The ancient enemies

OBJECTIVES IN THE WAR ON WANT

by Derek Walker

ONE SHILLING

FOREWORD

by the Right Hon. Hilary A. Marquand, P.C., D.Sc.

If we cannot free the world from war, mankind will soon destroy itself. To free the world from hunger is an essential necessity if we are to free it from war; for a world divided into rich nations growing richer and poor nations growing poorer cannot long remain at peace.

It is that thought which has inspired the Council for War on Want to help in creating a climate of opinion in Britain which will favour a far greater effort by our country than it has yet made to help the under-developed nations of the world in their battle against the continuing poverty of their peoples. We know full well that the opening campaign in that battle has been lost: for the gap in standard of living between the rich and the poor nations has not been diminished; it is still growing wider. But our experience in our efforts (small though they have so far been) to make known the extent and gravity of the problem makes us believe that the battle for men's minds is going well. There has been a dramatic response to the appeal to succour the Refugees. We on the Council have encountered an insistent demand from all over the country for more and more information about what needs to be done and how to do it.

The Exhibition which we staged in London in January, 1960, was our first response. This booklet is our second. It seeks to set out in simple language, without jargon and without a heavy burden of statistics, what the poverty of two-thirds of the world means, what an effective War on Want requires. We hope it will be used in schools, in study groups, in public meetings throughout the country. We hope its use will result in a rising demand upon all political parties, upon Parliament and upon our Government for action on the massive scale which is required. Individual charity, however worthy is not enough. Private trade and investment, however efficient, cannot do the job. World-wide action must be taken by the richer nations through their governments. In all humility we offer this booklet to the United Nations' campaign to Free the World from Hunger.

Published by

WAR ON WANT

THE CAMPAIGN AGAINST WORLD POVERTY

9 Madeley Road, London, W.5.

First published January, 1961

Reprinted April, 1961

Revised Edition May, 1963

The Ancient Enemies

Objectives in the War on Want

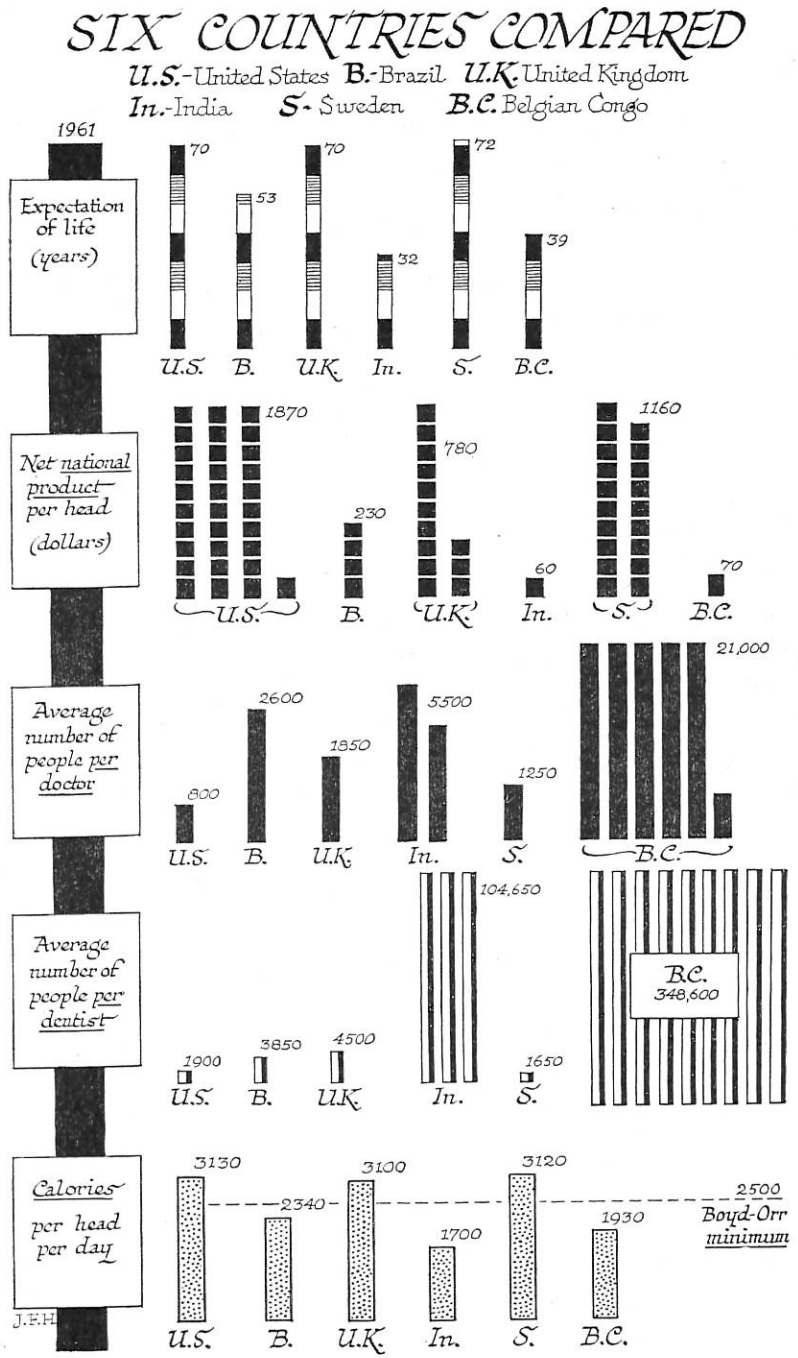
1. How big is the problem ?

" Democracy alone can supply the vitalizing force to stir the peoples of the world into triumphant action, not only against their human oppressors, but also against their ancient enemies—hunger, misery and despair." So spoke President Truman on the 20th January, 1949, when he launched his famous " Point Four Programme " of technical assistance for underdeveloped areas. His words had the ring of a declaration of war, but although that war has now been going on for more than a decade, the ancient enemies are almost as strong and as menacing as ever. And democracy is not alone in claiming to be the most effective force arrayed against them.

The title of " ancient enemies " is an appropriate one, for men have had to fight against hunger and misery and despair which it breeds since the beginning of history. Until about a hundred years ago famine was a regular occurrence even in Western Europe. Now, from an area in which live about one-third of the world's population, the threat of famine has been removed. In this area, too, within the last twenty years most people have been freed from the fear of hunger resulting from a lack of money to buy the food that is available. The remaining two-thirds of the word's people still live in fear of famine, and without ever having as much food as they need.

The unit which is used to measure the amount of energy released by food is the calorie. Lord Boyd Orr, the first director-general of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation, has estimated that a man needs between 2,500 and 5,000 calories a day, depending on the kind of work he has to do. But FAO's Second World Survey (1952), covering about four-fifths of the world's population, showed that 59.5 per cent. had an average daily intake of less than 2,200 calories. In some areas the level was as low as 1,400—a starvation diet.

To ensure both health and vigour, the quality of food eaten is important. For example, dietitians have estimated that an adequate diet ought to contain at least 30 per cent. animal protein. In the rich countries of the world, where most people have a daily intake of at least 30 grams of animal protein, that requirement is fulfilled. But FAO found that 82.8 per cent. of the people in its Survey got less than 30 grams a day, and 58 per cent. got less than 15 grams.



The picture which emerges from these figures for daily intake of calories and animal protein is a picture of a world in which about two-thirds of the people are underfed, while the remaining one-third have much more than enough. The people who are underfed live mainly in Asia (excluding Russia and Turkey), Africa (excluding parts of the Union of South Africa) and Latin America (excluding Argentina and Uruguay).

