

SOMALIA: REVOLUTIONARY TRANSFORMATION

*Somali papers
presented at the third
Frantz Fanon International
Conference.*

Mogadishu June 18~24, 1979

SELECTED, COMPILED & EDITED BY:
DR. HUSSEIN M. ADAM

First Halqan Publication

Struggle to
learn in order to
learn to
struggle better

HAILGAIN

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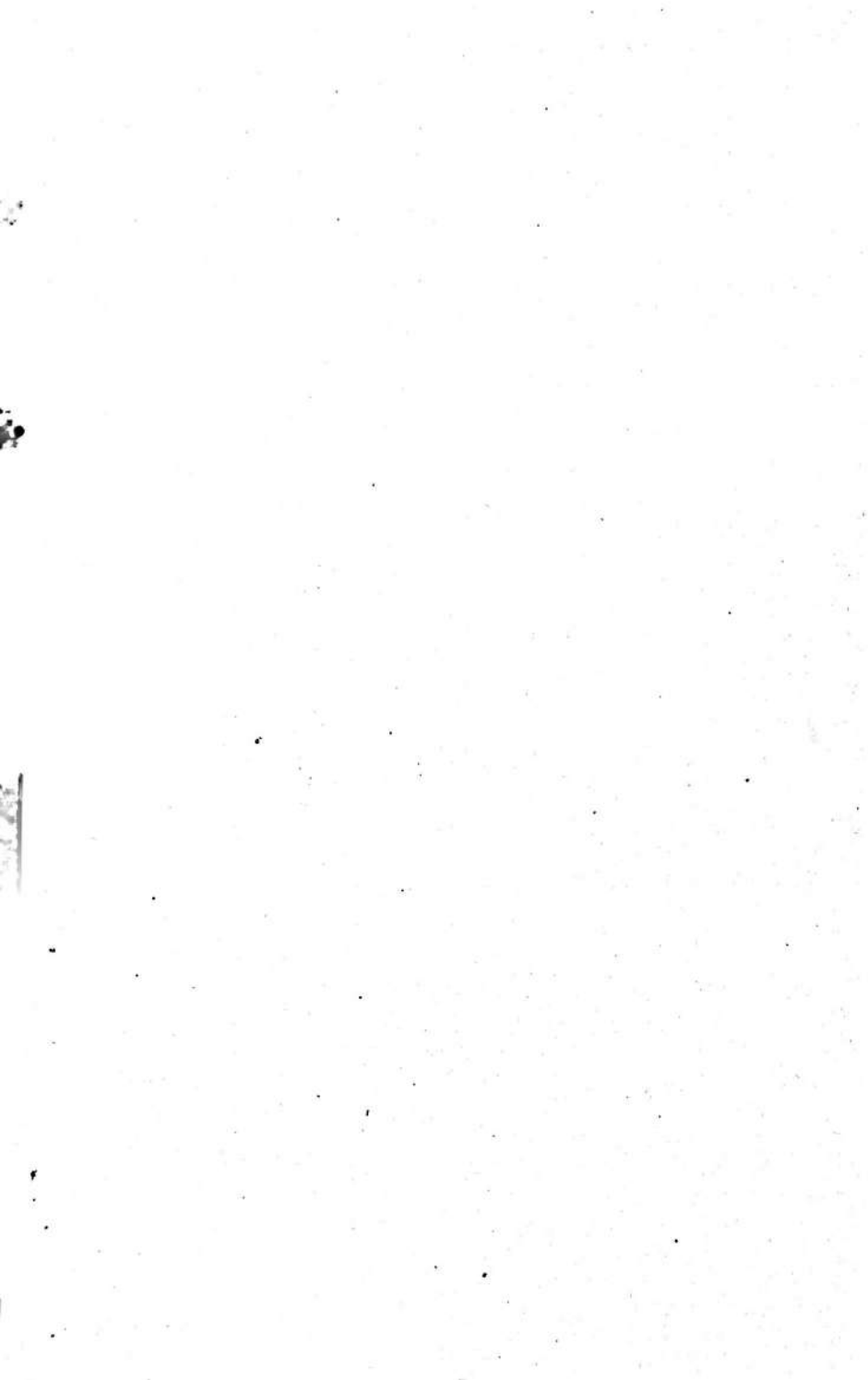
SOMALIA: REVOLUTIONARY TRANSFORMATIONS

**Somali papers presented at the
Third Frantz Fanon Conference,
Mogadishu, June, 18 — 24th, 1979.**

**Selected, compiled and edited by
Dr. Hussein Mohamed Adam
Senior Editor of HALGAN;
Chairman of Social Sciences,
Lafuole College of Education,
Somali National University.**

FIRST HALGAN PUBLICATION

Mogadishu, State Printing Agency · October 1979.



PREFACE

The materials in this book, **SOMALIA: REVOLUTIONARY TRANSFORMATION**, resulted from the 3rd Frantz Fanon International Conference held in Mogadishu from June 18th till 24th, 1979. The Conference organised itself under the general theme **HUMAN DEVELOPMENT MODELS IN ACTION**.

As the General Programme indicates (see page 9), the Conference heard papers based on the experience of several countries or communities besides Somalia. However, the main thrust of the Conference was to focus on studying the ten year revolutionary experience of Somalia as a concrete historical example of Human Development Models in Action.

In order to understand and analyse Somali revolutionary experience participants were organised into groups.

One group focused on the reconstruction, reorganisation and mobilization aspects of the transformations from colonial to a socialist-oriented Somalia. The group looked into the relationship of the social and psychological development of the large masses of people to the new structures of their society (political, economic generally and educational, health in particular).

Another group focussed primarily on the resettlement of nomads who had been afflicted by the serious drought of (1973-1975). These former nomads have resettled in agricultural and fishing villages such as Kurtunwarey and Barawe (Brava). The group looked into the transformation of their life styles and social relations as a result of the new production relations as well as the strengths and limitations of the new resettlement centres.

The Third group focussed on the Somali women experience as an aspect of the transformation of African women into a new force in the Third World. The central concern was on the conscious action of society to promote the welfare of women and their role in social reconstruction. The group paid attention on the changing role of women, the family and the actions of men within the general perspective of work and human resources.

The fourth group dwelt primarily with the relationship between revolutionary reconstruction and the health and general well-being of the masses. The group analyzed the efforts to improve both in quality and quantity the physical and mental life of the people implied in the Rural Development Campaign (literacy, health, census etc.) and the nomadic Resettlement Programme.

The fifth group studied the reconstruction efforts directed towards children and youth. The central concern was on the actions on behalf of previously destitute, delinquent or orphaned children and youth. The participants focussed on the institutions, theory and methods necessary for the transformation of these previously excluded and dispossessed elements to be active participants in their own transformation as well as that of their society.

The sixth group focussed primarily on the very significant and dramatic experience, since October 21st 1972, of the writting of the Somali language and its use for the first time as a medium of formal instructions in schools, as a weapon against mass illiteracy, as the official written language in administration, social, political, and economic life generally. The group studied language writing and language use as a concrete manifestation of the revolutionary struggle against colonial and neo-colonial culture and consciousness.

The participants from abroad were provided with general readings on the above issues transmitted through the Fanon Research and Development Centre about four months before the Conference.

During their stay in Somalia, the participants, organized according to the groups mentioned above, undertook field trips to examine the agricultural resettlement centre at Kurtunwarey, the fisheries centre at Barawe, the Revolutionary Youth Centres at the Lafole and Afgoi, the Agricultural Crash Programmes, the Sand-dune Project at Shalambot as well as the Somali National University campus, various schools, hospitals, market etc.

In addition to the above, it was decided to ask the Somali participants of the Conference to prepare relevant papers that will illuminate many of the issues and concerns described above. These papers constitute the core of the materials published in this book edited by Dr. Hussein M. Adam.

Other materials include keynote addresses given at the Conference as well as the important exchange that occurred between our leader, President Mohamed Siad Barre, and the delegates to the Third Frantz Fanon International Conference at Hotel Al-Uruba, on Friday evening, June 22nd, 1979.

The Frantz Fanon Research and Development Centre agreed to publish, as soon as possible, all the papers and proceedings of the Mogadishu Conference. This publication is therefore limited mostly to the Somali papers and keynote addresses delivered at the Conference.

HALGAN, established since October 1976, facilitated the hosting of the Frantz Fanon Centre Mogadishu Conference.

HALGAN is honoured to issue this book as a modest contribution to the Tenth Anniversary of the October 21st 1969 Revolution.

DR. Mohamed Adan Sheikh

**Chairman of the Somali Preparatory and Coordinating
Committee for the Fanon Centre Conference,
Chairman of the Editorial Board of HALGAN;
Member of Central Committee of the SRSP.**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The editor of this book is grateful to those colleagues who have contributed papers to the Mogadishu Frantz Fanon Centre Conference.

Miss Roda Abdallah Mohamed and Miss War-mog Jama Mohamed typed most of the original papers and documents for the Conference. We are also grateful to the SRSP Headquarters, SIDAM and Adult Education Centre secretarial and duplicating pools for their spontaneous and most willing assistance in servicing the Conference.

It is not possible to thank all of those involved in name, but we feel particularly obliged to mention the names of Bashir Isaq Abdullah, Mohamed Ahmed Barise of (SRSP staff), and Abdirahman Abdishakur Nasir of the Adult Education Centre.

Following the Conference, a number of the original papers and documents had to be retrieved, distilled and modified to form a publishable manuscripts, these painstaking tasks were accomplished with the generous assistance of Miss Rory Todaro of SIDAM, Mrs. Fadumo Mohamed Abdisalam, Miss Naima Ali Hashi and Mr. Robleh Jibril (Peter Gabriel). I am particularly grateful to Mr. Robleh Jibril for assisting us not only in selecting and compiling the papers and documents following the Conference, but also in the various other tasks that went on to guarantee the success of the Fanon Centre Conference.

In mimeographed form about 100 sets of the Conference documents were prepared and distributed to the Somali paper presenters and numerous Party and Government officials.

In the meantime, they were selected, modified to constitute a manuscript ready for publication. Miss Roda Abdallah typed the final draft that was sent to the State Printing Agency (SPA) for publication.

I wish to commend highly Mr. Abdillahi Hassan Jama for assuming the onerous tasks pertaining to proofreading the manuscript. He assumed his heavy responsibility under severe time constraints with diligence and enthusiasm. Others who assisted Mr. Abdillahi Hassan Jama in proofreading include Mr. Ahmed Ismail Shabeel, Mr. Yassin Ibrahim Magan, Mr. Hashi Ahmed Hashi and Mr. Abdirahman Dahir Waberi.

Some members of the State Printing Agency staff cooperated most willingly in order to issue this book in time for the Tenth Anniversary Celebrations. Among these, we wish to mention Mr. Mohamed Hussein Eno, Mr. Bileh Mahamed, Mahamed Ali Robleh, Mr. Ahmed Sheikh Esse (Geesey) and Hussein Hassan Kuusow.

We sincerely hope that the publication of this book will serve to stimulate awareness of the complexity of the issues of social change and challenge us to redouble our efforts to accomplish the many, many tasks yet to be done.

MOGADISHU, (OCTOBER 1st, 1979)

THE EDITOR,

Dr. HUSSEIN MOHAMED ADAM

Senior Editor, HALGAN; Chairman of Social Sciences,
Lafolle College of Education, the Somali National University

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INTRODUCTORY

THE PRESIDENT AT THE CONFERENCE

On Friday June 22nd 1979 about 9 p.m., Jaalle Ma-hamed Siyaad Barre, Secretary General of the SRSP, President of the SDR, paid a friendly visit to the Al-Uruba Hotel to meet with the Conference participants. The following is a summarised version of the Exchange between the President and the conference delegates.

INTRODUCTION:-

Your excellency Mr. President, the Third International Frantz Fanon Conference is indeed honoured to have you here with us tonight. Mr. President; the participants to this Conference originate from many parts of the World (they represent a very Pan-African spectrum) the majority came from the Black community in the United States; a large number is from Watts, the Black section of Los Angeles, California, where for many years Black people have struggled for their rights ... Mr. President, among the participants are some from Jamaica, Trinidad, Panama; a scholar who originates from Nigeria, from Kenya, Tanzania and South Africa. For the last few days, they have joined Somali Scholars in discussing our revolutionary experience within a comparative historical framework, benefitting from field trips to various projects and programmes ... Participants to the Third Frantz Fanon International Conference, we present you the President of the Somali Democratic Republic !.

President Siad: I salute you all ... I am very happy to have you in our country, let me also join my colleagues in welcoming you once again to Somalia. I hope your noble work has gone through as well as you expected ... Frankly, we in Somalia can offer you very little

in the way of material comforts, nevertheless we can offer you spiritual comforts based on shared sentiments of colour, a common historical experience of oppression and struggle for liberation, a struggle symbolized in the life of Frantz Fanon who emphasised the noble idea of freeing Black man's mind from mental domination in order to redirect his energies towards changing an oppressive social reality . . .

I do not wish to indulge in a lengthy speech. Certainly you have already heard a lot about Somalia during these few hectic days. I do not wish to repeat what you have already heard, that would be to waste your valuable time. Permit me, therefore, to allow you to pose questions in order to engage in a frank exchange of views, please feel free to ask any question.

QUESTION NO. 1: I would like to thank you for this historical opportunity to confer with you . . . It is indeed an emotional experience to be welcomed to Mogadishu with the warm hospitality that we have already seen upon arriving, your beautiful people . . . as an African-American of the diaspora, I would like to know in what way we can continue to assist Somalia in her noble struggles ?

PRESIDENT SIAD: Thank you. As you are well aware, the societies you come from do not understand the reality of Somalia; we have neither the money nor the manpower to explain our circumstances to the international community. Besides, there are too many clouds of suspicions, created by certain circles with ignoble interests, distorting our history, our modest achievements, our genuine aims and objectives . . . please explain our reality to your communities, even though I appreciate fully well that your stay here with us has only been too brief. Another valuable form of assistance you can give Soma-

lia is to give her people your trust, confidence and genuine sympathy.

QUESTION 2: Mr. President, in the spirit of frankness invoked by you, we respect to disagree with you on one point. You said that the Somali people have very little to offer us, we feel the Somali people have a great deal to offer us ... their great sense of pride, dignity, their spirit of struggle and self-reliance, their sense of unity and common purpose ...

PRESIDENT SIAD: Thank you very much for the sincere compliments you have paid our people. My statement was based on the premises commonly shared in the so-called advanced countries ... You have the right to contradict me, human development is a complex, many-sided process, apart from material aspects, there are indeed profound historical, human values ...

QUESTION 3: Mr. President, what is your concept, sir, of Pan-Africanism and how do you feel that you can concretely advance the step toward African unity ?

PRESIDENT SIAD: The Organization of African Unity, as you know, was established in 1963. Since then, how much have we accomplished ? Frankly speaking, very little. We, the Heads of States and Governments, meet once a year, foreign ministers meet twice a year, several other levels of meetings are held but with what results? There is a great deal of speech-making, we consume a lot of paper, hotel expenses, air-line tickets etc. And yet, we have very little to show in the way of concrete steps towards African Unity or closer cooperation. We have not succeeded in efforts to create a Pan-African communication or information network. If I want to go to a sister African country, often I have to travel via Europe.

If I want to know about African events, I often have to tune in to European radio stations or read their papers. If I want to buy something from West Africa, I have to buy it from Europe. We hardly deal directly with one another. We have to strive for Pan-African communications and information networks, Pan-African commerce, Pan-African Institutions of various types ... We have to be functional and practical in our approach, we have to make decisions that would lead towards laying the material basis for African unity, thereby fulfilling the just expectations and aspirations of our people. Unfortunately, recent events show that we have regressed: witness the conflicts and wars fanned by foreign powers bent on redividing Africa. In the short run, I am pessimistic but in the longer run I am confident that African workers and peasants, the committed scholars and others will draw positive lessons from all such negative events ... in order to move us forward towards genuine cooperation and unity. All of us, Africans must rise up to assume our international responsibilities seriously ...

QUESTION NO 4 : Mr. President, I noticed that you speak on Pan-Africanism exclusively in terms of the African continent, and I wish you could know or perhaps you already know that we in the African Diaspora are considered also a part of Pan-Africanism ...

PRESIDENT SIAD: You are right, the previous question raised the general issue of Pan-Africanism but I dealt at length with only the last part which mentioned African Unity. Thank you for recalling the point ... yes I conceive of Pan-Africanism essentially as the ideas around the movement to restore the human and civil rights of African peoples everywhere: whether in Africa, the American continent or even in Europe; it is important

for Africans and those of African origins abroad to coordinate their struggles for the restoration of their trampled rights; their just struggles against all sorts of colonialism, racism, apartheid, zionism, neo-colonialism.

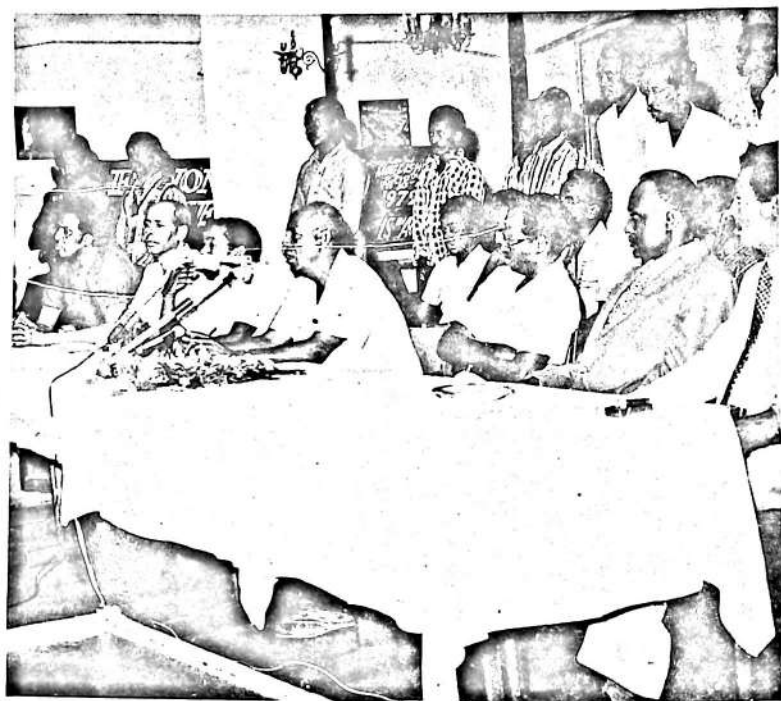
QUESTION NO. 5. Mr. President can we really trust the whites who have used racism against us ?

PRESIDENT SIAD: We people with black skins have certainly suffered the worst treatment due to white racism. Racists used brutal methods against us for centuries, they are still doing it openly and blatantly in Southern Africa for example: nevertheless, I believe that in fighting the devil, we should not turn ourselves into devils. We are after all, combating an evil system, not people. We do have white friends and allies. The sick racialists and their racist, oppressive system must be overthrown at all costs ... but we should not overthrow racism and replace it with some other form of racist thinking. Our struggle for justice, for equality, for genuine liberation involves higher, more humane principles. Ours is a struggle for human progress ... We must spare no efforts in wiping out all traces of racism, colonialism and oppression from the face of the earth and cooperate with others in reconstructing a new world system based on freedom, justice, equality and peace.

QUESTION NO. 6: Mr. President, could you briefly enlighten us on your use of the terms «Scientific Socialism» ?

PRESIDENT SIAD: In using the term «Scientific Socialism» we wish to emphasise the universality of socialism ... We feel particular types of Socialism such as «African Socialism», «Arab Socialism» etc. lead to confusion ... Socialism implies general laws and principles applicable to mankind. Nevertheless, we in Somalia reserve the right and responsibility to apply the general principles of Scientific Socialism to fit our peculiar historical and cultural context. We encourage the development of a public sector-oriented economy, the growth of cooperatives while guiding the private sector in such a way that we will eventually eliminate the exploitation of man by man ...

The President answered several other questions during the session. Many of them involved the themes outlined above. (The session was recorded on tape, which was transcribed by Jaalle Ali Bilch Said, then summarised and edited by the EDITOR).



PRESIDENT SIAD AT THE CONFERENCE



COMING HOME

A poem dedicated to the Somali people.
by

Dr. Fredrick W. Hickling, Psychiatrist from Kingston Jamaica

Participant to the 3rd International Frantz Fanon Conference.

I saw you
When I returned
From whence I came
I heard you
When the wind
Whistled by my head
And called me by my name.

I saw your star of glory
Sparkling from afar
Your light against the blue
Singing sweet Somali.
Africa my mother
Reached out and touched my face
As tears of joy and oneness
Washed away my fears with grace.

Come hold me now my brother
In this our first embrace
My blood was shed for your victory
Now let us both be free.

My navel string is planted here
My brother, sister, motherson
No matter how they flogged me there
Africa. The victory will soon be won.

INTRODUCTION

The Frantz Fanon Research and Development Centre held its Third International Conference in Mogadishu, Somalia, from Monday, June 18th, to Sunday, June 24th, 1979. The Conference was attended by delegates from Academic institutions mostly in the United States of America, the Caribbean and Panama. Two delegates came from Kenya and one from Tanzania. The total of 90 delegates from abroad were joined by about 70 Somali participants and 30 members of the Somali Conference Preparatory Committee.

The Conference was opened on Monday, June 18th, by Jaalle Mohamed Aden Sheikh, the Chairman of the Ideology Bureau of CC of the SRSP. During the course of the Conference, the participants heard keynote addresses by Jaalle Ibrahim Meygag Samatar, Chairman of the Central Committee Affairs, whose speech focussed on Somali Political Development and the role of the SRSP; Jaalle Ahmed Mohamed Mohamoud, Chairman of the National Economic Commission, focussed on aspects of Somalia's economic trends; Jaalle Mohamed Ali Nur, Vice-Chairman of the Social Affairs Bureau, focussed on Somalia and the International Children's Year and Dr. Mary Ella Robertson, Professor of Social Policy and Director of Community Studies, University of Louisville, who focussed on the role of Women in social change.

The Conference was officially closed on Saturday June 23rd by Dr. Ahmed Ashkir Botan, Minister of Higher Education and Culture. That same evening, the participants and other invited guests attended a gala re-

ception at the Juba Hotel hosted by Jaalle Yusuf Ibrahim Aburas, the Mayor of Mogadishu.

ON FRANTZ FANON.

The Fanon Research and Development Centre takes its name from the late Dr. Frantz Fanon, a Psychiatrist from Martinique who had become a Pan-African revolutionary through his heroic involvement in the Algerian Revolution of 1954-1962. Among other tasks, Fanon helped to edit *El-Moudjahid* (The Struggler), organ of the FLN, the body that was leading the war for Algerian independence.

Born in the West Indian French Colony of Martinique in 1925, Frantz Fanon died of blood cancer in a hospital in the United States in 1961. However, he left behind a wealth of revolutionary ideas in famous publications such as:

- a) Black skin, White Masks;
- b) A Dying Colonialism;
- c) Toward the African Revolution and
- d) The Wretched of the Earth.

Fanon's writings, particularly the last one, analysed class formation in post-independently the last one, analysed class formation in post-independent Africa, challenged neo-colonialism and pointed towards a socialist reconstruction of society.

In one of his notebooks, Fanon once wrote: «To put Africa in motion, to co-operate in its organization, in its regrouping, behind revolutionary principles. To participate in the task of changing a continent -- this was really the work I had chosen.»

Fanon's writings have contributed towards the radicalisation of a whole generation of Third World Scholars and activists.

THE TRINIDAD CONFERENCE

The Second Frantz Fanon International Conference was held in Port-of-Spain, Trinidad, in February, 1978. The theme of the Conference was: «The Theory and Practice of the Social Scientist in the context of Human Development.» It was very successful and included scholars from the Americas, the Antilles and Africa.

At the Trinidad Conference, a unanimous decision was taken to request the Government of the Somali Democratic Republic to facilitate the hosting of the Third International Conference.

The Director of the Fanon Research and Development Centre Dr. Lewis King, together with an associate, Dr. Hussein Abdullahi Bulhan, visited Mogadishu in March this year in order to prepare for the Third International Conference under the theme: «HUMAN DEVELOPMENT MODELS IN ACTION».

A great deal of the success of the Conference is due to the dedication and untiring efforts of the Somali Preparatory Committee (SPC) headed by the Chairman of the HALGAN Editorial Board, Jaalle Mohamed Adan Sheikh. Its core members consisted of the senior Editors and other full-time and part-time staff of HALGAN. The SPC worked in committees and later moved on to assign individual and group responsibilities as follows:

- Agenda Planning
- Speakers Coordinator
- Technical Assistance Activity
- Panel Coordinators
- Papers and Recordings

- Film Documentation
- Photographers
- Housing and Boarding Affairs
- Air Travel
- Ground Transportation
- Information and Registration
- Guidance and Protocol Affairs
- Entertainment and Festivities
- Health and Safety

The Somali Preparatory Committee met several times before the Conference. It also collected several relevant documents on Somalia which were distributed to the participants from abroad.

THE MOGADISHU CONFERENCE

The Trinidad Conference paid a great deal of emphasis on the role of the social scientist in promoting social change. The Mogadishu Conference, on the other hand, laid stress on the role of the activist in promoting social change. The Conference laid great stress on the question of mediating practically dialectical relationship between theory and practice within the historical specifics of particular and singular social formations — with special emphasis on the Somali model of human Development.

In order to better grasp the Somali Experience, the Conference Participants were divided into the following research-oriented field-visit teams:

Group R: Resettlement, Migration and Rural Development.

Group H: Health and Development.

Group W: Women, Work and Human Resources.

Group Y: Youth and Children.

Group C: Culture, Language and Consciousness.

Group S: Social Mobilization, Reorganization and Reconstruction.

With regards to study Explorations, Groups R and H visited the Kurtunwarey Agricultural Resettlement Programme; Group W and Y visited the Lafoole and Afgoi Revolutionary Youth Centres; Group C visited the Sand Dune Project, the Agricultural Crash Programmes and the old City of Merca; Group S visited the Qoryoley Refugee Camp and the Fishing Resettlement Programme for former nomads situated outside the ancient city of Barawe. The various groups were also able to hear briefings from Ministries (Health, Education), Agencies (The National Planning Commission, the Somali National University) and social organisations (the Somali Women Democratic Organization).

THE TENTH YEAR OF THE SOMALI REVOLUTION

Accordingly, the Third Fanon Centre International Conference paid particular attention to the Experience of social transformation acquired in Somalia ever since the Revolution of October 21st 1969. In order to enlighten the conference delegates from abroad, the Somali participants presented papers on the following topics:

- Dynamics of Social Change in the Resettlement Area
- The Public Sector in Somalia
- Human Resource Development in Somalia
- The Revolutionary Development of the Somali Language
- Research on the Plants used in Traditional Somali Medicine

- The Health Implications of the Settlement Programme
- Agriculture Development in Somalia
- The Somali Nomadic Education Project as an Instrument of Social Change
- A Community Health Project

Jaalle Ahmed M. Duale, Vice-Chairman of the Economics Bureau of the CC of the SRSP, delivered an important paper on the: «An Overview of Planning in Somalia». The other Somali paper presenters and participants were drawn mostly from the Somali National University, SIDAM, the Academy of Arts and Sciences, the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Health and the organs of the SRSP and the social organisations.

It is indeed fitting that the Fanon Centre Mogadishu Conference on social change and models of human development has been held a few months prior to the Tenth Anniversary of the Revolution at a time when the whole nation is examining our decade - long revolutionary Experience. HALGAN plans to edit and publish the Somali materials related to the Conference in order to mark this years October Anniversary.

The importance of holding such international Conference was high-lighted by the General Secretary of the SRSP and President of the SDR who paid a surprise visit to the participants during their Friday (June 22nd) evening session at the Uruba Hotel. Jaalle Mohamed Siyaad Barre exchanged frank views with the delegates who expressed their gratitude to the President for his attention and insights and to the Somali people for their warmth and hospitality.

On June 24th most of the delegates left for a brief visit to Cairo on their way back to the US and the Carribbeans. A group of about 20 participants left for a brief visit to Nairobi, Kenya and returned to Mogadishu on Thursday, June 28th.

On Friday June 29th, the returning group held a highly stimulating Panel Discussion at the Central Auditorium of the National University on the theme: «The Role and Responsibility of Intellectuals in the Struggle against Under development».

GENERAL PROGRAMME

DAY	EVENT	TIME
Sunday, June 17th	Full Contingent Arrives Rome	11:30a.m
Sunday, June 17th	Full Contingent Leaves Rome	12:30a.m
Monday, June 18th	Arrival in Mogadishu	9:30a.m
	Rest Settle in Period	9:30a.m.
	Registration	3:30p.m.

NORMAL CONFERENCE OPENING

- Keynote Address: Dr. Mohamed Aden Sheikh
Chairman of the Ideology Bureau of the SRSP
(at the Sala Rosa, Uruba Hotel)
- | | |
|------------------------------|----------------|
| Dinner | 5:0 — 6:30 pm |
| Visit to Orientation Centres | 8:00 — 9:00 pm |

- Group S visits Waberi Centre
- Group R visits Hoden Centre
- Groups W and Y visit Abdulaziz Centre
- Group C visits Bondere Centre
- Group H visits Hammar Weyne Centre

For visits and Seminar — discussions, the Conference paper Presenters and Participants are divided into the following Delegations or Groups:

- S — Social Mobilization, Reorganization and Reconstruction;
- R — Resettlement, Migration and Rural Development.
- W — Women, Work and Human Resources;

- Y — Youth and Children;
- C — Culture, Language and Consciousness;
- H — Health and Development.

DAY	EVENT	Time
Tuesday, June 19th	DELEGATIONS LEAVE ON STUDY EXPLORATIONS	7:00 a.m.
	— R and H visit Kurtunwarey Settle- ment (Lunch at K/warey).	
	— W and Y visit Lafole and Afgoi Revolutionary Youth Centres (Lunch at Al-Urba Hotel).	
	— C visits the Sand Dune Project, Agricultural Crash Programmes and the Old City of Merca (Lunch at Geed-Jaalle).	
	— S visits the Qoryoley Refugee Camp, (Lunch at Safari Hotel) on June 19th and more on to visit the Fishing Settlement for Nomads and the Old City of Barawe (June 19th and 20th, lunch on the 20th at Geed-Jaalle, on the way back).	

Return from Explorations 5:00-7:00 pm

Dinner 7:30 — 8:30 pm

Delegation Meetings 8:30 — 10:00 pm

Wednesday, June 20th	DELEGATION CONTINUE VISITS AND BRIEFING	8:00am-2:00pm
	Briefings	
	— C On Education and Social Affairs by the Ministry of Education.	
	— R On Planning by the National	

Planning Commission (at the Planning Premises).

- Y On Higher Education at the Somali National University Centre.
- W On Women and Development by the Somali Women Democratic Organisation (at Hotel Al-Uruba).
- H On Health by the Ministry of Health (at Al-Uruba Hotel).
- S (Continuing Study Exploration of Barawe).

11 — Exploration of Selected
Social Programs 10:00 a.m.-2:00 p.m.

- C Revolutionary Youth Centre Girls at Afgoi;
- R Revolutionary Youth Center for Boys at Lafole;
- Y The various campuses of the National University, including the new campus, followed by a brief meeting at Lafole College of Education;
- W The Alendi (traditional cloth) Workshops in Mogadishu;
- H The Benadir, Maternity and Childrens Hospital;
- S (Returning from Brawe).

REST AND SHOPPING 3:00-7:00 p.m.

DINNER AND RECEPTION HOSTED
BY FANON CENTRE 7:00-10:00 p. m.

Address by Mr. Marion Woods, Director
of the Department of Social Services,
State of California 8:00 - 8:30 p. m.

Delegation's Initial Summary Reports
8:30 — 9:30 p. m.

Musical Entertainment provided by
the IFTIN Orchestra at Al-Uruba Hotel.

DAY	EVENT	TIME
Thursday, June 21st		
Session One		8:00 a. m. — 10:45 a. m.

PANEL I: SOCIAL MOBILIZATION AND RECONSTRUCTION

(Terrace Room)

- Transformation of Social Structures :
Some Conditions Beyond Marx -
- Limiting Factors in Agricultural Development in Somalia and their Solutions
Mohamoud Noor (Mohamed Tahir)
- Protest Movements and the Politics of
- Change in the Contemporary Caribbean
Edward Greene.

Thursday, June 21st (cont)

PANEL 2: RESETTLEMENT AND MIGRATION
(Sala Rosa)

— Migration and Resettlement -- Traumatic
Upheaval and Socio-Cultural Transformation
Tiffany Patterson

— Dialectics of Social Change in the Reset-
tlement Areas
Mohamoud Abdi Ali

— Historical Movements and Movements
Historically, Boniface Obichere

Session Two

11:00 a. m. — 1:00 p. m.

PANEL 1: YOUTH AND CHILDREN

(Terrace Room)

— The Development of Children in the Third
World, Hector Myers

— Reports: A Report on the Children's Year
in Somalia

The Revolutionary Youth Centers
Mohamed Ali Nur

PANEL 2: HUMAN TRANSFORMATION

(Sala Rossa)

Mohamoud Abdi Ali — Moderator

— The Somali Nomadic Education Projects
as an Instrument of Social Change
Abdi Haybe

Understanding Human Transformation: The
Praxis of Science and Culture
Wade Nobles

— Magnificent Irations — Socio-drama as a
Therapeutic Instrument for Social Change
Fredrick Hickling

LUNCH ADDRESS 1:00 — 2:30 p. m.

Mr. Ibrahim Meygag Samatar, Chairman of
the Bureau for Central Committee Affairs of
the SRSP

DAY	EVENT	TIME
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Thursday, June 21st (Cont)

Session Three

5:00 — 7:30 p. m.

PANEL 1: WOMEN, WORK AND HUMAN RESOURCES
(Sala Rossa)

Mary Ella Robertson — Moderator

— An Overview of Planning in Somalia
Ahmed Mohamed Duale

— Human Resource Development in Somalia
Abdi Askar Sugul

— The African Intellectual and the Concept
of Class Suicide: Culture and Political Di-
mensions

Ron Karenga Cheka Abubakari)

PANEL 2: CULTURE, LANGUAGE AND CONSCIOUS-
NESS

(Terrace Room)

Annette Kyle - Vega - Moderator

— Report on the Role and Function of Art
in Somalia

Abdi Yusuf Duale (Boobe)

— Consciousness: Melanin, Neuromelanin,
Pineal Gland and Neuroendocrine System
Richard King

— The Function of the Artist in the Process
of Human Development
Kamau Daood

DINNER 7:30 -- 8:15 p. m.

— Somali Cultural Life

— Stage Show 8:30 -- 10:00 p.m.

(At the National Theatre)

Friday, June 22nd

Session Four 8:00 -- 10:45 a. m.

PANEL 1: SOCIAL MOBILIZATION AND RECONSTRUCTION
(Sala Rosa)

Vernon Dixon -- Moderator

— The Public Sector in Somalia
Hersi M. Hersi

— The Dialectics of Mass Communications in
National Transformation
Aggrey Brown

PANEL 2: RESETTLEMENT AND MIGRATION
(Terrace Room)

Tiffany Patterson -- Moderator

— Resettlement and Migration : Psychosocial Factors, Health Considerations and Planning
Gerry Groves

DAY	EVENT	TIME
Friday, June 22nd (Cont)	Report: Community Health P. Tresalti Report: Refugees in Somalia Saed Mohamed Gees	
Session Five		11:00 a. m. - 1:00 p.m.
PANEL 1:	YOUTH AND CHILDREN (Terrace Room)	
	— Disease of Underdevelopment and Disease in Westernization Hussein Bulhan	
	— Education for Self-Employment: ESE the Politics of Educational Reform in Kenya Kichamu Akivage	
PANEL 2:	LANGUAGE, CULTURE AND CONSCIOUS- NESS (Sala Rosa)	
	— Subordination of Culture: The Case of Language Claudia Mitchell-Kernan	
	— Revolutionary Development of the Somali Language Hussein M. Adam	
	LUNCH - Keynote address: Mary Ella Robertson	11:00 - 2:00 p. m.
Session Six		8:00 - 10:30 p. m.
PANEL 1:	HEALTH AND DEVELOPMENT (Sala Rosa)	



Dr. MOHAMED ADEN SHEIKH OPENING THE CONFERENCE

Boniface Obichere -- Moderator
 — Health Implications of the Rural Development Campaign
 Ahmed Abbas
 — Research on Traditional Somali Medicine
 Abdulahi Elmi (Mahamoud Sheikh Fani)
 — On the Dialectical Relationship Between Health and Economic Development: A case for Psychological Transformation
 Lewis M. King

PANEL 2: LANGUAGE, CULTURE AND CONSCIOUSNESS (Terrace Room)

Claudia Mitchell -- Kernan -- Moderator
 — Cultural and Linguistic Dualism in the Poetry and Plays of a Leading West Indian Poet
 Carolyn Cooper
 — Politics, Language, and Thought: A Review of David Laitin's book on Somalia
 Sheik - Abdi, .

DAY	EVENT	TIME
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Friday, June 22nd (Cont)

— The Impact and Contribution of Literacy Toward Rural Development in Somalia
 Omar Osman (Ismail Musa Nur)

Saturday, June 23rd

Final Session

7:30 — 9:00 a. m.

BREAKFAST KEYNOTE

7:30 a. m.

— Mr. Ahmed Mohamed Mohamud, Chairman of the National Economic Commission
 Coffee Break (10 minutes)

— Delegations Workshops 9:10 — 11:00 a.m.

— Summary Reports 11:00 a. m. - 12:30 am

LUNCH KEYNOTE ADDRESS 12:30 - 2:00 pm

— Ras Makonnen
CLOSING CEREMONY 5:00 - 6:30 p. m.

— Chairman's Remarks: Hussein Bulhan
Closing Addresses: Hussein Adam
Lewis King

— Dr. Ahmed Ashkir Botan, Minister of Higher Education and Culture
RECEPTION BY THE MAYOR OF MOGADISHU
7:30 - 9:30 p. m.

— Mr. Yusuf Ibrahim Aburas
AT THE JUBA HOTEL

(Musical Entertainment provided by the SHARERO Orchestra)

SOCIAL EVENT AND DANCING 9:30 p. m.
DEPARTURES

Sunday, June 24th Group A Leaves for Rome 2:00 p. m.
Group B Leaves for Cairo 2:00 p. m.
Group C Leaves for Nairobi 3:00 p. m.
Group D Leaves for Seychelle 8:30 am.

Thursday, June 28th Group C Returns to Mogadishu
from Nairobi 12:00 noon
Group D Returns to Mogadishu
Via Nairobi 12:00 noon

Saturday, June 30th Group C Leaves Mogadishu for
Rome (Via Cairo) 7:00 a. m.
Group B Leaves Cairo for Rome
(same flight)

Sunday, July 1st — Full Contingent Departs for USA
from Rome 2:10 p. m.
— Arrival in New York 5:10 p. m.

CONFERENCE ISSUES

Preamble: You should use the description of your area as a guide in formulating your ideas. The actual content of your paper may take any direction and pertain to any society.

RECONSTRUCTION, REORGANIZATION AND MOBILIZATION

This delegation will focus primarily on the transformation of a country from colonial or neocolonial rule to socialism. The core issues will be on the education of the masses and the restructuring of social structures. Delegates will focus attention on the question of the relationship of the social and psychological development of large masses of people to the new structures of their society (economic, educational, health in particular). The major point of departure will be to the orientation centres, the focal point of the new mass reconstruction efforts.

RESETTLEMENT AND MIGRATION

This delegation will focus primarily on the resettlement of nomads, roughly 800,000 into agricultural or fishing villages and the transformation of their life styles. The core issues will be on the change in the quality of life of the nomadic (or migrant) groups and the strengths and limitations of the resettlement (or city migrants) to their new living circumstances, ie., Are a once proud and defiant people now colonized into villages (or cities) or are they now true masters of their destiny? The major point of departure will be the visit to a resettlement project in the rural areas of Somalia.

WOMEN, WORK AND HUMAN RESOURCES

This delegation will focus primarily on the transformation of the African woman into a new force in the third world society. The central concern will be on the conscious action of society to promote the welfare of women and their role in social reconstruction. Delegates will focus attention on the changing role in women, family and the actions of men in the society. The major point of departure will be a visit to the national women's centers and the development projects headed by women.

HEALTH AND DEVELOPMENT

This delegation will focus primarily on the relationship of health and general well-being of the masses to the socialist reconstruction. The Central concern will be on the efforts to improve both in quality and quantity the physical and mental life of the masses. Delegates will focus attention on the relationship of health development to economic development and the nature of efforts in the direction of the reduction of mortality and morbidity (physical, mental and social). The major point of departure will be visits to the relocation settlements.

CHILDREN AND YOUTH

This delegation will focus primarily on the reconstruction efforts directed toward children and youth. The central concern will be on the actions on behalf of youth who are at or previously at the lowest end of the social structure. Delegates will focus attention on the institutions, theory and methods necessary for the transformation of the excluded and dispossessed to be active participants in their own transformation as well as that of their society. The major point of departure will be a visit to the youth centre, the centre of activity on behalf of destitute youth and children.

CULTURE, LANGUAGE AND CONSCIOUSNESS

This delegation will focus primarily on the very dramatic exercise, since 1972, of the documentation of a Somali language and its use for the first time as a medium of instruction in the schools. The central issue will be on the impact of language on consciousness both social and political for third world peoples. Delegates will focus attention on the impact of moving from a primarily oral tradition to written language and its meaning for real human development. The major point of departure will be from the language and culture centres.

PAPER PRESENTATIONS

SOCIAL MOBILIZATION AND RECONSTRUCTION.

- Transformation of Social Structures: Some Conditions Beyond Marx — Vernon Dixon.
- Limiting Factors in Agricultural Development in Somalia and their Solutions.
Mohamoud Noor (Mohamed Tahir).
- Protest Movements and the Politics of Change in the Contemporary Caribbean
Edward Greene.

RESETTLEMENT AND MIGRATION.

- Migration and Resettlement -- Traumatic Upheaval and Socio-Cultural Transformation
Tiffany Patterson.
- Dialectics of Social Change in the Resettlement Areas
Mohamoud Abdi Ali.
- Historical Movements and Movements Historically
Boniface Obichere.

YOUTH AND CHILDREN.-

The Development of Children in the Third World
Hector Myers.

- A report on the Children's Year in Somalia: The Revolutionary Youth Centers
Dr. Mohamed Ali Nur.

HUMAN TRANSFORMATION.-

- The Somali Nomadic Education Projects as an Instrument of Social Change
- Understanding Human Transformation: The Praxis of Science and Culture
Wade Nobles.
- Magnificent Irations - Sociodrama as a Therapeutic Instrument for Social Change
Fredrick Hickling.

WOMEN, WORK AND HUMAN RESOURCES.-

- An Overview of Planning in Somalia
Ahmed Mohamed Dualeh.
- Human Resources Development in Somalia
Abdi Askar Sagal.
- The African Intellectual and the Concept of Class Suicide: Culture and Political Dimensions
Ron Karenga (Cheka Abubakari).

CULTURE, LANGUAGE AND CONSCIOUSNESS.-

- Consciousness: Melanin, Neuromelanin, Pineal Gland and Neuroendocrine System.
Richard King.

- The Function of the Artist in the Process of Human Development
Kámau Daaood.

SOCIAL MOBILIZATION AND RECONSTRUCTION.-

- The Public Sector in Somalia
Hersi M. Hersi.
- The Dialectics of Mass Communications in National Transformation
Aggrey Brown.

RESETTLEMENT AND MIGRATION.-

- Resettlement and Migration: Psychosocial Factors, Health Considerations and Planning.
Gerry Groves.
- Report: Community Health
P. Tresalti.
- Report: Refugees in Somalia
Saed Mohamed Gees

YOUTH AND CHILDREN.-

- Diseases of Underdevelopment and Disease in Westernization
Hussein Bulhan.
- Education for Self-Employment: ESE the Politics of Educational Reform in Kenya
Kichimu Akvaga

LANGUAGE, CULTURE AND CONSCIOUSNESS.-

- Subordination of Culture: The Case of Language
Claudia Mitchell-Kernan.
- Revolutionary Development of the Somali Language
Hussein M. Adam.

HEALTH AND DEVELOPMENT.-

- Health Implications of the Rural Development Campaign
Ahmed Abbas.
Research on Traditional Somali Medicine.
Abdullahi Elmi (Mohamoud Sheikh Tani)
On the Dialectical Relationship between Health and Economic Development: A case for Psychological Transformation
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LANGUAGE, CULTURE AND CONSCIOUSNESS.-

- Culture and Linguistic Dualism in the Poetry and Plays of a Leading West Indian Poet
Carolyn Cooper.
Politics, Language and Thought: A Review of David Laitin's book in Somalia
Abdi Sheikh Abdi.
- The Impact and Contribution of Literacy Toward Rural Development in Somalia
Omar Osman (Ismail Musa Nur).

