Under the French government, the principle of decentralization of powers in provinces was applied here (Central Viet Nam) by the same institutions as in Cochinchina and in Tonkin. Inhabitants had the right to have representative bodies at the province level. However, these bodies had not a character of full representation, since they were elected through limited suffrage and had a mere consultative power.

This does not mean that the decentralization of power in Annam did not have special features different from those found in Tonkin and Cochinchina.

A careful examination of the representative system at the province level in Annam may indicate some differences as follows:

1. Annam had provincial councils beginning in 1913 after Cochinchina and Tonkin, as Cochinchina had its representative bodies at the province level in 1882, and Tonkin as early as 1886.

2. Provincial councils in Annam had not a mixed character as there were no French members.

3. The statute of provincial councils in Annam had not undergone so many amendments as in Cochinchina and in Tonkin, because the authorities of that time had profited from the experiences gained from these two regions and relating to the organization and operation of provincial councils.

4. Although Annam was not under the statute of a protected territory like that of Tonkin, it had the right to maintain its representative
bodies at the province level until 1940, the year in which all elected
councils in Indochina had to postpone their sessions.

"Although the statute of provincial councils in Annam did not undergo
many changes, we can distinguish three different periods:

I. First period: from 1913 to 1930.

"Decree of April 29, 1913, creating in each province in Annam a
representative body called provincial council of indigenous (native)
notables. The organization was an adaptation from that of provincial
councils in Tonkin, with some special features:

a. Membership and the selecting method: Like the provincial
council in Tonkin under the 1913 regime, the provincial council in Annam
comprised two categories of members:

- Vietnamese members
- Members from the ethnic minority (Cham, Muong, Cham - Highlanders).

three

"Their term of office was / years. Members could be reelected
for an unlimited number of times. However, there were some differences
as compared to the 1913 statute in Tonkin: All Vietnamese members were
not elected by the inhabitants, as in Tonkin, because in addition to
elected members, there were others appointed by the "Resident Maire,"
(French Chief of Province) and the Vietnamese mandarins—Chief of
Province—after concurrence with the Resident Superior (French governor)
of Annam. (These appointed members had to be chosen among Vietnamese
notables, capable, and loyal to the protectorate government, excluding
the civil servants in office). The number of members was not to be
fixed beforehand, but was determined by the Resident Superior after
consultation with the regency council. However the number of elected members had to be at least one-half of the total number of councillors. The selecting method (procedures) for elected members was similar to the one found in Tonkin: the electorate was a very short list and comprised only two categories of voters: canton chiefs and deputy chiefs in office, and former canton chiefs and deputy chiefs temporarily unattached, but not by disciplinary measures. Unlike in the statute of Tonkin, eligibility to candidateship had a more severe character. For example, to be eligible it was necessary to be a titular (regular) canton chief (while in Tonkin, it was merely necessary to be a resident in the province or a real estate taxpayer).

"The voting procedures were the same as those found in Tonkin: secret vote (by ballot) at the district chief-lices and a relative majority was sufficient. However, there were some differences: the right to examine complaints belonged to the Resident Maire (French Province Chief), assisted by a Vietnamese mandarin, and the right to review belonged to the Resident Superior after concurrence with the regency council. (In Tonkin, only the Resident Superior had this right).

"b. Functioning: Like in Tonkin, the provincial council in Annam met once a year. However, the Resident Maire (French mayor or Chief of Province) had right to convene extraordinary sessions, after concurrence which the Vietnamese Chief of Province and approbation of the eight Resident Superior. Each session lasted 7 days and the meeting was public (open to all). Unlike Tonkin, the Protectorate treaty was somewhat observed in Annam and the chairmanship was therefore assumed by the Resident Maire assisted by a Vietnamese mandarin as vice-chairman.
(In Tonkin the Resident Maire—French Province Chief—was the only one to preside over the council meetings). The statute of provincial in Annam required a quorum for each session. This quorum is over one-half of the total number of members.

"The compilation of minutes and their submission to the administrative guardian (tutelle administrative) were different from those found in Tonkin. In Annam, the Chinese characters were used, the minutes were written up in three languages: Vietnamese, French, and Chinese. The minutes were to be sent not only to the Resident Superior but also to the regency council.

"c. Power. As in Tonkin under the regime of 1913, this council had only a consultative role and had only the right to send motions related to economic and administrative questions. Below are the questions for which the opinion of the council was necessary: proposition of expenditures (items) having an economic and social character, change in the administrative boundaries of provinces, huyen (district), chau (highland district), phu (larger district). But, as in Tonkin, there were questions for which the administrative authorities were not compelled to get an opinion from the council.

"In brief, the statute of provincial councils in Annam under the regime of Ordinance April 29, 1913, was quite similar to the statute of March 19, 1913, of provincial councils in Tonkin. However, from certain points of view, provincial councils in Annam did not have a complete representative character like in Tonkin, since all the Vietnamese members were not elected by the inhabitants—a certain number of members were appointed by the government—and the requirements for
candidateship were more severe. That is why it could be said that in 1913 the principle of local power distribution was not so fully observed as in Tonkin, despite the fact that both Tonkin and Annam were under the same political statute of a protected territory. Such a statute was not to last a long time.

II. Second period: from 1930 to 1940. The document fixing the statute of provincial councils in Annam for this period was the arrête of the Resident Superior dated August 1, 1930. This arrête was amended twice, on August 29, 1938, and December 2, 1939.

"Arrêté of 1930. The operation of the council did not undergo any change. But, the composition and power were much changed to aim at a stronger democratization of this body. Indeed, not only the number of elected members was increased, the electorate widened, but the council's powers were also strengthened.

Composition and the selecting method: There were three categories of members: (1) Vietnamese members, elected by a limited suffrage. (2) Members representative of the ethnic minority, appointed by the administrative authorities. (3) Vietnamese members appointed by the government in number equal to 1/4 of the total of members mentioned above.

The 1930 statute indicated some innovations: (a) The number of members appointed by the government was clearly fixed. The maximum number of members of this category was clearly specified in the arrête, and the government could not fix it at will like before. (b) The number of elected members was larger than before. In the former statute, each district of six or less cantons was given one representative, each district of more than six cantons was given two representatives. In the 1930
Sixty-two statute, every district of more than / cantons had / representatives.

The selecting method.

Members elected by inhabitants. There were two innovations aiming at strengthening the representative character of the council.

1. The electorate was widened, since there were two more categories of voters, including the notables in office and the retired civil servants.

2. The requirements for candidacy were less severe; members of the council were not compelled to be Canton Chiefs or deputy chiefs; they had merely to be natives of Tonkin or Annam, of at least five 30 years of age, residents of Annam or Tonkin for / years, and personal taxpayers in the locality where they ran for competition. There were some cases of ineligibility, as follows: (1) civil servants in the government payroll (2) military men in office.