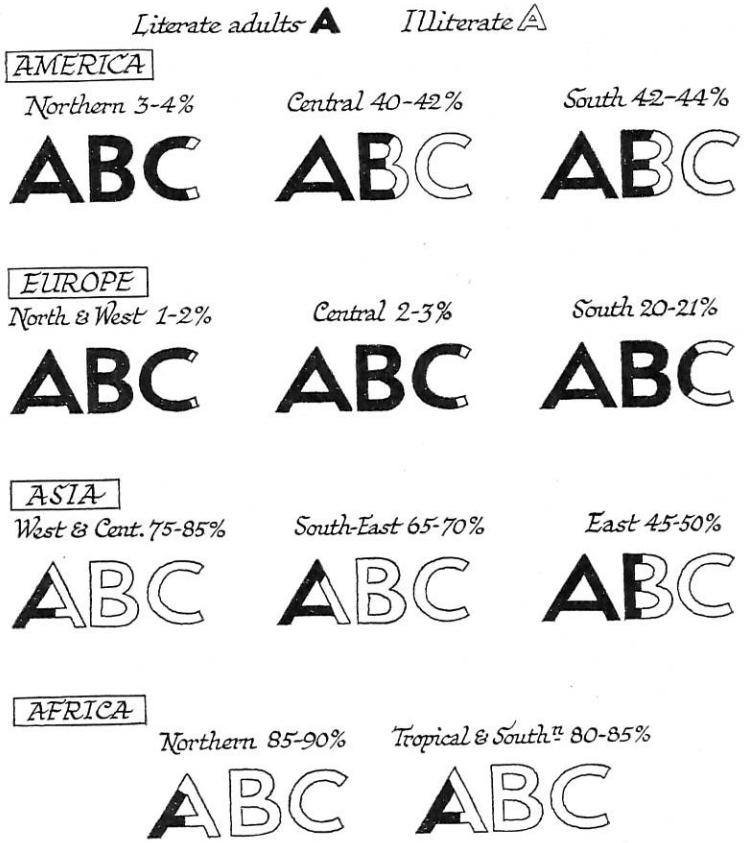
Lack of food is the most important, but not the only sign of poverty in those countries which we call " underdeveloped." Malnutrition combines with other manifestations of poverty—squalor and ignorance—to undermine the health of the people. Diseases which have been virtually conquered in the rich countries still ravage them. A great many of them live all their lives in physical suffering.

Improvements in medicine and hygiene have been applied in curbing the epidemic diseases, such as small-pox and cholera, although they still take their toll. Endemic diseases, which kill less quickly, are not so easily checked. Malaria afflicts about 250 million people, of whom some $2\frac{1}{2}$ million die from the disease every year. Nearly half the population of Egypt suffer from bilharziasis. It has been estimated that as many as 400 million people are affected by trachoma, and 50 million suffer from yaws. Tuberculosis kills up to 5 million a year.

Babies die in millions every year from gastro-intestinal infections. In some areas infant mortality is as high as 300 per thousand births. A high proportion of those who survive their first year show symptoms of an inadequate diet. The condition of protein malnutrition, most commonly known as kwashiorkor, is prevalent among children in underdeveloped countries, although it is only in recent years that its extent has been recognised. A report on it published in 1952 by FAO and the World Health Organisation, started world-wide research which is still in progress.

To relieve this dreadful burden of disease the medical services of the underdeveloped countries are pitifully inadequate. Whereas in Britain there is one doctor to every 1,145 people, in many countries of Asia and Africa there is only one doctor to between 10,000 and 100,000 people. More than a third of the world's population never receive modern medical treatment at any time.

There are many ways in which ordinary people in the underdeveloped countries could improve their own standards of health and nutrition, if only they had the knowledge. But how can they obtain knowledge when not more than one in every three can read ? The latest UNESCO survey found that in Asia 60 to 65 per cent. of the adults are illiterate, in Africa 80 to 85 per cent., and in Latin America 40 to 44 per cent. Radio and cinema can help to spread knowledge, but in most of Asia there is only one radio to about 300 people, and in Africa one to 500 ; and cinemas are equally sparse.



Hunger, ignorance and disease—together they form a vicious circle, shutting out hope from the lives of two-thirds of the world's people. Malnutrition lowers their resistance to disease. Weakened by sickness and hunger, they lack the energy to work harder and so increase their output. Because output remains stationary there is no surplus to devote to such "luxuries" as education and health services. So ignorance and disease continue to handicap their efforts to increase production, and they remain hungry. The vicious circle is unbroken.

But hope is at last beginning to break through. The people of the underdeveloped countries can see the remarkable results which can be achieved through the application of modern methods in agriculture, medicine and education. They can see, too, that often a little help from outside can break the vicious circle and open the way to a better life. Now they are looking with hope to the rich countries, to give them the knowledge and the financial help which will enable them to fight

against their ancient enemies, and to defeat them. If that hope is not to be disappointed, the people of the rich countries must realize the urgency of the world-wide struggle against poverty, and must understand the ways in which they can contribute to final victory over the ancient enemies of mankind.

2. How can we grow enough food for all?

The Hot Springs Conference of 1943, which led to the establishment of FAO, declared in its final act: "There has never been enough food for the health of all people. This is justified neither by ignorance nor by the harshness of nature. Production of food must be greatly expanded; we now have the knowledge of the means by which this can be done . . ." If we have the knowledge, how is it that two-thirds of the world's people still do not have enough to eat?

The first part of the answer to that question is that not enough land is being used to produce food. In some areas population has been increasing so rapidly that now there is simply not enough cultivable land to go round. For example, the population of the island of Java increased from 4½ million in 1815 to 55 million in 1940. As modern developments in medicine have been applied to controlling the more virulent infectious and parasitic diseases, death rates have declined, but birth rates have remained high. Land hunger is the result.

The shortage of land is due also to the loss of cultivable acreage through lack of knowledge or foresight. In the Middle East vast areas that once supported flourishing civilisations are now deserts. In 1954 sixteen million acres were laid waste by drought and blowing dust in the United States. When the earth is stripped of its covering of vegetation it is exposed to erosion by wind and water. Trees can give protection from hot winds blowing from the deserts. Forests catch and hold rainwater, controlling the supply to streams and rivers. Where there are no trees to hold the water, heavy rains can bring floods that sweep away millions of tons of soil.

Low-lying areas which are not properly drained can become useless swamps. In regions where rainfall is light, irrigation is needed to make the earth productive. If the irrigation system is damaged or neglected the land soon becomes arid. Fertile areas bordering on deserts need protection from the hot, dust-laden winds. By ploughing up grass or cutting down trees men often remove the natural protection against the encroaching desert. In one way or another millions of acres are being lost every year—some experts say as much as 13 million a year.

SPRAYING COTTON

The second part of the answer is that much of the land at present under cultivation is not being used as productively as it could be. Plants, like animals, need nourishment, and this they get from the soil in the form of nitrates, phosphates and other chemical substances. If it is to keep on providing these substances, year after year, the soil itself has to be nourished. If men did not harvest the plants which they grow, the soil itself would be replenished by the dying vegetation falling back into it. But the crops are taken away for food, and so the soil gradually loses its power to nourish plants.

There are several ways in which the nutrients in the soil can be replenished. One way is to employ some system of rotation. Instead of growing the same crop in the same field year after year, in some years the field is allowed to return to grass and in other years plants which improve the quality of the soil are grown. Such plants as peas, beans and clover, for example, convert the nitrogen in the air into nitrogen compounds and when they are ploughed in they enrich the soil. Unfortunately, the principles of the rotation of crops are unknown to a great many of the world's farmers. And much patience and skill are often needed in teaching new methods, to overcome the power of tradition and prejudice.

The fertility of the soil can also be restored by the use of fertilisers, the most important of which is probably animal manure. But in many

countries the properties of manure are unknown, and dung is often dried and used as fuel. Chemical fertilisers like potash can also be used, where there is expert knowledge of the composition and needs of the soil. It has been estimated by FAO that, by the use of fertilisers and other methods of maintaining and improving soil fertility, many countries could increase their food production by as much as 100 per cent.

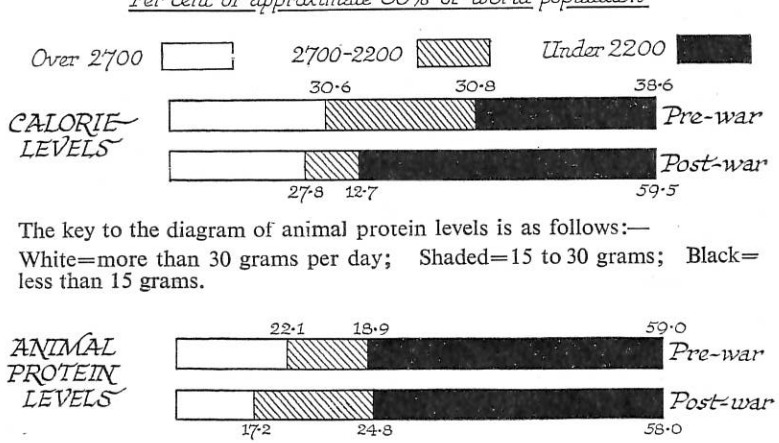
The quickest method of increasing the world's food supplies, then, is to spread the knowledge of more efficient farming techniques, and to make available the means by which they can be applied—fertilisers, tools and so on. Technical experts are needed to supply the knowledge, but underdeveloped countries have very few people with the necessary training. While more are being trained, assistance from the richer countries, which can lend personnel, is essential.

