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SUMMARY RECORD OF THE THIRTY-SIXTH MEETING

held at the Palais des Nations, Geneva,
on Wednesday, 10 October 1951, at 2.30 p.m.

CONTENTS:

Pages

1. Item 4 Economic conditions and development in Non-Self-Governing Territories: Secretary-General's analyses of information and documents submitted by ILO and FAC:	
(b) The rural economy, with particular reference to agricultural development, land distribution, agricultural credit, rural co-operative organization. (A/AC.35/L.33, A/AC.35/L.38, A/AC.35/L.39, A/AC.35/L.41, A/AC.35/L.45 and Corr.1, A/AC.35/L.48, A/AC.35/L.49, A/AC.35/L.50)	3 - 30
2. Appointment of a Sub-Committee on Economic Conditions and Problems of Development	30 - 31
3. Consideration of time-table.	31

Present:

Chairman:

Mr. KERNKAMP

Members:

Australia	Mr. PEACHEY
Belgium	Mr. RYCKMANS
Brasil	Mr. ROCQUE da MOTTA
Cuba	Mr. VALDES ROIG
Denmark	Mr. LANNUNG
Egypt	Mr. PHARAONY
France	Mr. PIGNON Mr. HERMET
India	Mr. PANT
Mexico	Mr. CALDERÓN PUIG
Netherlands	Mr. SPITS
New Zealand	Mr. SCOTT
Pakistan	Mr. ZIAUD-DIN
Philippines	Mr. INGLES
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	Mr. SOLDATOV
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	Mr. MATHIESON
United States of America	Mr. DAVIS

Representatives of specialized agencies:

International Labour Organisation	Mr. GAVIN
	Mr. LAMING
Food and Agriculture Organization	Mr. PAWLEY
United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization	Mr. DESTOMBES

Secretariat:

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

1. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS AND DEVELOPMENT IN NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES: SECRETARY-GENERAL'S ANALYSES OF INFORMATION AND DOCUMENTS SUBMITTED BY ILO AND FAO (item 4 of the agenda) (continued):

(b) The rural economy, with particular reference to agricultural development, land distribution agricultural credit, rural co-operative organization. (../.C.35/L.33, ../.C.35/L.38, ../.C.35/L.39, ../.C.35/L.41, ../.C.35/L.45 and Corr. 1, ../.C.35/L.48, ../.C.35/L.49, ../.C.35/L.50) (continued)

Mr. INGLES (Philippines) said that the principal problem in the predominantly agricultural economy of the Non-Self-Governing Territories was the improvement and modernization of the primitive methods of cultivation used in those areas. It was against that background that the serious problems of soil conservation and reclamation, adequate water supplies, drainage and irrigation should be considered.

His delegation was glad to note that, in spite of the problems which had arisen in connexion with the mechanization of agriculture in the Belgian Congo, that system had not been abandoned in that Territory, but intensive research and experiments had been carried on by the National Institute for Agricultural Research in the Congo with a view to a more rational use of modern equipment and its correlation with the use of chemical fertilizers. Studies of the use of fertilizers were of primary importance as fertilizers provided the answer to the problem of soil exhaustion due to mechanization. The use of animal manure and chemical fertilizers in Swaziland and Nigeria and the scientific sugar cultivation in Hawaii and Puerto Rico showed that the indigenous populations were ready to accept modern techniques in agriculture once those techniques and the benefits to be derived from them had been demonstrated and fully understood.

Emphasizing the disadvantages of monoculture, he felt there was something basically wrong in a system which required some Non-Self-Governing Territories to export certain kinds of foodstuffs to other countries and to import other foodstuffs, which were needed, and could be produced by the indigenous inhabitants of the Territories.

With regard to the FAO report on Fats, Oils and Oilseeds in the Non-Self-Governing Territories (../.C.35/L.38), he was glad to note that the plans for the

development of ground-nut and palm-oil industries in Africa were part of a general development plan calling for an increase in the output of food crops for consumption by the indigenous inhabitants.

Referring to the declaration made at the previous meeting by the French representative, he appreciated his assurance that the production of raw materials and food crops for export was not being undertaken at the expense of the production of food crops needed by the inhabitants. At the same meeting, the United Kingdom representative had stressed the fact that the diet of the indigenous population must be improved before the problem of industrialization could be tackled. It was an admitted fact, however, that certain Territories did not produce enough food for their own consumption while, nevertheless growing crops for export. He considered that before plans were drawn up for increasing the volume of export crops, or, possibly, together with such plans, more attention should be paid to increasing the amount of food grown for home consumption.

Moreover, the need for proper crop rotation was clearly brought out in the statements regarding the dangers of soil erosion and exhaustion made in the information on French West Africa and in the report of the Nigerian Livestock Mission quoted in the Secretariat's Note on General Conditions of Agricultural Production (A/AC.35/L.33, footnote to paragraph 36). It was obvious that the expansion of acreage planted with crops such as palm-oil, ground-nuts, rubber and sugar, which were intended for export, should not be effected at the expense of staple food crops like rice and other cereals. In the Philippines, where the deficiency in rice production had been aggravated by the Japanese occupation, a five-year plan to provide self-sufficiency in rice through an increase in rice acreage, the extension of irrigation projects, the introduction of modern equipment, seed selection, and the use of fertilizers, had been initiated shortly after the country had become independent. The plan was being carried out co-incidentally with the rehabilitation of export industries.

The expansion of commercial crop production should not be undertaken to the detriment of the cultivation of more varied food crops needed to remedy the protein and other important nutritional deficiencies from which so many of the inhabitants of Non-Self-Governing Territories suffered; there should be some

correlation between current programmes of increased food production and the cultivation of crops which would lead to a more balanced diet for those people. The improvement of nutritional standards could not be attained solely by education; it depended largely on the local availability of appropriate food supplies.

Emphasizing the importance of the conclusion reached in the Secretariat's note on Trends in Fisheries Development in Non-Self-Governing Territories (A/AC.35/L.34) that the great lack of proteins in the diets of the inhabitants of many of those Territories could be substantially filled by the expansion of the consumption of fish, he pointed out that Government assistance was necessary to enable such Territories to initiate and carry out improvements in fishing and fish farming.

As to the problem of land distribution, he thought that land hunger was understandable among some of the indigenous peoples of certain overcrowded parts of the world, but it seemed somewhat paradoxical in such an immense but sparsely populated continent as Africa.

