du Sahara—Cooperação Tecnica e Cumbifica ao Sul Commission de Cooperation Technique fi cientifien Africaie au Sud du Sahara do Sul Commission for Technical Co-operation fi cientifin Africa South of the Sahara peração du Sahara—Cooperago e cinca e Chimpica ao Sul hingue et scientique en Ajrique au Sta au Sanda a Consell Scientifique pour l'Afrique hu file Sandra—Costad, du Sahara et set en ajque a Scientific (Council nfor 1 Africa / South f the Sahara—Cost the Sahara et scientique e huque et scientique en afrique au Sul du Sahara operation technique et Scientifique en AfrTechnical and Scientific Co-operation in a Cooperation technique et Scientifique en AfrTechnical and Scientific Co-operation in a rigid IP St. 1 St. 1 April rique au Sud du Sahara-Cooferação I tenta eta Solin of inte substitue en Afrique au operação Tentas e Científica ao Sul do Sahararation technique et scientifique en Afrique au operação Tentas e Científica de Mararation technique et scientific Cooferation in Afri TOTER AFRICAN aratic CONFERENCE IN A CONFERENCE AN Aratic CONFERENCE AN Aratic CONFERENCE IN A CONFER Cooper to There of Sult of the Saha fica ao R'EPORT Suc et et Stimment and Scient Cooperação TRW4 2 th of the Saha fica ao Sult do Mara n technique et C.C.T.A.J.C.S.A.; "Abbey House, " 8 Victoria Street

ORGANIZATION OF AFRICAN UNITY CULTURAL & SCIENTIFIC DEPARTMENT

LIBRALY

ADDIS ABABA

DATE 27/10/67

COMMISSION DE COOPERATION TECHNIQUE EN AFRIQUE AU SUD DU SAHARA

Créée en Janvier 1950, la Commission de Coopération Technique en Afrique au Sufi de Sahara (C.C.T.A.) a fait l'objet d'une Convention Intergouvernementale signée à Londres le 18 Janvier 1954. Elle se compose, à l'heure actuelle, des Gouvernements suivants Belgique, Fédération de la Rhodésie et du Nyassaland France, Ghana, Liberia, Portugal, Royaume-Uni, Union de l'Afrique du Sud.

OBJECTJP'

Assurer la coopération technique entre les territoires fiont les Gouvernements Membres sont responsables en Afrique au Sud du Sahara.

ATTRIBUTIONS

- 1) Traiter de tout sujet concernant la coopération technique entre les Gouvernements Membres et leurs territoires dans le cadre de la compétence territoriale de la C.C.T.A.
- 2) Recommander aux Gouvernements Membres toutes mesures tendant à la mise en œuvre de cette coopération.
- 3) Convoquer les conférences techniques que les Gouvernements Membres ont décidé de tenir.
- 4) Contrôler du point de vue général et du point de vue financier l'activité fes organismes placés sous son égide et présenter aux pouvernements Membres toutes recommandations y afférentes.
- 5) Présenter des recommandations aux Gouvernements Membres en vue de la création de nouveaux organismes ou la révision des dispositions existantes pour la coopération technique, dans le cadre de la compétence territoriale de la C.Q.T.A.
- 6) Présenter des recommandations aux Gouvernoments Memores en vue de formuler des demandes conjointes d'assistance technique aux organisations internationales.
- 7) Présenter des avis sur toutes questions concernant la coopération technique que lui soumettront les Gouvernements Membres.
- 8) Administrer le Fonds Interafricain de la Recherche et la Fondation pour l'Assistance Mutuelle en Afrique au Sud du Sahara.

BUDGET

Alimenté par les contributions des Gouvernements Membres.

ORGANISATION

- 1) La C.C.T.A. se réunit au moins une fois chaque année. Ses recommandations et conclusions sont portées à la connaissance des Gouvernements Membres en vue de leur adoption à l'unanimité ainsi que de leur mise en œuvre dans les territoires intéressés.
- 2) Le Conseil Scientifique pour l'Afrique au Sud du Sahara (C.S.A.), Conseiller Scientifique de la C.C.T.A., a été créé en Novembre 1950, comme suite à la Conférence Scientifique de Johannesbourg (1949), en vue de favoriser l'application de la science à la solution des problèmes africains. Il est composé de personnalités éminentes, choisies de telle sorte que les principales disciplines scientifiques importantes au stade actuel du développement de l'Afrique soient représentées. En tant que membres du Conseil ces personnalités n'agissent pas sur instructions de leurs Gouvernements respectifs mais sont responsables individuellement devant le Conseil.
- 3) Des Bureaux et Comités techniques traitent chacun un aspect particulier de la coopération régionale et interterritoriale en Afrique au Sud du Sahara.
- 4) La C.C.T.A. et le C.S.A. disposent d'un Secrétariat Conjoint. Celui-ci comporte deux sièges, l'un en Europe (Londres), l'autre en Afrique (Bukavu). Il est dirigé par un Secrétaire-Général assisté à Londres par un Secrétaire-Général Adjoint et à Bukavu par un Secrétaire Scientifique. Un secrétaire pour la F.A.M.A. lui est également adjoint.

PUBLICATIONS

Des brochures traitant de problèmes scientifiques et techniques, dont les données sont habituellement rassemblées en Afrique par le C.S.A., sont publiées à Londres. Toute demande d'information devra être adressée au siège de Londres du Secrétariat Conjoint, à l'attention du fonctionnaire chargé des Publications et de l'Information.

COMMISSION FOR TECHNICAL CO-OPERATION IN AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

Established in January, 1950, the Commission for Technical Co-operation in Africa South of the Sahara (C.C.T.A.) was the subject of an Inter-governmental Agreement signed in London on 18th January, 1954. It consists now of the following Governments: Belgium, Federation of Phodesia and Nyasaland, France, Ghana, Liberia, Portugal, Union of South Africa, United Kingdom.

OBJECT

To ensure technical co-operation between territories for which Member Governments are responsible in Africa South of the Sahara.

FUNCTIONS

- (1) To concern itself with all matters affecting technical co-operation between the Member Governments and their technicals within the territorial scope of C.C.T.A.
- (2) To recommend to Member Governments measures for achieving such co-operation.
- (3) To convene technical conferences as agreed by Member Governments.
- (4) To supervise, from the financial and general points of view, the work of the organisations placed under its ægis and make retinomendations thereon to the Member Governments.
- (5) To make recommendations to the Member Governments for the setting up of new organisations or the revision of existing arrangements for securing technical co-operation within the territorial scope of C.C.T.A.
- (6) To make recommendations to the Member Governments with a view to the formulation of joint requests for technical assistance from international organisations.
- (7) To advise Member Governments on any other subject in the field of technical co-operation which the Member Governments may bring to its notice.
- (8) To administer the Inter-African Research Fund and the Foundation for Mutual Assistance in Africa South of the Sanara.

FINANCE

Contributions from Member Governments.

ORGANISATION

(c) C.C.T.A. meets at least one a year. Its recommendations and conclusions are submitted to Member Governments for unanimous approval and for implementation in the territories concerned.

(2) The Scientific Council for Africa South of the Sahara (C.S.A.), Scientific Adviser to C.C.T.A., was established in November, 1930, following the Johannesburg Scientific Conference (1940) to further the application of cience to the solution of African problems. Its members are eminent scientists chosen in such a manner that the main scientific disciplines important at the present stige of the development of Africa shall be represented. As members of the Council they do not receive instructions from Governments but are responsible individually to the Council.

(3) Technical Bureaux and Committees deal with specific aspects of regional and inter-

territorial co-operation in Africa South of the Sahara.

(a) A Joint Secretariat serves C.C.P.A. and C.S.A. It has two seats, one in Europe (London) and one in Africa (Bukavu). It is administered by a Secretary-General and a Secretary for P.A.M.A.; and in Bukavu by a Scientific Secretary.

PUBLICATIONS

Publications dealing with scientific and technical problems, the data of which are usually collected in Africa by C.S.A., are issued in London. Inquiries should be addressed to the London seat of the Joint Secretariat, for the attention of the Publications and Information Officer.

INTER-AFRICAN CONFERENCE ON RURAL WELFARE

2nd Meeting

TANANARIVE

CONTENTS

List of	DELEC	SATES .	AND O	BSERVI	ERS	•	•	•	•	•	•	5
Agenda		•	•	•	•		•	•	•		•	9
Ітем і	•	•	•	•.	•	•	•	•			•	11
Ітем 2	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	13
Ітем 3	•		•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	14
Ітем 4	•		•	•	•		•		•	•		15
Ітем 5			•	•		•	•		•			17
Rесомм	ENDA	rions	•	•			•		•			21
Resolut	ions			•			•	•	•			24
Generai	REPO	ORT	•		•				•			25

LIST OF DELEGATES AND OBSERVERS

· CHAIRMAN

Monsieur G. DULPHY (France)

VICE-CHAIRMAN

Commandant E. Ferreira de Almeida (Portugal) Mr. J. P. Moffett (Tanganyika)

M. A. CALLIER (Belgique)

DELEGATES

FEDERATION OF RHODESIA AND NYASALAND

Southern Rhodesia

Mr. A. Pendered, M.B.E.	. Under-Secretary, African Economics, Markets and Development Fund.
Mr. J. M. Cramer Mr. W. T. Miller . Mr. H. R. Hovman .	 Under-Secretary, African Agriculture. Chief Inspector, Native Education. Administrator.
	Northern Rhodesia
Mr. C. M. WHITE Mr. H. A. FOSBROOKE .	 Land Tenure Officer. Director, Rhodes Livingstone Institute for Social Research.
Mr. J. Krigwin	. Senior District Officer.
•	FRANCE
M. G. Dulphy	. Adminstrateur en Chef de la F.O.M., Directeur des Affaires Sociales.
	Madagascar
M. P. Morfau M. F. Raobelina M. J. Fenies	 Administrateur en Chef de la F.O.M. Chef de la section de la coordination sociale. Administrateur-Adjt. de la F.O.M.
WI. J. PENIES	
	A.E.F.
M. P. Mailier	. Administrateur en Chef.
	A.O.F.
M. R. BOURCART M. P. GALARZZI	 Administrateur en Chef. Chef du Service des Affaires Sociales de la Côte d'Ivoire.
•	GHANA
M. P. F. de C. Du Sauroy	. Director of Social Welfare and Community

Development.

PORTUGAL

Cdant. E. Ferreira de Almeida

M. J. PINTO BULL.	F	Portuguese Guinea Administrateur en Chef.
M. J. I IMTO DULD .	•	
M. A. S. Malheiro da	Silva .	Angola Administrateur.
		Moçambique
M. A. S. SILVA .		Administrateur.
		Portugal
M. J. Fonseca George.	• • •	Ing. Administrateur-Délégué de la Compagnie Générale des Cotons de l'Angola.
		BELGIUM
		Belgian Congo
M. A. CALLIER .		Commissaire de District Assistant
M. J. SCHATTENS .		Commissaire de District Assistant.
	UNION	OF SOUTH AFRICA
Mr. C. B. Young .		Under-Secretary (Native Affairs).
Mr. J. Fourie .		
Mr. L. A. Pepler .	•	Director of Native Agriculture.
Mr. H. J. Van Zyl.	• •	Inspector of Schools.
	UN	ITED KINGDOM
		Tanganyika
Mr. J. P. Moffett.		Commissioner for Social Development.
	i	United Kingdom
Mr. M. McMullen		Social Service Department, Colonial Office.
		Kenya
Mr. T. G. Askwith		Permanent Secretary for Community Development.
		Uganda
Mr. M. A. MAYBURY		Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Rural De-
Mr. P. C. MINNS .		velopment. Commissioner for Community Development.
WII. I. C. WIINNS .	•	
		OBSERVERS Italy
Dr. C. FETTARAPPA-SAND	ori .	-
		F.A.O.
Miss E. Robb .		Home Economics Officer.
•		W.H.O.
Mr. T. Evans .		Assistant Director, W.H.O. Regional Office.