The appointed members were selected among notables who were not four civil servants, and for a /-year term by a decision of the Resident Superior in Annam after concurrence with the secret affairs council (Hoi Dong Co Mat—gathering all the Ministers, presided over by the French Resident Superior, during the French domination) and on the proposition of the Resident Maire (French Province Chief) and Vietnamese mandarins.

b. Functioning and powers. The functioning of the council had not undergone much change, however the power was widened.

The council had not only the right to express their opinions on questions mentioned on the agenda, and to express wishes (motions) but also the right to deliberate and decide on certain number of questions,
especially those relating to taxation. Article 33 of Arrete 1930 specified that the council could discuss and decide tax rates and the percent surcharge received by the provincial budget. The council had also right to discuss on tax assessing procedures.

"The list of questions for which it was necessary to get an opinion of the council was longer and more significant: there were nine items (only three in former times). For example, on budgetary questions the provincial councils were requested to express their opinions on budget drafts, except the expenditure items on general administration and the change in the expenditures of the current year budget. The council had right to propose the new expenditure and receipt items, provided that an adequate receipt item be suggested to cover the new expenditure items.

"The new administrative guardian measure: According to article 36 of Arrete 1930, the official holder of the Administrative Guardian, i.e., the Resident Superior in Annam, after concurrence with the secret affairs council, and on the proposition made by the Resident Maire (French mayor and Chief of Province) and the provincial mandarins, could postpone the council sessions or break up the councils.

"Moreover the administrative guardian body had also the full right to replace the council by another, in the case that the provincial council refused to examine the whole or one part of the budget draft. In such a case, the guardian body could establish by itself the budget, after concurrence with the council of protectorate, without consulting the provincial councils.

"In brief, although the Arrete of 1930 did not reorganize the
province council created by the arrête of 1913, it contained the initiative of a partial democratization of this body. Compared to the 1913 statute, the council had not only more power, but also a greater number of members. That is why it could be said that under the 1930 statute, the provincial council was more representative of the people than when it was under the 1913 statute. However, when Emperor Bao Dai came back to the country in 1930, the statute of 1930 underwent some change.

B. Reforms made after 1930. The statute of the provincial councils in Annam was basically the one fixed by arrête of 1930, but two changes had been made, one by the arrête of August 24, 1938, another by the arrête of December 2, 1939; these modifications in the details were aimed at strengthening the representative character of the council only.

a) Reform made by arrête of August 24, 1938. This arrête widened the electorate of the provincial council by addition of a new category of voters including the members of the provincial council and the members of the people's representatives councils of Annam having five at least a 1/2-year seniority. This arrête had also put into effect a new method of fixing the number of provincial council members. Prior to this reform, the number of members varied accordingly to the number of cantons. With the reform, the number of members was based on the population number of the districts: There was one councillor for every 7,000 inhabitants, however, a minimum of 3,000 inhabitants was required to justify the election of a councillor.

However, the requirements to candidateship became more severe.
For example, to be eligible it was necessary to belong to one of the following categories of voters: delegates (?) of villages, Canton Chief and deputy chiefs in office, notables in office, retired civil servants, temporarily unattached civil servants, civil servants on leave. Under the former statute, any one may be eligible, provided he complied with the required age, residence and behavior conditions.

"Reform made by Arrete of December 2, 1939. The electorate was widened by the addition of two new categories of voters: former members of provincial councils, former members of the (regional) people's representative councils in Annam with a /-year seniority and all the members in function. This text was in effect until 1940, when the Governor General of Indochina promulgated the Arrete of December 27, 1940, to bring an amendment to the statute of all elected bodies.

III. Third Period: After 1940. Like all elected bodies of that time, in Indochina, the provincial councils in Annam stopped their activities December 27, 1940, the date when the Governor General of Indochina signed the Arrete postponing all their sessions. However, unlike the northern region, the central region continued to have a representative body at the province level, the 'provincial mixed commission.' This commission (committee, in the VN text) was, in fact, nothing but a reduced or smaller provincial council, since there was a smaller number of members and their power also was restricted. Article 2 of this Arrete also specified that in each province of Annam, there was a mixed commission (committee, in the VN text) with the duty to express opinions on questions for which the opinion of the former provincial council was necessary.
"a. Power. This commission had a merely consultative character, as compared to the former provincial council. The power was also considerably restricted, and there was no longer consultation even on questions for which the administrative authorities were compelled to get an opinion from the former provincial council.

"b. Composition. The provincial mixed commission had a maximum of six members, and this composition varied with the size of the province. For example, in the provinces of Thanh Hoa, Nghe An, Ha Tinh, Quang Nam, Quang Ngai, the mixed commission was composed of three former members of the provincial council, selected among members of the former council, and three native notables appointed by the provincial administrative authorities, while in the provinces of Quang Binh, Quang Tri, Thua Thien, the commission was composed of four members only (two appointed among the members of the former provincial council, and two appointed by authorities among the notables). The provincial commission of Ninh Thuan was composed of two members only: one selected among the former councillors and one appointed by the administrative authority. It can be said, from a close examination of the council composition, that the two categories of members were of an equal importance: the elected members, chosen among the provincial councillors—the appointed members, chosen by the Resident Superior (French Governor) of Annam, after concurrence with the Minister of Interior of the Royal Court of Annam, and on the proposition of the Resident Maire (French mayor) and the mandarin Chief of Province.

"These commissions functioned and lasted until 1945."
CONCLUSION

All through this study, our reader has no doubt recognized that during the French period, French authorities had shown a very reserved attitude in the admission of people of the province level to the local administrative affairs. Even by the end of the French occupation the provincial council had only a consultative role instead of the character of a fully representative body. In fact, the creation of these councils had never affected the large power of the French administrators. On the contrary, through the establishment of these (elected) councils, French authorities had obtained at least two significant advantages.

From the political point of view: They had succeeded in creating an illusion of democracy for their governing system, and satisfied to some extent a certain number of inhabitants of the province level. The inhabitants of the province of that time had the feeling of having their representatives by the side of the Province Chief, and the impression that these representatives could convey their aspirations to the Province Chief. Moreover, the creation of provincial councils in Tonkin and Annam had helped French authorities to achieve their political strategem in gradually reducing the power and authority of the King and mandarins over the population in these two protectorate countries.

