoc* Inter-Agency Committee on Youth at its second meeting from 5 to 7 April 1965, at United Nations Headquarters New York, during its discussion on the, "Participation of youth in national development" *inter alia* came to the agreement that:

- (a) "The main focus for concerted programmes of action by the United Nations and other agencies on behalf of youth should be on preparation for employment and service to the community viewed simultaneously as means of development of the nation, the local community and the individual personality of the young person, and
- (b) Training should have high priority both for young people themselves and for leaders at all levels, including local leaders, in order to secure adequate involvement and participation in national plans and programmes"<sup>2</sup>.

<sup>1</sup> E/CN.14/C.2/2 - *Statement on Social Development by the Secretariat*

<sup>2</sup> Co-ordination /R-498/Res. 1 of 7 Sept. 1965 - Report on the Second *ad hoc* Inter-Agency Meeting on Youth, para. 17, pp. 7-8

4. The definition of specific problems and needs of African youth, with which Governments in the region are currently faced, is one particular field which has provided immediate opportunity for this inter-agency collaboration, which has as its primary objective, the combining of the resources of the United Nations family to bring concerted aid to Governments through projects and advisory services.

5. This statement, thus based upon the collective experience of the United Nations family, attempts to formulate a policy for youth, which the secretariat of the ECA, in very close collaboration with the United Nations specialized agencies, UNICEF and the Organization of African Unity, can adopt and utilize, in giving direct technical and advisory assistance to the Governments in the Africa region.

6. This statement also attempts to define the major areas of problems and needs of youth with which Governments in the region are currently faced in the development of national youth service programmes which would provide not only leisure time activities for both urban and rural youth, but which would essentially offer them opportunities complementary to those of the home, formal education and work — for discovering and developing their personal resources, so that they may be better equipped to play their responsible role in the social and economic development of their respective communities and countries.

7. The Economic and Social Commission of the Organization of African Unity, meeting in Niamey, Niger, in December 1963, and in Cairo, UAR, in January 1965, devoted part of its deliberations to the problems of youth in relation to the economic and social development of the region within the context of African Unity. It adopted resolutions which, *inter alia*, called for:

- (a) "The harmonization and co-ordination of the various cultural activities and Youth Open Air Educational Movement"<sup>3</sup>;
- (b) "The organization of inter-African and international youth work camps for voluntary work"<sup>4</sup>;
- (c) "The promotion of a policy of vocational training on an African regional scale"<sup>5</sup>; and,
- (d) "Expressed its view to co-ordinate the efforts of OAU with ECA secretariat for the implementation of such resolutions"<sup>6</sup>;

#### **Problems and needs**

8. Briefly stated, the main general problem facing the countries in Africa is that great numbers of young people have reached adolescence without any schooling, or with only a short period of primary education; with perhaps a poor foundation of health; with little or no training for the newer types of employment that are becoming available, especially in the big towns and cities, and with great uncertainty as to how best they can be involved in the national development effort. Added to this general trend, may also be cited the pressure of new patterns of socio-economic setting in terms of meeting these needs, and the resistance of traditional institutions to the expansion of modern socio-economic pursuits.

<sup>3</sup> OAU ECOS/19/RES/5(I) para. 5 (b), (c). Niamey, 13 December 1963

<sup>4</sup> Ibid.

<sup>5</sup> OAU ECOS/18/RES/4(I) para. 5, Niamey, 13 December 1963

<sup>6</sup> OAU ECOS/RES.11(II) Cairo, 22 January 1965

9. The problems and needs of youth have in recent years been given growing attention and consideration by the United Nations Family and particularly by UNESCO, ILO, FAO and BSA.

10. The UNESCO International Conference on Youth, in Grenoble (France), 23 August - 1 September 1964, dealt with the many aspects of out-of-school education and particularly recommended on:

- (a) Preparation of young people for working life;
- (b) Preparation of young people for leisure time activities;
- (c) Preparation of young people for civil and social life;
- (d) Preparation of young people for international life and understanding<sup>7</sup>.