U.N.E.S.C.O.

Mr. J. Guiton . . . Assistant Director, Department of Education.

U.N.O.

Miss J. HENDERSON. . Director, Bureau of Social Affairs.

C.C.T.A./C.S.A. SECRETARIAT

Monsieur Fred HENDRICKX

. Scientific Secretary.

Miss Anne KITCHIN

. Secretary.

Mademoiselle Pya-Monica

•

ELMIGER . . . Secretary.

INTERPRETERS

Mr. Frank BARKER . . . Linguistic Adviser to C.C.T.A./C.S.A.

Monsieur J. HAUPT.

Mrs. Cléo Dunford . Mrs. Margot Retzaall .

AGENDA

- I. SOCIAL ASPECTS OF THE RURAL ENVIRONMENT.
 - 1. BASIC STRUCTURE OF RURAL SOCIETY.
 - A. The Family and Tribal Structure.
 - (1) Natural Factors Affecting Change.
 - (2) The Place of Women.
 - (3) The State of Present Research.
 - B. Material and Moral Factors.
 - 2. Unplanned Change in the Social Structure and in Standards of Living.
 - (1) The Availability of Demographic and Statistical Data.
 - (2) The Effects of Migration.
 - (3) The Indigenous Sense of Community and its Significance.
 - (4) Economic Factors:
 - (a) the family economy: income and budgets;
 - (b) rural labour and productivity in relation to the community.
- II. GENERAL RURAL WELFARE POLICIES AND OBJECTIVES.
- III. THE APPROACH OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE RURAL COMMUNITY.
 - A. (1) Group.
 - (2) Individual.
 - B. (1) The Inter-Agency:

Community Development. Fundamental Education. Social and Economic Education.

(2) The Specialised:

Economic in form:

The role of the "paysannat" (peasantry). Rural modernisation.

Social in form:

Rural social centres.

Cultural clubs and the organisation of leisure.

IV. BASIC FACTORS.

- A. The Contribution of Professional and Technical Skills.
 - (1) The place of Medical Work.
 - (2) The place of the School.
 - (3) The place of Rural Housing Policy.
 - (4) The place of the Agriculturalist.
- B. Land Tenure and Rural Welfare.
- C. Other Influences—such as Legislation.
- D. Making use of Indigenous Groups in the Creation of Modern Forms of Co-operative Organisation—e.g. Co-operatives.
- E. The place of Individual Initiative and Self-help.
- F. The place of Voluntary Organisations: Lay and Religious.
- G. The Contribution of Training Centres both at Territorial and Field Levels.

V. CO-ORDINATION IN SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE RURAL COMMUNITY:

- (1) at territorial level;
- (2) at field level.
- VI. GENERAL CONCLUSIONS ON POLICY AND OBJECTIVES.

Five main points arose from the various statements contained in working documents or made by delegates at the meeting. By unanimous agreement, they were taken as the basis for a discussion which led to a number of observations.

These points are as follows:

1. It was generally noted that the structure of rural communities was undergoing a change. In this changing situation it may be necessary to support traditional structures or to improve upon them or to introduce new structures.

In this respect various delegations reported on experience in their respective territories:

In the Union of South Africa, for over 40 years, a system of local or District Councils had been in force in many of the native areas, for the administration of local government affairs. The representatives of such councils were elected by the inhabitants of defined areas, in a Western model. This system was not only found to be unsatisfactory but did not meet the requirements of the population who preferred a type of representation based on their traditional system within the tribal framework. To meet this desire the Government has provided machinery whereby the various tribes or communities are enabled to establish tribal-regional and territorial authorities. Such authorities are in process of establishment.

In the French Union, traditional structures are in process of rapid evolution and, above a certain level, are being replaced by a system of representation on the Western model.

In Ghana there is now an elected system of local authorities on the Western model throughout the country in addition to the traditional structures.

Certain countries such as Southern Rhodesia preferred solutions which permit the retention of customary forms, while providing alongside these the framework for Western institutions.

Portugal had preferred to adopt a solution which, while respecting traditional forms, provided the possibility of achieving a synthesis with its Western institutions.

2. It was generally admitted that women although still often in an inferior position played a vital role in the development both of the family and of rural society. It is therefore most important that a special emphasis

should be placed upon the education of adult women, particularly in cases where they may not have had the same opportunities as men in the past for formal education. In some countries, in view of changes that had intervened in the behaviour of women in certain environments, particularly in urban centres, it was agreed that certain forms of emancipation of women could lead to a breakdown of the family structure, and could only be avoided by appropriate measures, particularly of an educative nature.

Finally, it was felt that specialists in rural welfare should give consideration to the place of women in agriculture, particularly in respect of the proportion of work done by them and by men, bearing in mind the survival of certain taboos.

3. The Conference noted the importance of the awakening of a sense of civic duties and responsibility, both in the individual and in the group.

It was generally felt that it was essential that rural populations should themselves play a responsible part in the betterment of their conditions.

In this respect the United Kingdom delegation stated that the policy of its Government was to lead the territories towards self-government within the Commonwealth in conditions assuring them of an adequate standard of living and freedom from oppression from all quarters. Consequently, the principal objective of the social policy in rural, as in urban areas, was, by means of community development, to create self-reliant communities with a sense of social responsibility.

4. In the economic field, subsistence economy was in the process of giving way to a cash economy, accompanied by complex social repercussions, not all of them beneficial.

It was agreed that this was an irreversible trend which would continue. These changes might be accompanied by certain dangers affecting the maintenance of food production levels and possibly entailing unnecessary or socially undesirable expenditure. This called for further study.

5. The Conference unanimously agreed on the importance of social research in the sphere of rural welfare and on the use of its findings in the solution of practical problems confronting field-workers.

In this connection, stress was laid on the need for close co-operation between research workers and those responsible for action. The latter, especially, have need for data on rural trends. Madagascar, in particular, was quoted as an example of such co-operation. On the other hand, the Conference noted the importance of *ad hoc* inquiries at field level and the desirability of promoting contacts between field workers carrying them out, and social research workers, by means of meetings and conferences.

centred on man, and taking into account his character, his possibilities and his needs. We are only concerned with methods in so far as they contribute to such a policy, and produce results. Angles of approach vary considerably, and though it may be desirable that specialists in the economic and social fields should bring their contribution to such a Conference, it is none the less desirable that they should bear in mind that their methods are but a "means" to serve a policy of rural welfare, and not "an end" per se.

Such is the spirit in which the members of the Paris Preliminary Meeting adopted a programme of discussion for the Tananarive Conference. We shall endeavour to summarise in this light the documents which we have received.

In drawing up the present report, we have taken into consideration the following documents received at this stage:

(1) English documents:

- 1. Communication 57/7/1 of 23rd July, 1957, submitted by the United Kingdom Government.
- 2. Communication 57/7/2 of 10th August, 1957, submitted by the United Kingdom Government.
- 3. Communication 57/8 of 23rd July, 1957, submitted by the Kenya Government.
- 4. Communication 57/9 of 31st July, 1957, submitted by the Uganda Government.

(2) Portuguese documents:

Communication 57/4 of 1st August, 1957, submitted by the Portuguese Government.

(3) Documents from the Federal Delegation:

- 1. Communication 57/5 of 5th July, 1957, from the Northern Rhodesian Government.
- 2. Communication 57/6 of 5th July, 1957, from the Southern Rhodesian Government.

(4) French documents:

- 1. Communication 57/2 of 26th June, 1957, from the General Government of Madagascar.
- 2. Communication 57/3 of 5th July, 1957, from the General Government of French West Africa.

- (2) that a second conference on Rural Welfare should be held at some future date;
- (3) that arrangements should be made to enable specialists to visit other territories.

* * *

The first of these recommendations led to the establishment of an Inter-African Bureau on Rural Welfare, operated by the Department of Social Affairs of the Ministry of Overseas France, on behalf of C.C.T.A. The liaison functions of this organisation could have been valuable, but, owing to lack of means, it had to limit its activities. We shall have the opportunity of raising this matter at the Tananarive Conference.

The second recommendation led to the present Conference, which it was originally intended to hold in the Cameroons, but which has now been convened at Tananarive as the "Second Inter-African Conference on Rural Welfare".

To our knowledge the third recommendation of Lourenço Marques had not been implemented.

The Lourenço Marques Conference revealed the difficulties arising from such a vast problem as that of rural welfare.

If one considers all the various aspects of the problem of improving the material, intellectual and moral conditions of rural populations, one finds that all branches of economic and social knowledge are involved. Technical circles will criticise such a Conference as being nothing more than a combination of a number of individual conferences, where no question is dealt with adequately; they will tend, moreover, to consider problems in the light of their own technical speciality; this will result in confusion and a dispersal of effort.

The members of the Lourenço Marques Conference were fully aware of the need to circumscribe the concept of rural welfare and to define its scope. In this case, the aim is not to study each individual technique, but to analyse the effectiveness of one or another method in improving the conditions of rural populations, bearing in mind the general field of application. To take a simple example: there can be no question of seeking to determine the respective values of the various methods of malaria control; this is a matter for medical officers and medical conferences. Our problem is to assess the consequences of a reduction of malaria incidence in a given rural area from the economic and social points of view, and finally to determine the effects on the improvement of the conditions of rural populations, by solving a problem or raising new problems. We could mention many examples in all fields of economic and social activity.

A Conference on Rural Welfare cannot and must not consist merely of a series of technical discussions; it must endeavour to determine an overall policy for the improvement of standards of living of rural populations, Before dealing with the items on the Agenda of the Tananarive Conference, it might be useful to recall the reasons for this meeting and to define its scope.

In September, 1953, the Member Governments of C.C.T.A., conscious of the essential part played by African rural populations in the evolution of the continent of Africa South of the Sahara, and of the complex problems arising in the economic and social development of these populations, held a first Conference on Rural Welfare, at Lourenço Marques. The object was to seek co-operation among nations having common responsibilities, for the purpose of studying the problem of raising the standard of living of African rural populations.

The work was divided among three committees. The first Committee was called upon to analyse the organisation of rural communities and their needs; the second Committee was entrusted with the study of economic factors on which depended the improvement of the conditions of rural communities; the third Committee was to deal with the field of social action.

The Lourenço Marques Conference was able to establish a number of principles of policy:

- (1) to assist and guide the rural population which, as a result of external influences, tends to evolve more rapidly and to break loose from the support to be found in the traditional authorities;
- (2) to safeguard and widen the community feeling and spirit of solidarity, on which economic and social action must be based, for it is far more important to achieve orderly evolution than to set off a revolution;
- (3) within the framework defined above, a threefold policy for rural welfare can be devised:
 - (a) in the technical and financial fields, direct external assistance from Governments (reorganisation of agriculture, establishment of credit and co-operatives, setting up an economic and social substructure, etc.);
 - (b) social education work, independent from school education, aiming at instilling in rural areas a desire for progress and a feeling of responsibility;
 - (c) the support and active and growing participation of the African population, and of advanced Africans in particular, in this work aiming at the betterment of African countries.

In addition, the Plenary Session recommended:

(1) that the work already started should be continued by the setting up, within the framework of C.C.T.A., of a permanent Bureau responsible for centralising and distributing information in the field of African rural welfare;

INTRODUCTION TO THE GENERAL REPORT

Within the framework of the conclusions and of the Agenda adopted at the Preliminary Meeting held in Paris in November, 1956, we have endeavoured to present a short synthesis summing up, as closely as possible, the reports presented by the Member Governments of C.C.T.A. on the problem of Rural Welfare.

This synthesis includes:

A general picture of the economic and social status of the African rural populations, south of the Sahara;

A comparison of the methods applied in the various territories, and of results achieved.

In carrying out this task, we came up against certain difficulties which will explain the lack of homogeneity of this report or the gaps that may exist therein. First of all, most of the documents submitted by the Governments only reached us at the beginning of September, whereas we were expecting them at the beginning of June. We had to give them hasty consideration. Some reports had still not reached us at the time of writing.