In addition to this advantage of a political character, the creation of these provincial councils, in spite of a lack of effective power, had helped French authority to reduce abusive authoritarian actions by the Province Chief. However, there is one fact that we cannot neglect: After the outbreak of the Second World War and the defeat of France,
French authorities in Indochina did not hesitate to stop all activities of elected bodies, to be free from all obstacles or handicaps caused by provincial councils so as to be able to face the urgent situation in this country. But they had also skillfully saved some 'democratic character' by substituting a consultative mixed commission to the provincial council—the mixed commission being composed of a reduced number of members endowed with minimized consultative powers.
Although the following views on local administrative reform were expressed by a man who is no longer the secretary of the department, it is fair to assume they still reflect the general position of the department, especially since no evidence to the contrary has been noted and in fact, evidence in support of the general trend favored by the former secretary can be found in the announcements concerning provincial and local representative councils.

The first "reading" is taken from a major article prepared by Mr. Trinh for the Vietnamese-American Association Journal, Viet-My. Much of it has also appeared in other journals, namely, that of the Association for Administrative Research. The second, more recent - being of 1959, consists of extracts from a radio interview later published in the journal of the Department of the Interior.

THE GOVERNMENT POLICY ON IMPROVEMENT OF VILLAGE ADMINISTRATION

"After having carried out the decrees on the reorganization of the administration in the village, the Department of the Interior feels that it is urgent to solve a number of rather complex problems:

1. The selection of members of the village council,
2. The village budget,
3. The organization and consolidation of the hamlets."
"I. The Problem of Selection of Members of the Village Council:

"This problem is important in that the village organization will not achieve desired results if the authorities do not have efficient and competent officials. In this period of reconstruction and struggle against communism, the government needs to have village councils which are not only competent in administration but also enjoy a strong nationalist spirit and are firm, active, and loyal to the government. For that reason, the training of the village councils in the administrative as well as in the technical and military fields has received special attention from the Department of the Interior.

"Another problem of the central government concerns the allowances for the village council. In principle, all the expenditures for running the village affairs must be carried by the village treasury. But, because of the insecurity prevailing in the villages during the past years, the financial account of practically all the villages is in the red, and the provinces have had to bear three-fifths of the allowances for the village council. The other two-fifths come from the village budget. In Memorandum No. 2497/TTP/NS/S2 of March 25, 1957, the Secretary of State to the Presidency ordered the provinces to let the village budget take care of the above mentioned allowances.

"At present, there are still a large number of villages, especially in South Viet Nam, which do not have enough money to pay the allowances for the members of the village council. In order to help these villages, the government has instructed the provinces to set up a supplementary budget.

With regard to the revenue, this budget will consist of contributions made by the villagers in the provinces as follows: one-tenth of the total receipts and one-fourth of the taxable receipts of all markets, the revenue of which was above 100,000 piasters a year.

"With regard to expenditures, the supplementary budget is used to help the poor villages or to carry out works of public usefulness. Any monetary assistance has to be determined by the Chief of Province and must be submitted to the Presidency for approval. The above-mentioned measure concretizes the spirit of inter-village mutual assistance and permits an equitable distribution of resources among the villages belonging to the same province, and prevents a great difference in the wealth of the village.

"It should be remembered, however, that this is only a temporary measure until security can be completely restored so as to enable each village to establish its own budget. From the psychological standpoint, this mutual assistance cannot last forever because the rich village will be discouraged and will not exert itself to contribute to the funds, to continue to help defray the expenditures of other villages. Moreover, by contributing to the fund, the rich village will not have the means for the construction of its own public works.

"Another problem is how to increase the allowances for the village council and how to raise the allowances for the representative of the village. Indeed, the duties and responsibilities of the village council are much heavier and much more dangerous than in the old days. During the French domination period, a position in the village was an honor and
a title which brought advantages and profit to the official and his family. Today, the responsibilities of the village officials have a noble character because our country has become independent, but they have also become heavier burdens because there are so many problems to be solved. Moreover, the communists always attempt to kill or assassinate the most efficient and brightest elements in the village.

"However, the increase of allowances for the officials must depend on the size of the budget and the duties of the officials in question. Although everybody agrees that allowances for the council need to be increased, up to the present, this has not yet been achieved because of the limited budget. With regard to the representative of the village, the government feels it is necessary to raise his allowance to that of the village because the representative of the village is responsible before the district officer for the activities of the village. This is a problem of prestige and justice.

II. The Problem of the Village Budget:

"According to the Memorandum of March 25, 1957, the village must be self-supporting with regard to the budget from that date. The reason for this principle was reiterated once again in Memorandum 2991-BPTT/VP/M sent on December 23, 1957, to the General Directorate of Budget and Foreign Aid.

"It is only with self-sufficiency that an administrative unit can progress rapidly, especially in the social and economic fields. On the other hand, the population will be satisfied to see that their own contribution has been used in the construction of works for the province and the village, and that their own efforts and sacrifices have brought them direct benefit."
"The application of this principle, in practice, has met with several obstacles because the resources of the village have not yet been fully exploited, due to the fact that security has not been completely restored in some areas.

"In addition to the setting up of an inter-village mutual assistance fund, the government also studied many other measures. Here are three measures which are worth noting:

"a. It is possible to grant a fixed percentage of the collected taxes to the village council. The village will distribute it among those who are in charge of the collection of taxes. At present, the village can get only four per cent of the total and national taxes on land. If the government grants a percentage of the collected tax, either direct or indirect, and regardless whether it is national, provincial, local, principal or additional, it will greatly encourage the collection of taxes and help the village to bolster its budget.

"It should be remembered that before 1945, in addition to the monthly allowances, the village officials in charge of the collection of principal and additional taxes received the following percentages: five per cent of the taxes collected during the period from the beginning of the year to May 31; four per cent of the taxes collected from June 1st to September 30; three per cent of the taxes collected during the period from October 1st to the end of the year; and one per cent of the yearly taxes regardless of the date of their collection.

"Since 1946, up to June 11, 1956, members of the village council in charge of the collection of taxes were not given the above percentages. According to a decree of June 11, 1956, of the Department of Finance,
members of the village council in charge of the collection of land taxes for the national treasury receive an allowance fixed at exactly four per cent of the main tax.

"According to this decree, the member of the village in charge of the collection of taxes receives a percentage only on the land tax collected for the national treasury. This percentage is based only on the main tax (rather a small amount) and not on the additional taxes which constitute a greater amount. Furthermore, regardless of the date of the collection, these officials can receive only four per cent.

"The Secretariat of State to the Presidency is studying the change of procedure for the allocation of allowances for the village council.

"b. It is possible to grant land or rice fields to the village. A large number of villages are poor and do not have rice fields to obtain revenue for the village. The Department of the Interior has already instructed that a study be made of land facilities so as to redistribute them among the villages.

"3. It is possible to help the villages obtain property. In order to have more revenue, it is necessary for the village to have as many properties as possible. At present, some villages own houses and even streets. Some provinces even own rubber plantations, forest land, etc. These estates give to the province or the village budget rather large revenues.