Referring to the United Kingdom representative's statement at the previous meeting concerning land alienation, he pointed out that it would be seen from the Secretariat's note on the General Aspects of Land Distribution (A/AC.35/L.50) that out of a total area of 224,960 square miles, the land alienated or available for alienation in Kenya amounted to 13,346 square miles in 1950, but by administrative practice the malaria-free highlands, totalling 16,233 square miles, had been restricted to settlement by Europeans. Considering the fact that some three-fifths of the total land area of Kenya was desert, the proportion of cultivable land held or reserved for European settlement would be almost three times the percentage quoted by the United Kingdom representative. The land available to Africans was not attractive because of the presence of the tse-tse fly or of lack of water. Such land also required a great deal of clearing as compared with the land reserved for the European settler.

In Bechuanaland the percentage of European-held land to the total area was only 1.5, but it should be noted that 96 per cent of the total area of that territory was forest land, only a small proportion of which could be exploited.

In Swasiland non-African holdings comprised 48 per cent of the total land area, and considerable parts of the native-held areas were bush.

He then briefly reviewed land distribution in the West Indies, Malaya and Hawaii, and referred to the statements made in paragraphs 18, 33, 40, 47, 57, 59, 60 and 69 of document A/C.35/L.50, which showed that the land was not equally divided between the non-indigenous and indigenous inhabitants.

Referring to land distribution in French Equatorial Africa, he quoted paragraphs 86 and 87 of the Report by the Secretary-General under General Assembly Resolution 401 (V) (E/2003) submitted to the thirteenth session of the Economic and Social Council, and paragraph 33 of the Secretariat's note on General Aspects of Land Distribution (A/C.35/L.50) where it was stated that the land alienation system obtaining there was the same for Europeans and Africans. In that connexion, he questioned whether a system which provided an equal opportunity to acquire land for both the indigenous and the non-indigenous population could be considered truly to forward the principle that the interests of the inhabitants of Non-Self-Governing Territories were paramount. He felt that the indigenous population was bound to suffer when placed on a footing of equal competition with more advanced people.

Turning to another aspect of the problem of land distribution, he pointed out that in paragraphs 89 and 90 of document A/C.35/L.50, the need was stressed for the consolidation of land plots and for measures against fragmentation. Reference to that problem had also been made in one of the recommendations of the African Conference on Indigenous Rural Economy held at Jos, Nigeria, in November 1949, and in the Economic and Social Council resolution of 7 September 1951 on land reform (E/2124). The Philippines delegation felt that large estates in the Non-Self-Governing Territories should be broken up to provide for the needs of an increasing indigenous population and that the land should be parcelled into units of efficient size. That idea was also reflected in paragraph 3(c) of Economic and Social Council resolution of 7 September 1951 (E/2124). The large rubber estates in Malaya, where it had been demonstrated that, in view of the simple technique of rubber production, no great economy was to be made by large scale operations, afforded an excellent example of large land holdings by European settlers.

It was important that a subject people should be allowed to participate in the production of wealth, as from wealth came power and political influence. In some of the Non-Self-Governing Territories the wealth and political influence of the non-indigenous settlers had been used to retard the economic advancement of the indigenous population. The problem was acute in Kenya where administrative practice had restricted the highlands area to settlement by the European population. Another example of restrictive administrative policies on the part of the European population was the allocation of lands suitable for coffee or tea production, with the result that in practice no African could grow coffee or tea. Referring to the report of the United Nations Visiting Mission to Tanganyika (T/218 and T/218/Add.1), he pointed out that the Mission had noted that the Africans feared that the expansion of European settlement in Tanganyika might result in discrimination and certain economic, political and social disabilities. Those disabilities also characterized the situation in Kenya where there were a great many European settlers. The Visiting Mission's recommendation that European colonization should be curtailed and the strictest control exercised to keep it at the barest minimum consistent with the development of the Territory should also apply to Kenya, and to other Non-Self-Governing Territories. The Mission had also recommended that as a general policy all ex-German estates should come under African ownership, preferably on a co-operative basis, and that in those instances where Africans were not immediately capable of operating such schemes, the administering Authority should consider schemes whereby such estates under African ownership might temporarily continue under non-African management until such time as the Africans were trained to assume full management.

He felt that the approach to the problem of land distribution outlined in paragraph 91 of the note by the Secretariat on Land Distribution (A/AC.35/L.50) should be further explored. It might help to bring about a more equitable distribution of land in the Non-Self-Governing Territories, to lessen tension and to achieve the aim of the Charter in so far as the peoples of those territories were concerned.

Mr. HERMET (France) explained that the primary obstacle to the development of the soil and the improvement of the agricultural economy lay in the

uncertainty and insecurity of land tenure, which explained why one of the first aims of an economic and social development programme designed to raise the standard of living of the peasant population should be the establishment of an adequate land tenure system.

So far as concerned the French Union, the gravity of the problem had not escaped the French administration, which had endeavoured to put a stop to usury and to make it easier for the indigenous population to own land.

Soil impoverishment, by reducing yields, forced landowners to abandon marginal land, while small farmers, in their vain search for a balanced economy, tended to give up industrial cropping in favour of food cropping, thereby impairing the economic potential of the territories in the French Union.

With regard to the agrarian structure of continental Africa, in general, and to the land tenure system, property structure and agrarian reform in particular, society in Africa was one in which the farmer's right to work the land was determined by his position in the community and not by any contracts he might make; hence the inalienable nature of the collective ownership of the land. The distribution of land among members of the community might be fixed for all time; but as a rule the land was distributed periodically by the chief of the community.

All territories had based their land laws on that de facto situation, and the main provisions of those laws had been analysed in various reports to the Trusteeship Council and the Special Committee. Those laws provided, firstly, for the registration of land in the land register, which conferred final and unquestionable ownership and applied to indigenous and non-indigenous inhabitants alike and, secondly, for the recognition of the customary rights to land exercised by the indigenous inhabitants, whether individually or collectively, by means of a title deed the validity of which could not be disputed by third parties.

That method of recording consisted in entering in the register the results of an inquiry carried out on the instructions of the Chef de circonscription, in the course of which claims were adjudicated by native courts.

The structure of land ownership presented several interesting features. The first was the small extent of the European concessions as compared with the total

area of the country. These concessions comprised approximately 1,320,000 hectares for French Africa as a whole, including 137,000 hectares in French West Africa, 695,000 in French Equatorial Africa, 102,000 in the Cameroons and 38,649 in Togoland. Generally speaking they consisted of small and medium sized holdings. These figures could usefully be compared with the statistics on soil utilization included in the French memorandum prepared for the Food and Agriculture Organisation's conference on tropical soil utilisation. The second characteristic feature of land ownership in continental Africa was the very small area of registered agricultural land held by indigenous inhabitants and the predominance of land held under the provisions of customary law.