11. The needs of youth in relation to work and preparation for work have been summarized by ILO as follows<sup>8</sup>:

- (a) The need for a good foundation for work, including a good general education and appropriate training;
- (b) The need for work;
- (c) The need for development and learning at work;
- (d) The need for health care and for opportunities for sound physical and psychological development;
- (e) The need for leisure, for opportunities for rest, relaxation and recreation, for creative activity;
- (f) The need for confidence in society and its future, for opportunities and constructive community co-operation for adherence and dedication to a worthy cause.

12. The twelfth session of the FAO Conference, Rome, 16 November to 5 December 1963, discussed "measures to develop rural youth activities in the world especially with a view to improving agricultural production and social conditions in developing countries"<sup>9</sup>. The Conference was in unanimous agreement about the increasing importance of activities on behalf of rural youth, particularly in regard to out-of-school agricultural training and welcomed the proposal for intensifying FAO's work in this field<sup>10</sup>. The Conference also adopted a resolution which, *inter alia*, (a) recognized FAO's responsibilities towards the future farmers and farm wives who form an important part of the world population and on whose training and abilities the future development of agriculture will largely depend; (b) considered the important contribution which rural youth organizations and out-of-school training programmes are making in several countries to improve the standard of living in rural districts through the diffusion of modern up-to-date production techniques; and (c) considered that FAO should play a leading role in the promotion of rural youth programmes<sup>11</sup>.

13. An Inter-regional Adviser on Youth has been appointed by the United Nations and, in association with the Bureau of Social Affairs (BSA) and in close co-operation with UNICEF, he will render direct advisory services to Governments and collaborate with the regional commissions, with relation to:

<sup>7</sup> UNESCO/ED/211, Paris, 10 November 1964 - *Final Report of the International Conference on Youth*

<sup>8</sup> ILO : *Youth Vocational Centres Explanatory Memo*, ICEF, 11-1

<sup>9</sup> FAO, *Report of the Twelfth Session of the Conference 16 Nov-5 Dec. 1963*, p.67

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid*, p.67, para.406

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid*, p.67, Resolution No.24/63



- (a) Plans, policies and programmes aimed at furthering the participation of youth in national development and at allocating to the needs of youth an appropriate place in regional and national planning;
- (b) The establishment of institutions and appropriate forms of organization to enable youth to play its part in national development;
- (c) The establishment and strengthening of means of training personnel both professional and voluntary, required for the implementation of adequate youth programmes<sup>12</sup>.

14. The Inter-regional Adviser on Youth will also:

- (a) Collaborate with technical assistance experts and advisers from the United Nations, the specialized agencies and from bilateral sources, in programmes related to youth and national development; and
- (b) Assist in the planning, preparation and implementation of inter-regional, regional and national youth projects<sup>13</sup>.

#### **Meeting the needs**

15. To meet the needs enumerated above, service under health, educational, vocational and social welfare auspices are necessary. In urban areas, these services need to be brought into focus and given opportunity for concerted action in comprehensive urban programmes for families, children and youth. In rural areas, they can have a part in integrated rural development programmes. Of considerable importance in rural areas is agricultural extension and home economics extension services which reach young people, especially through young progressive farmers' activities.

16. Programmes for youth may be focussed around three major fields of activities:

- (a) Activities connected with the preparation of young men and women for their effective participation in the social and economic life and development of their communities and countries and their involvement in the development process of their communities and countries as the best "agents of development";
- (b) Activities connected with the preparation of young men and women for constructive citizenship and their active participation in service to their communities and countries;
- (c) Activities to enable youth to make constructive use of their leisure time for the promotion of their physical and mental development.

17. Already in operation in some African countries are programmes for rural and semi-rural youth, aimed at solving problems of transition in rural life; unemployment and lack of purpose among youth and lack of skilled personnel and leadership for agricultural development. Rural youth programmes can be undertaken as a kind of out-of-school training programmes by the schools, either for young people still attending school or for school leavers. Rural youth programmes could be used for providing technical training in agriculture, home economics, handicrafts and other skills for young people who did not have the opportunity of attending primary or elementary school; or as a follow-up training in agriculture

<sup>12</sup> Terms of Reference of the Inter-regional Adviser on Youth Policies and Programmes.