III. The Organization and Consolidation of the Hamlet

"In the present administrative organization, the village is the basic unit necessary to maintain security and to get the people's support. But,
in practice, the hamlet is the real unit which can get things done, and the success or failure of the program of the government depends entirely on the activities of this unit. Because of the close liaison between the interfamily mutual assistance fund and the people's self-defense, this unit must be consolidated. It is on the hamlet level that the regional authorities can utilize to the fullest extent the two above mentioned systems. The status of the chief of hamlet is at present being studied by the Department of the Interior.

CONCLUSION

"After having studied briefly the important and complicated role played by the village council in the present administration, we can see clearly the noteworthy change of policy of the government with regard to the concept of leadership in this historic period.

"On the basis of the results obtained by the government in the village administration, we can make the following conclusions: In a rather short time, the national government has, in spite of all the internal and external difficulties, which need to be solved, built a solid foundation for the village administration and has greatly improved the working methods of the village officials. At present, throughout the territory of Viet Nam there are in all 2,596 villages with well-staffed village councils. They are distributed as follows:

South Viet Nam: 1,283 villages
Lowlands of Central Viet Nam: 878 villages
Highlands of Central Viet Nam: 435 villages
"All the reforms introduced by the government aim at the perfection of the independence and unification of Viet Nam in accordance with the principles of democracy and respect for the human being.

"As President Ngo Dinh Diem has stated, democracy demands sacrifices and virtues, and it can be added that democracy is a system of government which demands from us a permanent program of self-improvement. This system, as we have seen, manifests itself today in the Vietnamese villages as people participate more and more actively in the administration of their own village and in the community development which will bring direct benefits to all people living in the village.

"The democratic system of government in the national territory of Viet Nam undoubtedly will make further progress once security has been completely restored and the people hold their destiny in their own hands by participation in self-government."

QUESTION: Mr. Secretary, would you give us a description of administrative progress made during the last year?

"ANSWER: First, I want to take a brief look at the reorganization made in the Saigon prefectural administration.

The President, on March 23, 1959, enacted Arrête No. 74/TT, concerning the organization of the Saigon prefectural administration.

Saigon prefecture is an administrative unit which has a legal personality, a budget and public property, placed under the administration of a Prefect appointed by decree and directly responsible to the President. There is also the City Council.

Two vice-prefects and a Bureau Chief were appointed to assist the Prefect. The position of Secretary General was abolished.

The city council is composed of 24 members — instead of 35 previously representing eight districts.

This reduction in the membership of the council of course entailed a simplification in the workload.

Each district of the prefecture is placed under the administration of a District Chief — who formerly was the Councillor elected in the district — competent in administrative affairs, appointed by Presidential decree.

This new procedure enables the prefecture to ensure a more harmonious and efficient operation of its dependent agencies. Formerly, as elected members (of the City Council) and representatives of the authorities, the District Chiefs were confronted with a complicated situation in performing their functions.

Each district is divided into many "phuong"; each phuong is placed under the administration of a "phuong truong" (head of the phuong), appointed by decree of the Prefect, in light of the District Chief's proposal.
Another important achievement scored last year, it should be recalled, was the establishment of two government delegations in the Eastern and Western parts of South Viet Nam.

The plan (region) system has been abolished. The plan (region) no longer has a legal personality, autonomous budget, and regulatory power.

Nevertheless, representatives of the central authorities in important provinces solve difficult problems or effectively intervene with the central authorities.

Therefore, Arrêté No. 87/VN of April 15, 1959, established the delegation in south-western South Viet Nam for the twelve provinces of the west, and Arrêté no. 138/TTP of June 18, 1959, established the delegation in eastern South Viet Nam for the ten provinces of the east.

In addition, in order to improve the performance of rural affairs, the authorities (provincial and district) have encouraged the people to take an active part in village administration.

Many youthful elements have become members of the village councils.

In the provinces of southwest Viet Nam, the composition of the village councils is strengthened by three additional members - the political, youth, and information commissioners - so that the village council can provide adequate assistance to the local authorities who are to guide the rural people in their efforts towards the improvement of rural life. These commissioners receive monthly salaries from the national budget.

Allowances for the village council members and hamlet chiefs are also taken into account in the effect that support will be given those elements who bring their devotion to duties assigned them. Hamlet chiefs have been selected from among anti-communist elements to give the village council their
active assistance in the maintenance of security in the hamlets.

"QUESTION: Mr. Secretary, would you tell us the advantages of the creation of two new provinces - Quang Duc and Phuoc Thanh?

"ANSWER: As you know, Quang Duc Province, established by Presidential Arrete No. 24/NV of January 23, 1956, includes:

1. the area northeast of Phuoc Hoa District, Phuoc Long Province.
2. the whole area of Daksong District, excluding Daklao Canton in the north and part of Lac District, Daklao Province.
3. part of the area north of Dilling (Đibling) District, Lam Dong Province.

Phuoc Thanh Province, established by Presidential Arrete No. 25/NV dated January 23, 1959, includes:

1. the territory of Tich Uyen District, excluding the Gay Gao area in the southeast, and part of the northwestern area.
2. part of the western area of Binh Duong Province.
3. part of the northern area of Phuoc Long Province.
4. Part of the eastern area of Long Khanh Province.

The establishment of these two new provinces was aimed at the materialization (realization) of the government's program for improvement of the people's living standards and local security.

Formerly, the territory of Banmethuot and Bien Hoa (old) provinces stretched over a vast area where effective control could not be exerted and many remained virgin lands.

"The establishment of the two new provinces of Quang Duc and Phuoc Thanh which were parts of the territory of Banmethuot and Bien Hoa, resulted in many advantages in terms of security and economic activities."
"Besides, the development of these areas is in full swing, their resources will be fully exploited and swiftly transported. Administratively, the authorities' representatives will be in closer touch with the people, in order to get a deeper understanding of their aspirations.

"QUESTION: Mr. Secretary, in addition to these newly-established provinces, we also learned that a number of PMS districts have recently been integrated into the Central Lowlands, is this true?

"ANSWER: Yes, sir, that's true. A number of new districts have been established within the framework of the plan for reclamation of wastelands. The intermediary area (between the Plateaus and the coastal area of Central Viet Nam) was integrated into the Central Lowlands.

"The population density of this region is low and Highlanders constitute the greater proportion.

"The Central authorities' objective is the expansion of this area toward the coast where the ground level is higher, material means are plentiful, and cultural level is high.

"A proportion of the territory of the PMS Provinces of Kontum, Pleiku, and Darlac have been integrated into coastal provinces of Quang Ngai, Binh Dinh, Phu Yen and Khanh Hoa - either for the establishment of new districts or the expansion of existing districts.

"Quang Ngai Province, Son Ha District, was consequently expanded and Chuong Nghia District established.

"In Binh Dinh Province, to establish An Tuc District, i.e. the old district of Tan An.