The foregoing analysis showed that, in view of the traditional system of land tenure and ownership by native communities, the sparse population and the absence of agricultural indebtedness, there was no reason to contemplate any agrarian reform. The method of collective land tenure did not, in fact, appear to constitute a major obstacle to technical progress, as it lent itself to the organized cultivation of land by groups receiving technical assistance from the public authorities. Furthermore, the low occupational density of land within indigenous rural communities removed the basic cause of agrarian conflict.

It was, however, undeniable that, in a number of regions, pressure by the indigenous population for the individual or collective ownership of the land they occupied and cultivated was increasing for various reasons, including the influence of European ideas, stronger demographic pressure, the expansion of industrial crops and land improvement, which was increasing the value of land to the occupier. One of the main results of that state of affairs was to make rural communities more eager to safeguard their rights over that part of their patrimony which was the land of the value of which they were becoming increasingly aware.

In the French Overseas Territories all concessions had to be submitted to an elected local assembly for approval. Describing the existing situation in Madagascar and the Comoro islands, he said that the situation of agriculture in Madagascar was similar to that in West Africa. Registered rural properties were, however, much more extensive there than in continental Africa. In 1950, registrations comprised 70,000 land titles covering 2,428,000 hectares, of which

2,115,000 hectares belonged to Europeans.

The foregoing considerations led to the conclusion that the system of land tenure in French overseas territories was in need of revision. Changes made so far had, generally speaking, been in the direction of a transfer of private land belonging to the State, and particularly of vacant lands, to the individual territories, of the revision of the provisions governing the alienation of State land in order to strengthen the clauses safeguarding the customary rights of the occupying population, of the indirect participation of that population in profits derived from the exploitation of concessions and finally of preventing the buying up of land for speculative purposes. The changes were also intended to facilitate not only the recording but also the registration of the land rights of the indigenous inhabitants, whether exercised individually or collectively.

An Administrative Commission, appointed by a Ministerial Order of 21 December 1949, had spent the years 1950-1951 briefing itself on the system of public and other forms of land ownership in the African Territories, and it was at present preparing a draft law which it had been instructed to submit. The Commission had been guided in its work by several considerations: firstly, the need to recognize, as liberally as possible, the holdings of individuals or tribal communities on regularly worked land and on developed urban plots; secondly, the possibility of assigning to individual members of a community holdings on land belonging to the community; thirdly, the need to prohibit the splitting up or segregation of a community and to avoid any speculative settlement of tribes that were still migrant; fourthly, the revision of the conditions governing communal holdings; and fifthly, the need for compulsory registration of titles to property and for systematic research into land laws by the administration with a view to preparing a land register.

The general policy of the French Government with regard to land tenure was based on the following principles: to prevent any buying up of State land for speculative purposes; to ensure that the indigenous inhabitants had the use of the land required for the exercise of their right to cultivate it by granting it permanently either to individuals or to the community; to recognize and safeguard rights to make use of State land, and, finally, in every case, to make the disposal

of land subject to laws or regulations designed to ensure a rational utilization of land resources.

The administration therefore granted new rural concessions only when their development fitted into the modernization plan for the Overseas Territories, and under certain conditions, such as the technical capacity and financial resources of the persons applying for concessions. The rights of users, which indigenous communities occupying such areas might possess, were respected or redeemed, and the Law of 6 May 1952 provided that concession-holders who failed to develop their land forfeited their rights thereto. Moreover, since it had been considered good policy not to lay down prematurely final rules governing the land system of the territories by granting individual rights indiscriminately, a draft law had been prepared conferring legal capacity on the tribal communities to enable them to exercise their rights of ownership of the land. Finally, it must be admitted that the speedy, large-scale registration of rural properties would require expensive administrative machinery beyond the financial resources of the territories, if rights were to be recognized, the land surveyed and land registers kept.

In North Africa, and more particularly in Tunisia and Morocco, the land tenure system had remained as defined in Koranic Law, alongside which an optional modern system had been established, based on the most recent legislation successfully applied first in Australia and later in many other countries. In Tunisia at the present time, out of 9 million hectares of productive land, 7,450,000 hectares remained subject to Koranic Law and 1,550,000 hectares came under the registration system. In Morocco, out of 15 million hectares of cultivable land, 1,670,000 hectares had been registered.

A characteristic feature of Koranic Law was the division of landed property into two main categories: "dead land" and "living land", the former being land that served no useful purpose, and the latter land which belonged either to private individuals or to communities and could be registered. "Melk" land - as "living land" belonging to private individuals was normally called - had much in common with landed property as defined in the French Civil Code; but it had also certain peculiar features, for example the right of the head of the family to manage the property. Mention should also be made of "Wakf" land, which was landed property

the owner of which had abandoned the enjoyment of it in perpetuity for religious or social reasons, retaining only ownership without usufruct.

In Tunisia, in view of the long-established rights of the community and individuals and of the people's attachment to their traditions, a system of optional registration had been introduced under the land tenure code. Persons desirous of registering land applied to a special court, the joint tribunal.

After outlining the functions and competence of that court, both in Morocco and in Tunisia, he went on to say that the system afforded a firm foundation for the registration of land, thus facilitating the many rapid transactions necessitated by modern life and economic developments. At the present time approximately one-sixth of the total area of the country had gone over from the traditional Koranic system to the system of registration. Keeping pace with the new problems arising out of the expansion of agriculture, new laws had been introduced to regulate the forestry system, the consolidation of tenancies of State lands and of the large "Wakf" properties, the development of private, State or municipal land, as well as the registration of collective and tribal land. Those laws, together with the land tenure code, constituted a corpus juris which had made possible the substantial expansion of agriculture required through the increase in the population.

Since the liberation of the Protectorate, i.e. since 7 May 1943, the Government's policy had been to bring fallow land of all types into production in order to provide a future livelihood for a constantly increasing population. It should be pointed out that in Tunisia, out of a utilisable area of 9 million hectares, Europeans held only about 700,000 hectares which, he might add, provided almost the whole wine harvest, 84 per cent of the soft wheat and 35 per cent of the hard wheat harvests, as well as a high proportion of the fruit, vegetables and oil produced.

In order to increase production in Tunisia, therefore, the productivity of the soil would have to be raised to the level obtaining in France through the propagation and general adoption of modern methods of cultivation, for which a stable system of land tenure was essential. The Minister of Agriculture had accordingly endeavoured to introduce a better system than that provided for under the land law

of 1 July 1885 which had instituted land registration in Tunisia, although on an optional basis only.