As we have seen, the quality of food consumed is important, as well as the quantity. So one way to raise standards of nutrition is to produce more of the foods which are rich in proteins—more milk, eggs and meat, for example. This can be done by improving the quality of livestock. Most of the animals in the underdeveloped countries are subject, just as the people are, to lack of food and to disease. Ignorance of rotation systems and of the value of fertilisers results in low yields of grass from pastures. Often surplus grass is not conserved for use in the dry seasons because ways of storing it are unknown.

Diseases like rinderpest, which used to kill two million cattle every year, and sleeping sickness, carried by the tsetse fly, ravage large areas of the world. It is only when animals are healthy and well fed that they have high yields of milk or meat or eggs. The means of controlling many animal diseases are now known, and rinderpest, for example has been vigorously attacked. Knowledge is also available about the best ways in which to feed animals, and about how to breed the healthiest and most productive strains. Rising standards of nutrition will be achieved by making this knowledge available to all the world's farmers and, where necessary giving them the means to apply it.

One source of protein-rich foods—the sea—has scarcely been tapped at all. At present less than one per cent of the world's food supply comes from the sea, in spite of the fact that about three-quarters of the earth's surface is covered by water. Until very recently men have used the seas as they once used the land, many thousands of years ago—as hunting grounds. In the main, fish farming has been carried on only in inland waters. Yet there are many opportunities for extending this important source of food production. Increased knowledge of the behaviour of fish in the sea is making it easier, with the proper equipment, to find and to catch them. Areas of the oceans not previously

fished may soon be yielding a rich harvest. More fish, from both fresh and salt water, could provide a very valuable addition to the diet of people who lack protein.



The key to the diagram of animal protein levels is as follows:—
White=more than 30 grams per day; Shaded=15 to 30 grams; Black=less than 15 grams.

Even richer in protein than fish is some of the vegetable life which is found in the sea. In some of the green algae protein accounts for half of the total weight. These sea plants can be cultivated, and many of them can be turned into very acceptable foods. A given area of water can produce a much greater weight of food than can the same area of land. The new occupation of sea farming is just in its infancy, but it has vast potentialities.

There is another way in which the amount of food available can be increased. Every year thousands of tons are lost through the action of pests or disease. Swarms of locusts ravage whole countries. The olive fly destroys large quantities of that fruit which is so important in the economies of many Mediterranean countries. Rats take a huge share of the harvest in many parts of the world. Faulty methods of storage lead to rapid deterioration. But these calamities need not happen. Through international action the menace of the locust swarms is being brought under control. Effective insecticides have been developed for controlling many pests, and scientists are now experimenting with one which may eradicate the olive fly. Refrigeration and other modern methods of storage have been employed in the richer countries for many years, and by the extension of their use large quantities of precious food can be saved.

The knowledge is available through which food supplies can be increased, but it has first to be imparted to the people who are going to use it. In doing this certain difficulties have to be overcome. For example, protein is necessary for a well balanced diet, and meat is a rich source of protein. But many people are prohibited by their religion

from eating meat, and so they have to be encouraged to develop other sources of protein—milk, eggs, pulses. There are also many prejudices and superstitions about food in various parts of the world and these have got to be taken into account.

The way in which land is owned often constitutes a serious obstacle to improving food production. As populations increase farms are often divided and sub-divided, and the farmers become poorer and more and more subject to exploitation by landlords and moneylenders. In some countries in Asia landlords take half, or more than half of the farmers' crops in rent. In other countries land reforms have removed the landlords, often with great violence, and have given the land to the farmers or, as in China to the community. Ownership of land is still one of the most explosive political questions in the world. There is no simple solution to the many complicated problems involved in land reform. When land is handed over to peasant farmers they must, for example, be provided with credit facilities, so that they can buy the fertilisers and tools they will need to increase output, and with the means of marketing their produce—perhaps through a co-operative. Land reform is often the first step to raising productivity, but it cannot by itself accomplish that end.

We have seen that there are great difficulties in the way of increasing the food production of the world. Greatest of all, perhaps, is the difficulty of raising the capital which is needed to finance the various schemes which have been mentioned—but we shall examine that problem in a later chapter. Nevertheless, there is an overwhelming incentive to conquer these difficulties, because the consequences of failure would be so utterly disastrous. Over all the efforts being made to increase food supplies there lies the lengthening shadow of expanding population. Every year there are 50 million more mouths to be fed. It was not until 1830 that the population of the world reached 1,000 million. By 1930 that figure had been doubled, and it is almost certain that by the end of the century—nuclear weapons permitting—there will be considerably more than 6,000 million people on the earth.

How long the present rate of increase will continue, and just how serious the situation will be in fifty years' time—on these and similar questions the population experts disagree very vigorously. But their academic discussions give little comfort to people in underdeveloped countries who have to watch efforts to raise their living standards being nullified by rapidly increasing population. In some countries, India and Japan for instance, the governments have accepted the principle that an attempt should be made to reduce the birth rate through family planning. Those who oppose effective methods of family planning on religious grounds argue that it is possible to solve the problem of feeding increased populations without recourse to birth control. Whichever side one takes in this argument, it is important to realize that at present no solution of the problem is in sight. Two-thirds of

the world's people are still without enough food and some **60** million babies are being born into poverty every year. If arguments about the means to be adopted are allowed to obscure the urgency of the situation, it may not be possible to arouse the widespread public concern which alone can evoke the massive action that is needed.

COTTON — WHITE WEALTH OF THE SUDAN

(New Gezira Extension brings over 1,000,000 acres under irrigation).

Weeds are a constant hindrance to the efficient operation of the irrigation system and have to be cleared regularly. Weeding is done by hand, by camels dragging chains or by drag-line excavators. An excessive growth of weeds causes a leakage through the canal banks.

The United Nations realised that a concerted effort must be made if all the world's people were to be adequately fed, and so the Food and Agriculture Organisation was set up in 1945. Although FAO has no executive powers, it has been evolving the machinery through which a world-wide campaign against hunger can be planned and directed. It has five technical divisions—Agriculture, Fisheries, Forestry, Nutrition and Economics. Its first job is to collect and analyse information, finding out what needs to be done and the way to do it. On the basis of its accumulated information it can advise governments and through the skill of its technical experts it can give them assistance in specific projects.

FAO can also initiate action. For example, it has organized an international campaign against locusts in the Near East, in an effort to destroy the swarms before they can spread devastation. Another example of international action is the rice-breeding programme, in which a number of Asian governments have been co-operating with FAO in developing strains of rice which will have high yields and which will also grow well in tropical areas—a combination of qualities not found in varieties of rice at present in use. FAO has some notable successes to its credit, and they have been achieved on budgets of around £6 million a year. Now it is planning a world-wide "Freedom from Hunger Campaign," in which the dimensions of the problem of hunger will be made clear to governments and peoples, and in which projects will be undertaken to increase production and raise living standards in the underdeveloped countries. FAO has shown that it is competent to organize such a campaign. Success will depend on the support which it receives from its Member Nations.

3. How can the shackles of disease and ignorance be broken ?

Since much of the disease and ignorance in the world is the direct or indirect result of poverty, would it not be advisable to concentrate all our limited resources on providing more food and other material necessities of life for the impoverished peoples ? That might be a wise plan—were it not for the fact that poverty is also the result of ignorance and disease. For example, it is estimated that before the Second World War malaria was reducing the national income of Greece by £20 million a year. And at the present time India's plans for economic development are being seriously hampered by shortage of trained technicians. Hunger, disease and ignorance are ancient allies, none of which will make a separate peace. They have got to be defeated simultaneously.

Although hunger has virtually disappeared in the richer one-third of the world, disease has not. But in the underdeveloped countries the power it has over the majority of the people is continuous, unrelenting and savage, and their means of resistance are totally inadequate. The contrast is illustrated by differences in expectation of life. In Britain a baby born to-day can expect, on the average, to live for seventy years : in India its expectation of life would be thirty-two years. In the underdeveloped countries, only a tiny proportion of those who fall ill can hope for modern medical treatment. Weakened by malnutrition, the sick can make little resistance to disease and have to suffer without hope.