"In Phu Yen Province, to expand the territory of Dong Xuan and Son Hon and Phu Duc Districts.
"In Khanh Hoa Province, to expand the territory of Minh Hoa District and the establishment of the Khanh Duong Administration offices.

QUESTION: Mr. Secretary, we have learned that you are particularly concerned with the in-service training for civil servants; would you give us a description of the training undertaken by the Interior Department during the last year?

ANSWER: During the last year, the training of civil servants and cadres at various levels at the Department of the Interior has been undertaken on a large scale.

With an aim to give the village councils, especially the police commissioners, a clear understanding of their power and functions, three training courses had been held in Rach Due (Cap St. Jacques) for 860 police commissioners from 12 southeast provinces in South Viet Nam.

Civil servants of various administrative levels from the provinces as well as from the department attended in-service training classes conducted according to the documents and program prepared by central authorities, in order that they could attain opportunity to improve their knowledge and their professional abilities, and thereby efficiency could be increased.

For the police and security branch, training courses were opened on a continual basis to train heads of services and chiefs of sub-sections and security agents throughout the country.

So far, 1,200 agents and 110 heads of security services and chiefs of sub-sections have received training.

The plan for training police agents will be carried on in the days ahead.
Cadres of the Civil and People's Self-Defense Corps will also receive training either at the military regions, or at training centers established by the Central Authorities, or in their localities. Many Civil Guard officers have been sent abroad for observation tours in friendly countries.

At the Department of the Interior, an airy and well-illuminated conference hall has recently been built for the in-service training and political study conducted for up to 400 participants.

It's my belief that in-service training for civil servants will bring concrete results and provide the authorities with cadres who not only are competent in their career but have also acquired clear-sighted ideas of the national government's policy.
III. THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC SETTING OF LOCAL ADMINISTRATION

In the study of local administration in Viet Nam there is a need for gaining a clear perspective of the 'many, many activities, influences, conditions that bear upon problems of public administration at the community level. Lacking a better term, these may be identified as elements of the "socio-economic setting." Broadly viewed, these include not only the existing cultural patterns but also the present programs of the various governmental departments and agencies having close contact with the population in its home environment.

Thus, the student of local administration must develop considerable appreciation for the study of sociology as well as for the substantive interests of the various governmental departments such as public health, agriculture, and public works. Before a truly effective system of local administration can be devised, the creators must have made it a "part and parcel" of these various elements. Such a task cannot be left to the mind of a man whose interest might be narrowly confined to the legal aspects of administration.

This section can only begin to point the way toward the degree of mastery of the social sciences that should be attained before moving to the stage of administrative reform. To compensate for its shortcomings, it will suggest some additional readings, but by no means is this a complete guide.

Excerpts from the final summary report of this regional seminar suggest the scope and the approach of social scientists to the problems of rural development. Several excellent papers were given during this conference; parts of one are reproduced in the next subsection.

I. The role of sociological and psychological research in rural development programs.

Three reports were submitted by Mr. H.M. Phillips (Unesco), Mr. Nguyen Khac Hoach (Viet Nam) and Father Birou (France) respectively.

Mr. H. M. Phillips opened the discussion with general observations on the role of social research in the solution of problems of rural life. He recalled the classic distinction between pure research intended to contribute to the development of scientific discipline or the scientific body of knowledge, basic research for the collection and interpretation of the underlying data necessary for the understanding of the problems of particular regions (e.g. ecological, economic and demographic resources; legal and administrative systems; system of land ownership; class structure, etc.) and applied research aimed at contributing to the implementation of programs of action by means of economic and social surveys and preliminary studies of rural communities. He indicated what the various social science disciplines

could contribute to the solution of rural problems and cited instances from Southeast Asia and from other parts of the world. His resume included a passage dealing with the way in which social research could be used in the evaluation of development projects.

"Father Birou drew the seminar's attention to the need to integrate rural development into a general programme of economic development. Economic development always involves mobilization at all levels of the socio-economic system. It is also closely bound up with other aspects of daily life. All the humane sciences must therefore be brought into play if programs of action are to be correctly prepared. As regards the importance of human factors in rural development, a distinction should be made between the now traditional rural societies in process of development and rural societies already participating in a market economy. Human factors would appear to have been rather an obstacle to the introduction of new techniques in traditional societies. Thus careful psychological preparation is needed in order to carry out development projects in such societies. Education can play a vital part in this connection, and teachers must be associated in the research undertaken by economists and sociologists.

"Mr. Nguyen Rha Hoach's report was more specially devoted to social research in Viet Nam. In that country, social research is not entrusted to a single body but is carried out by several governmental institutions, such as the National Statistical Institute, the General Commissariat for Agricultural Development, the Commissariat for Civic Action and the Committee for Community Development. He laid
particular stress on the importance of the research carried out during the past two years by the Economics and Humanism Group. This research had helped the government to prepare its rural development projects (especially those relating to land reform and community development).

The discussion of these reports revealed that all the experts were agreed on the need for research, not only during the preparation of rural development programs, but also during and after their implementation. Research should cover basic data (geographical, ecological, demographic, institutional, psychological, etc.), the objectives to be reached, the means to be employed and the evaluation of final results. The discussion also showed the essential role of innovators in the adoption of new techniques, and the need to evaluate the social and economic effects of rural development. Such development inevitably implies social changes. The aim of social research is to show how changes are produced and how they can be directed so as to avoid a breakdown in the social structure.

II. Rural life and working conditions in Southeast Asia.

In his introductory report, Mr. Vu Quoc Thuc set out to demonstrate that problems of rural life in the countries of Southeast Asia could, despite their great complexity, be reduced to a common denominator, namely the need to modernize rural life.

Farm work imposes on peasants a number of limitations due to their habitat, work calendar, social life, etc. For example, it is not easy for peasants to organize public utility services or defend themselves against bands of pirates. In the West, however, thanks to
technological progress, improved transport, the electrification of the countryside and the mechanization of agriculture, peasants have gradually freed themselves from these limitations. There is no appreciable difference between rural and urban living conditions. Such is not the case in the countries of Southeast Asia. A deep gulf exists in these countries between urban and rural life, because the growth of cities has not been the result of natural economic development, but of contact with the West. The towns of Southeast Asia may be thought of as doors through which western ideas and techniques have entered. For a long time, these novelties met with strong resistance from the peasant population. Yet there seems to have been a kind of awakening since the Second World War, and Southeast Asian peasants, realizing their poverty, ardently desire to improve their lot by means of appropriate reforms. Circumstances would therefore appear favourable to the combining of governmental intervention and peasant initiative under a national community development programme.