Moreover, whilst rural problems in African South of the Sahara undoubtedly had a number of points in common, it is not always easy to make comparisons, in view of the differences in terminology and the variety of concepts in the various countries.

Some may feel that the present report gives too great a place to French achievements. We apologise for this but would point out that, in drafting this synthesis, we were inevitably influenced by the relatively considerable number of replies received from the French territories by the C.C.T.A. Sectretariat.

We are thus fully aware that the present document is somewhat incomplete and far from perfect, and we claim indulgence for this. We would stress, however, that it is intended merely as an introduction to the Tananarive Conference. We hope that each delegation will actively contribute to the discussions and thus assist in filling the gaps and provide for a wider exchange of GENGANIZATION OF AFRICAN UNITY

	JRAL & SCIENT		
*	LIBRANY		
k .	No.	_DATE	····
2	Ad ABA		

GENERAL REPORT

Submitted by M. Dulphy

RECOMMENDS that this Centre should be kept in being and that the exchange of documents among Member Governments should be developed, the Centre being entrusted with their distribution.

RESOLUTIONS

I. Methods of Organisation

The Conference RESOLVES that, in certain circumstances, there are very considerable advantages in the use of the specially trained multipurpose field worker in extension work for the development of rural communities.

II. Exchanges and Visits

The Conference RECALLS the desirability of arranging personal visits of teams of representatives or officials of the Member Governments to other territories, in the particular fields of development in which they may be interested, in order that they may not only exchange views but see for themselves conditions in such territories and the methods adopted for their development.

III. Next Meeting of the Conference

It was AGREED that the next meeting of the Conference on Rural Welfare should be convened in four years' time.

IV. Thanks to the Government of Madagascar

The delegations wish to express their deep appreciation of the arrangements made by the Government of Madagascar for their attendance at this Conference, for the assistance that has been given them in so many ways and for the quite exceptional hospitality that they have received.

both at local and national level; NOTING moreover that this co-ordination cannot be ensured by the simple existence of institutions or individuals entrusted with co-ordinating functions;

RECOMMENDS that a policy of co-ordination should be worked out, based on the following principles:

- (1) Co-ordination of the activities of Governmental and non-Governmental organisations pursuing similar ends;
- (2) Association of the people with the process of co-ordination;
- (3) Creation, if need be, of departments specially responsible for effective co-ordination, rather than committees without executive power;
- (4) Extension of the process of co-ordination down to field level;
- (5) Development, through joint training, of a spirit of constructive co-operation among all those taking part in action in the rural field:
- (6) Creation of inter-departmental teams, as far as possible, to facilitate co-operation and prevent technical services from working in watertight compartments;
- (7) Co-ordination of budgets at all levels.

VIII. Liaison between Research Workers and Administrators

Considering that any intervention aiming at a change in the living conditions of the people can have very serious social consequences;

considering also that only profound study can provide knowledge of the manifold aspects of the moral, social and material conditions of these peoples;

the Conference RECOMMENDS:

- (a) that Government activities in rural areas should be based on information provided by sociological, economic and demographic research:
- (b) that there should be permanent liaison between research workers in universities, institutes and Government departments, on the one hand, and administrators in rural areas, on the other, as recommended by the Conference on Social Sciences (Bukavu, 1955);
- (c) that the effect of government action should be verified by surveys and the results compared, at meetings and conferences, with those obtained by research workers.

IX. Exchange of Documents

Considering the value of a continued exchange of documentation, through the Inter-African Centre for Rural Welfare, the Conference

- (b) that the wishes expressed by the people should be taken into account as far as possible;
- (c) that every effort should be made to promote and maintain spontaneous co-operation on the part of the people towards the carrying out and success of the projects undertaken;
- (d) that such co-operation should be obtained by personal contacts;
- (e) that these contacts should be established, wherever possible and desirable, through traditional or other existing institutions;
- (f) that, where compatible with the nature of the project, with legislation and with customs, a voluntary effective contribution should be obtained from the people, in cash, in kind or in services, either for its completion or for its operation and maintenance;
- (g) that steps should be taken to restrain the excessive drift towards urban centres, by education and other appropriate means, and particularly by reinforcing the existing cohesion of rural communities;
- (h) that agricultural work and the status of the farmer should be enchanced by all possible means.

V. Security of Land Tenure

The Conference RECOMMENDS that where the farmer has not yet achieved security of land tenure, efforts should be made to promote it, particularly by enabling him to obtain freehold ownership of his land, or some other form of individual holding.

VI. The Role of Technical Services

The Conference, considering that technical services: medical, education and housing, are only the means by which a rural welfare policy is implemented, RECOMMENDS:

- (a) that action by those technical services should be preceded by a study of the sociological and human aspects of the problem;
- (b) that technical services should seek and obtain full acceptance by the people of the measures which they propose to take;
- (c) that action taken by these services should be adapted, as far as possible, to the needs, desires and capabilities of the rural peoples.

VII. Co-ordination

The Conference, considering that the needs of rural peoples are not divisible in terms of technical specialisation but form a whole, and that specialists from individual departments can only provide partial solutions to rural problems; NOTING, therefore, that co-ordination is necessary

RECOMMENDATIONS

I. Social Structure

The Conference RECOMMENDS that any action taken to help rural people to adapt themselves to new conditions of economic and social progress should take into account the traditional structure of these communities.

II. The Place of Women

Considering the vital role played by women in the development of the family and of the community, in spite of the fact that they are often in a position of inferiority, the Conference RECOMMENDS:

- (a) that special emphasis should be placed on the general and social education of adult women in rural areas, specially in cases where they have not had the same opportunities as men in respect of formal education;
- (b) that this education should be directed in such a manner as not to lead to a breakdown of the family structure;
- (c) that any policy for economic and social development, particularly community development, should give women a place in keeping with their influence in society.

III. Balance between Cash Economy and Subsistence Economy

The Conference RECOMMENDS that the development of a cash economy, which is a natural and necessary process in the development of agricultural economy in Africa, should not interfere unduly with the production of food.

IV. Participation of the People

Considering, on the one hand, that no action can achieve its object unless it responds to the needs of the people concerned,

considering, moreover, that acceptance by the people is a prerequisite of success,

considering, finally, that active co-operation of the people in any action undertaken will greatly contribute to ensuring the permanence of results,

the Conference RECOMMENDS:

 (a) that the people should be consulted in respect of projects undertaken for their benefit, and that such consultation should be as full as possible and conducted at the level at which the projects are being carried out;

		•	
		;	
	RECOMMENDATIONS AND RESOLU	TIONS	
•			
•			
٠		·	
•		·	
•			
		·	

The Conference considered that the needs for rural populations were not divisible in terms of technical specialisation but formed an integral whole, and that specialists from individual departments could only bring partial solutions to rural problems; consequently, co-ordination was necessary both at the local and national levels.

. On the other hand, the Conference found that this co-ordination could not be dependent merely on the authority of co-ordinating bodies or individuals, but that co-ordination of policy should be sought, based on the following principles:

- 1. Co-ordination of Government and voluntary action towards similar ends;
 - 2. Association of the people with the process of co-ordination;
- 3. The establishment, where appropriate, of special departments responsible for effective co-ordinating rather than of committees without responsibility;
- 4. The extension of the process of co-ordination down to the working level;
- 5. The fostering of a constructive spirit of co-operation among all those participating in action in the rural field, through joint training;
- 6. The formation of inter-departmental teams as far as possible, in order to avoid technical compartmentalisation and facilitate co-operation;
 - 7. Co-ordination of financial programmes at all levels.

- 7. The Conference agreed that statutory measures were often needed both as a prelude to action in the field of rural welfare and, at a later stage, to reflect a changing situation. To be effective, these measures should reflect changes brought about in attitudes and ways of thought of the people concerned.
- 8. The Conference recognised that traditional social forms should be associated with the creation of modern forms of economic organisations such as co-operatives and friendly societies. Most delegations thought that these organisations ought to correspond as far as possible to the limits of indigenous rural communities, and that traditional leaders should be associated with their management.
- 9. The Conference considered that as a general rule financial resources allocated to programmes of rural development should be put at the disposal of the authorities at the levels where they are in direct contact with the communities involved.

It is desirable that rural populations should understand the financial basis of rural development, in order that they should be encouraged to contribute directly and progressively to the maintenance of the amenities created.

10. The Conference recognised that voluntary bodies, particularly the missions, were doing valuable work in the field of rural welfare. These activities ought to be supported by Government, where necessary, financially.

Nevertheless, the Conference stressed the need for measures of coordination to minimise overlapping of their activities with one another and with Government in parallel fields and to avoid, as far as possible, that action being taken by these bodies is contrary to Government policy.

11. The Conference stressed the need for thorough and continuous training for rural welfare workers at all levels. Ideally, this training should be given in the territory concerned: nevertheless, it was recognised that in present circumstances training at the higher levels might have to be carried out elsewhere.

The Conference considered that in order to facilitate the task of coordination, more attention ought to be paid to joint training of professional, technical and administrative personnel in the social aspects of their work in the field of rural development.

It considered also that more attention ought to be given to training of those who work among women or of women workers.

To encourage the educated elite to work in the rural areas, measures might be taken to enlist the spirit of adventure in the young for the service of rural communities.

However, it was felt desirable to give to workers a status which will attract them to the rural areas.

1. The Conference stressed the primary importance of the psychological factor in improving rural welfare. In this respect whatever measures were employed, it was necessary to seek to obtain the closest co-operation of the rural people in the implementation of the measures proposed.

This co-operation could best be obtained by personal contacts.

2. The Conference agreed that it was desirable, while safeguarding food production, to replace traditional systems of agriculture by a profit economy based on modern methods of production, which would provide the African farmer with the additional resources he needed.

Where it was necessary, at the same time as his economy is being transformed in this way the farmer should be educated to make use of his new resources to the best advantage.

- 3. The Conference agreed that improvement of rural welfare depended to a large extent on the stabilisation of the farmer on the land, enabling him to progress towards individual ownership of his holding or at least to give him some guarantee of continuity in his use of it.
- 4. The Conference considers also that one of the important problems in the field of rural welfare consists in establishing the order of priority to static medical units or mobile medical units.

Whilst taking into account local situations, it seemed desirable to give increasing importance to the latter.

5. The Conference noted with satisfaction the considerable progress achieved during the last few years in the development of education in all the territories represented. It felt that formal education in rural areas should be adapted to the outlook and interests of the rural people. It should aim, in particular, at avoiding the creation of a gap between the younger and the older generations. The delegation of Rhodesia, however, felt that at primary level, education should be without bias.

In view of the vital and indispensable part women played in any true advancement of the rural population, the Conference felt that particular attention should be given to the problems of female adult education.

6. The Conference considered that one of the most urgent needs in rural development was the provision of a better type of house based as far as possible on the traditional pattern while conforming to modern needs.

The achievements already attained in this field were noted and it was agreed that still greater attention should be paid to housing.

The Conference agreed that it was difficult to lay down a general policy, as methods of action in the field of rural welfare in African territories varied according to the diversity of conditions, economic, social and other, and to the degree of evolution of the people.

The following essential points arose from the discussion:

- 1. However different the methods used might be, they had one thing in common—all were essentially empirical and practical, this being a characteristic of action in the field of rural welfare.
 - 2. The discussion showed that various methods are applied:
- (a) The community development approach stimulated the people to take action themselves to satisfy their wants, that it involved co-operation between all those using this method, for example, extension workers, and that it necessitated personal contact between these workers and the people.
- (b) More specialised methods; either on an economic basis, such as "paysannats", local modernisation schemes, co-operatives or friendly societies; or methods of a social nature, such as resettlement schemes, cultural centres, etc. At the same time, however, there should be no water-tight separation between these two fields, which have in fact a common object, the welfare of the people.

