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COMMITTEE ON INFORMATION FROM NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES

Sixth Session

SUMMARY RECORD OF THE HUNDRED AND TWELFTH MEETING

Held at Headquarters, New York,
on Friday, 22 April 1955, at 2.20 p.m.

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Chairman:	Mr. SCOTT	New Zealand
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	Mr. YANG	China
	Mr. de CAMARET) Mr. DULPHY)	France
	Mr. ARENALES) Mr. RUBIO SANCHEZ)	Guatemala
	Mr. JAIPAL	India
	Mr. KHALIDY	Iraq
	Mr. VIXSEBOXSE) Mr. GRADER)	Netherlands
	Mr. CALLE y CALLE	Peru
	Mr. GIDDEN	United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
	Mr. SEARS	United States of America
Representatives of specialized agencies:		
	Mr. GAVIN	International Labour Organisation
	Mr. ORBANEJA	Food and Agriculture Organization
	Mr. METRAUX	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
	Dr. COIGNY) Dr. INGALLS)	World Health Organization
Secretariat:	Mr. COHEN	Under-Secretary
	Miss HENDERSON	Bureau of Social Affairs
	Mr. BENSON	Secretary of the Committee

SOCIAL CONDITIONS IN NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES (continued): (a) GENERAL DEVELOPMENTS CONSIDERED IN THE LIGHT OF THE 1952 REPORT ON SOCIAL CONDITIONS IN NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES (A/2219 and ST/TRI/SER.A/7/Add.2); (b) SOCIAL EFFECTS OR URBANIZATION AND INDUSTRIALIZATION (A/AC.35/L.190, A/AC.35/L.194)

Mr. de CAMARET (France) said that Mr. Dulphy would describe the social effects of urbanization and industrialization in the French Overseas Territories and French policy in that respect.

Mr. DULPHY (France) explained that, except in Tunisia and Morocco, it was only relatively recently that the towns had become centres of attraction in the Overseas Territories. Before the arrival of the Europeans, there had been many large centres of population, usually situated at the crossroads of the great trade routes, but there had been little difference between the conditions of town dwellers and of peasants. Urbanization, which had begun about 60 years previously, had gained momentum during the last 12 years. In tropical Africa, towns had grown up, at the administrative centres of Territories and at centres of foreign trade. Thus, between 1948 and 1952 the population had risen from 174,000 to 304,000 at Dakar, from 59,000 to 100,000 at Bamako, from 171,000 to 190,000 at Tananarive, and from 27,000 to 48,000 at Majunga. Between 1936 and 1952, when the last census had been taken, the population of Morocco had increased by approximately 25 per cent but the population of Rabat-Salé had doubled and that of Casablanca and of Port-Lyautey had trebled and quadrupled during the same period.

That development was due to both economic and psychological factors. Among the economic factors was the fact that many industries were being set up in the towns, most of which were ports, creating a demand for labour and attracting business and public works undertakings. The poorer the interland from the agricultural point of view, the greater was the attraction of jobs in the towns. The psychological attraction of the towns was due to the fact that, in the eyes of the peasant, the town offered all the advantages of material civilization and had social institutions superior to those in the bush.

(Mr. Dulphy, France)

The first of the social consequences of urbanization and industrialization was the abandonment of the countryside by farmers, although between 85 and 95 per cent of the total population, depending on the Territory (77 per cent in Morocco and 63 per cent in Tunisia) was still rural, and a consequent decline in agricultural production and particularly the production of foodstuffs, a factor which could endanger urban food supplies.

A further consequence was detribalization. The peasants lost contact with the social group into which they had been born and the solidarity of which had given them a sense of security. The first generation maintained its ties with the group in which it had originated but, the break was complete in the case of children born in the towns. It was not unusual for detribalization to be accompanied by proletarization, for peasants normally had no vocational training and could only find work as unskilled labourers. The new town dwellers, most of whom earned low wages, found it very difficult to provide themselves with food and housing, particularly if they had families to support.