OPENING CEREMONY.-

- Keynote Address: Dr. Mohamed Aden Sheikh, Chairman of the Ideology Bureau of the SRSP.
- Keynote Address: Mr. Ibrahim Meygag Samatar, Chairman of the Bureau for Central Committee Affairs of the SRSP.
- Keynote Address: Dr. Ahmed Mohamed Mohamoud, Chairman of the National Economic Commission.

CLOSING CEREMONY.-

- Keynote Address: Dr. Ahmed Ashkir Botan, Minister of Higher Education and Culture.

PROGRAM PRESENTERS

- Dr. Mohamed Adan Sheikh
Member of CC of SRSP,
Chairman of Ideology Bureau
- Ibrahim Maygag Samater
Chairman of the CC Affairs Bureau
Member of Central Committee of SRSP
- Ahmed Mohamed Mahamud
Member of CC of SRSP
Chairman of the National Economic Commission
- Dr. Mohamed Ali Nur
Member of CC of SRSP
Vice-Chairman of Social Affairs Bureau

LEWIS M. KING, PH.D.
Director, Fanon Center, Professor of Psychiatry,
Drew Postgraduate Medical School and University
of California, Los Angeles, USA

HUMAN TRANSFORMATION.

- Mr. Marion Woods,
Director, Department of Social Services for the
State of California.
- Dr. Mary Ella Robertson,
Professor of Social Policy, Director of Community
Studies University of Louisville
Louisville, Kentucky.
- Dr. J. Alfred Cannon,
Co-founder, Fanon Centre,
Director International Health
Professor of Psychiatry and Community

- Medicine of Charles Drew Post-graduate
Medical School, Los Angeles, California.
- Charles Siplin,
Coordinator, Governmental
Relations, Southwest Regional
Laboratories, Educational Research,
and Development, USA.
 - Claudia Mitchell-Kernon, PH. D.
Professor, Anthropology,
Director, Centre for Afro-American Studies,
University of California, Los Angeles, USA
 - Boniface Obichere, PH. D.
Professor of History, University
of California, Los Angeles and Nigeria.
 - Tiffany Patterson,
Assistant Professor of History,
University of Minnesota, USA.
 - Hussein Bulhan, PH. D.
Director of Mental Health Education,
Solomon Fuller,
Mental Health Center, Boston,
Massachusetts; Scholar, Fanon Centre, Somalia.
 - Camella Rhone, M. S.
Lecturer in Chemistry and Food Technology.
Consumer Safety Officer, Trinidad, West Indies.
 - Hector Myers, PH. D.
Assistant Professor of Psychology,
University of California, Los Angeles;
Resident Scholar, Fanon Centre, Los Angeles, USA

- Omowale Amuleru-Marshall, PH. D.
Lecturer, Faculty of Education,
The University of Guyana, South America.
- Vernon Dixon, PH. D.
Professor and Chairman of the Economics Department, Haverford College, Pennsylvania, Scholar, Fanon Centre, USA
- Edward Greene, PH. D.
Deputy Director, Institute of Social and Economic Research,
University of West Indies, Mona, Jamaica.
- Hersi M. Hersi
Lecturer in Political Economy SIDAM, Mogadishu.
- Erna Broder, PH. D.
Lecturer, Social Sciences,
University of West Indies, Mona Jamaica.
- Hussein Adam, PH. D.
Chairman, Social Sciences Division,
National University of Somalia.
- Dr. Mohamoud Abdi Noor
Vice-President Somali National University
- Vivienne Bryan, PH. D.
Lecturer, University of West Indies, Mona, Jamaica.

- M. Ron Karenga, PH. D.
Associate Professor,
California State University, Los Angeles, USA
- Trevor Rhone, M. S.
Distinguished Caribbean Writer, Film Director,
Jamaica.
- Dr. Fredrick W. Hickling
Psychiatrist Kingston Hospital Jamaica
- Ntongela Masilela, PH. D.
African Scholar, South Africa.
- Richard King, PH. D.
Psychiatrist, Resident Scholar,
Fanon Centre, San Francisco, USA.
- Kichamu Akivaga, PH. D.
Lecturer, Institute of Adult Services,
University of Nairobi, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Cheka Abubakari,
Fanon Centre Staff, USA.
- Kamal Daaood,
Poet, Fanon Centre Staff, USA.
- Carolyn Cooper, PH. D.
Assistant Professor of English,
Atlantic Union College, South Lancaster, Massa-
chusetts, USA.
- Donna Davis-Gaddis, M. A.
Fanon Centre Staff, USA.

- Gerry Groves, M. D.
Professor of Psychiatry, Boston University
Medical Centre, Boston, Massachusetts, USA.
- Abdi Askar Sugal
Lecturer in Manpower Resources
SIDAM, Mogadishu
- Abraham, JEROME.
Former London University Lecturer in Philosophy, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Abdiloadir Hersi Yam Yam
Poet, Somali Academy of Arts and Sciences.
- Annettee Kyle-Vega, M. D.
Psychiatrist, San Francisco, USA.
- Mr. Ahmed M. Dualeh,
Member of the Central Committee of SRSP.
Vice-Chairman of Economic Bureau
- Mr. Saed Gees
National Commissioner for Refugees
Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development
- Abdi Shekh Abdi,
Somali Scholar, Boston University.
- Dr. A. S. Elmi,
Somali Scholar.
- Robleh Jibril (Peter Gabriel)
Somali Scholar Howard University
- Mr. Abdi Haybe,
Director of Informal Education

- Dr. Ahmed Abbas
Lecturer in Nutrition
Somali National University, Mogadishu
- Maryam M. Ibrahim
Lecturer, Somali National University
- Mr. Omar Osman,
Director-General, SIDAM, Mogadishu
SIDAM.
- Mr. Musa Galaal
Somali scholar, Academy of Arts and Science
- Mohamoud Abdi Ali
Somali Scholar, SIDAM.
- Anab Abdulqadir
Graduate Student,
Georgetown School of Foreign Relations,
Washington, D.C.
Research Consultant, Mogadishu
- Naima Ali Hashi

For Visits and Seminar – discussions the Conference Paper Presenters and Participants were divided into the following Delegations or Groups:-

- S — Social Mobilization, Reorganization and Reconstruction;
- R — Resettlement, Migration and Rural Development;
- W — Women, Work and Human Resources;
- Y — Youth and Children;
- C — Culture, Language and Consciousness;
- H — Health and Development.

RECONSTRUCTION, REORGANIZATION AND MOBILIZATION

GROUP — S — BROWN.

- 1) — Vernon Dixon (Leader)
- 2) — La Rita Brown
Graduate Student,
Georgetown School of Foreign Relations,
Washington, DC.

- 3 — Kamal Daaood
- 4 — Odie Knox
- 5 — Charles Knox
- 6 — Masai Minters
- 7 — Herbert Parker
- 8 — Eddie Greene
- 9 — Ralph Miles
- 10 — Jimmie Jenkins
- 11 — Jim Turner
- 12 — Marion Woods
- 13 — Aggrey Brown
- 14 — Wade Nobles
- 15 — Elbert Washington

16. Hersi M. Hersi

(Leader)

- 17. Salah Abdirahman
- 18. Mohamed Sh. Hassan
- 19. Ibrahim Abdillahi
- 20. Hamza Burci
- 21. Roble Jibril
- 22. Mohamed A. Bariise

RESETTLEMENT AND MIGRATION - GROUP - R - RED

- 1 — Tiffany Patterson (Leader)
- 2 — Marva Roddy
- 3 — Gerald Groves
- 4 — Rick Todd
- 5 — Betty Powell
- 6 — Viviane Bryant
- 7 — Loreine Young
- 8 — Carlene Young
- 9 — Donna Gaddis
- 10 — Marilyn Thompson
- 11 — N. Masilela.
- 12 — N. Masilela.

- 13. Mahamed A. Ali
- 14. Abdillahi A. Sid
- 15. Ibrahim M. Mursal
- 16. Abdikarim A. Mohamed
- 17. Abdikarim A. Sikar
- 18. Abdirahman Abdishakur

WOMEN, WORK AND HUMAN RESOURCES GROUP — W — WHITE.

- 1 — Mary Robertson (Leader)
- 2 — Jacqueline Graves
- 3 — Harriett Manely
- 4 — Rose Montiero
- 5 — Blanche Price
- 6 — Velez Ransom

- 7 — Beryl Toomes
- 8 — Barbara Wilson
- 9 — Theresa Miles
- 10 — Michael Smith
- 11 — Charles Siplin
- 12 — Patricia Reddick
- 13 — Kaith Thompson.

- 14. Hawa Adan (Leader)
- 15. Abdi A. Sugai
- 16. Mohamed Hussein
- 17. Ahmed O. Osman
- 18. Abdi H. Elmi
- 19. Mohamed H. Yusuf

CHILDREN AND YOUTH GROUP — Y — YELLOW.

- 1 — Hector Myers (Leader)
- 2 — Hussein Bulhan
- 3 — Rosemary Dorsey
- 4 — Ronald Futch
- 5 — K. Akivage
- 6 — Laverne Grinnage
- 7 — Mary Hargrove
- 8 — Hope Hill
- 9 — Brenda Ingram
- 10 — Barbara Jenkin
- 11 — Lois Massey
- 12 — Henry Nobles
- 13 — Cheryl Smith
- 14 — Farrell Williams
- 15 — Legrand Clegg
- 16 — M. Abbot.

- 17. Suleiman A. Guuleed
(Leader).

- 18. Abdi Timir Ali
- 19. Jama Yusuf
- 20. Ahmed J. Said
- 21. Ali H. Mohamed
- 22. Abdi M. Egge

CULTURE, LANGUAGE AND CONSCIOUSNESS GROUP — C — GREEN.

- 1 — Claudia Mitchell-Kernan (Leader)
- 2 — Cheka Abubakari
- 3 — Judith Glenson
- 4 — Coghogen Locksley
- 5 — Clydean Parker



GENERAL VIEW OF THE FANON CONFERENCE PARTICIPANTS

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| | 17. Hussein M. Adam |
| | (Leader) |
| 6 — William Wallace | 18. Dahabo Farah |
| 7 — Rhonda Jones | 19. Ahmed A. Ahmed |
| 8 — Abdi Sheikh Abdi | 20. Abdurahman Mahamed |
| 9 — Erna Broder | 21. Ismail M. Nur |
| 10 — Vera Nobles | 22. Ibrahim Farah |
| 11 — Carolyn Cooper | 23. Jama H. Awale |
| 12 — Richard King | 24. Zahra A. Elmi |
| 13 — Mary Henry | |
| 14 — Bary Gaston | |
| 15 — Sallie Blassette | |
| 16 — Robert Johnson. | |

HEALTH AND DEVELOPMENT GROUP — H — BLUE.

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1 — Boniface Obichere | (Leader) |
| 2 — Barbara Galloway | |
| 3 — Juanita Bivens | 17. Mahamed H. Taani |
| 4 — Bobby Murphy | (Leader) |
| 5 — Grady Mobles | |
| 6 — Louis Simpson | 18. Anab A. Ahmed |
| 7 — Deborah Wafer | 20. Abdillahi Omar |
| 8 — Faye Wilson | 21. Mahamed Y. Ismail |
| 9 — Linda Oliver | 22. Ahmed Abbas |
| 10 — Jim Garrett | |
| 11 — Dorris Ham | |
| 12 — Karla Masingole | |
| 13 — Fred Hickling | |
| 14 — Alfred Cannon | |
| 15 — Necia Jeffries | |
| 16 — Brenda Ingram | |

POLITICAL PARTICIPATION THE SOMALI EXPERIENCE.

Dr. Mohamed Aden Sheikh

Chairman of the Ideology Bureau of C.C. SRSP

Dear Comrades, Dear Participants, Guests and Friends.

It is my duty and pleasure, to welcome you to Somalia. Most of you have come from very far and we feel honoured that you have overcome all obstacles in order to travel all the way to Mogadishu to hold this Conference. Permit me to convey to you the greetings of our Party, Government and people and, in particular the special greetings of our President, Jaalle Mohamed Siad Barre.

The Conference has generated a great deal of interest and enthusiasm among our people and we believe you will see evidence of this during your brief stay with us.

Let me pay special tribute to the Frantz Fanon Research and Development Centre and other interested parties who have contributed, in one way or another, to the sponsorship and organization of this Conference and to the Director of the Centre, Dr. Lewis King and his staff for the efforts they have undertaken to convene such a unique gathering.

The name of Frantz Fanon is cherished because he symbolizes an intellectual who linked his own struggle for self-liberation with the struggle for a people's liberation, the struggle for the liberation of Africa and the rest of the World from the shackles of colonialism and neo-colonialism. Fanon lived and died as an activist intellectual who dedicated himself to promoting social change and human development.

We are highly flattered by your interest to observe and study the efforts we have undertaken during the past ten years to promote social change in our society.

Development in human society is a many-sided process. In these brief reflections, I do not wish to enter into a theoretical or philosophical discourse on the broad subject of human development. All I wish to do is to highlight certain aspects of the Somali experience in promoting social change and development.

Our experience, and indeed that of others, has confirmed a number of the observations made by the late Dr. Frantz Fanon as early as 1960. It has taught us that, for example the achievement of any of those aspects of personal or individual development is very much tied in with the State of the society as a whole. Everywhere you visit in our country you will find some evidence of the stress placed on the dialectical connection between the development of the individual and that of the community. Our experience has also taught us that there is an indisputable link between socio-economic change and political development. We have also learned, as Fanon emphasised, that mass spontaneity is not enough; in order to promote human development, a people must plan, organise and channel their efforts and at the same time constantly raise their political consciousness.

During the turn of the century, imperialism brutally divided and colonized our people, it also encouraged and assisted the feudal Abyssinian Kingdom to expand and colonize a part of our people as well as other peoples of the Horn of Africa in order to create the Ethiopian Empire. For decades now, the history of our people like that of millions of other peoples all over the world, has been a history of struggle for liberation and unification. This struggle has taught us to uphold and cherish the principle of self-determination which provides a sound

basis for reconciliation, peace and development, especially in our region. In our struggles for liberation we learned to create national political parties. These parties channelled the spontaneous efforts of our people towards one goal: independence. The part of Somalia colonized by the British in the North and the part colonized by the Italians in the South both attained independence and unification on July 1st 1960.

In the *Wretched of the Earth*, Fanon gives a brilliant analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of the African nationalist movement. Though we had, like in other parts of colonized Africa, learned to form political parties bent on gaining freedom, our parties had not yet developed ideologically and organizationally to be able to cope up with the situation of neo-colonialism which followed formal independence.

Somalia experienced the worst aspects of neo-colonialism during the years 1960-1969. Neo-colonialism implies the continuation of the political economy of colonialism, that is, the situation of non-industrial exploitation, the perpetuation of under-development. It implies urbanisation without creating the means to cope with the problems of unemployment and their social consequences.

For us the years 1960-69 represented the neo-colonial era, during which the economy floundered and therefore, the politics reflected confusion and tribalism or rather clannism, social relations were corrupted and our cultural heritage was allowed to disintegrate. This is evidenced by the fact that our national language remained unwritten, neglected and condemned to gradual extinction. Over 80 political parties competed for 120 seats in the corrupt elections of those days -- those so-called parties represented nothing but petty selfish interests.

The Revolution of October 21st 1969 was motivated by the need to struggle against neo-colonialism. This struggle for social change and development reflects a many-sided process. The first Charter of the Revolution, dated October 21, 1969, declared as its objective that of constituting a society based on work, social justice and equality. As Jaalle Siad, the Secretary General of our Party and President of the Somali Democratic Republic said, «We have chosen Scientific Socialism, because it is the only way for the rapid transformation of the country into a developed and economically advanced nation».

Our revolutionary Government began to adopt policies designed to ensure that planned economic growth makes a full and wise use of human resources, respects human values and maximises human satisfaction. Measures have been taken to create and expand free health services to our people. Significant steps have been taken to promote women equality, in education, employment and matters pertaining to marriage and family life.

The Crash Agricultural Programmes, the Rural Development Campaign involving mass literacy and health campaigns and the Settlement Programme of drought-stricken nomads in agricultural and fishing communities are vivid examples of our firm policy to enhance manpower development, and promote the material and social welfare of our people. The writting of our language since October 21st, 1972, gave us the necessary weapon to wage war against illiteracy and ignorance, it also provided us with a basis to promote grass-roots political participation of our people in the decision making process. The writting of our language is an invincible tool against cultural alienation so vividly described in the books of Fanon,

You will have, I hope the opportunity to witness these programmes during your brief stay with us. You will also be reading and analysing papers on these topics by Somali presenters. What I wish to emphasise to you is the fact that these crash programmes, literacy campaigns and resettlement communities would not have been achieved without the ideological and organisational changes promoted by the Revolution under the leadership of Jaalle Siyad.

Indeed, as soon as the birth of our 1969 Revolution, a Public Relations Office was created and given the task of systematically organising our people and raising their political consciousness. By 1972, the PRO was transformed into the Political Office of the Supreme Revolutionary Council. The Political Office established a network of Orientation Centres in residential areas all over the country. It also carried out its tasks of political organisation and education at work-places, in administrative offices, educational institutions, factories, farms and cooperatives. It published books, pamphlets and magazines in the Somali language. In 1975, it opened a Political Institute at Halane for the national training of cadres. The Political Office came to possess an embryonic political party structure.

This structure played a crucial role in organising and promoting the agricultural Crash Programmes, the Sand Dune Project, the Rural Development Campaign, the Nomadic Settlement Programme as well as the numerous self-help and self-reliance oriented projects. In this way, hundreds of schools, hospitals, roads, offices, irrigation canals etc. have been constructed through the organised, voluntary labour of our people.

Thus a revolutionary political institution was created in order that, in the words of Frantz Fanon, the

«people must know where they are going, and why...the future remains a closed book so long as the consciousness of the people remain imperfect, elementary, cloudy.»

Mass participation in such development oriented projects resulted in a dialectical interaction between socio-economic activities on the one hand, and the development of political consciousness and organizational effectiveness, on the other hand.

Legislation was enacted to provide for worker participation in the management process. Within Orientation Centres committees for Youth, Women and Workers were established in order to involve them in day-to-day issues affecting the lives of the people. The writing of our national language and its adoption as the official medium of communication profoundly enhanced this aspect of political development, namely the process of mass participation in the decision-making process.

By July 1st 1976, this dialectical process of interactions resulted on the formation of the Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party (SRSP). At this point let me once again recall the words of Frantz Fanon: «A country that really wishes to answer the question that history puts to it, that wants to develop not only its towns but also the brains of its inhabitants, such a country must possess a trustworthy political party.»

Our Party is further linked to our people through the mass organisations for the youth, for the Women and for the Workers. These political and social institutions permit us not only to wage unprecedented campaigns, they also permit us to sustain such efforts in a planned and systematic way over a period of time. For example, they are all involved in the follow-up programme

of the mass literacy campaign, they were involved in the successful campaign that eradicated small-pox from our country, in the campaign to promote food self-sufficiency, better hygiene and other aspects of preventive medicine.

The Somali Cooperative Movement is also involved in the effort to promote development by raising production and consciousness simultaneously.

Nevertheless, let us face it: what we are dealing with is a historical process. The consciousness of our people is not a tabula rasa, we have inherited various defects and shortcomings from our colonial past, our rural traditions and so forth. The individualism and alienation of colonialism analysed by Fanon continues to permeate certain sectors of our society. Social change and human development is, in the final analysis, an evolutionary process.

Obviously, the objective factors, our natural resources and level of technology for example, are not conducive to rapid social transformation. We are also obliged to constantly engage in a dual task of building new institutions while combatting inherited neo-colonial attitudes and mentalities. In promoting our national language, for instance, our efforts are absorbed in several directions at the same time, a) — In spreading literacy among the people; b) — In developing the vocabulary of the language itself while simultaneously establishing for the first time, institutions of higher education; c) — Combatting the neo-colonial attitudes and habits. Periodically, we have also to combat the effects of serious unexpected droughts like the one that afflicted our people in 1974 causing us to divert from the objectives of the 1974-78 Plan. These are serious obstacles, they sometimes result in frustratings and tensions.

Our historical experience has taught us to cherish self-determination and independence as the basis for promoting social change and human development. It is also the basis for promoting national reconciliation and international cooperation. As a consequence we strongly support the struggle of others for their basic human rights, including the right to self-determination. That is why we supported and pledge to redouble our efforts to support the legitimate struggle of the national liberation movements waging a bitter war against racist oppression and colonialism, in South Africa, Zimbabwe, Namibia, Eritrea and Western Somalia. We also condemn obnoxious Zionist practices against the Palestinians, and the other Arab people in the occupied territories. As a result of our principled stand on supporting national liberation movements we often find ourselves endangered by foreign interventions.

We also pledge to redouble our efforts to sustain and enhance peaceful social change and the process of increased mass participation I have described above. This is the Tenth Year of our Revolution. It is time for serious reflections, a time for taking stock of our cumulative experience during these past hectic and challenging years. It is also time for further innovative actions aimed at promoting our political development. This is the year in which our people will discuss and hold a referendum in order to adopt a Constitution. The proposed Constitution guarantees and ensures a more institutionalised framework for promoting these social changes in our country. The Constitution provides for an elected National Assembly thereby advancing the democratic participation of our people in state affairs at the highest level.

You will hear about these and other issues during your stay here. You will have time to analyse, ex-

change views and perspectives on these and several other important issues reflected in your Conference Agenda.

Objective conditions do not permit us to offer you the best Conference facilities for holding such a demanding International Conference. I am sure you will suffer inconveniences and even discomforts. I hope and trust that you will consider these as secondary to your major goal and objectives. We, on our part will do our best to assist you in accomplishing your tasks.

Permit me to declare «open» the Third International Fanon Centre Conference and to wish all the participants a pleasant and product experience in our country.

Thank You.

A REVOLUTIONARY PARTY IN THE MAKING

Ibrahim Meygag Samatar
Chairman of Bureau for CC affairs

Comrades and Dear Guests:

What I am going to say is not and cannot be an exhaustive study into the genesis and history of the Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party. Rather I will try to give you some reflections — though somewhat disjointed — about the background of our Party, its organisation, the problems facing it and how it grapples with them.

The first question that comes to mind is what kind of a socialist party is the Somali Party — Marxist or Social Democratic? A cursory reading of its Programme and statute give a very good indication that the SRSP is what Lenin described as a Party of the New-type. But the Programme and Statute, no matter how clearly thought over are, after all, documents. What matters is

how the Policy contained in them works out in practice. I will try to give the answer to this question, not didactically.

It is an old adage that the present can only be understood in terms of the past — since the latter party determines the path circumstances that led to the birth of the Party before we describe its present structure.

I think all of you are aware of the sad days of colonial occupation of our people and country. True, Somalia did not go through the cruelest experience of pre-colonial days when mercantile capitalism was trading with our people like any other piece of commodity across the continents. We here in the Horn were not greatly subjected to that evil bloodletting. That does not mean that our colonial experience was not traumatic. We suffered the artificial and cruel division of our natural habitat, which is still with us today uncorrected and supported by the present balance of power in the world, together with all the other familiar phenomena accompanying colonial domination — economic exploitation, distortion of social structure, perverted progress and cultural alienation.

It was a wonder, therefore, that a great deal of our energy as a people was focused on getting rid of the colonial Yoke and restoring the natural unity of our country and people. The struggle had its ebbs and tides beginning from the time the white man set his first foot in our country (R. Burton). There were moments of mass spontaneity and violent armed struggle, just as there were moments of apathy and moments of underground preparation. The period after World War II had witnessed an intensification of the liberation struggle in both breadth and depth culminating in the independence of two parts of our country, from Italian and British colonialism, and their unification.

This long struggle had given our people sensitive awareness of the demands and benefits of independence: namely the continuation of the struggle in order to realize the aspiration for a better life. Yet these aspirations were not very much articulated in detail, and the socio-economic structure inherited from the colonial past — a mixture of the traditional forms (such as nomadism and subsistence agriculture), and superimposed capitalist forms with no sunk roots in the native soil — did not permit the necessary disciplined organisations that would pursue that struggle in a new setting. The result naturally was the dissipation of the would-be gains of independence in a neo-colonial confusion.

Dr. Mohamed Adan Sheikh has touched upon how things were in that situation in his opening talk in this conference. I only want to make two points in this connection. First, the disillusion with independence and the then regime created a new form of consciousness among the masses — however subterranean that consciousness was — that there must be a different way for society to organize itself and reach its goals. Second, there was no organised Party, class or section of society that could meet that challenge aside from the Armed Forces. The existing petty-bourgeois parties degenerated into clan associations that were utilized for opportunistic purposes.

It is said that nature abhors vacuum, and so does that social situation. It was inevitable, therefore, for the Armed Forces to fill the vacuum. Now since there has been so many reactionary as well as aimless coups in Africa and elsewhere how could one be sure that the Somali Armed Forces would present a progressive programme for the country? It was the objective situation pertaining at that time that determined the nature of the Somali coup and turned it into a genuine revolution — and it

must be so since history cannot be explained either by random accidents or facile generalisations. We have mentioned that on the eve of October 1969 the nation was pregnant with the experiences, struggles, and frustrations of the pre-colonial, colonial, and neo-colonial periods. It is evident, therefore, that the only successful course on the agenda could be nothing other than a politico-socio-economic programme that sets the stage for the break-away from neo-colonial bondages, and for a free self-sufficient and self-sustaining internal development -- in other words a socialist programme adapted to the conditions. And this is what the Revolution came up with.

There is also another factor on the subjective level - which accounted for the progressive nature of the Somali Revolution that started with an army coup d'etat. This factor pertains to the make-up of the Somali Officer Corps. It must be remembered that the Somali Army as such is a post-colonial creation. There were some nuclei left by the Italian and British Administrations, but the National Army perse was created after independence. The officers, who came from a nomad, peasant, worker and petty-bourgeois background (remember there are no latifundia or big capitalists in the proper sense in Somalia) were mainly trained in the socialist countries. They thus fully shared their views with the masses at large, and did not constitute an elite divorced from the people, with its own ambitious and interests.

The programme presented by the Revolution had to, in the nature of things, start with demolishing certain institutions and building new ones so as to re-structure society on a new basis, and set up new goals. I presume that other speakers will be dealing with our efforts in nationalization, economic planning, the exper-

iments with new socio-economic models, and the herculean demands required to face the hardships imposed upon us by external factors - both natural and human. I will, therefore, confine myself, for the sake of brevity and elucidation, to the political field - though, as we know, social phenomena in their living day-to-day practice cannot be separated with such artificiality.

After the neo-colonial constitution together with the parties and Parliament that went with it were abolished, that other political institutions were to replace them was evident, from the theoretical point of view, that the new socialist programme called for a socialist Party of the new type, and the socialist institutions that should accompany it, such as the mass organisations and the national assemblies that truly represent the interests of the working people. But it was also obvious that such institutions cannot be imposed from above - through legislation by the revolutionary authorities. That would be apish imitation. Such institutions could only evolve as a result of the revolutionary activities of the people themselves.

It was mandatory, therefore, to actively involve the broad masses of the people in the tasks of nation-building and changing their lives. Various campaigns were undertaken, in addition to the normal but more formal economic plans, to improve the daily lives of the people. These campaigns included health activities (such as the construction of dispensaries, Mother and child care centres), the construction of schools and feeder roads, youth festivals, and finally the epic literacy campaign that revolutionized our educational system.

Aside from the directly obvious material benefits, these campaigns had a two-fold aim. The mobiliza-

tion of the people as active participants in the tasks of changing their lives had the effect of gaining their commitment for the revolutionary transformation. At the same time these campaigns were utilized for giving the people theoretical political education and selecting active cadres from among their midst. It was worth emphasizing here that all these activities were organized from the beginning.

It was imperative, as Fanon correctly concluded, to avoid the «pitfalls of spontaneity». The organ involved in this mobilization – the Public Relations Office – continuously and persistently spread its network of revolutionary orientation Centres and the recruiting of revolutionary Cadres. It had its combination of theoretical awareness and practical activity finally culminated in the establishment of the Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party and the mass organization affiliated with it the General Federation of Somali Trade Unions, the Somali Democratic Women Organisation, the Somali Revolutionary Youth Union and the Organisation of the Somali Co-operatives Movement.

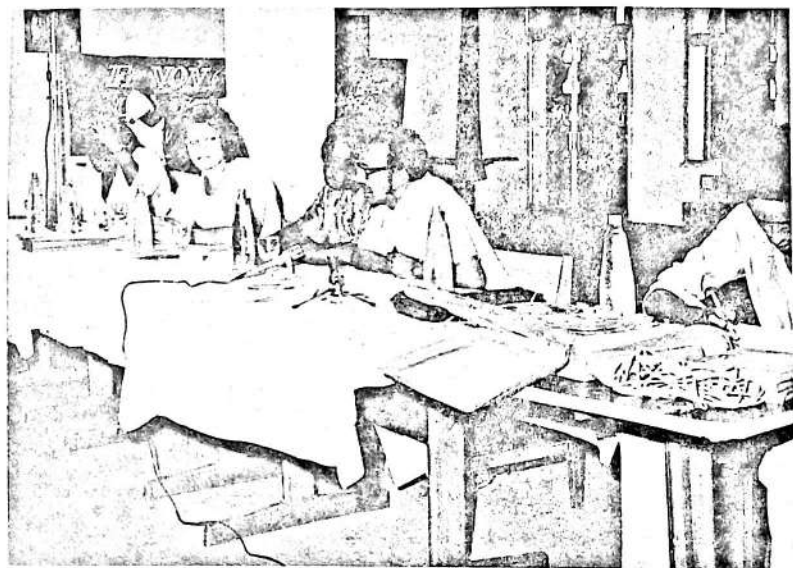
The structure of the Party extends from the smallest cell spread all across the country to the highest policy-making level which is the Congress, held every five years. In between Congresses, has its Central Committee with political bureau and several other lower level bureaux (or departments), dealing with various sectors of national life such as social and economic affairs, mobilization and ideological matters. The main tasks of the Party are the political organisation and education of the people, guidance and control of the State Administration in the fulfilment of the Party programme and the Government Plans that translate it into action. It in no way supersedes

the State administration. The mass organisations are the party's link with the people. Aside from propagating Party education and helping in the implementation of the programme, they also make the Party aware of the feelings of the people, and feed it with ever-growing activists.

Three years after the establishment of the Party we feel confident enough of the consolidation of the new democracy to make it advance further. Thus a new constitution reflecting the new structures will be submitted to a referendum during the coming months. If approved this constitution will lead to the birth of a new National Assembly elected by the people. We have thus come full circle. But it is not a restoration of the old conditions that existed before the Revolution. These are new revolutionary democratic institutions of the people that are qualitatively different from their predecessors. They did not come into being simply through copying, but through study and groping in practice—a procedure that will not cease.

By way of conclusion, allow me to go into a little digression. Earlier I mentioned that ours is a Marxist oriented Party. You may therefore wonder why I did not go into details about the ideology of the Party. This I think is evident from the Programme. But the point that I want to emphasize is that we do not view Marxism as a set of external truths that can be dug up every time to answer all questions everywhere. Rather Marxism is a methodology of understanding present reality, applying that understanding through practice to further update and advance it. This is evident through a reading of Marx's works from the earliest articles to the «Economic and philosophical Manuscript» of 1848, through the «Ger-

Notes: 1. The National referendum took place on August 25th and unanimously approved the new constitution,



A DISCUSSION IN ONE OF CONFERENCE WORKSHOPS



man Ideology» and other work, until they found their application through analysis of a particular social system, viz capitalism, in «Das kapital». It is this methodology that we have attempted to apply. Whether we succeeded is a question for history to answer.

ECONOMIC TRANSFORMATION IN A FRAMEWORK OF PASTORALISM: SOME ASPECTS OF DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY IN SOMALIA

By Ahmed Mohamed Mohamoud,
Chairman of the National Economic Committee

Brothers and Sisters,

It is great pleasure and honour for me to be with you today. During the past few days, you have had an opportunity to see, learn and observe something of this country, its people and what we are trying to achieve.

This morning I shall try to address myself to the theme «Economic Transformation in a Framework of Nomadic Pastoralism: Some Aspect, challenges of Development strategy in Somalia.»

This Conference has, no doubt, dealt with topics relating to various aspects of this theme in more depth and detail, in the course of discussions and exchange of views during this past week. I shall therefore take it up in a very general way and confine myself to certain aspects of our development strategy.

Let me start off by giving you, very briefly, some basic and key data to serve as background information on the Economic structure of this country.

Baseline: 3000 Km.

Area: 640,000 Sq km or 64 Million hect.

Area suitable for crop production 8 Mill. hect.

Population	: around 4.5 Mill.
nomadic Population	: over 70%
agricultural Population	: 15 - 20%
Urban	: the rest
Estimated rate of Population growth	2.83%
Estimate per capita income	\$ 110 US (the figure adopted by the UN).

Rainfall : Two rainy seasons
1) — The «Gu» Season (March - April to June);
2) — The «Deyr» Season (Sept. - Oct. to December)

Over most of the country annual precipitation varies between 50 to 400 mm. of rain. Rainfall is very erratic with respect both to distribution and to timing and total failures are quite frequent.

Rivers : The only two permanent rivers are the Webi Shabelle and the Juba both in the Southern part of the country.

Exports : Live animals, Hides and Skins, canned meat, canned and frozen fish, Frankincense and Myrrh, and finally Banana. Total value of exports is just over 100 Million US Dollars a year. More than 85% of this is accounted by livestock (around 1.5 Million heads a year) and livestock products. Remaining 15% comes mostly from Banana.

Imports : Consist mainly of some basic food items, textiles, medicines, fuel, machinery and other development equipment.

DEVELOPMENT OBJECTIVES AND IDEOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK.-

Because of the adoption of «Scientific Socialism» by Somalia as its chosen ideology after the October Revolution of 1969, and in line with the party guidelines, the broad goal of economic policy is to bring about economic Transformation within a socialist framework, taking, of course into consideration our special conditions, present stage of development and our whole environment. More specifically objectives of Policy are:

- 1) — To achieve an increasing rate of Economic growth and general development;
- 2) — To ensure that benefits of economic growth and development go to the people as a whole and to eradicate all forms of economic and social exploitation.
- 3) — To provide employment for the people.
- 4) — To ensure the direct participation of workers at all stages in the process of policy formulation and execution.
- 5) — To meet the «basic needs» of the population in terms of education, Health, food, water supply etc.

INSTITUTIONAL APPROACH.-

To attain the objective of economic policy, an institutional framework has been adopted which, while placing major reliance on the Public Sector and the for-

mation of Co-operatives, still accords an important role to the private Sector.

PUBLIC SECTOR.-

Policy is to give a leading role to this Sector.
The aim is to ensure:-

- a) — That the most strategic sectors of the economy such as Banking, Insurance, key Industries etc are publicly owned;
- b) — That the State takes full and direct responsibility for basic utilities such as the provision of electricity, water supplies, telecommunication systems and so on;
- c) — That again the State takes full responsibility for the provision of education and similar services.
- d) — The establishment of Public Sector monopoly over the importation and distribution of essential food items, medicines and the purchase, collection and marketing of important agricultural crops.
- e) — That the State takes a leading role and directly participates in the productive sector of the economy through the establishment of state farms, state industries, and together state enterprises in fisheries, shipping, commerce and all other sectors of the Economy.

How far has this policy been implemented ?
The answer is: To a considerable degree as far as the modern sector of the Economy is concerned. The predo-

minant part of this sector especially in all the areas mentioned earlier, is either state owned and managed or else closely controlled by the Government. More than 50 Public Agencies and enterprises engaged in various fields of economic activities have been established since the last nine years in addition to the services directly run by the central Government or local authorities.

In this connection, however, it is necessary to remember that the subsistence sector occupying more than 80% of the population is generally outside Government control from the management point of view. It is also worth to note that while expansion of the State Sector represents a movement in the right direction and accords fully with Party policy guidelines towards the attainment of social and economic objectives, problems and challenges, some of which are of a major proportion have confronted us. I shall discuss some of the issues involved later, but here I just want to mention that, apart from financial constraints and other resources limitations the shortage of management, professional and technical skills have created formidable problems in our attempts to organise an efficient and expanding Public Sector throughout the economy.

CO-OPERATIVES.-

Apart from reliance on an expanding Public Sector for the attainment of economic objectives, we have been according a very high priority to the establishment of Co-operatives. These now exist and operate over a wide range of economic fields: In agriculture, Industry, handicrafts, fisheries, retail trade and so on. Moreover, with the help and guidance of the Party the movement has organised itself into a very active social organization closely allied with the Party. The movements has developed an elaborate structure starting at the village

level and culminating with the Federation of Co-operatives Movement which has its Headq. M

1. The Co-operatives, like the State sector, have been handicapped by the lack of resources and shortage of technical skills. Consequently their contribution to the national output still remains limited and has fallen somewhat short of expectation particularly in agriculture. However, we need to bear in mind that the history of the Movement is very recent in the country, and it needs time and encouragement to overcome the various problems it has been confronted with.

THE PRIVATE SECTOR:

I mentioned earlier that over 80% of the population of this country is engaged in livestock earning under conditions of nomadic Pastoralism or else subsistence farming. Around 90% of our total earnings of Foreign exchange and more than 60% of basic food consumption in the modern sector originate in the subsistence sector. Banana cultivation which constitutes the backbone of our modern agriculture export item, is still in private hand. A sizeable part of our industrial production is accounted for by the private sector.

It is quite clear that in the light of our present realities and objective conditions, and in view of the need to mobilise all available resources including our entire population for the purposes of development, the role of private Enterprise has to be recognised and given a place in our development strategy. Consequently in the party programme, the private sector has been accorded full recognition, however, it is to be observed that in the modern sector of the Economy the operations and activities of private enterprise have had to follow certain general guidelines with the intention to prevent or minimise the exploi-

tation tendencies of Private enterprise on the one hand, and with a views to harness or channel their resources, initiative and dynamism towards areas that would genuinely contribute to development on the other.

Thus private enterprise is encouraged to engage mainly in the productive sectors such as farming, small scale industries, handicrafts and so on. Exportation and marketing of livestock and retail trade in general, have been left in private hands. The formation of Co-operatives in the latter fields of activity has been gaining ground lately.

Private Enterprise has been excluded from areas such as Banking, Insurance, Import Trade and whole sale distribution areas which normally tend to attract private enterprise in the developing countries an account of the opportunities they offer for making quick profits, but which, for the same reasons, also tend to be more exploitative and wasteful of national resources.

SECTORAL PRIORITIES

The preponderant role of the livestock sector in the Somali economy and its continued importance for the foreseeable future, is evident. Consequently its claim of a very high priority in the allocation of resources is also clear. But for purposes of our long term development strategy, doubts will necessarily have to be expressed about our continued dependence or reliance on a pastoral Economy.

This has certain implications for the establishment of any order of priority between sectors. Agriculture occupies the next position to livestock in relation to the proportion of the population engaged in it and

in relation to its contribution to 4th national output. However, what is much more important is by far the greater Potential this sector offers.

As regards Fisheries, we have 3000 Km. of Coastline, implying that there are tremendous opportunities for the future and present exploitation of our sea and Ocean resources.

With respect to physical infrastructure, the importance of this sector cannot be over-estimated. The country is large and long distances separate the settled parts of it. The development of basic communications still remains embryonic.

The provision for basic needs to the masses such as food, health services, education water supplies etc continues to be urgent inspite of the heroic efforts of the Revolution since 1969, and the attainment of some impressive results particularly in the field of literacy and primary education.

Under these circumstances, the determination of sectoral priorities in terms of resource allocation in any definitive manner would not be an easy task. More so when we recognise the close inter-relationship and inter-dependence of development activities in the various sectors, and give due consideration to the complex social and political factors that inevitably play their role. The fact is, that the development of these key sectors is essential and in line with the objectives. Therefore, a balanced approach towards allocation of resources would appear to be a practical choice. Rational utilisation of resources through co-ordinated programs, careful selection of projects, and proper monitoring of investment could only give the necessary impetus to production and the achievement of the desired rates of economic growth.

CONSTRAINTS AND CHALLENGES TO DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY

The problems which have confronted us in our struggle towards the attainment of national development objectives are many. But I shall take up briefly a few basic ones that have proved to be a real challenge.

First of all there are the kind of problems associated with and actually inherent in the transformation of an economy based on nomadic Pastoralism. Nomadism is not unique to Somalia but I know of no other country which depends on this kind of economy to the extent we do. For us, Nomadism is not something practiced by certain sections of the population primarily out of habit and for which they have deep attachment. May be an element of that too. But most certainly in the case of Somalia it is more of a very complex socio-economic system for which people have not been able to find a better and practical alternative as yet. The system is efficient within its own framework. It is not entirely primitive. The Nomadic population is closely connected to the monetary sector of the economy, have almost up-to-date informations about markets, provides a substantial market for the products of other sectors, and is highly conscious politically and socially.

From a development standpoint, the problem here is that of man and his environment; between livestock and the availability of grazing on the rangelands, water resources, pattern of rain and even the pattern of movement of herds and their type (from the point of view of adaptation). Thus it would prove to be an extremely difficult job to devise schemes to bring about transformation with-

in that framework. For the future, the development within the primarily Nomadic population, over most of the country, would inevitably be a danger for the conditions of the rangeland and the very real threat of desertification. The same thing applies to unplanned drilling of wells or the prospects of any substantial increases in livestock and human populations in those areas.

It would appear therefore that the only alternative is to divert the whole future increases in population and even remove a substantial proportion of the present Nomadic Population to cultivated agriculture and fisheries. We do have large areas with agricultural potential particularly in the inter-riverine regions and to a lesser degree in the North-West part of the country. There is also no doubt about the development potential in the fisheries sector.

But this scenario will not be easy to realise in practice :

First of all, the Nomads who form the bulk of the population are growing at the rate of about 2.83%. So is the rest of the population. The total numbers of people that could eventually be observed into, say agriculture would necessarily be limited. Fisheries, from the long run point of view, offer perhaps a better opportunity.

Secondly when we refer to the absorption capacity of agriculture and fisheries, we are only talking in terms of their potentialities, but the development of these sectors even at a rate that would ensure the absorption of future increase in population, looks like a forbidding task for a country like Somalia with very limited resources and technology.

Thirdly removal or transplantation of communities to a different environment or way of life may not prove to be a practical proposition except under special circumstances like the ones we experienced after the drought of 1974 - 1975. At any rate it is no easy task.

Finally gradual absorption of growing numbers of people into agriculture and fisheries might seem to be a realistic approach, but in the meanwhile we are haunted by the Spectre of a looming image of desertification as a result of the pressure of a growing livestock and human population on the rangelands to say nothing of the exodus of people from the country side into the cities to swell the numbers of the unemployed.

In Somalia, we recognise the urgency, complexity and dimensions of the problem. We regard it as a challenge and we are determined to win. As you have already observed during your visit to some of the resettlement areas in this region, we have already made a start.

The implementation of fishery development projects in many places along the coast, the imminent construction of Bardhere Dam on the Juba, the realisation of the Fanale dam about to be completed and the many agricultural and other schemes underway, are all but a living testimony to our determination to face up to the challenge.

There are other constraints to our development efforts which, while different in character, yet reinforce the basic dilemmas and difficulties involved in the transformation of nomadic pastoralism as described earlier. One of these, is the limited availability of resources: financially, technologically and in terms of trained manpower admittedly a characteristic feature in the developing world, but definitely more acute in Somalia (listed offi-

cially by the UN among the least developed countries) an account of two considerations: First, in view of the geographical proximity to Somalia of the high-income oil producing countries of the Middle East such as Saudi Arabia and the Gulf States, and because of our close links with those countries, we have been losing large and increasing numbers of our skilled, semi-skilled, professional and experienced people to these countries through migration. The process has proved difficult to contain and the loss of trained cadres is inevitably having adverse effects not only on our central administration and the management of Public enterprises but more seriously on the implementation rates of development projects and programs. Certain measures to counteract the situation have already been taken and some more are under study.

The second consideration is our dependence on foreign aid for the financment of the major part of development projects in the plan. Somalia, relatively receives substantial amounts of aid from various sources. But the point is that the conditions normally attached to the use of foreign aid are such as would impose false limits to the absorptive capacity of a country like Somalia. The reason is that apart from the labyrinth of standard bureaucratic requirements and political overtones, by far the biggest hurdle is the requirement for the recipient country to meet the local cost of all foreign financed projects and programmes. Poor countries not and should not raise local finance by way of the printing machine. It has to be raised through taxation or other means from the local population whose incomes are already very low.

Actually most services run by Government Agencies to meet the basic needs of the people require to be subsidised. But then we are all aware, that a major element of development aid policy, from the donor's point

of view is to promote the sale of equipment and other goods and services by the donor country and not necessarily to respond to the true needs of development in the recipient country.