Despite the variety of policies applied in African territories, in the field of rural welfare, the Conference agreed on the following five points:

- 1. It recognised the need for increased technical and financial assistance, in view of the under-development of most African regions. It also stressed the importance of economic development as an indispensable part of the continuing promotion of rural welfare.
- 2. It was noted that such technical and financial assistance by itself did not suffice, but that it was everywhere necessary to obtain the participation of rural populations in order that they should more fully realise their responsibilities.
- 3. It is important that rural communities should be helped to adapt themselves to new conditions arising from economic and social progress, without unduly disrupting their traditional structure.
- 4. In order that they might adapt themselves to these new conditions of life, the people should be educated in social, economic and civic matters.
- 5. Finally, it was felt that agricultural work and the status of the farmer should be enhanced, since rural activities should not be considered as an inferior mode of life.

In order to counteract the drift of populations towards the towns, an effort should be made to establish better conditions in rural areas.

- 3. Communication 57/4 of 3rd July, 1957, from the General Government of French Equatorial Africa.
- 4. Communication (un-numbered) of 12th September, 1957, from the "Office de la Recherche Scientifique des Territoires d'Outre-Mer".

I. Social Aspects of the Rural Environment

Under this heading we propose to consider the present situation of the African rural society and the changes it is undergoing.

Documents received on this subject were few in number.

1.—Basic Structure of Rural Society

Despite the variety of social organisations, most of the reports agreed on a number of points.

- 1. The African rural society is still basically ruled by tradition and custom. As a whole, social life is still governed by a series of community rules and social organisation is based on the concept of the extended family, either matrilineal or patrilineal, with all the well-known features of collective economy and social set-up: subsistence economy, work in common, indivisible property, industry kept at community level, as a consequence of group solidarity, essential needs of the group met by the group itself, etc.
- 2. Nearly everywhere, but to a varying degree in the different areas, conditions are found to be changing more or less rapidly and the traditional rural community, in a state of evolution, is only seldom found in its original condition. This evolution takes on various forms:

A lessening of authority in all its aspects. In French West and Equatorial Africa, in Madagascar, and in all French territories generally, the idea of equality and democratic concepts have been introduced; in other territories, the development of a young generation with new ideas has contributed to lessen the authority of traditional chiefs.

A weakening of customs which constituted the mainstay of rural communities. For instance, as appears from the reports of the United Kingdom and of French West Africa, Western forms of justice have taken the place of the Councils of Elders, causing customary teachings to lose some of their prestige.

A more or less marked disruption of the tribal structure. In certain territories, however, such as the Cameroons, a reverse tendency is observed in certain areas, based on ethnic groups or on religion, inhibiting the regrouping of tribes.

A break-down of the African and Madagascar extended family and an evolution towards a restricted type of family, features of which are the gradual individualisation of persons and property and the emancipation of women and young people and, in certain communities, under the pressure of economic difficulties or owing to religious influence, a slow change towards monogamy. In this latter connection, however, and for opposite reasons, a relation can be noted between economic integration, on the one hand, and an increase of polygamy, on the other, in certain territories, accompanied by the usual social consequences.

A demarcation between the various generations accompanied, in certain instances, by attempts to establish a social and economic organisation, based on age-groups, and taking the place of traditional organisations.

The evolution from a subsistence economy to a profit economy, accompanied by all the social consequences normally associated with this process.

Most of the reports agree on the factors favouring evolution.

Among the economic or social factors that have brought about a change in African rural structures, we shall mention, among those most frequently found in the reports, the following:

- 1. The development of means of communication, facilitating the exchange of ideas and of goods, but also facilitating migrations which are a factor of instability of the population.
- 2. The increase in population, outcome of the efforts accomplished in the field of hygiene and medicine.
 - 3. Education, which opens up new fields for the younger generation.
- 4. Migrations, which take workers away from their original areas, in search of employment, and are a contributory factor of detribalisation.
- 5. The influence of urbanisation; the United Kingdom and Portuguese reports quite rightly stress the fact that urban centres constitute a factor of transformation of rural environment.
- 6. The development of industrial crops and the appearance of new needs, which contribute largely to the transformation of the traditional economy.
- 7. The work of the missions and the influence of certain religions, such as Islam.
 - 8. The action of cultural and social associations.
 - 9. The introduction of political reforms.

Women appear to contribute largely to the development of African and Madagascar rural communities and, in particular, to the improvement of rural welfare. In spite of their traditionally inferior position, they appear to play a vital part in the community. As mothers, they influence the education of the children; bound, as they are, by traditional concepts, they appear likely to remain a factor of conservatism and to oppose progress. Nothing of a final or stable nature can be undertaken in a rural community, without women being associated in any action taken. On the contrary, should they be suddenly cut away from their traditional environment they are likely to drift, as is often the case, towards urban centres, and thus become a factor of disruption of the community.

Sharing, as they do, in agricultural work (land sometimes forming the sole labour force) or carrying on home industries or small trade in the village market, they also play an important part in the economy of the community. In certain parts of the Gulf of Guinea, their economic influence is even greater than that of men.

The reports that we have received, however, contain very little information on the subject. We hope that this gap will be filled at Tananarive.

* * *

Details relating to the stock-taking of studies on social structures and their evolution are to be found only in the report submitted by the Portuguese Government. Other reports contain no information. The Delegations may be able to provide additional information on this subject at Tananarive.

2.—Changes in the Material and Moral Conditions.

A.—The availability of demographic and statistical data

The analysis of the material and moral condition of a community depends on the availability of statistical and demographic data. That is why the members of the Preliminary Meeting in Paris included this item in the Agenda.

Infomation contained in the reports is lacking in precision and continuity. These data are comparatively accurate in respect of the towns and are even scientifically, strictly accurate in certain cases. Such is not the case however in respect of rural areas. The scattered population, the lack of adequate records of births and deaths, the fact that statistical services are insufficiently developed, make it impossible to do more than draw up estimates based on censuses, by elementary methods, sometimes subject to considerable error.

According to the information supplied, it would seem that the

Government of Southern Rhodesia is the only one to have made a systematic effort at a statistical census, and it would be interesting to hear the Rhodesian Delegation on the subject, at Tananarive.

B.—The effects of Migration on the Rural Community

The various forms of migration are described in the reports;

- (1) Migrations of a permanent character, which are the result of a nomadic tendency caused by over-cultivation of the land, or over-grazing, without any beneficial influence on the rural community.
- (2) Migrations with little or no intention to return. Such are the movements of population from poor areas to rich land developed by the Governments. These generally result in an improvement of welfare of every description. Such also are migrations from rural to urban areas resulting from poor soil, from the inferior conditions in rural communities, from the difference in conditions of life in the bush and in the towns, from the desire to obtain more remunerative work than is possible in agriculture. When this form of migration is final, it generally has detrimental consequences for the rural community; a dislike for country life, detribalisation, a break-down of the family; it may exceptionally have useful effects when the emigrant sends part of his earnings to his village of origin.
- (3) Seasonal migrations, generally involving agricultural workers from poor and over-populated areas towards the richer areas where there is a shortage of labour. These migrations are frequently observed in West Africa and their effect is beneficial to the rural community; cash returns for the country of origin, apprenticeship in new cultural methods, exchange of ideas, factors of progress, etc.

C.—The Indigenous Sense of Community and its Significance

The sense of community in native groups is unanimously stressed as a primary economic and social factor of African and Madagascan rural life. The weakening of custom, observed nearly everywhere, has fortunately not resulted in the disappearance of a tribal sense of community. Even in communities in the process of detribalisation, we find that the duty of mutual assistance has survived among individuals belonging to the same group. This sense of community presents aspects both of an economic nature, such as compulsory agricultural work for the group, and of a social nature, when the individual is responsible for assisting other members of his group. This sense of community is so strong among certain populations that it gives rise to various forms of mutual assistance or to social

and economic organisations based on mutual aid between individuals belonging to the same age-group.

From the point of view of a policy of rural welfare, we are primarily concerned with the fact that this survival of a sense of community makes it possible, in rural areas, to introduce new institutions calling for such a sense and capable of adpting existing conditions to modern methods.

D.—The Ecomonic Factor

This is an important element in rural welfare. Two questions arise:

- 1. What resources are at present available to the African rural community?
- 2. Can African agricultural productivity achieve an improvement in the rural standard of living?

On the first point, there seems to be a measure of agreement. Traditional African economy was, and still is, to a certain extent, a subsistence economy to meet the food requirements of a family. It should be born in mind that under-feeding or malnutrition are one of the features of Africa, preventing the improvement of rural welfare. The improvement of agricultural methods, the advent of new needs and of an economic motivation have undoubtedly caused considerable progress, and nearly everywhere we can observe an evolution from subsistence economy towards profit economy. The question arises, however: To what extent has this evolution brought wealth to the African rural populations? In other words, what are the average income and budget of the African farming family? Surveys conducted in a number of territories show that these incomes vary considerably from one area to another, from poor agricultural areas to areas of industrial crops. The reports show average family incomes varying from 8,000 francs to 30,000 francs per annum. Seen from the point of view of more developed countries these incomes may appear extremely low. But it should be noted, on the one hand, that this level is higher than that of many populations in Asia, and, on the other, that no extrapolation or comparison is possible with the standard of living of European or American farmers; it is not even possible to make a comparison between the income of the African farmer and that of the African townsman. It should be noted that African rural populations, to a large extent, consume a great part of their production, and that this production meets the essential requirements of the family: food and houses. Cash income is therefore spent on low-priced additional items. Figures relating to agricultural

income have no relation to those of the townsman who is obliged to meet all these needs from his cash income. The problem is therefore mainly one of balance between population level and agricultural level. Should the increase in population which is observed everywhere as a result of medical efforts be not followed by an increase in agricultural production, it is to be feared that rural welfare will diminish.

* * *

The second question arises here: can rural work in Africa be intensified in relation to the greater needs arising from a higher standard of living? This is really a problem of agricultural productivity, and it is a complex problem. The African farmer must obviously increase his productivity if he is to satisfy his new needs, which nowadays exceed internal consumption, and improve his well-being. But is it possible to increase productivity? Certain factors have a beneficial effect in this respect: the advent of new needs encouraging the farmer to make greater efforts in order to obtain further resources, technical progress, the establishment by governments of an economic substructure to facilitate human efforts. On the other hand, there are factors that inhibit productivity: in the first place the limits imposed on physical effort by an inadequate diet; in the second place, the traditional frame of mind of the African who considers as superfluous any activity beyond that necessary to cover his essential needs; finally, the use of new methods and mechanical processes which may increase the productivity resulting from available financial resources, and adequate agricultural training, which are generally lacking.

In view of limitations imposed on productivity any change from traditional food crops to industrial cash crops may result in an increase in export crops and a decrease in food crops; this may bring about an increase in the cash income of rural populations but the question arises whether it will increase their standard of living if their additional income is to be spent on buying at a high price food products that they produced themselves in the past. The problem can be considered in the light of experience in certain territories.

Finally, it is not certain that additional monetary resources will necessarily be spent on meeting fundamental social requirements. Will they not be rather spent on superfluous or even undesirable purposes, in no way contributing to the improvement of rural welfare? That is a problem of education and adaptation of the rural population which could usefully be discussed at Tananarive.

II. Social Development of the Rural Community

In view of the diversity of concepts and methods in the field of rural welfare and of the fact that certain delegations have not submitted documents on the subject, we have found it difficult to determine common views and felt that there was no point in submitting concepts that would not represent the unanimous opinion of all participants. We thought it would be better to present a regional summary of reports received, thus providing the Tananarive Conference with a suitable basis for discussion which might then lead to the adoption of unanimous recommendations.

§ I.—General Rural Welfare Policy and Objectives

The objectives of a rural welfare policy are threefold:

- 1. To improve production and increase the farmer's resources in order to raise his standard of living.
- 2. To change the rural set-up in such a manner as to stabilise it by providing the minimum of facilities available in urban areas.
- 3. To undertake the social education of rural populations, alongside any economic and technical action, in order to adapt such population to the new standards arising from progress.