The Decrees of 7 and 9 September 1948, issued as a result of the work done by a Land Commission set up under a Decree of 4 December 1947, had had as their primary result a legislative reform for the transfer of private rural land belonging to the State. That reform enabled Tunisians to cultivate plots of State-owned land and to obtain the loans necessary for their development. The information and figures he had just given were evidence of the French Government's determination to solve the problem of land reform as promptly as possible.

It was obvious that in Tunisia, the population of which had doubled since 1881 and today amounted to three and a half million inhabitants, the development of uncultivated land was urgently required.

In conclusion, he stated that the system of registration put into effect in North Africa had been completely successful. Whereas in the early days of the Protectorate only Europeans had registered their holdings, their example was today being followed by the Moslem population, and the economic and social programme was being progressively developed.

Mr. DAVIS (United States of America) briefly described some of the measures taken and the results achieved in the fields of land distribution, agricultural credit and agricultural co-operatives in Puerto Rico.

Concentration of land ownership had been a barrier to the improvement of the standard of living in that country. Before the second world war improvements in land tenure had been undertaken by the Homestead Commission and the Puerto Rican Reconstruction Administration. About 12,600 subsistence farms had been established and 7,100 dwellings had been constructed through those agencies. The Puerto Rican Reconstruction Administration had made the first attack on the problem of large estates and absentee landlords in 1936, when it had purchased a large foreign-owned tract of land and re-organised it into co-operative farms. Although that first experiment had not been immediately successful, it had stimulated an increasingly aggressive movement for the reform of land tenure and was now operating with good results.

Land reform in Puerto Rico was at present being carried out by the Puerto

Rican Land Authority with the assistance of the Farmers' Home Administration and the Federal agencies. The Farmers' Home Administration was an agency of the Federal Government and provided credit to farmers for production and subsistence purposes.

Reviewing the principal responsibilities of the Land Authority which had been set up by the Territorial Legislature, he emphasized that the Authority had the power to force corporations to dispose of all land holdings in excess of 500 acres. It also had a first option on the acquisition of such land provided it offered a price equal to that offered by the highest bidder. By exercising that function the Land Authority had, up to 30 June 1950, acquired almost 103,000 acres. The land acquired by the Authority had been used for three purposes. It had been divided into small subsistence plots for workers and had also been used to establish what were known as proportional profit farms as well as to develop owner-operated family farms.

Small garden or subsistence plots varying in size from a quarter of an acre to three acres were being set aside by the Authority for the use of rural squatters and slum dwellers. Thousands of families had previously lived in small shacks built on land which they did not own. They had, in fact, been tenants dependent on the goodwill of the large landowners for whom many of them worked as labourers and by whom they could be dispossessed at any time. Small parcels of land were now being made available to those people without payment. A low rent was charged for larger tracts and the proceeds were used entirely for local community improvement. In addition to providing land, the Authority advanced small loans for the purchase of materials for building houses.

Over 20,000 families had already been resettled in 165 rural communities of from 100 to 500 families each. These communities were planned on progressive modern principles which provided for the establishment of schools, health centres, parks, consumer co-operatives, churches and community pastures.

That programme was closely related to the programme for the development of proportional profit farms, since a large number of the resettled workers were employed on such farms. The proportional profit farm was an attempt to combine the more desirable elements of private and public ownership, and of corporate and co-operative organization. The farm was leased by the Land Authority in tracts of 100 to 500 acres or more, and in order to qualify for a lease the applicant had to submit proof of his previous successful experience in the type of agriculture to which the farm

would be devoted. The person who leased the land received from 5 to 15 per cent of the net profit of the farm after payment of rent, taxes, material, operation and repairs, debt and interest on any share-cropping contract, a reserve fund determined by the authority, premiums on crop insurance, workmen's compensation quotas set up by the authority, and the cost of co-operative education and of the machinery, animals and agricultural equipment used on the farm. The labourers working on the farm received the prevailing local wages and shared in the net profits of the farm in proportion to the number of days worked and the wages which they might have received in advance for work done on the farm.

Forty-eight such farms had been organized by June 1950. Not all of them had been financially successful, but great progress had been made and the proportional profit farm might well be a major element in the solution of the land tenure problem in Puerto Rico.

The Land Authority also offered family-sized farms to landless operators who had at least five years' experience in farming. In such cases the farmer might obtain a lifetime right to use the land and its produce for which he paid an annual sum large enough to pay off the value of the farm within forty years. In case of cancellation or termination of the contract, any improvements he had made to the farm could be removed and the current crop harvested. In case of death the heirs received the amount already paid on the principal or were allowed to take over the contract. Up to June 30, 1950, 420 family farms, totalling 5,900 acres, had been established.

As in most under-developed areas, the small farmers had not always been able to secure adequate amounts of credit at reasonable rates. His Government had clearly recognized the close connexion between economic development and the availability of credit, and had provided a great deal of assistance in that field. The operation of the Farmers' Home Administration in Puerto Rico was a good illustration of the way in which the agricultural credit problems of small farmers were being handled. The Administration operated through thirty-five district offices in Puerto Rico. Loans were made to provide working capital for crop production and the purchase of livestock and foodstuffs, for the liquidation of previous debts, for re-financing the farm business and for home improvement. The amount borrowed at any one time could not exceed 7,000 dollars and total indebtedness to the Administration was limited to 10,000 dollars. The Administration also granted loans up to 12,000 dollars to

assist in acquiring land. Under the Housing Act of 1949, funds were also provided for loans to farmers who lived in sub-standard homes. In addition, the Secretary of Agriculture was authorized to postpone collection of both principal and interest when a farmer was unable to make payments due to circumstances beyond his control. The Farmers' Home Administration offered its services to more than 20,000 low income rural families in Puerto Rico, and during the 1949-1950 fiscal year Federal agencies had provided loans to approximately 10,000 farmers in the island.

The other principal source of Federal assistance to small farmers in Puerto Rico was provided through co-operatives which obtained credit for production loans from the Baltimore Bank for Co-operatives, which was under the jurisdiction of the United States Farm Credit Administration.

Considerable progress had thus been made by increasing the amount of low cost credit available to the small Puerto Rican farmer. The Federal and Puerto Rican Territorial Governments, aware of the magnitude of the problem which still remained, were working constantly to devise adequate and appropriate assistance to the island farmers who did not yet have access to a dependable source of credit, which was one of the major prerequisites for increasing their production and improving their standards of living.