<sup>13</sup> *Ibid.*

for those who attended elementary school. Rural youth programmes could easily be combined with literacy programmes and community development projects. It is considered desirable that rural youth programmes should include not only individual projects in the field of agriculture, home economics, handicrafts and other skills, but also group projects such as the improvement of roads, improvement of sanitary conditions, digging of wells and building of sports and recreational grounds which would serve the whole community.

#### **Organizational frames for youth work programmes**

18. Programmes for youth may be carried out within the following organizational framework:

- (a) *Voluntary local youth organizations* - the local youth club within a community centre in urban and rural areas, the independent youth club, the youth club initiated, organized and supervised by local groups; all these with or without municipal or governmental assistance, with or without national set-ups.
- (b) *Voluntary national and international youth movements* - such as Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, YMCA, YWCA, Red Cross, Special Interest Groups, such as International Voluntary Work Camps, etc., whose activities are or should be spread all over a country and whose local clubs and formations are all affiliated in a National Association which in turn is a member of its International Association. Such voluntary youth movements may or may not be assisted by government or municipalities or private sponsoring bodies.
- (c) *Rural youth organizations* - such as the 4-H Clubs and Young Farmers' Organizations whose activities are usually spread all over the rural areas of the country. These and other such organizations are normally supported, advised and assisted at the local, district, provincial and national level by the Extension Service of the Ministry of Agriculture.
- (d) *State national youth organizations* - organized and run by governments to meet specific needs of African youth and the practical part they should play in the development of their countries along government policies and plans.

19. State national youth organizations are usually arranged into two sub-divisions of national youth work:

- (a) State national youth organization or movement mainly working with the age groups up to 18;
- (b) State national youth organization, such as the national youth service, service civique or national pioneering youth composed of young men and women of the higher age groups (18-25). The task of these organizations (national youth service, *service civique*, etc.) is mainly to execute in practice specific social, educational (including literacy, vocational and agricultural education and training) and economic needs of the country and its youth such as youth employment, specific training for needed skills, new modern agricultural villages (may be in a co-operative way) special development projects, road building, clearing bush, etc. In this organizational frame for youth activities, young men and women are usually occupied "full time" in training and work for relatively long periods (6-30 months).

20. "National co-ordinating bodies" such as national youth councils, a national youth bureau within a Ministry for youth or a national board for youth the tasks of which will be to plan, co-ordinate aid and supervise all youth work in various organizational frames for youth existing in a country, may play an important role in the promotion and development of youth activities and in meeting their specific needs.

#### **Objectives of ECA's youth policy**

21. Bearing in mind the problems and needs of African youth and the part they should play in the development of their countries, the objectives of ECA's youth policy may be defined as follows:

- (a) To assist African countries to plan and develop sound and effective programmes and welfare youth services according to their needs and problems—mainly by advisory and guidance services on organization, administration and training programmes;
- (b) To assist African countries in their programmes by training instructors, technicians and other top level youth work personnel on regional and sub-regional basis;
- (c) To assist in organizing, servicing and co-ordinating regional and sub-regional activities: meetings, seminars, conferences, study tours, regional and international youth camps and festivals with full co-operation, co-ordination and collaboration of OAU, BSA, UNICEF, United Nations specialized agencies and other international organizations;
- (d) To encourage and ensure more effective use of outside assistance to Africa by helping to co-ordinate the activities and aid given by BSA, UNICEF, United Nations specialized agencies and other international organizations;
- (e) To assist and work in close co-operation and co-ordination with regional and sub-regional youth training institutions, information, documentation and research centres, regional or sub-regional secretaries of international voluntary youth organizations — established or planned to be established in Africa by the United Nations family and other international organizations.

#### **Possible contributions of UNESCO, ILO, FAO, WHO to ECA's youth programmes to the development of youth work in Africa**

##### **1. UNESCO**

UNESCO will contribute to ECA's youth programmes and to the development of youth work in Africa within the framework of its competence, that is in the field of out-of-school education with particular stress to those activities which make it possible for youth to participate in cultural, technical, economic and social development of their country and to participate in international co-operation.