The vast extent of the power which disease has over the lives of people in the underdeveloped countries is difficult to imagine. Nevertheless, a determined attack on it has begun. International co-operation was first achieved in an effort to stop the spread of epidemic diseases like smallpox, yellow fever and cholera. The Paris Conference of 1851

was the first attempt to co-ordinate quarantine regulations, but it was not until the beginning of the present century that effective conventions were signed. In 1902 the Pan American Sanitary Bureau was established in Washington, followed in 1908 by l'Office d'Hygiène Publique in Paris. To deal with the resurgence of pestilential diseases following the First World War, the League of Nations created a Health Organisation, which later gave some attention also to the study of wider problems of health, like malnutrition and bad housing.

The United Nations recognized that health was an essential factor in the building up of a peaceful world when the World Health Organisation was set up in 1948. WHO took into its structure the existing international health organisations, and was given as its comprehensive aim " the attainment by all peoples of the highest possible level of health." It now has 88 Member Nations and is administered from headquarters in Geneva, with six regional offices in different parts of the world. Its Executive Board is composed of 18 experts designated by, but not representatives of, governments. All the Member Nations are represented at the annual World Health Assembly. Perhaps the best way in which to obtain a picture of the world-wide struggle against disease is to look at some of the activities of WHO.

One of the most important tasks of the Organisation is to help countries to build up their own health services. At present the underdeveloped countries, with two-thirds of the world's population, have about one-quarter of the world's trained doctors. Dentists are even scarcer—some countries in Africa have one dentist to a million people —and there is a corresponding shortage of nurses, sanitary engineers and other health personnel. WHO helps countries to develop their own training institutions, and also provides about 1,000 fellowships a year to enable personnel from underdeveloped countries to receive advanced training in the schools and hospitals of richer countries. It also organises conferences and study tours, and tries to ensure that new methods and discoveries are made available in all parts of the world.

But still only the fringe of the personnel shortage is affected. To provide throughout the world health services approaching those of Britain and America would require the setting up of large numbers of new training establishments, costing thousands of millions of pounds —and then there would not be enough teaching staff to man them. But this does not mean that while the more gradual multiplication of fully trained personnel is in progress, the people of the underdeveloped countries must be condemned to live and die without any modern medical assistance. While the cadres of highly trained doctors and specialists must continually be expanded, a great deal of invaluable work, both preventive and curative, can be undertaken by semi-trained medical auxiliaries.

These auxiliaries are given short, intensive courses of training, enabling them to deal with simple complaints and to undertake basic health education. A good example of such a scheme in operation is the Burmese Health Assistants' School, established in 1952 with the help of WHO. The first 2¼-year course fitted 260 young men for work in the villages. The country has been divided into Village Health Units, and the aim is that each Unit of up to 20,000 people should be staffed by a health assistant, a vaccinator, five midwives and a woman health visitor. Similar schemes are being tried in other underdeveloped countries, and the health of many thousands of people has already been improved. Fully trained doctors and modern hospitals are needed, but until they are available there is a great deal that can be done in this way to lighten the burden of disease.

Disease recognises no frontiers, and health research to be effective must also be international. WHO organises and stimulates research all over the world. It is in touch with more than 1,800 laboratories and research institutions, and has 36 advisory panels on various subjects. In order to obtain greater standardisation of drugs it publishes an International Pharmacopoeia. And, of course, it keeps continuous watch on the spread of disease, broadcasting daily epidemic warnings to health authorities. For the first time uniformity in quarantine regulations was achieved when the Member Nations of WHO adopted the International Sanitary Regulations in 1952.

But the activities of WHO which have the greatest popular appeal are probably its campaigns against particular diseases, undertaken in co-operation with governments and other agencies of the U.N. The tropical disease of yaws has been attacked vigorously and 100 million people have been examined for it. In national campaigns backed by WHO and UNICEF some 25 million have been given the single injection of penicillin which brings a complete cure. Tuberculosis has been the subject of camaigns in 58 countries, in co-operation with UNICEF, and BCG vaccine has been taken to 200 million people.

WHO's most ambitious project is a world-wide campaign for the complete eradication of malaria. Of the 1,400 million people living in actual or potentially malarious zones, about 280 million have now been freed from the threat of this disease through the wiping out of the carrier mosquitoes. But mosquitoes quickly develop resistance to the killer sprays, and in any one area they must all be destroyed before there is time for this to happen. Timing is important, and WHO wants to rid the whole world of malaria by 1970. The only obstacle is the cost. To complete the programme up to the end of 1961 WHO still required more than £2½ million, and it was not easy to persuade governments to provide this money in addition to their normal contributions to the Organisation. The British Government refused to make a grant towards it. Yet it was estimated that before malaria eradication one country alone—Greece —was losing £20 million a year because of malaria. The world's major

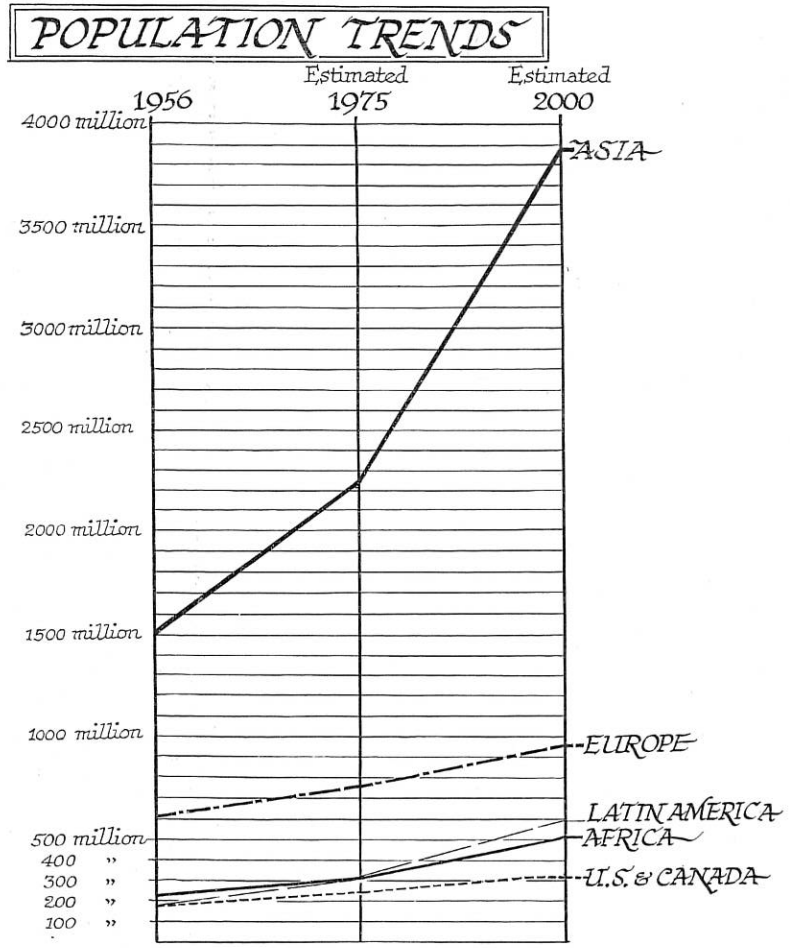
health problems can be solved—but only when governments are prepared to find the money that is needed.

One of the major difficulties in the fight against disease is also encountered in the campaign to rid the world of ignorance. It is the shortage of trained personnel. To provide education for the ever-increasing millions of the world's children and to reduce illiteracy among the 45 per cent. of all adults who cannot read and write, great numbers of additional teachers are needed—probably about five times as many as there are at present. But to produce these teachers more training colleges and universities are needed, and they must be staffed by still more teachers. In most of the underdeveloped countries the number of teachers in training is altogether inadequate. In the latest year for which comparative statistics are available the U.S.A. had 245,000 students in training colleges while India, with more than twice the population, had 105,000—and the Americans, who share India's problem of rapidly rising population, are seriously concerned about a shortage of teachers.