The implementation of such a policy entails a variety of efforts, as stressed by the Lourenço Marques Conference:

(a) an intensified effort of technical and financial assistance on the part of governments to help rural populations who lack the necessary fundamental elements of their own betterment. This includes:

an extension of the programmes of financial assistance already undertaken by all governments, in various ways, to build up the necessary economic and social structure;

the development of technical, economic and social action in favour of the rural populations, to improve their health by means of continued efforts to control epidemic and endemic diseases, to ensure the protection of mothers and young children, to improve housing and methods of cultivation, to provide education, etc.

(b) an effort on the part of the farmers themselves to achieve progress, through the technical and financial assistance offered by the governments, but that he will only undertake

if he acquires a sense of responsibility,

if, having understood the objectives and, being convinced that they are in his own interest he contributes conscientiously and willingly to the implementation of the proposed programme;

if he is allowed to use his own initiative and, if, abandoning a passive attitude of dependency on government assistance, he adopts the habit of taking effective initiative.

This effort will generally be obtained only by slow and patient social education.

. . .

As these two trends converge, so are all governments in Africa faced with a number of problems:

- (a) the great difficulty is to determine the extent these two forms of activity should be given. Some policies require greater effort on the part of the State; others lay greater stress on the initiative of rural communities. In fact, apart from different concepts arising from different political systems, existing conditions impose a variety of methods on the social plane: the part played by the State, on the one hand, and by personal initiative on the other, must necessarily vary with the degree of evolution of the population. Generally speaking, among the more advanced populations on the coast of the Gulf of Guinea, it is possible to obtain a large measure of co-operation and initiative from the people concerned. Among the savannah populations, or among those further north along the coast, a passive attitude is often encountered and the government must take the initiative at the outset and provide a larger measure of effort in order to obtain results. Thus, between the organisation of "paysannats", at one extreme, and that of co-operative societies for rural production or community development schemes, at the other, including modernised rural communities, the re-settlement of people in villages, and co-operative societies, a number of schemes exist for the improvement of rural welfare. They differ mainly in the greater or lesser part played by the State and by the communities themselves, respectively.
- (b) Governments are faced with another problem in the attainment of the various objectives, i.e. the internal co-ordination of government

efforts in the economic and social fields and the linking up of such coordinated efforts with those other communities. This has given rise to a policy of widespread schemes, often applied to a whole area and calling upon financial, technical, economic and social means, on the part of the State and on that of the rural communities, to implement a policy of co-ordinated rural development.

The difficulty resides in the specialised and the individual character of methods and sometimes also in the fact that technical factors take precedence over human requirements.

* * *

We shall now consider the information received on rural activities, from a regional point of view:

Portugal

There are three aspects to the policy of improvement of rural living conditions: health, economic and social.

1. Health policy: the objective of this is mainly:

the improvement of housing, to provide adequate conditions of health and comfort;

providing sanitary facilities (at least rudimentary) as a protection against contagious diseases;

supply of drinking water for domestic uses, in view of the risk of contamination from marshes, lakes, rivers, containing vectors of diseases such as bilharzia and amibiasis;

stricter measures in the prophylactic and health fields, already achieved to some extent by government departments and private enterprise.

2. Economic policy: (improvement of economic conditions of native communities)

The main objectives are:

the permanent establishment of rural families on the land and the choice of crops suitable to the various areas;

the demonstration of farming practice in pilot undertakings;

the use of selected seeds, the introduction of new crops and the intensification of production in respect of existing crops;

the improvement of farming methods (agricultural equipment, watering, fertilisers);

the conservation of seeds and food products (construction of silos);

the introduction of fruit trees;

the protection of animal husbandry and use of cattle for cultivation (draught-animals);

the improvement of output among farm workers (whether cultivating their own land or working for an employer);

the establishment of small industries (use of wind and water as sources of energy);

the fixing of remunerative prices and guaranteeing the sale of surplus cash crops.

3. Social policy: (improvement of social conditions)

The objective of this is:

to assist mothers and young children;

to provide formal and moral education;

to create rural institutions, friendly societies and co-operative societies; to provide sports grounds, to organise sports clubs or art centres.

United Kingdom

British territories in Africa are generally dependent on rural economy and the greater part of population lives in rural areas.

Nowadays, the change from a subsistence economy to a profit economy, the development and extension of the economy, as well as of politics and social services (particularly in the fields of education and health) and, finally, the influence of Western culture have had a considerable influence on the situation and have brought about a weakening of traditional customs and tribal authority.

Migrations towards the towns has also affected the life of rural communities. Africa has many needs but these must be taken in relation to purchasing power if any useful purpose is to be served.

All territories are undergoing a process of social development, accelerated by outside forces. Changes are inevitable owing to the rapid economic development during the last twenty years and also since the last war, owing to the extension of political institutions and of the rising waves of national feeling.

In all African territories, the social structure of the rural community is considerably affected by the demand for labour (drift towards urban centres). Serious consideration has been given to the vital problems of labour and numerous experiments have been conducted to determine the incentives capable of producing an increase in agricultural production.

The advantages of economic development, the value and the wise use of social services are not always apparent to the greater part of the African populations. Properly balanced development in the economic, political and social fields presents considerable difficulties. The problem of rural welfare must therefore be considered, taking into account this potential evolution on the economic and social planes.

Henceforth, in rural communities, welfare is no longer merely a question of material standard of living. The greatest difficulty resides in the need to damp the effects of progress and to take steps to ensure that development schemes will not adversely affect social stability.

Rural populations must be encouraged to take an active part in development schemes. It is possible that understanding may only arise from collective action. We are confronted with a human problem: how to influence the heart and mind of each man and woman in order that they may work together for the common good and draw the full benefit of economic development.

Kenya

In Kenya, the whole Government policy aims at promoting a general improvement of the standard of living of the population, by means of a gradual improvement of agricultural methods, since the whole economy of the country is based on agriculture.

At present the effort to change African farming into a profitable form of agriculture consists in bringing dispersed farms together in order to obtain greater efficiency (Swynnerton Plan).

At the same time, thanks to the establishment of a local government, the populations are more and more interested in their own development.

The education programme teaches the people to take responsibilities towards the development of the territory.

Northern Rhodesia

The general trend in the field of rural welfare is in keeping with the conclusions of the Ashridge Conference (1954) on Social Development, particularly in respect of the establishment of a special service for Community Development.

The general objective of this trend is to improve the conditions of the populations as part of the community. This objective is achieved by the implementation of schemes prepared by the authorities, by encouraging personal initiative and by helping the populations to put into practice their own ideas, when these are of value.

The policy in this field aims essentially:

at applying uniform methods of work in rural areas (demonstrations by provincial development teams);

at organising a campaign to explain the objects of administrative or technical policy; this organisation constitutes the main feature of a policy to explain to the populations the nature and the scope of the assistance placed at the disposal of these African populations for their economic and social development;

at the active participation of the population, which must be encouraged to make personal efforts; such participation will eventually become initiative on their part;

at the encouragement of every initiative on the part of the populations in all practical undertakings.

Southern Rhodesia

Rural Welfare policy is based in the first place on the development of improved agricultural methods and on the extension of a form of land tenure which aims at instilling in the people a sense of personal responsibility for their land, individual units being grouped into agricultural communities with a deep attachment to the soil and free to choose their own mode of life. This policy has given good results by stabilising rural populations, by introducing a sense of responsibility and bringing about a marked improvement in production.

In the second place, this policy is based on persuasive action and community development, encouraging the populations to adapt themselves to new modes of life, action which is based on industrial work and group work, as well as on the co-operation of a number of specialists.

Uganda

Social development of rural areas has been entrusted to a special Department of Community Development, set up in 1952. A sum of £500,000, provided by the African Development Fund, has been set aside for the implementation of a five-year plan, 1953-57. The object of this policy is to provide assistance to the population and to ensure its active participation in the programmes designed for the betterment of their economic and social conditions.

The Government of Uganda attaches great importance to this policy, which is based on:

an improved concept, among farmers, of a new and better mode of life, and the encouragement of their participation in welfare programmes;

a better understanding of their responsibilities, on the part of the populations;

the adaptation of populations to modern conditions.

Madagascar

In Madagascar, the action in rural areas takes the form of an intervention by the public authorities among the village communities, in order to assist their economic and social development, by methods and means adapted to traditional structures. The economic aspect of this action does not lose sight of the more urgent forms of social development (development of education and of health measures).

The object of rural welfare policy is to improve the standard of living by increasing production and productivity, but it is also necessary to synchronise action in the economic and social fields in order to ensure economic and social co-ordination.

Economic action was limited at first to one community: the autochthonous rural community (C.A.R.), or modernised autochthonous rural community (C.R.A.M.), but was then gradually extended to a group of communities; it is part, however, of a pre-existing substructure: the Fokonolona, which included all the families of a village, practising collective mutual assistance.

It was thus possible, from the outset, to impart a collective aspect to rural action and to pass easily from Fokonolona to C.A.R. and C.R.A.M. without any basic change in the traditional structure of the Madagascan community.

French West Africa

The population of French West Africa (as that of most other African territories) is essentially rural (80 to 85%). French West Africa devotes its main efforts to the development of agricultural production and to the improvement of the living conditions of rural populations. It gives priority to any action that will bring about the rapid development of rural economy and raise the standard of living of these populations.

The FIDES Plan aims at forming an agricultural population, enlightened, conscious of its economic standing, desirous of increasing its productivity. It endeavours to destroy the prejudice that agriculture is a lower form of occupation, and aims at creating, or re-creating, a class of truly advanced agricultural workers. Such development will be achieved not only by providing a minimum of formal education and of social and economic education, but also by making use of the increased knowledge, foresight, attachment to the land and progressive outlook on the part of the population. To do this, it is necessary to keep the younger generation on the land and to prevent the drift from rural to urban centres.

The problem of development of rural welfare is first and foremost a problem of education but, in solving it, care must be taken not to disrupt customs and social organisations.

The training of agricultural workers calls for the establishment of

agricultural training centres, for an increase in the number and improvement in the quality, of agricultural extension services, a greater effort at agricultural education and an adaptation of means available to primary education to the needs of rural populations.

The problem is therefore, essentially, to prevent the drift of the younger generation towards urban centres and to resettle detribalised populations in a rural environment, thus bringing them back from urban areas where they were unable to earn a living.

In order to achieve this double object, it is not sufficient to improve production and working conditions, it is also necessary, above all, to provide these rural populations with proper living conditions (water-supply, sanitation for the villages, improved housing, better hygiene and health services).

Conclusion: action for the improvement of rural welfare must result in the creation of an evolved agricultural class, conscious of the important part it plays in the community. By means of funds properly used to that end, help should be given to those who are prepared to help themselves, by taking steps to improve hygiene, to fight under-production and ignorance. The agricultural worker must become conscious of his interests and communities must have a better understanding of the responsibilities they will have in the future (maintenance of agricultural and other equipment).

French Equatorial Africa

Until a few years ago the main consideration was the poverty of French Equatorial Africa. Large schemes undertaken after the Second World War led to a concentration of means in the towns, to the detriment of agricultural and rural economy.

Action in rural areas was also affected by the lack of uniformity of economic and social structures throughout the territory.

The main objects of this action are:

to settle the population on good agricultural land;

to create new sources of income, to introduce rich crops in systems of rotation, to encourage animal husbandry and fish-farming;

to introduce a system of annual crops in order to establish a lasting bond between man and soil:

to improve rural collective institutions;

to ensure full employment of rural populations in order to stem the drift towards the towns.

It was therefore necessary that efforts in the agricultural and economic field should take precedence over social equipment. A start had to be made by educating the population. Other means were then brought into

action, such as: development of villages, improvement of housing, construction of schools and dispensaries, after having determined the areas most suitable for a concentration of activity.

These pilot development units were called "paysannats". They are now the focal point of technical means capable of achieving a better standard of living and a stabilisation of the population. The "paysannats" are therefore the basis of any agricultural activity requiring the use of a number of technical methods.