Finally, talking of constraints to Development strategy in Somalia, I should like to refer to another problem which, while different in character than those discussed earlier, yet still have its relevance in this context. This relates to the economic effects of the political conflicts in the Horn of Africa. Here the situation is more ambivalent: In respect of W. Somalia which is under Ethiopian colonisation, the reality is that while Ethiopia has always kept the region under military occupation, lacked up in struggle with the liberation movements mounting air attacks against civilians and poisoning wells, the actual operation of the economic system of the area has always, since time immemorial formed an integral part of the pastoral economy on which this country is so much dependent. Apart from consideration of political, social, linguistic, religious, historical and family ties, the compelling impositions of a pastoral economy and geography have rendered the economy of the area inseparable from that of the Somali Democratic Republic. A certain proportion of the livestock exported through our parts comes from that area, and an even greater proportion of our imports of essential commodities, and non-essential ones for that matter, end up in that region.

In the case of Somalia/Kenya relationship the fact is that Kenya is industrially more developed than Somalia, and one would have expected, that the Kenyans would take full advantage of the situation. However, due to Kenya's unfounded suspicions about our political intentions in the NFD, cooperation between the two countries in the economic field, has never reality got of the ground

in a substantial way, lately there have been some positive initiative taken on both sides to correct the situation development which gives us a better hope for the future. However, the most serious implication of the political and territorial conflict in the Horn of Africa, for development in the region as a whole is two fold. In the first place the countries of the region are prevented from being in a position to work out complementary strategies of development and to benefit from regional schemes and programmes of common advantage.

Secondly by maintaining large armies and diverting scarce and urgently needed resources to the purchase of arms, the pace of economic and social transformation in each individual country and for the region as a whole will necessarily be slower.

Dear Participants,
Brothers and Sisters,

Allow me to say in conclusion to this short address, that I have made an attempt to give you a general idea of some aspects of development strategy in this country and the challenges we face. As I said at the beginning of my address you have had an opportunity to witness something of what we are trying to do to meet these challenges. Your presence here, your discussions your contributions and your interest is a source of inspiration and encouragement to us.

I thank you for listening and for your patience.

AN OVERVIEW OF THE PLANNING EXPERIENCE IN SOMALIA

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The birth of the Vanguard Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party in July 1st 1976 entails immense significance in terms of both guiding the revolution and setting the economy along a planned socialist oriented path. This also gave Somalia an opportunity to conduct her economic policies in ways that would respond directly to the needs and priorities of her masses.

The task is considerably difficult but not unsurmountable. Drawing from the richer experiences of other socialist societies the government began gearing its efforts towards the better utilization of the available natural resources and removal of the Socio-economic imbalances so as to obtain a higher level of economic activity development towards a Socialist Society.

Since planned economy is the chief feature of a socialist economy. This paper will attempt to give an overview of the planning experience in Somalia so as to show the particular as well as general strategies utilized by the Somali government in order to realize its cherished socialist goals.

Development planning in Somalia is over fifteen years old. Four development programmes have been so far published including the present one: The first five years plan (1963 - 1967); the short - term Development Programme (1968 - 1970); the Development Programme (1971-1973), and lastly the five year Development Programme (1974 - 1978).

No long-term prospective plan has ever been

prepared for the country. Such distinction of plans, however, by their timespan, though the plan period is quite important in other respects, is not of much use to the assessment of the quality of plans. One should find other meaningful methods for their proper evaluation and the identification of the problems which these plans had encountered. A more useful classification could be obtained by division of Africa development plans into four general categories:

- 1) Public expenditure programme with vague economic goals;
- 2) Public sector plans with some-what vaguely related policy proposals and private sector projections;
- 3) Over-all indicative plans;
- 4) Basically state economy plans.

The First Five Year Plan and the Short-term Development Programme could be classified under the first category; while the Development Programme fall under the fourth. The basis of this classification will, I hope, be clear ~~in~~ a moment.

The First Five Year Plan was published in July, 1963 - three years after the country attained formal independence. The plan was born with United Nations expertise acting as an able midwife (Mr. M. L. Qureshi was Vice-President of the planning and coordinating committee for economic and social development). The Prime Minister of the day claimed that it «reflected the aspirations of the people, sets the goals which we want to reach and indicates the means with which to reach them». The major objectives of this plan were spelled out as the creation of important socio-economic infrastructure and the expansion of the capacity of all sectors of the national economy.

The Short-term Development Programme the second attempt at development programme in Somalia, on the other hand had the basic objective of being a «consolidation» programme to finish the work of the previous plan and was meant for the creation of basic conditions necessary for the formulation of future development programmes of more ambitious nature. These programmes which were published at the time of the reactionary neo-colonial governments remained «paper plans» as the economic policy of these governments and their socio-political philosophy were not conducive to serious development planning.

Yet, some of the problems that these plans faced were also of practical and technical nature. In the first place, the First Five Year Plan was, after all, the first experiment of development planning in Somalia, and experiments are nearly always «blessed» with peculiar problems, notably over-ambition. Secondly, in both plan period the administrative machinery was extremely weak and inefficient and could not bear the burden of the First Five Year Plan, the country was newly independent and the Somali Republic was a merger of the colonies of two different metropolitan powers, namely Great Britain and Italy with widely divergent administrative, financial and legal systems and procedures. Thirdly, there was serious lack of adequate statistical and other relevant data on the overall structure of the national economy, especially regarding the absence of national income accounts and human and livestock population figures. The latter-mentioned difficulties were enhanced in Somalia by the largeness of the non-monetised sectors of the economy - agriculture, livestock, etc; in general, and the high proportion of nomadic population (over 70%) in particular. Fourthly, plan administration and co-ordination was plagued by the serious lack of technical skills; particularly middle

and high level man-power. Fifthly, these plans depended to a large extent on foreign funds whose realisation encountered serious delays. But, sometimes, although external finance was available, there was failure of raising the necessary internal investment components for various development projects as well as absence of pre-investment feasibility studies on their viability.

After the present revolutionary government came to power on October 21, 1969, the techniques, objectives and goals of development planning in the country took quite different shape. The new administration showed from the beginning its serious commitment to rapid economic development. Thus, the Development Programme was hastily compiled in 1970 in order to obtain a blueprint for the required development strategy in the light of a revolutionary socio-political philosophy. Its major objective was the preparation of the ground-work for comprehensive planning in the future. The brunt of its attack was on the main bottlenecks which hitherto remained a stumbling block in the face of national planning. These were quite clearly stipulated in the introduction as follows:-

- 1) Determined effort to rationalise government finance by increasing revenues and reducing expenditure.
- 2) Strengthening public administration for effective plan implementation;
- 3) Mobilisation of self-help potentialities through government participation in such projects;
- 4) Fighting unemployment and underemployment and encouraging economically useful activities;
- 5) Broadening the socialised sector of the economy in agriculture, industry, banking etc; so that the

public sector dominates the commanding heights of the economy.

- 6) Initiating and improving legal requirements essential for economic development.

Multi-purpose Crash Programmes were initiated especially in the agricultural sector in order to attain self-sufficiency in the production of stable foodstuffs, thus reducing a vital part of the country's imports. These programmes had also social objectives, in juxtaposition with the economic goals, such as the reduction of the appalling unemployment problems and engendering agrarian culture in the minds of the nomadic youth.

For the first time administrative seriousness was forthcoming under revolutionary power. The role which the Ministry of Planning and Co-ordination had to play in plan formulation, co-ordination and implementation was seen in clearer light. Plan administration was to be more effectively carried out by the establishment of planning units at the Ministerial and regional levels. Quarterly progress reports were to be supplied to the central planning organ for proper assessment of the performance of different development projects and the publication of the results at the end of each year. This greatly helped the preparation of annual plans and facilitated the work of plan-budget co-ordination. The then Ministry of Planning and Co-ordination was also to undertake the collection of more statistical data and to carry out feasibility studies on prospective projects in the priority sectors. Lastly, the private sector was to play a larger role in certain areas of the national economy though government control over it would be carefully effected being greatly facilitated by the nationalisation of monetary and financial institutions.

The Five Year Development Programme was approved by the Supreme Revolutionary Council and Council of the Secretaries of State on March 7, 1974. It is a great improvement upon the previous plans in terms of both technique and scope. At the same time, it is the greatest development effort ever tried in Somalia. It coincides with the Second United Nations Development Decade, and inspired by the self-reliance spirit of the Third UNCTAD Conference held in Santiago, Chile in early 1973 and the Action Programme adopted at the African ministerial meeting in Addis just before the Conference.

The crucial role of planning in the transformation of our economy into socialist - oriented is self-evident. However, the main theme worth mentioning here is that identification of the popular masses with plan objectives was to be secured. In view of this, the regional and district needs were formed at the grass root level for the formulation of local development projects. Then the Ministry of Planning and Co-ordination organized multi-disciplinary teams led by Economists and including Agronomists, Civil Engineers, Hydrologists, Veterinarians and Animal Husbandry experts; four such teams were dispatched to the regions for six months, each team of five to two regions. They have been there till the end of the year, have accomplished a commendable project identification job and submitted comprehensive reports.

At the top level, inter-Ministerial sectoral working groups have formulated and elaborated programmes and projects consistent with the general national strategy and objectives for the 17 sectors to which national life has been divided, eg. Education and manpower training, Trade Balance, Electricity and power, Basic infrastructure, Agriculture, etc. These groups were assisted by liaison officers from the Ministry of Planning and Co-ordination.

Another important contribution of this plan was the attempt to extend its perspective to encompass the private sector in order to mobilise the vital resources in that sector for socio-economic advancement.

The plan clearly aims at the realistic study of national resources in the form of systematic identification of regional and local needs mixed with serious sectoral strategies and objectives. The above methodology aims at ensuring sectoral and regional balance of growth for the true realisation of a socialist - oriented economy.

In the first two development plans of Somalia, no clear consistent strategy could be found, simply because the Governments which published them had no serious socio-political outlook. This is inspite of the fact that they were fine documents, at the time better written than the latter plans. The first Five Year Plan talks of its determination to make maximum use of the existing productive capital capacity by «removing» the obstacles to increase production. This constitutes a broad national goal rather than an explicit economic strategy: Likewise, the Short-term Development Programme had no comprehensive development strategy. It has three elements comprising its strategy, namely, integration of the Somali economy into that of the East African region; secondly the integrated development of the Juba River valley and, thirdly, consolidation of the programmes left unfinished by the previous plan. These, once again, represent desirable national objectives.

The Development Programme on the other hand, at the outset lists a number of elements which of the development programme are listed gap; improvements constitute its long-term strategy in order to achieve the desirable national economic goals;

- 1) Division of increasing resources to development;
- 2) Sectoral priorities to be in Livestock, Agriculture, Fisheries, Water Resources, Agro-Industries, Training and Research etc;
- 3) Direct participation of the State by exercising supervisory control over basic industries, state farms, industrial and trading organisations.
- 4) Allow private enterprise in any economic activity, excepting in the fields which the state considers as being of key character. At the same time, joint ventures with both local and foreign capital is to be under-taken.
- 5) Establishment of co-operatives in such areas as handicrafts and agriculture with effective assistance from government agencies, the banking system etc.
- 6) Encouragement and organisation of self-help activity for socio-economic reasons.
- 7) Give the importance to the role that could be played by national guidance and political orientation in the development process.
- 8) Give high priority to scientific research and the general utilisation and adaptation of science and technology to development.
- 9) Forge closer economic co-operation with other countries particularly those in the African region.

Apart from this long-term development strategy, the objectives of the Development Programme are listed in a similarly elucidated manner such as closing the budgetary gap; improvements in the basic services to livestock and agricultural including fisheries; development of water resources; establishment of agro-industries; decentralisation of development administration; development of communications, etc.

Thus, we have here a clear-cut strategy which insures public sector domination over the private sector and the realisation of a transitional socialist mode of production: It calls for the restructuring of the national economy to achieve a more self-reliant economic structure in ultimately ending the distortion and dependency nature inherited from the colonial period and neo-colonial situation. The Five Year Development Programme follows in the footsteps of the Development Programme.

It contains clearly articulated long-term economic strategy followed by a set of national objectives. The strategy consists of the following:

- a) Maximisation of resources utilisation in the production of commodities and services.
- b) Realisation of more equitable distribution of the national production.
- c) Decentralisation of the socio-political administration.
- d) Ownership and operation of the means of production by, and in the interest of, the masses of direct producers.
- e) Mobilisation and utilisation* of internal resources to the maximum.
- f) Creation of a socialist Co-operatives movement in agriculture, livestock, fisheries etc.

Priority sectors in the First Five Year Plan and the Short-term Programme were in physical and social infrastructure. As it is known, basic infrastructure

such as power, ports, roads etc, are essential for socio-economic development. But, these services do not bring development by themselves. They only assist social and economic advancement. However, it seems that undue emphasis has been placed on them in those two programmes:- about 60% in the First Five Year Plan and about 80% in the Short-term Development Programme. In the other two programmes, the Development Programme and the Five Year Development Programme, though due consideration was given to the crucial role played by infrastructure in economic development, sectoral priority moved to the directly productive areas, such as agriculture, livestock, mining, forestry and range, industry, etc, about 45% in the Development Programme and about 38% in the Five Year Development Programme.

There were two basic bottle-necks in the implementation of the development plans in Somalia. Firstly, there were acute administration problems and secondly, serious financial difficulties were encountered. The crucial role played by state administration in overall development plans can not be over-emphasized. Without a reasonable, competent administrative machine, there is no basis for development planning. The first two programmes suffered the birth bangs of the newly independent Republic. Also, as I have already mentioned, the country was forged out of the two different colonies. Add to this the inefficiency and corruption which permeated all through the bureaucratic set-up. The planning machinery was weak and ineffective in the follow-up and review of development projects as well as economic goals. Thus, it is no wonder that the over-all performance of those programmes greatly fell short of expectations. On the other hand, the implementation record of the Development Programme was rather impressive: for example, livestock (85%)

Agriculture (59%), Water Resources development (96.6%); Industry (89%) (see table 1).

The question of finance was even more serious. There was clear heavy dependence on foreign finance in all the four plans, although the degree of this dependence as well as the seriousness of raising local costs varied from one programme to the other. The main obstacle in internal accumulation of capital was the limited capacity of the national economy. Adequate sources of local finance clearly fell short of the development needs and a large resources gap became persistent. In the First Five Year Plan, real resources of finance for the programme were identified as public savings, private savings and external aid. Hopes were pinned upon the latter. But in the end only a fraction of that was actually realised. The Short-term Development Programme identified three domestic sources of finance, namely ordinary budget (3.1%), additional budgetary provision (4.3%) and other (5.1%). At the same time three sources of foreign resources were as follows:

Grants (22.4%);

Loans (24.1%),

Unspecified (41%) out of the total planned investment of So. Sh. 705M, 87.5% was expected from the latter source. Apparently not much was secured.

In the Development Programme the following sources were to be tapped:-

Internal (31.2%)

Central Government	(15.9%)
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Local Government	(1.4%)
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Autonomous Agencies	(9.3%)
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Other	(4.6%)
External (68.8%)	
Grants	(38.1%)
Loans	(27.4%)
Suppliers credit	(3.3%)

Out of the total planned investment of So. Sh. 999.9M, 68.8% were expected from foreign sources. Looking at the standard of implementation referred to earlier, most of these finances seem to have been secured.

The present Five Year Development Programme constitutes the largest national development effort. Its total planned investment outlay of So. Sh. 3.86 billion is larger than those of all the other three plans put together. Foreign sources are planned to account for 67.4% and will consist of loans and grants. The internal component is expected to be raised from the following sources Government budget (21.0%); Somali Development Bank (4.4%); Autonomous Agencies (3.1%); internal borrowing (4.1%).

The main challenge to the implementation of the on-going Five Year Plan came from an unexpected quarter, namely a prolonged drought that caused widespread losses to the national economy. In October 1974, barely eight months after the plan was launched, the imminence of the national calamity was realised. Since then, in fighting this natural disaster, the state spent huge amounts of money far more than the total planned investment for Five Years in a period slightly more than One Year. This was in the form of relief assistance to the destitute population in the reception camps as well as heavy economic as shown by the marked adverse balance of pay-

ments in 1974 and 1975 with the heavy losses in the livestock sector.

At the same time, in order to forestall similar situations recurring in the future, a comprehensive rehabilitation programme was worked out at an early date. This did not constitute a change of plan objectives. In fact one of the long-term objectives of the Five Year Plan aimed at the sedenterisation of the nomads and the drought merely accelerated that process. But, the planned resettlement of a million pastoralists in such a short period was actually beyond the expectations of even the most optimistic planner. The financial costs of the rehabilitation and resettlement programme were enormous, amounting to about one-third of the total investment outlay of the plan.

Moreover, this investment was concentrated in three sectors; livestock, agriculture and fisheries. Though these were the principal priority areas of the plan, yet such magnitude of investment was not originally planned. Thus, there was no change in the order of sectoral priority but only the degree of commitment to investments in these sectors was to a great extent increased.

TABLE I.

LEVEL OF IMPLEMENTATION OF SECTORAL

Programmes in the Development Programme (1971-73)

(So. Sh. 000) (6.2 So. Shs. = 1 US dollar)

		Outlay 1971 - 1973	
Sector		% of Actual	
No.	Sector	Planned	Actual to be Planned
1.	Livestock	59,385.8	51.067.2 85.9

2. Agriculture	107,721.0	64,548.0	59.9
3. Irrigation	38,889.0	18,676.3	48.0
4. Forestry and Range	14,306.0	5,004.3	35.0
5. Fisheries		4,450.0	—
6. Water Resources	119,501.0	105,263.6	96.6
7. Mining	17,525.5	19,940.0	110.5
8. Industry	87,795.0	78,167.6	89.0
9. Elect. and Power	23,533.8	19,940.0	84.8
10. Transport and Communication	353,060.0	190,882.2	54.1
11. Education	48,595.4	29,226.4	60.1
12. Health	71,151.0	33,458.0	47.0
13. Housing	11,575.9	2,399.2	20.7
14. Social Welfare	5,293.0	3,268.0	61.7
15. Labour and Training	11,651.5	7,865.2	67.5
16. Statistics and Cartography	8,439.0	1,846.3	21.9
17. Tourism	13,500.0	20,190.0	149.6
18. Information	8,010.0	1,100.0	13.7
All	999,943.0	656,624.5	65.7

TABLE 2

INVESTMENT OUTLAY OF SECTORAL PROGRAMME
IN THE FIVE YEAR DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

(1974 - 78)

Sector	Internal % of sector '000' So. Shs. Allocation in	External % of sector '000' Shs. Alloca.		
1	2	3	4	5
Livestock	34.809	21.48	127.278	78.52
Agriculture	394.443	35.4	279.063	64.9
Forestry and Ranges	29.401	57.65	21.753	42.52
Fisheries	59.000	75.37	18.996	24.35
Water Resources	93.488	66.99	46.064	33.01
Mining	34.408	75.3	11.280	24.69
Electricity and				
Power	62.130	45.50	74.410	34.50
Industry	210.367	35.76	377.890	64.24
Transport and				
Communication	118.219	12.51	826.476	87.46
Education	58.964	30.86	123.101	69.14
Housing	96.632	61.56	60.350	38.44
Health	23.851	30.69	53.870	69.31
Labour	5.375	47.53	5.939	52.47
Statistics and				
Cartography	5.902	5.56	100.197	94.44
Tourism	12.590	100.00	—	—
Information	19.812	53.40	17.303	46.60
TOTAL	1,260.393	2,602.964		

TABLE 3 Breakdown of capital Expenditures by sectors.

	1979		1980		1981		1979/81	
	mln	%	mln	%	mln	%	mln	%
1. Livestock and Range	302.1	11.0	196.9	7.7	131.9	7.4	630.8	8.9
2. Forestry	4.8	0.0	6.6	0.2	3.1	0.2	14.5	0.2
3. Agr. (Crops/Irrigation)	640.	23.3	545.8	21.4	418.2	23.4	1603.9	22.6
4. Fishery	66.1	2.4	115.3	4.5	85.0	4.7	266.4	3.8
I. AGRICULTURE	1013.0	36.9	864.5	33.9	638.2	35.7	2515.7	35.5
5. Mining and Quarreying	21.2	0.8	39.8	1.6	30.0	1.7	91.1	1.3
6. Manufacturing	491.5	17.9	466.4	18.3	267.0	14.9	1224.8	17.3
MINING INDUSTRY	512.7	18.7	506.2	19.9	297.0	16.6	1315.9	18.6
7. Electricity and Power	69.5	2.5	40.0	1.6	34.9	1.9	144.4	2.0
8. Water Resources	134.9	4.9	135.4	5.3	126.4	7.1	396.7	5.6
9. Transport and Communicat.	611.3	22.2	551.6	21.6	337.1	18.8	1500.0	21.2

III ECON. INFRASTRUCT.	815.7	29.7	727.0	28.5	498.4	27.9	2041.1	28.8
10. Trade and Commerce	64.4	1.3	56.1	2.2	48.4	2.7	169.0	2.4
11. Tourism	9.0	0.3	1.2	0.0	—	—	10.2	0.1
IV. OTHER SECTORS	73.4	2.7	57.3	2.2	48.5	2.7	179.2	2.5
12. Education and Trading	78.8	2.9	96.1	3.8	120.1	6.7	295.0	4.2
13. Higher Educ. and Culture	50.1	1.8	98.7	3.9	78.7	4.4	227.5	3.2
14. Health	32.1	1.2	47.4	1.9	21.9	1.2	101.4	1.4
15. Labour and Employment	43.2	1.6	4.6	0.1	0.7	0.0	48.5	0.7
16. Information	37.3	1.4	61.4	2.5	4.4	0.2	103.2	1.4
17. Administration	23.2	0.8	12.5	0.5	11.8	0.6	47.5	0.7
V. SOCIAL SECTORS	264.8	9.6	320.7	12.6	237.6	13.3	823.2	11.6
VI. REGIONS AND DISTRICTS	67.7	2.4	81.4	2.8	79.2	3.9	228.4	2.9
GRAND TOTAL	2,747.4	100	2,557.2	100.1	1,798.9	100	1,103.5	100

1/ Non-revised figures.

THE NEW THIRD YEAR PLAN (1979-81)

1) The total capital expenditure of the Three Year Development Programme 1979-1981 are estimated to be So. Sh. 7,103.5 million. This amount, compared to the FYDP amount of So. Sh. 3,863.3 million (non-revised figures) represents an increase of about 48 per cent. In this connection, it may be pointed out that the largest increase of investment are in the following sectors: Livestock and Range 289 per cent, Fisheries 244 per cent, Water Development 184 per cent, Labour and Employment 329 per cent, Information 178 per cent, Manufacturing 107 per cent, Mining 108 per cent and Education 174 per cent, (all compared to the FYDP non-revised figures).

The major investment will be carried out in the agricultural sector viz. crop production and irrigation which is allocated an amount of So. Sh. 1,603.9 million, followed by Transport and Communication with So. Sh. 1,500 million, Manufacturing with So. Sh. 1,178.8 million, Livestock and Range with So. Sh. 630.8 million, etc. It appears that the priority is given to these sectors.

However, a spectacular increase in share compared to FYDP 1974-1978 will be achieved in the Livestock sector 8.9 per cent against 4.2 per cent, Fisheries 3.8 per cent against 2.0 per cent, Manufacturing 17.3 per cent against 15.2 per cent and Water development 5.6 per cent against 3.6 per cent. On the other hand, decrease in share in the total investment will appear in Forestry 0.2 per cent against 1.3 per cent, in Tourism 0.1 per cent against 0.3 per cent, Agriculture 22.6 per cent, against 29.1 per cent, Electricity and Power 2.9 per cent against 3.5 per cent and Health 1.4 per cent against 2.0 per cent.

This stage of preparation of the TYDP 1979-81 is mostly identification of projects. Therefore, the next

step should be selection of projects based on criteria such as priority development, development of internal resources, profitability, etc.

The programme gives priority to the productive sectors: Agriculture (comprising Livestock and Forestry, Crop Production and Irrigation and Fisheries) with So. Sh. 2,515.7 million or 36.2 per cent, Economic Infrastructure (Water Development, Electricity and Power and Transport and Communication) with So. Sh. 2,041.1 million or 28.8 per cent and to Mining and Manufacturing 1,315.9 million or 18.6 per cent of the total expenditure. The Social Sectors are given an allocation of So. Sh. 823.2 million or 11.8 per cent of the total TYDP 1979-1981 investment.

The regional development appears for the first time in the Plan. An amount of So. Sh. 228.4 million is allocated. In this connection, it should be mentioned that these allocation do not comprise those investments which are here envisaged for economic and social service sectoral plans.

2) Financing of the Three Year Development Programme 1979-1981 appears to be very complex. The financing of the projects will be met both by the domestic and by the foreign sources. The domestic resources will participate with an amount of So. Sh. 2,584.8 million or 36.5 per cent, while foreign sources with So. Sh. 4,518.5 million or 63.5 per cent of the total expenditure.

Among domestic sources the Government budget will play an important role, participating with So. Sh. 1,900.6 million that is the largest share or 26.7 per cent. It will be followed by the domestic loan (So. Sh. 232.4 million), and savings (So Sh. 218.5 million). The other sources will participate with only 3.3 per cent of the total expenditure.

Financing of the TYDP by foreign sources is estimated to be: Foreign grant So. Sh. 2,068.5 million or 29.1 per cent, foreign loan So. Sh. 2,035.0 million or 28.6 per cent and suppliers credit So. Sh. 415.5 million or 5.8 per cent of the total TYDP investment.

Financing of regional development is split up according to the following scheme: Local Government budgets 50 per cent, self-help schemes 20 per cent, and Central Government contribution 30 per cent of the total regional investment.

The creation of the SRSP gave the Somali Democratic Republic an opportunity to experiment in Party-guided planned development.

So far the results have shown remarkable successes. The government has spared no time and effort in implementing the Party-guided plans. The economic gap that exists within societies in many developing countries, the anarchic modes and production, the unfair trade marriage with the exploitative world capitalist market are but a few of the economic ills that result from the capitalist system that the Party and Revolution has waged an intense struggle against in the effort to implement a planned development.

Of course we have no illusions about the fact that the problems that bedevilled development planning in the last decade in our context will continue to pose serious obstacles. Yet, the establishment of the Party and the further development of our social and mass organisations in other words the Somali Revolutionary Youth Union, (SRYU), the General Federation of Somali Trade Unions (GFSTU), the Somali Women Democratic Organization (SWDO) and Organization of Somali Cooperative

Movement., give us the basis to involve the public in an organized manner in the task of formulation, implementation and review of a Socialist - oriented Development Plan. This interim period provided a useful experience and it should be used to lay a solid basis for the preparation of the next Five Year Plan (1981 - 1986) which will be implemented under the guidance of the SRSP.

HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT IN SOMALIA

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Manpower Planning is an essential element of rational development policy, whether viewed as a means of building up the skills required for economic progress, or of providing the individual with productive and socially useful employment. A major problem faced by a developing country like Somalia is that of evolving an effective approach to this vital aspect of development planning. Obviously, a careful assessment of manpower resources is part and parcel of the fixing of economic policy objectives, and this in turn implies top-level co-ordination and integration of manpower assessment and planning with general development planning.

A country like Somalia which commits itself to accelerated growth needs a strategy for development. It must increase sharply its rate of savings by one means or another. It must emphasise industrialisation, but at the same time it must modernise agriculture. It must invest wisely in both things and people. And, in so doing, it must develop a sense of priority, so that savings and manpower are directed into the most productive channels.

A strategy for development of human resources -- i. e., the building and the effective utilisation of the skills of people -- is an essential element of any modern development strategy. The wealth of a nation is as much dependent upon the development of its people as upon the accumulation of material capital. If the country is to achieve a rapid growth there must be high rate of material accumulation as well as accelerated rate of human resources development. It is essential for politicians and planners to understand that the development of human and physical resources must be integrated carefully in any development plan for growth.

In this article I propose, first, to examine the manpower problems of SDR and then to set forth the elements of a strategy of human resources development. And, in a concluding section, I shall advance some suggestions for the integration of manpower development programming with over-all economic development planning.

THE MANPOWER PROBLEMS OF S.D.R.

Most of developing countries like Somalia are confronted simultaneously with two persistent, yet seemingly diverse, manpower problems:

- i) A continuing shortage of qualified and trained manpower in relation to development needs;
- ii) Surplus labour in both the modernising and traditional sectors.

Thus, the strategy of human resources development is concerned with the two fold objective of building skills and providing productive employment for unutilised or underutilised manpower.

The shortages and surplus of human resources, however, are not separate and distinct problems; they are very intimately related. Both have their roots in the changes which are inherent in the development process. Both are related in part to education. Both are aggravated as the tempo of modernisation is quickened. And, paradoxically, the shortage of persons with critical skills is one of the contributing causes of the surplus of people without jobs.

MANPOWER SHORTAGES

The manpower shortages of S.D.R. are quite easy to identify, and fall into several categories:

- 1) In S.D.R. there is a shortage of highly educated professional manpower such as, for example, scientists, agronomists, veterinarians, engineers, and doctors.

The extent of shortage can be illustrated by the supply demand relationship for a few selected professional occupations are given below according to Manpower Survey of 1978.

TABLE No. I
DEMAND AND SUPPLY IN SELECTED PROFESSIONAL OCCUPATIONS
1979 — 1983.

Occupation	Stock 1978	Demand (Public Sector)	Supply (a) (Foreign and Local) Source	Likely Surplus or Shortage	Percentage of Demand to Stock 1978	
0—43 Agronomists, Soil Scientists and Agricultural Architects and Town Planners	0—21	68	414	238	—176	608.8%
0—22 Civil Engineers	0—23	1	29			
0—23 Electrical and Telecommunication Engineers		33	75			
0—24 Mechanical Engineers		59	51	241	—53	188.5%
0—25 Chemical Engineers		30	61			
0—29.5 Other Engineers		5	17	61		

0	Medical Doctors (General Practitioners and Specialists)	228	401	337	—64	175.9%
0 — 71	University and Higher Education Lectures	149	401	53	—348	
0 — 72	Secondary and Technical School Teachers	833	5272	2104	3168	632.9%

(a) The National University has to expand its different faculties to meet the acute shortage of the above mentioned professionals.

Source: Based on data table in Manpower Survey 1978 reports presently under-preparation.

Before the revolution most professional people usually preferred to live in the capital rather than in the regional or district towns of the country, where in many cases their services are most urgently needed. Thus, their shortage is magnified by their relative immobility. There was a change of policy after the Revolution as the present Government's policy is to encourage all professionals to go where ever their services are most urgently needed.

2) The shortage of technicians, nurses, agricultural assistants, technical supervisors, and other sub-professional is generally even more critical than the shortage of fully qualified professionals. For this there are several explanations. First, the country has failed to recognise that the requirements for this category of manpower exceeded by many times those of for senior professional personnel. Second, the few persons who are qualified to enter a technical institute may also be qualified to enter a university, and they prefer the latter because of the higher status and pay which is accorded the holder of a university degree. Finally, the fact is that where as the limited flow of university graduates from institutions of higher education in the country is potentially augmented by a comparatively large stream coming from institutions abroad, such a situation does not exist in the case of technicians. The extent of shortage of sub-professionals can be illustrated by the supply-demand relationship for a few selected sub-professional occupations are given below according to manpower survey of 1978 - data.

Occupation	Demand (Public Sector)	Supply (Foreign and Local Sources)
Engineering Technicians	936(1)	—
Nurses and Midwives and other Medical technicians	1286(2)	—
Agricultural Assistants and Extension Officers	1030(3a)	300
Veterinary Assistant	355(3b)	278
Primary Teachers	15,484(4)	—

- 1) The Polytechnic which started its operations at end of last year and will train necessary engineering technicians required for the 1979 - 1983 supplemented by training Somali technician in certain engineering fields abroad.
- 2) Ministry of Health will train all its medical technicians in its training institutes.
- 3a) Ministry of Agriculture has to expand its training institutes to cope with high demand of 1979 - 1983 of Agricultural technicians.
- 3b) The Ministry of Livestock has also to expand its training institutes to meet high demand of veterinary assistants.
- 4) The Ministry of Education has to expand its training programmes of primary teachers in order to cope with the high demand of primary teacher in order of 3100 teachers each year has to be trained for the coming five years.

(ii) LABOUR SURPLUSES

The over abundances of labour is in most developing countries like Somalia as serious a problem as the shortage of skills. Its more common manifestation are the following:

In Somalia the supply of unskilled and untrained manpower in the urban areas exceed the available employment opportunities. The reasons are not difficult to find. First, large urban populations has built up in the capital city Mogadiscio with a result of large component of urban unemployed. The main cause of this problem has been an ever increasing flow of persons (specialy youth) from the rural areas to the capital city in searching of employment since independence. Recent findings suggest that the major reasons for the urban influx particularly in Mogadiscio were: large construction projects which need and attracted unskilled labour from rural areas, the occurrence of drought which compelled many to migrate to urban centres in quest of food and water; rigours of subsistence agriculture and animal husbandry; the relative attractiveness of urban life; with its better educational, medical and other cultural facilities and higher job expectations.

A MANPOWER PLANNING STRATEGY

Once the manpower problems of the country are identified a strategy must be developed to over come them effectively. The essential components of a such a strategy are the following:

- 1) The building of appropriate incentives;
- 2) The effective training of employed manpower, and
- 3) The rational development of formal education. The-

se three elements are interdependent. Progress in one area is dependent upon progress in the other two. The country's leaders should not concerntrate on only one or two of them at a time: they must plan an integrated attack on all three fronts at once.

1) THE BUILDING OF APPROPRIATE INCENTIVES

In the strategy of human resources development, the purpose of building incentives is to encourage men and women to prepare for and engage in the kinds of productive activity which are needed for accelerated growth.

To accomplish this, the compensation of an individual should be related to the importance of his job in the modernising society. It should not depend upon his level of formal education, the number of degrees held or any other criteria, except the relative importance of jobs should be based not on tradition or heritage from colonial regimes but on an assessment of the manpower needs of the developing economy.

If, for example, agricultural officers or village workers are desperately needed in rural areas to carry forward a programme of resettlement or modernising traditional agricultural in other rural area of the country, their pay and status position may have to exceed that of professionally trained people who have desk jobs in the towns.

There is an understandable keenness on the part of Somali students to pursue University Degree Courses instead of middle-level technicians courses. In the existing manpower situation in the country this tendency has to be restrained till the required number of middle-le-

vel technicians are trained either abroad or inside the country. The Establishment and Personnel General Directorate has also to ensure enough incentives for students to take up these courses and that undue weightage is not given to graduates vis-a-vis middle-level technicians.

2) THE TRAINING OF EMPLOYED MANPOWER

The strategy of a developing country like Somalia should be to shift as much responsibility as possible for training employed Manpower to the major employing institutions. These include Government Ministries, Autonomous Agencies or private industries. At the same time, the strategy should aim at exploiting more systematically by the training possibilities of technical assistance.

The government, as the largest employing institution, should take the lead in shouldering this responsibility. Most of the arts of public administration can be developed effectively by a well-conceived and organised programme of in-service training. Each major government Ministry therefore, should have a training organisation responsible for on-the-job training, in-service programme of instruction, supplementary off-the-job programmes of training in co-operation with educational institutions, periodic examination of accomplishment, and certification of qualification for promoting and advancement.

For the public sector, according to the Manpower Survey of 1978 about units described as Government Ministries, Departments, Autonomous Agencies and the Mogadiscio Municipality, and other Regional Municipalities reports on their training needs were received in 85 cases, (1) and it was indicated that of the 73,100 workers in these organisations at that time, about 16,716 or

24 percent were not carrying out their duties as expected due to insufficient training. The final figures for the public sector as whole would be some what higher due to non-reporting of a few organisations and municipalities other than Mogadiscio. It was not felt by the heads of organisations in the public sector that all of those not working efficiently could benefit from exposure to organised training schemes. Some had attained the maximum of their capacities while others were thought to be unable (for various reasons) to absorb and utilise additional information and experience related to their work. About 11 percent of those reported as having insufficient training were thought to be incapable of improvement.

Employment in Reporting Organisation in the Public sector	Number with insufficient training	Number who could benefit from training
70,100	16,716	14,846

The total number of workers in Ministries and Agencies who were considered to required training is about 16,716 and this number gives an indication of the magnitude of the problem to be solved by those responsible for upgrading officials and workers in the public sector as they reflect the opinions and experience of those in charge of the administratives and technical operations of the respective organisations.

The statistics stated above should be useful to institutions such as S.I.D.A.M., the Ministry of Education, and Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs in planning the future size and scope of training programmes to meet the needs of the society.

3) THE RATIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF FORMAL EDUCATION

The essential function of formal education is to prepare people for training rather than to train people for particular occupations. In other words, the principal output of formal education should be educated «trainable» people. Pre-employment education, determines the future sensitivity of man for understanding and continuous learning. In this three-phase strategy of human resources development, therefore, the right incentives and the proper arrangements for continuous in-service training are necessary if formal pre-employment education is to contribute effectively to accelerated growth.

Many developing countries like Somalia have rejected the idea of gradual elimination of illiteracy; the country has decided to have universal primary education and to achieve it in record time. Somalia is determined not to sacrifice quality for quantity in their mass attack upon illiteracy. Hence the country is placing a great emphasis to improve teacher-student ratios and teacher qualifications.

The Ministries of Education and Higher Education and Culture should develop the kind of institutions for training the manpower we require. The programmes suggested to them must be inter-related. The inter-relatedness is of prime importance since financial resources are so limited and there is no room for wastage. One step should lead into another. In this connection, a single institution is not advocated, but instead a series of institutions which will be connected in the manner shown in the diagram. In suggesting this outline, attention has been given to the need for flexibility, and the kind of demands indicated by the Ministries, Agencies and Projec-

ts. With particular reference to the preparation of technicians, our investigations showed that two levels are required - post secondary and post intermediate. The present system of having a post intermediate 4 year secondary-technical education stream as such that is about to be launched in the field of agriculture will not produce the best results in relation to the pressing needs of the country. The higher level technicians should be able to proceed to a university degree at a later stage if circumstances permit.

FIGURE I PROPOSED EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Teachers of
technical
education
and Senior
Vocational
Training
Instructors
Secondary
School Teachers
University
2 years
4 years
4 years
4 years
High Level
Technicians
and Junior
Vocational
Training
Instructors
2 years
Secondary

Lower Level
Technicians
and Primary
and Intermediate
School Teachers.
Intermediate
8 years
Zero
2 — 3 years

ESTABLISHMENT OF IMPLEMENTING MACHINERY

Although it has been recognised that the objectives of previous plans were not fully attained partly due to shortage of qualified personnel and inefficiencies of the administrative system, no steps have so far been taken to develop machinery to co-ordinate activities of all the agencies involved in education and training so as to ensure an adequate supply of suitable manpower to meet development needs. In Somalia, there is full realisation of the need to expand education and training facilities and much has been done in this direction, but efforts have so far been characterised by a lack of co-ordination. The prevailing tendency of each Ministry and Agency of the government is to develop its own training facilities and, therefore, the various programmes are administered in virtual isolation and without the benefit of a rational objective. Two of the most fundamental tasks to be accomplished in the area of human resources development are an examination of the information available on the quantities and types of training which are required to satisfy demand for manpower during the period of the next development plan (and probably for the year period ending 1984) and, allocation of specific responsibilities to the various institutions with regard to the number to be trained in each year. Only when such detailed allo-

cation has been accomplished can there be any meaningful hope that personnel required for the country's development will be available.

Since manpower problems are the concern of many Ministries and Agencies the programme of human resources development should be implemented by an inter-Ministerial board. As a general rule this board should report to the Vice-President and Chairman of Social and Political Committee of Supreme Revolutionary Council rather than to a particular Ministry. It is essential, however, that such a board should have a secretariat. And its secretariat should be integrated with general directorate of planning and coordination which is responsible for general economic development planning.

Among its key functions would be the following:

- 1) The assessment of human resources problems through periodic manpower analysis.
- 2) The integration of human resources development strategy with other components of the country's plan of economic and political development.
- 3) The promotion and stimulation of planning activity on the part of the Ministries represented on the board, as well as on the part of workers' organisation.
- 4) The co-ordination of the above planning activities.
- 5) The determination of priorities in the strategy of human resources development, and the continuous reassessment of priorities as the programme progresses.
- 6) The selection and design of research projects which may be useful for the formulation, implementation, and evaluation of the strategy of human resources development.

lopment.

- 7) Co-ordination and approval at the national level of all requests for external and technical assistance involving manpower and human resources development.
- 8) The general review of all activity connected with human resources development, and periodic evaluation of the work of the various agencies which assume responsibility for it.

Formal machinery such as that suggested above is not difficult to establish. Its effectiveness, however, will depend upon the people who provide its leadership and the kinds of personnel recruited for its secretariat. In short the critical element in the creation of machinery for the implementation of the strategy of human resources development is the right kind of high-level manpower.

THE PUBLIC SECTOR IN SOMALIA

Hersi M. Hersi

Introduction:

In order to understand the role and importance of the activities of public enterprise sector in the mixed economy of Somalia and to assess its contribution, it is essential to define the activities of public enterprises which are a part of public sector. The public sector covers organisations performing activities where the means of production are in social ownership, in other words it embraces the direct activities of the state in material production and services. (1) The public sector covers three major categories according to their activities and forms:

- (i) General administrative and Defence
- (ii) Department enterprises and
- (iii) Non-Department enterpries.

So public sector spectrum comprises of all Government activities embracing not only the provision of social goods for the satisfaction of social wants like general administration and defence, but also economic enterprises producing and selling as well as purchasing and reselling of goods, and / or services. (II) This involvement of state in the development of the producing sector is necessitated to combat against underdevelopment and imperialism. These two aspects are interrelated: The underdevelopment was caused and is a result of imperialist exploitation and this causes and perpetuates again underdevelopment.

In order to understand the public sector and the role of the state it is necessary to emphasise that public sector is a strategic point of support in the offensive on economic backwardness, as well as an out post of industrialisation. (I)

— As mentioned above public enterprises sector is a part of public sector and comprises of only:

- (i) Departmental enterprises and
- (ii) Non-departmental enterprises.

A public enterprise in our Somali context is a productive or utility organization owned and controlled by public authorities. This definition emphasises the legal rather than functional aspects of the public enterprise sector.

- I) Sachs, Ingancy: Patterns of public sector in underdeveloped economies, London, 1964, P. 105
- II) Pavle, Sicherl: Proposals for an international research project on «the role of public enterprises in developing countries», paper on public sector in India, Ljubljana Dec. 18 - 20, 1977.

The major elements of identifying and classifying them are in terms of ownership (minimum of 51% of paid up share capital being held by the public authorities); in terms of the nature of decision-making, (the party CC/ the administrative ministry/ Ministry of finance.), and in terms of legal status and functional degree of autonomy). So the public enterprises are characterized as follows:

1. Their assets are the property of the whole people.
2. Their production or services is state property, available for distribution.
3. Their profits are, therefore, property of the state and is to be handed over to the treasury except for the sum that may be specifically assigned for retention by the enterprise in question
4. Workers are state employees and are remunerated by wages and/ or salaries.

— The method of creating public enterprises is the nationalization of the means of production, and for that reason it is an important aspect of accumulation. Summing up, since public sector comprises the entire public regulation of the economy in terms of fiscal, credit and tariff policies etc., we are limiting our analysis and the dynamic role of the public sector in the socio-economic development of Somalia since 21 October Revolution and how this sector is playing vital role in the accumulation process and the creation of technical base of a «Socialist» construction of the country. The social aspect of economic construction is the workers participation in the management of the public enterprises, which

I Tyaguneuko, V. L. Industrialisation of Developing countries, Moscow, 1973, P. 81

is the social base of establishing a system of social production.

PUBLIC SECTOR IN SOMALIA

«The Government's development strategy is to give control of the commanding heights of the economy» to the public sector and to make up for a sluggish private sector. Public ownership and management has expanded through nationalization, creation, and growth of enterprises. A great deal of effort has gone into organizing the parastatal sector, which now includes over 50 autonomous agencies, and designing policies for public enterprises. Furthermore parastatal enterprises in all sector were to enable the Government to directly control production, to regulate private economic activities, and to provide a source of public revenue from taxes and profits. These developments have eliminated the private sector in banking insurance, and whole-sale trade, and having substantially reduced its relative size in business services, tourism, export trade. Manufacturing continues to be a particularly important sector for parastatal activity, though several small-scale privately-financed projects have been implemented. The five-year development plan 1974 - 78 (FYDP) is essentially a public investment program -- «I The five-years development plan shows the emphasis of the revolutionary government on the industrial sector compared to agriculture and the other sectors. (see appendix I).