In many countries teacher training is being given high priority, and richer nations are helping underdeveloped areas by providing training college staff and by accepting overseas students in their own colleges. But the process of building up an adequate supply of trained teachers is necessarily a long one : so, once again, as in the campaign for better health, gaps in the ranks are being closed by " auxiliaries." One of the most commendable features of the new nationalism of Asia and Africa is the desire of educated people to pass on their knowledge to their fellow-countrymen, and this has been the driving force of many literacy campaigns. Governments—in China, India, Turkey and Indonesia, for example—have sponsored mass teaching programmes which have been highly successful. Sometimes people only newly literate themselves have become useful teachers. Dr. Frank Laubach, an American missionary who has aided many governments in their literacy programmes, devised an " each one teach one " system by which the spread of literacy became a kind of chain reaction. Dr. Laubach's work, now being consolidated in World Education, Inc., is a reminder that the churches have been international pioneers in the spread of education.

International co-operation also takes place now at governmental level, especially through the agency of UNESCO. The first problem facing UNESCO was to make good the destruction of the last war. Schools and books and equipment which had been destroyed needed to be replaced and refugee children needed teachers, and so UNESCO gave assistance wherever it was able. When the wider campaign to free the world from ignorance began, it soon became apparent that any attempt to tackle with a very limited budget all the problems needing attention must quickly meet with frustration. Accordingly, it was decided to limit the Organisation's activities to six broad fields, and to concentrate the greater part of its resources on a few major projects. The six areas

in which it would operate were : free and compulsory primary education ; fundamental education (to help people improve their living conditions and develop as communities) ; racial, social and international tensions ; promotion of Eastern and Western cultural values ; research for the improvement of living conditions.



Within this framework UNESCO adopted, to begin with, three major projects. The first is to help twenty countries of Latin America towards the goal of universal primary education. The second project is to promote scientific research on the reclamation of arid lands, covering such subjects as artificial rain-making, preparation of simple literature on soil conservation, and experiments with new kinds of plants.

Underlying the third project is the assertation of UNESCO's constitution that, " since wars began in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed." The aim of this project is to promote mutual appreciation of Eastern and Western cultural values. It may serve also as a reminder that in the struggle against world poverty the materially rich nations have something to receive from the poorer peoples, as well as something to give.

A striking example of what UNESCO has been doing in fundamental education is provided by the often quoted work of the Tsentzenhuaro centre in Mexico. In this small village a team of five workers lived among the people, finding out their needs and problems. First they helped to pave a basketball court and then as the people's confidence in them grew, new needs were discovered. They went on to repair the school and finally to start a literacy campaign. In its fundamental education programme UNESCO has demonstrated the way in which the whole campaign against world poverty must be conducted. Changes are not imposed upon needy people from outside. Instead, they are awakened to a realisation of their problems, and are then helped to work out solutions making use of their own resources. Co-operation, not condescension, must be the attitude of those who work to free the world from ignorance.

4. Is more industry needed ?

In all the underdeveloped countries a high proportion of the people live by agriculture. At the centre of the problem of world poverty is the need to increase their productivity, the need to grow more food. But food is not the only necessity—people also need clothing, houses, furniture, tools, transport, hospitals, schools, books and a thousand and one other things. A country which produces only agricultural commodities, for which world demand is frequently changing, may suddenly find itself without the power to buy additional food that it may require, or manufactured goods which it may urgently need. Underdeveloped countries need industrialisation, in varying degrees, both to raise their standards of living and to make their economies better balanced and more stable. There are also some countries in which land hunger has become an urgent problem, and for them industrialisation can provide employment for surplus population.

The degree and the kind of industrialisation in any country will depend on four factors—labour, raw materials, capital and markets. Some underdeveloped countries have a surplus of labour, over and above the requirements of their agriculture, and there is also a great deal of disguised unemployment because the land is worked inefficiently by more people than are really needed. But there are also countries in

Africa, Latin America and parts of Asia which have no labour to spare for the industries which could raise their standards of living, and they will be able to find industrial workers only by making their agriculture more efficient. It must also be remembered that although workers may be available in large numbers, if they lack certain skills they may be of no value to industry until they have been trained.

People with technical skill and experience are essential to the success of any industrialisation scheme, but it is just these people who are lacking in underdeveloped countries. The shortage of skilled personnel can be made good only through international action, and many schemes for the exchange of knowledge and training facilities are already in operation. Part of the United Nations Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance is concerned with industry. Technical assistance is included in the work of the International Labour Organisation, which organises training schemes, exchange of experts and information, and research. Other schemes are provided by the Colombo Plan, by voluntary agencies, and through bilateral arrangements, especially between colonial powers and dependent territories. An interesting feature of the international schemes is the number of experts going from one underdeveloped country to another—the rich countries are no longer the only source of technical skill. But in spite of all that has been accomplished, the shortage of skilled personnel remains a formidable barrier to progress, and many more training and exchange schemes are needed.

The second factor determining the growth of industries is the availability of raw materials. In the past heavy industries have depended on coal and iron ore being found reasonably near to each other. In most of the industrialised countries of the West this has happened, and in nearly all the underdeveloped countries these two vital raw materials have not been found close together, if they have been found at all. Of course, the full extent of mineral resources in underdeveloped areas has not yet been determined, and surveys undertaken with modern techniques may yet discover unimagined wealth. But at present the only underdeveloped countries with significant known deposits of both coal and iron are India and China. However, Japan has shown that important heavy industries can be built up by a country which has to import both these raw materials in large quantities. And anyhow, it is not essential that every country should have its own steel industry.

Power is necessary for the growth of all modern industry, however, and the provision of new sources of power is a fundamental part of industrialisation. The development of hydro-electricity has opened up vast possibilities, especially in Africa, where some of the world's greatest rivers are being harnessed for industry. The use of atomic energy in the production of electricity may accelerate industrial development in a way which would not have been thought possible twenty years ago. In 1957 the International Atomic Energy Agency began its work of secur-

ing for underdeveloped countries a share in the benefits of the peaceful uses of atomic energy. And there is no reason to believe that the atomic power station will not be followed by other new sources of energy —the sun, and even the sea, may yet provide power for industry.

But " industry " includes not only large factories with complicated machines, but also manufacture on a small scale to meet the needs of a village. In the underdeveloped countries there is already a great deal of industry—using handlooms, cottage forges, primitive machines and the raw materials which an agricultural community can produce for itself. Handloom weavers in India, for example, produce more than 1,500 million yards of cloth a year. Much of this small-scale industry is very inefficient, but often it can be greatly improved by the application of modern knowledge and the investment of only a comparatively small amount of capital. Small machines may replace hand tools, and co-operatives can help with finance and marketing. This kind of industrialisation, which develops resources of skill and raw materials which are already available, can provide a useful transition to fuller modernisation although, of course, there are some goods which can only be produced by large-scale industry.

Small enterprises are important also because of the third factor which has to be considered—capital. Capital is needed to bring labour and raw materials into a combination which will be productive, and capital is the one commodity above all others which the underdeveloped countries lack. Where people have an average income of less than £60 a year—as nearly half the world's people have—there is little opportunity for personal saving and investment. And among those few who do have wealth extravagance is often more common than thrift. One way in which poor countries can form new capital is by the wise employment of manpower, which is usually plentiful, in spare-time community projects. For example, the people of a village might organise themselves to construct an irrigation scheme for their fields, or to build a road. By this indirect means the productivity of the village would be increased and new capital would be accumulated. Some technical assistance from outside may be needed, and in this way new ideas can be introduced to the people, and the seeds of further co-operation can be sown.