Such conditions helped to loosen family ties and resulted in a radical change in the social and economic structure, that had formerly been based on the family unit which had also been the unit of production. Women became emancipated, and the tendency was increased by the fact that many of them ran businesses and so acquired means of support which ensured their independence. They were, however, deprived of the moral support of tradition without having found a substitute and were thus exposed to all kinds of dangers. The situation was different in Morocco and in Tunisia where Moslem women, even in the large towns, tended to follow the traditional pattern. Children freed themselves from family authority and idleness led them into delinquency. A survey in French West Africa had shown that 60 per cent of juveniles belonged to poor groups and 82 per cent came from broken families. Naturally conditions of that kind encouraged social evils such as alcoholism and prostitution. Those considerations confirmed the conclusions which UNESCO had drawn in its excellent study (A/AC.35/L.194).

(Mr. Dulphy, France)

France's policy to offset the consequences of increased urbanization and industrialization was designed, firstly, to adjust the new urban population to its new conditions of life from both the social and the vocational points of view and, secondly, to provide them with moral and material assistance, in the absence of which their efforts to adjust themselves might be fruitless.

Assistance to the new urban population took various forms but the main effort was made in town planning and housing. In town planning, the authorities tried to increase the number of healthy dwellings but in their anxiety to respect the land rights of the indigenous inhabitants were often hampered by speculation by customary owners. In regard to housing, the building programmes to be executed by building societies and offices under the first plan were being extended under the new four-year plan (1954-1957), which called for the expenditure of over 22,000 million francs from public funds. The Compagnie immobilière Franco-marocaine (a semi-public corporation) had completed 8,000 of the 20,000 dwellings which the authorities had planned to build for Moroccans. Workers' towns were also being built on the initiative of the management of undertakings or of the Administration in various Territories (Dakar, Conakry, Bamako, Fort-Lamy, Brazzaville, Tananarive, Tamatave, etc.). In Morocco, for example, the great mining companies, in particular l'Office chérifien des phosphates, had provided more than 6,000 dwellings for their staff. Industrial companies had built over 500 dwellings for engineers and 1,600 dwellings for workers and the Moroccan railways had completed 450 dwellings for Moroccans.

A new type of assistance in housing, the self-help method, had recently been developed with State support. Finally, building societies made loans for building on favourable terms and gave the indigenous inhabitants an opportunity to own their own homes.

Efforts were being made to deal with malnutrition in towns by the establishment of communal restaurants, (notably in French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa), which had been very successful from the outset, school canteens in most Territories, and pilot shops in large towns such as Dakar and Brazzaville.

(Mr. Dulphy, France)

Financial assistance was also provided for urban families which, unlike peasant families, found children a heavy burden. A system of family allowances had been established, the first beneficiaries of which had been the indigenous State officials (Decree of 5 May 1951). In French West Africa, for example, 21,744 officials, 71.3 per cent of the group in question, had received family allowances in 1953, at a total cost of 3,568,000 francs or 4.7 per cent of the expenditure on administrative services. Under article 237 of the Labour Code, family allowances were being extended to all wage-earners. In Morocco, family allowances were paid, without distinction of race, to workers engaged in industry, trade or the liberal professions by the Caisse d'aide sociale aux travailleurs, which was a private body but subject to State control and recognized as a body operating in the public interest. In 1953, 66,000, persons had received allowances, in respect of a total of 178,000 children. Benefits totalling 3,100,000,000 francs had been granted during the year. The rate of contributions, which were payable by the employer, had been fixed at 7 per cent from 1 July 1954.

In addition in recent years many employers had set up relief funds for the payment of maternity allowances, daily benefits in the event of sickness or accident other than industrial accident, death benefits, and other benefits. Each fund was administered by a managing board consisting of representatives of the management and staff representatives chosen by the workers. It was financed by workers' contributions at the rate of 1 to 2 per cent of their wages and by a contribution from the employers at least equal in amount to the workers' contribution. Mention might also be made of the civil service friendly societies and the legislation on industrial accidents.

Assistance was also given to physically and mentally handicapped persons. In Madagascar, for instance, there were seventeen social welfare offices: in 1953, the Tananarive office alone had provided assistance in kind for 10,074 people and assistance in cash for 1,154 people and it arranged home medical visits for 6,747 sick persons. Assistance to old people and abandoned children

(Mr. Dulphy, France)

was generally left to private agencies organizations, which were subsidized by the Government (there were some sixty in Madagascar). The blind, of whom a general census had been taken in 1953, were protected by local regulations and would shortly be the subject of special legislation; in addition, a start had been made in organizing rehabilitation institutions for the blind.