§ 2.—Methods

Whereas the objectives of African rural welfare are the same everywhere, the methods applied vary from one country to another. We can briefly discriminate between multivalent systems and differential systems.

A.—Multivalent Systems

(1)—Fundamental Education

This expression, first used by U.N.E.S.C.O., covers a form of action to instill among under-developed and uneducated populations, a number of concepts, from elementary literacy to those concerned with the field of material and moral life: hygiene, housing, methods of cultivation, nutrition, water supplies, etc., and thus enable them to achieve progress by their own efforts. Fundamental education started from this obvious observation: the most costly substructures, the most extensive financial assistance, the best technical means, do not suffice to ensure the true development of the rural populations if these remain apathetic, attached to outdated concepts, and are neither prepared nor able to undertake the effort without which there can be no real progress.

But the expression leads to confusion: it might be thought that the main concern was a process of adult education in some way related to other formal education and that this should be the responsibility of educationists. In many countries, this mistake was confirmed by the feet that fundamental education was entrusted to Education Departments.

In view of the general objectives of fundamental education, this could neither be a kind of education on the cheap to fill the gaps of formal education nor the exclusive responsibility of educationists. In fact, as originally conceived, it included two very different elements: (1) the elementary education of illiterate populations, (2) social education in the widest sense, covering both the rural and civic fields (to make the populations conscious of their responsibilities and of the need for personal effort to improve their conditions), and technical education (to give the rural populations the necessary practical knowledge for the improvement of their material and

moral conditions: hygiene, housing, etc.). This represented a multipurpose education, a regular policy affecting both the economic and social aspects of rural life. Elementary education may be the responsibility of educationists, but social education can only be given by specialised technicians working as co-ordinated teams.

Be this as it may, this mistake seems to have weighed heavily on experiments in fundamental education carried out in British and French territories in Africa. It may be interesting to consider and compare these experiments at the Tananarive Conference, and to draw the lesson, be it positive or negative.

Apart from elementary teaching implied in fundamental education, the problem of agricultural education in rural primary schools and its adaptation to environmental requirements arises within the framework

of multi-purpose education.

(2)—Community development:

This title is given to various activities aiming at the improvement of Rural Welfare. The "community development" policy, which is of British origin, has been extensively applied in African territories under British influence, and received, in effect, its official recognition at the Ashridge Conference. International organisations, the Social committee and the Economic and Social Council in particular, also made it an important point on the agenda of their 1957 session. The definition of the principles on which community or social development is based shows that the following forms of action correspond to the objectives of this policy:

(1) free and conscious association of governmental and community effort;

(2) the widest possible initiative on the part of these communities in defining their aspirations;

(3) the ultimate taking-over by the communities of the management of their own affairs;

(4) the retention of forms of institutions or traditional governments when these show ability to adapt themselves;

(5) the widest possible use of voluntary help;

(6) concerted action in the economic and social fields.

In most territories, completed projects are to be found corresponding in greater or lesser degree to this definition. In this connection, the report of the mission of international experts, under the leadership of Mr. Belshaw, which visited Africa South of the Sahara in 1956, contains some extremely interesting comments.

There is, however, no doubt that it is in the British territories that "community development", as a general policy, has been most widely applied.

One of the principal aims of British policy in the field of Rural Welfare has been to build a self-sufficient community with a sense of social responsibility. The establishment of such communities should result in a general improvement of the material conditions of existence, but this improvement is considered as a means rather than an end in community development, the final objective being to guide colonial territories towards responsible self-government within the framework of the Commonwealth.

Community development in British territories is founded mainly on a new relationship with the authorities. Communities are encouraged to demand, and then to carry out, with the financial and technical assistance of the Government, a development programme corresponding to their needs. This programme is many-sided (agriculture, health, public services, education, entertainments, adult education, improvement of family life, etc.), and must aim at creating a feeling of individual and collective responsibility. Great importance is attached to the education of women and young people.

This community development method is still in the experimental stage, but should later become, as is already the case in Ghana, a popular force and movement which will transform the life and mental outlook of the population.

In Northern Rhodesia: the establishment of communities is entrusted to Area and Provincial Development teams, and, at territorial level, to the Commissioner for Rural Development.

The Area training centres are particularly concerned with instilling in individuals the new principles which will enable them to evolve. These centres are the instruments of the area teams, enabling the African authorities to be represented alongside all Government departments concerned with community development.

(3)—Re-settlement villages

Another multivalent method is to be found in the Re-settlement villages more especially in the forests of Gabon and the Sahelian area of Chad, where the population is scattered, and is unable to organise itself into communities.

After inquiry, and at the request of the inhabitants, the Government is establishing, with the help of those concerned, and on a favourable site, an economic and social substructure to serve as a starting-point for a village community and collective action.

In the report received from the French Equatorial African authorities,

this multivalent method is dealt with in the chapter on "paysannats", which we shall examine later, with differentiated methods based on specialised systems.

B.—Differential systems

(1)—Types of Economic Units

It is mainly in the economic field that rural action is most effective as regards all the material needs of man (improvement in diet, productivity, housing, water-supply, health).

(a) "Paysannat" and rural modernisation units

With this method, Government participation is predominant. The authorities establish the agricultural substructure, provide housing and parcel out the land. They establish farmers locally, with their agreement, on a new basis and within a new framework, where they can organise themselves economically.

Personal participation is limited to the effort freely given for the achievement of technical and economic improvements. It is on this basis that are organised, for instance, the Colonisation Agricole of the Office du Niger in French Sudan, the agricultural modernisation areas in French Cameroons, the "paysannats" in French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa, the Portuguese "paysannats" in Angola and Mozambique, and the "paysannats" in the Belgian Congo.

This method is specially suitable for poor regions, with limited means, and where the population lacks initiative.

In French West Africa, help for the farmer is provided in several forms, in particular by means of loans granted by the Crédit Agricole. The Caisse du Crédit Agricole includes in its zone of action all sectors of agricultural economy: it helps to finance the establishment of stocks of foodstuffs and seed, the sale and processing of products, the purchase of farm equipment and implements. It grants loans to private individuals for the development of their holdings.

To be effective, however, the help given by the Crédit Agricole must be related to the technical supervision of producers, so that the latter may extend their planting and increase productivity.

Finally, there are two other ways of improving the material position of the farmer:

either by improving production conditions, in order to increase his purchasing power;

or by influencing the cost of the goods and services available to him, in order to raise his standard of living.

In the former case, the aim is to obtain better crops, and to sell them at the highest possible prices, by the following means:

changes in the system of land-tenure;

improvement of farm equipment and methods of cultivation (use of draught-animals, or mechanisation);

improvement in land utilisation methods.

In the second case (cost of goods and services), action is mainly apparent in the following sectors:

housing (village drainage schemes, town-planning, services and land-development, housing loans, economical house-building); African housing involves two basic problems: space and shelter. The traditional dried earth (or "banco") hut must be made more durable and more comfortable (development of economical materials); the organisation of African job-workers for the construction of dwellings in the bush;

pastoral and domestic water-supply; river and agricultural hydraulics; transport and communications.

In French Equatorial Africa, about forty "paysannats" have been established, with more than 100,000 inhabitants, In GABON, five "paysannats" have been set up, with crop-development programme (cocoa and coffee).

In MIDDLE CONGO, the development of the NIARI valley has enabled more advanced "paysannats" to be established, with mechanical cultivation. Small individual farms have also been established to meet the desires of the local population.

In UBANGUI, the different types of "paysannats" reflect the varied nature of the Territory. In the cotton zone, the aim is to extend the area under cultivation by the use of machinery and intensive methods of soil conservation and regeneration. At the same time, the dwellings, scattered over the plots of land, have been concentrated into villages, to maintain community life.

In Chap, efforts have been aimed at saving land in danger of being worked out through over-cultivation (Mayo-Kebbi and Logone). Improvement was achieved by the use of manure, draught-animals and extensive cultivation.

In Madagascar, "paysannat" sectors have been established, in the shape of experimental centres aiming at applying, over a maximum area

of 2,000 ha., all forms of technical and financial assistance likely to lead to increased production, and to raise the individual productivity of each farmer, by providing him with direct and personal assistance. Each sector has a sector-head who is technically multivalent.

* * *

In Angola, an experiment was made, in 1950, aiming at establishing the African permanently on the land by the creation of "paysannats", with a view to raising living standards. Results have been encouraging. By means of "paysannats", attempts are being made to create a rural population working the land under more favourable conditions and adopting improved techniques. The concentration of the inhabitants makes it easier to enable a larger number of individuals to benefit from technical, social and sanitary improvements, and to persuade them to give up the semi-nomadic type of agriculture. These "paysannats" are provided with technical staff.

In Mozambique, fifty agricultural irrigation schemes have been completed, enabling the inhabitants to settle on fertile and well-watered lands.

In Portuguese Guinea, extensive areas of arable land ("BOLANHAS") are being won back from the sea, on which African families can be settled and rice-growing started.

In Northern Rhodesia, each Government department implements its own programme, for which it is responsible, and which aims at supplying the means of increasing the production of marketable produce in the rural areas and to supply the market.

In the rural areas, production includes farming, stock-breeding and fishing produce. The term "paysannat" is used to indicate agricultural establishments under supervision, producing cash crops, such as are to be found in the Belgian Congo. In the field of animal husbandry, little has been done so far to organise and to modernise this type of farming.

With regard to fishing, mention should be made of the fisheries organised on lake Mweru, including the provision of ice-factories and the building of a training-ship. This is an excellent example of a specialised type of modernisation.

(b) Provident societies .

This type of organisation has been developed to some extent in the French territories. They form an initial attempt at collective organisation. They are to be found all over French West Africa, French Equatorial

Africa, the French Cameroons and Togo. There are 110 at the present time in French West Africa. They have been criticised for their over-insistence on administrative control, but this disadvantage may be explained by the fact that at the time of their establishment, the African peasant was disinclined to play any active role.

They have, nevertheless, rendered very useful services, and, in a period of transition, have shown themselves to be excellent training-grounds for economic co-operation. They have helped to open the way from a subsistence economy to an export economy.

Each Provident Society is managed by a board of governors which includes representatives of the communities and of the tribal chiefs, and is supplied with funds by contributions from the members of the rural communities. Provident Societies are organised to further the development of production and to defend producers' interests. Their task, which is an important one, is to develop Rural Welfare.

They have undeniable achievements to their credit. They have helped to abolish shortages and to develop certain crops; they have helped with locust control and other control measures against pests affecting crops and animal husbandry, and with the development of wells.

Nevertheless, they have been the subject of criticism, on the grounds that their management was undemocratic and that too much initiative was left in the hands of the Government and too little with the Boards of Governors.

(c) Autochthonous production societies

A similar, but improved, economic formula to that of the Provident Societies. (The community has greater initiative, and the co-operative idea is already apparent). These societies have sponsored extension work on farming techniques and on the sale of produce. They have helped with rural housing (training of rural craftsmen) and the development of fisheries.

They recall, in many respects, the co-operative societies of Ceylon.

(d) Autochthonous rural communities (C.A.R.)

Modernised autochthonous rural communities (C.R.A.M.) Rural townships

Economic action, in a form peculiar to Madagascar, and initially confined to a single community, has progressively extended itself to a sector and later to a group of communities.

It originally started, however, from an existing social substructure, the Fokonolona, which grouped the families of a village and traditionally practised collective mutual help. It was thus possible, from the beginning, to give rural action a collective form, and transition was easy from the Fokonolona to the C.A.R. and the C.R.A.M. (now known as rural townships), without any fundamental change in the traditional structure of Madagascan society.

These rural communities were organised in order to develop in MADA-GASCAR the active participation of rural communities in their own economic and social betterment. There are at present 176 groups of this type in Madagascar.

At a higher level, the Rural Township forms a group of several communities, but it never dissociates them. Before any practical action is taken, a survey by social experts of both the customs and usages of the community, as well as of its needs and aspirations, is recommended.