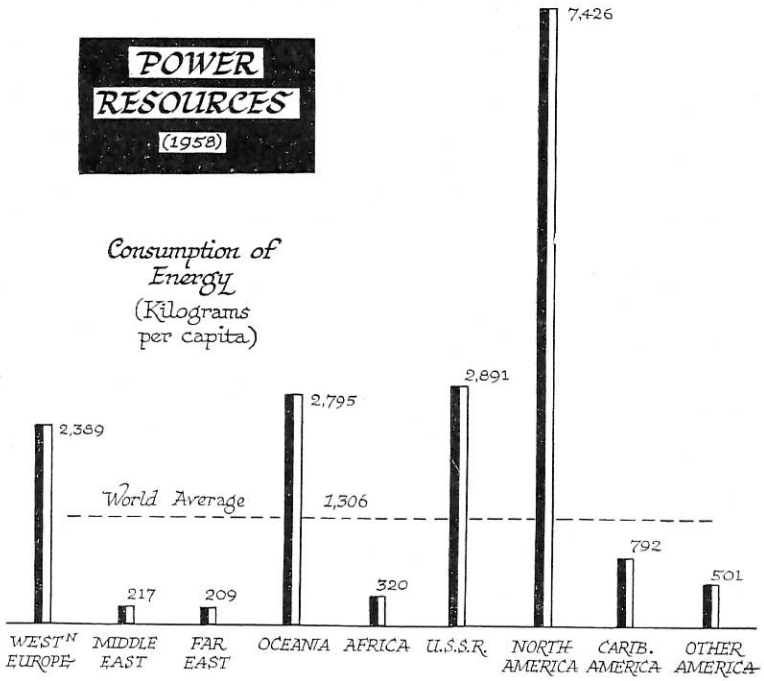
Village co-operatives can be used to channel into beneficial enterprises the small savings which higher productivity may enable individuals to accumulate. People who are not familiar with ideas of investment are usually reluctant to part with their savings, and tend to hoard them. But investment together with one's neighbours in a scheme of mutual benefit is an attractive proposition, and in this way still more new capital is formed. Many governments are now encouraging and assisting co-operative movements, and so the people of the underdeveloped countries are accumulating their own capital. But it can be a very slow process, for they have so little to begin with—and their numbers are increasing at the same time.

Underdeveloped countries need capital for a great many things as well as industrialisation—for improving agriculture, for building the roads, railways and harbours without which industry cannot function, for education and health services. Many of these projects depend upon one another, and ought to be undertaken simultaneously. It would be quite impossible, however, for all the necessary capital to be created within the countries which require it. A United Nations report published in 1951 estimated that in order to increase the average income of their people by 2 per cent. a year, the underdeveloped countries would need to invest annually about 19,000 million dollars. More than half this capital, or about £3,000 million would have to come from the wealthy nations. However, many economists doubt whether the underdeveloped countries could immediately begin to absorb so much capital, because of such factors as the lack of adequate administration, the shortage of technicians, and the danger of upsetting the balance of their economies.

What is certain is that they can absorb a great deal more capital than they are at present receiving—probably at least £1,000 million a year more—and unless they get it they will be unable to maintain even their present standard of living. It should be remembered that figures for overseas investment in underdeveloped countries are not always a reliable guide to the amount of benefit being received. Foreign investors often take out of a country in profits much more than the amount of capital they put in, and the actual gain to that country's economy is not as large as it might appear to be. It is not only the amount of capital provided that is important, but also the terms on which it is lent or given. In the next chapter we shall examine ways in which capital may be channelled into underdeveloped areas.

Before beginning to develop its industries a country must be sure that someone is going to buy the goods manufactured by the new factories. The need for many commodities is great, but the power to buy is very much less because incomes remain at such a low level. Developing nations have to take care to preserve a balance in their economies, and to ensure that industrialisation is matched by an expansion in real demand. International trade presents even more difficult problems, because world markets are often very unpredictable. International trade rivalry has been the cause of much hardship in the past, and it could result in the dislocation of all the efforts being made to raise living standards in the underdeveloped countries.

At the present time the world market for the primary products—such as rubber, cotton, tea and jute—which are the principal exports of the underdeveloped countries, is very unstable, and prices fluctuate violently. This is a serious obstacle to long-term planning. Several years ago, a fall in the prices of coffee, sisal, tea, pyrethrum and other products so reduced Kenya's export earnings that her government had to make drastic cuts in its plans for extending primary education and health services. Fluctuations in the prices of cotton and copper had a similar effect on development in Uganda. In the past ten years losses on the terms of



trade have more than offset all the gains that the underdeveloped countries have made through the economic aid they have received.

Stabilisation of the prices of primary commodities would be as valuable to the underdeveloped countries as many hundreds of millions of pounds of capital coming from overseas. It must be remembered also that fluctuations in the terms of trade—the rate at which the industrial products of the rich countries exchange for the primary products of the poor—injure the rich as well as the poor. This is the main cause of our own "balance of payments crises," and our recurrent "credit squeezes" and cuts in social services. Experts believe that stabilisation of the prices of primary products could do more than anything else to help the poorer countries; and the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations has exhaustively studied ways of achieving it. So far, there have been international stabilisation agreements for sugar, tin and wheat, but many more are needed. Victory in the campaign against world poverty can be achieved only if all the nations are fighting on the same side.

5. Where will the money come from ?

The gap of poverty which separates the people of the underdeveloped countries from the prosperous one-third of the world's population is wide, and it is growing wider every year. Standards of living have been rising rapidly in the prosperous nations, but in poorer countries they have risen much more slowly, and sometimes not at all. Most people would agree that something should be done to alter this situation, although they would differ in their reasons for so believing. To some world peace is the ultimate objective of the campaign against poverty, an objective which is expressed in Article 55 of the United Nations Charter: "With a view to the creation of conditions of stability and well-being which are necessary for peaceful and friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principles of equal rights and self-determination of peoples, the United Nations shall promote higher standards of living . . ."

There are others who, while agreeing with this view, would give as their primary reason for fighting world poverty a belief in the brotherhood of man. On the other hand, some people regard aid to underdeveloped countries as a necessary move in the Cold War, to win allies and counter subversion. Economic motives influence another group, who realise that rising standards of living in underdeveloped countries can mean an expanding market for the products of the West. Motives may not seem very important, so long as aid is in fact given to the underdeveloped countries in their fight against poverty. But they are important, because motives, together with knowledge of the facts, will determine how much aid is given and—most important of all—in what way it is given.

Knowledge of the facts is clearly important, and insufficient knowledge is one of the reasons why the war on want is not at present being treated with a greater sense of urgency. For example, many people have a false impression of the amount of aid that is actually being given —an impression which is fostered perhaps, by the number of schemes and projects being operated. In fact most of the underdeveloped countries are finding from their own resources at least eighty per cent. of the capital for their development programmes—and the programmes are correspondingly inadequate. When India's First Five Year Plan was completed in 1956 the national income had been raised by 17.5 per cent., but the Planning Commission pointed out that, "These gains notwithstanding, the fact remains that living standards are among the lowest in the world."

Substantial aid for economic development began to be given to the underdeveloped countries only in the 1950's. In that decade the total of private investment and grants and loans from governments was about 30,000 million dollars. That may seem a large sum of money, but the

results which it achieved were not very impressive. Between 1950 and 1959 the average income per head of people in the underdeveloped countries (excluding China, for which statistics are not available) rose by about one per cent. a year.

The underdeveloped countries have received economic assistance in a number of different ways. The greater part of it has been bilateral aid, given direct from one country to another, and not passing through any international agency. In the year 1960 the three largest donors of bilateral governmental aid, in the form of grants, loans and repayments, were: the United States (2,460 million dollars); France (750 million dollars); and Britain (290 million dollars). Nearly all the French aid, and the greater part of the British, went to colonial and ex-colonial territories of those countries. Of the American aid, a substantial part was for "defence support," and only about a quarter of this was spent on economic development. The total multilateral aid by governments—through the World Bank, United Nations Technical Assistance and other agencies—was 340 million dollars.

Economic development has been supported by private investment, as well as by governmental aid. The flow of private capital to the underdeveloped countries has fluctuated considerably from year to year. The annual average of private investment from the United States and Europe between 1954 and 1958 was about 1,900 million dollars. This figure does not, however, give a clear indication of the amount of benefit derived by the economies of the countries in which it was invested. In 1956 and 1957, for example, more than half the American investment went into oil mining in several Latin American countries. A large part of all the private investment in underdeveloped countries is in extractive industries. In determining where new investments shall be made private investors are guided, naturally, by the opportunities for profit rather than by the needs of a country's economy. This does not mean that private investment cannot make an important contribution to the progress of the underdeveloped countries, but it does mean that the extent of that contribution is strictly limited.

When governmental assistance and private investment are added together, the total assistance being given to the underdeveloped countries by the West is at present around 6,000 million dollars a year. To this may be added about 200 million dollars of aid from the Soviet Union to non-Communist countries. Divided among the people of the underdeveloped countries (again excluding China), this total provides approximately 4 dollars a year for each person. Mr. Paul Hoffman, the first administrator of the Marshall Plan, has estimated that aid at this rate can do little more than keep the underdeveloped countries from slipping backwards. He proposes that the goal of economic assistance over the next ten years should be to increase the average **per capita** income in these countries by 2 per cent. a year. To achieve this, additional aid of around 3.000 million dollars a year would be needed—a total of 30,000 million dollars over the decade.