Voluntary co-operatives had been actively promoted and assisted in the Territories under United States administration as a solution to the many problems arising in the field of agricultural marketing, production and transportation.

In Puerto Rico and Hawaii a significant number of producers' co-operatives had been organized. There was one such organization in Guam, and in Samoa export on a co-operative basis was being promoted by the Government Bank of American Samoa. There were three marketing co-operatives in Alaska which sold produce to the Alaskan Railways and other large consumers.

Government assistance to co-operatives had taken the form of general promotional work, collaboration in improving facilities and administrative structures, and provision of extensive technical advice on modern agricultural techniques and methods of marketing. The financial assistance made available by the administering authority to the co-operatives engaged in marketing agricultural produce or purchasing materials for farmers had been most important.

He then described the types of loans offered to co-operatives by the Baltimore, Berkeley and Spokane Banks for Co-operatives which operated under the United States Farm Credit Administration.

Production costs had been reduced through the introduction of new techniques and large-scale purchasing by co-operatives, aided in part by Government credit agencies and other groups such as the Agricultural Extension and Soil Conservation Services. Markets had been developed, more attention had been paid to the selection and classification of farm produce going to market, transportation had been facilitated and costs reduced, and speculation in goods prevented.

His Government, through the Department of State and the Economic Co-operation Administration, was sponsoring a six weeks conference on world land tenure problems which was now being held at the University of Wisconsin. Invitations had been extended to specialists in those problems in some fifty countries and Non-Self-Governing Territories, and trainees from twenty-five countries and Non-Self-Governing Territories had been invited to take part in a specially directed programme of training in that field for one year. The conference was being conducted on a study and working group basis and discussions would deal with management, the utilization of land, credit problems, soil conservation and land tenure, the situation in various parts of the world, the machinery by which land reform had been accomplished in a number of countries and, finally a discussion of the broad question of what should be done in the future, including consideration of such matters as social security.

Mr. MATHIESON (United Kingdom) said that he had listened with great interest to the Philippines representative's statement earlier in the meeting and would take a number of the points he had raised as an introduction to his own remarks.

The Philippines representative had stressed the fact that one of the major problems facing the under-developed countries was the need for the effective mechanization of agriculture and, in that connexion, he had called attention to the arrangements made in Northern Nigeria for a pool of agricultural machinery to be loaned to farmers. The United Kingdom Government had recognized the fact that the problem of mechanization was fundamental. As yet, there had been no demand for power-driven agricultural machinery for sale to African producers since, apart from the economic and social problems involved, further research was still required

to determine which types of machinery were best suited to tropical conditions. It had been his Government's experience that certain types which had proved successful in, for instance, the United States, were not suitable to the manifold and diverse conditions existing in Africa, particularly since it was difficult for indigenous workers to use and to maintain such equipment. A review of the problem in Africa had been conducted by a mission, appointed by the Colonial Secretary, to consider the mechanization of tropical agriculture. The conclusions of that mission had been that machinery should be introduced to supplement rather than replace existing methods, since it had been found that many operations could be more effectively done by hand with the help of simple tools rather than by complicated machinery. For example, such machinery was often indiscriminate and uncertain in the process of land clearing.

Experience showed that the best method of introducing mechanization was to establish a pool of machinery under the Agricultural Department at a convenient central spot. The machines were also maintained centrally. Applications for the loan of machines were made by the indigenous cultivators and the machines transported to their land by trained drivers. In Northern Nigeria, for example, the Government had organized an engineering branch of the Agricultural Department. The machinery pool also functioned as a training centre, which conducted experiments into the types of machine most suitable to the region and advised the manufacturers. The essential point was that such machinery should be simple with few but strong parts, in view of the distances to be covered and the inexperience of indigenous operators. In Uganda, too, there were several mechanical cultivation units, consisting of tractors with ancillary equipment, which were operated on small farms. The hire rates for such work had been graded in order to provide an incentive to farmers to co-operate in re-organizing their land holdings to permit contour strip-cropping. Such methods had proved to be both economic and in keeping with modern methods of soil conservation.

With regard to the Philippines representative's reference to the use of fertilisers, he stated that the United Kingdom Government had, in recent years, done much experimental work in that field, the most notable development having occurred in the groundnut areas of Nigeria where the placement method of

fertilizers, using super-phosphates, had been introduced. That development had also aroused considerable interest among other producers, and the Nigerian Government had earmarked funds for a fertilizer team which had allocated super-phosphates in the region. In 1950, several thousands of tons of super-phosphates had been distributed free to 32,000 farmers, and, during the current year, a further 2,000 tons would be allocated in the same way to 80,000 farmers, over and above the normal commercial sale of 1,000 tons.

There was every indication that the extensive use of fertilizers by the placement method would result in a large increase in the production of sorghum and groundnuts. It was also hoped that such methods could also be introduced on a large scale in East Africa with the development of the super-phosphate deposits in Uganda. His Delegation would refer to the questions of fertilizer production in Uganda at a later stage in the debate when industrial development was under consideration.

His Government was also encouraging the production of natural and animal fertilizers, which was one of the features of its policy of encouraging mixed farming. The necessary equipment was being distributed to farmers for the enclosure of their pastures so that manure might be produced for food crops. Other methods were followed in other regions for producing manure. For instance, coffee husks were used for compost in Uganda and Kenya. In Northern Rhodesia, the African Farm Improvement Fund was encouraging the production of sunhemp seed for green manure by issuing the first allocation free so that the farmers might then grow their own seed. That was a typical example of the policy of free issue which would consequently enable the farmer to purchase the seed on a commercial basis owing to the enhanced value of his crops.

In connexion with the emphasis laid by the Philippines representative on the undesirability of encouraging export production at the expense of local food production, attention might be drawn to Table 3 of the FAO report on Fats, Oils and Oil Seeds in the Non-Self-Governing Territories (A/AC.35/L.38) which showed that not a single ton of groundnut oil had been exported from Uganda, which was the second greatest producer of that oil among the Territories under United Kingdom administration.

Referring to the question of cash crops and food crops, the Philippine representative had quoted from the report of the Nigerian Livestock Mission concerning soil erosion. That danger had been recognised and the system of mixed farming which the Mission advocated would partially remedy the situation. As an example showing that dietary needs had been taken into consideration, mention might be made of the methods adopted for composing district and provincial development teams. A representative of the medical department was included among the various categories of officers serving on those teams, with the duty of ensuring due attention to the dietary needs of the population, adequate sanitation and the avoidance of any steps that might lead to an increase in pests carrying human diseases.