"With special reference to Thailand, Mr. Nikom Chandravithun said that many community development projects had been set on foot in that country, and had involved heavy annual expense; however, progress had been very slow for many reasons, in particular, the lack of a long-term general policy. The Government of Thailand had recently prepared a national community development plan based on the following principles:

(a) Villagers must learn to use their own cultivation, their own manpower and their own resources in order to improve their living conditions."
"(b) The governmental aid already available must be made more effective by means of improved methods of action.

"Professor Lauriston Sharp tried to make an 'inventory of resources' as suggested by Mr. Phillips in his report, that is, to describe, analyze and evaluate the possibilities of utilizing peasant initiative in Thailand. He took as his point of departure the social structure of the Thai village, where, outside the family, only four definite social groups existed, the Buddhist priests, the notables, the lay temple committee and the schoolmasters. He had come to the conclusion that the priests had the most prestige and could play an extremely important part as innovators. Among the notables, a distinction should be made between elected officials and the real chiefs of the community. Any change obviously needed the acceptance of the real chiefs. The lay temple committee could be a highly effective instrument for local reforms. Lastly, the schoolmasters, owing to their knowledge and experience, could make a useful contribution to community development.

"The situation in Cambodia was the subject of a paper by Mr. Ouk Soeung. The general information supplied by the speaker indicated that the rural sector was developing favourably in that kingdom and was not creating special difficulties.

"Mr. J. E. Ismael stated the problem for Indonesia in the following terms: 'How can the changes which have occurred in rural districts be made use of in order to mobilize traditional social institutions for the improvement of peasant living conditions?' The village councils during the pre-revolutionary period had been exclusively composed of
landed proprietors under the chairmanship of the tjamat (administrator, head of the district). Frequently, the personal views of the tjamat did not at all coincide with the aspirations of the villagers. Whenever the tjamat was transferred to another post, his successor tended to follow an entirely different policy. Since 1945, this social structure had greatly changed. Every family head was ipso facto a member of the village council, which had become an autonomous body, since all village administrators were elected by the council and were responsible to it. Another new element was the creation of village sections of political organizations, and the constitution of peasant and youth movements. Mr. Ismael considered that these changes would be highly favourable to the mobilization of certain traditional institutions such as the arisan (tontine) and the Gotong-rojong (mutual aid in work) with a view to improving peasant living conditions.

"Abundant information on Viet Nam was supplied by Messrs. Nguyen Huy Bao, Chau Tien Khuong, Bui Tuong Huan and Phan Tan Chau."

"After clarifying the concept of social structure, Mr. Nguyen Huy Bao undertook to analyze traditional Vietnamese values, with reference to their three religious sources, Confucianism, Buddhism and Taoism. His conclusion was that the economic underdevelopment of Viet Nam was due to a set of historical, geographical and cultural factors. Nothing could be done about the first two types of factors, but the third could be influenced by giving the Vietnamese a more rational and more technical outlook.

"Mr. Chau Tien Khuong felt that the Vietnamese rural structure..."
could be summed up in four characteristics: community feeling (that is, an attachment to the communal organization), the absence of a capitalistic mentality, the absence of excessive individualism and a tendency towards pauperism. He nevertheless believed that rural development would be considerably facilitated by a loosening of community bonds, by population movements and by the spread of a market economy.

Mr. Bui Tuong Huan also thought that traditional values and social structures were, to some extent, an obstacle to improved levels of living, but that their influence was not preponderant, for economic development was more dependent on economic factors (such as the availability of capital and technicians, local savings, etc.). The past should not, therefore, merely be ignored and traditional institutions systematically destroyed. Such institutions could still be of great value, especially in the matter of social security. Moreover, raising the level of income was not everything. In Viet Nam, as in other Southeast Asian countries, it would appear wiser to aim at raising the 'satisfaction level' (a term invented by Robert Guillain with reference to Japan).

To complete this analysis of existing structures, Mr. Phan Tan Chuc tried to describe present social trends as manifested by governmental measures in Viet Nam: land reform, the community development movement, the creation of agricultural development centres, the creation of prosperity zones and of professional associations; the co-operative movement, the extension of farm-credit, the literacy campaign, etc. On the basis of the first results obtained with these measures, Mr. Chuc
expressed his faith in the success of efforts to improve rural living conditions in Viet Nam.

The discussion of the reports gave rise to a general exchange of views which revealed that:

(a) Present-day rural life in Southeast Asian countries shows certain characteristics which are rather general and which may provisionally be placed under "13" headings:

1. Demographic disequilibrium (lack of balance in the distribution of the population by regions, especially as between mountain regions and plains).

2. Contrast between flooded rice fields and dry lands.

3. Existence of ethnic minorities.

4. Existence of traditional civilizations with their laws and customs.

5. Respect for the family (in the sense of blood relationship).

6. Intense village community feeling.

7. Very limited and sometimes unsuitable school instruction.

8. Unsatisfied aspirations of the peasant masses, together with passivity as regards certain fields of activity.

9. Spiritual influence of certain beliefs tending to check the desire for material progress.

10. Tendency towards tolerance, excluding class and religious strife.

11. Insufficiency of collective equipment, especially sanitary installations and communication lines.
12. Insufficiency of peasant income, due to under-employment and low farm productivity.

13. Slowness of technological change, and even greater slowness of social change.

It would none the less appear that despite their complexity, the problems of rural life can be reduced to a common denominator, the need for modernization or, more exactly, the need to fill the present gap between urban life and rural life through the introduction of new techniques and ideas in country areas.

(b) Traditional structures are frequently an obstacle, though not an insurmountable one, to the modernization of rural life. It is even probable that, since the Second World War, such structures have lost much of their power to retard progress, since the need for modernization has been more and more strongly felt and the pace of development has accelerated. There have been instances where modernization has had the support of traditional forms of society and local leaders.

(c) Though rural development must form part of a general plan, the essential effort still needs to come from the peasants themselves. They cannot improve their lot unless they want to. It is necessary to find minds which are open to progress and collaborate with them. It might, for example, be possible to spread the desire for progress through an improvement in the health situation and by utilizing women and children, who form the majority of the rural population everywhere.
III. Problems connected with the introduction and communication of new techniques and ideas.

There were seven reports on this subject, by Professor Walker (speaking on behalf of the Australian National Commission for UNESCO), Professor Lindstrom (United States of America), Professor Silcock (University of Malaya), Professor Nguyen Cao Hach (Viet Nam), Dr. Dalisay (Philippines), Mr. Nguyen Manh Tu (Viet Nam) and Professor Hayashi (Japan).

"Professor Walker spoke of research undertaken in this field in Australia by the University of Melbourne for the Department of Agriculture of the State of Victoria. This research appeared to have led to the discovery of a theoretical approach and certain scientific methods which could be applied by any country in the world (in particular by the use of indices such as the urbanization index, the index of exposure to mass communication media, etc.). It had also been possible to forecast the social cost of technological changes and the means of meeting such a cost.