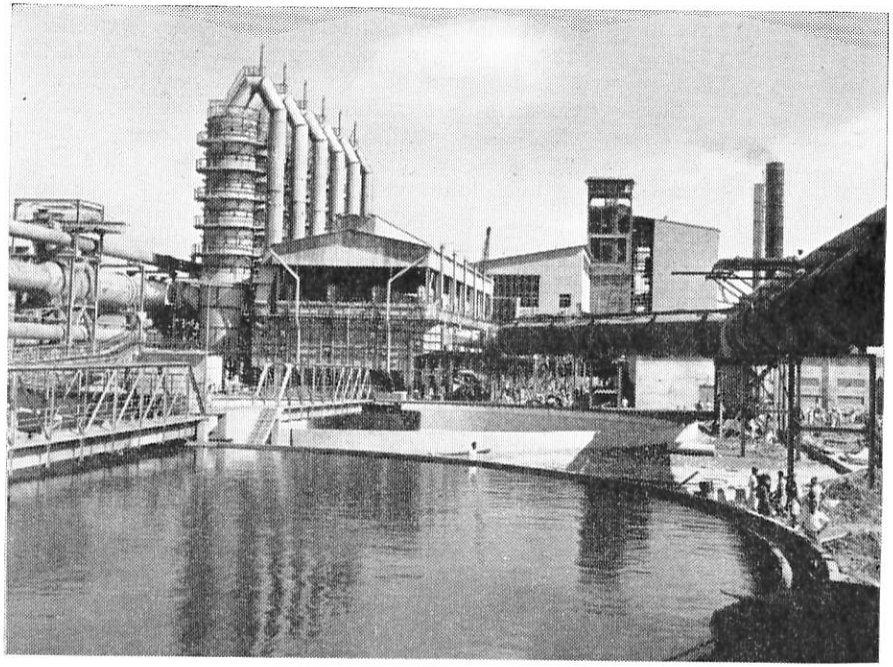
By Mr. Hoffman's calculations it is probable that about 10,000 million dollars of this can be found through increases in existing bilateral and multilateral programmes of governmental aid and investment, and through additional private investment. That leaves 20,000 million dollars to be raised. (In looking at these large figures for outside aid we must not forget that they represent only a small proportion of the total investment needed in the underdeveloped countries. The greater part will have to come from the savings of the countries themselves—savings which should grow as the development programmes progress).

The purposes for which the underdeveloped countries most urgently need assistance make it clear that nearly all the extra 20,000 million dollars will have to be provided by governments. The money is needed for irrigation schemes, roads, housing, schools, hospitals—projects which will not produce revenue and cannot be expected to " pay for themselves." Yet without these facilities a country cannot go on to develop productive enterprises. They are what has been called the " infrastructure " of an expanding economy. Investment in infrastructure has to be in the form of long term loans with low interest rates, or even with no interest charges at all. The smaller amount of capital needed for " pre-investment activities " such as technical training and surveys of natural resources also has to come in this form. Only governments can be expected to provide that kind of investment.

In planning such a vast programme of development it is necessary to decide what are the best channels through which to apply and administer the additional aid. There are several very important reasons why it should be channelled through international organisations, rather than through bilateral arrangements. First, schemes operated by United Nations agencies have behind them all the information and experience which these organisations possess, and can recruit experts from any part of the world. Secondly, countries which have recently won their independence are naturally suspicious of anything that savours of " imperialism," and aid given through international agencies cannot be construed as an attempt to gain political or economic domination. The use of economic assistance as an instrument of power politics could destroy all the schemes that are being made to raise standards of living in underdeveloped areas. It leads to inefficiency because political considerations are allowed to override economic judgments, and it reduces the chances of building a peaceful and more stable international society.

Aid for pre-investment activities is at present being administered very efficiently, but not on a large enough scale, through United Nations agencies. The Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance, in which the United Nations and seven of its specialised agencies work with governments in education, technical training, research, surveys, expanding health services, improving agriculture, and in many other ways, has accomplished a great deal on very slender budgets. In 1959 it had only 26.6 million dollars to spend. Britain's total contribution to United Nations assistance in that year, excluding disbursements to the World

Bank, was £2.7 million. The United Nations has also set up a Special Fund, to help underdeveloped countries finance surveys of natural resources, research schemes and advanced technical training. In 1959, its first year, it gave grants of 31 million dollars for 44 projects, and to this sum the countries receiving aid themselves added 44 million dollars. All the projects are being carried out by United Nations agencies. The discovery of natural wealth and the training of personnel are part of the foundation of economic development, and increased investment in these activities is essential to progress.



GAS CLEANING PLANT and POWER STATION at ROURKELA STEEL WORKS (INDIA)

The largest international source of capital at the moment is the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (the World Bank). Any country which is a member of the Bank can approach it for a loan to finance a " sound " project, i.e. a project which will enable it to repay the loan with interest, usually within twenty-five years. The money for the loans is provided mainly by the subscriptions of member nations, the United States inevitably being the largest subscriber. Within its terms of reference the Bank has been very successful. It has won the confidence of the underdeveloped countries, and has lent altogether about 5,000 million dollars without a single borrower defaulting. Its

activities are limited, however, by rules which confine its loans to projects which are going to show a profit in a fairly short time, and in which there is little element of risk.

Because its loans are "hard" the World Bank cannot provide the capital for infrastructure—for the roads and schools and hospitals which are urgently needed to support the development of productive enterprises. To meet at least part of this need an International Development Association has been set up as an affiliate of the Bank. It is now able to grant loans at low interest rates for projects which make an important contribution to development, even though they do not produce revenue. The administrators of the IDA (who are all World Bank personnel) are being allowed considerable latitude in their operations. They are able to give long periods of grace for repayment, and they are also able to make loans free of interest. The underdeveloped countries can have a say in the administration of the IDA, along with the richer countries, so that it runs as a genuine partnership. The scheme has only one drawback—not enough capital. The capital available to the IDA is 750 million dollars to be paid by the member countries over five years. But this is only a small part of the sum of 2,000 million dollars a year which Mr. Hoffman has said is needed to achieve the modest goal of a 2 per cent a year rise in **per capita** income. If the IDA is to be effective it must be provided with much more capital.

Even then, there may still be an area of investment in which the needs of the underdeveloped countries are not being met. When Britain's share in the IDA was being debated in the House of Commons, on the 29th March, 1960, The Rt. Hon. Hilary Marquand said : " I believe that we shall find the funds of the IDA, soft loans though they will be, loans on easy terms, loans with possible postponement of interest, and loans perhaps with no interest at all, will not be enough to provide the necessary infrastructure for rapid development in tilling and preparing the ground so that it can support large undertakings with which the Bank itself has been so prominently concerned. For things like the Owen Falls and the Kariba Dam, which require considerable preparation, we need an infrastructure which I think we shall find in the end can be made not by loans of any kind but by outright gifts."

If an international organisation to provide grants for underdeveloped countries were to be set up, some sacrifices would, of course, be required of the richer countries which would have to finance it. They would be sacrifices which could easily be afforded. Britain's total contribution from public funds to aid for the underdeveloped countries in 1959-60 was less than three-quarters of 1 per cent. of national income. A substantial increase in that figure would still not be a cause of any hardship. Just as necessary, perhaps, is the sacrifice of some degree of national sovereignty which would be involved in the setting up of a world development authority. Such an authority

is needed to co-ordinate the various development schemes, to deal with the problems of expanding world trade which have already been discussed, and to provide a world strategy for the war on want.

The sacrifices required would be very small, however, compared with the gains which would result from a substantial rise in living standards. Although in some countries a partial victory over the Ancient Enemies has been won, there can be no real economic security for anyone so long as they hold the greater part of the world's people in their grip. Political security, too, is endangered, for a mounting burden of poverty in Asia and Africa would eventually result in chaos which could embroil the whole world. In the war on want the rich nations and the poor have no alternative but to fight as allies, because prosperity is indivisable.