He emphasized that increased local food production should be aimed at not by eliminating cash crops but by ensuring an enhanced yield from the existing acreage devoted to food crops. That could be achieved by the adoption of modern methods, including improved planting material. Considerable work had been done for the development of higher-yield strains of planting material and had already shown major results. He quoted certain instances of such schemes. To assist the cocoa-growing projects in the West Indies, for instance, funds had been set aside by drawing both on colonial development and welfare funds and on an export tax on cocoa. That scheme had been started in 1946 and additional funds had been made available down to 1955. In Trinidad, as well as in the Gold Coast and Nigeria, assistance had been given in the re-planting of strains resistant to cocoa diseases. Similarly, improved high-yield planting material had been introduced for rubber in Malaya and Borneo, where it was grown very extensively by small-holders. In that connexion, it should be observed that the only impediment to the extension of rubber estates in Malaya was the need for a small initial capitalization, since land was plentiful but necessitated proper clearing. With the development of high-yield planting material, many owners had begun to extend their holdings. In the West Indies, assistance was given to citrus growers, farmers obtaining loans from agricultural credit organizations for the purchase of plants. A certain amount of planting material was also distributed free, in keeping with the Government's policy.

He would reserve for a later stage his comments on the Philippines representative's remarks concerning the land problem and, in particular, land distribution. For the moment he wished to give certain details on the marketing arrangements for the sale of cash and food crops.

In connection with the marketing of cash crops, it should be borne in mind that such crops, particularly of major products such as cocoa, rubber and oil seeds, had been subject to great fluctuations on the world market before the war, and that the grower had not received a reasonable return for his produce. It was obviously desirable that the multiplicity of middlemen existing in many spheres should be eliminated and a measure of stability introduced which would not only ensure a reasonable profit but also the highest possible proportion of the price on the world market to the grower himself. Statutory marketing boards had been established to that end in most territories under British administration; they varied from territory to territory and also with regard to the different commodities within each territory. Generally speaking, both producers and the administration were represented on the boards and the selection of such representatives varied according to circumstances. In cases where the producers were organized in associations or co-operatives, those bodies were invited to nominate their representatives. Where they did not exist, the representatives were appointed either through the local government bodies from the area where the producers predominated or by the Government itself. Many of the boards worked in conjunction with advisory committees set up by the industry. Some of the boards dealt with only a single type of produce, whereas others, for example in Sierra Leone and Borneo, covered a wide variety. In certain cases, e.g. in Nyasaland, they also covered sale and production for home consumption. The boards had been set up under local legislation, the metropolitan Government having no power over the policies adopted by them. Their functions and sphere of jurisdiction varied according to the territory and to the crops dealt with and their destination. They were required to arrange for purchasing, the fixing of prices, transport and storage, sales and shipping, and, in some cases, to distribute seeds and fertilizers, and to allocate funds for the development of the industry, including such measures as research. The marketing boards usually had the monopoly of purchase and sale, although there were exceptions, as in Zanzibar and British Honduras. It was significant to note

that an increasing number of producers there were availing themselves of the boards' resources and had thus proved the justification for a single selling channel which was particularly useful in such matters as bulk buying for export. The boards were empowered to accumulate reserve funds which were essential for establishing price stability. In some cases in West Africa, where the boards had sufficient reserve funds, prices were announced at the beginning of the season independently of the world market. An alternative method, where sufficient resources did not exist to carry fully any risk involved, was that of making a first payment on account to the producers, the balance being payable when the aggregate price was known at the time of the harvest. In addition, the boards sometimes had the function of grading produce, that having been found to constitute an incentive to producers to improve the quality of their produce. For instance, in recent years, the proportion of grade 1 cocoa had increased very considerably in Nigeria.

The surpluses accumulated during periods of rising prices accrued to the marketing boards' reserve funds and were used not only as price stabilization reserves, but also to assist development in the industry and sometimes even to assist general development in respect of social and other services for the growers and for the territory generally. He called attention to the fact that, as at 30 September 1950, the Gold Coast Marketing Board had set aside £35,000,000 as a proportion of its total profits to be earmarked for stabilization purposes, out of a total reserve fund of £52,000,000. Moreover, even where no specific reserves existed, the general principle of using surplus profits for that purpose had been accepted. Although the surplus set aside in that way might appear large when considered as a total sum, it was essential that reserves should be kept liquid in view of the very considerable fluctuations resulting from any slight increase in prices. For example, with the current volume of cotton production in Uganda, an alteration of 2d per pound in the price of cotton would involve a change in the crop value of £500,000. As an illustration of the boards' activities in the field of general development, he cited the case of the Nigerian Cocoa Marketing Board which had set aside £25,000 for a general economic survey of the industry, as well as more than £250,000 for a soil survey. The

Gold Coast Marketing Board had contributed £75,000 for similar purposes. Funds had also been set aside for the rehabilitation of cocoa-growing areas, grants to farmers and improved planting materials, as well as for work going beyond the scope of direct assistance, such as road construction within the cocoa-growing area in Nigeria. In 1949, £3,000,000 had been allocated from the funds of the Nigerian Marketing Board for general activities encouraging increased production. Another interesting development in the activities of the West African marketing boards was the concession of grants to higher educational institutions out of surplus funds. For instance, £1,000,000 had been allocated in that way to the University College of the Gold Coast.

It is clear that the boards which had originally been established in order to secure stability and to facilitate the disposal of produce on a large scale, had become an important element in the various territories. The new Government of the Gold Coast had recognized that development and, in re-organizing the Gold Coast Marketing Board, had given the Government, through the Minister of Agriculture, a voice in fixing prices. Furthermore, the new Government of the Gold Coast would also be responsible for directing the expenditure of surpluses accumulated by the Board, because price fluctuations and the spending of surpluses might result in inflation unless necessary measures were taken. Hitherto, policies had been the sole responsibility of the Board itself. It should be noted that a board, set up as a purely marketing organization, might now be assuming the character of a fiscal instrument since it had been given the right to determine not only the amount which the grower would receive but also the amount to go into the reserve fund as well as the purposes to which such reserves should be put, as, for instance, educational development. No conclusion could yet be drawn as to the desirability of such a development, and clearly the entire question would have to be closely studied in the years to come.