This is an excellent way of guiding the activities of the villagers. The action undertaken can then be adapted to local conditions. On this social basis, the new communities were given the simplest possible organisation and management structure. Each community has a board of management (re-elected every five years).

A decree dated 21st November, 1955, provides for the reorganisation of the rural communities.

Under the supervision of the head of the district, the board deals with the raising of agricultural, pastoral and forestry production. It also deals with any questions relating to co-operation and agricultural credit within the framework of the community. It aims at helping the Madagascan peasant to raise himself above his present level, by encouraging him to show personal effort and initiative.

(e) Rural production friendly societies (S.M.P.R.)

This economic formula no doubt marks the most advanced stage on the road of economic development of rural communities, by calling on the personal efforts and initiative of the peasants themselves. It forms the basis of a true African democracy. Members are represented on a basis combining both traditional and democratic principles. The farmers play a full and effective part in the management of their interests.

The S.M.P.R. is not a co-operative, but it provides the framework in which co-operative societies are able to develop, and these may become collective members of the S.M.P.R. It ensures the proper planning and implementation of production programmes, the processing, standardisation and marketing of produce, the provision of credit and the training of its own managerial staff.

The S.M.P.R. offers a perfect framework for co-operation with the authorities. The rural population has given it an enthusiastic reception and it appears to meet the needs of community development.

* * *

(f) Rural development friendly societies (S.M.D.R.)

The S.M.D.R. movement extends to the other French territories of Africa the S.M.P.R. methods so successfully tried in French West Africa. These are production groups, combining the advantages of the S.M.P.R. with much greater financial resources.

(g) Mutual aid and co-operative societies

The British concept

In a traditional self-contained economy, contractual forms (whether simple or complex) "adapt themselves naturally to the normal behaviour of individuals and are able to adapt themselves to fresh circumstances and to develop simultaneously with the social group which gave them birth".

But as the economic circuit gradually extends, with the appearance of export crops, different circumstances arise, owing to the fact that people receive the money which is the fruit of their labours. The old methods of barter disappear and fresh needs spring up.

It is therefore necessary to conceive organisations which will soften

the impact of the new commercial economy.

In many under-developed countries, changes occur in the field of agriculture, individual activity becomes greater, and new crops (sometimes requiring processing) are introduced.

Traditional forms of co-operation do not appear to be adaptable, and new organisations, in the shape of co-operatives, must be set up to include the whole village, rather than merely a particular social group within the village.

Kenya.—The development of African areas is receiving continually greater encouragement. A Co-operative Department exists, and Co-operative Societies are the basis of much of the processing and marketing of agricultural produce.

Northern Rhodesia.—The primitive African economy is based on barter. The village is the social unit upon which is built a form of co-operation, extending to groups of villages and to the tribe as a whole. A group of villages (farmers or fishermen) may establish a fund to serve as a basis for suitable co-operative organisation (Petauke Co-operative Marketing Union).

Results are excellent in areas where there are good lands, good crops or suitable fishing waters, that is, when the co-operative is based on natural units. On the other hand, co-operatives based on artificial units (European working areas) have sometimes failed.

One of the problems of rural economic development is to find markets for the entire production (rice, maize).

Portugal.—In the Portuguese Territories, the co-operatives are essentially agricultural. They are mainly concerned with soil conservation, the collective use of agricultural machinery, the raising of the output per unit, the marketing of produce at more remunerative prices. The African has an inborn feeling for mutual help. Co-operative experiments, based on this characteristic, are now proceeding. Results are encouraging.

In Mozambique, the establishment of co-operatives in agricultural areas (cotton-growing) is being tried in districts where the stability of the population facilitates this. Mechanised cultivation is being applied (owing to the ravages of tsetse, it is impossible to use draught-animals).

In Angola, the village organisation has many points in common with the co-operative system. The Government is encouraging, in the cottongrowing areas, the establishment of agricultural co-operative societies for cotton planting. They should be able to extend their activities to other fields, with beneficial effects on living standards.

French Territories.—The reforms drawn up in connection with the Outline Law (Loi-Cadre), aim at the democratisation of institutions and their decentralisation at Territorial and local community level, in order that the African masses may be associated with the management of their affairs.

The third FIDES Plan (1958–1962), based on agricultural development and the increase of rural productivity in the Oversea territories, provides guidance to the public services, at all levels, on the social realities of the bush.

The methods suggested comprise two basic ideas: the broadening of the scope of the friendly societies (which are becoming local rural development organisations), and the decentralisation of these friendly societies into basic communities, under responsible supervision.

The friendly society is responsible for executing the District Plan (that is, the plan covering all schemes undertaken in favour of the "paysannat" in a given administrative area. It undertakes the co-ordination

of the tasks to be carried out). It is formed of a group of farmers, under Government supervision. It is important to associate the farmers with the work undertaken to make them the owners or managers of the works to be undertaken or of the organisations to be set up.

(2)—Social Organisations

Cultural Clubs and Rural Social Centres

Together with economic development, it is also necessary to ensure the rapid advancement of the rural population in the social field. The documents mention two main methods: Cultural Clubs and Social Centres.

French Territories

There are about thirty cultural clubs in French Equatorial Africa and about 170 in French West Africa, where they are very popular and become daily more numerous. Their purpose is to provide "evolved" Africans with a place for relaxation and recreation, where they can practice sports and games; to provide these advanced Africans with possibilities for improving their knowledge by reading, or attending lectures, educational films, or plays; and to provide a meeting-place where Africans and Europeans can achieve greater mutual understanding.

The cultural clubs provide a basis for any social education programme undertaken by the African élite in favour of the masses, and that is not their least important rôle in the field of Rural Welfare.

These clubs are built by the Government or by the Communities themselves. They are assisted by subsidies, by the supply of periodicals, educational films, books, games and musical instruments.

They are managed by the representatives of the various groups of Communities, and are inter-connected by liaison organisations ("Trait d'Union" in French West Africa, "Liaison" in French Equatorial Africa).

On the other hand, the "Social Centres", which are managed by trained or voluntary female social workers, are concerned with the social education of women. Unfortunately, there are still far too few of these centres.

British Territories

In most of the Territories, there are institutes known as "clubs", generally similar to the cultural clubs of the French Territories.

In Kenya, for instance, many community centres have been built, providing meeting-places for the various groups, and classes for women and adults in general. The missions have also built community centres (in Nairobi, for instance). This social activity appears to be aimed mainly at urban centres.

Cultural clubs have also been established in all parts of the Territory, thanks to the development of education. The Government has appointed a Colony Sports Officer, and a Colony Drama and Music Officer. Sport, drama and music form an intrinsic part of African life and are being preserved and expanded.

In Northern Rhodesia, Area Training Centres teach useful trades (carpentry, bricklaying, etc.), and also stimulate among the community a consciousness of the possibilities for the improvement of living standards. These centres teach housekeeping and cookery to women. They give film shows and have libraries, reading-rooms and recreation rooms.

Rural areas also have community halls which the local community uses for recreational purposes. It may be said that such centres are used as "cultural clubs" and for the organisation of leisure.

In a few cases, the population showed no interest whatsoever. In others, these centres are mainly used for drinking and dancing.

It would seem that more urgent matters, such as agricultural and economic development, or adult education, would be more likely to further Rural Welfare.

Portuguese Territories

There are so far no cultural clubs in the backward rural areas, that is, outside the more advanced urban areas.

The "Paysannats", villages and rural concentrations everywhere form the substructure on which the progress of African society is based.

When people are thus grouped in a community, progress ensues in the shape of the exchange of services, the division of labour and mutual aid.

On the island of San Tome, an initial batch of five villages (with five more to come) has been built for the rural population. Each village (of 4,000 inhabitants) will have its civic centre. A school, a dispensary, a church, a market, a cultural club with a recreation room, a library and a café are to be provided.

Provision is also made, in these villages, for sports grounds, permanent roads with drains, drinking-water supply and electric light.

. . .

In the present synthesis of reports, in which methods and systems have been discussed in fairly general terms, it would be inappropriate to study in detail the means employed, as in any case such questions fall within the scope of the means and systems to be studied in detail at Tananarive, as provided in the agenda.

Conclusion

On reading the reports received, we are led to the conclusion that the problem of Rural Welfare in Black Africa forms a constant concern on the part of the governments represented at the Conference.

With methods and means differing in greater or lesser degree, according to regions and institutions, the governments responsible are working towards the same end: the improvement of the living standards of the African rural population.

This task consists basically of:

increasing agricultural production;

educating the rural masses in the economic and social fields;

encouraging and developing a feeling of responsibility among those masses.

Increased agricultural production depends on:

the improvement of farming methods (conservation and improvement of soils by means of fertilizers, irrigation and crop-rotation), and the use of improved farm equipment (use of draught-animals, or mechanisation).

the provision of technical services to advise and guide the African producer;

agricultural credit;

the evolution of the land tenure (progressive evolution from collective to individual holdings) in order to increase the strength and stability of the ties between the farmer and his land.

To form a basis for this agricultural development, it is first necessary to undertake a re-grouping of the rural inhabitants scattered through migration and detribalisation, often as a result of the working-out of the land, and to settle them on carefully selected lands, in attractive and healthy villages.

Concurrently with raising agricultural production, it is essential to implement an educational programme among the rural population in the economic and social fields, in order to improve the material and moral living-conditions of the farmer as well as to make him realise the personal responsibility and effort required to ensure his own advancement.

Such educational programmes are both a government concern (technical and Social Affairs departments) and the responsibility of private bodies (church missions, in particular). The co-ordination of the technical services is essential in the various sections of this many-sided educational programme. It is also necessary to co-ordinate economic and social action.

* * *

Finally, greater emphasis must be laid on collective initiative and effort. In this connection, experience acquired through "community development" can serve as an excellent basis for action.

The division of Africa into separate territories, and the diversity of situations occurring should exclude any dogmatic approach. Rural Welfare policy must take account of man's needs and adapt itself to the requirements of his evolution, while drawing lessons from experience. The Tananarive Conference can provide us with an excellent opportunity to pool our experience in the various countries of Africa and to use it to further the progress of the rural population.

INDEX

Angola, 51, 55

Community development, 14, 47 Coordination, 17, 22 Co-operatives, 16 Cultural clubs, 56

Differential systems, 49

Economy and economic factors, 11, 15, 21, 36 Economic units ("Paysannats", friendly societies, mutual aid and co-operative societies), 14, 49 Education, 15, 56

FIDES Plan, 55 France, 11, 30, 52 French Equatorial Africa, 45, 48, 50, 51, 56 French West Africa, 33, 44, 51, 54, 56 Fundamental education, 46

General policy, 14, 21, 28, 38, 39 Ghana, 11

Housing, 15

Inter-African Bureau on Rural Welfare, 29

Kenya, 42, 54, 56

Land tenure, 22

The Lourenço Marques Conference, 28

Madagascar, 12, 33, 44, 50, 52 Medical units, 15 Migration (effects of—), 33, 35 Mozambique, 51, 55 Multivalent systems, 46

Northern Rhodesia, 30, 42, 48, 51, 54, 57

Participation of the African people, 12, 21, 28, 39
Psychological factors, 15, 35
Portugal, 11, 30, 33, 40, 55, 57
Portuguese Guinea, 51

Research (sociological, economic and demographic), 12, 23

graphic), 12, 23 Re-settlement villages, 48 Rural communities, 11, 35

Social development, 28 Social organisations, 56 Social education work, 28 Southern Rhodesia, 11, 30, 43 Structure of rural society, 21, 32

Technical and financial assistance, 13, 28, 38 Technical services, 22

Uganda, 43 United Kingdom, 12, 30, 32, 33, 41, 54 Union of South Africa, 11

Voluntary bodies, 16

Women (the place of—), 11, 15, 21

C.C.T.A.

Secrétariat C.C.T.A./C.S.A. Secretariat C.C.T.A./C.S.A.