6. What can an individual do ?

The war on want is an encounter between powerful forces, in which the energies of whole nations are engaged, but it is also a war that is waged by people and on behalf of people. Only the Ancient Enemies are impersonal. In the world outside the pages of reports there is no such thing as a low level of nutrition : there are only people without enough food. Unless the statistics that run into millions can be interpreted as suffering individuals, and unless that suffering arouses the personal sympathies of other individuals, there can be no victory in the war on want. In the underdeveloped countries ordinary people are in the front line of the struggle against poverty, and very often their lives are at stake just as much as in any shooting war. Ordinary people in the rich countries, although far removed from the scene of physical operations, can also play an effective, and perhaps a decisive part in the campaign.

For most people the easiest way of helping to relieve poverty is by giving money. Sometimes it can be too easy—when a man feels that by taking a half-crown from his pocket he has discharged all his obligations. But when it is part of a genuine attempt to become involved in effective action, the giving of money can be extremely valuable, not only for what the money can buy, but also for the sense of personal participation which it confers on the giver. At the present time money given voluntarily by private individuals finances an astonishingly high proportion of outside assistance to underdeveloped countries. Voluntary organisations, supported mainly by private contributions, spend more every year on technical assistance and relief work than the annual total of the budgets of all the United Nations agencies.

The organisations which have been longest in the field are the missionary societies. They pioneered education and health services in many areas, and still support a large number of schools, hospitals and clinics. In recent years they have given attention also to economic development, and many missionaries are now experts in some branch of agriculture or handicrafts. As well as the societies with a religious basis, there are innumerable voluntary organisations providing refugee and famine relief, and technical assistance of all kinds—from capital to dig wells in Indian villages to the staffing of training colleges. Subscribers to these organisations are often able to take a personal interest in the work that their money is doing, and to feel that they are acting in partnership with people in the underdeveloped countries.

An increasing number of people, especially young people, feel that they want to contribute something more than money to the war on want —they want to go into the front line themselves for a while. Some may be able to spend only a summer vacation overseas, and for them there are work camps—helping to rebuild a flood-damaged village or to dig an irrigation system, perhaps. Several organisations now run camps of this kind, International Voluntary Service having the longest record. Others may wish to spend several years, or even a lifetime, working with the people of the underdeveloped countries to help them raise their living standards. The first qualification for people who have this ambition is that they should be thoroughly trained and experienced in one of a limited number of trades or professions and, usually, that they should have the ability to pass on their knowledge to other people. Good intentions by themselves are not enough. First to provide opportunities for personal service were the missionary societies, and they still supply large numbers of teachers, doctors, nurses and, more recently, technical experts of various kinds. Opportunities also exist in several voluntary organisations, the U.N. agencies and, for service in the British Commonwealth, through Government departments. But not everyone who volunteers can be sure of finding a vacancy. The provision of more opportunities for personal service is a small but important priority for those who wish to intensify the war on want.

The problems of world poverty cannot be solved without the action of governments, but without the action of individuals, as citizens, it is unlikely that governments will do enough, or that they will do it in time. A policy of spending more money on aid to underdeveloped countries would not seem to have many vote-winning possibilities, and before they adopt it most polticians are going to need a good deal of pressure from the electorate. Fortunately, some politicians are already committed to the war on want, and so not all the pressure will have to come from below. Individuals can act most effectively through the organisations to which they belong. They can try to persuade their local trade union or political party branch, or church or voluntary society to take up the appeal for greater aid. Letters or deputations to Members of Parliament, especially when some relevant question is about to be debated in the House, can be very effective.

Before people can be moved to act they must be made aware of the facts of world poverty and the need for action. Those who seek to persuade must themselves be well informed and able to counter the arguments of people who, for various reasons, do not want this country to spend more on economic aid. At the end of this booklet is a list of some of the many publications which deal with problems of world poverty. News of the latest developments is supplied regularly to members of the United Nations Association, which has branches in many parts of the country.

People who have realised the urgent need to make known the poverty of the underdeveloped areas of the world, and to win popular support for much greater British participation in the campaign to end world poverty, have been coming together in War on Want groups. There are now several hundred groups, large and small, all over the country. They try to spread information and to win sympathy for their aims by distributing literature, holding meetings, exhibitions and film shows, writing letters to the Press, contacting individuals. And in order to give people an opportunity to share personally in the war on want they raise money for projects such as digging a well in an Indian village or equipping a clinic in West Africa. Acting at the national level is War on Want (Ltd. by guarantee, not for profit) a body which maintains contact with the groups, with other voluntary organisations and with sympathetic Members of Parliament.

War on Want gives assistance to people who are trying to form a group, and continues to help established groups by supplying them with literature, speakers, and other services, but it does not interfere in their activities. It conducts nation wide publicity—the first major effort was the International Exhibition at the Central Hall, Westminster, in January, 1960. Over £400,000 of aid was forwarded in the year 1962 to assist people in many parts of the world from Algerian refugees to Persian earthquake victims. War on Want is contributing to the Freedom from Hunger Campaign by providing £450 for 400 Indian villages through the Bhoodan Movement (cost £180,000). It also proposes to build 400 trade schools and health centres in these villages at a cost of £140,000. Other Freedom from Hunger Campaign projects of a wide variety will cost another £100,000.

But at the centre of all its activities is the belief that only through the massive, co-ordinated action of governments can the stifling burden of poverty be lifted from the peoples of the underdeveloped countries. It works ceaselessly to build up a movement strong enough to lead the British people into full participation in the war on want, and given the support of all who would care if only they knew the facts, it will succeed. For the first time in the history of mankind the Ancient Enemies can be defeated—but only if enough ordinary people have the will to victory.

For further reading

In the space of this booklet it has been possible to give only a very broad outline of the problems of world poverty. To complete the picture and to understand some of its complexities, readers are advised to consult some of the books listed below. There are a great many relevant publications and this list contains only a few, which have been selected because they may be particularly helpful to readers without specialist qualifications.

GENERAL SURVEYS :

The War on World Poverty, by Harold Wilson, M.P. (Gollancz, 1953, 14s.)

To Plough With Hope, by Donald K. Faris (Gollancz, 1958, 21s.)

Preliminary Report on the World Social Situation (U.N., 1952, 12s. 6d.)

The Attack on World Poverty, by Andrew Shonfield (Chatto & Windus, 1960, 21s.)

Common Sense about a Starving World, by Ritchie Calder (Gollancz, 1962, 6s.)

PARTICULAR PROBLEMS :

Third World Food Survey (FAO. 1963, 7s. 6d.)

Geography of Hunger, Josue de Castro (Gollancz, 1952, 18s.)

The White Man's Dilemma, by Lord Boyd Orr (Allen & Unwin, 1953, 9s. 6d.)

Determinants and Consequences of Population Growth (U.N., 1953, 30s.)

World Health, by Fraser Brockington (Penguin Books, 1958, 5s.)

Men Against Ignorance (UNESCO, 1953, 3s.)

Problems of Capital Formation in Underdeveloped Countries, by R. Nurkse (Blackwell, 1953, 15s.)

The Stages of Economic Growth, by W. W. Rostow (Cambridge U.P., 1960, 12s. 6d. and 21s.)

U.N. ANNUAL REPORTS :

The State of Food and Agriculture (FAO)

Basic Facts and Figures (UNESCO)

Statistical Yearbook

Demographic Yearbook

(These, and many other United Nations publications can be obtained from Her Majesty's Stationery Office).

A catalogue of FILMS and FILM STRIPS on world poverty and related problems is available from War on Want, 9, Madeley Road, London, W.5.

WAR ON WANT PUBLICATIONS:

Strategy for Development, by William Clark (Director, Overseas Development Institute)	1/-
Christianity and the Affluent Society, by William Clark	1/-
Hungry Millions, by Sir Herbert Broadley . . .	6d.
The War on Want (extract from Hansard of a speech by the Rt. Hon. Hilary Marquand)	6d.
Film List	6d.
The Africa Story (paintings), by Jonathan Kingdon .	6d.
Annual Report	6d.
The Nature and Origin of War on Want, by Frank Harcourt-Munning	Free
Free the World from Hunger, by R. Sen . . .	6d.
It Can be Done, by Olwen Battersby	3d.

EXHIBITION, POSTERS, BOXES ON REQUEST

Flag Days and House to House Collections
We Have Nationwide Hiring

Printed by Fletcher & Son, Ltd. Harford Works, Hall Road, Norwich