The contributions of UNESCO to ECA's youth programmes and to the development of youth work in Africa is expected to take the following forms:

- (a) By making relevant experience of UNESCO in youth work available to ECA through documents and publications relating to experiments, methods and activities in Africa and in other parts of the world;

- (b) By assisting in the study of certain specific problems connected with youth work in Africa, including studies of the special problems dealing with physical education and sports;
- (c) By co-operating through UNESCO experts on youth work assigned to African countries;
- (d) By enlisting co-operation of youth organizations and movements (governmental and voluntary) in implementing literacy programmes within the framework of a world campaign for universal literacy.

## 2. ILO

The ILO will endeavour to co-operate with ECA's youth work programmes mainly in the following activities:

- (a) Training of vocational and handicraft instructors in individual countries for their frames of youth work activities;
- (b) Introduction of pre-vocational subjects at youth training centres;
- (c) Introduction of pre-vocational subjects in youth leadership courses in individual countries and in sub-regional or regional youth leadership training programmes;
- (d) The establishment of technical clubs for youth of the lower age groups (up to 16) in co-operation with youth organizations and vocational centres for youth of higher age groups (17-25); and provision of tools, equipment and supervisory staff for such centres;
- (e) Provision of visual aids posters, publications and other materials for raising vocational and handicraft aptitudes of youth at places where youth gather (schools, youth centres, clubs, camps, etc.).

## 3. FAO

FAO will endeavour to co-operate with ECA's youth programmes in the following activities:

- (a) Providing lecturer consultant and expert services in relation to:
  - (i) Background research and studies of the situation and problems of rural youth, particularly as they relate to agricultural and home economics;
  - (ii) Planning, development and evaluation of educational programmes for rural youth particularly those related to the extension programmes of Ministries of Agriculture;
  - (iii) The development of professional staff training programmes for rural youth work, including pre-service, induction and in-service training; and post-graduate study (Fellowships) programmes;
  - (iv) Programmes and activities relating to volunteer lay leadership recruitment training and use;
- (b) Arranging through field programmes, such as EPTA, FAO/UNICEF and Freedom from Hunger, FFHC, for special assistance projects aimed at strengthening rural youth programmes in Africa;
- (c) Providing information and sharing experience in the rural youth programme field with ECA, through publications, documents and related materials available from other regions of the world;
- (d) Encouraging contact and communication between the rural youth programme leadership of Africa and other parts of the world, through correspondence, exchange, international meetings, study opportunities, etc., as a contribution to leader inspiration, exchange of ideas for programme development and programme evaluation;

- (e) Promoting and assisting with international training seminars and study programmes for rural youth programme leaders.

#### 4. WHO

WHO has included child health (this being understood as the care for the health of children from conception to their entrance into adult life) from its earliest days as one of the six priority subjects selected for immediate action. Priorities within this subject differ as between developing and developed countries. In some developing countries up to 50 per cent of the children born alive may die before reaching the age of 5, hence priority in child health programmes may often concern itself only with the survival of children. While WHO has performed more emphasis to the need for survival of children in developing countries, its contribution to youth has been through its efforts to strengthen general health services by the improvement in basic health conditions such as the control of communicable disease and improved environmental sanitation, in addition to its work in the field of nutrition, health education, nursing, occupational health and mental health. The report of the WHO Expert Committee on Health Problems of Adolescence which met in November 1964, the European Seminar on Child, Health and the School held in August 1963, in which special attention was paid to school-leavers entering industry, and the Symposium on the Role of Obstetrics in Maternal and Child Health Programmes held in October 1964, in which the preparation of youth for parenthood was considered, are all indications of WHO's abiding concern for young people.

WHO will endeavour to co-operate with ECA's youth programmes within its related fields of competence and in accordance with its established priorities.