"Professor Lindstrom showed, on the basis of the Seki-Mura study in Japan, how traditional cultural values and standards often thwarted efforts to develop new techniques. The 'communication' of such techniques always depended on their 'acceptance' by the peasant population. The 'felt needs' of the population must be taken as basis; confidence would seem to be the determining factor in the acceptance of new techniques.

"Professor Silcock's report studied some economic aspects of the
dissemination of new ideas and techniques, in particular, the roles
to be assigned to the spirit of enterprise and to education in the
achievement of rural development programmes. Experience had shown
that methods normally used in a free-trade economy were not always
effective in the countries of Southeast Asia, and that the community
development procedure could give excellent results. Nevertheless, the
real aim—the strengthening of individual initiative and responsibility—
must not be lost sight of.

Professor Nguyen Cao Hach analysed the obstacles to the introduc-
tion of new techniques in Southeast Asian countries and attached parti-
cular importance to the lack of integration in Asian societies; the
isolation of social groups and national units, the class structure and
certain technical and economic factors.

Dr. Dalisay cited the experience of the Philippines to show that,
before any rural reform was undertaken, economic research on the opera-
tion and management of farms in the various parts of a country was
indispensable.

With more particular reference to Viet Nam, Mr. Nguyen Manh Tu
analysed the natural mechanism by means of which new ideas and techniques
penetrated into a village. He mentioned three main lines of penetration:
the initiative of an inhabitant, stimulus from natural leaders and the
collective action of primary groups. He concluded that government
intervention was necessary but must not go beyond certain limits.

On the basis of Japanese experience, Professor Hayashi analysed
the structure of traditional rural communities and discussed the problems
raised by the introduction of new techniques in such communities. In his opinion, it was very difficult to evaluate the degree of influence to be attributed to the work of dissemination alone.

"The discussion of the seven reports just mentioned gave rise to an extensive exchange of views. The question was asked who were usually the innovators in villages, the notables or the young people who had received instruction in technical schools? The answer would seem to vary according to the locality. The role of women in Southeast Asian countries was examined at length. All the experts were agreed on its great importance. It was noted that in several countries of the region, women tend to have legal status equal to that of men.

CONCLUSIONS

"In the discussion of the papers submitted to the seminar the following conclusions emerged and were agreed upon by the participants:

"(1) The necessity for modernization of rural life in Southeast Asia raises many vital economic and social problems in the solution of which the social sciences have an essential contribution.

"By providing an analysis and understanding of the various types of social and economic change necessarily involved in rural modernization, the application of modern social science methods and research can:

"1. Provide the necessary scientific, economic and social information to the governments of the region regarding the social and economic resources existing or needing to be developed for the various types
of rural development, and of the likely economic and social consequences of various types of rural development;

"2. Enable governments and communities to plan ahead to meet the social and economic problems associated with rural development;

"3. Supply governments and communities with economical techniques forgetting accurate data on which to base development plans and to operate and evaluate them, and for this purpose to draw upon the body of social research techniques and finds already established in other regions of the world.

(ii) "1. The research agencies of governments of the region should draw up long-term research plans which will enable governments to have before them the necessary basic data for development programs, and in the interim to develop by sampling and other more rapid methods, facilities for obtaining information needed for urgent action programs;

"2. The universities and social scientists of the region should in the course of their ordinary program of teaching and research direct special attention to the building up of research techniques and the necessary body of knowledge and scientific techniques in the social field needed to deal with problems of rural life.

"3. Social scientists should be consulted and attached, when possible, to major rural development projects in order to ensure that social factors necessary for their successful implementation are taken into account and the methods of social science applied in their operation.

"4. Recent developments in the methods of evaluation provide
governments with means of assessing the effectiveness of those programs, and such evaluation procedures should become a regular feature of development projects involving substantial expenditure of resources.

(iii) 1. In view of the limited resources likely to be available both from overseas and from the countries of Southeast Asia, priorities need to be accorded for the more urgent research. Priorities may vary from country to country but it is essential that they be established and adhered to. In general, priority should be given to research projects that produce large returns for relatively small investments, or to research projects which promise to have fundamental effects upon the economic structure of the nation. Among the more urgent matters calling for study and research is family planning and its place in economic development and demographic adjustment.

2. The supply of trained social scientists needs to be substantially increased. This implies that the universities of Southeast Asia need to expand their social science departments to cover empirical investigation and research methods in all the various social sciences and to review their organization to this end.

3. There is need for the organization of a system of interchange of methods and procedures applied, and of studies made by national and other local research institutes in the countries of this region.

4. A booklet dealing with social research methods and procedures already applied or applicable in this region would be of considerable value.

5. There is a need for consideration of the establishment of
a Southeast Asia Regional Social Research Training Center, possibly in conjunction with existing international institutes (e.g. UNESCO Research Center on the Social Implications of Industrialization in Southern Asia.)

6. It is recognized that the need for research should not hold up action where the lines of effective development are clear but at the same time it is noted that programs based on previous scientific study are normally more economical in the use of a country’s scarce resources than action based on inadequate data.

7. In order that the results of social research should be used and the methods and approaches of the social sciences should be more widely applied, at the same time as the supply of social research workers is increased, there must be an increase in the number of administrators who appreciate how social scientists can help with practical development programs. This presupposes that the universities and research organizations (governmental and non-governmental) will develop new types of training and may demand the governments establish special programs of in-service training for their administrators to familiarize them with the contributions of the social sciences. This calls for co-operation between the universities and these organizations and the various government agencies.

8. In the training of social scientists, great value can be derived from the training of students in practical field techniques, for this provides a way of ensuring that the social scientist understands the practical problems of the villages at first hand, and has some practice in dealing with village people. It also provides a means of gathering data that can be used
to assist the administrators pending the gathering of more reliable information by fully trained personnel using more advanced techniques.

(iv) The participants of the seminar, having examined the results of existing research and experience in the application of social science techniques, considered that:

1. Governments need to give careful consideration to the various rural development programs that are possible and to concentrate resources and activities upon strategic programs, to avoid wasting scarce resources, both physical and human, and to avoid arousing opposition from villagers beset by a variety of development programs.

2. Vital to the success of rural development programs is the state of development of public administration and economic organization. Land ownership, farm credit, the availability of technical services and the general market for agricultural produce must be given attention if rural modernization is to succeed. Likewise, the extent to which the whole machinery of central and local government is able to meet the additional calls placed upon it by rural development programs must be considered. A most fruitful field of research would be the reaction of villagers to various types of institutional organization introduced by the central government to implement various aspects of rural development. Careful attention should also be given to farmers' and peasants' associations as a means through which technological improvement may be promoted and channelled down to the level of the individual farm.