His Government fully recognized the importance of co-operative societies in the development of the rural economy. Such societies could be many in type, among their functions being those of making loans, organizing marketing, eliminating unnecessary middlemen in the interests of consumers or a combination of those functions. His Government welcomed the report by the International

Labour Office on Problems relating to the Establishment of Co-operative Movements in Non-Self-Governing Territories (A/AC.35/L.49), and endorsed its conclusions and recommendations. He believed that the principle of the co-operative movement had been generally accepted. He wished, however, to indicate the extent to which it had been put into operation in territories under the United Kingdom administration. There were many ways in which co-operative movements could be encouraged. First, it was essential that they should be based on sound legislation, and to that end, a special adviser had been attached since 1947 to the Office of the Colonial Secretary. Furthermore, a model ordinance, based upon the Ceylon Ordinance, had been sent out to those territories; and a memorandum had been circulated on staffing questions, stating inter alia that the co-operative movement should be guided by an officer of the responsible colonial government, usually called a registrar, though, in many cases, known as a commissioner for co-operative development, to be assisted by staff of the necessary quality and strength to guide the movement. Difficulties did, however, exist in recruiting reliable personnel for those ancillary tasks and, for that purpose, special courses for students from the Territories had been instituted in the United Kingdom, based on experience in advanced countries in that field and on that in certain Asian countries where the co-operative movement had been developed. Practising co-operative officers from overseas territories also gave advice during those courses. His delegation would distribute a paper giving information upon the co-operative societies which had been established and on his Government's policy on that question.

Mr. RYCKMANS (Belgium), recalling the Philippines representative's earlier intervention, felt it necessary to warn the Committee that it might be dangerous for it to make recommendations to governments in terms too narrowly and precisely formulated, since such a formulation might prove to be in conflict with scientific facts and might thus detract from the authority not only of the Special Committee but also of the General Assembly itself.

With reference to the question of mechanization, it was no doubt true that every effort should be made to replace the manual labour of a large number of human beings by the use of machinery in order to increase world agricultural production.

But in doing so it was very necessary to study carefully the conditions of each individual territory. He was thinking particularly of the Belgian Congo. He wished to draw attention to certain facts regarding that Territory which, he felt, might come as a surprise to the members of the Committee and which were contained in a study, as yet unpublished, written by the Chief of the Agricultural Research Section of the National Institute for Agricultural Research in the Congo (INEAC). The author of that study recalled that agricultural experts, trained in the techniques normal in countries with more temperate climates, had tried to replace the Bantu system of agriculture by a more "developed" system involving frequent tilling, single crops and short fallow periods. Those attempts had, however, failed and had led indeed to a rapid decrease in the soil's fertility. It had been clearly demonstrated that the native Bantu system, empirically arrived at, was the only one capable of maintaining the fertility of the soil and guaranteeing a sustained agricultural production. The essential characteristics of that system were a short crop cycle, combined crops and long natural fallow periods. The superiority of the system was due to the fact that it was perfectly adapted to the poor soil of the Congo. Three crops, rice, manioc and bananas, were grown at once and the soil was continually covered. By the time the rice was lifted the manioc had grown and, in turn, when that had been taken up, shade was provided by the banana palms. After that, the land was allowed to remain fallow for another 15 to 18 years, its farmer moving off to a new patch of ground.

From its studies, the INEAC had reached two conclusions. The first was that a monogamous household could only open up and cultivate one quarter hectare of forest annually. The second was that the mechanization of agriculture proper would only result in a very limited economy of labour since only one quarter of the working days were spent in field work, the remaining three-quarters being taken up in transporting and processing the harvest.

Another factor hampering agricultural development in the Congo was the fact that one month of the year had to be devoted by the native to the maintenance of his house. If a standard type of house could be made, a great service would have been rendered to agriculture since the native could contribute approximately 25 days more in the year to agricultural work proper. There were also other ways

in which progress could be made; representatives had already referred to selected seeds, manures, composts and chemical fertilizers. But, as regards mechanization, the general conclusion of INAEC was that it would not be of any great value until the native had reached his productivity ceiling.

The Philippines representative had also referred to the lack of a balance between cash crops and food crops. It was perhaps true to say in a general way that all food should be produced on the spot to as great an extent as possible, particularly since export crops involved considerable risks. But it should be pointed out that in the Belgian Congo, for instance, there was no clash between the growing of food and cash crops, provided a sensible rotation was maintained. For instance, where the natives followed advice in growing cotton, the crop rotation was in turn maize, cotton, peanuts and manioc, or three food crops to one cash crop. Where advice was not followed and cotton was grown for two or more years running, the later crops were very scanty and the soil became sterilized.

The Committee should therefore not be too precise in its recommendations but should state that agricultural land should be used in the manner best suited to it and to the interest of the territory concerned.

Reference had also been made in the Committee to the system of concessions which had at one time been in force in the Belgian Congo and in French Equatorial Africa. In order to avoid misunderstanding, he wished to point out that under the former system companies had been granted the right to choose very large areas of land within a given region, of which they might become the owners after having developed them. They had also been granted renting rights on parts of the larger area, but they had not been given land which was already occupied by the native population. It had, however, happened that many of these companies had done little to develop the land and had merely exploited it as a commercial monopoly, a situation which had caused a considerable amount of protest, other companies very properly resenting the impossibility of commercial competition. As a result, the system had been abolished both in the Belgian Congo and in French Equatorial Africa.

The Philippines representative had also spoken of the parcelling up of large estates and had referred to the Economic and Social Council resolution on that subject. The Council had not suggested that big estates should automatically be

broken up but had adopted its resolution clearly understanding that that course was only to be recommended where there was pressure of population and lack of land, or where the peasant was subjected to unjust conditions laid down by the proprietor, or again where large estates were run by landowners who took no interest in them. Obviously, estates or plantations which were being economically run to the best advantage of all concerned should not be arbitrarily divided.

Mr. ROCHE da MOTTA (Brazil) wished to draw attention to certain factors mentioned in the Secretariat's study on General Conditions of Agricultural Production (A/AC.35/L.33). It was stated there that 80 per cent of the population of Non-Self-Governing Territories was engaged in agriculture, a fact which constituted ample proof that the Committee should attach the greatest importance to agricultural problems. He noticed, however, that in paragraph 9 a warning was in effect given to governments in the statement that there was a danger of excessive specialization and a necessity for a better balance between commercial crops and food crops.

Social factors were also enumerated in the document in order to show the various trends that obtained in the Territories under discussion. He was, however, pleased to note that the Administering Authorities, in spite of the difficulties with which they were confronted, were not considering leading non-self-governing peoples away from the time-honoured task of working in the fields.