The major characteristic of the public enterprises in Somalia is its fast rate of growth. We can note also the qualitative changes within the public enterprises sector in terms of a relatively faster increase of industrial and service enterprises, as opposed to the commercial enterprises or sub-sectors. This fact is important

for the internal balancing of an economy that had been dislocated by its previous pattern as a commercial, export-oriented neo-colonial service economy. The fast role of growth can be seen from their size and the wide

spectrum they cover. Although this poses its own problems.

Only 9 out of the 62 public enterprises at present in operation (Appendix II list of public enterprises) existed on the eve of the Revolution. These were foreign-owned or managed as well as engaged in the perpetuation of the «enclave» economy (service economy) which was the basis of neo-colonial exploitation.

— The present day public enterprises cover all the socio-economic sectors of the country, this can be demonstrated by the fact, that it is methodologically difficult to deal with them without regrouping them into their functional activities. The public enterprises in Somalia consist of industrial, commercial and services (see Appendix III) their contribution to the development can be measured by comparing their position in the national budget in terms of revenue as well as their place in gross financial surplus (GNP Data is not available) investment and employment creation. The public enterprises contribution in the national budget (only 22 Agencies out of 62 enterprises) is increasing: The percentage increase in 1976 - 77 was 27.5% or from 188.2 Mill. So. Sh. to 240 Mill. So. Sh; and in 1978 - 79 it is estimated an increase of 13.3% or from 302.0 Mill So. Sh. to 342.0 Million So. Sh. respectively. (1) (see Appendix IV) Interms of

(I) World-bank report: Somalia: Country economic Development Memorandum, Report No. 244 - so, January 18, 1979

Gross Financial surplus there was an increase of 34.3% in 1976 - 77 or from 254.8 Mill. So. Sh. to 342.2 Mill. So. Sh. and in 1978 - 79 it is estimated an increase of 11.8% or from 425.8 Mill. So. Sh. to 478.0 Mill. So. Sh. respectively.

It is the Gross financial surplus which the public enterprise sector contribute for the financement of development plans and these plans are internally almost exclusively financed by them. For illustration the public enterprises sector contribution for the ongoing, five years plan 1974-78 was 3.1%. In terms of employment since we are lacking data, only the industrial group employed 4.497 in 1973. So the public agencies not only generate accumulation and surplus for their internal expansion, but also play a leading role in financing the national development plans and the general growth of the national economy.

— The significance of the expansion of the public enterprises sector as the technical base of development of revolutionary Somalia becomes more clear, when we realize that the assessment of the five-years plan 1974-78 indicate the following: «Although the plan was allocating 33% to agriculture sector in 1977, actual expenditure accounted 24% only, whereas the share of industry and mining went up from 20% to 30% (I) (see Appendix I) The importance of the public enterprises sector in Somalia comes to the fore, when we analyse them on subsectoral or sub-group basis. (Appendix III).

INDUSTRIAL SUB-SECTOR

The existing industrial enterprises consist of twenty-six (26) enterprises (see Appendix III) although we have to keep in mind that sub-sector can include also industrial projects under construction such as cement,

sugar complex, pulp-paper mill etc. This increases not only the seape of the existing industrial enterprises, but also increases workers employed in this sub-sector. This shows the tremendous role of this subsector in laying the basis of industrialization of the country. The existing enterprises rank from Somaltex to Incas, the increase of their production can be seen in Appendix V. This sub-sector covers mainly the agro-industrial production which are either exported or consumed internally.

This aspect is important for backward linkage of this sector with the raw-material producing agricultural and livestock sector. The industrial sector which includes the largest industrial establishments in the country had in terms of employment a total labour force of 3.700 workers, while in 1973 the employed workers numbered 4.497. Because of lack of data the public enterprises established after 1973 are not included such as ITOP, Bolomog, Leather processing industries, Match and Cigarettes, Cement, Wall Paints and Tins etc. If we add them, this will increase the labour force tremendously (central government organs employed 47,304 persons in 1978) as well as the output labour and naturally their investment and contribution to the socio-economic development. In terms of output the public enterprise sector excluding most of the recently producing factories as mentioned above was 10.37% of the total industrial output of the country in 1971. Although lack of data hampers the estimation of the increase of industries and their output it is at least 40% of the total industrial output.

(I) World-bank report: Somalia: Country economic development Memorandum, Report No. 2244 - so, January P. 4 1979.

— So far as the industrial sub-sector in the broad context of the public enterprise sector as a whole is concerned, its fast growth rate can be seen by the fact that only five (5) of the above mentioned industries were existent before the revolution. On the other hand the current development plan of 1974-78 will lay down the basis of Somalia's industrialization as mentioned earlier by establishing the basic industries such as cement.

THE COMMERCIAL SUB-SECTOR

It is the cherished goal of the Government to mobilise the internal resources especially for the self-sufficiency in agricultural product in 1980. For that tremendous task was necessary to follow not only a policy of import-substitution, but also the resources mobilization of the agricultural sector. (1)

Again the tremendous importance of the public sector shows itself clearly in this sub-sector: Through the basic step of the nationalization of trade, the state has cut the threat of the mercantile-economy, which was subservient to the international capitalism. The vicious circle of producing raw-materials and importing basic food-stuffs were broken, not only in terms of state intervention through pricing policies, but also by establishing the second most important institutional productive structure for socialist construction namely: Co-operatives. In this context the public sector has to absorb the produced goods and sell it in low prices for the satisfaction of the basic needs of our people, at the same time enhance and increase the productivity of the cooperatives by elimina-

(1) Szentes Tamas «The negative impact of the dualistic Socio-economic structure on domestic Market, capital formation and labour, 2-5 International congress of Africanists, Addis-Abeba, 9-19 Dec. 1975.

ting the middle-men. The same step necessitated the elimination of the foreign-firm brokerage and the tremendous exploitation of international market fluctuations caused and perpetuated by the capitalist producing: so the nationalization of import-sector. More than that was to promote the export of the raw-materials through the diversification of the export markets as a step to increase our earning as well as combat exploitation through imperialist pricing.

The Commercial sub-sector consists of:

- a) Internal Commercialization enterprises to eliminate the exploitation, to expand the internal market and combat the limitations caused by the dual economy as well as to guarantee a balanced growth of the economy and society. This is the task of the ADC supported by the cooperative and state agricultural enterprises such as the crash programme.
- b) Export of primary goods oriented agencies as National Banana Board and the Livestock Development Agency. These agencies are of primary importance for the diversification of the markets of primary goods as well as major sources of revenue in the country. For the livestock although were affected by the drought «The year 1975 was exceptionally good for livestock exports both in terms of volume and value». So the public sector includes major components of the economy in terms of magnitude and basis of accumulation, especially if we don't lose sight of the significance of the settlement scheme for the agriculture and the fishery sector:

In 1975 proceeds from fish-export have risen by 14.5 compared to 1974. To this sub-group belongs also Hides and Skins Agency both in terms of enhancing internal production and export.

- c) The third group consists of importing agencies such as ENC, the petroleum agencies, Aspima, Agency for construction materials. This part of the sub-sector of the broad aspect of the public sector guarantees the elimination of the international brokerage as well as the channeling of the resources for proper socialist development. These agencies cover the need for most imported goods in connection with the development plan, under the direction of our Government policy: namely strict control on import, especially of non-essential goods.

This sub-sector, although affected by the drought at the most is showing a steady growth, both in production and linkage effects for self-sustaining growth. This sub-sector is mostly affected by the international market but economic policy is mobilization of internal resources through the mechanism of comprehensive planning and use of comparative advantage within the limits of the international trade (Cuba's example of exporting sugar in order to reduce its dependency on sugar by diversification).

SERVICES SUB-SECTOR:

This sub-sector consists of infrastructural basis necessary for speedy growth such as port-authority, water development, ENEE, Somali Airlines, the Shipping line, Housing Agency, social infrastructure agencies such as insurances, National University, Printing Agency, the National Theatre and Films. In this sub-sector belongs also the Chamber of Commerce as a service to be rendered for the other sub-sectors to increase their productivity. This sub-sector is also concerned with the important aspect of manpower development.

- In terms of need manpower in the productive sector and as mentioned earlier the physical development, electrical, power, water reserves, communication, etc. as pre-conditions of enhancing the production and the socialist accumulation. To this sub-sector belongs also the financial institutions to render the necessary monetary services for the productive and commercial sub-sectors. Here we have to mention the tremendous role of the Somali Development Bank in the establishment of agro-industrial projects such as the grain-mills, the pasta - mill, Oil-seeds factory, Foundry, etc. and transferring them either to the local government or making them full-fledged autonomous productive units. This fact leads to the significance of the public sector, which of course includes the industries under the local government. The research should lead to the analysis of the significance of the local government in expanding this material production as we defined public sector previously.

We were concerned with the place of the public sector in Somalia in the context of the socio-economic development toward building of a «socialist» society. It follows from this principle the growing role of the public sector in the form of public enterprises and its covering of the broad spectrum of industrial, commercial, financial and services, that we have to analyse the workers participation in the running and managing of the public enterprises. Since the working class is the backbone of the Revolution hence, their control of the means of production was the «political» aspect of the class struggle. Already 1972 the staff regulations of the agencies established management committee consisting of the workers in the public enterprises. This committee exercises, guides and controls in all matters within the public on the production floor. This management committee had also to safeguard all social aspects of the workers within the

enterprise ranging from the bonus, security for the societal ownership, social needs of the workers, such as training for increasing the productivity of labour etc.

So the workers are effectively managing the public sector. The worker's control of the means of production is in direct dialectical relation between the super-structure and base of the society. The public sector is the economic base, the worker's control of the means of production the super-structure in a socialist society. The growing public sector creates employment hence increases the working class, and their control of this sector guarantees the base of the socialist society in our country.

The public sector in Somalia and its growing significance are not without problems deriving from the internal and external factor. An aspect of the internal problems include the issue of black market activities. This is a part of the class struggle waged by the defeated comprador bourgeoisie whose deathknell was sounded by the nationalization measures that have the way for development of the public sector. Another aspect of internal problems is the organisational and managerial difficulties facing the public agencies. The study and analysis of these problems will be dealt below. In this connection, the presidential circular on manpower and training published in the November issue of Struggle, the party organ, is highly relevant. What we have to keep in mind is that the importance of the public sector lies not so much in their share of total national production as in the generation and more especially in the use of investible surplus, their current activities will therefore be crucial in shaping the future socialist structure of Somalia, in determining the speed of the development of production - base necessary for that goal. For that reason their activities must be carefully planned and control-

led to ensure their maximum contribution to the socialist transformation of the economy.

SOCIALIST POLICY AND THE GENERAL PROBLEMS OF THE PUBLIC SECTOR

The socialization and nationalization of the means of production were undertaken to:-

- a) Insure that surplus remained in the country for reinvestment and growth.
- b) Maximize government's control over mobilization of resources for development. This control extended to investment pattern, enterprises level of production, employment, pricing and distribution.

These steps were congruent to the socialist policy consisting of a combination of extended public growth at this sector and centralized control, which means a translation of national goals directly into objectives for public enterprises, with very limited dependence on indirect policy incentives and market mechanism.

The socialist policy necessitates to pinpoint certain aspects, important for the understanding of the objectives of the public sector. These aspects are the parameter on which we measure the role expected from the public enterprises:

1. Production performance and increase in level of physical production or increasing export.
2. Creation of employment opportunities in line with the socialist policy of full-employment.
3. Contribution to the government revenue: as the public enterprises role in national accumulation.

All these parameters were relatively positive, in fact the public enterprises contributed to the national economy, extended their physical production and took active role in employment creation as already shown above. Still there are paramount constraints facing the public enterprises and their effective role either in production increase employment creation, and their contribution for the accumulation, which can lead failure to reach the expected targets. These constraints are the following:-

LACK OF PLANNING: The lack of systematic planning of this sector is one of the crucial problems facing it. This fact has been recognized in the Third Plenary Meeting of the Central Committee of SRSP. Planning as a means of pooling resources and nationalizing the public sector is crucial, especially if we consider our aim towards accumulation in a mixed economy. The mixed economy shows different socio-economic formation which are dual, although interrelated, as a whole. They limit the existence of multi-sectoral economy. Among these sectors are, the subsistence sector, petty-commodity economy and modern sector showing high level of social labour. Basically it is this sector in which the non-capitalist path of development takes place and in our context the public sector. There is possibility of systematic planning in this sector if we first even by the limited data available establish a comprehensive plan to this sector, which will be the base for the future national plans. Only through this evaluatory tackling of the constraints, can the future nationalization be possible. This step by step approach might safeguard us from the «technocratic» complication of simple problems, by pinpointing lack of data and attempting for perfection. At the same time possibility of reducing the dependency on foreign capital, fo-

reign trade and fluctuations of international market might rationalize itself, of course in this context keeping in mind the entire policy of industrialization.

Related to this problem is the constraints arising from transfer of technology, specially the highly capitalized machines in the manufacturing sector recently established. (In contrast to those established with the assistance of the socialist countries rather intermediate in capital labourization). This proportional claims of the investment has to be given careful attention, because capital intensive bears direct effect on the employment creation, which is essential for the structural links of this sector to the others. (5)

PROBLEMS OF PRODUCTION: Most of public enterprises in manufacturing, trade and construction are working at lower than desirable levels of capacity utilization (material and men). This is because they are newly established and are just building up to planned production out of bottlenecks in the flow of inputs and plant imbalances etc. The low capacity utilization generates high cost production of a number of the existing public enterprises, which again creates pricing problems. At a low level of utilization a dilemma in pricing arises since cost plus margin would mean that consumers would have to bear the cost burden of the idle capital. On the other hand, if comparable harder prices are used many factories would sell below their cost of production. Under these conditions the solution lies in increasing production and taking measures to solve the supply and marketing problems (6).

Related to this problem was that public enterprises were faced with high-interest rates due to debt in heavy capital structures and compounding other problems

through continued poor financial arrangements like deficiencies in working capital.

This problem has been partly solved by the revolutionary government by converting these debts into assets by the 3rd plenary meeting of the Central Committee of SRSP. The other part is still to be considered although some steps have already been undertaken like the control of their credit from the banks. But what is needed is that the greatest part of profit be retained by the enterprises; or a clear cut re-organization and differentiation of the public enterprise be made in line with establishing new credit criterias and levels. Here the role of the banks and Ministry of Finance will be of vital importance for their reorganization.

The enterprise's ability to self-financing for working capital and replacements should also be considered. («Though government revenues raised from state enterprises have increased rapidly, their profitability has not. Except for banking and insurance, state enterprises in most sectors (specially manufacturing) are making losses. A recent case study showed that increased tax liabilities has gradually eroded the capital structure of certain public enterprises, to extremely high debt/equity ratios and threatened their liquidity position. Further, in spite of a generally low level of interest rates, the burden of interest charges arising from excessive debts has damaged their financial position.» (7). This should be adjusted in order to reflect the self-financing and ability of the public enterprises to make substantial contribution to the accumulation at the national level.

THE HETEROGENIETY OF THE PUBLIC ENTERPRISES

The organization of the public enterprises, their variety and types show a kind of heterogeneity which makes difficult any task of putting them under common denominator as public enterprises. They range from agricultural state enterprise such as the Crash Programme to the service agency such as Somali Shipping Agency. Some of their activities could be exercised by departmental organizations in order to rationalize their sector, because of the objective of most economical use of limited manpower and resources. Although their increase is a result of increasing development activities, which cannot be fulfilled by the bureaucratic structure of the Ministries, still for the sake of avoiding duplication of work and ill-defined objectives it is necessary to regroup them in most efficient manner.

The reorganization can follow on financial basis or regrouping them under one or big corporation, for better availability, use and self-financing objectives (example to this point is the Tanzania Development Corporation which consist of different industries and export institutions).

The definition of the relationship between Ministries and Agencies or enterprise definition of relative roles strengthens personality behaviour to be decisive rather than organizational efficiency and management.

Related to the organizational structural problems of the public agencies is the lack of efficiency criteria, specially lack of cost norms or production standards as compulsory features of the operations of public enterprises. In the decisions of the 3rd plenary meeting of

the C. C. of SRSP, a new accounting system had to be implemented by the public agencies to achieve a solution of different constraints existing now such as tax collection from the agencies, estimation of better statistical data such as GNP for purpose of planning etc. But what to be kept in mind is to develop the elements of cost accounting in this new system for the use in the public sector and the enterprises systems are prerequisite for employing production and or cost norms (8).

THE PROBLEM OF MANPOWER AND WORKER'S PARTICIPATION IN THE MANAGEMENT

The circular of the President on manpower and training and the decisions of the 3rd plenary meeting of the C. C. of SRSP have tackled some crucial problems facing the manpower and specially the essential role of the workers in socialist management and control. The training of the workers is an essential prerequisite of solving the difficulties arising from the shortage of skilled manpower, through apprenticeship on the factory floor-level and practically on the job. It is also emphasising the use of available expertise particularly in the industrial sector, where the large portion of public investment as the base of socialist construction is being made. (8) This sector will be also the basis of working class, so their participation not only in management committees but in the effective decision-making of the enterprises is crucial, because the essence of the participative Management concept is to combat against the capitalist tendencies in the bureaucracy.

In this context it is important to analyse basic differences between socialist and capitalist managers. Apparently there is a tendency among bourgeois management sciences to underestimate the differences between

socialist and capitalist managers. Without losing sight over the area of similarities in terms of professional make-up, there are qualitative basic differences:

1. Differences on the motivation; the socialist manager is required to work harder at ambitious targets, to learn faster, to work when it counts for the record, and not when special money incentives are introduced. In other words the social system in which he operates assumes that he has a higher need for achievement.

2. i) Differences in degrees such as the great awareness of the socialist manager of his social responsibility and his commitment to societal objectives than is usually required from his counterpart in private enterprises.

ii) The socialist manager is called upon a greater understanding of the macro-economic science and the dialectics of democratic centralism. His effectiveness is at one time more related to his ability to lead (as one-man management principle) and implement decision; and to be conscious that this decision is taken from below.

CONCLUSION.

This was an attempt to outline some of the basic problems facing the public sector in socialist-oriented Somalia, particularly at the new stage of enhancing the societal socio-economic development; economic development in terms of productivity and higher level of productive forces; and social development in terms of higher national achievement and construction of equalitarian system led by the workers and we have to re-emphasise that the base for this charted goal will be to think in terms of Marxian dialectical relation between productive forces and production relations, and to analyse the society according-

ly specially in the case of a transitional society like Somalia.

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Appendix I
 TABLE I: SECTOR ALLOCATIONS OF THE FYDP 1974-78

	Original plan	Revised plan	Actual expendi.
Agriculture	30	26	24
Industry	24	32	29
Infrastructure	33	31	33
Social sectors	12	11	14
	—	—	—
	100	100	100

Source: World bank Report - No. 2244.50 January 18, 1979

Appendix II
 List of the public enterprises before and after the Revolution

- 1960 — 1968:
- 1) Somali National Bank.
 - 2) E.T.A.A. (Tourism and Hotel Agency)
no longer in existence.
 - 3) Somali Port authority
 - 4) ENC (National Trading Agency)
 - 5) National Aid and Welfare Agency.
(No longer in existence).
 - 6) Somali Airlines.
 - 7) Milk Factory
 - 8) Somalita. (No longer in existence)
 - 9) Livestock Development Agency
 - 10) Sugar Factory (Jowhar)
 - 11) National Grain Marketing Organization

(no longer in existence)

13) C.A.S.E. (Health Insurance)

14) Kismaio Meat Factory

15) Fish Factory at Laskorey.

Appendix II Cont.

1969. After the Revolution:

1. Milk Factory
2. Somaltex
3. Meat Factory.
4. Fish Factory
5. Cigarettes and Matches Factory
6. ITOP
7. SNAI
8. Petroleum Refinery
9. Leather and Skin Factory
10. Oil-mill Factory
12. INCAS
12. Brick Factory
13. Trading Agency for motor vehicles and Repair parts
14. Pasta Factory
15. Foundry
16. ENC
17. ADC

18. National Banana Board
19. National Petroleum Agency
20. Aspima
21. Agency for Building materials
22. Livestock Development Agency (LDA)
23. Hides and Skins Agency
24. Agency for clothing and Utensiles
25. Central Bank.
26. National Commercial Bank
27. Somali Dev. Bank
28. ENEE
29. Port-authority
30. ONAT
31. Somali Airlines
32. CASS
33. National Insurance Company
34. Chamber of Commerce
35. Films Agency
36. Somali Engineering Consultant Agency
37. National University
38. National Theatre
39. State Printing Agency
40. Water Development Agency
41. Mogadishu Water Agency

42. National Shipping Agency
43. SIDAM
44. National Agency for Construction
45. National Transportation Agency
46. Lipsoma (Somali Libian Agricultural Development Company).
47. Somali Forwarding Agency
48. National Range Agency
49. National Parks Agency
50. Settlement Development Agency
51. Leather Factory Kismayo
52. Leather Factory Burao
53. Leather Factory Hargeisa
54. Agricultural Crash Program Agency
55. Cement Factory
56. Sugar Complex Jilib
57. Pulp and Paper Mill
58. Eternit Factory
59. Gybsium - Factory
60. Wall Paints and Tins Factory
61. Grain Factories
62. Ice and Cooling Factory.

Appendix III

Sub-sectoral Listing of Public enterprise sector

INDUSTRIAL SECTOR:

1. Milk Factory
2. Somaltex
3. Meat Factory
4. Fish Factory
5. Cigarettes and Matches Factory
6. ITOP
7. SNAI
8. Petroleum Refinery
9. Leather and Skin Factory
10. Brick Factory
11. Oil-Mill Factory
12. INCAS
13. Pasta Factory
14. Foundry
15. ENEE
16. Leather Factory Kismayo
17. Leather Factory Burao
18. Leather Factory Hargeisa
19. Cement Factory
20. Sugar Complex Jilib
21. Pulp and Paper Mill
22. Eternit - Factory
23. Gybsium Factory

24. Wall Paints and Tins Factory
25. Grain Factories
26. Ice and Cooling Plant

COMMERCIAL SUB-SECTOR:

1. ENC
2. ADC
3. National Banana Board
4. National Petroleum Agency
5. Aspima
6. Agency for Building Materials
7. Livestock Development Agency (LDA)
8. Hides and Skins Agency
9. Agency for Cloths and Utensiles
10. Trading Agency for motor vehicles and Repair ports.
11. Somali Forwarding Agency
12. Somali Shipping Agency
13. National Commercial Bank.
14. National Transportation Agency

SERVICE - SUB-SECTOR:

1. Central Bank
2. Somali Development Bank
3. Port-authority
4. ONAT

5. Somali Airlines
7. National Insurance Company
8. Chamber of Commerce
6. C.A.S.S
9. Films Agency
10. Somali Engineering Consultant Agency
11. National University
12. SIDAAI (Somali Institute of Development Administration and Management).
13. State Printing Agency
14. National Theatre
15. Water Development Agency
16. Mogadishu Water Agency
17. Agricultural Crash Programme Agency
18. National Agency for Construction
19. LIPSOMA (Somali Libian Agricultural Development Corporation).
20. National Range Agency
21. National Parks Agency
22. Settlement Development Agency

Appendix IV

TABLE: Contributions of Public Enterprises To Government Revenue (in Millions of So. Sh.)

	Preliminary Budget				
	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978
Turn-over tax	24.1	53.4	47.3	59.4	121.6
Profits	38.9	43.3	51.3	61.7	107.2
Depreciation funds	0.0	4.6	1.2	5.7	21.1
Total	63.0	101.3	99.8	126.8	249.9
revenue (%)	11.3	16.2	15.0	16.6	17.2

Source: World Bank - Report 2244-so January, 18, 1979

Appendix V

A. SNAI — BIASA:

	1975	1976	1977
Production			
Hard-drinks	.539	107.598	137.481
Perfumes	.684	4.908	10.773
Washing Soaps	—	1.417.360	3.588.780
Cago-Cashi			
Blastic	5.011	304.628	756.985
Other Blastics	2.964	241.680	143.380
Pure Alcohol	299.727	282.932	300.462

1978	1978	% of planned
	planned	% of output
154.184	166.160	92.8
10.591	11.837	89.5
3.431.000	8.700.000	68.6
752.299	782.600	96.1
338.640	—	—

267.372 293.420 91.1

SNAI - BIASA: Cont. Profit and Loss Accounts
(in Millions So. Sh.)

	1975	1976	1977	1978	1978
Reven-					

ue 5.746.741 9.760.800 13.532.939 15.174.850 20.443.530.00
 Expendi-
 ture 5.386.910 8.443.860 12.015.413 13.756.915 16.658.754.30
 Profit 359.813 1.316.940 1.517.526 1.417.935 3.784.775.70
 Source: Wasaaradda Warshadaha, warbixin guud, De-
 cember, 1978.

B. Cigarettes and Matches Factory

Profit and Loss Account

	1974	1975
Revenue	72.395.453	101.068.091
State Taxes	48.920.000	54.000.000
Expenditure (plant)	7.695.545	10.357.154
Raw Material	—	7.782.249
Expenditure on import		
Cigarettes	13.208.636	15.306.070
Profit	2.571.292	13.622.617

1976	1977	1978
130.578.972	165.353.372.00	184.669.980
60.000.000	70.000.000.00	95.872.811
7.477.450	8.473.559.43	7.042.479
6.597.083	9.533.505.51	7.413.998
17.821.360	23.389.053.58	21.345.916
38.683.070	52.957.253.85	52.994.782

Source: Wasaaradda Warshadaha Warbixin
 Guud, Desember 1978

C: SOMALTEX

	Production	Yard
1974	5.800.000	
1975	4.347.258	«
1976	7.236.478	«
1977	14.300.000	« (includes imported)
1978	13.123.366	«

Source: Wasaaradda Warshadaha Warbixin Guud, December 1978

D: Oil-Mill Factory

Year	Profit & Loss Account		
	Revenue So. Sh.	Expenditure So. Sh.	Profit (So.Sh.)
1976	4.848.823.50	4.149.779.25	699.044.25

LIMITING FACTORS IN AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT IN SOMALIA AND THEIR SOLUTIONS

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The area of land suitable for cultivation in Somalia is estimated at 8,000,000 ha., and of this only above 1,000,000 ha. are cultivated. The greater portion of the cultivated area is in the hands of small holders with the land-hoe being their predominant tool. However, on the positive side, Somalia is at a start of an exciting era in Agricultural development that is rapidly unfolding. The objective of this outline is to point out the socio-technico-economical factors that hinder agricultural development and to elucidate their possible solution.

1. Limiting Factors.

(1) **WATER:** Water is the most climatical factor that limited agricultural development in both the livestock and farming sectors. Rainfalls range between 300-600 mm that are split into two seasons. There is hardly one year when there is not localized droughts, and in fact this undependable rainfall is the major factor in nomadic movements. Only the Southern part and limited areas in the North can rainfall have farming.

The underground water resources have not been estimated properly and their utilization for agriculture would be prohibitive until sources of energy become available. Currently banana farmers in Genale area use wells when the Shabelle river dries up. Utilization of wells for livestock can have serious drawbacks if no care is taken in the location of wells to avoid overstocking and subsequent overgrazing.

Run-off and rain water are accumulated in man-made reservoirs mainly for livestock water, and these also have the same disadvantages if their location is not selected with range conservation in mind.

The only source of water remaining is that of seasonal streams and the two rivers; Shabelle and Juba. The seasonal streams have limited uses in some parts of the North where rudimentary diversion structures are built to supplement rain. These usually make the difference between crop failure and a good crop. The Shabelle river valley has received its share of development, and in fact when all the projects now in progress are finished, there will be no room for further increase in irrigated land. It is also important to note that it dries up during the dry season for at least a month, and the period has increased in recent years due to reduced rainfalls in its catchment area. The dry period limits the cultivation of perennial crops and makes it necessary to irrigate by wells during the dry season.

The Juba is currently not utilized apart from the approximately 5,000 ha used for banana cultivation. Unlike the Shabelle, it runs all year round, however, gravity irrigation is not possible without the construction of expensive dams and other infra-structure. Another problem also is the need for costly land levelling in most of its

areas. However, the current strategy now is to develop the Juba and the number of planned projects both of livestock and farming are impressive. The river can irrigate from 106,000 ha to 150,000 depending on the degree of regulation attained.

It is apparent that water regardless of its source is one of the important factors limiting agricultural development; however, it is apparent that with great effort solution to this problem is possible as we shall point out later.

(2) Fragmentation of Holdings: The land is held by peasants with subsistence farming, that sell only their slight surplus in good year, and often require massive governmental assistance in bad years. It is clear that this system of farming is not conducive to the modernization of agriculture, and cannot gain from any organized programme of improvement in seeds, fertilizers, pest control, credit etc.

(3) Low yielding varieties: The local varieties of most major crops are cultivated. These often bring low yields, that does not make it possible to invest other agricultural inputs. Some of these varieties are not suitable for complete mechanization.

(4) Pest and Diseases: These are common enemies of all agricultural communities. In Somalia insect damage is a serious problem both in field and storage. In my opinion the combined loss is approximately 30% for cereals. Diseases have cost less damage in the past, however, as the intensification of agriculture started, they are becoming more important especially in the production of vegetables, rice, sugar cane and banana. Rodens are occasional problem, and result in failure of new planting, and can be serious problem in storage.

Birds are also emerging as serious pests on rice, sorghum and sunflower. The most damaging being the quelea, which may cause complete failure of rice crops.

5() Fertilizers: Numerous experiments on several crops have shown definite response to nitrogen, limited response to phosphorus and no response to potassium. Therefore, for the moment nitrogen application in the irrigated crops and legume cereal rotation is most important for reasonable yields. The prices of Nitrogen fertilizers have tripled during the past two years, and this makes them beyond the reach of ordinary farmers.

(6) Weeds: The irrigated crops suffer from competition with rapid growing weeds. The high cost, the scarcity of labour at peak work-time together with rainfall may reduce the yield or cause crop failure. This limiting factor will have to be removed for large scale agricultural projects. For dry home farming weeds are of minor importance.

(7) Mechanization: Agricultural machinery is the costliest item in modern farming; however, before their acquisition few questions must be answered: What are the best tractors, implements, harvesters, trashers etc. ? Which ones could be used for dry land or irrigated area ? Maintenance? Availability of spare parts? should we use animals where possible? Currently diverse types and makes of agricultural machinery are imported? and some of the above mentioned questions are answered with a very high cost.

(8) Power: The area will be the source of hydro-electric power, the rest of our power requirement must come from oil. With prices of oil ever going up this limiting factor would be the most difficult to re-

move unless domestic and source of fuel is discovered.

(9) Capital: In our development plans priority is given to agriculture, livestock, forestry and fisheries as shown in the table:

TABLE: The distribution of investment in various socio-economic sectors during the previous development plan 1974 - 78.

SECTOR	INVESTMENT (000) So. Sh.	% of the Total
1. Livestock	162,087	4.2
1. Agriculture	1,124,506	29.1
3. Forestry and Range	51,153	1.3
4. Fisheries	77,990	2.0
5. Water resources	139,552	3.6
6. Mining	45,683	1.2
7. Electricity and Power	136,540	3.5
8. Industry	588,257	15.2
9. Transport and Communication	944,697	24.5
10. Education	191,065	4.9
11. Health	77,721	2.0
12. Housing	156,982	4.1
13. Labour	11,319	0.3
14. Statistics and Cartography	106,099	2.8
15. Tourism	12,590	0.3
16. Information	37,116	1.0

Nearly 33% of the capital outlay for the plan was envisioned to be provided internally and the remaining 67% externally. Despite the fact of inflation that is reaching epidemic proportions throughout the world, and the cost over runs of plan projects, scarcity of capital may not be the most important limiting factor.

(10) Agricultural know-how: It is man that is either developed or underdeveloped. Technical know-how and the confidence that goes with it make the difference between success and failure in any human venture and agriculture is no exception. The lack of know-how is three-fold. Firstly the lack of trained manpower, secondly the difficulty of transferring temperate climate agro-techniques to the tropics without painstaking adaptation and experimentation and thirdly the bringing up of the farming community to a standard where modern agro-techniques are appreciated. This limiting factor must be removed rapidly to make agricultural transformation of the society possible.

II. SOLUTIONS

It is often said, that knowing the problem is half the solution, however it is not possible to find instantaneous solution to some of the above-mentioned problems. The objective of this portion of the outline is to provide the most obvious solutions and excite and extract some other alternatives from all concerned including this audience.

1. Water: The following measures would minimize the limiting effect of limited moisture for agriculture:

- (a) Conservation of rain water through the utilization of better agro-techniques such as soil mulching, binding and better weed control.
- (b) An attempt must be made to utilize wadis seasonal stream by the construction of earthen dams and other structures that make their control possible. This can be achieved after careful evaluation of their flow through community work as already done in some areas of the north.

- (c) The collection of agro-meteorological data to provide better analysis and forecasts.
- (d) In-depth study of underground water and rational location of wells and reservoirs to avoid overgrazing and erosion caused by overstocking areas around water holes.
- (e) Rational conservation measures around watersheds. The determination of the water requirement of all major irrigated crops, and the determination of their relative profitability.
- (g) The intensive and extensive development of the Juba river must be fulfilled according to plan.

2. Fragmentation of holdings: In the past five years considerable effort was made to formulate larger, more productive agricultural units. Five years ago there were no large farms apart from the banana plantations; however today other large units are in existence, and numerous others either under construction or planned. Some of these are mentioned below:

- (a) The establishment of the crash programme which has about 9,000 ha of land under cultivation, and has plans for an additional 6,000 ha by 1979.
- (b) Agricultural cooperatives: The passing of the cooperative law enhanced the formation, and the establishment of 65 multipurpose, group farming and production cooperatives with a total area of 2150 ha in 1974. By 1979, 475 cooperative units with 13,750 ha of land are planned.
- (c) The development of large scale agricultural projects that will cover approximately 70,000 ha most of them irrigated projects.

- (d) The introduction of integrated livestock development and crop farming.

3. Low yielding varieties: Although some efforts are being made to introduce high yielding varieties of maize, sorghum, millet, rice, groundnuts, wheat and sunflower, only rice varieties have reached the stage of extension. The solution to this problem lies in:

- (a) Continued screening for adapted high yielding varieties.
- (b) Initiation of breeding programmes for crop improvement.
- (c) Organisation of seed certification and seed production centers.

4. Pests and Diseases: As already mentioned these contribute to considerable loss both in the field and storage. Research is continuing to identify the major pests to find methods for their effective control. Currently considerable work is being done on insect pests and their control on cereals, fruit crops, sugar cane etc. Most of the work is carried out by the Ministry of Agriculture in collaboration with FAO.

A Quelea bird control unit was established to find out vital information about the extent of damage, the crops attacked and the migration patterns. This unit is becoming a part of an inter-governmental project for the control of this pest.

5. Fertilizers: More information is becoming available as to the nutrient requirement of major crops. However, the current increase in prices of chemical fertilizers,

limits the use of fertilizer to intensive crops only, and make it beyond the reach of small farmers. This problem can be overcome by the following solutions:

- (1) Establishment of nitrogen-fertilizer factories.
- (2) Proper rotation of crops.
- (3) Utilization of organic fertilizers where possible.

6. Weeds: The fast growing weeds of the irrigated valleys in Somalia can be controlled by the following methods:

- (a) The use of pre-irrigation and subsequent mechanical cultivation.
 - (b) A combination of mechanical and chemical weed control.
 - (c) Manual labour is feasible only in small holdings.
7. Agricultural Mechanization:

- (a) We must accumulate adequate information about the capabilities, durability and suitability of agricultural machinery already on hand.
- (b) Select the best combination of implements and tractors.
- (c) Establish efficient maintenance service with properly trained man-power and facilities.
- (d) Set priorities for those crops and operations that must be mechanized.
- (e) Use of draft-animals must be encouraged in rain-fed areas.

8. Power:

- (a) Utilization of wind and solar energy.
- (b) More efficient utilization of fuel.

9. Capital: The key to the acquiring of foreign capital lies in the formulation of viable sound projects. The experience has been so far that a combination of good projects and right connections removes capital as a limiting factor in agricultural development. About 67% of the cost of our development projects are financed from foreign sources.

10. Know-How: This is the most limiting factor in agricultural development in Somalia, and to overcome them, the following measures are being taken:

- (a) Strengthening research and extension services.
- (b) Establishment of farmers training centers.
- (c) Establishment of vocational schools.
- (d) Establishment and strengthening of the scientific faculties of the National University.
- (e) Establishment of a viable national cooperative movement.

CONCLUSIONS:

Agricultural development in Somalia is limited by numerous socio-economic and technical factors. However, these can be solved with determination, know-how and correct planning. A well-coordinated strategy is being followed to establish integrated, and diversified agriculture in the country.

THE DIALECTICS OF SOCIAL TRANSFORMATION IN THE RESETTLEMENT SITES

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and Management)

«Until the maize is harvested, it is not my intention to marry, so, beautiful girl, do not elegantly and gracefully swing your wrists and magnificent mane of hair» (*Galleydoo go'in guursan maayo, e waxba gabadh yahay garaaraha iyo guud hay lulin*), one hears being chanted by Dujuma resettled nomads, after more than three years of transformation into peasantry. In Kurtin Waarey, one sees with one's own eyes yesterday's nomads, once confined to their nomadic dances with emphasis on the clapping of hands, the magical effect of words, and excessive physical movement, giving way to a happy mixture of agro-nomadic dancing. Particularly among the youth, agricultural dancing (the graceful, highly expressive beerey) is very much in the vogue. The young, being more flexible and receptive to change, on coming into contact with the settled agriculturalists, tend to adopt their habits and values. Of course this is not a one-way process: in the two communities in Kurtun Waarey, now in greater physical proximity, there is evident interaction, leading to mutual transformation.

Ask any child in the resettlement sites what his future ambitions are, once his school days come to an end. Instantly, the reply, «a teacher, an engineer, a doctor, a tractor driver», etc. etc., hits you. It is true that individual attitudes, values, ambitions, and rationalisations of life are by and large determined, limited or expanded by the surrounding socio-economic set-up. These children whose ambitions today incline towards teaching, engineering, medicine etc., two or three years ago would have replied differently, in terms of the then prevailing socio-economic background. They would not have heard about the concepts they are now using.

What is clearly manifest in the above three example, selected from a host of similar episodes which I witnessed in my brief visits to the agricultural settlement sites, is this element of change. Surely the fishery sites are undergoing the same sociological process, which in Marxian terms is conceptualized as «the dialectics of social change». The Western bourgeois concept is expressed by the term «process of social change». However, the influence of structural-oriented evolutionary organicism and theoretical outlook impoverishes the Western bourgeois interpretation of social change, so much so that ultimately bourgeois sociology is condemned to a partial, compartmentalised, explanation of complex, variegated, and gigantic social events.

To go back to the concrete examples given above, and to really set out the reference framework for this paper, there is an acute need to analyse in depth the complex social processes that inevitably underlie any material (i. e. economic, technological and scientific) transformation of man's way of life. In other words, it is an axiomatic truth that, having settled our nomads in areas where they are expected to pursue agricultural and fi-

shing activities, this not only requires a change in the means of production, and in the division of labour and its rules; it does also inescapably requires a new social, cultural, and value system, whereby the new set of social relations, as an integral aspect of the new forms of production relations, are made to succeed. What the examples related earlier show is that the people are struggling to create this new system of social relations, which of course is not built out of nothing; it is always a transmutation of something existing, but it is not done in a mechanical, uncreative manner. For instance, the song quoted earlier is a modification of the traditional accompaniment to nomadic dances; it originally went like this. «Until the rainy season of Gu' comes, it is not my intention to marry, etc.» (*Gu'ga oon da'in guursan maayo*), and it has now been creatively modified to correspond with the new life-giver – the maize crop. It will be seen the maize harvesting and the rainy Gu' season are two comparable social images, which, (a) show the successful leap in appreciating the new; (b) while retaining the old as an element of continuity, thus of security, they also welcome in the new and the two are not that divergent in essence, they both give comfort and happiness. In this context another example could be mentioned, i. e. the two concepts of the «shirker of herd rearing» (*xoolo seeg*), and the «lazy agricultural worker» (*ma tabcade*), which are going through an evolutionary transformation: socially the similarities between the two are comprehended by the resettled nomads, but preference is given to social disapproval of the *ma tabcade*, inasmuch as it is he who causes them harm now. Accordingly the concept of *Xoolo Seeg* is no longer used in the resettled areas of Dujuma, Kurtun Waarey and Sablaale, for the simple reason that the conditions for its significance are not to be found there. However, it is advisable to direct the analysis more closely to the basic social units which partake, or play a more active

role, in the process of dialectical change, such as the family and the changing work habits of the people, both of which are the subjects and motivators of change.

The Family and its Dynamism

As yet, the family structure of the resettled communities cannot be said to be greatly transformed. Social transformation in its temporal and spatial dimensions is a longterm process; the resettlement programme, now barely three years old, has not run the full course and cannot manifest significant changes in the family structure.

To adduce enough information for the latent structural changes in the family one has to be clear where the starting point is. In Somalia the basic unit of society, i.e. the family, is patrilineal. In our underdeveloped subsistence economy, as with a number of similar socio-economic formations, the prevailing family structure is the extended family. Needless to say, the Somali family meets all the requirements economic, social spiritual — that almost all societies bestow upon it. However, since it is not my objective to dwell on the role of the family in society, but rather on the family in conditions of dynamic change, one is duty-bound to conterpose the traditional family structure, with its varied functional imperatives, to the one obtaining under changed conditions; and the corresponding functional changes which the new situation warrants.

In the traditional Somali nomadic family (Jees), the Locus of authority, in consonance with its patrilineal nature, resides in the father. Whatever means of production exist usually very small, and mainly consisting of livestock — are vested in the father. A natural corollary of this, of course is the father's domination and leadership of the family.

Western sociology will term this situation as the dictatorial rule of the father, whereas, though obviously the conditions can lend themselves to dictatorship, a Marxian conceptualisation will stress the limitation of democracy, due to the objective conditions whereby freedom and democracy are hemmed in by the harshness of vulgar necessity, rather than seeing the whole setting purely in dictatorial terms. Besides the father's domination, the nomadic family is one in which utmost loyalty to the family is imposed as a duty. As a result of this excessive loyalty, the individual's freedom, and his free development outside, or at variance with, family interests and dictates, is highly improbable and held as socially undersirable. In a clan society, clearly, loyalty to the family will be given supreme importance, insofar as the clan is a conglomeration of families. Besides, in a nomadic, clan-bound society, weighty considerations cluster upon family pre-eminence, namely the family, in its economic, security, socialisation and value roles, predominates over almost all other social units in fixing the individual's position in the existing social hierarchy (i. e. an ascriptive society). In a clan society, the family fills the role which, in a developed society, the state, the Party, or social organisations play vis-a-vis the individual.

An exhaustive study of the nomadic family cannot be attempted: only the salient points will be brought out, with the main objective of analysing its role under dynamic conditions, such as for instance those obtaining in the settlement areas.

THE NOMADIC FAMILY IN THE RESETTLEMENT SITES

Objectively speaking, transformation has been introduced into the family structure by direct action on

the material conditions forming the basis of nomadic livelihood. In the settlement sites the sudden widening of the democratic base, particularly for women, the suppression of the Yarad or bride price, and the concomitant informality of the marriage ceremony, freed from the excessive ritualistic fanfare and pomp, have struck the highly tradition-minded and conventional people as a departure from the norms that were the pillars of the nomadic family. Quite often one heard comments, particularly from the family elders, in resignation at the passing away of certain cherished uses. An old man at one time sadly stated: «Young man, I am saddened by the sight of the 100-camel-worthy girls giving themselves away for nothing:» He added, «No wonder these young people's marriage links are weak, due to the absence of securities (e. g. dowry). Many of them now have no second thoughts about starting proceedings for a divorce!!» What the old man said is partly true, insofar as there are no cases where the girls ask for the traditionally obligatory bride price in choosing their husbands. One of the reasons why the bride price is being given a silent burial may be due to the predominance of marriagable girls over their male partners. In point of fact the choice of a partner, in the settlement sites, is almost a matter for the two persons who intend to start a new home. The bounds of free choice are being extended, and the hold of tradition is wearing thin. Romantic attachment, and the relationships dependent on it, are becoming a common thing. However it would be a rather far-fetched conclusion to say that extending the bounds of personal choice will inevitably increase the rate of divorce, resulting in instability and precariousness of the family structure and the familial relations underlying it.