In Morocco, social assistance was given by the Welfare Service of the Department of Public Health and the Family, and also by various private agencies, which received grants from the Higher Welfare Council (650 million francs in 1954). In 1953-1954, 237,068 pupils had been examined by the school medical service. In 1955, fifty-seven mother and child welfare teams would be at work.

In regard to employment, the Labour Services were attempting to fit urban wage earners to the needs of industry by setting up centres for intensive vocational training and the results were very encouraging. At Dakar, for instance, 90 per cent of the trainees had been successful in the examination concluding their training period. With regard to social adjustment, the urban social services were helping women by setting up centres designed to replace the traditional system by a new form of support appropriate to the modern world and based on the principle of individualism. The most important tasks were to educate women in the Overseas Territories for their social functions as wives and mothers by teaching them the principles of homecraft, nutrition, hygiene and child-rearing and to make them aware of their rights and responsibilities. The work was being undertaken by teams of social workers, homecraft instructresses, child welfare specialists, kindergarten teachers and auxiliaries among whom there was an increasing number of indigenous persons.

(Mr. Dulphy, France)

The teams which were multi-purpose, gave demonstrations in centres and paid visits to homes. They were meeting with great success and were rapidly extending their work. Such social centres for women had already been set up in French East Africa, French West Africa, the Ivory Coast, Dahomey, the Sudan and French Guinea. A centre would shortly be set up in Madagascar. The teams often made use of women's movements such as the Women's Civic and Social Union and the Association of Women of the French Union. In Morocco, there were ten girls' educational centres which were attended by nearly 2,000 girls and young women.

The French Government was also concerned with preventing the spread of juvenile delinquency and was studying the causes of delinquency and setting up re-educational establishments throughout its territories. In Morocco, for instance, there were seven reception centres and a home for neglected children. "Cultural clubs", led by Africans, had been set up with the Administration's assistance and were helping in the education of young people. The Administration had set up 117 such centres in French West Africa in 1953-1954.

France was also actively engaged in trying to stamp out social evils such as alcoholism: under the Decree of 14 September 1954, the territorial Administrations were authorized to place quota restrictions on the import of alcoholic drinks and to prohibit some beverages entirely. Such action was being reinforced by a propaganda campaign in which private organizations such as the Blue Cross (Madagascar), and the Women's Civil and Social Union and the youth organizations of the French Union were participating.

At the invitation of the Chairman, Miss Henderson, Director of the Bureau of Social Affairs, took a place at the Committee table.

Miss HENDERSON (Director of the Bureau of Social Affairs) thanked the Committee for the opportunity it had given her of replying to the request for information regarding community development made by the representative of Guatemala at the previous meeting. It might be useful to consider the background of the question. In fact, it was not until 1949 that the Social Commission had begun to take an interest in community development. It had first concerned itself with urban community centres, but the Indian representative had reminded it that it was equally important to set up centres and teams of social workers in rural areas. A draft resolution on the subject had been submitted by the United States delegation in 1951. The Social Commission had indicated the various forms which social centres might take and had requested the Secretary-General to undertake a study in order to find out which was the best form. A questionnaire had subsequently been circulated to Governments and, on the basis of the replies received, the Secretariat had published information and papers on community development. In 1952 and 1953 missions had been sent to the Caribbean, the Middle East and South-East Asia and their reports had subsequently been published. Plans were under way for a mission to be sent to Africa in 1956. In 1953 an attempt had been made, with the co-operation of the specialized agencies, broadly to define community development. In that connexion, she quoted the last paragraph of resolution 496 (XVI), adopted by the Economic and Social Council in 1954. Ever since then, the Bureau of Social Affairs had accorded priority to questions concerned with community development. The Bureau was also co-operating with the Division of Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, and it had engaged the services of a Nigerian expert who had gone to the Philippines. The results of its studies were sent to all countries and she hoped that due attention was given them. The Secretariat, for its part, benefited from the experience acquired in the Non-Self-Governing Territories. The Bureau had investigated the possibility of co-ordinating the work of the various specialized agencies in that field.

She was gratified by the interest the Committee was taking in those problems and would inform the Social Commission of the fact.

The CHAIRMAN and Mr. ARENALES (Guatemala) thanked Miss Henderson.