3. If rural development programs are to succeed, the co-operation of the villagers is essential. Villagers are ready for progress in
so far as they can see the attraction of better living standards, and they show remarkable adaptability to certain technical innovations while tenaciously resisting others. The traditional institutions of the rural community can sometimes be utilized to support modernization, and social science research may save governments a great deal of money, effort and time by revealing the elements in the traditions which can be utilized in this way. Where the traditional social structure is opposed to change, it may be necessary to explore it carefully to find how the notion of progress can be stimulated and fostered. It may be necessary to begin with needs felt by the community in order to progress to more basic needs which it may be unwilling to recognize at first. Here social research has an important part to play gathering reliable information on what villagers really want. It is necessary to consider the nature of the community and to use various techniques of getting its participation in rural development. There can be no doubt of the importance of basic education for literacy in this process, but its value can be much greater if it is consciously directed not merely to literacy but also to the spirit of national progress receptivity to impersonal means of communication such as the mass media, the experimental attitude and the life of the village as a whole. The biological division of the community into men, women and children provides a basis for influencing the people, particularly through an emphasis on health improvement which touches every person in the community and usually brings a ready response from the women. Older people are not always opposed to change, they often accept progress
for their children while resisting it for themselves. It is important to understand the 'influence structure' of the rural community and to ensure that progress will not be opposed by the leaders of the community.

"4. Special attention needs to be given to those willing to make innovations or to encourage them. These individuals and groups may require support against the ridicule and opposition of others. Technical innovators are not always to be found among the social or political leaders of the community. The application of social science techniques and research to the process of diffusion of technical and economic information can achieve economies and increase effectiveness, particularly if emphasis is laid upon the fullest possible use of existing social structures, leaders and systems: political, educational, spiritual, social and technical.

"5. Extension of primary education in rural areas is a vital factor in creating the necessary psychological climate for economic development, overcoming inertia and providing rural people with the means of realizing their economic potentiality and becoming effective parts of a modernizing society in which literacy and self-reliance are necessary to enable the individual and the family to achieve a reasonable level of living. This requires at least some reform in the school curriculum in order to meet the basic needs of rural communities, and special training of teachers who will work in rural areas.

"6. The extension of public health activities, mainly sanitation and the care of mothers and children, is another vital factor in
creating the necessary physical and psychological fitness for economic
development and overcoming of physical inertia, providing rural people
with the necessary health and vigour to enable the individual and the
family to achieve a reasonable level of living.

"7. The role of important events, natural or man-made, in inducing
change should not be overlooked. It is important that actual events,
if they are deliberately arranged by government policy, should be
intelligibly related to the technical changes that are required.

"8. The long-term prospects of the 'progressive' villagers need
careful attention to ensure that their abilities and enthusiasm are
applied constructively. Encouragement of education and technological
competence will be self-defeating if the community does not provide
opportunities for the full use of the special qualifications of such
people.

"9. Constant contact between the administrators of rural develop-
ment programs, technical agents, field workers and social scientists
is urgently needed so that each may learn the problems and techniques
of the others. In particular, social scientists can play an important
part in furthering the co-operation of these various workers by studying
the pressures and goals relevant to each type of worker and taking
these into account in their relations with them.

"(v) It was suggested that governments should make full use of the
facilities available as regards assistance from the various international
agencies, both bilateral and multilateral, for:

1. The development of the methods and techniques of the social
sciences in their countries;
2. Increasing the supply of social scientists and providing additional training for existing specialists;

3. Giving administrators the opportunity to understand the utility of the social sciences in relation to specific programs;

4. Providing and exchanging specific documentation required in the social sciences;

5. Encouraging, assisting and conducting research related to rural development.

"In availing themselves of such assistance, governments would need to ensure appropriate co-ordination between the various types of assistance and with their own activities."

* * *
During the UNESCO conference mentioned above, one paper was read explaining the use of social science research relative to the construction and administration of programs aimed at social and economic development. It is essential that personnel concerned with constructing an administrative system see how social research can be employed. It is not inconceivable that the design of an administrative system might be more true if it were based on some systematic research involving the attitudes and interests of the population vis-a-vis governmental organization. In addition, it is evident from a reading of these explanations that some permanent arrangement for a continuing use of research personnel in local development should be viewed as a vital part of any administrative organization that might be constructed. Of course, whether this would be an integrated part of every local unit or a special service of the national administration remains undetermined.

In the first two sections of this paper, Mr. Phillips discussed "The Role of the Social Sciences and Social Research," and "Basic Research." In the opinion of this reviewer, Mr. Phillips in the

following sections has set forth an excellent statement about the ways social research can help administrators. He closes by suggesting in general how provisions could be made for organizing research.

"In the report of the FAO entitled 'A Survey of the Investigations Required for Planning Development of Agriculture: Forests and Fisheries in the Lower Mekong Basin' (February 1959) the following passage illustrates the growing need for social research: 'It is tempting to accept the view that the villager is well satisfied with his traditional way of life and that development must therefore be a slow evolutionary process and there is no need for energetic action. Against this there are two important arguments: (1) the villager is becoming rapidly exposed to the impact of modern influences and his sons will certainly require something different from that which satisfied his forebears, and (2) the Basin countries cannot afford that their rural populations remain merely self-sufficient; it is necessary that they become increasingly contributive to the national income. Changes in mode of life, e.g. from shifting to settled cultivation, from flood to controlled irrigation, from individual to cooperative marketing, will involve unwelcome acceptance of new disciplines. How best to obtain this acceptance is an important task for a sociologist with insight to appreciate the complexity of religious, animistic, traditional, social and material urges affecting each individual. His findings will help to guide the extension services which will be essential to the development of agricultural progress in the Basin.'

"If basic research of the kind described in the first part of
this paper is promoted, administration will become in a better position to know: which areas are those where programs of technical change are likely to yield the best results on terms of the inter-relation of economic and social resources; which are those where limited and concentrated projects are required and of what kind; which need an 'opening' or a 'loosening' of community ties; which need the creation of more group action and local leadership; which must depend for further advance mainly upon legal and institutional changes; which must depend upon a series of specific agricultural measures such as irrigation and reclamation, land redistribution, changed patterns of agricultural production or new techniques; and which must look to the development of secondary or tertiary employment including the introduction of small scale industries, the setting up of trading estates; and finally which can only progress by the broadest possible combination of a number of the above measures, accompanied by a general program of education and promotion of family welfare in order to create the necessary social infra-structure and incentive for development.

"The extent of the research required will depend on intensity of the impact which the program of technical change is likely to have on living conditions and social structure, e.g. are the technical changes limited to specific production operations, or do they involve major switches in production patterns affecting a community's way of life, from extensive to intensive agriculture, from single crop to diversified farming, from tenancy or wage labor to ownership, and from village life to living on scattered farms, or from agriculture to industry."