True enough, the rate of marriages, and correspondingly that of divorces, as admitted by both ¹¹

administrative and social organs in Dujuma, were high in the early days of the settlement. Unfortunately figures to substantiate it, due to bad record keeping, are not available. However, assuming this statement is correct, it is indicative of the instability which is bound to occur at times when a dynamic social change is taking place. It seems that this process is establishing, and its ill-effects are happily past. The only factual data regarding the marriage and divorce rates in the last three months preceding August 1976, as recorded by the Dujuma revolutionary local authorities, are given below:

MARRIAGES AND DIVORCES FOR MAY, JUNE, AND
JULY 1976 IN DUJUUMA SETTLEMENT SITE

Marriages

48

Divorces

8

Whatever deductions and inferences we can draw from this, must be weighed against the fact that these data are derived from empirically unsystematic records. There must have been a greater number of marriages and divorces taking place in those three months, which for one reason or another did not find their way into the records. One could even surmise that a great deal of ephemeral relationships are struck between partners and are soon ended, never being entered in a record of any sort. However, what the two figures given above unmistakably show is that the divorce rate is not so frighteningly high as to justify the view that the basis of the family is being endangered. There is nothing of the sort and by observation, as things stand, nothing of the sort will occur.

In interviews with the Party Mobilisation Bureau, and leaders of the 24 communities, the incontrovertible fact emerged that, though the settled nomadic fami-

lies were subjected to an objective dynamic process of change, which unavoidably necessitated a transformation of their social structures, institutions, thus also relations, things were smoothening and reaching a happy level of integrative and adaptive equilibrium.

The fruition of a new, qualitatively higher form of integration and stabilisation, furthermore, is a function of: (a) the all-rounded consciousness of the people exposed to the dialectics of social change, and (b) the leadership role played by the persons and institutions directing this process.

Upon the harmonious coordination of the two and the fullest understanding of their real interplay depend the success and effectiveness of the activities of the changing communities. In this context a highly respected community leader in Dujuuma, a man who before the DABADHEER drought was a wealthy man, and whose wealth was still partly intact back in Mudug, expressed ideas which enable one to perceive what lies behind the motivations and the contradictoriness in the behavior of the human personalities, which play an essential role in the process of social change. The strength of man in facing new, and unknown situations and his corresponding weaknesses, are exemplified in that man's and his family's experience in the last two years. Some members of his family were able to adjust to change, but for others the going was tough and an uphill affair. The latter kept looking back to the past: they could find security only in what was traditionally accepted and thus doubted what the future would bring. Change always involves risks: thus some would passively accept the difficulties of a wretched present, since a future based on change is, in their minds, overshadowed by unknown, therefore unpredictable, risks which are too much for them to bear.

THE EDUCATIONAL AND SOCIALISATION PROCESSES

One of the redeeming features which will be forever associated with the resettlement programme, is the new educational and socialisation processes which it inevitably has given rise to. In this context it is particularly relevant to mention that the Somali experience and achievements tally with the great successes registered by the socialist countries in the educational field. The socialisation process, which here is tacked to the whole multi-dimensional process of superstructural transformation which is taking place in the resettlement sites. However, the interconnection between education and socialisation, though perfectly clear sociologically, will be used here in the special sense of harmonising the process of learning (i. e. education) and its dialectically qualitative development, which socialisation connotes. By the latter we mean the socialist ideological orientation of values, human expectations, ambitions, motivations, choices, etc.

On this basis, it is clear that the resettlement scheme involves both aspects, i. e. socialisation and education, the latter referring mainly to both formal and informal learning for children and adults, partly as an extension of the normal school curriculum (especially for the young aged 7 to 14), and of the Rural Development Campaign (literacy) for the adults. Accordingly, this two-pronged educational process is clear proof that the Resettlement Programme has initiated a systematic social and cultural uplift. The great social benefits which will accrue to the Somali nation are too great and numerous to be denied by anyone. If we limit ourselves to simple quantitative data, today nearly 16,000 youngsters attend school in Dujuuma; this alone will suffice to indicate the magnitude of the transformation in the field of

education. On the average, the benefits will be certain obvious shortcomings. We have taken the analysis deeper into this, and into the need for objective and subjective preparedness to avoid possible pitfalls. The salient aspects will be mentioned here.

THE SALIENT ASPECTS OF THE EDUCATIONAL AND SOCIALISATION PROCESSES.

In pinpointing what could be described as less-than-ideal educational and socialisation practices, two examples could be brought, showing the need for revision. These are the adoption of predominantly formal schooling and the motivational orientation of the students, which takes an external attachment. To elaborate on these two closely related matters, cogent arguments could be submitted to show that the future of the settlement sites depends, by and large, on the success of our educational policies in ensuring that all the student population is retained and utilised to the full in those areas.

Ensuring that the new settlements retain their student population, who are their main future manpower resources, will certainly be facilitated by a well thought-out educational programme which creates incentives for the students to stay in the resettlement sites. In trying to define the content and nature of such an educational programme, it is beyond doubt that the highly formal and generalized curriculum we now have at intermediate and secondary school levels, is far from suitable vis-à-vis the needs of the socio-economic set-up we intend to realize in the resettlement sites and their further development.

Development or, if you like, the all-out struggle to overcome underdevelopment, calls for a flexible scientifically and technologically oriented educational curri-

culum: this can only be ensured by giving education a socialist content and form. The socialist content will be inspired by the minimum and maximum Party educational plans and programmes, which, needless to say, will emphasise the imbuelement of a technical and concrete (i. e. work-oriented) school curriculum.

The pitfalls of formal schooling are not confined to the fact that its results will jeopardise the long-term development prospects: as concerns the resettlement sites, they would greatly hinder the initial development leap forward. This is because an educational curriculum is really the expression of an ideological outlook on life, and therefore has a decisive influence on the socialisation process and the consciousness of the people to be socialized. This is clearly shown by the answer which the Dujuuma School children were only too ready to proffer when asked about their future ambitions, i. e. their preference for teaching, medicine, engineering, tractor driving, etc. Why did no body reply « I want to be a peasant»? The explanation lies in the fact that the type of consciousness and outlook, which are consolidated through the present educational curriculum, attaches great social esteem to such vocations as teaching, engineering, tractor driving and so on; whereas peasant and farm life, for which they should be trained, does not so far present, in theoretical and practical terms, incentives attractive enough to claim their interest. These children see that the teacher and the doctor play a big role in their daily lives, so that they tend to form a noble and larger-than-life image of these careers. In comparison, farm life is made to appear drab, unattractive and limited in every respect.

Of course the availability of qualified persons in all the walks of life is important for the advancement

of society; accordingly the training of more teachers, doctors, etc., is a must. However, in the case of the resettlement sites, their socio-economic viability will be ensured not only by doctors, teachers and the like, but more so by well-trained and highly knowledgeable agriculturists: these could best come from the young people now attending school in the resettlement sites.

CONCLUSION

The dialectics of social change, so far as the Somali settlements are concerned, will depend upon two main variables, which are:

- (i) The adaptability of the settled nomads to the new environment and the extent to which the socio-cultural set-up can facilitate the path of change;
- (ii) The main social role of the settled communities in the transformation process, based on the consolidation of a peasant-oriented cultural and psychological mentality among the former nomads, whose ways of life have been, in a number of ways, a constraint on our further developmental strategy.

These two main variables are related to focus on the motive force, of the process of dialectical change i. e. man. Accordingly the historical situation, and the circumstances of its occurrence, both favourable and unfavourable, should be fully considered. Throughout his long history man has shown a tremendous capacity to change in whatever direction life necessitated. Man has succeeded in transforming his environment; he has transformed the whole system of material production — its modes, forces, relations, and the whole cultural gamut

encapsulating it. The technological and scientific basis of human existence, the means serving his needs — being more dynamic than the superstructure corresponding to an outdated material system of production — is ultimately forced to mature. In this context, the newly settled nomads have to rapidly evolve a new cultural and psychological outlook oriented towards the peasants' settled way of life, and in the process create a new economic basis characterized by high productivity, and leading to all-rounded better living conditions.

This is what is taking place now in the resettlement areas, though it certainly has not yet reached complete stability. This is so because man, though highly adaptable, requires some time to adjust fully. Moreover, there is always an element of continuity in the transformation of society, and human beings in the search for an anchor always try to ensure the retention of some aspects of their old system of social relations. Of course it is always highly commendable to retain the best that the former social system offered, and only to supplant what was negative and harmful in it. But on occasion, due to the limited consciousness of the parties to the dynamics of social change, an unwarranted adherence to negative norms and categories may ensue, and this in turn will lie in the way of a desirable deeper transformation. Conversely, it may well be that some aspects of the new social system do not best serve the long-term interests and objectives of the community to be transformed: this militates against the overall progressive tendencies which deserve to be consolidated.

A study of a family consisting of 5 people in the Sheikh Bashiir Sector of Dujuuma showed the strains and stresses to which each was subjected as a result of the new values which the objective conditions made it

imperative to adopt. The father, an elderly man, but still wily and strong, and long with him his two youngest children seemed to have adjusted entirely to the new setting, and were quite optimistic about the future, which for them held the promise of a better life. The mother, a woman of about forty, was rather worried and nostalgic about the land where she had grown up, married, and lived for many years. Speaking of her former life she drew a rather beautiful picture of it, though she was not unaware of its hardships. She would continuously say: «At that time we had our animals, which we slaughtered when we wished. We had milk, and we knew the land!»

The eldest daughter, however, seemed to have completely forgotten the life she had led before, and was wholly involved in the new one, but in an alienated sort of way. She was rather rebellious, became estranged from her parents and the rest of the family, and came home only for food and sleep. Both her father and mother were saddened by her strange behaviour, which seemed to them to be straying away from the exemplary family relationship.

In closing, I would like to quote a song which is at present very popular at Dujuuma:

Beled, beled u degoo beeraley noqda
Ha ka baqina beentuu afmiinshaarku baafiyey
U badheedha hawlaha, bisinka u qabtoo
Abuurka ku bilaaba ciidda
Dhawr bilood ka bacdi goortay bislaato
Ka buuxsada bakhaarada
Ka bogsada caydha
Baahida ka baxoo
Shirkado biro noqdo
Ha ka baydhina baaqii
Kacaankeenna barakaysan.

(Settle community by community and become peasants!

Do not be taken aback by the lies the opportunist spreads.

Be steadfast to face hardships and pull yourselves together.

And start sowing the seeds;

A few months later when they ripen

Fill your stores.

This will alleviate your suffering

And do away with bitter hunger.

Steel yourselves through the struggle!

Harken to our revolutionary call !)

This moving song is sung by the Dujuuma youth, the «Flowers of the Revolution», the Dujuuma settlers of tomorrow. It is through their youthful enthusiasm, commitment and pioneering courage that the Dujuuma of the future will be built and prosper. And let us hope that it will be as beautiful as their song exquisitely expresses.

APPENDIX

THE POPULATION OF THE RESETTLEMENT SITES

Site	Population in round figures	
1. Dujuma	48,000	
2. Sablale	30,000	Agricultural sites
3. Kurtun Waarey	27,000	Tainees
4. Adale	4,800	7.00
5. Eil	3,900	500
6. Brava	6,500	1,000
Total	120,200	Total trainees 2,200 for fisheries

Initial figures for land to be cultivated in each of the agricultural sites was 18,000 hectares to be cleared within the coming five years. 2,000 hectares were supposed to be cleared in the first year.

Latest figures of cultivated land (Look at 26th issue of Halgan, Ereg).

District	Irrigated Land	Rain Fed or Dry Farming
	Hectars	Hectars
1. Dujuuma	9,000	9,000
2. Sablale	3,000	3,000
3. K/Waarey	3,000	3,000

Of these the following number of hectares have been successfully made ready:

District	Land fully prepared	Land Levelled
	Hectares	Hectares
1. Dujuuma	563	334
2. Sablale	2005	300
3. K/Waarey	1477	700
Total	4045	1334

Total investments allotted for the resettlement programme is estimated at 230,256,000 Somali Shillings, and this is planned to be raised from the following sources:

1. Gov't Budget	35,893,000 So. Shs.
2. Loan from the Arab Fund	142,363,000 So. Shs.
3. Loan from the World Bank	52,000,000 So. Shs.
Total	230,256,000 So. Shs.

NOMADIC EDUCATION PROJECT IN SOMALIA

By: Abdi Haybe

Resettling former nomadic communities in agricultural and fishing areas is a significant aspect of promoting social transformation from nomadism. Many of you have just visited and witnessed certain aspects of our national resettlement programme in, for example, Kurtunwaarey. This is a dramatic aspect of social change resulting from our positive response to the consequences of the serious drought that affected our country.

The economic Education project reflects another albeit less dramatic, method of introducing social change within the nomadic environment.

The conception on nomadic education is based on a famous principle enunciated by several theoreticians and repeated several times by Dr. Frantz Fanon in his writings: namely the principle of «learning from the masses in order to teach the masses» - the nomads themselves. This knowledge cover many areas such as medicine, cross-breeding of animals, plant life and local weather patterns. Not only should this knowledge be appreciated and acknowledged, but it should also be an essential component of any proposed basic education programme.

The paper I am presenting is rather practical oriented but this is in keeping with the sub-theme of this

conference namely the role of the activist in social change.

This project comprises nine centres, seven of which will be located in well selected strategic areas with respect to the availability of grazing and water and to sufficiency of the catchment area. These centres will serve as the base of one possible approach to the solution of the problem of education nomads in the Somali Democratic Republic.

Each centre will provide instruction in areas of knowledge of immediate relevance to the nomad's needs and environment as well as provide services which can attract the nomads to the centre and thus create a bond between them and the centre.

Instruction and services by the static centre will be supplemented by mobile units using the centres as a base. In the Somali Democratic Republic there has been little or no experience accumulated over the years in this area on which to fall back.

Thus, the suggested solution embodies in these centres is novel, untried, and therefore, with a significant element of risk. However, considering the present situation, it is imperative that a start, at best a pilot one as this project, be made.

• The nomadic sector, between 50 and 60 per cent of the total population, constitutes the foundation

of our national wealth. It is imperative that a start be made to provide some sort of relevant education to the nomad sector with the objective of improving the nomad's way of life within the limits of its possibilities. This will not only render a necessary social service to the nomads and so put into effect the principle of social justice, but will also enhance the nomadic sector's contribution to the national economy.

Additionally, at the rate which the educational system is expanding, it will not be long before basic education will have been made available to all in both urban centre and villages.

This means that, inevitably, the educational system, in an appropriate and relevant form, will have to be carried to the nomads. This being so, it is essential that useful and necessary empirical information be gathered before large scale expansion of the educational system among the nomads can be scientifically considered, planned and formulated; hence the pilot nature of this project.

It is to be emphasized that the intention of this project is not to force premature or impractical sedentarization on the nomads, but to help them improve the underpinnings of the nomad's way of life. Nor is there the intention to remove the nomads from their environment and way of life and predispose them to urban areas as a result of their exposure to the centre, its environment and instructional programmes.

Indeed a key factor in the success of the project will be the elimination or, at least, the minimization of aspects of the centre and its varied operations, which might create in the attendants urban tastes, cravings and

expectations, such as the physical aspect, the content and duration of the instructional programmes, the attitudes and life style of the instructors, etc.

These centres will provide instructional programmes for both adolescents and adults.

THE OBJECTIVES OF THE PROJECT

The objectives of the project can be stated as follows:

- a) To help modernize the attitudes and values of the nomad so that he can be an active agent for progressive change in his own environment, and capable of better adjustment and better environmental control, modification and exploitation;
- b) To help give him basic skills and techniques through which he can become the progressive change-agent described above. Modern attitudes, values, skills and techniques will have to be imparted at an appropriate level and at an absorbable rate through persuasion techniques and effective demonstration, i. e. show the nomad that what you are teaching him, works for the better.
- c) To provide certain essential services such as portable water for livestock, basic medical services and advice, improvement of dips and veterinary services which will also help the realization of (a) and (b). The National Commercial Agency will be encouraged to establish a station at the centre and the Livestock Development Agency will also be encouraged to establish a livestock purchasing office.
- d) To help orientate the nomads and mobilize them

for self-help action and national building in accordance with the principles of self-help and self establishment and or the strengthening of nomad youth enrolment.

- e) To serve as a base for researchers on the Somali fauna and flora, ecology, etc. as well as Somali folklore, culture, linguistics, poetry, arts, etc. if and when their work takes them to the general areas in which the centres are located. Each centre will gather information on the above from its general area.

DESCRIPTION OF A TYPICAL MODEL CENTRE

CAPACITY :

The centre will be a residential centre with a capacity of 160 adolescents and adult included. The former will be resident.

FACILITIES :

Each centre will have adequate premises and space for:

1. Classroom instruction (as well as furniture)
2. Rooming for attendants, including bed and bedding;
3. Eating including utensils, furniture, etc;
4. Rooming for staff;
5. Ablution (which will be pits in the ground with a walling of kebed or caws);
6. A tannery shed
7. Sheds for animal husbandry made from local poles supporting thatched roofs;

8. Large sheds for drying hides and skins;
9. A medical dispensary with adequate room for examination and storing of medical supplies and instruments (including refrigerators for drugs);
10. A veterinary dispensary which will be basically storage space for the drugs (and refrigeration units for them), and instruments; as the actual work will be done out in the open, under trees or under sheds;
11. Blacksmith sheds made from local materials such as branches grass, mats, etc;
12. A tools storage shed from local materials;
13. General storage shed hut (food coccodities, etc.):
14. Maintenance hut.

In their design and in terms of materials from which they are made, these premises as well as the furniture and bedding will have to be such that they do not conflict with the nomads experience and environment. This is to help ensure the elimination from the nomadic lifestyle.

In addition to the above, the following will be required:

1. Medical supplies and instruments for the treatment of diseases such as malaria, T. B., Pneumonia, vitamin deficiency diseases, ulceration, eye diseases, tooth decay, bilharzia, syphilis, surface wounds, fractures, skin diseases, dysentery, typhus, tetanus, etc.

These supplies should be both for instructional and for service purposes. The attendants will treat or assist in treating those seeking treatment, as a means of practical training as well as a means of persuasion by effective demonstration.

As for the instruments, equivalents in the nomad daily experience should be used wherever possible or made from locally available materials. Medical supplies should include preventive ones such as vaccines (smallpox, tetanus, polio, etc.) and hygienic ones such as water purifying tablets.

2. Veterinary supplies and instruments for instruction and for treatment of such common animal diseases, e.g. rinderpest, split-hoof, anthrax, fractures, skin diseases, pest control, etc.
3. Agricultural hand tools for raising whenever possible crops such as; edible roots, berries found wild in the nomad's environment, vegetables, maize and millet not only as practical training on crop-raising as a supplement to livestock-raising in marginal nomad areas, but also as means of supplementing the diet of the centre's community, making it as self-supporting as possible, and thereby helping to defray the recurrent expenditure.
4. Blacksmithery tools, wood workshop tools, hand tools for general maintenance of the institution, e. g. hand saws, planes, hammers, pliers, wire cutters.
5. Since the centre will keep a number of various types of livestock for training, wire fencing for a range will be necessary.
6. Three wells have to be drilled and pumps installed, preferably wind pumps on two of them, and a diesel one on the third serving the general community.
7. Tanning equipment and supplies
8. Lighting system drawing on solar radiation for energy if possible.
9. A variety of donkey carts, camel carts, bullock carts.

10. A five-ton truck and a landrover for periodic hauling of any essential supplies and for emergencies.
11. Small hand and compact film projectors (dry cell powered), folding easily, transportable, and installable screens and collection of short films on animal husbandry, conservation, soil erosion and its prevention, water management, individual and communal health and hygiene crop raising etc.
12. Several powerful, but compact radio sets (dry cell powered), for following general radio programmes as well as special programmes prepared and beamed to supplement the centre's programmes.
13. A powerful transreceiver to enable the centre to keep in touch with the nearest regional or district headquarters.

LOCATION :

In selecting a location for a centre the following criteria were borne in mind:

1. Reasonable accessibility to a significant nomadic or transhuman population both during the dry and rainy seasons. This would suggest allocation on or near to a grazing reserve which will be off limits for grazing during the rainy season when the nomads can get grazing elsewhere on the peripheries of the reserve. During the dry season the reserve is opened for the nomads and, therefore, such accessibility will further improve.

Grazing reserve have already been established in many parts of the country and will be progressively established in others. In any case, whether or not a centre is located on or near a reserve, its range will be off limits to all except the centre's livestock.

2. Availability of underground or surface water is crucial. The Water Development Agency has been consulted.
3. Availability of good grazing and sufficient water or the possibility for water development. This will ensure the necessary catchment area.
4. Remoteness from urban areas or large villages. This is necessary because the centre and the catchment area must be as far removed from urbanizing influences including migration of the attendants of the centres and the nomadic population in its periphery.
5. Even and fair distribution of the seven centres among the various sections of the country.

After a preliminary identification of potential locations on the maps, survey teams were dispatched to do a thorough survey and investigation and made a final selection of locations on the basis of an optimum balance from the various criteria mentioned above. The same teams have thoroughly briefed the populations in the vicinity of selected sites, explained to them the objectives of the centre in order to secure not only their self-help assistance for the realization of the project, but also to secure their understanding of the centre as their benefit and the various ways in which they can make use of it. Such an orientation campaign continues through construction, after completion of construction during programme initiation and after it.

THE INSTRUCTION PROGRAMME

As has already been mentioned elsewhere, two broad varieties of nomadism can be identified in this country. First there is the nomad who is solely dependent for livelihood on his livestock and such commodities cereals which he exchange for his livestock.

This type of nomad has no interest in raising food crops during the rainy season. In fact in many cases, he looks down and disdains the farming occupation. The other type of nomad is one who to some extent or another, supplements his livelihood from livestock with subsistence crops during the rainy season when part of his family leads a near-sedentary life.

However, the effort of raising subsistence crops remains for him a supplementary effort employing primitive tools and techniques and often not going beyond scattering seeds over a stretched plot and waiting without any further input of effort.

While neither variety of nomadism is patternless, the later variety has more easily definable pattern and often has a shorter radius within which migration takes place.

The programme proposed for the seven centres reflects the differences in the two varieties of nomadism described; the centres located in areas where nomadism of the latter variety is the norm will have in their programme a very considerable crop-raising component. However, those centres located in areas where nomadism of the former variety is the norm will have in their programme only a small portion on crop-raising intended mainly for attitudinal change in the hope that these nomads too will come to supplement their livelihood from livestock with subsistence crops they raise, climate and water availability permitting.

Centres in areas with the former variety of nomadism will hereafter be called «A» centres, and the other «B» centres.

NATURE AND CONTENT OF PROGRAMME

Since the time of writing of this paper, the standing technical committee for social and rural advancement has put forward certain recommendations and proposals regarding the period of study and number of students attending the Nomadic Education centres per year. Justification for these changes appears as an annex. The programmes that follow are the ones originally envisaged for the Nomadic Education Centres.

PROGRAMME FOR ADOLESCENTS

The duration of the programme for adolescents will be two years with the following observations.

1. It will be observed that studies continue for eight months recess annually;
2. During the vacations the adolescent returns to his family. This yearly return-home will help re-immense him in his true environment and thereby minimize the alienation influence of the centre itself;
3. During the vacation period for adolescents, adults will replace them in the centre. Hence the centre is occupied at all times by 160.

PROGRAMME FOR ADULTS

Duration: Four months in two instalments during the period. 160 places are available for adults.

CONTENTS OF PROGRAMME IN «A» CENTRES LITERACY AND RELATED SUBJECTS

Literacy, functional in approach and content, with some numeracy especially on measurements with locally-made aids, civic education. Total time allotted will be 55 per cent.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY AND RELATED SUBJECTS

Animal husbandry will include diagnosis of common diseases and measures to take; simple treatment techniques such as establishing doses, mixing or preparing drugs for use; giving injections etc, control of insects harmful to livestock; preventing of spread of various types of diseases, treating fractures, birthing, etc. It will also cover food requirements of various types of animals and how to endeavour to secure them; fodder production.

RANGE CONSERVATION

- a) Erosion by wind, water-causes and prevention, what is over-grazing and what is its effect.
- b) Effect of cutting trees, the tree and its uses.
- c) How to plant;
- d) Grazing improvement and management on the range reserve etc.

PROCESSING ANIMAL PRODUCTS.

- a) How best to skin an animal, how best to dry it.
- b) Tanning, using local materials;
- c) Cheese and dry milk making.

MARKETING

- a) The market economy;
- b) Why raise livestock (Objective-combatting prestige ownership);
- c) How best to utilize health in livestock; How best and when best to prepare livestock for market;

- d) Information on the Somali livestock marketing system and procedure.

WILDLIFE

This will be heavily based towards practical study of the animals and reserves of the centre.
Crops (10 per cent of total time)

In an «A» centre the objective of instruction on this subject is to provide attitudinal change which will help pre-suppose the nomads to supplement their diet with subsistence crops raised where possible, during the rainy season.

Instruction will be mainly through demonstration on the centres plots and will cover:

- a) Sited selection, soils;
- b) Land preparation: clearing, tilling etc;
- c) Making tilling implements and where feasible ploughing implements and training and using ploughing animals;
- d) Sowing; weeding etc;
- e) Harvesting.

Health and hygiene (15 per cent of total time)

Instruction will cover;

- a) Diseases and their causes;
- b) Common diseases in Somalia and possible measures to check their spreading; harmful insects and the diseases they carry; mosquitoes, flies etc, and how to combat them.

- c) Clean water, how to purify contaminated water;
- d) How best to dispose of contamination;
- e) How to prevent milk contamination;
- f) Body, home and community cleanliness;
- g) First aid.

It is to be observed that the programme for adults and adolescents will cover the same four basic areas, but in view of the difference in the time available, the programme for adults will be accelerated and selectively covered in less depth. Both programmes will be mostly practical and demonstrational in approach.

CONTENT OF THE PROGRAMME IN «B» CENTRES

Again the same four areas will be covered. However here, the area of crop raising will be allotted more time in relation to livestock. Otherwise the content will remain the same as in an A centre.

For both A and B centres, the mobile unit will, among other things, endeavour to trace recipients of training after they have left the centre and evaluate the impact such training has had on their life at home. Information thus acquired will be used to improve the centre's programme and operation.

STAFF

The staff to run a centre will have the following functions:

- a) Carry out the instructional programme and whatever administration tasks that are needed;

- b) Provide the necessary services to the community, e.g. veterinary and health, either at the centre or on mobile expeditions.

Staff will have to be specially selected and have as criteria the following characteristics:

- a) Hardiness, high motivation, and an uncommon spirit of dedication to the objectives of the project;
- b) Willingness to blend with the nomads and their environment;
- c) Rapport with and credibility among the nomads;
- d) A firm grasp of the objectives of the operation;
- e) A good grasp of the knowledge they are to impart to the nomads, or trainability to acquire that knowledge.

It is envisioned that they will be drawn from the following sources:

1. Nabaddoons. These are community elders who serve as the contact between the administration and the nomads;
2. The Guulwadayaal. These are youth volunteers;
3. Quranic teachers preferably from the nomadic community;
4. Volunteers from among the regular teachers.
5. Specially selected young people from the Ministries of livestock, Health and Agriculture.

The staff once selected and assembled will have to be intensively trained. The best training place would be the environment they will be working in. It is now deemed that such training will take place either at farmer or livestock field-workers training centres.

ADMINISTRATION STATUS OF THE PROJECT

As can be deduced from the objectives and programme of the centres, the responsibility for the project is interministerial. However, while the execution of the project will come under the Ministry of Education (Department of Non-formal Education), there will however, be a co-ordinating body to be called the Nomadic Education Board to consist of the following Ministries: Education, Livestock, Agriculture, Health, Information and Interior.

FUTURE PROSPECTS FOR NOMAD EDUCATION

In view of the population concentration in the nomadic sector and its Economic importance, the need for pushing on with nomad education is obvious. Other development schemes will help serve as a spring-board or focal point for nomad education; of these two merit special mention.

- a) Co-operative Range-recently started in the more drier ranges of the country. Obviously such a scheme will facilitate nomad education by providing well-defined catchment areas within which movement is highly predictable.
- b) Settlement in zones reclaimed from tsetse fly infestation reclamation of which is planned for the near future and will have similar implications for nomad education.

The Information contained in appendices one to four and annex one to three is of the original estimates, programmes and resources needed for the nomadic Education Centres. Annex 4 provides information on

recent change in course duration and student intake and updated estimates of the cost of running one centre for one year.

COURSES FOR NOMADIC CHILDREN

A nomadic child will receive his education at a centre during a period of three years, spending six months at centre and the following six months with his parents each year.

Therefore, groups of children will be admitted to each centre at intervals of six months, e.g. twice every year. The number of children admitted at a time will be 120 so that they will follow type one course in animal husbandry, and the other two in crop and animal husbandry. Thus from the third year onwards there will be 12 classes in each centre at any time of the year.

CONCLUSION

Obviously, education alone can hardly be expected to drastically alter the living conditions of nomads.

People have always been concerned with satisfying their basic needs. While an improvement in sanitation, studies in literacy and numeracy may be evident, unless the education provided to nomads is obliterating the barriers. To need-satisfaction and major problems such as a lack of water and food are solved, education may prove to be put a drop in the Ocean.

In this context it is important to recall the overall comprehensive framework of the Nomadic Education Project which includes the National Economic Planning system, the comprehensive rural Development

Programme and the Resettlement Projects. It is also important to recall the crucial role of the political and social organisations. In future, it is hoped that Nomadic Cooperatives will play a pivotal role in providing the Nomadic Education Project with a comprehensive framework.

ANNEX

JUSTIFICATIONS FOR SHORTENING THE PERIOD OF TRAINING IN THE NOMADIC EDUCATION CENTRES (NEC).

training in the Nomadic Education Centres (NEC).

The standing technical committees for social and rural advancement, chaired by the Hon. Minister of Local Government and Rural Development of the SDR, has put forward the following recommendations and proposals regarding the period of study by any group in the Nomadic Education Centres (NEC).

The recommendations are the product of exhausting discussions and deliberations and appear to be the most sensible conclusions raised up to now as far as these centres are concerned. Prior to the recommendations the following considerations were made:

1. Falling back on the experience gained from training programmes organized by different government agencies and ministries it has been concluded that a two-year training programme formerly earmarked in the original plan for (NEC) is too long for nomads. The precarious migratory nature of the nomadic life, and the daily duties and responsibility that require his utmost attention and care would

prevent the nomads, irrespective of age, to undergo a prolonged period of training and residence in one place.

2. The completion of a two-year training programme might encourage the nomad to evaluate the merits of this nomadic life and advantages and disadvantages involved in being a nomad. This kind of thinking, and the passing of new judgements on his way of life might cause him to migrate to urban centres and look for other means of livelihood.

The migration of rural nomads to towns is already a problem in this country and has caused intolerable burdens for the urban people.

3. It has been discovered that rural people, and especially nomads, commonly believe that a long period of training would qualify them for government employment.
4. If in each centre only one group of 160 persons is training for two years, it will be too late for all the qualifying community members to have the chance to participate in the training programmes.

In the light of the above reasoning it has been recommended:

- a) That the training period for all groups be cut down to four months;
- b). That the training be recurrent, so that certain groups would come back for retraining;
- c) That the best few of each group of trainees be selected and given to perform social services in livestock-rearing, agriculture and so on. A nine-month period has been suggested.

MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION OF NOMADIC EDUCATION CENTRES

In a meeting held at the Ministry of Education on the 23rd May 1978 attended by Ministers, Director Generals and the Director of Department of concerned Ministries, the following was discussed:

1. Management and administrative responsibilities of the centres.
2. Teaching staff and other personnel needed for the centres.
3. Financial allocations and meeting for recurrent expenses.

It was agreed that:

1. With the exception of the settlement districts, the management and administration of the first one or two years will be under supervision of the Ministry of Education after which it will be handed over to the regional authorities.
2. The centres in the settlement districts will be managed by the settlement Agency. The other Ministries concerned such as Education, Health, Agriculture, Livestock, Range Management will serve as the technical organ in these centres.
3. The budget allocated for the nomadic education centres, other than those in the settlement districts, will be transferred to the Ministry of Education budget for the first one or two years.
4. It was decreed that a national «steering committee» composed of the following Director Generals and General Managers be instituted:
— Director General, Ministry of Education

- Director General, Ministry of Health
- Director General, Ministry of Agriculture
- Director General, Ministry of Livestock
- Director General, Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development
- General Manager Settlement Agency
- General Manager National Range Agency.

For the first one or two years the Director General in the Ministry of Education will serve as the chairman, and after that the Director General in the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development will take over.

The responsibilities of this committee include:

1. Inspection
2. Cula and validation of curricula and overall guidance.
3. A technical committee composed of professionals was set up to work out the running cost of a centre for year.

CO-OPERATIVES AND EDUCATION FOR NOMADS
Hussein Mohamed Adam And Mohamoud Abdi Ali
INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to raise thoughts around the question of functional education for nomads. Education for nomads must be geared, in the long run, towards the need to transform the socio-economic and cultural environment of nomads. The identification of basic services in a nomadic setting must take into account not only present needs but also future demands and possibilities.

Co-operatives for nomads can provide one of the crucial instruments for nomadic transformation. Accordingly a symposium on education for nomads must spend time reflecting on the relationship between education and co-operatives.

The co-operative movement in Somalia at present does not yet include a sector involved with co-operatives for nomads. This paper argues the need to establish co-operatives for nomads in Somalia. Once established, these co-operatives would provide a firm basis for functional education beyond the literacy campaign level.

Before we state the advantages of nomad co-operatives for Somalia, let us briefly review the main

aspects of Somalia's rural development strategy pursued since the Revolution of 21 October 1969. The steps taken to improve the lives of the rural Somali masses involved in nomadism and agriculture during the past eight years may be summarized as follows:

The Decentralization policies

The decentralization strategy of the Somali revolutionary state is attested by the promulgation of Law No. 52 which entrusts to regional, district and village councils the power of planning for almost all the local facets of the region, district and village life from the vital economic sectors to the minor social services one.

It has been the duty of the revolutionary councils to galvanize people's energies and participation in the decision-making process. The establishment of the Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party on 1 July 1976 and of the social organizations for workers, youth and women in 1977 have helped improve the structure and functioning of these basic organs of self-government. The increase in the number of regions (from the pre-revolutionary 8 to 16) and equally those of establishment of numerous village councils have greatly assisted the development of rural Somalia. The most crucial impact so far has been at the level of mass consciousness.

THE RURAL DEVELOPMENT CAMPAIGN

This memorable campaign during 1974-75 had three functional imperatives: Stamping out illiteracy, the provision of medical and veterinary care of both nomads and their livestock, and a more accurate census collection of human and livestock population. The RDC did an excellent job in combatting illiteracy, especially

among the nomadic population for the first time came face to face with a government with social amenities which it had sought for so long.

The Government and the urban populations especially the youth, gained valuable information and programmes in the future. Obviously, campaigns are a dramatic means of launching innovative programmes. In the long run, however, campaigns need to be complemented with stable permanent programmes of transformation. Nomad co-operatives could provide a suitable means for institutions analysing the gains of the. RDC.

THE SETTLEMENT PROGRAMME

The Settlement programme, along with the various agricultural crash programme following the long (dabadheer) drought in Somalia, settled over 120,000 drought victims in six settlement sites: three are agricultural and three involve fisheries development.

A disaster brought about by the vagaries of nature provided the basis upon which a programme of nomad transformation was built. The New nomad settlement in agriculture and fishing provide a framework for co-operative organization, education and health services, political mobilization, etc.

POLITICAL AND SOCIAL ORGANIZATIONS AND THE STRENGTHENING OF THE CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT

The revolution of 21 October 1969 launched upon the task of mass mobilization organization for production, national defence, etc. As early as 1972 a political Office was established under the presidency of the

Supreme Revolutionary Council. The political Office opened branches in all parts of the Somali Democratic. It also began to establish organs for youth, women and workers political development led to the establishment of the party, SRSP, in 1976.

The Central Committee of the SRSP has replaced the former SRC as the supreme organ of political power within the SDR. In March 1977, the Somali Women's Democratic Organization was launched. May 1977 saw the reorganization and establishment of the confederation of Somali Trade Unions and the Somali Revolutionary Youth Union. Naturally all these organizations have a greater impact on the urban rather than the rural masses. The question of organizing and politically educating the rural masses is, to a large extent, related to the question of expanding and strengthening the co-operative movement.

A few co-operatives existed in Somalia prior to 1969, mostly religious-oriented co-operatives set up by individuals eager to profit from special bank loans and other corrupt practices. The socialist orientation of the new revolutionary government obliged it to place a lot of effort on improving and strengthening the co-operative movement. In 1973, the Government promulgated Law No. 40 on co-operatives. At three types of agricultural co-operatives are stipulated in the law: (1) multipurpose (2) group farming and; (3) production co-operatives.

Apart from agricultural cooperatives, Co-operatives have also been established in various sectors: Fishermen co-operatives assisted by the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Transport; smallscale and hand-crafts industry co-operatives assisted by the Ministry of Industries.

Co-operatives and Education

The chief tasks of livestock co-operatives in Somalia will be a security against drought, disaster, for raising income and special welfare dependent on co-operative labour, grazing control and the provision or better utilization of water supplies.

Livestock co-operatives would be able to take on the traditional roles of the nomadic kinship society, especially the regulation of grazing, security against loss of animals, regulation of conflict, digging wells, etc. Such measures would eliminate the economic and social base of tribalism and would greatly contribute to its disappearance.

Co-operatives among nomads would permit the introduction of modern technology and the advantages of large scale specialized production. Nomad co-operatives would also function as an appropriate instrument for involving our rural pastoral people in party and state affairs and administration.

They would guarantee the two-way channel of communications particularly needed for the phase of rapid transformation that we are expecting. They would also help to make permanent and more systematic all those changes introduced by the Rural Development Campaign - continued literacy classes, improved levels of human and animal health, education and cultural expression.

Structure of Co-operative Centre

Each co-operative would need to have a centre. Such centres may be mobile during the first years

until enough experience is gained in order to choose a more suitable, permanent centre probably near the dry season wells of suitable agricultural land. Such an administrative and service centre would need to have a school, human and animal health services, political orientation and cultural centre, etc. It would also have technical facilities for repairing tools and other machinery as well as administrative offices.

The efficient running of co-operative centres necessitates educated personnel. Thus the co-operatives would provide a healthy basis for the recruitment, training and absorption of educated manpower from the nomads themselves. Co-operatives can do a lot to make education for nomads functional, to supplement basic education and to help people retain literacy skills once acquired.

The provision of basic education and health services in the co-operatives implies a combination of fixed installations at the co-operative centre with radio education and frontline health care. Basic courses for nomads would include health education (Sanitation, food habits), first aid, general education (literacy), veterinary and technical education, range management, basic accounting and administrative skills, etc. Skills and knowledge (e. g. of medicines) gained from the experience of nomadic life itself must be carefully studied, analysed and incorporated in the co-operative-sponsored programme of education.

The introduction of co-operatives for nomads in Somalia calls for the launching of a pilot project probably later this year. The project would not bring the advantages of co-operatives (education, health services, etc.) to all nomadic Somalis. It could, however, devise a good model for functional education within a nomad co-opera-

tive that can be transferred, eventually, to a large scale national co-operative programme for nomads and help train some of the personnel needed to direct such a programme.

THE MONGOLIAN EXPERIENCE IN NOMADIC TRANSFORMATION

By Hussein M. Adam and Mohamoud Abdi Ali
INTRODUCTION

A great deal of experience has been accumulated in the Mongolian People's Republic, certain regions of the People's Republic of China and within the USSR on the question of transformation from nomadism. The Asiatic regions of the USSR, the inner Mongolia autonomous region and other regions of North-East China are zones formerly inhabited by roving nomadic populations. Some of the steps undertaken in these areas in regard to nomadic transformation are similar to those undertaken by the Mongolian People's Republic. This paper will concentrate on the experience of Mongolia, particularly as it relates to the question of co-operatives for nomads.

Mongolia's experience in building a new life has contributed to the theory and practice of the Revolutionary transformation of society. Somalia and Mongolia share certain socio-economic similarities. Both societies have experienced colonialism and neo-colonialism, and more important, both societies are bent towards the socialist path of development. This makes it imperative for the two societies to exchange experiences.

Mongolia's older and richer experience in the transformation of nomadism through nomad co-operatives is of particular interest to Somalia.

BACKGROUND

The Mongolian People's Republic lies in the Northern part of Central Asia ringed on the South by vast deserts, on the North and West by mountain ridges and on the East by endless steppes. It has an area of 1,565 thousand square kilometres-the size of France, Spain, Britain and the Federal Republic of Germany combined. To the North and North-West, Mongolia is bordered by the USSR and to the South and East by the People's Republic of China.

Most of the country is mountainous, the rest consisting of rolling land. Its climate is sharply contrasting: the winters are long and cold, with little snow; the summers are short and often hot. The country at present has a population of 1,265,000.

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF CO-OPERATIVES FOR NOMADS

Mongolian livestock herding co-operatives function successfully mainly because they are part and parcel of a socialist-oriented strategy. The development of livestock-herding co-operative associations and state agricultural enterprises were the first preparatory steps in the transition from private, small-scale animal husbandry to large-scale socialist enterprises.

At the 7th Congress of the MPRP, new decisive policies ushering in nomad co-operatives were initiated. The policies laid down provided for:

1. The establishment of the first herding co-operatives;
2. The imposition of heavy taxes against unproductive Buddhist lamas.

The MPRP soon discovered that the hasty and forced collectivization of livestock did not produce the desired results. Since an adequate process including raising the political consciousness of the nomads had not been undertaken, serious complications arose.

The heavy taxes imposed upon private livestock did not distinguish between the rich and poor herd-owners, neither were valid distinctions made between rich and poor lamas. Accordingly, party policies could not be fully implemented. Though the collectivization of the herds and their transformation into co-operatives still remained a long-term policy for the Party, an immediate continuation of the 1928 collectivization adventures was avoided. The Party learned from its mistakes through criticism and self-criticism. However, the already existing herd co-operatives were left to operate.

In the 1950's the MPRP, at last convinced that sufficient politicization groundwork had been done, and that as a result enough support would be forthcoming from the vast majority of the poor herdsman, instituted the following policies:

1. Massive aid to the existing co-operatives;
2. Strong encouragement of people with over 75 head of livestock to join the co-operatives by giving these animals up. There was flexibility with regards to the number of livestock.

The objective was to get as many people to join the co-operatives so people could keep up their private livestock and at the same time enjoy the economic, social and medical benefits provided by the co-operatives.

The rich herdsmen still stayed out of the co-operatives until the 1960s when more through-going and sweeping collectivization measures were undertaken. Resistance to this last collectivization campaign was extremely muted, even on the part of the rich herdsmen. Today, after 55 years the Mongolian Revolution the whole of the herding stock are in nomad co-operatives though roughly 22 per cent of such stock is privately owned.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE MONGOLIAN CO-OPERATIVE SYSTEM

The basic co-operative unit is called the Negdel. It has an administrative system called the Sum. The Chairman of the Negdel also heads the Sum. The distinction is a matter of a function specialization, whereby the Sum, receiving state aid, provides services such as education, health, cultural and artistic entertainment, etc.

Each co-operative has a definite territory of its own to which its members are confined. Co-operative territory is further sub-divided into land belonging to herding brigades. Furthermore each co-operative has its own centre. In the centre are to be found the auxiliary brigade, the administrative buildings (meeting rooms, chairman's office, accountant's office), hospital, schools, machinery repair shop, shops and other permanent structures. A more detailed explanation will now be given of the herding brigade, and the auxiliary brigade.

HERDING BRIGADE

The herding brigade is fundamentally the most important within the herding co-operatives. In every co-operative there are a number of herding brigades. The transformation of the Mongolian pastoral sectors has been largely due to the herding brigade, since this is the pro-

ductive muscle of the co-operative. This transformation consists of brigade specialization in the rearing of stocks. Accordingly, in a herding co-operative there are the following brigades:

- a) Horse-herding brigade;
- b) Cattle-herding brigade;
- c) Camel-herding brigade;
- d) Sheep and goat herding brigade;

AUXILIARY BRIGADE

The auxiliary brigade can itself comprise more units than one in correspondence with the services it has to provide. It is usually permanent and stays at the co-operative centre. It does most of the building construction that the herd-co-operative needs. Moreover the auxiliary brigade involves itself in the strategic task of conservation of hay and the building of byres. Mongolian nomad society in the same way as in our society, did not give due importance to hay making and byre building, and the overall utilization of animal by-products. The auxiliary brigade as the settled unit also plays a modernizing role; for example, new agricultural production which was formerly unknown is increasingly undertaken by the auxiliary brigade. Due to its modernizing and innovative role, the auxiliary brigade is gaining strategic importance in the organizational structure of all livestock co-operatives.

The herding and auxiliary brigades complement each other, in so far as both deal functionally with two integral aspects of co-operative life; that is, the economically productive role and the social service needs that increasingly have to be provided and qualitatively improved. However, the Mongolian Party and State recognize

that a new secondary contradiction has emerged out of this dialectical unity between the non-permanent herding brigade and the permanent auxiliary brigade:

1. There is a tendency, especially among the youth, towards preference for permanent settlement near the co-operative centre;
2. The herding brigade which involves the greater bulk of herd work, and whose geographical movement has increased primarily for reasons of the qualitative improvement of livestock, is in a way less attractive to co-operative members. Moreover, since education of the young people is compulsory, the herd brigades have been losing labour power.