Miss Henderson, Director of the Bureau of Social Affairs, withdrew.

The meeting was suspended at 3.50 p.m. and resumed at 4.25 p.m.

Mr. GRADER (Ne herlands) said that urbanization and industrialization, which were closely connected, were still no more than embryonic in Netherlands New Guinea. Apart from the Oil Company, there were no really large undertakings in the Territory, and it contained only half a dozen urban centres. In 1954, 5,000 people had been employed in Government industries and 7,500 in the principal European industries, a total of only 3 per cent of the population. However, investigations had been carried out in the oil centre of Sorong and in the capital, Hollandia, in order to obtain information on the living conditions of urban populations. The investigations had enabled the authorities to institute measures respecting housing, recreation and the spiritual care of town dwellers and had given a clearer picture of the way in which the problem could best be solved.

The schools had an important part to play in that respect. All urban centres now had General Primary Schools with a six years' course. Although they were intended primarily for the indigenous population, they were open to pupils of any race or religion (document A/AC.35/L.193 paragraph 23). The Government had also organized literacy campaigns and courses to promote professional knowledge and entry to administrative professions. The needs of the indigenous population would be taken into account in future town planning. Plans were also being made for the setting up of community centres and attention was being given to measures which might develop a community spirit and promote self-help.

As the greater part of the urban population belonged to the labouring class, it appeared that the most effective means of influencing them would be through the trade unions. A Christian Workers' Association had been formed in the Territory under the auspices of the Christian National Trade Union of the Netherlands. One of its sections, consisting of indigenous workers, was active in the social field and was organizing literacy campaigns. Two Roman Catholic trade unions had subsequently been organized. The Christian National Trade Union

(Mr. Grader, Netherlands)

The Christian National Trade Union had also sent an expert to the Territory for a period of years to advise on the formation of trade unions. The unions were still in an early stage of development but their membership was growing steadily and their influence was beneficial. Their members co-operated with the authorities and there was no friction between indigenous and European workers. The unions were also helping to educate the population and were stimulating the progress of different groups. In that connexion, a representative of the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) had carried out a study mission on the spot in 1954. No labour conflicts, properly speaking, had occurred so far and the minor disputes which occasionally arose were due simply to the fact that the indigenous inhabitants were still very much influenced by the primitive standards of Papuan society.

In-service training had also aroused great interest. It included both theoretical and practical instruction, with periodical examinations which qualified the worker for wage increases and promotion. The employer expressed his opinion on the quality of the work done and the output of the person concerned. Most undertakings were prepared to bear the cost of the system, for it enabled them to obtain skilled staff.

The director of the Hollandia primary technical school had been sent to the Netherlands to study the in-service training system there. Lastly, it was intended to strengthen the system by setting up an organization in which representatives of private enterprise and of the trade union movement and vocational training experts could discuss common problems.

The Department of Social Affairs was responsible for labour and social security matters. The existing legislation provided for an 8 hour working day and a forty-eight hour week. The workers were also protected by the Geneva agreements of 24 June 1925 on accident compensation for workers and by regulations governing wages, housing, nutrition and medical care.

(Mr. Grader, Netherlands)

The Department of Social Affairs was also responsible for assistance to the aged and the needy, infant care, unemployment insurance housing and recreation. Full employment was practically assured. Most welfare activities were limited to the urban centres, as the rural communities were still able to provide for their members' needs. The Administration's welfare and social security measures were supplemented by the work of the voluntary welfare agencies and the co-operative societies: the Rumbati co-operative, for example, had its own medical practitioner who acted under the supervision of the public health department.

Clubs, especially sports clubs, were very popular among the indigenous inhabitants; there were about 120 clubs in the Territory, with a total membership of 4,550. Football matches were arranged between teams from the different towns. The Administration supported the clubs, which helped to develop a community spirit.

He would speak later on the subject of community development.