Other specific questions such as the erosion or the loss of fertility of the soil were problems to the solution of which Administering Authorities had to bend every effort; but there were other equally important problems, and he wondered what measures had been taken with regard to those specifically enumerated in paragraphs 39 and 47. The Committee, he felt, should be told what progress had been made. That a very serious situation was arising in South East Asia was evident from paragraphs 71 - 73, and he felt that a major part of the Administering Authorities' efforts should be devoted to solving the problems of that region of the world. He noted also that in the Pacific territories there had been a great increase in mechanical methods of agriculture, and he wondered whether that was evidence that the peoples of those territories were receiving greater benefits than those of others.

In paragraph 109 of the Secretary's study, he noticed a statement that in the West Indies "it is necessary to envisage a change of attitude of mind and an almost complete change in the mode of life with the aim that the farming family should become more self-sufficient". He pointed out that in such a situation education could play an extremely important part, and indeed it was vitally necessary that economic progress should be stimulated by simultaneous social and educational improvements.

Part V of the study lent support to the points he had made. Agriculture should be protected and stimulated in all Non-Self-Governing Territories with the active co-operation of their populations. Development within each territory was, of course, influenced by the particular conditions of that territory, but no difficulties should be given as an excuse for justifying a delay in taking the necessary steps. The co-operation of the United Nations and the specialized agencies should certainly be sought in solving the problems which the Committee was considering. Lastly, industrialization should go hand in hand with agricultural progress in all Non-Self-Governing Territories.

Mr. LAMMING (International Labour Organisation), speaking at the invitation of the Chairman, recalled that a number of representatives had referred to the place of co-operatives in the economy of various territories. From those references three main points might be selected: first, the value of co-operatives in protecting the producer in the transition to a money economy, and raising his efficiency, his income and his standard of living; secondly, the need for inculcating correct conceptions of co-operative principles among the peoples of these territories and the need for training in the practical application of co-operative methods; thirdly, the need for financial and other assistance from the Administering Authorities to co-operatives, at least in their initial stages.

To what had been said on the first of those points, he would only add a remark that had been made by a Belgian authority, Mr. G. Malengreau, who had observed: "To increase the income of the native it is necessary, first, to maintain the level of his production, and then to increase it by placing adequate tools at his disposal. This is quite unthinkable without the help of agricultural co-operatives, assisted (to start with at least) by a kind of loan society for the native peasantry".

With reference to the second point, he drew attention to paragraphs 6, 7, 8 and 9 of the resolution adopted by the Asian Regional Conference of the International Labour Organisation held in Ceylon in 1950, and reproduced in Appendix II to document A/AC.35/L.49. The points contained in those paragraphs had been further developed at the Asian Technical Conference on Co-operation held in Karachi in December 1950. Among other points, that conference of experts, drawn from both independent States and other territories, had stressed the importance of facilitating "an interchange of officers between Government co-operative agencies in different countries and the opportunities for officials and non-officials undertaking studies in other countries". The following recommendations had also been made:

"The training of departmental officials being essential for the sound development of the co-operative movement in Asian countries, Governments should be requested to provide more adequate training courses for them on their appointment as well as periodical refresher courses at intervals of their service.
.....

"Special attention should be paid to the training of those holding responsible posts in co-operatives, such as secretaries and managers. Wherever possible, appointment to those posts in more advanced co-operative societies should be made subject to the employees undergoing training courses and passing the examinations conducted at the end of these courses. Governments and co-operative organizations should set apart adequate funds for the training of such personnel.

"The Conference suggests that Governments in Asian countries should consider the advisability of establishing institutes for the training of co-operative officers of the Government and co-operative organizations. These institutes should be adequately financed by Governments.
.....

"Governments should be invited to depute departmental officials and co-operative personnel for study and practical experience in countries other than their own. This could be encouraged by the grant of fellowships and other facilities by provincial and national governments, by co-operative organizations, and by international organizations."

With reference to the financial and other assistance to co-operatives, the same International Labour Organisation conferences had also made certain recommendations of interest. First, it had been recommended that advisory co-operative councils should be set up which should be composed of responsible government officials, leaders of the co-operative movement and, where necessary, other competent persons. Secondly, suggestions had been made for the provision of State grants, State credits or credits guaranteed by the State, the supply of loans for equipment, the grant of certain fiscal privileges and the allocation of certain priorities in the procurement and distribution of essential commodities. Thirdly, it had been thought that pilot co-operative projects would be of value in encouraging the spirit of co-operation in new areas. Such projects might be initiated by the organizations concerned or by co-operative organizations. The assistance of the international organizations might also be obtained by governments where they considered it necessary.

While the conferences in question had been primarily concerned with Asian conditions and had not distinguished between independent countries and Non-Self-Governing Territories, their recommendations could by and large be applied to Non-Self-Governing Territories in other regions.

The remarks which a number of representatives had made on the subject of co-operatives and the document on co-operative movements prepared by the International Labour Office (A/C.35/L.49) might not only assist the Committee in coming to a conclusion as to the fundamental rôle which co-operatives must play in the development of Non-Self-Governing Territories, but also permit it to indicate some of the steps which would be necessary to ensure the integration of co-operatives with the local economy.

2. APPOINTMENT OF A SUB-COMMITTEE ON ECONOMIC CONDITIONS AND PROBLEMS OF DEVELOPMENT

The CHAIRMAN felt that the Sub-Committee on Economic Conditions and Problems of Development should not in any way be viewed as a drafting group but that, on the contrary, its terms of reference should be as wide as possible in order that it might have the fullest freedom to draw up its own report in its own manner.

He proposed the representatives of Brazil, France, India, Philippines, United States of America and the United Kingdom as members of the sub-committee.

Mr. SOLDATOV (Union of Soviet Socialist Republics) stated that his delegation saw no need for the proposed sub-committee and that consequently it was hardly necessary to discuss such a group's possible terms of reference or composition. These considerations would guide his vote in the matter.

In reply to a question from the Chairman, he stated that he would not request a formal vote on the appointment of the sub-committee.

The composition and terms of reference of the Sub-Committee on Economic Conditions and Problems of Development, as proposed by the Chairman, were agreed to by the members of the Committee with the exception of the representative of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

3. CONSIDERATION OF TIME-TABLE

Mr. BENSON (representative of the Secretary-General) stated that, as a guide to the Committee in making arrangements to accelerate its rate of work, the Secretariat had drawn up a flexible time-table of work. Compared to the progress of work at the first session, the Committee was behind schedule for the current session. The time-table would be distributed to the members of the Committee for their consideration and for discussion at a later meeting.

The meeting rose at 6.20 p.m.