Mongolians inside the party and state administration realize that even under socialism certain contradictions arise which necessitate a creative resolution. In the context of socialist pastoral management, as in its present evolution, the contradiction between settlement attractiveness for the herdsmen as opposed to the socially unattractive but economically necessary continuation of transhuman movements of herd brigades, is reconciled by the following steps:

1. A stepping-up of hay and fodder conservation (construction of byres);
2. Massive mobilization of town dwellers, including the student population to help the herding brigades during busy seasons;
3. Full-scale encouragement of vast agricultural projects;
4. Industrial development giving sectoral economic importance where new industries absorb migratory labour from the pastoral economy;

5. The up grading of the standard of living: provision of a greater, better and more extensive social services network (education, health, radios, etc.)

ACHIEVEMENTS OF MONGOLIA'S CO-OPERATIVES

The consistent policies pursued by the MPRP to bring about the restructuring of Mongolia's agricultural livestock branch of the economy have produced remarkable results.

As of 1974, Mongolia had 267 agricultural-livestock production co-operatives, 36 state farms and more than 10 fodder farms. The animal husbandry co-operatives possess over 74 per cent of the country's head of cattle. On an average each one has over 430,000 hectares of farm land, about 65,000 head of cattle, and 640 hectares of land under crops. They have an annual income on the average of 2.5 million tugriks. In the state farms which have about 66 per cent of the country's land sown to crops, farming as opposed to livestock herding, predominates. Each state farm has an average of 300,000 hectares of farm land, about 30,000 head of cattle, 15,000 hectares of crop land, 200 tractors (15 H. P.) and 14 harvester combines. The gross agricultural product comes to seven million tugriks per year. The big socialist farms and co-operatives have proved their superiority over the small-scale, individually operated farms and herding groups.

The outstanding achievements resulting from a socialist strategy of agricultural livestock transformation have radically changed the appearance of rural Mongolia.

Across the boundless expanses, where previously one would only encounter scattered nomad dwellings and lama monasteries, there are now big modern animal

husbandry co-operatives and state farm estates with electric lighting, radio and telephone communications in the district centres, schools, libraries, hospitals, shops, clubs and kindergartens.

The standard of living of the rural worker continues to rise. In the livestock co-operatives, for example, the average annual wage of the cattle breeder has more than tripled since 1960. At present, co-operative members are ensured old-age pensions and material grants in the case of temporary disability. Since the establishment of co-operatives, one third of the members of these production associations have obtained new or improved housing. All these changes have necessitated and facilitated the introduction of modern developments in science and technology. About 90 per cent of the state farm managers and state farm party committee secretaries, 60 per cent of the chairmen of animal-husbandry co-operatives and 40 per cent of the secretaries of co-operatives, party committees and other groups have received a higher education. Each state farm now has an average of six to eight specialists with a higher, and 15-18 specialists with a secondary education. Each co-operative has veterinarians, animal husbandry experts, economists, engineers and agronomists with a higher education and also many skilled people with a secondary education. More than half of the stock breeders have a primary or secondary education. The number of machine operators rose 4.2 fold from 1960 to 1973 and 54 per cent have a secondary education.

It must be borne in mind that the first centres of education, culture and science were set up in a country whose population was almost totally illiterate (in 1921 only two per cent could read and write). By 1952 not a single illiterate person was to be found among the adult population. Education is free and Mongolia has introduced

a general compulsory seven-year education. The country has its own national intelligensia which comes from the working class and the working peasantry nomads (the arats). Thus we see that, in transforming nomad societies, co-operatives need educated people and provide a viable basis for the establishment and propagation of nomad educational institutions.

At present the Mongolian People's Republic puts out 36 newspapers and 28 magazines with a total circulation of 83.6 million. Mongolian literature, arts, drama and cinema are making steady progress. Moreover, Mongolians can now read the works of the world classics and modern literature (and science) in their own language.

LESSONS FOR SOMALIA

The revolution of 21st October 1969 has given Somalia a socialist strategy of development. With regards to rural transformation this strategy calls for the need to establish and develop state farms and co-operatives. The settlement of nomads following the serious drought that afflicted us has paved the way towards further innovations in this crucial area.

Various types of co-operatives have sprung up in Somalia following the Revolution: many of these are in agriculture, some are in crafts production, services and also in consumer goods. All these co-operatives have to be strengthened and developed so as to gain the necessary experience required for the challenging task of setting up animal-husbandry or pastoral co-operatives.

In addition, the experience of other countries like Mongolia needs to be carefully studied. The question

or such co-operatives should be the subject of national discussion by the SRSP, the social organizations and state administration groups. A great deal of ground-work preparation is necessary to ensure the success of such projects. The task of politically educating the nomadic population in order to pave the way for such co-operatives should be given attention. The Mongolian experience shows us the negative consequences of adventurist policies pursued without a democratic orientation.

Once firm party and state policies come to be set, the technical aspects could be more easily resolved. The task of making comprehensive studies of Somali nomadic movements could soon begin.

The basic aim of such a strategy involves:

- a) transformation of nomadic pastoralism so as to create an economy which is less subject to the disasters of nature;
- (b) the creation of new forms of socio-political organization and new production relations which, on one hand, progressively reduce and finally eliminate economic differentiation between the pastoral nomadic sector and the rest of the economy and, on the other hand, allow the surplus generated to be used for the benefit of the herdsmen and the nation in matters of health, education and other services.

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HEALTH IMPLICATIONS OF THE RURAL DEVELOPMENT CAMPAIGN

Dr. Ahmed Sharif Abbas

Rural health has caused much concern and perplexity during recent years in our country. Health standards maintained by the rural communities, in most of the regions are usually worse than those of urban populations. Villages are much more underdeveloped as compared to our towns and cities. Needless to say, there are occupational, socio-economic, and cultural variations between the rural and urban life, and rural life has its own peculiarities and these affect the health problems existing in rural areas. In addition, rural environment intensifies some health problems and at the same time creates new ones. Furthermore, rural life and rural economy have a direct bearing on the details of health programming and on the contents of health services considered necessary and feasible. Demographic and geographic characteristics of the rural people were considered in local health planning. People live in villages of various sizes, in various stages of economic development and at varying distances from the nearest urban centres, where utility services generally exist to a better extent.

Studying the causes of morbidity and mortality in the rural community and prevention of diseases, which are responsible for the infirmity of the man be-

hind the plough, have been among the principle tasks of the Ministry of Health. Since the birth of the October Revolution there has been increasing concern about the health and welfare of the rural population; and with the introduction of the Rural Development Campaign, (RDC) the Ministry concentrated its efforts in the rural areas.

Under a decree by the SRC the gigantic task of the RDC were spelled out to basically consist of:-

- i. Rural Literacy
- ii. Animal Health
- iii. Public Health Campaign.

The public Health component involved:

1. Preventing communicable diseases from spreading in the villages;
2. Prolonging life and,
3. Promoting health and efficiency through organized community for:-
 - a) Sanitation of the environment;
 - b) Control of communicable infections;
 - c) Education of the individual in personal hygiene.
 - d) Organization of medical and nursing services for early diagnosis and preventive treatment of diseases and;
 - e) Development of social machinery capable of insuring everyone a standard of living adequate for the maintenance of health.

The sickness load of communicable diseases is very large especially during infancy and childhood and we cannot ignore the recent developments in public heal-

ch demands and the growing needs and aspiration of the people. People cannot be denied what they see available to others in other parts of the country. But, to begin with, all that is desirable may not be feasible.

In the light of the above factors one cannot think of specialized separate health facilities. In order to make health services accessible, and easily available to people, rural health units, offering basic integrated health services were developed according to the needs of the local people. Such units provided basic health services only and about special medical cases to the care of specialized physicians.

Services were provided by the unit directly covering communicable disease control including vaccinations, health education, maternal and child health, family planning, hygiene in housing and some phases of general medical care.

The health units were staffed with a doctor and a small team of nursing, midwifery and auxiliary staff.

In the rural health unit the staff operated on a teamwork basis, with the necessary division of labour performed, so that the greatest possible use was made of available technical skills without duplication of effort or friction or wastage of resources, which were often limited.

The doctor played unique role in the health team, partly for historical reasons and partly because of the length and character of his training. Nevertheless, he was only one of several partners in the health team, and his efficiency depended greatly on the cooperation and acceptance of all other team members.

The Regional Medical Director was responsible for the execution of the mass campaign in respective regions. He was a member of the regional RDC Committee. For the execution of the operation, intermediate and secondary school students were involved in the health component of the mass campaign. They were strengthened in some places by students of the Health Personnel, Nurse training Institute, Red Crescent volunteers and health workers from the Crash Programmes.

CURATIVE AND VACCINATION TEAMS:

In the Regions, the Health Component of the RDC was working with 2 kinds of Health Teams: Curative and Vaccination.

The Regional Health Inspector was responsible for the Mass Campaign as the chief-delegate of the Regional Medical Officer. In the district, the District Medical Officer was responsible for the supervision of the operation.

Since the district are subdivided into a variable number of villages and sub-villages, accordingly a curative and a vaccination team was assigned, composed of 2 vaccinators, and a nurse accompanied by a trained Guulwade. Two vaccinators were always kept in reserve to be sent to areas where reinforcement was needed.

The district health officer of the rural health unit was made fully aware of the unmet community needs and the broad areas for which adequate technical programme were to be developed, in accordance with the sources which the Region or the district has made available.

However, the day-to-day administration and technical functioning, and supervision over the staff was a duty of the health officer. This helped the unit to work satisfactorily and the health team members to keep up their enthusiasm, pride and sense responsibility.

The district health officer in command of the rural health unit felt accountable to the local community for successfully carrying out his responsibility for protection of the health of the community in the most efficient and economic manner, within the limits of resources made available by the community.

The rural health officer had the opportunity to make a unique contribution through his utilization of epidemiological knowledge as well as that of public health administration, to organize and develop programmes for the maintenance of health and control of diseases.

The organization operated satisfactorily. It gave the people a sense of security by offering elementary services for the common ailments and disorders.

The rural health unit met its responsibility with increasing popular confidence successfully, since the programme was built on the needs of the local community.

Community health programmes were not static. They underwent constant changes and development. The programme was flexible, in terms of responding felt needs and available resources, and was apt for modification to meet the new public health problems as they became locally recognized.

The team met its direct responsibility to the public in matters affecting community health not only

by rendering certain direct services but also by providing stimulation and leadership to assure that other necessary services and facilities will be made available in the appropriate time. It actively assisted the community in the identification of their health problems, their main causes and utilising means for their prevention and control. It determined the wishes of the community, through the Village Health Council, about the broad areas in which public health action needed to be organized, and mobilized its entire effort for efficiently meeting those health needs through offering basic health services.

The efficiency of the unit was essentially dependent upon the knowledge exercised by its leadership in planning, training, management, together with the constant supervision offered through an enthusiastic Regional Medical Officer.

The leadership provided by the physician was dynamic, Sympathetic, considerate and human, with full understanding of human and technical limitations.

The availability of good roads and means of transportation had their impact on the shape and pattern of health organization. Development of health facilities at points within easy access to homes has been kept in mind and considered to meet the needs of the rural areas.

In general, the whole public health team was oriented to the attainment of maximum achievement with the limited resources available.

It became important, therefore, to define the optimum responsibilities of the rural local health unit, to specify the general type of services to be provided and to select appropriate methods in the solution of the more common public health problems in the rural areas.

Recognizing the poor health status of the people residing in rural areas a policy was adopted for providing assistance. It was designed to establish preventive and curative services. Consideration was given to disease patterns, which are different in various parts of the country.

A great emphasis was placed on the prevention component of the rural health services, to decrease the sickness load and the expense of future medical care.

Vaccination services were the main component of the health activities in the campaign. The programme chiefly was concerned with the launching of mass vaccination in smallpox and BCG for children. Vaccination is a simple public health activity, but its responsibility is great. The whole health apparatus, was mobilized together with the communities to shoulder the responsibility of protecting their own health. Without local involvement, participation, stimulation of community interest and dedicated assumption of responsibility by the local people, public health problems would not have achieved the obtained results. Smallpox and cholera which had their outbreak in the neighbouring countries and tuberculosis which is a menace to the nation, would have remained uncontrolled in the majority of the rural communities, if it was not for this health campaign. A large majority of the rural population was covered with preventive vaccinations.

In general, vaccination teams were organized at the regional level, while the curative teams were organized at the district and village levels and coordinated from Regional Headquarters. The Regional Health Inspector was responsible for the Mass campaign as the chief-delegate of the Regional Medical Director. In the districts, the District Medical Officer was responsible for

the supervision of the curative teams. The districts were subdivided into a variable number of sectors for each of which a curative team was assigned.

In some districts, the teams were combined, vaccination and curative, because the population were running away from pure vaccination teams.

MALARIA DETECTION:

The task of the health campaign consisted of taking blood samples for malaria case detection, which was carried out very satisfactorily, in most Districts.

In some districts a great number of blood samples have been taken revealing positive infection by malaria. This was reported regularly to the central RDC Committee and to the National Anti-Malaria Service in Mogadishu.

TABLE I.

NUMBER OF BLOOD SAMPLES AND POSITIVE
MALARIA CASES REGISTERED DURING THE RDC

Regions	Samples	Positive Cases
1. Nugal	380	56
2. Sanag	—	—
3. Hiiraan	9621	1555
4. Mudug	1477	137
5. Togdheer	2080	419
6. Galguduud	1434	55
7. Lower Shabelle	56333	8040
8. Central Shabelle	10001	2610
9. Lower Jubba	38870	4172
10. Bay	3467	494
11. Bakol	400	59
12. Gedo	2692	626

13. North-West	2382	294
14. Bari	453	9
Total	129690	18526

TUPERCULOSIS AND SMALLPOX

The combined BCG/Smallpox mobile vaccination teams were established in the regions. They used to work in a district covering all its villages and then shift to the next one.

In all places visited by the writer, vaccination technique was properly carried out, serious complications or strong reactions were not observed. BCG and Smallpox vaccines were distributed from TB and Smallpox Projects to the Regions, then under the Regional Supervisor, to the districts, where the vaccines were stored in the health institutions, or in some places in private refrigerators. The vaccine was supplied to the working team every 7-10 days in ice-boxes by the supervisory bodies from the district level.

Consolidated reports based on the standard Daily Work Sheets received from the districts were prepared at the Regional Health Department, and submitted to the RDC Officer in the Ministry of Health.

Within the RDC period all Districts were covered, but due to the movements of the nomadic population in some areas, repetitive rounds were organized in order to catch those who were missed during the first round.

In order to check the vaccination coverage, scar assessment was carried out at random in some regions/Districts by the writer who found that 90% of the population in the area were vaccinated in Smallpox and 70% in BCG, approximately.

TUBERCULOSIS CASE DETECTION:-

Due to shortage of personnel and transport facilities, the sputum microscopy for case detection in the field was practically impossible but still sputum collection or preparation of sputum slides were carried out and dispatched to the nearest existing laboratory, where the cases were detected and reported.

As a result of health education and motivation by the curative teams in the field quite a great number of TB patients were detected. These patients were registered in the Basic Health Service for long-term treatment and provided with drugs. Some of them started their streptomycin injection from the curative teams.

These achievements made a significant contribution to the development of TB control activities.

Vaccine preservation in freezer posed difficulties. Such freezers were not always available in the remote areas. Physical reaction to vaccination, caused much inconvenience and discomfort to the farmer, which disabled him temporarily, due to the swelling of the arm and the underlying pain and fever. These have caused, in many occasions, a total refusal of the shot. But, compromise was always reached between the two parties and the vaccination programme was carried out successfully, shortly afterwards.

All kinds of transport were utilized at different times, however, reliance was placed mostly on government mechanized transport, though very often team workers had to walk for miles or ride bicycles or make use of donkeys, bullocks and camels for transportation, because mechanized transport had no way to proceed due to bad roads or because of no roads at all.

ENVIRONMENT SANITATION:

Food hygiene is mostly overlooked. Neglected environmental sanitation is a major health problem in the rural areas of the country which is responsible for the largest number of communicable diseases and intestinal parasite infestation.

It is obvious that both water supply and excreta collection and disposal system in the rural areas are highly unsatisfactory. This was considered a major area in which the health team was to be active.

Illness attracts attention and is readily felt. The RDC has underlined this need and medical care was taken right to the people's door, over-looking the difficulties of implementation and costs. Thousands and thousands of people have been treated of the major diseases, as in table II.

There were only one or two hospitals in a whole region serving the rural population. Thus, hospital care, it could be said, was available to only a negligible number of people in the area. The creation of mobile health teams has opened the doors of a new system to reach the unreachable rural man.

TABLE II.
NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS TREATED DURING
— THE RDC OF VARIOUS DISEASES —

	Cases Treated	BCG
Regions	110737	18572
Nugai	130556	52847
Sanag	41400	122742/3
Hiraan	39259	16909
Togdheer	44053	16295
Togdug	36596	89261
Mudug	302778	87061
Shabelle	75413	23533
Gowar	21499	105940
Shabelle	96191	84121
Jubba		

11. Bakol	163817	8152
12. Gedo	122991	37212
13. North-West	130461	31575
14. Bari	49900	9205
Total	1613125	512955

A good number of families have succeeded in erecting latrines and excreta disposals. Combined with great interest in cleanliness and sanitation of water, the situation cooperatively changed. Before the RDC was that villagers disposed their excretes in the open space and immediately behind their houses.

Latrines in the form of bricks or mud construction were encouraged and succeeded in many villages. This arrangement, though not completely satisfactory is comparatively better than defecation in open fields, in the rural areas. It may be expected that this arrangement would contain the spread of much hookworm infection (which has been reported to be very common in the rural areas). In cases where this arrangement was impossible, advice was given to go far away from houses in the neighbouring fields, jungles or uncultivated areas and sit at places screened by bushes, to answer the call of nature. People usually picked areas where there were depressions in the earth and the area surrounded by bushes. They left faecal matters usually covered with leaves or sometimes with earth before leaving.

Continuous supervision and the organisation of a sanitary-day has improved the situation.

In many occasions, the health vaccinating team, collaborated with the veterinary team. The latter travelled with their mobile J - 15 and ice freezers were always available for preservation of vaccines. They travelled together in their venture, making use of one's presence for the benefit of the other, and thus accomplished the impossible task in the deep inaccessible parts of the rural areas.

One has to acknowledge the heroism, diligence and sense of mission and responsibility displayed by the health teams in the face of extreme hardship. They risked their lives several times. Some were bitten by snakes and the danger of wild animals often was unavoidable. One has to admit the successful performance of this enterprise to the selfless and courageous services rendered by the student teachers and the «Guulwadayaal».

After six months of continuous mass literacy campaign, the health standard of the population was brought to a better level. The rural man, has become aware of his needs in the field of health, and what and whom to look for, if necessities arise. He has become conscious of the need of preventing the preventable and curing the curable diseases. That individual who for the first time tasted the tablet or got a shot understood the importance and the usefulness of seeking medical care in the initial stage of the disease. He travelled miles from his area whenever health facilities were not feasible.

He has become aware of the need of being clean, of boiling water, and keeping the sanitation of his environment at a higher level than before. He became aware that he was deprived of many modern medical facilities, and now he has the full right to receive their benefits.

He now raises the question: Who is going to satisfy my medical requirements, when needs arise after the RDC is over? He is now worried, about what did not worry him before the RDC. The RDC has created for him a critical situation for which he alone cannot find the proper solution. He is now looking for future help, to have his health safe from diseases and ailments. He is asking that his children and wife be protected for longer life. In short he is asking for the protection of his whole community.

THE ROLE OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL ORGANISATIONS IN HEALTH DEVELOPMENT

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Permit me to offer you brief reflections on the general question of mass mobilization for the promotion of better health generally and, more specifically, the promotion of better food and nutrition policies and practices. Obviously, political and social organisations are involved in all aspects of development, health promotion being one aspect of the overall development strategy.

To begin with, the main political organ of our country, the Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party has adopted a party programme which spells out the socialist oriented strategy towards self-reliance and development. the SRSP programme provides an outline of national development policies, including health development. The recently held Extraordinary Congress of the SRSP has also adopted the new three year plan. The Plan envisages total expenditures in the health sector of 101.4 million shillings for the three-year period. The annual breakdown of these expenditures are as follows:

1979	1980	1981
32.1 Million So. Sh.	47.9 Million So. Sh.	21.9 Million So. Sh.

Party guidance of development planning in Somalia, therefore, gives this political organ the **crucial** policy and budget formulation role in health development.

Party organs are also involved in the task of implementing such policies. The Central Committee of

the SRSP has a Bureau for Social Affairs which helps, not only in the formulation of health, education and related social policies, it is also provided with the means to overview and assist in government implementation of social policies and regulations.

Party organs at the lower levels are involved in implementing development policies. At all levels, including the very grass-roots levels, the SRSP has a party Secretary responsible for Social Affairs including the promotion of better health. In various tasks connected with preventive medicine, in campaigns against small-pox, tuberculosis, bilharzia, malaria and other diseases, the Party person responsible for social affairs plays a key role in mobilizing the masses in his district or area. The Party is also involved at the grass-roots level in assisting health education including nutrition and domestic science schools.

Working hand in hand with the Party in carrying development policies are the social or mass organisations: the General Federation of Somali Trade Unions (GFSTU), the Somali Revolutionary Youth Union (SR YU), the Somali Women Democratic Organisation (SW DO) the Movement of Somali Cooperative Organisations (MSCO) and the «Guulwadayaal» (Victory-Pioneer Militia Forces). These organisations have executive organs at the national, regional, district and area levels. In these organs there is invariably some one responsible for social affairs (health and related sectors). The women organisation, the SWDO for example, is actively involved in matters pertaining to mothers and child-care: food, nutrition, basic hygiene, domestic science education etc. The MSCO is involved in promoting various types of cooperatives the agricultural cooperatives are involved in, among other things, the crucial task of producing more and better food. They constitute a backbone in the national at-

tempt to attain Food-Self-sufficiency by 1980. There are also cooperatives involved in distribution of food stuffs and medicines, including vitamins and vaccines which are important in assuring better nutrition and health.

Let us all recall that the Party and Government structures implement pricing policies aimed at assuring modest prices for basic food-stuffs, for the benefit of the poor majority of our people.

In case of scarcities, these structures assure fair distribution through a system of rationing. Our political and social organisations have, through mass orientation centres, distributed sugar at a modest fixed price throughout the country.

This important task was conducted for several months during the period when the world-wide crisis had created sugar shortages. The alternative would have been to allow the market to sky-rocket national sugar prices thereby making this basic foodstuff available only to the well-to-do few. Today, sugar is once again sold in shops with the Party and Government still fixing the price in order to make this vital commodity within the means of the many. The ongoing Juba Sugar Project will eventually not only make Somalia self-sufficient in Sugar production, it will enable us to enter the camp of sugar exporting countries.

The party organs and those of the SRYU are actively involved in the various Agricultural Crash Programmes aimed at attaining self-sufficiency in food and other agricultural commodities. Accordingly, we can see that the political and social organisations are playing crucial roles in food production, distribution and mass mobilization for health education campaigns and projects.

A good start has been made, but more remains to be done. The SRSP was established very recently, on July 1st 1976. The social organisations mentioned above were reconstituted during 1977. Therefore, they have not yet realized their full potential as organs for overall development, including health development. Nevertheless, the Party and the social organisations linked at it did not fall from the sky in 1976 and 1977. They have behind them a solid history of organisational efforts aimed at promoting development campaigns. Soon after the 1969 Revolution, the then Supreme Revolutionary Council created a Public Relations Office, which soon developed into a Political Office for mass political mobilization, education and organisation. The Political Office consisted of a pro-Party structure linked to departments for workers, youth, women and Victory Pioneers (militia).

In 1974, an ambitious Rural Development Campaign was launched consisting of:

- i) Rural literacy,
- ii) Public health campaign
- iii) Animal health and
- vi) Census

The public health component involved:

1. — Preventing Communicable diseases from spreading in the Villages,
2. — Prolonging life and
3. — Promoting health and efficiency through organising the community for:-
 - a) Sanitation of the environment;

- b) Control of communicable infections
- c) Organization of medical and nursing services for early diagnosis and preventive treatment of diseases and
- d) Education of the individual in personal hygiene,
- e) Development of social structure capable of insuring everyone a standard of living adequate for the maintenance of health.

The RDC health unit covered communicable diseases control including vaccinations, health education, maternal and child health, family planning, hygiene in housing and some phases of general medical care. Dr. A. S. Abbas in his paper on «Health Implications of the Rural Development Campaign» (1) 'observes:' «Since the districts are subdivided into a variable number of villages and sub-villages, accordingly a curative and a vaccinating team was assigned, composed of 2 vaccinators, and a nurse accompanied by a trained Guulwade» (2). In fact, the Victory-Pioneers (Guulwade) as well as other elements under the Political Office of the SRC, played important roles in the 'RDC' involving rural mass literacy and health.

All regional and district representatives of the then Political Office of the SRC were actively involved not only in the organization of the RDC but in all the day to day tasks carried out to insure its success. (3) In his paper, Dr. A. S. Abbas remarks: «The district health Officer in command of the rural health unit felt accountable to the local community for successfully carrying out his responsibility for protection of the health of the community in the most efficient and economic manner, with in the limits of resources made available by the communi-

ty" (4). Now, «being accountable to the local community» could imply various things depending on the concrete historical conditions of various countries. In some countries, this could imply being accountable to a local chief or King, together with his entourage of local notables (mostly landlords). In revolutionary Somalia, this essentially implies being accountable to the organised representatives of the community constituted in basic committees of the political and social organisations.

At another point in his paper, Dr. Abbas writes: «The availability of good roads and means of transportation had their impact on the shape and pattern of health organization. Development of health facilities at points within easy access to homes has been kept in mind and considered to meet the needs of the rural areas» (5). During the RDC, the political and social organs mobilized the masses to create new roads. These only facilitated the implementation of the campaign, they also bound the previously isolated village with the district market. Thus, trade and other social activities began to emerge in these previously isolated villages.

The health aspect of the RDC involved, among other things administering blood sample tests to 129,696 persons of which 18,526 showed positive malaria cases. Extensive work was also undertaken to detect tuberculosis and small-pox cases. A total of 1,613,125 individuals were treated of various diseases during the RDC.

The RDC helped to close the urban-rural gap. It has made the rural person conscious of the need of preventing the preventable and curing the curable diseases.

Dr. Abbas concluded thus: «Without local involvement, participation, stimulation of community interest and de-

dedicated assumption of responsibility by the local people. public health programmes would not have achieved the obtained results. Small-box and cholera which had their outbreak in the neighbouring countries and tuberculosis which is a manace to the nation, would have remained uncontrolled in the majority of the rural communities, if it was not covered with preventive vaccinations» (6). The political and social organisations played pivotal roles in the «stimulation of community interest and dedicated assumption of responsibility by local people». This fact was once again demonstrated in the campaign to fight the severe drought that afflicted Somalia in 1974-1975. It was also demonstrated in the campaign to wipe out small-box from Somalia. The excellent WHO film on the small-box campaign fully reveals the role of political and social organisations for example, several shots depict mass health education gatherings held at revolutionary orientation centres.

In involving itself so actively in the RDC and other campaigns, the Political Office of the RDC and its structures were able to mature and develop into the SRSP and the social organisations mentioned above.

Let us once again emphasise the point that much more needs to be done. In order to facilitate greater progress in future it is necessary, among other things, to break down the barrier between the so-called reds and experts, in terms of health this means closing the gap between the political and social cadres and the technical cadres of the Ministry of Health and related agencies. Among other things, it is necessary:

- a) To select more technical cadres from the Ministry of Health to attend the Party Political Institute and related courses for political education, mobilization and education;

- b) To include courses on health, hygiene, food and nutrition sciences and policies for the cadres of the political and social organisation;
- c) Creation or strengthening development oriented committees consisting of political and technical cadres;

A political or social organisation cadre or leader who is also professionally an expert is better able to win the confidence of the local people he is expected to mobilize and organise. Such a leader/cadre is also better able to participate in the process of formulating sound health policies, programmes or projects.

The philosopher Aristotle once talked about philosopher kings essentially he meant men of action, decision-makers who are at the sametime highly knowledgeable. The division between reds and experts must be bridged to create reds who are also experts and experts who are at th same time red. It is important to have Ministry of Health officials and cadres who understand, appreciate and even participate in the task of better facilitating the role of political and social organisations in promoting overall development and health development in particular.

A political cadre who simply talks about «mass mobilization» often falls into the pitfalls of opportunism, demagoguery and «afminsharism» .. (romour-mongering) He or she often fears for the loss of his job and this narrow concern may make him lose sight of the general good. His lack of technical or organisational ability quite often makes the masses turned off by his endless speeches and slogans. On the other hand, a «technical» who shuns the need to mobilize, educate and organise the people for their own self-improvement falls into the pitfall of «bureaucra-

tism»: he or she becomes a narrow «technocrat» and cannot inspire the people to accept and implement whatever he is supposed to teach them. That is why we stress the need to develop rural development personnel who are both politically aware and professionally competent. At the very least, professional competent people, the experts, must realise, appreciate and facilitate the role and function of political and social organs in order to promote development. They must do their best to improve the functioning of all committees or units in which they jointly reserve with the political cadres.

Let me add a few remarks with regard to the current stage of our political evolution: the stage of adopting a national constitution with a provision for a National Assembly. This organ and related bodies at the local levels could play a vital role in adopting health policies and in overseeing their administration and implementation. The National Assembly and related organs will most likely, look into health affairs budgets, foreign aid and relations with regards to health matters public complaints about health and social matters, etc. This new organ will complement the others mentioned above.

Thank you very much for listening to these exploratory reflections.

NOTES

1. Dr. A. S. Abbas, Health Implications of the Rural Development Campaign in Somalia, paper presented to the third Frantz Fanon Centre International Conference, Mogadishu June 18th-24th.
2. Ibid, P. 3
3. See, also in this connection, the paper by Mr. Omar Osman, «The Impact and Contribution of Literacy to-

wards Rural Development in Somalia», paper presented to the Third Frantz Fanon Centre International Conference.

4. Dr. A. S. Abbas, of cit., P. 4
5. Ibid, P. 5
6. Ibid, P. 6

RESEARCH ON TRADITIONAL SOMALI MEDICINE

By. Dr. Abdullahi S. Elmi

— I N T R O D U C T I O N —

TRADITIONAL MEDICINE

It gives me great pleasure to deliver to you a brief statement on the question of traditional medicine in Somalia, my remarks will dwell on the beginnings of a systemente national research programme on traditional medicine some years ago, traditional medicine seemed to be condemned to extinction. Recently, there are numerous signs of the awakening of interest for traditional medicine on the part of several countries and even on the part of the WHO.

It is an important goal for every country, even the most developed ones, to provide adequate and accessible health care facilities to everybody in the community. Reaching this goal is not an easy task especially for developing countries where the financial, physical and manpower resources are very limited. Besides the chances of discovering new and therapeutically interesting compounds, herbal medicine may play an important role in the delivery of primary health care. The demand for indigenous medicine is constantly increasing everywhere.

Pharmacists and physicians of developing countries who had their training in Western countries, are not fully aware of the nature and extent of indigenous systems of therapy and the effects these may have for the health care of the communities.

What is often lacking is, organized and systematic research based on multidisciplinary studies to sort

out useful remedies from harmful or useless ones.

In many countries of the Third World, too much attention has been on the so called Western medicine and traditional ways of therapy have been discouraged. Fortunately this trend is now changing and a good number of scientists and health authorities feel the need to revalue the use of medicinal plants.

TRADITIONAL MEDICINE IN SOMALIA

In Somalia, as well as in other African countries, therapy with medicinal plants plays an important role in the health care of the people along with Western medicine.

From ancient times, people in Somalia have been able to make use of natural resources to cure the sick.

The health policy of the Somali Government, is to make health care accessible to every citizen, even those living in the most remote areas of the country. About 70% of Somali population live in rural areas. In these areas the indigenous systems of therapy have much better «consumer approval» than synthetic drugs. It is also very common, that people who live in the cities, consult herbalists and other traditional medical practitioners. In urban areas the disease for which most frequently the help of traditional healers is required are: gastrointestinal disorders, diabetes, rheumatic diseases, sterility, central nervous system diseases, sinusitis, hepatitis and circulatory disorders. It is not rare that the consultation with the herbalist take place after treatment by a physician.

Putting medicinal plants to better use has always been a matter of concern in Somalia. However,

systematic research into medicinal plants started only recently. The delay is due to the fact that, until very recently the country was lacking of institutions and scientific manpower capable of undertaking such research.

There is still much to discover about the flora of Somalia which presents marked differences with those of neighbouring countries. Not much has been done during colonial times. Independent Somalia has firstly cared to a massive, but carefully phased programme of training to ensure a gradual build up of a leadership in various disciplines of scientific research and technological capabilities. This applied also to the field of medicinal plants.

Not much has been published on indigenous systems of use of medicinal herbs. Since the publication of Glover's checklist in 1974, there have not been exhaustive studies on the flora of the country. Because acquisitive of knowledge by traditional healers comes through oral transmission, by apprenticeship and initiation, native medicine is still surrounded by great secrecy.

Not all traditional medical practitioners in Somalia make use of medicinal plants. A good number of traditional healers apply religious systems and preach of the supernatural to cure the sick. Other systems of traditional therapy are: Psychotherapy, cauterization, use of animal and mineral products, prevention surgery etc. Herbal medicine is however, the popular.

Health planners, in Somalia, are now considering the role that herbal remedies can play in primary health care.

PRESENT STATE OF RESEARCH ON MEDICINAL PLANTS IN SOMALIA

The Ministry of Health, the Somali National University and the National Academy of Sciences and Arts are carrying out studies tending to foster the accomplishment of better use of medicinal plants in the light of modern science.

i) MINISTRY OF HEALTH

The Ministry of Health has established in 1973 a Centre for the promotion and rationalization of the use of medicinal plants. In this centre traditional herbalists and Western trained doctors are working together. Somali herbal remedies are prepared following traditional recipes. The safety of these preparations and their efficacy are controlled by doctors and other trained personnel. The preparations are made both in traditional and modern pharmaceutical forms. The Ministry is planning to potentiate this centre and create in different parts of the country.

ii) SOMALI NATIONAL UNIVERSITY

One of the research programmes to which top priority has been given since the creation of scientific faculties of the university was the research into medicinal plants. A programme of research has been established. Some of the objectives of the programme are:

a) To promote the integration of proven valuable knowledge in herbal and modern medicine;

b) To stimulate and cooperate to the realization of Somali Traditional Pharmacopoeia;

- c) To reduce the country's drug bill;
- d) To help in the establishment of a national pharmaceutical industry;
- e) To aid in the economic and commercial exploitation of medicinal plants by promoting their cultural use and marketing.

Since the research can be carried out only by a multidisciplinary team, the realization of this programme has been entrusted to a group of researchers from the faculties of Medicine, Agriculture, Chemistry and Veterinary of the National University. So, rather than interdisciplinary we can say that ours is an inter faculty team.

For this research, a complete analysis is needed of all information relating to medicinal plants, the way they are used and their characteristics.

The whole work is divided into phases. The initial phase is that of collection of medicinal plants in all regions of the country, their classification and arrangement in herbarium. Distribution of each plant throughout the country, its vernacular names and use in popular medicine are recorded. According to the information gathered and to the literature, the interesting plants pass to the subsequent phases.

In the second phase, the interesting plants or parts of them undergo chemical extraction; the extracts containing the active principles are then tested in their biological activities. For this purpose, experiments are set to determine the pharmacological and toxicological activities of the plants. The extracts that look interesting are further analysed chemically in order to isolate and identify the active principles.

Agronomic studies of the therapeutically interesting plants are carried out. For this purpose, the chosen plants are cultivated in proper areas and studied in their productivity and content of active compounds.

All scientific and practical information are passed to the Ministries of Health; Livestock, Forestry and Range; Agriculture and other competent Ministries and Agencies.

Interesting scientific outcomes and findings get proper diffusion among pharmacists, physicians, veterinarians, nurses, and other health personnel.

Until now about two thousand specimens have been collected, classified and placed in herbarium. More than three hundred of these are used as herbal remedies. The information of the plants used, have been collected by interviewing practicing herbal healers in urban and rural areas.

The laboratory of natural products of the Faculty of Chemistry has treated systematic work of extraction, separation and purification of chemical constituents. Pharmacological and microbiological tests are carried out by the Laboratory of pharmacology of the Faculty of Medicine.

Traditional Medicine is one of the basic subjects taught at the Faculty of Medicine. The teaching does not stop in the classrooms. Future physicians have in fact, the opportunity to travel in rural areas and learn from herbalists and other traditional medical practitioners, the indigenous systems of therapy.

Traditional Medicine plays an important role

in the Department of Community Medicine of the Medical Faculty. This Department has centres both in rural and urban areas. Those centres help students to be less hospital minded, learning more about the health state of the community, epidemiology, prevention and less dispensicious and sophisticated means and ways of treatment. Among other things the students in these centres, have good opportunities of learning about useful herbal remedies.

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCE AND ARTS

The National Academy of Sciences and Arts is a new institution. A major objective of the Academy is the promotion and co-ordination of research in the country. Research into medicinal plants is included as one of the top priority research programme of this institution.

The above description, gives an idea of the great efforts that are being made at all levels in order to put medicinal plants to better use, lending to it the necessary scientific support.

We attribute great importance to the co-operation among research workers in different institutions and countries. The new role assigned to the Istituto Italo-Africano as Co-ordinative Center of the WHO for Traditional Medicine, will, I am sure, greatly contribute to the strengthening of collaboration among research institutions in different countries and, therefore, speed up the progress in this field of science.

We would like to learn as much as possible from the experience of others on this and related matters.

HUMAN DEVELOPMENT AND COMMUNITY MEDICINE; A SOMALI MODEL

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INTRODUCTION:

Number of factors play their role in human development. A person involved in community medicine is deeply concerned with the human development in rural as well as in urban community.

Here we are presenting our involvement in the Beledamin village for initiating the preventive and curative medical help for the small population of this village.

This involvement represent also an educational process of the medical students of the faculty of Medicine and Surgery of Somali National University.

THE COMMUNITY

Beledamin is a village with population of 1103, is situated in the region of Lower Shabelli in the Afgoi District at 18 Km. from the chief town, on the left bank of Shabelli river.

The ways of access to Beledamin are all earth roads. They are suitable for all types of vehicles but they are impracticable during the rainy seasons, sometimes also to cross-country vehicles. During this time the river constitutes the only way of access, but no boats are available.

POPULATION

Out of 1103, 455 inhabitants (41%) are under 15 years of age. There is one primary school for education of the children with 6 teachers. But 50% of people over 10 years are still illiterate.

Seven satellite villages with the population of nine hundred inhabitants, depend both socio-economically and administratively on Beledamin. All these villages lay on the other side of the river and can be reached through four hand driven ferries. The boys of these villages have to go to Beledamin in order to attend primary school walking from 30 minutes to 2 hours.

WOMEN CONDITION

Out of 1103, 567 inhabitant (51%) are female and 536 (49%) are male.

Women work both at home, cooking and cleaning the house and in the fields; they carry on the products of the soil and provide water supply by conveying on their back tied to their heads the traditional containers.

We have no figures of miscarriages and problems in deliveries, but according to our indirect investigations, problems due to foetopelvic disproportion are not infrequent and we know the pelvis deformation can oc-

cur both because of malnutrition and by carrying on heavy weights on back and head.

The traumatic female circumcision is widely practiced in Beledamin.

Deliveries are attended by some old untrained T.B.As.

THE FAMILY

Most of the men have one family in the same house; some of them have more than one in the same house and some have one or two other families in other villages.

We could't get figures about divorces, but we have realized that they are very frequent. Main causes seem to be infertility, repugnant and supposed incurable women diseases (e. g. urinary-vaginal fistula which is due to badly conducted obstetric cares during deliveries).

Children receive attention by the parents; but their nutrition usually is not well cared and they have to share with adults the common family dish.

Family ties are strongly felt and respected.

OCCUPATION

99.9% of the population are farmers. Some of them working on their cooperative farms, others earning their salary in state or public agencies farms.

Fields are irrigated through a network of small channels through the overflow of the river, very few motor pumps being available.

Main soil products are: maize, sesame, gourds, red beans, tomatoes, and also a few banana and pawpaw.

Many families breed poultry and sometimes they catch fish in the river. Livestock breeding and its connected activities are practiced by only a minority of the population.

FOOD

Maize is the staple food; besides this, people are fond of sesame oil (which is considered source of strength, especially from sexual point of view) and milk. Poultry and eggs are sold and also other soil products constitute a source of money more than of nutrition. Fish too is rarely eaten. The main source of calories is maize.

Meat is considered a luxury food to be used on special occasions, like religious festivals, mournings etc. Those who can afford eat meat with oil every day and consume some amount of milk.

No special type of food is given to children and pregnant mothers.

WATER SUPPLY

The unique source of water is the river; this water is used indiscriminately for drinking, washing and cooking without any previous treatment.

The traditional water containers (ashun) are carried by women.

As water is not filtered, chlorinated or boiled the incidence of parasitic infestation is quite high.

The river being considered a source of life, any treatment of water is against the deep feeling of the people.

HOUSING

Beledamin consists of 265 compounds. Each compound is basically constituted by two or three «mundul» and one «arish». Mundul has cylindrical walls covered by a conic roof which rests on a wooden pole in the middle of the house: the walls are constructed as a primitive form of reinforced concrete in the sense that long wooden sticks hammered into the ground substitute steel and mud (as a mixture of sand and animal excrement) is used instead of cement. A grass roofing on wooden sticks and a rough floor materials of mundul but the grass roofing is frequently substituted by «makuti» which is produced from the palm tree leaves. A courtyard is often covered for shading.

In each house average there are 4.1 persons staying. The houses are well ventilated but not with sufficient light, especially munduls. There is sufficient open space for children to play.

Many houses have a special enclosure for bathing.

EXCRETA DISPOSAL

Only 61 compounds in Beledamin - and no one in satellite villages - have a latrine.

The excreta disposal is done totally randomly with a consequent high degree of environmental pollution.

The habit of walking barefooted associate with this kind and degree of pollution results in infestation by hookworms and, through the snails, schistosoma haematobium.

ADMINISTRATION

A five members committee - plus the chiefs of the satellite villages, presided by the «Guddoomiye» (Chairman) represents the local Authority of the District who resides in Afgoi.

In fact, only the good will and the intelligence of the Vice-President of the committee has allowed us to carry out our work.

TRADITIONS

Beledamin people are very religious. The mosque is the only building made up of stone. Some Sheikhs have a deep influence on the people.

This religious attitude affects also health problems. The intervention of the Sheikh for healing purposes is often required. Many psychosomatic troubles can, and actually do, be cured successfully by the Shekh.

We have always respected religious Authorities and religious feelings of the people. We also helped in repairing the Mosque.

Besides religion there are also traditional healers who practice burns and «witch-doctors» (bahar) who use both medical herbs and magic practices.

Since the beginning of our work we tried to get in touch with them; we succeeded only after one year.

The deeply rooted fatalistic attitude of the people is clearly a hindrance to an action of transformation of the reality which is a condition without which a

fully human development cannot take place.

ENVIRONMENT

During dry seasons the continuous blowing of the wind rises plenty of dust and sand, so that people live in unceasing dusty atmosphere (bronchitis and asthma are very common).

During and after rainy seasons, or also out of these when the river, whose regime depends on Ethiopian highland rain amount, overflows, many temporary water bodies surround the villages. They constitute breeding sites for mosquitos (*Anopheles Gambiae* is the main and almost only vector of malaria) and a suitable habitat for a lot of snails; among them *Bulinus abyssinicus* which is the intermediate host of *Schistosoma haematobium*. Some other bulinus are present but as far as we investigated they do not play a role in schistosomiasis spread out.

Ova and cysts of other human parasites are spread in the soil and in water where children bath and play their games.

2 OUR INVOLVEMENT

Medical facilities were not existing in Beled-amin before our intervention; not even surveys by some of WHO sponsored projects had been made before. Sick people had to go to Afgoi (18 Km afar) by bus or collective taxi in dry seasons, walking in rainy seasons, in order to get nursing or medical assistance or simply drugs.

After getting in touch with constituted Authorities of the village, we explained our purpose and we obtained back a positive response. The committee

the village took in charge the construction of the Health Centre and promised full cooperation for the entire work.

Our work in the field started in 24th March 1978. First operation was to take the census of the eight villages. 24 students and two professors fulfilled the job. The houses had been previously numbered by the same students with the help of some villagers.

THE HEALTH CENTRE

The construction of the centre lasted 6 months. The project was designed by the Arch M. Cantatore according to the models of local houses.