Mr. de CAMARET (France) hoped that Mr. Dulphy's statement had removed the misgivings of the Iraqi representative who, with reference to Morocco and Tunisia, said that "social services might break down" and had referred to "occupying forces" (A/AC.35/SR.109). The latter term no doubt went beyond what the Iraqi representative had intended to say, unless it was due to ignorance of the basis on which the defence of the two countries concerned was organized. Under the treaties concluded between France and the Regency of Tunis, and between France and the Shereefian Empire, responsibility for the maintenance of internal law and order and for the external defence of Tunisia and Morocco rested with the French Government. Accordingly, the troops serving in those two countries were subject to French Army command. They comprised both French and Tunisian or Shereefian units. Moreover defence forces of the States signatories of the North Atlantic Treaty were stationed in Morocco. He asked the Chairman to regard his statement merely as a correction and not as information furnished under Article 73 (e) of the Charter.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT (A/AC.35/L.188)

U HLA AUNG (Burma) said that the Secretariat's report (A/AC.35/L.1 8) should be examined carefully by the Committee. Community development was a recent movement in the Non-Self-Governing Territories, and the existing Standard Form made no provision for it.

Since achieving its independence, his country had concerned itself actively with social welfare and had gained experience that might be helpful to the Non-Self-Governing Territories. In the period 1953-1954 the authorities had made notable progress by expanding social welfare services for both the rural and the urban population through the efforts of the Ministry for Social Welfare. The Directorate of Social Welfare provided the necessary facilities, through contributions to agencies and organizations and by giving technical advice; it was assisted in its work by the Social Welfare Council, an autonomous body which co-ordinated the work of the voluntary welfare agencies.

In order to raise the standard of living of the rural population and to give it a feeling of responsibility, the Burmese Government, which was among the first to organize community projects, had launched a mass-education movement in 1948. To carry out that movement, expert personnel had to be trained in a series of subjects including voluntary service work, administration, international affairs, adult education, health and rural hygiene, rural economy and cottage industries. In addition, practical courses in housewifery and domestic science had been organized for women.

Burma had already assigned 722 persons, 118 of whom were women, to the mass education movement. Such persons, who were distributed among approximately 300 centres, took up residence in a village and participated in the local life. Thus, when they examined local problems and suggested solutions, they acted as members of the community with which they had become identified. That method, which enabled rural centres to develop a community spirit, had met with great success, and requests for social workers of that type were increasing.

The Directorate of Social Welfare was responsible for initiating and implementing a new community development project, under which teams of technicians

would be sent to the Pegu district, in which there were 40,000 people in fifty villages, to organize medical services, schools and welfare services and to help bring more income to the community through economic development.

The most isolated areas of Burma furnished a good example of the task facing the authorities in the field of community development. Owing to the barriers set up by forests, mountains and rivers, those regions were almost completely without means of communication, which explained the primitive nature of their economy and the very low level of living. With a view to solving those problems, it had been decided to set up development teams which would be responsible, in each under-developed area, for opening up lines of communication, for improving the nutritional standards of the population by reorganizing the economy, for setting up health services, for providing facilities for education, recreational activities and sports, and for fostering a civic sense among the inhabitants.

Among the organizations contributing to community development in Burma, two councils played a particularly important part. One was the National Fitness Council, which trained "fitness organizers" of both sexes who organized sports all over the country, and the second was the Union Youth Affairs Central Council, a semi-autonomous body comprising representatives of Government services and of youth movements; its objects were to give the young people a thorough physical training and to train leaders. While there was no one Act in Burma governing community development programmes, there were several different Acts enabling the authorities to take action in all fields, such as land ownership, economic development, education and health. Details of community development progress in Burma were given in document E/CN.5/303.

Experience in Burma showed that community development programmes in Non-Self-Governing Territories must be planned on a nation-wide basis; separate local movements were doomed to failure. While it was true that, as Mr. Griffiths had said (document A/AC.35/L.188, paragraph 58), local government and community development... were really two aspects of the same subject, it must also be recognized that community development could win public support only if the peoples were politically emancipated. It was for that reason that the Secretariat's report concerned only a few Territories under United Kingdom and still fewer under

(U Hla Aung, Burma)

French administration. With regard to the proposal in paragraph 91 of the report, he proposed that the Sub-Committee which would draft the report to the General Assembly should also be instructed to prepare a new draft Standard Form. Similarly, the Sub-Committee should use paragraphs 81 to 88 of the document in its report, although they did not give enough attention to the importance of community development and to the need for a plan of popular progress.