Europe Abbey House, 2-8, Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1

Afrique B.P. 949, Bukavu, Congo Belge

BUREAUX ET COMITÉS TECHNIQUES TECHNICAL BUREAUX AND COMMITTEES

Fondation pour l'Assistance Mutuelle en Afrique au Sud du Sahara
Foundation for Mutual Assistance in Africa South of the Sahara
C.C.T.A./C.S.A. Secretariat, Abbey House, 2-8, Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1.
Tel. Abbey 3020.

FONDS INTERAFRICAIN DE LA RECHERCHE

INTER-AFRICAN RESEARCH FUND

C.C.T.A./C.S.A. Secretariat, Abbey House, 2-8, Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1. Tel. Abbey 3920.

BUREAU INTERAFRICAIN DES SOLS ET DE L'ECONOMIE RURALE (B.I.S.)

INTER-AFRICAN BUREAU FOR SOILS AND RURAL ECONOMY (B.I.S.)

57, rue Cuvier, Paris Vo. Tél. Port Royal 36-25.

SERVICE PÉDOLOGIQUE INTERAFRICAIN (S.P.I.)

INTER-AFRICAN PEDOLOGICAL SERVICE (S.P.I.)

c/o I.N.E.A.C., Yangambi, Congo Belge,

COMMISSION PHYTO-SANITAIRE

PHYTO-SANITARY COMMISSION

c/o The Commonwealth Institute of Entomology, 56, Queen's Gate, London, S.W. 7, Tel. KNI 7501.

COMITÉ CONSULTATIF INTERAFRICAIN SUR LES EPIZOOTIES (I.A.C.E.D.)

INTER-AFRICAN ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON EPIZOOTIC DISEASES (I.A.C.E.D.)

Muguga, P.O. Kikuyu, Kenya.

BUREAU INTERAFRICAIN DES EPIZOOTIES (I.B.E.D.)

INTER-AFRICAN BUREAU FOR EPIZOOTIC DISEASES (I.B.E.D.)

Muguga, P.O. Kikuyu, Kenya.

Bureau Permanent Interafricain pour la Tsé-Tsé et la Trypanosomiase (B.P.I.T.T.) Tsetse Fly and Trypanosomiasis Permanent Inter-African Bureau (B.P.I.T.T.) c/o B.P. 557, Léopoldville, Congo Belge. Tél. 3388.

COMITÉ SCIENTIFIQUE INTERNATIONAL DE RECHERCHES SUR LES TRYPANOSOMIASES (I.S.C.T.R.)
INTERNATIONAL SCIENTIFIC COMMITTEE FOR TRYPANOSOMIASIS RESEARCH (I.S.C.T.R.)
C.C.T.A./C.S.A. Secretariat, Abbey House, 2-8, Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1.
Tel. Abbey 3920.

INSTITUT INTERAFRICAIN DU TRAVAIL (I.L.I.)

INTER-AFRICAN LABOUR INSTITUTE (I.L.I.)

B.P. 2019, Brazzaville, A.E.F. Tél. 32-80.

COMITÉ CONSULTATIF INTERAFRICAIN DU TRAVAIL

Inter-African Labour Advisory Committee

Comité Consultivo do Instituto Inter-Africano do Trabalho

c/o Ministério do Ultramar, Lisboa, Portugal.

COMITÉ INTERAFRICAIN POUR LES SCIENCES HUMAINES

INTER-AFRICAN COMMITTEE FOR SOCIAL SCIENCES

57, rue Cuvier, Paris Ve. Tél. Gobelins 71-98.

COMITÉ INTERAFRICAIN DU LOGEMENT

INTER-AFRICAN COMMITTEE ON HOUSING

c/o South African Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, P.O. Box 395, Pretoria, South Africa. Tel. 4-5931.

COMITÉ INTERAFRICAIN DES STATISTIQUES (C.I.E.)

Inter-African Committee on Statistics (C.I.E.)

Comissão Inter-Africana de Estatistica (C.I.E.)

c/o Secção de Relações Internacionais, Ministério do Ultramar, Apartado No. 20/52, Lisboa, Portugal.

COMITÉ INTERAFRICAIN SUR LA MÉCANISATION DE L'AGRICULTURE

INTER-AFRICAN COMMITTEE ON THE MECHANISATION OF AGRICULTURE

C.C.T.A./C.S.A. Secretariat, Abbey House, 2-8, Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1. Tel. Abbey 3920.

COMITÉ CONSULTATIF INTERAFRICAIN SUR LES CARTES ET LES SERVICES TOPOGRAPHIQUES INTER-AFRICAN ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON MAPS AND SURVEYS

C.C.T.A./C.S.A. Secretariat, Abbey House, 2-8, Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1. Tel. Abbey 3920.

COMITÉS RÉGIONAUX POUR LA CONSERVATION ET L'UTILISATION DU SOL

REGIONAL COMMITTEES FOR THE CONSERVATION AND UTILISATION OF THE SOIL

Afrique Méridionale - Southern Africa (S.A.R.C.C.U.S.)

P.O. Box 965, Pretoria, South Africa.

Afrique Occidentale — Western Africa (C.R.O.A.C.U.S.)

c/o Bureau des Sols, Dakar, Afrique Occidentale Française.

Afrique Orientale — Eastern Africa (C.R.E.A.C.U.S.)

c/o E.A.A.F.R.O., P.O. Box 21, Kikuyu, Kenya.

Afrique Centrale — Central Africa (C.R.A.C.C.U.S.)

c/o S.P.I., Yangambi, Congo Belge.

COMITÉS RÉGIONAUX POUR LA GÉOLOGIE

REGIONAL COMMITTEES FOR GEOLOGY

Ouest-Central - West-Central.

c/o Direction Générale des Mines et de la Géologie, Dakar, Afrique Occidentale Française.

Sud-Central — Southern-Central.

Est-Central - East-Central.

COMITÉ RÉGIONAL QUEST-AFRICAIN POUR LES EPIZOOTIES

WEST AFRICAN REGIONAL COMMITTEE ON EPIZOOTIC DISEASES

C.C.T.A./C.S.A. Secretariat, Abbey House, 2-8, Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1. Tel. Abbey 3920.

RÉSEAU DE CORRESPONDANT POUR L'ENSEIGNEMENT

PANEL OF EDUCATION CORRESPONDENTS

c/o C.C.T.A., Abbey House, 2-8, Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1. Tel. Abbey 3920.

RÉSEAU DE CORRESPONDANTS POUR LA NUTRITION

PANEL OF NUTRITION CORRESPONDENTS

P.O. Box 170, Pretoria, South Africa. Tel. 36158.

RÉSEAU DE CORRESPONDANTS POUR L'UTILISATION DES RADIO-ISOTOPES DANS L'AGRICULTURE PANEL OF CORRESPONDENTS FOR THE USE OF RADIO-ISOTOPES IN AGRICULTURE C/O B.I.S., 5, rue Cuvier, Paris V°.

RÉSEAU DE CORRESPONDANTS EN MATIÈRE D'INFORMATIONS ÉCONOMIQUES

Panel of Correspondents on Economic Information

c/o C.C.T.A. Secretariat, Abbey House, 2-8, Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1. Tel. Abbey 3920.

RÉSEAU DE CORRESPONDANTS POUR L'UTILISATION DES RADIO-ISOTOPES DANS LE DOMAINE MÉDICAL

PANEL OF CORRESPONDENTS FOR THE USE OF RADIO-ISOTOPES IN THE MEDICAL FIELD C/O B.P.I.T.T., B.P. 557, Léopoldville, Congo Belge.

RÉSEAU DE CORRESPONDANTS DANS LE DOMAINE DE LA SANTÉ MENTALE PANEL OF CORRESPONDENTS IN THE FIELD OF MENTAL HEALTH c/o B.P.I.T.T., B.P. 557, Léopoldville, Congo Belge.

RÉSEAU DE CORRESPONDANTS POUR L'UTILISATION DES RADIO-ISOTOPES DANS LE DOMAINE DES SCIENCES NATURELLES, DE LA CHIMIE ET DE L'INDUSTRIE

PANEL OF CORRESPONDENTS FOR THE USE OF RADIO-ISOTOPES IN THE FIELDS OF INDUSTRY, CHEMISTRY AND NATURAL SCIENCES

c/o C.C.T.A., Abbey House, 2-8 Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1. Tel. Abbey 3920.

CORRESPONDANT SCIENTIFIQUE INTERAFRICAIN POUR L'ANTHROPOLOGIE

Inter-African Scientific Correspondent for Anthropology

Prof. J. Hiernaux, Recteur de l'Université Officielle du Congo Belge et du Ruanda-Urundi, B.P. 1825, Elisabethville, Congo Belge.

CORRESPONDANT SCIENTIFIQUE INTERAFRICAIN POUR LA PROTECTION DES ARCHIVES INTER-AFRICAN SCIENTIFIC CORRESPONDENT FOR THE PROTECTION OF ARCHIVES

Mr. V. W. Hiller, Chief Archivist, Central Africa Archives, P.O. Box 8043, Causeway Salisbury, Southern Rhodesia.

CORRESPONDANT SCIENTIFIQUE INTERAFRICAIN POUR LA CLIMATOLOGIE

INTER-AFRICAN SCIENTIFIC CORRESPONDENT FOR CLIMATOLOGY

c/o University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa. Tel. 44-3781.

CORRESPONDANT SCIENTIFIQUE INTERAFRICAIN POUR LA GÉOLOGIE

INTER-AFRICAN SCIENTIFIC CORRESPONDENT FOR GEOLOGY

c/o South African Geological Survey, P.O. Box 401, Pretoria, South Africa.

CORRESPONDANT SCIENTIFIQUE INTERAFRICAIN POUR LE GÉOMAGNÉTISME INTER-AFRICAN SCIENTIFIC CORRESPONDENT FOR GEOMAGNETISM

Dr. P. Herrinck, Service météorologique et géophysique, Léopoldville, Binza, Congo Belge.

CORRESPONDANT SCIENTIFIQUE INTERAFRICAIN POUR L'HISTOIRE ET L'ETHNO-HISTOIRE INTER-AFRICAN SCIENTIFIC CORRESPONDENT FOR HISTORY AND ETHNO-HISTORY

Prof. Dr. Silva Rego, Instituto Superior de Estudos Ultramarinos, Lisboa, Portugal.

CORRESPONDANT SCIENTIFIQUE INTERAFRICAIN POUR L'IONOSPHÈRE INTER-AFRICAN SCIENTIFIC CORRESPONDENT FOR IONOSPHERE

c/o O.R.S.T.O.M., 47, bd des Invalides, Paris VIII.

CORRESPONDANT SCIENTIFIQUE INTERAFRICAIN POUR LES RAYONS COSMIQUES

INTER-AFRICAN SCIENTIFIC CORRESPONDENT FOR COSMIC RAYS

Prof. J. P. Andrews, Professor of Physics, Makerere College, Kampala, Uganda.

CORRESPONDANT SCIENTIFIQUE INTERAFRICAIN POUR LA SÉISMOLOGIE

INTER-AFRICAN SCIENTIFIC CORRESPONDENT FOR SEISMOLOGY

Prof. A. L. Hales, Director Bernard Price Institute of Geophysical Research, University of the Witwatersrand, Milner Park, Johannesburg.

CORRESPONDANT SCIENTIFIQUE INTERAFRICAIN POUR LES TESTS PSYCHOTECHNIQUES

INTER-AFRICAN SCIENTIFIC CORRESPONDENT FOR PSYCHOTECHNICAL TESTS

Dr. S. Biesheuvel, Director, National Institute for Personnel Research, P.O. Box 10319, Johannesburg, South Africa.

nique et scientifique en Af and Sentific Co-operation the Stephen Flustin is son Date of Publication 1/14

AFRICAN UNION UNION AFRICAINE

African Union Common Repository

http://archives.au.int

Organs

African Union Commission

1957

Rural Welfare: Inter-African Conference, 2nd Meeting

COMMISSION FOR TECHNICAL CO-OPERATION IN AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

http://archives.au.int/handle/123456789/2607

Downloaded from African Union Common Repository