Materials were collected by the villagers, the means of transportation to the village was supplied by the District's Authority.

Representatives of Beledamin and satellite villages participated in the work of construction which was carried during holidays and freetime.

The centre consists of two main parts: part one for medical examinations, laboratory, drugstore, health education, and part two for residence of students and teachers. The basic design is a Beledamin compound, but with sanitary facilities and water reservoir.

The outpatients clinic is constituted by an «arish» with a covered courtyard as waiting-room. Laboratory and store are «mundul».

The residential part of the building is constituted by two «mundul», latrine, shower, covered courtyard and kitchen.

It has been thought as a model of possible better use of the local resources in housing.

No electric power is available in Beledamin and we chose to do without an electric generator both for financial reasons and for educational purposes, at least for the beginning of our work.

It is why the laboratory of the centre is equipped with a plain microscope used under natural light, hand centrifuge; glassware and reagents for urine analysis sputum, blood and faeces examinations are available.

We supplied also the centre with tools for minor surgery.

SURVEYS AND HEALTH CARE

Our activities consists in knowing how the health is and in operating for removing the causes of illnesses and curing sick people.

Surveys were carried out in knowing the prevalence and incidence of urinary schistosomiasis and malaria as these are two of the commonest infections found in this area.

For schistosomiasis urine examination for parasite eggs was done, besides clinical examination and mention of red urine.

Malaria was detected through palpation of the spleen and blood examination for malarial parasites.

Around 40% of the population is affected by urinary schistosomiasis and 20% suffers from malaria. Spleen rate is 27% and parasite rate is 12%.

Those who are suffering from these infections are given curative treatment.

Along with the surveys weekly out patient clinics are runned by us. We have seen many cases of tuberculosis which detected also by sputum examination and mild or moderate malnutrition.

Surveys on nutritional status and anaemia in children and mothers is still in process. Along with this work, infant mortality rate was assessed roughly, which is around 200.

All this work is carried out with the participation of students of IV, V, and VIII semesters.

PARTICIPATION OF THE PEOPLE

To get success in any work for the community involvement is very essential.

Above all the enthusiastic and intelligent cooperation of the assistant president of the Committee of the village, an illiterate man in his sixties, not only has opened all the doors of the village, but allowed us to get the trust of the majority of villagers.

We tried to deepen the participation of people to the management of their health not only by making in charge for the construction of the centre, as mentioned above, but also by a direct involvement in health care.

Since the beginning we asked the committee of the villagers for two boys and two girls, respectively over 18 and 16, sufficiently bright and able to read and write, who could be trained and take in charge of primary health care of the village (s).

After many months two boys in their 19th were sent to Afgoi for their training. No girls were found; the reasons could be a shortage of literate girls of the age required, and, over all, the negative attitude of the families.

Formation consists in a stage of three months at Afgoi Hospital for theoretical and practical introduction to health problems and three months of practical training in Beledamin Centre under supervision of an assistant-professor together with medical students.

MEANS OF TRANSPORTATION

One of the biggest problems we had to face was how to reach the village regularly in all seasons with our students.

We accordingly fought for getting available the proposed programme cross-country cars of the Faculty: some times we could use the Land-rover of the Afgoi Hospital; during rainy seasons, when the roads were closed we use a motor boat, we got from the Ministry of Fishing reaching the villages via river.

3. COMMENTS

Our intervention in Beledamin is a part of a wider enterprise: we are now operating both in rural and urban areas; we are also setting a special project for nomadic people.

During this month of June, 77 students of fourth and fifth semesters are working full time in Afgoi district (which includes Beledamin area) and in Mogadishu in three quarters comprised in Bondhere District.

OBJECTIVES OF OUR WORK

The main objective of this enterprise is to link as much as possible theoretical formation and practical training of medical students to the real needs of Somali population in order to get doctors minded and moulded by the actual dynamics of human development in creative social and individual movements.

At the same time, according to the tasks of the University, which cannot be merely a professional school, but has to be a research laboratory at the service of the Nation, our objective is to create actual models in action of health care and management which could be actual factors of a fully human development.

PEOPLES AS PERFORMERS OF THEIR OWN DEVELOPMENT

The philosophy of our work is to stimulate and emphasize the deep forces and capacities of local community both by taking into account as far as fostering human development-traditional skills and by a full participation in decision making process.

In this way it should be possible, in our opinion, to realize a full and deep «conscientization» as the first step and necessary basis of the development.

The result will certainly be a human sized approach to a better health, which will also be less extensive than the Western or (Northern, one and we must take into account this respect.

EDUCATION TO DEVELOPMENT OF MEDICAL STUDENTS

Many of our students had never been before in a rural village their basic attitude vis-avis of these

villagers was of deep superiority. They ignored the health problems and did not trust in their ability in managing them.

An attitude of this kind is one of the biggest hindrances to a real progress and development.

We think that an actual work of community medicine can break down some of the deep rooted obstacles and prejudices to a fully human development not only in simple and ignorant people of rural villages, but also in sophisticated people of literate and urban milieu.

In this way the students will become conscious both of the inner resources of their fellow people of the bush but also of their ones. They shall realize how to act in order to stimulate and actually produce human development. Medical students when taken to the villages and exposed to the surroundings and problems of the villages, not only they are in a position to understand people's health problems and help, but they themselves learn a lot about the human development from these villagers.

A Somali doctor trained in Western atmosphere is not suitable in all respects to handle the problems of his country. Hence it is very essential to train Somali medical students in Somalia, where they are fully aware of their medical problems, facilities available, beliefs and taboos of the people.

Only so, they will be well equipped and skilled for approaching health problems in a development oriented attitude.

CONCLUSION

This paper is presented on important work recently begun, whose results cannot but be fore seen. We

hope that the heavy task of community medicine and of training in community medicine will be taken on their shoulders by willingful young doctors open to the challenging adventure of the man transforming and humanizing his own world.

AKNOWLEDGEMENT

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THE REVOLUTIONARY DEVELOPMENT OF THE SOMALI LANGUAGE

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PREFACE

The following paper contains excerpts from 3 papers I prepared earlier:

- 1) The Revolutionary Development of the Somali Language, presented at FESTAC, the Black and African Festival of Arts and Culture held in Nigeria, 1976;
- 2) Language and Cultural Development in Somalia, presented to the Frantz Fanon Research and Development Center Conference, port of Spain, Trinidad, 1978; and
- 3) Notes on Somali Studies in Somalia, paper presented at the African Studies Association Annual Meeting in Baltimore, November 1978.

Systematic research and writing on Africa and various African people is still conducted, for the most part, outside Africa and in non-African languages. To a very large extent publications on various African topics - books, monographs, journals - appear in English and French and other European languages.

The emergence of an African polity which relies extensively on its indigenous linguistic resources is therefore worthy of close examination. In education, in

administration, and in the arts, the Somali Democratic Republic has, since 1972, relied on the language of its people -- Somali -- to teach, to process information, and to entertain. Furthermore, Somalia has witnessed the study and publication of information concerning the Somali experience ... an aspect of the general African experience in the Somali language.

This paper will review the revolutionary changes in Somalia which were facilitated by language reform. In conjunction with socialist economic programs, the decree that Somali would be written and become the official language had vast significance for almost all aspects of Somali political and cultural life. Throughout this paper, we will examine the administrative means through which language reform was affected as well as the revolutionary ends it served. We do this with a profound sense that in the Somali case there is a wider lesson for other new states still grappling with their language problems.

THE 1969 REVOLUTION'S SOCIALIST SOLUTIONS TO SOMALI PROBLEMS

For Somalia the years from independence in 1960 through the revolutionary coup d'etat in 1969 represented the era of neo-colonialism, during which the economy floundered under imperialist control and therefore the politics reflected electoral corruption and chaos.

1) Tribalist ideology and practices permeated the social fabric, the cultural (language) heritage was allowed to disintegrate, while the ruling groups rushed slavishly to imitate metropolitan masters. Mohamed Ismail, a Somali poet, responded to this situation in a way which exemplified his people's deepest feelings:

«Oh My friends the Somali Language is very perplexed:
It is all anxiety in its present condition:
The values of its words and expressions are being gagged
by its own people:

Its very back and hips are broken, and

It accuses its own speakers for neglect;

It is weeping with (deep) sorrow;

It is being orphaned and its value is vanishing. . . »

This state of affairs necessitated revolutionary action to achieve a second independence, this time from neo-colonial control. Decisive action came in the form of a popularly supported military coup on October 21st, 1969, led by Jaalle (i.e. Comrade) Mohamed Siyaad Barre. The Somali Revolution, spearheaded by the anti-imperialist Somali Armed Forces, understood, however, that a people's revolution, though nationalist in form due to historical particularities, must be socialist in content to succeed in fulfilling the fundamental needs of the people.

The first Charter of the Somali Revolution, dated October 21, 1969, declared as its objective that of constituting a society based on work, social justice and equality. A year later, the second Charter of the Revolution declared that Somalia had chosen Scientific Socialism as the only way to achieve development, progress and a society based on labour, justice, freedom and equality. The Somali Democratic Republic began to pursue an independent anti-imperialist foreign policy. The SDR became active in the world revolutionary movement which consists of the National Liberation Movements, the progressive struggles in the capitalist-imperialist states and the World Socialist System. It became an active participant in Pan-African and Afro-Arab Affairs.

The nationalisation measures of 1970 destroyed imperialism's hold on the underdeveloped Somali economy. The nationalisation measures of 1975 further weakened the hold of imperialism and its local agents on the crucial economic sectors of Somalia. Serious efforts are being made to give priority to the development of the state and Co-operative sectors for their ultimate triumph in the competition with other sectors. This public sector orientation is clearly indicated in the economic plans that have been adopted. The priority of state and co-operative sectors has been greatly assisted by the nationalisation measures. It is also resulting in new construction programmes many of which benefit from relations with socialist countries. The Democratic Republic declares: «To opt for capitalism as a remedy for social and economic backwardness for such areas shows not only complete lack of historical knowledge but also a native understanding of realities of the present. Are not the so-called underdeveloped countries already functioning under the capitalist system, though sometimes in a primitive and distorted manner? Haven't they been engulfed for decades under the global octopus of imperialist economic expansion? Is it then realistic to prescribe for the sick the very malady he is suffering from like asking a dying diabetic to have more sugar?»

The Somali Democratic Republic also waged campaigns at the cultural level in order to rid itself of the exploitative ideology imposed by colonialism and neo-colonialism. This included campaigns against tribalism, nepotism, and corruption, and campaigns for scientific socialism and international solidarity.

It soon became obvious that a Somali cultural revolution cannot take place without the writing of the Somali language. The very First Charter of the October

21st, 1969 Revolution made this commitment: «To constitute with appropriate and adequate measures, the basic development of the writing of the Somali Language». A National Language Commission was appointed on January 2, 1970. It was charged with the preparation of various educational books in Somali, a grammar book and a dictionary of about 5,000 Somali equivalents for international scientific terms. The Commission was to utilize any suitable script in carrying out its tasks. The final decision on which script to adopt rested with the Supreme Revolutionary Council. The Commission permitted those who carried out academic work on the Somali language to utilize their talents in a historically meaningful way. It was obvious that the October Revolution would transform their previous role as sleep-walkers during neo-colonialism to active participants in a historical drama that included the progressive Somali masses. The Commission reported to the SRC on its progress at the end of July 1972. On October 21st, 1972, the Chairman of the Supreme Revolutionary Council, Jaalle Mohamed Siyaad Barre, after consulting with his language experts, announced the historical decision that a modified version of the Latin script had been adopted for writing the Somali language.

The poem which follows, reflective of Somali attitudes, suggests that the decision was a popular one. Although Somalis bickered over the issue of preferred scripts, there was unity on the issue that only through the ultimate reduction of Somali to any script could Somalia take its place in world history.

«Struggle for Somali Script»

I am a bewildered student

Lost in confusion with four books

Haunted by the teacher's cane

Learning other people's languages
From my generation I have lagged
The boys I bettered boast to me
Of their written languages
O Father of my children
My pen weeps and I shed tears
Tell me now what to learn
Tell me now !!

Come together it's I
Come hither good news in here
It's the good day we opened our eyes
A day unforgettable in history
Our language is to be written
It's to have a script
This has been announced today
We must support our Father Siyaad
And indeed the Revolution
And discard foreign languages
From us this is a notice
For all the world to hear
That who hates our language
Who doesn't want it to be written
Who thought that impossible
See how literacy is spread

Watch the fruits of Revolution
And the literacy campaign
We say with emphasis
Let imperialism lose hope
Let the **afminshar**
(One with the serrated teeth; i.e. a spreader of
rumours) follow suit
As far as we say
With all our ability.

We have belief and confidence
In the goal of the caravan
Never to retract is our pledge.

WRITTEN SOMALI, STATE ADMINISTRATION AND POLITICS

Three months after the adoption of a script for Somali, written Somali officially replaced English and Italian which until then, had been the administrative languages of the country. On January 21st, 1973, all Somali Civil servants took an examination in written Somali. (2) Those who failed were given another opportunity six months later. The decisive implementation of written Somali in state administration guaranteed the Somali language its priority position. Certain elements talked about a longer period of transition during which Somali should gradually attain priority. The SRC rejected such revisionist arguments. Jaalle Maxamed Siyaad Barre defended the radical implementation of written Somali in this way: «The practice of using foreign languages besides the na-

tional one made it impossible in many African countries to fully implement their languages.» (3) Radical change was necessary.

Somalisation of the State Administrative System helped to improve communications and efficiency. The previous situation made the Somali civil service a veritable Tower of Babel. It was a product of the amalgamation of the Italian administrative system in South and the British Administrative system in the North. The resulting merger led to the dire need for interpreters. Two Somali government officials understood each other very well when discussing things orally. But since Somali was not a written official language of administration practices, they often corresponded with each other in English or Italian depending on the regional or educational background. Certain Ministries, such as the Ministry of Justice and Religious Affairs tended to utilise Arabic. Administrative confusion abounded, which impaired efficiency. The excessive use of the telephone reduced the crucial need to keep proper records of all administrative transactions. To function properly, Somali administration obviously needed a huge and expensive translating machinery. Since this was impossible to achieve, only certain administrative laws, regulations and presidential circulars were translated into all the official written languages. Besides, an ever growing number of Somali students were receiving further education in non-English and non-Italian speaking countries. Ever since independence in 1960 a growing number of Somalis were receiving education in 15 different languages in more than 20 countries of the world. How could they function properly in an administrative system which officially honoured written English or Italian ? How could they communicate with colleagues of similar specialisation in written re-

ports? The utilisation of written Somali as an official language has solved all these and other dilemmas.

Using Somali in administrative service has considerably helped to develop the Somali language. At first officials tried to write letters, memos, reports, and notices in a style that was purely imitative of English or Italian. This led to letters and memos that sounded crude, often unintelligible. A natural reaction against this trend developed. An administrative Somali language began to develop. Letters, official reports and memos began to sound precise and pleasing. The «oralism» of everyday Somali had to be eschewed, as well as the crude tone of foreign imitative styles. The need to save paper, ensure other practicalities, such as the efficient storage and retrieval of administrative records, obliges administrative languages to be as precise and to the point as possible. Such a conceptual exercise is not only beneficial in administrative spheres: it tends to bring positive influences in other spheres of language use as well.

Written Somali in administration challenges the language to develop a suitable vocabulary and style to cover all aspects of life politics, law, education, economics, sociology, culture, science and technology. The process of vocabulary development has already been touched upon. That the Somalis quickly developed a necessary vocabulary was due in part to the existence of a large number of distinct roots and also to the very high productivity of the Somali verb derivational system. It is often possible for one root to yield a whole cluster of different conjugations and also supply a group of different nouns.

In the creation of a new Somali vocabulary to meet modern day needs, various methods are utilized. One consists of utilizing the wide range and subtle distinctions

potentially existing in words of everyday speech. Thus «ilaaliye» — Supervisor (lit. one who uses eyes, or a guard of compound), «Wargeys» = Newspaper (lit. «News bearer»), and «Horumar» = Progress (lit. moving forward).

Another method consists of drawing upon traditional vocabulary to provide words and expressions to meet the new demands of modern economic, social and political change. This vocabulary is widely known to the nomads of the interior, especially in their poetic compositions. From this urban populations, are increasingly being restored to current use, often with slightly modified meanings. The modern word for an administrative «director» is «Agaasime» (originally the one who plans the daily search for pastures in nomadic life), the obsolescent word «Xoghaye» = (lit. «Keeper of secrets») has acquired the meaning «Secretary».

• Another method of building up the Somali language and adapting to current needs consists of utilizing, often in a combined form, old roots from both the general everyday speech and the more specialized vocabulary, to add new words. The following are typical examples: «Dayax-gacmeed» = Artificial Satellite (lit. «hand-made moon»), «Hantiwadaag» = Socialism (lit. «wealth-sharing»), «Hubka halista ah» = nuclear weapons (lit. «weapons which are of extreme danger»). Guidance played and continues to play a leading role in these developments. In the sphere of vocabulary innovations, the radio has played an outstanding role. (4) Somali broadcasters take special pride in preserving the purity of the language. Even before the Revolution and the advent of written Somali, Somali broadcasters pioneered in expressing new concepts and ideas while avoiding foreign borrowings as far as possible. This reflects not only the resourcefulness and richness of the Somali language, but also the consci-

ous and unconscious patriotism of Somali broadcasters. The Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party (SRSP) and the Somali mass organisations will play an increasingly important role in the development of Somali.

Institutionally, the Ideological Bureau of the Central Committee of the SRSP and the Bureau for Party Education have a significant, systematic role to play in this challenging process. The role of foreign research and educational institutions must also be acknowledged. Certain Universities have Somali language teaching and/or research programmes, for example, the London School of African and Oriental Studies. In Moscow, the Novosti Press Agency has played a commendable role in developing Somali by publishing books covering various subjects in good written Somali. One of these is an excellent little book called *Dib u dhaca waa laga bixi karaa* («Underdevelopment can be overcome»).

Written Somali has proved efficient in communications both within and between Ministries and Agencies. It has also helped to reduce the former gap between the State and the public. Correspondence between the State and members of the public has increased both in quantity and quality. Ordinary Somalis are now able to read and understand government regulations, legal documents, and financial transactions which affect their lives. They are able to participate in court procedures without the bothersome mediation of interpreters.

As the Somali language is utilized more and more in all aspects of administration there is a correspondingly lower need for Foreign Experts, and a great need to train and rely upon Somali Experts. Somali is now used not only in administrative communications, but also in the running of various training courses for public offi-

cials. The national administrators training centre is the Somali Institute of Development, Management and Administration (SIDAM). Established in 1965 as the Somali Institute of Public Administration (SIPA), SIDAM conducts administrative training courses, research and consultancy assignments for Ministries and Agencies. Under SIDAM also comes a Clerical Training Centre (CTC) offering courses in typing, shorthand, basic accounting and book-keeping, personnel management, office procedures, filing, registry and elementary statistics. This training programme is totally Somalised both in terms of teachers and training materials (text-books). Some of the books prepared are Somali translations of well-known texts, others were prepared after considerable research so as to offer original adaptations to our needs.

At present, we find the following situation with regards to training:

- a) Lower level training programmes are totally Somalised, that is with regards to teachers and training materials;
- b) Middle level training programmes are partially Somalised. The teachers are Somali, but the students have to use training materials written in other languages (English or Italian);
- c) In higher levels, foreign languages are still used, sometimes through interpretations or directly depending on the background of the students involved. In these and other matters of higher education, training and research, the point is not simply to close one's self off from other languages, the issue is to pursue a policy of Somalisation and to subordinate the question of foreign languages as a secondary aspect of the long-range Somalisation strategy. The need to keep up with

international research will always keep alive the need for certain Somalis to study foreign languages.

The cultural revolution implied here goes beyond the need to make certain reforms in order that the state administrative machinery may be better understood when it gives orders. The strategy really implies a full-scale democratisation of public administration and politics. A developing socialist democracy calls for progressive changes which imply the ultimate transfer of power to the revolutionary democratic forces, which act in the interests and later under the increasing control of the working masses. The democratisation of administration has progressed since it began in 1969. The Revolutionary Councils at the village, district and regional levels replaced colonial and neo-colonial authoritarianism with popular participation in state administration and political affairs. Law No. 52 permitted the decentralisation of public administration as indicated by the increase in the number of regions from 8 to 16 and an increase in the number of districts from 47 to 81. Representatives of workers, women and youth began to participate actively in commissions to oversee various state functions -- justice, security, health and sanitation, social and educational matters, and economic matters such as the fair allocation and distribution of commodities that have become scarce as a result of the current international economic crisis. In the distribution of sugar, for example, the system of popular self-management has shown itself to be surprisingly effectively in spite of serious lags in transportation means and accounting skills. There is an effective system of popular juries administering justice all over the Republic. There is a system of local revolutionary orientation centres (now termed mobilisation and organisation centres) all over the country. The centres have legal rights to settle disputes among citizens, resolve problems of marriage and

the family, and settle labour and housing conflicts. Workers' committees were established in 1973 in order to permit industrial agencies to participate actively in production affairs and in matters of labour disputes. All these are aspects of the basic democratisation process; every Somali is encouraged and given the opportunity to participate in self-management of his or her own affairs, whether they involve legal cases, housing problems, or labour disputes.

The point to be emphasised is that all this would have been an empty and futile exercise without the use of written Somali. The oral use of Somali is not sufficient to assure the meaningful process described. Written Somali is extremely useful in recording minutes of meetings. Correspondence, filling forms, recording financial transactions, and drafting legal and other proposals. In the process of carrying out all these activities, the Somali language, its written form in particular, receives considerable use and development. This is an illustrative example that permits us to state that both in form and in content, there is an objective process facilitating the revolutionary development of the Somali language since the October 1969 Revolution opted for the socialist path to development.

The democratisation measures described above are part of a larger framework that has been progressively consolidated with the establishment of the vanguard organ, the Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party (SRSP) on July 1, 1976. Following the October 1969 Revolution, a political Office under the Supreme Revolutionary Council came into being; during 1972-76, it came to signify the proto-party stage of the Somali Revolution. The Political Office was surrounded by the Committees representing the mass of social organisations. These committees for wor-

kers, youth, women and Guulwadayaal, «Victory Pioneers» (a popular militia), function at the village, district, regional and up to the national level. At the national level, they constitute the organisation of Somali workers, the Somali Youth Union, the Somali Women Organisation and the Guulwade Organisation. Since 1977, these organisations of the masses have been reorganised to become the General Federation of Somali Trade Unions (GCSTU), the Somali Revolutionary Youth Union (SRYU), the Somali Women Democratic Organisation (SWDO) and the Movement of Somali Cooperatives Organisations.

The organisations of the revolutionary masses facilitated the success of the various campaigns and projects undertaken since 1969. As the political and organisational maturity of the revolutionary masses increased, the SRC resolved to establish a Socialist Party. This decision resolved the endorsement of a National Conference held in November 1975. Thus, a founding congress took place June 26 to July 1, 1976, leading to the establishment of the SRSP. Unlike the opportunist, tribalist parties of the neo-colonial era, the SRSP has revolutionary discipline, as the party operates on the basis of democratic centralism, criticism and self-criticism. The establishment of the SRSP calls for the strengthening of the social organisations, and providing the workers, peasants, youth, women and guulwade organisations with adequate constitutions as noted above. It has also necessitated strengthening and systematizing scientific socialist education in the country and greater democratization of the state apparatus.

The adoption of scientific socialism as our revolutionary ideology has called for the development of revolutionary literature in Somali. The Political Office had a pamphlets introducing scientific socialist lessons for the masses. It also published a journal «Hawl iyo

«Hantiwadaag». («Labour and Socialism» later entitled «Socialism»). Since the Somali language was written in 1972, until July 1976, the Political Office published 270,000 books, pamphlets and journals in the Somali language. Among the books that appeared early in 1976, we find the following:

- 1) Hantiwadaagga Cilmiga ah (Scientific Socialism);
- 2) Tubta Toosan ee Hantiwadaagga Cilmiga ah (The Scientific Socialist Path); and
- 3) Barashada Bilowga Hantiwadaagga Cilmiga ah (An Introduction to Scientific Socialism).

The first book is a 235 page text on fundamental aspects of scientific socialist philosophy, political economy and revolutionary practice. Concepts are explained in general and then utilised to illuminate African history and Somali history in particular. The second book is an 82 page fundamental text of a similar nature. It introduces its readers to historical materialism, the various historical modes of production, and such concepts as base and superstructure, commodity production, and surplus value. Again it gives an analysis of Somali history and the achievement of the Somali Revolution within the context of the general and specific aspects of the transition to socialism. The third book provides selected excerpts from the speeches of Jaalle Mohamed Siyaad Barre in order to illustrate the stages of the Somali Revolution and the particular innovative way that scientific socialist theory is being applied to fit with the concrete realities of our country. The Secretary-General of the SRSP and President of the SDR, Jaalle Mohamed Siyaad Barre, has recently published a book in Somali entitled Philosophy of the Somali Revolution which reviews Somali developments in terms of class formation and class struggles. It points a

finger at middle-level capitalists who, in Jaalle Siyaad's view, provided the material basis for neo-colonialist penetration and for the ideology and practice of tribalism.

These and other publications indicate how fast written Somali has developed since 1972. It now possesses a rapidly expanding scientific socialist vocabulary. The Somalisation of concepts such as «Democratic Centralism» is no longer an abstract exercise. The concept in Somali is receiving the test and enrichment of historical practice and vice-versa. The books mentioned above offer a useful glossary of standardised scientific socialist terms. In a revolutionary and practical way, the Somali language is now able to offer written materials in various branches of learning: philosophy, Politics, Economics, Sociology, and Administrative Sciences. The language is being transformed objectively and this influences all other aspects of social life.

The task of publishing and propagating scientific socialist oriented books and journals now primarily rests with the Bureau for Ideology of the Central Committee of the SRSP. In order to provide a focal point for such tasks, the Bureau has issued, since October 21, 1976 a monthly Party Journal, Halgan. It carries articles and features covering various issues of Somali and international affairs. Within the Halgan Staff, therefore, one finds one of the many groups constantly involved in the creative tasks of developing and standardising an adequate vocabulary and conceptual style for the Somali language.

THE LANGUAGE AND EDUCATION — A REVOLUTION WITHIN THE REVOLUTION —

Further progress in actualising socialist democratic measures naturally depends on raising the general cultural, technical and political awareness of the Somali masses. This task requires a planned long-range educational and cultural revolution that involves widescale literacy campaigns. There was hardly any mass education programme at all during the colonial era. At the beginning of the revolution, if we turn to the statistics of the years 1969 70, we find that 18,056 persons were enrolled in non-formal or adult education. Out of this number 3,188 were women. Classes were conducted in either Italian, English or Arabic. It soon became obvious that a genuinely mass education programme could not be launched without the use of the Somali language.

On March 8, 1973, once written Somali had been proclaimed and implemented, a National Literacy Campaign was launched. This campaign focused on urban areas, operating on the basis of the self-help volunteer principle. The Ministry of Education points out that as a result of this urban campaign 400,000 persons were alphabetised.

On August 1, 1974, a major Rural Development Campaign (RDC) was launched. The campaign was unique in the history of Somalia. It was the first offensive in a strategy aimed at closing the urban-rural gap which had been directly and indirectly foisted by colonialism and neo-colonialism. The importance attached to the campaign is underlined by the fact that schools were closed for one academic year to permit the full scale involvement of teachers and students in the operations of the RDC. The main dimensions of the RDC included.

- a) Eradiction of illiteracy among the rural people;
- b) Public health improvement;
- c) Animal health improvement;
- d) Census for both people and livestock.

The scope of the RDC may be gathered by grasping the fact that the Somali Democratic Republic consists of about 650.000 square miles encompassing a population of about 4.5 million. In the rural areas the population is scattered and is often mobile due to the practices of nomadic pastoralism. The transportation system in the rural areas is poorly developed. Indeed, the majority of the villages had no roads at all before the RDC. During the period of the campaign, 1.6 million people were medically treated and 1.4 million received vaccinations

of one sort or another. Nineteen million animals were treated; 2.3 million of them received veterinary vaccinations. The literacy aspect of the RDC involved 1.2 million people. As a whole 1.757.779 persons of whom 597.665 were women participated in the urban and rural literacy campaigns. The SDR now has a literacy ratio of about 70 per cent. None of this would have been possible without the use of written Somali as the medium of instruction.

As the minimum objectives of the mass literacy programmes were achieved, another campaign for a more systematic functional education program for adults was inaugurated. The new curriculum for non-formal education has been Somalised and vocationalised.

The relapse into illiteracy needs to be checked by organising self-learning groups with the help of the Party cells and branches of the social organisations previously mentioned. The question of teaching and reading

materials is also being addressed. The RDC mostly used a Primer for Rural People (Buugga Reer Miyiga). The lessons in it are organized in such a way so as to relate to activities relevant to the nomadic life. Cattle-breeding, overgrazing, general hygiene, some arithmetic, and fundamentals of reading and writing are treated in lessons one through eighteen. Lessons 19 to 44 are more complex than the former ones. They provide detailed knowledge for daily life, including some arithmetic. The National Adult Education Centre (NAEC) also began to put out other newspapers such as Voice of Teachers (Codka Macallinka) and Rural Life Today (Miyiga Maanta) since the end of 1974. (6) The distribution of these and other materials still leaves a great deal to be desired.

With a better distribution system, other products of Somali mass media could also be most useful in making permanent the cultural revolution implied by the RDC. The Ministry of Information and National Guidance put out a daily newspaper, Xiddigta Oktoobar (The October Star) containing up-to-date information on common topics which can enlighten the rural people and sustain their interest and ability in reading and writing Somali. Thirty thousand copies a day are printed but most of those are absorbed in urban areas. The Ministry of Information has also printed a number of books and magazine, New Era, in four languages. The establishment of the monthly Party Organ Halgan increases the materials available for Somali readers. Halgan prints 3,500 Somali copies per month. Serious planning is being given finally to the question of the efficient and regular distribution of these materials all over SDR.

The writing of Somali has greatly assisted the tasks of mass mobilisation and organisation for development. Various projects have been built under the self-

help (Iskaa Wax U Qabso) movement; mass orientation centres, markets, offices, wells, and roads. The construction of schools and class-rooms on a self-help mass volunteer basis is a component of the revolutionary changes in formal education that will be treated later. Thousands of Somalis have learned to work collectively in struggles against natural calamities such as the moving sand dunes that were threatening roads and farms in the Merka-Shalambot areas. The struggle for self-sufficiency in basic foodstuffs has received an added boost in the establishment of agricultural crash-programmes which also help to reduce the unemployment problem. These radical development trends indicate that the people are beginning to adopt new attitudes towards labour. Naturally it takes years to foster socialist attitudes towards labour, especially the replacement of orientations toward capitalist competition with those of collectivist socialist emulation. The early successes of self-help programmes in instilling socialist values permitted Somalia to reduce and avert the dire consequences of the major drought that afflicted most of Africa (including Somalia) during 1974/75. Guided by a bold strategy of revolutionary transformation from nomadism, the Supreme Revolutionary Council (ruling organ before the establishment of the Central Committee of the SRSP), decided to re-settle most of the 260,000 nomads afflicted by the drought in new agricultural and fishing communities. This involves a radical transformation from nomadism to settled life. It is part of the long-run strategy of creating a nation of modern workers, the prerequisite for progress into a mature socialist society.

In the new settlement towns that have sprung up as a result of this revolutionary programme, it is not only possible to create new patterns of social life, but it is also possible to continue the literacy campaign on a more permanent basis. As of 1976, these settlements possess

formal schools, libraries and other means of cultural enlightenment.

In most societies, formal schooling is an important institution for transmitting knowledge and culture from generation to generation, and for developing human traits that contribute to economic output, social stability, and the production of new knowledge. For formal schooling to play an important role in society, it must be «legitimate.» People who use it must trust that it serves their interests and needs. Under colonialism this is not possible. In fact, British Colonial Official in Northern Somalis once put it bluntly: «Being disastrously grave to educate the Somalis; and since the country cannot absorb the school leavers, only eight elementary and one intermediate school are sufficient for helping the lowest ranks of the administration». (7)

During the Fascist era, an Italian Colonial Official wrote a secret directive in which he forbade attempts «to extend elementary education for natives and to teach our language to as many children as possible . . . We should reserve the strictly necessary education for the sons of Chiefs and more important notabilities only, because these can later on succeed to the duties of their fathers, serve as interpreters and hold modest positions in offices . . . It is mistaken policy to establish orphanages, because there, in the end, you will give them habits that do not belong to their race or their social class.» (8) As a consequence, we shall see that only 1,265 Somali children were receiving Italian colonial education in 1934 All of them were in elementary schools. (9)

Even when nationalist and international pressure were brought to bear after World War II, the situa-

tion did not improve very much. During 1954-55, under Italian Trusteeship of Somalia, one witnessed 96 elementary schools enrolling 5,863 male and 727 female pupils, 6 intermediate schools enrolling 459 male and 42 female pupils, and two secondary schools enrolling 55 male students. In British Somaliland, the figures for 1953 report that 19 elementary schools enrolled 345 boys and one secondary school and one vocational training centre enrolled 16 and 33 boys respectively. There is no need to repeat here that colonial education was alien to Somali culture and needs in its curriculum both in content and form.

The situation improved somewhat during the neo-colonial era due to mass pressures. But radical progress can be witnessed as we provide contrasting statistics. The Revolutionary Government's formal schooling policy consisted of

- a) Expansion of education: adopting the policy of compulsory education for all children from 6 to 14 years of age;
- b) Democratisation of education, making it free and equal unrelated as in the past to property status or region of birth;
- c) Somalisation of education: previously, both in curriculum and in administration, it was based on foreign culture. The curriculum and school text-books will now reflect Somali culture;
- d) Socialization of education: teaching scientific socialist principles and world outlook in all ladders and aspects of formal education; and

- e) Vocationalization of education: the great need to increase vocational, technical and professional skills. Adopting Somali as the medium of instruction has greatly facilitated the objectives of Somalia's revolutionary policy.

There were 55,021 student enrolled in all schools during the scholastic year 1969-1970. During the Five Revolutionary years, 1971-76, the number jumped to 240,550. This shows that in five years school enrollment increased 437.2 per cent. In four years, between 1969-70, and 1973-74, the elementary school enrollment increased 128.2 per cent, or equivalent to an annual growth rate of 32.1 per cent. Intermediate school enrollments increased 51 per cent or 12.8 annual growth rate. Secondary education enrollments rose overall by 63.8 per cent making for a 16 per cent annual growth rate. During 1960-70, there were 6,412 secondary school students of which 737 were girls. In 1973-74 we find 10,500 secondary school students of which 1,773 were girls. Considering girls, their enrollment increased 140.6 per cent over the four year period.

Before the Revolution, there were three technical and two vocational schools. Today there are sixteen: four technical schools, two polytechnics (opened in 1977), two clerical, one maritime, one agriculture, one animal husbandry, three nursing, one range management, and one school for telecommunication technicians. This is an area in which progress has just begun, a great deal more needs to be done to create a revolution in technical and scientific education. On one hand, the trend is to increase the number of technical and vocational schools; on the other, this also involves adding technical and vocational training to the curriculum of normal secondary schools. In the long run, this also involves all ways and

means of relating theory and practice -- study and production. Preparation of teaching materials for such schools helps to equip the Somali language with an adequate technical and scientific vocabulary. Apart from borrowing new terms, this also involves studying traditional Somali science (in medicine and veterinary matters for example) and refitting the old concepts in new applications. Some of this has involved original contributions to the teaching of science, especially at the elementary level.

Proffessor M.N. Alim of the College of Education has, for example, prepared lessons for teaching fundamental mathematics through Somali poetry (see Appendix 1). The socialising of education is necessary to provide it with a democratic anti-elitist trend. It helps to give Somali students a revolutionary world outlook. It awakens their political consciousness and trains them to identify with patriotic and working-class values, to be combatants in the struggle against underdevelopment, the struggle to build a socialist society. Without the revolutionary changes in content, in the philosophy and purpose of education, merely utilising the Somali language to teach colonial education would have resulted in the neo-colonial illusions. The possibility of Somalising «capitalism» in order to develop would have been taken seriously, even though our underdevelopment is very much a consequence of capitalist exploitation.

A revolutionary perspective in our curriculum has involved a great expansion and Somalisation of our teacher training programmes. During 1969-70, the number of Somali teachers totalled 1,873: in primary schools, 1,542 teachers; general secondary schools 242; technical schools 79; and teacher training schools 10. (10) In 1973-74, the corresponding figures were: 3,826 primary level

teachers, 437 in general secondary schools, 159 in technical schools, 44 in teacher training and 20 in kindergartens, adding up to a total of 4,486 teachers. These statistics show teacher three-year growth rates as follows: primary level 248.1 per cent, general and technical secondary education 185.7 per cent, and teacher training 440 per cent. As a result of colonial and neo-colonial policies, Somalia was so underdeveloped that a full-fledged university was not provided for. The Revolutionary Government took it upon itself to establish, as a matter of top priority, a National University (SNU). By 1972, five faculties, in education, law, economics, agriculture and the geology were in operation. By 1974, the faculties of medicine, veterinary sciences and natural sciences (mathematics, engineering and geology) were added. Currently, the Somali National University caters to a total of 2,500 students, 10 per cent of whom are from the working class who are given university level opportunities. The female student ratio rose from an insignificant number to 10 per cent in four years. The College of Education of the SNU, which prepares secondary school teachers, enrolls about 500 students each year in its intensive two-year degree programme.

Currently, Italian and English are used at the university level. But by 1981, a predominantly Somali language freshman class will enter the SNU. Plans are under way to Somalise the university as best as possible. Even today, there are a number of lectures in various subjects being offered in Somali. Some steps have also been taken to Somalise some of the textbooks. For example, a 623 page college-level chemistry textbook has been translated from English to Somali. The glossary of chemical terms that has been developed in the process includes international terms that have been borrowed and Somalised, such as «Atam» for atom, and «Oksidheynta» for oxidation.

Terms that have been re-coined from old Somali words are also in use. To give priority to National University development and to the establishment of other institutes of higher education (polytechnical institutes, for example), a special Ministry of Higher Education and Culture was established in 1973.

Somali is today used as the main medium of instruction up to the first year of secondary education. Arabic is taught as a second language beginning at the elementary level, and at the secondary level. The English language is also taught as a subject. The teaching of other languages will prepare a student for further education and research and international contacts. The former habits of worshipping the European languages has not led to an irrational reaction hating foreign languages as such. Somalis now treat former colonial languages in a practical sense. It is significant to note here also that translations of important international works into the Somali language have already been done. Included among the first translation manuscripts are Marx and Engels Communist Manifesto, Leontiev's Political Economy and Kwame Nkrumah's Class Struggles in Africa. The translation of masterpieces of world Literature into Somali is currently under way. Thus, the writing and promoting of the Somali language not only helps to close the gap between the Somali masses and a foreign educated elite, it also helps to bring the best of international culture into the Somali language. National consciousness and patriotism, when it is inspired by a socialist awareness and solidarity is not a closing-in of one's self. Infact, it provides a solid basis upon which to build international awareness and solidarity. Instead of the capitalist «cosmopolitan» approach which links a small elite with Western culture at the expense of the masses, we have here a historical process which links all the Somali masses with progressive international culture.

The Somalisation of education has called for the preparation and printing of Somali books covering various school subjects: arithmetic, algebra, geometry, chemistry, biology, physics, history, geography, language and literature, and technical and vocational subjects. Significant work is going on in the area of writing textbooks in mathematics, physics, biology and chemistry. The natural science terminology being developed is bound to have far reaching consequences. Before 1972, all school textbooks were written by foreign authors and printed in foreign countries. They did not have the least relationship with the culture and environment of the Somali child. To Somalise educational materials, the Ministry of Education appointed 203 Somali teachers into 15 research - writing committees to prepare textbooks for each level of the lower education ladder which now consists of a unified system of six years primary level and four years secondary level education. The result of textbook preparation so far amounts to the production of 135 textbooks in the Somali language.

LEVEL	NUMBER OF SOMALI TEXTBOOKS
Primary Education	70
General Secondary Level	40
Technical Secondary Level	5
Home Economics (Secondary level)	4
Home Economics (Intermediate Level)	2
Kindergarten level	1
Adult Education	10
Agricultural Education	1
Fishing Techniques	1
Poultry Farming	1
Total	135

Between 1973 and 1976, the Ministry of Education has published 6.6 million copies of various Somali books in Somali (see Appendix I). The publication of books and the Somalisation process have been facilitated by the policy of nationalising all private schools (missionary and non missionary) and all private printing establishments. Today, the State Printing Agency carries out the printing tasks of the nation. Such a revolution in education both in quantity cannot be separated from the context of a socialist oriented revolution. Another illustration of this fact is the statistics showing that to cope with the expansion, there has been an increase of 2,154 classrooms in primary education of which 1,180 were built in 1975 alone as a result of utilizing the labour of our revolutionary masses on the principle of self-help and self-reliance.

LITERATURE AND THE ARTS

Somali literature had developed advanced oral forms prior to colonial domination. The most outstanding aspect of this literary cultural heritage is undoubtedly the development of oral poetry. Alliteration, some times called «Higgaad» provides the most striking feature of this poetry. Given say a consonant «J» as the alliterative sound (as in the poem «Richard Corfield», as published in the anthology edited by B. W. Andrzejewski and I. M. Lewis) (see appendix II) then in every hemistich of the poem there must be one word beginning with a «J» consonant. Classical Somali poetry is very rigid in its rules of form. Only identical initial consonants are regarded as being alliterative with one another and no substitution by similar sounds is admissible. In a poem of say 50 lines 100 hemistiches), one may find one hundred words beginning with «J». Alliteration in good poetry involves words with readily assignable meanings such as nouns or

verbs, but not prepositional particles or conjunctions. These rules have obliged Somali poets to develop a huge vocabulary. The poet is challenged to resurrect archaic words and reactivate obsolescent ones in his exacting task of dialectically blending content, meaning and poetic form. This historical heritage has turned out to be extremely useful in the modern task of developing the Somali language. Good Somali poets manage to attract an entourage of fans, some of whom learn by heart their poems and recite them wherever they go. From such devoted fans, other reciters learn the poems. A poem's popularity naturally rests upon its significance in content and its aesthetic form. Poor and mediocre poetry are treated with criticism and scorn and condemned to a death of silence and oblivion. The feats of memory on the part of Somali poetry reciters are indeed INCREDIBLE.

The forms of Somali poetry include the «Gabay», the «Geraar» (usually shorter than the «Gabay», which used to be recited on horseback), and the «Buraambur», a poetic form composed by women. It is occasionally accompanied by hand-clapping, stamping, drumming, or chorus. The «Heello» is a sequence of shorter poems (usually of two lines). The tambourine or flute may accompany it. The audience usually claps, stamps the rhythm or sing the chorus of a «Heello». The «Hees» is a modern poetic song which, as a result of Somali anti-imperialist struggles, has tended to develop political themes.

Indeed, the rise of Somali anti-imperialistic struggles has given new themes - a new content - to practically all the Somali literary and art forms. The old poems celebrating pastoral wars between Somali clans have tended to die out. The Revolution has effectively put an end to all rural inter-clan conflicts. Somali literature and art, like those of other peoples, naturally deal with univer-

sal themes of love, friendship, and trust. But the anti-imperialist theme has tended to dominate, especially during the nationalist struggles. With the advent of the October Revolution of 1969, the patriotic themes have been deepened by socialist themes and by greater international awareness. The old «Gabay» form may be utilized to compose a poem of «Lumumba», or «Amilcar Cabral» or to celebrate the victories of the people of Angola, Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique, Eritrea or Western Somali.

Even though written Somali is only four years old, the scripting of our language has given rise to written Somali literature for the first time in our history. This literature is still in its infancy and it is too early to discuss the various literary genres that may ultimately emerge. Naturally, a great deal of effort is being given to the task of writing down already existing oral poems, narratives, proverbs and other aspects of oral folklore. (12) The provision of a national orthography since 1972 permits the preservation of our great literary heritage which colonialism had condemned to extinction. Among the books already published along these lines we find: *Diiwaankii Gabayadii Sayid Maxamed Cabdulle Xasan* (a collection of poems of Sayid Mahamed Abdulle Hassan, Somalia's most renowned nationalist leader and greatest classical poet who led Somali forces against the forces of imperialism in the early 20th century) by Sheikh Jama Omar Isse, *Ismaaciil Mirre* by Ahmed Farah Ali «Idaajaa» and *Cilmi Bowdheri* by Rashid Moh'ed Shabel. One is a collection of poems of Ismail Mirre, one of the Sayid's generals, the other deals with the compositions of Bowdheri, a poet who is said to have died of love in 1941. Even before the scripting of Somali in 1972, Musa H. I. Galal and Shire Jama Ahmed had pioneered in the writing down of Somali folklore. Musa H. I. Galal published *Hikmad Somali* (Somali Wisdom) in 1956 with Professor Andrzejewski. Mu-

sa Galal also preserves other forms of traditional culture as witnessed by his more recent publications: Seeska Soomaalida (The Basic Traditional Education in Somalia) and also Terminology and Practice of Somali Weatherlore, Astronomy and Astrology. In 1965 Shire Jama Ahmed published through his own efforts Gabayo, Maahmaah iyo Sheekooyin yar-yar («poems, Proverbs and Short Stories»). Currently, he has published works that are within the rubric of literacy innovations. The task of preserving oral literature in written forms calls for creativity. The poems or narratives have to be given a historical context. The questions of punctuation, paragraphing and other matters must be resolved. The Somali writer is obliged to avoid crude imitations of European styles, yet the traditional medium did not have a written form. In 1975, Omar Aw Nuh edited a collection of poems, Diiwaanka Gabayada Xaaji Aaden Axmed «Afqalooc», in which innovations in writing Somali poetry were attempted. There is also Murti iyo Sheekooyin (Traditional Wisdom and Stories) by Abdulkadir Farah Botan and Sheekooyin Soomaaliyeed (Somali Stories) by Musse Omar Islam.