He regretted that the Secretariat's report dealt chiefly with the administration of community development. The Committee should change its method and give more attention to what was being accomplished in practice. Fortunately, the additional information given in their accounts by experts of the Administering Authorities was of great value.

Mr. JAIPAL (India) congratulated the Secretariat on its excellent paper on community development policy and administration in Non-Self-Governing Territories. It was gratifying to know that the Administering Powers were endeavouring to expand the community development projects from a local to a national scale and that, in territories administered by the United Kingdom, community development was recognized as an integral part of the Government's policy.

Community development was a new force in social progress, but it was still in the experimental stage in some areas. The Ashridge Conference had laid down the principle of the joint responsibility of the Government and the people; but it should be realized that local inhabitants still required a certain amount of direction and guidance. The French Administration's emphasis on fundamental education was commendable, but he would like to have more information, particularly from UNESCO, concerning the role of fundamental education projects in community development.

The report prepared by the Secretariat indicated that community development was progressing but slowly in several Non-Self-Governing Territories. There had been, however, gratifying results in Jamaica, the Gold Coast, Uganda and Nigeria. Unfortunately, such development seemed too often to be confined to urban areas and to territories where there was a certain degree of local self-government.

(Mr. Jaipal, India)

Though local government and community development were closely linked, the latter should not depend on the stage of political evolution of a group. It could often be undertaken even within the framework of tribal or traditional societies, and that experience would be a useful prelude to the development of local government institutions. Through the promotion of community development in tribal areas, a local government machinery could be developed successfully.

Community development among mixed communities presented special problems, as in Malaya, East Africa, Trinidad and British Guiana. In that connexion, it would be interesting if the Administering Powers could supply some details on the representation of various ethnic groups in advisory bodies on community development. In certain other areas, there were problems of settling nomadic tribes on the land before community development projects could be put into effect.

The Indian delegation well realized the difficulties facing the Administering Powers, for experience in India made for a better understanding of the problems involved in community development. A nation-wide programme had been begun by the Indian Government in October 1952 and two years later it had been able to cover 71,100 villages, containing a population of 47 million people; within ten years it hoped to bring community development activities to all the 550,000 villages in India. Government expenditure on the programme up to March 1954 had been $14 million and the contribution of the people themselves was about $7 million. Twelve thousand village social workers were employed, 38,000 teachers, 2,000 doctors and veterinarians, 3,000 agriculturists and 2,000 social education organizers.

One of the conclusions of two years' experience was that the villagers showed great enthusiasm and that in many cases their participation had outstripped official expectations. Frequently the local community supplied manual labour, materials and money. The other important conclusion was that the village social worker played a vital part in the success of the development programme. Thus, to carry out such an undertaking, it was necessary to secure the enthusiastic participation of the population, to give them some measure of responsibility and to train social workers who would act as a bridge

(Mr. Jaipal, India)

between the people and the Government agencies and ensure the continuation of the work. A sense of responsibility had to be developed within the community. Many difficulties arose at the stage when local activities had to be integrated into nation-wide projects. One of the great lessons of the undertaking was that the villagers had become so interested in the projects that they had volunteered to help in the construction of canals, dams, roads or schools, because they knew that that was the best way to increase the number of crops or to better their standard of living. It was significant that the Ministry of Railways now called upon free local labour to maintain tracks or to lay new ones in rural areas.

It was to be hoped that India's experience would be of some use to other countries, for it indicated the problems arising from community development and how they might be solved.

At the local level, technical assistance consisted in the provision of expert guidance and advice, or even technical means for the execution of projects undertaken on the initiative of the people.

At the national level, assistance to community development programmes might necessitate adjustments in the whole administrative structure to render it an instrument capable of serving local communities. The main fields in which such assistance might be required would be training facilities for the personnel of community development, organization of research and experimentation, and the provision of specific administrative arrangements serving community development programmes on the local and national level.

At the international level, such assistance in community development would primarily be oriented towards assisting national governments in instituting community development policies in their countries. It would be manifested in various forms, as for instance through fellowships available for the training of personnel.

(Mr. Jaipal, India)

Another type of assistance at the international level was organization of regional meetings on community development. A conference of this kind was held in Manila in 1954 and was attended by a number of representatives of Asian countries interested in community development programmes. Of no less importance was the work of the Social Commission, its surveys and studies.

The meeting rose at 5.25 p.m.