Its contributions to the programmes could be as follows:

- (a) Through the provision of advice and guidance as necessary, from the three WHO regional officers concerned with Africa;
- (b) By making available to ECA its experience in the health aspect of youth work;
- (c) By co-operating through WHO field staff engaged in relevant field programmes in African countries;
- (d) By assisting at the request of Governments, in the development of the health aspects or vocational guidance services and services for the physically handicapped and mentally retarded youth;
- (e) By advising, at the request of Governments, on the development of special health services, the medical supervision of youth camps and the medical care of young workers;
- (f) By helping to incorporate health promotion in all its aspects into the organization of youth movements including the development of the health education content of courses of training;

#### **Brief Note on UNICEF's Role in Family and Child Welfare Services in Africa**

The following types of projects are carried out by UNICEF:

- Social services for children
- Mothercraft and homecraft
- Community development
- Urban projects

In addition, a number of the health services projects incorporate social services or community development aspects and aid the projects for handicapped children are usually designed to provide for both physical and social rehabilitation.

### **Social Services for Children**

The objective of these projects is to assist countries to develop national social services programmes that will help to preserve and strengthen family life and foster opportunities for the healthy growth of personality, capacities and social habits of children and youth.

Priority is given to the extension and development of training centres at various educational levels for workers engaged in services to families, children and youth and to the improvement of existing institutions giving full-time care to children. In many projects, Governments are receiving assistance in developing other services for children and their parents, including day-care centres, foster family placement, group homes and community centres and youth clubs. In some places, aid is particularly directed to strengthening family life, improving parental understanding of children's needs and improved methods of care through group activities for families and parent education.

UNICEF aid may be given in stipends for trainees, honoraria for trainers, or assistance with costs of field instruction including necessary supplies, equipment and training materials for use in training centres and agencies used for demonstration and teaching. UNICEF aid is also available to assist in assessment of existing services and for planning towards a more comprehensive method of meeting the social welfare needs of families and children within an over-all national plan for economic and social development.

### **AFRICA**

Congo (Kinshasa)	Kenya	Tunisia
Dahomey	Mali	Uganda
Ethiopia	Niger	Upper Volta
Ghana	Tanzania	Zambia (including community development)
Ivory Coast	Togo	East Africa (including community development)

### **Mothercraft/Homecraft**

Through women's clubs, UNICEF aid is provided to teach young women and mothers improved methods of child rearing and home-making and to help them play a constructive part in community life. These clubs have varied auspices but many are part of community development programmes and the majority receiving UNICEF aid are in African countries. For projects of this type which are called mothercraft and homecraft projects, UNICEF contributes teaching materials, supplies and equipment for demonstration work and transport. Community development workers are trained to supervise and promote the work of the clubs; training is also given to selected village women as club leaders.

## **AFRICA**

Congo (Brazzaville)	Liberia	Sierra Leone	Guinea
Ghana	Malawi	Tanzania	
Ivory Coast	Morocco	Tunisia	
Kenya	Nigeria	Uganda	

### **Community Development**

UNICEF aid is given to community development programmes for the purpose of training organizers and local leaders to encourage the establishment of activities such as mothers' clubs and youth programmes and to stimulate local initiative to develop a comprehensive community approach to needs for education, health and social services, nutrition, home economics and agricultural development.

## **AFRICA**

Congo (Kinshasa)	Nigeria
Ethiopia	Senegal
Kenya	Tanzania

Other types of programmes aided by UNICEF which may be carried out within the framework of community development programmes are the following:

- aid for integrated MCH and general health projects;
- training aids and stipends for auxiliary workers, including community development officers and local women's club leaders, to prepare them for work in family and child welfare aspects of community development (see social services and mothercraft and homecraft projects above);
- aid for nutrition training and education through community development channels, through schools or through agricultural and home economics extension services.

### **Urban Projects**

These projects involve the combination of other fields assisted by UNICEF, with the objective of providing a comprehensive community approach towards the problems of children and youth in urban areas, especially in shanty towns and other areas of acute social dislocation. While UNICEF has aided urban areas for some time in various fields, this type of comprehensive approach, undertaken preferably as part of a larger urbanization scheme, is only just beginning.

## **AFRICA**

Tunisia

### **Pre-Vocational Training**

In Africa there is only one pre-vocational training project which is being currently aided in Tunisia. It provides pre-vocational training to early school-leavers.