New literary forms such as novels and written plays have also developed as a result of the introduction of a written form for Somali. Farah M. Awil used the stories preserved in folklore to create a novel entitled Aqoondarro waa u Nacad Jacayl. It treats the ill-starred love of Alimah and Awrala both of whom lived and died in the early part of the century in the Northern part of Somalia. The history of the Dervish anti-imperialist struggles is presented in dramatic form in the play Dabkuu Shiday Darwiishkii (The Fire which the Dervishes Lit) by Ahmed Farah Ali «Idaajaa» and Abdulkadir Hirsi «Yam Yam» (the play is in alliterative verse composed by «Yam Yam» though parts of it utilise Sayid Mahamed Abdulle Hassan's own poetic lines). These, and other works soon

to appear, utilise traditional elements in new forms made possible by the emergence of written Somali. Other literary works of significance include Shire Jama Ahmed's *Halgankii Nolosha* (1973) and *Rooxaan* (1973) and a play by Ahmed Artan Hange called *Samawade*. «Yam Yam», a brilliant young poet, has just finished a poetic composition, 5000 words long, entitled *Ma Hadho Furan*.

Some of the plays, novels and short stories that have appeared are «new» not only in the fact that they experiment with traditional forms, but also because they treat revolutionary themes such as the need to emancipate women. Somali poems, songs, and plays have all reflected and inspired the new revolutionary tasks. They have played a vanguard role in the various campaigns such as those for socialism and international solidarity. The question of female emancipation was taken seriously by Somalia's socialist-oriented revolution in 1975. A revolutionary family law was enacted facilitating equal rights in matters of marriage, divorce and inheritance. Greater employment opportunities are being given to women. The literacy campaigns have been particularly beneficial to women and the female enrollments in all ladders of formal schooling have risen considerably since 1969. The measures for female emancipation have involved a great literacy and artistic campaign. In this and other issues of a socialist nature, traditional literary and art forms as well as new written forms are utilised.

Theatrical arts have played a considerable role in promoting and propagating the Somali language. Somali masses are extremely enthusiastic about watching performances of Somali plays. Most of these involve a total theatrical experience -- drama, songs, music, and poetry. Sometimes these are provided with slide projections in the background. The plays are performed by actors

coming from or reflecting the customs and dialects of different parts of Somalia. Thus, they play a role in promoting national awareness. Today, many state and public institutions as well as revolutionary neighbourhood centres, have theatrical and musical groups. The Somali Revolution is actively propagating the concept of art and theatre that goes to the masses, that is a part of their daily social and cultural life. Well-known Somali theatrical groups constantly tour the rural parts of the SDR. Certain Somali plays, such as Shabeel Naagood (A Leopard Among Women) have already been translated into English and other languages.

The emergence of written Somali has also given Somali art -- especially poster art -- a needed boost. Between 1969-72, political art appeared but the slogans to accompany the art had to be in English or Italian. The use of Somali slogans has led to a great deal of highly imaginative artistic creations that may be witnessed in all the cities and settlements of the SDR. These political art posters are often amusing, striking and informative. The very best of them are highly educative. The Somali slogans accompanying them are very useful for thousands of our people who are just beginning to read and write and to enjoy their mother tongue proudly displayed in written form. The socialist basis of our revolution gives us not only revolutionary themes, but also a critical approach to our literary and other traditions. Everything possible is done to preserve the past, but this is done in the service of a better present and future and not in order to live in the past. Themes that are inimical to national solidarity and socialist awareness and practice are treated critically. It is the people's struggle that permits them to accept innovations that assist their progress and reject harmful old habits and prejudices. In the practice of making the revolution, a new Somali literature and art is developing.

REVOLUTIONARY SCHOLARSHIP

The revolutionary program of the SRSP has an academic component as well. That scholars must be able to research Somali history, literature, medicine, and other aspects of our culture is a key part of the revolutionary programme. Although we have emphasized mass participation in the inculcation of national values, it is critically important to support scholarship.

In Somalia today various higher institutes of learning are helping to promote Somali studies. The Somali National University is one of these. Established in 1969-70, the SNU today enrolls about 3,000 students in education, law, economic, engineering, industrial chemistry, agriculture, veterinary science, medicine, geology, linguistic and a division of journalism. The traditional disciplines offered in the various departments are gradually achieving greater relevance by focussing on some aspects of the Somali experience and environment.

The Faculty of Agriculture, for example, is connected to an agricultural research station which is involved in studying soil and weather conditions as well as other aspects of agronomy in Somalia. The medical Faculty has begun to collect basic data on health problems in Somalia. Students within the faculty of geology have undertaken field trips aimed at building up geological surveys of various parts of Somalia.

Social sciences and languages are also in particular taught in the Faculty or College of Education. There is a Somali language and literature department. It offers courses in basic linguistics and language studies within a concentration that involves a series of courses on Somali

language, literature and folklore. Members of this department have developed textbooks on teaching Somali to foreigners. They have also conducted research and prepared manuscripts on various other aspects of Somali language and literature. For the most part this research and writing has been done in the Somali language.

The Social Sciences Division of the College of Education offers courses in Somali history and geography. Somali history courses are offered within a context that includes a series of courses in African and Near Eastern history. The Division has approved a growing number of senior research projects dealing with various aspects of the Somali experience such as pre-colonial Somali history, the colonial partition of Somalia, the Somali Dervish and colonial resistance, Somali nationalism, Somali Nationalist parties, the development of trade unions in Somalia, the Somali Women and Youth Movements, and the history of the mass media in Somalia. A certain number of senior projects have involved the translating of seminal works in other languages into the Somali language.

The Somali Political Institute (Party School) was established in 1975. Today, it utilises the Somali language to offer courses in philosophy, political economy, world revolutionary movements, history, party building, propaganda and Co-operatives with special emphasis on the Somali experience. The Institute is involved in preparing a series of text-materials with a special focus on Somali political history. The Institute offers degree and non-degree courses for the cadres of the Party, the mass organisations and the State. Its research programme involves the task of translating classical works on socialism and revolutionary experiences into the Somali language.

In the near future, the Somali Ministry of Higher Education and Culture plans to establish other facul-

ties: a faculty of maritime sciences, a faculty of languages and literature, and a faculty of fine arts. A Somali Institute of international Studies (SIIS) is also to be established in the near future. SIIS will sponsor research and courses related to the Horn of Africa and Afro-Arab relations within the context of studies in international politics, law and diplomacy.

The National Academy for Somali Studies is the second most important institution after the Somali National University, both under the aegis of the Ministry of Higher Education and Culture. It was established in 1973 for the purpose of promoting and developing all aspects of Somali studies. However, because of the immediate tasks involved in providing Somali with a written form, the National Academy was obliged to give priority to the development of the language and cultural aspects of Somali studies. The Academy has also played a leading role in the fulfillment of the national policy of Somalisation of the educational and administrative machinery.

The National Academy consists of an administrative unit under a Director-General as well as a Somali Language Commission. Departments for Language and Culture, for History, for Literature and for Geography have already been created.

The National Academy of Somali Studies has sponsored the publication in Somali of about 20 books by 1977. Among these, we may mention the following:

- Two Somali language dictionaries, one of 10,000 words, the other of 15,000 words (Somali-Somali dictionaries).
- Two basic Somali grammar books.
- A comprehensive anthology on the poetry of the late Somali nationalist leader, the Sayid Maxamed Cabdulle Xasan.

- A volume on the history of the Dervish movement led by Sayid Mahamed Abdulle Xasan.

The National Academy has approved over 50 books pending publication. It is also holding about 20 additional manuscripts to be published in one form or another. Some of these books and manuscripts consist of translated works. A number of these consist of anthologies of the poetry of well known Somali poets. Among the works on history we find those dealing generally with African history, the history of the slavery and colonial periods and more specific topics such as the history of Mogadishu, Barawa, or Western Somalia.

The activities of the National Academy have so far been confined to the development of the Somali language and culture. This accounts for the fact that most of the research in progress and large number of the books and unpublished manuscripts deal with Somali poetry, proverbs, traditional customs and laws. The total number of copies of books printed between 1972-76 is 270,000.

This Academy has been reorganised and its functions have been broadened since late 1976. Its new name is the National Academy of Arts and Sciences. The further development of Somali studies in Somalia involves, among other things, the further development of library and printing services. A campus centre for the Somali National University is under construction. Eventually, this will contain the main University library. This should facilitate the expansion of the collection of books, documents and manuscripts donated by Mr. Forlani and presently located in a tiny room within the old University center building.

There is also a project to construct a National Library that should be able to provide better research and

documentation services for anyone involved in Somali studies. The National Academy of Somali studies premises are under construction. Upon completion, they will be able to house a modern library and documentation center that will greatly assist the tasks of those working at the Academy on a full-time or part-time visiting basis. There are also plans underway to improve and expand the Somali National Museum and related museum resources. (13)

The Ministry of Higher Education and Culture has a Research Department which co-ordinates research activities within Somalia and maintains liaison with research institutions and individuals abroad. The Central Committee of the Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party has set up a special Bureau for Social Sciences and Research. Presently a Somali Studies International Association is organizing to develop intellectual cross-fertilization between Somali and foreign scholars. An International Conference of Somali Studies in Mogadishu is presently being planned for August, 1980.

Academic research, when it is connected with the needs and visions of the people, will continue to be supported by the SRSP. The unique contribution of Somali scholars who have been accredited not by European institutions but rather by Somalis themselves, is enormous. Only with a scholarship which is conducted through the indigenous language can the true worth of these scholars be redeemed. Such is the contribution of our revolutionary language policy to the development of a rich scholarly tradition.

CONCLUSION.

Our experience brings us to respect the warning made by the late Comrade Amilcar Cabral: «Without any

doubt, underestimation of the cultural values of African peoples, based on racist feelings and upon the intention of perpetuating foreign exploitation of Africans, has done much harm to Africa. But in the face of the vital need for progress, the following attitudes or behaviours will be no less harmful to Africa: indiscriminate compliments; systematic exaltation of virtues without considering what presently or potentially regressive elements it contains; confusion between what is the expression of an objective and material historical reality and what appears to be a creation of the mind or the product of a peculiar temperament; obscured linking of the artistic creations (whether good or not, with supposed racist characteristics; and finally, the non-scientific or lack of a scientific critical appreciation of the cultural phenomenon.» (14)

We have dealt in detail with the Somali experience mainly because we sincerely believe it can be generalized. The forms and practical aspects of applying such measures within other African contexts will naturally vary according to the circumstances. We call on all progressive African peoples to give serious thought that will lead to action in favour of the revival, resurgence, propagation and promotion of African languages. As we talk of African five year economic and social plans, we must also learn to think about planning in matters of cultural and language development.

The conflict in the Horn of Africa has drawn attention and interest to various aspects of Somali and Ethiopian studies. It is important that such war clouds do not obscure the most significant aspects of the peaceful developments in the Horn, especially those carried out in Somalia in its attempt to develop and to minimize the shackles of dependency through self-reliance, mass mobilization, and a truly revolutionary language policy.

NOTES

- (1) This era is discussed in my «A Nation in Search of a script: the problem of establishing a National Orthography for Somalia,» (Makerere University, M.A. Thesis, 1968). At the time of writing that thesis, I saw the problem as a technical one, requiring administrative solution. I now see it as a political and ideological problem, one which required a revolutionary solution.
- (2) Omar Osman Mohamed, Problems of Administrative Efficiency in the Somali Democratic Republic (Mogadishu; SIDAM Mimeographed Paper, September 1976).
- (3) Jaalle Mohamed Siyad Barre cited in Ibid., P. 16.
- (4) See B. W. Andrezejewski, «The Role of Broadcasting in the Adaption of the Somali Language to Modern Needs,» in W. H. Whiteley (ed.), Language Use and Social Change (London: Oxford University Press, 1971), who provided some of my examples.
- (5) See Omar Osman Mohamed, From Written Somali to a Rural Development Campaign (Mogadishu, SIDAM Mimeographed paper, 1975).
- (6) National Adult Educational Centre, Report of Activities During Year 1974, (Mogadishu: Ministry of Education, 1974), P. 3.
- (7) C. R. V. Bell, cited in Helen Kitchen, The Educated African (New York: Fredrick A. Praeger Publishers, 1962), P. 97.
- (8) Gen Guglielma Nasi cited in E. Sylvia Pankhurst, Ex-Italian Somaliland (London: Watts and Co., 1951), P. 214.

- (9) See Robert Tess. op. cit., P. 170.
- (10) Statistical Survey of Education in Somalia (Mogadishu: Ministry of Education, 1970). P. 69, 75, 81.
- (11) B. W. Andrzejewski and I. M. Lewis, Somali Poetry (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1964). pp. 70-75.
- (12) See the interesting paper by B. W. Andrzejewski, Rise of Written Somali Literature (Mogadishu: SIDAM Mimeographed Paper, 1975), Later published in African Research and Documentation, 8, 9 (1975).
- (13) Dr. Merrick Ponsnasky of U. C. L. A. has performed useful services to the SDR on museum development.
- (14) Amilcar Cabral, «National Liberation and Culture.» in Return to the Source (New York: Monthly Review Press, 1973), P. 51.

APPENDIX I

Professor M. N. Alim believes that mathematical poems and songs suit the African Cultural Education context, and they also sharpen student interests in mathematical terminology. Here is an example, involving a poem-song about additions:

Waa
Isugeyn! $2 + 3 = 5$
biird wadar
biird
Isugeyntu waxay tahay
Tiro isu geeyoo
Tiro waliba waxay tahay
Biir teed u taaloo
Wadartoodu waxay tahay
Adna taas ogsoonow!

Equals
Addition: $2 + 3 = 5$
Addend Sum
Addition is a fundamental operation. Combine a number to a number. Each of the series numbers to be added is called an addend. Sum is exact number they wield (close). Please note this.

APPENDIX II

SOMALI BOOKS PRINTED FOR MINISTRIES, AGENCIES AND THE PUBLIC (1972-1976)

		Number of copies
Ministry of Education:	1973-74	2,000,000
	1975	1,700,000
	1976	2,500,000
	Sub-total	6,200,000
Ministry of Information and National Guidance:	1972-73	54,000
	1975	42,000
	1976	40,000
	Sub-total	136,000
Ministry of Higher Education and Culture:		
(Including Academic of Culture)		270,000
General Public:		45,000
	Total	6,651,000

SOURCE: State Printing Agency, December 1976.

THE IMPACT AND CONTRIBUTION OF LITERACY TOWARDS RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN SOMALIA

**by
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INTRODUCTION

The scripting of the Somali language led to comprehensive cultural revolution, which resulted in the staging of a wide-range literacy campaign aimed at eradicating illiteracy in two years: during the first year in the towns and cities, during the second year in the rural areas.

The campaign in the rural areas was more difficult than in the urban areas due to the following reasons:

- a) The rural population was larger than the urban population;
- b) Literacy in the country as a whole was concentrated in the urban areas, with the result that (1) the number of literacy students in relation to the total population in the urban areas was smaller than in the rural areas, and (2) in the urban areas it was easier to recruit literacy teachers from among the literate people;
- c) Communication in the rural areas was poor in comparison with the urban areas.

To be effective, literacy teaching had to take place in the context of overcoming rural underdevelopment. Literacy became the expression of the development of ideas, skills, activities, etc., in various fields in the form of writing. In concrete terms, this process resulted in a wide-range rural development campaign of seven months' duration, followed by continuous development activities which are known as (Joogteynta Ololaha Horumarinta Reer Miyiga i. e. Follow-up of the Rural Development Campaign on a Permanent Basis).

Literacy Activities and the Rural Development Campaign

As the urban literacy activities were nearing completion at the end of February 1974, preparations were being made for the second phase of the national literacy campaign. Its goal was the eradication of illiteracy in the rural areas within one year.

A technical committee, consisting of representative of those institutions which were relevant for the campaign was formed, and was requested to study and propose how the campaign could be implemented. This was not an easy task and many factors had to be taken into consideration:

- a) The population in the rural areas was scattered over 650,000 Km² in a very unorganized way. The transportation system in the rural areas was very primitive, and before the campaign, the majority of the villages had no roads at all.
- b) Between 50 and 60 per cent of the Somali people are either nomads or semi-nomads, many of whom do not always stay in the juridical territory of the Republic.

- c) The problem of providing enough teaching staff.
- d) The implementation of the campaign required a huge administrative set-up for which no example existed either in the country itself or outside it.
- e) How to provide financial and other resources as well as facilities for the implementation of the campaign.
- f) No sociological or other study dealing with life in the rural areas was available.

After a thorough study of the problem, two alternatives crystallized as a result of the Committee's discussions. It was decided to either complete the campaign in one year, or take the above-mentioned difficulties into consideration and extend the duration of the campaign to five years and limit the activities to two regions a year. The campaign would then come to an end at the same time as the Five Year Plan.

The Committee then recommended that the campaign be completed in one year, in accordance with the political decision of 8 March 1973. As regards the teaching force, it came to the conclusion that 20,000 teachers were needed. Civil servants, members of the Armed Forces and Guulwadayaal (Victory Pioneers) were considered as potential sources but utilization of the latter as actual teachers was excluded for the following reasons:

- a) The indispensability of these people in the sectors in which they were currently employed;
- b) Lack of sufficient knowledge and/or ability to teach written Somali (this was especially the case of the Guulwadayaal).

The Committee then came to the conclusion that the intermediate and secondary school students and their teachers were the only force which could carry out such a huge task, assisted by members of the Armed Forces, by civil servants, Guulwadayaal and other volunteers, but that the former should be the pillar of the rural literacy campaign.

The fact that the chosen manpower could be available on a full-time basis only during the school holidays raised a very important question. The only alternative open were to make the radical decision to close the schools for one year or to give up the proposed implementation of the campaign in one year. The Committee recommended the adoption of the first alternative.

Once its work was completed, the Committee submitted its recommendations to a higher committee, consisting of some secretaries of state. The higher Committee endorsed the recommendations and in turn submitted them to the SRC and the Council of Secretaries. Both councils accepted them, giving consideration to the fact that:

- a) The campaign was unique in the history of the country in the sense that it required the closing of the schools for one year;
- b) That it made manpower available which could make effective communication with the rural masses possible, and make literacy penetrate all areas of rural life as an improving factor.

This functional attitude to literacy led to the expansion of the campaign to a comprehensive rural development campaign with the following four dimensions:

- a) Eradication of illiteracy among the rural population;
- b) Public health improvement;
- c) Animal health improvement;
- d) Census for both people and livestock.

Theoretical Concepts for the Campaign

Although the discussions on the campaign concentrated on the practical aspects of its implementation, this does not mean that there was no theoretical concept at all. The following passage from a lecture by Mohamed H. Adan, the then Director-General of the Ministry of Education, illustrates some of the current thinking:

«This campaign, the first of its kind is part of our endeavour to fight against society's three main enemies: hunger, disease and ignorance. Its aim is two-fold, namely: to bring about the alphabetization of the rural masses as one of the prerequisites for development, and also to render the masses cognizant of our needs and orient them towards the right path to national progress. Equal weight is attributed to these two aspects of the campaign. In fact as the rural people become literate, the tasks of the staff in the medical, agricultural and veterinary services will be made easier and their instructional activities which can also be carried out by means of through the teaching of our revolutionary principles, i.e. the teaching of socialism and through self-help (iska-Wax-u-qabso), the rural masses will be brought to the same level of political consciousness as the population in urban centres.

«Some added benefits expected of this campaign are: the strengthening of national unity by demolishing the barriers between the urban and the rural masses; the revival of our traditional culture through the intimate contacts between the students/teachers and the nomads;

a new awareness of the problems confronting the rural masses and of the need for their solution; a greater degree of involvement in these problems on the part of the various organs of the Central Government.

«Thus this campaign will have been instrumental in achieving highly positive results which it would normally take a long time to obtain.»

PLANNING AND ORGANIZATION OF THE CAMPAIGN

The planners and organizers of the campaign encountered many problems in their work. They could not find sufficient information about the people, the population density in the different areas, the seasonal movements of the nomads, etc. To overcome this problem, they sent letters and questionnaires to the regions and districts, but the information they got was not sufficient for the formulation of a plan and the organization of the campaign. This made it necessary to hold a three-week symposium in Mogadisho for the representatives of the regional and district authorities in order to discuss with them the planning, organization and implementation of the campaign. The participants of the seminar, totalling 200 included:

All the Chairmen of the Regional and District Councils;

All the Regional and District Education Officers;

All the headmasters in the district;

All the regional and district representatives of the Political Office of the SRC;

All the heads of regional and district;

Police stations;

All the heads of the regional and district National Security Service;

All the regional transport officers.

They discussed in detail all matters concerning the campaign and made concrete proposals which became the basis for the planning and organization of the campaign. The fact that they were given the chance to express their ideas and views made them identify themselves with it. The Central Government also got the opportunity to make it clear to the local authorities that the implementation of the campaign was their responsibility.

After this meeting the organizational framework of the campaign was developed.

It consisted of the following organs:

- a) Central Committee for the Rural Development Campaign. This was the policy-making organ for the campaign.
- b) Central Office for the Rural Development Campaign. This office was responsible for the administration of the campaign at national level and for the collection and documentation of all information concerning the campaign.
- c) Regional Committee for the Rural Development Campaign. Since the Ministry of Education was the main organ responsible for the campaign, this office played in its territorial area, the role of the Ministry of Education.
- d) District Committee for the Rural Development Campaign. This Committee was the direct agent of the Education, and played, at district level the role which the Ministry of Education had at national level.
- e) District Inspection Office. This was composed of the district education officer, some school inspectors

sent by the Ministry of Education and some school headmasters in the district.

It is important to mention that the direct operation of the campaign began at district level. The committees at this level, which were the institutions nearest to the grassroots, were involved in the day-to-day conduct of the campaign. To facilitate the work and guarantee effective communication with those operating in the field, each district was divided into smaller geographic units. In this division population density as well as transportation facilities in each unit were taken into consideration.

The administrative units for the campaign below the district were:

1) Beel (community). Each district was divided into smaller geographic units called Beel. The beel, which consisted of several villages, had its own committees for the rural development campaign, consisting of representatives of the community and supervising teachers. The chairman of the committee was usually a nabaddoon (village headman), or other prominent person in the beel.

Xubin (sub-community). Each beel was divided into smaller units called Xubin. In general, a xubin was a big village or two or three small villages lying very close to each other. The Xubin had its own committee for the rural development campaign, consisting of representatives of the local people and usually chaired by a samadoon or any other prominent person in the locality. Even where a school teacher was appointed chairman, he had to rely on the local leaders for advice.

In the context of a strategy based upon co-ordination and co-operation of all the state institutions and

in the context of mass participation in the development at which the campaign aimed, we can say that the organizational framework as described above led to the following innovations in the development administration of the country:

1. Establishment of two national committees, consisting of all the institutions involved in the campaign. These committees dealt jointly with all matters concerning the campaign. This led to the integration of all the activities, so that a high level of interministerial collaboration was achieved;
2. Establishment of regional and district committees, whose members were more or less the same as those of the local councils.

Each local council consisted of representatives of the local area, representatives of ministries and other state institutions which had offices in the area, and a chairman appointed by the President of the Republic. Before the campaign, the representatives of the ministries and other state institutions identified themselves with the agencies they represented and not with the local council.

3. Division of each district into beelo, and of each into xubno.

The importance of this lies not only in the fact that it made better administration of the campaign possible, but it also made possible the direct participation of the population in the organization and administration of the campaign.

THE OBJECTIVES OF THE CAMPAIGN

We can divide the activities carried out during

the campaign into the original objectives and improvised activities which crystallized as new objectives during the implementation of this campaign.

The original objectives of the campaign were:

- a) Alphabetization and
- b) Treatment and vaccination of the human and animal population.

Alphabetization

1. The teachers
2. Teaching and reading materials
3. Teaching places
4. Teaching methods
5. The students

1. **The teachers:** We have already mentioned that the majority of the teachers were intermediate and secondary school students, but the available statistics do not group them into the grades they had completed as they joined the campaign. However, from the data on school enrolment in 1973/4, we can see that the majority of these students came from the relevant grades of intermediate school. In the school year under consideration, 733 students were enrolled in grade 6, 6,925 in grade 7, 1,949 in grade 8 and 1,992 in grade 9. We can assume that the division of the student-teachers into «grade groups» corresponded more or less to the enrolment proportions of the relevant grades in the school year 1973/4.

2. **Teaching and reading materials:** The only available teaching material for the campaign was Buugga Reer Miyiga, a primer for the nomads. This book, which was produced by the National Adult Education Centre (NAEC), follows the analytical method and, in one

way or another, its approach to literacy teaching is semi-functional. The lessons offered in it are informative and deal with almost all issues relevant to the daily life of the nomads, e.g. cattle-breeding, overgrazing and general hygiene.

Since this was the only book upon which the teachers had to rely, an additional chapter on (Teacher's Guide-lines) was included.

In the provision of teaching material there were serious shortcomings which must be mentioned. The book (Buugga Reer Miyiga) for example, although intended for nomads only, was used all over the rural areas. Moreover, only very few literacy students possessed the book. By the end of 1974 the NAEC began publishing a newspaper for the teachers and the advanced students of literacy under the name Codka Macallinka iyo Miyiga Maanta («The voice of the Teachers and Students in Rural Areas Today»). It gave the teachers guidance in the methods of teaching adults and also contained several articles which dealt with cattle-breeding, overgrazing, general hygiene, etc. These articles were also used as additional reading material in literacy classes.

Although the NAEC printed 7,000 copies of each of the two issues in question, great difficulty was encountered in the distribution of the above material. Of both issues, about one-third could not be distributed.

Lack of teachers in the rural areas made the NAEC aware of the fact that relapse into illiteracy would be prevented only by organizing self-learning groups. To realize such activities it developed its Codka Macallinka iyo Miyiga Maanta into a newspaper addressed mainly to the students in the rural areas who had attended the literacy classes during the campaign. The paper included articles based on rural situations.

3. Teaching place: «To use all possible places as teaching places.» This was the principle followed in the implementation of the urban literacy campaign, and it remained in the use also during the rural development campaign. In practice, the rural areas were divided into settled and nomad areas. In the agricultural settled areas the lessons took place either under trees or in huts built on a Iska-Wax-u-Qabso (self-help) basis for this purpose. Because of the hot weather, people generally preferred classes held under trees in the open air.

In the case of the nomadic population this situation was different. The areas near wells and pools which the nomads use and bring their cattle for drinking were the best places for teaching.

To encourage all nomads who came to the wells or pools to attend the literacy classes, water was given only to the cattle of those people who had already attended their daily literacy class. Although this strategy was very useful, the fact that the nomads did not come to the wells daily created a problem which could be overcome only by making the teachers move with them. The result was that there was no permanent teaching place for the nomads. Thus the mobile school unit came into existence. Permanent nomad education centres can be built on this model.

4. Teaching methods: In general the teachers were untrained and did not have any idea about established methods for teaching adults. Thus, each of them taught as he liked and tried in his own way to establish a teaching method of his own. How successfully had these methods helped to transmit literacy skills? How far were these methods successful in widening the politico-cultural horizon

of the rural masses? These are two questions with which we must deal separately.

To transmit reading and writing skills, the teacher followed, in general, the method used by Quran teachers. He wrote the letters on the blackboard, according to their alphabetical order and read them aloud, pointing with a stick or his finger at the letter he was pronouncing. The students repeated what he said aloud and in chorus. The result was that sometimes the students repeated mechanically what the teacher read without being able to identify and to read alone what the teacher was reading. The consequence was that many students learned the lessons by heart but could hardly read or write.

Judged in the context of international norms of a literacy teaching system in which effective transmission of reading and writing skills is the accepted yardstick, the method used was unsound. However, it had the advantage of being familiar to the students who had already attended Quranic schools and acquired some reading and writing skills through this method. Moreover, untrained teachers were able to use this method effectively because most of them had once been students of Quranic schools and were, therefore, acquainted with this method. Since the transmission of literacy skills is not in itself a goal, but a means towards socio-economic politico-cultural development, we should also judge literacy teaching in its contribution in this direction.

5. The Students: The literacy students of the campaign were nomads, semi-nomads and peasants. The available statistics do not differentiate the students into these categories but since nomads and semi-nomads together form the majority of the rural population, these two groups formed the majority of the students.

With the exception of Togdheer, all regions gave the sex composition of those who registered themselves for the literacy classes at the beginning of the campaign. However, the sex composition of those who sat for the final test and those who passed it was not available. Another shortcoming of the available statistics is that they did not divide the students into age groups and thus the number of school-age children who benefited from the campaign by attending the literacy classes was unknown.

It must be kept in mind that the students were given the chance to attend literacy lessons without giving up their way of life and without changing the rhythm of their work habits. In some parts of the regions, Bay and Lower Shabelle, for example, there are communities of hunters. These hunters lead a very simple life. They have neither houses nor furniture. All they have are nets with which they hunt sagaaro (a kind of antelope), and knives with which they slaughter these animals. They are continuously moving.

To teach these hunters reading and writing, the teachers had to move with them and get used to their way of life. In the case of the nomads, the teachers had no other option but to nomadize with their students.

By the end of February, the campaign which had been shortened to seven months, came to an end. Of the 1,257,779 students who had registered at the beginning of the campaign, only 912,797 sat for the final test and of these only 795,099 passed it. Thus the rate of drop-outs was more than 27 per cent and almost 14 per cent of those who took part in the final test failed.

There is no direct correlation between nomadism and the drop-out rate. In the regions of Galgaduud and Sanaag, which are almost exclusively populated by

nomads, we find a very strange situation. In both regions, those who took part in the final test were more than those who had registered at the beginning of the campaign. In Galguduud the increase was 11 per cent and in Sanaag almost 2 per cent. In Togtheer, which is another nomad region, the drop-out rate was as high as 67.5 per cent.

In the agricultural areas, too, we find the same inconsistency. In the lower Shabelle, for example, the drop-out rate was about 2 per cent only, while in the Lower Juba, which is also an agricultural area, the drop-out rate reached almost 49 per cent.

In general, we can say that this high percentage of drop-outs was caused by the drought and by the fact that many nomadic groups moved from the places where they were registered as students, and the final test took place before they reached their destination where they could be registered and tested. Thus, many students who would have passed did not take part in the final test at all.

Treatment and Vaccination of the human and animal population

Both manpower and the financial and other material resources originally allocated for the health aspects of the campaign were smaller than those allocated for the alphabetization activities. The whole budget approved by the Ministry of Finance for the campaign was So. Shs. 21,630,000. Of this sum, So. Shs. 5,500,000 was allocated to the Ministry of Education. As regards the manpower input, the Ministry of Livestock placed 416 of its professional and technical staff at the disposal of the campaign, and the Ministry of Health placed 497.

The teachers urged the nomads and peasants to take advantage of the treatment and vaccination services offered to them and their animals by the personnel of the Ministry of Health and Ministry of Livestock. In many cases, there was a direct participation of the teachers in the treatment and vaccination aspects of the campaign. In the districts of Afgooye and Baydhabe, for example, I saw girls who were teachers serve also as nurses. In many places, the secondary school boys who were teachers also became short-term animal health assistants.

Thus, the health and treatment aspects of the campaign were not carried out in isolation. They formed, together with the literacy aspect, a dynamic unity. To overcome some difficulties of the physical environment, certain innovations were introduced and certain elements in the environment itself used for overcoming difficulties. For example, to overcome Communication problems, caused by the lack of proper roads, camels were used as a means of transport. All vaccine, instruments etc., were transported on camelback. To keep the medicines and vaccines cool, they were covered with some local plants which have a cooling effect.

The greatest difficulty encountered by the staff of the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Livestock in the fulfilment of their duties was the movement of the nomads and their cattle which made it difficult to distinguish between those people and animals who had been treated and/or vaccinated from those who had not.

The number of persons who were treated was 1,614,241 and those vaccinated 1,418,798. In the case of animals, the figures were 11,048,176 and 2,313,670 respectively.

Improvised Activities

The practical application of the campaign led to the improvization of new activities which were not included in the original plan. Some of these activities were carried out to facilitate the implementation of the campaign and others were completely new and dealt with other aspects of local life. The most important of all improvised activities which facilitated the implementation of the campaign was the making of roads.

Not only did they facilitate the implementation of the campaign, they also bound the previously isolated villages with the district market. Thus new trade activities began to emerge in these villages, while in the others marked improvements were experienced.

Another improvization which was undertaken to facilitate the implementation of the campaign was the staging of plays which promoted the interchange of cultural activities and helped spread the objectives of the campaign to the people. The plays covered a wide range of subjects and dealt with literacy learning, cattle raising, public health and other issues related to the campaign.

Many other improvised activities were carried out which had an impact on rural life. In all localities, orientation centres, youth organizations (Ubaxa Kacaanka — Flowers of the Revolution) and even sports such as football were introduced. The teachers were also very influential in changing attitude, for example, to certain foods which were considered taboo in particular villages.

The Campaign as a training field for Community Leaders

The training of community leaders was not foreseen in the original plan of the campaign.

also consciously introduced as a new activity, but the very important role given to the nabaddoon, samaddoon and other community leaders turned the campaign into a training field for these people.

The local leaders became more aware of all matters concerning the development of their communities and improved their interaction with the local people, developing leadership qualities which reflected the aspirations and experiences of the local masses.

Working closely with government institutions community leaders were able to understand properly what government is and how government institutions should be approached. Thus, they were now in a much better position to communicate with these institutions.

Follow-up of the Rural Development Campaign on a permanent basis (JOHRM)

Organization of the Follow-Up :

During the operation of the rural development campaign the following question arose:

What will be done after the campaign ?

Discussions on this issue resulted in the holding of a seminar with the participation of representatives from all regions and districts. The seminar recommended a) to continue the activities initiated by the campaign, and b) to place the responsibility for the continuation of the campaign on the Ministry of Interior which was the national institution nearest to the rural areas.

The recommendations of the seminar resulted in the establishment of a policy-making national committee consisting of the Minister of Interior as Chairman,

and of the Ministries of Agriculture, Livestock, Forestry and Range, Health, Transport and Information as members. Initially, the Secretary of the Political organ of the Supreme Revolutionary Council, which was the political organ of the Somali Revolution, was also a member. In July 1976 the Political Office was abolished and the Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party was founded. The Chairman of the Party's Bureau of Mobilization also joined the Committee as a member. In addition, a national technical committee for co-ordination, consisting of professionals from the same ministries, was also formed for the purpose of implementing and co-ordinating the campaign at national level. Other co-ordination committees were formed at lower levels, from the regional and district down to the smallest community level.

TABLE I. Literacy Classes in the Regions (1976)

Regions	Enrolment	Number of participants in final tests	N. of persons promoted and who could continue with their literacy
1. L. Shabelli	92,226	86,053	77,550
2. Lower Juba	19,069	19,069	19,069
3. Middle Juba	33,264	33,264	29,664
4. North-Western			
Region	82,609	73,411	71,300
5. Hiran	51,732	45,600	35,200
6. Middle Shabelli	109,111	67,039	35,447
7. Galgaduud	5,782	45,600	5,782
8. Togdheer	33,949	28,477	24,116
9. Mudug	10,783	10,783	10,783
10. Nugaal	14,719	11,400	9,932
11. Sanaag	17,520	17,520	17,520
12. Bari	14,760	14,760	14,760

13. Bay	49,376	40,560	33,593
14. Bakool	22,558	22,558	18,906
15. Gedo	11,088	11,088	11,088

Totals: 567,546 487,088 432,710

TABLE 2. Literacy Classes in the Regions (1977)

Region	Enrolment
Benadir	60,015
Lower Shabelli	71,420
Lower Juba	16,378
Middle Juba	24,155
North-West Region	73,529
Hiran	14,501
Middle Shabelli	30,159
Galgaduud	8,473
Togdheer	15,409
Mudug	10,231
Nugaal	13,914
Sanaag	12,834
Bari	30,281
Bay	73,826
Bakool	18,841
Gedo	13,214

Total: 487,180

Strategy for the follow-up included:

1. The best literacy students were given further teaching in literacy while they were trained in matters concerning the development of rural communities. These people replaced the students-teachers who returned to their schools.

2. The technical committee developed a comprehensive working programme for the local committee. The core of this programme was literacy, and almost all other activities were related to literacy. In this respect, several books, pamphlets, etc; concerning the different aspects of rural development were prepared by the Ministries, especially NAEC, and other institutions whose functions were directly or indirectly related to rural development.

THE FOLLOW-UP ACTION

During 1976, the first year of the follow-up, 568,546 people attended the literacy classes and 432,710 passed the final test. In the second year, 487,180 people attended the classes, but the available statistics do not show the number of dropout nor the number of those who passed the final test. They do not even differentiate between beginners and people who had already attended literacy classes the previous year.

The data concerning other activities of the campaign, like vaccination and treatment of people and livestock or the number of people trained in agriculture, fishing, etc, are also not available. However, since all other training activities were to a great extent integrated in the literacy teaching, one can assume that the literacy students were also the people who were given some training in agriculture, livestock rearing, etc. Yet a problem which arose was that, while alphabetization was common for all, the other aspects of the campaign were not so. For example not all students were trained in nursing or poultry raising. Training in Agriculture was given only to those people involved in this occupation and considered potential peasants. The same was with the other professions.

Certainly, statistical data are necessary to evaluate the campaign in quantitative terms. Yet their scarcity cannot prevent us from attempting an evaluation. In the light of this approach, the campaign should be evaluated not only in terms of the number of people who have been made literate and who have been trained in skills necessary for rural development and so on, but also in terms of consciousness acquired by the rural population regarding their development, especially the development brought about by themselves.

From the above summary one can get a general idea about the follow-up of the campaign. However, these few lines cannot do justice to this comprehensive and wide-ranging national effort which a lot of the country's future will depend. It is necessary to undertake an in-depth analysis of the issue and the full picture obtained from it can then become a sound basis for further action. Such an analysis has to be carried out by highly trained and analytically-minded research workers in collaboration with the people in the communities.

CONCLUDING REFLECTIONS

The impact and contribution of literacy towards rural development in the Somali Democratic Republic is a process which involves more than imparting reading and writing skills and other knowledge and skills in matters concerning rural development expressed in written form. It is an action not through but by the rural masses, which aims at development, the centre of which is self-realization. In this context, literacy deals with the development of the rural personality as a whole. Any judgment on literacy's impact and contribution towards rural development should focus attention on this fact.

From the analysis contained in this paper, we can conclude that in the Somali Democratic Republic the literacy activities resulted in the enhancement of the political consciousness of the rural people who began to conceptualize and realize themselves in the context of this consciousness. Hence the rural personality began to undergo a deep transformation, the dynamisms of which vitalized all the aspects of rural life: this can, to some extent be expressed in quantitative terms (e.g. the number of alphabetized people, the number of people who acquired skills and knowledge through literacy, etc). But in essence, it can be conceived only by analysing the development of the rural personality, and this can best be done through analysis of its thought, aspirations and all that it reduces into writing.

NOTES

1. Members of this Committee were the Secretary of States for Interior, Health, Livestock, Transport, Planning and the General Manager of the State Printing Agency. Its Chairman was the Secretary of State for Education.
2. Each organ concerned was represented by a professional member on a full-time basis who responsible for the communication between the office and the unit in his institution which dealt with those aspects of the campaign in which it was directly involved. The main administrative activities of this office were carried out by members of the Ministry of Education whose Director-General became the head of the office.
3. Its members were identical with those of the council in each region. The regional education officers became the direct agents of the Ministry of Education in the regions.
4. Members of this committee were from the councils in the respective areas.

REPORT : REFUGEES IN SOMALIA

Said M. Gees and Roble Jibril

Introduction

The question of refugees is a problem that plagues not only the Horn of Africa or the continent in general but premodinantly the Third World countries. The causes might be different as some are victims of political repression, others of religious nature, and many due to economic reasons. But nonetheless the most underlying factor for these reasons has been colonialism, imperialism and neo-colonialism.

The colonialists divided Africa and other Third World countries to satisfy their economic greed. In this process they split asunder people of the same nationality; and in line with their policy of «divide and rule» fanned discords, planted artificial antagonisms and boundaries among the various African people.

Today, the colonialists are just around the corner and by using the remnancy by the legacy they left i. e. boundary, territorial disputes, economic and cultural oppression they are still busy in redividing Africa and fanning conflicts among African countries often resulting in a massive exodus of people who later on end up as refugees.

However, it is too simplistic to pin all the problems on colonialism. And much more damaging to expect solutions from the charity hand-outs of foreign Agencies as a pancea for our refugee problems. Hence this necessitates the correct analysis of the origins of the refugee problem in post colonial Africa in general and that

of the Horn in particular. But before we do that it behooves us to define what a refugee means. According to the UN Charter and the Universal Declaration of Human rights, and the OAU the term refugee shall mean every person who, owing to well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country, or who, not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence as a result of such events, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it.

The term «refugee» shall also apply to every person who, owing to external aggression, occupation, foreign domination or events seriously disturbing public order in either part or the whole of his country of origin or nationality, is compelled to leave his place of habitual residence in order to seek refuge in another place outside his country of origin or nationality.

The origins of the Horn refugees are not too difficult to locate. It could be found amply and readily in the history of the Horn.

Around the turn of the century and right after the treaty of Berlin in 1884 the major European Powers headed for the conquest of Africa and unfortunately African King of Abyssinia was among the partners. After winning diplomatic understanding with the European Powers, Ethiopia took full participation in the Berlin Conference.

By virtues of treaties signed with the said powers at Berlin in 1884, Ethiopia's expansionist Emperor Menelik with full backing of Britain, France and Italy occupied the cultural centres of Western Somalia. Menelik, moreover, entered the final treaties ceding parts of our country with the European colonial powers in 1897 - acquiring what Ethiopia upto this day considers the legal basis for her colonization of Western Somalia. To assure a piece for himself in the bounty Menelik writes to the colonial powers.

«If powers come from a distance to partition Africa between them, I do not intend to be an indifferent spectator.»

After the birth of modern Ethiopia under Emperor Haile Selassie, Ethiopia's claim on Somali people and territory escalated. Any Somali protest about the savage situations they were forced to live in were met by severe repression from the Ethiopian forces. The Somali people under Ethiopian colonialists were kept illiterate, and destitute. Their human, cultural and religious rights were severely violated and abused.

It was under such circumstances that the people of Somali West were forced to organise in order to liberate themselves from any forms of oppression and colonialism. In the ensuing years many Somalis were lynched, jailed and shot by Ethiopian armies but this could not kill their yearning for their quest for self-determination and independence.

When Haile Selassie's rotten feudal regime was destroyed by the Ethiopian masses, people of Somali West were highly supportive of the revolution hoping that a de-

mocratic and Socialist Ethiopia would respect the rights for self-determination of oppressed nationalities. Unfortunately and characteristically of the Ethiopian ruling class, their obsession for territorial greed has far outweighed any regard or respect for the democratic and human rights of the people of Somali West and Eritrea.

Menelik sold Eritrea to the Italians, Haile Selassie ceased bases in Eritrea for the U.S. in return for the annexation of Eritrea. Today after the people of Somali West scored a brilliant victory against the Ethiopian ruling classes, the Ethiopian Military Regime made an unholy alliance with the Russians and Cubans, who only yesterday were training the Somali West resistance in guerilla warfare.

From this we can conclude that Ethiopia has been colonizing the Somali West with the tacit help from European colonizers and the United States and today with the help of Russo-Cuban artilleries and military. The Ethiopians continue to unleash ferocious terror, often resorting to a burn all kill all policy in order to frustrate the struggle and aspiration of the people of the Somali West and Eritrea. Many children old people, and the sick fell victims to this brutal act. But those who survived escaped the holocaust to Somalia in search of shelter and medical aid. As a result Somalia has to facilitate food, shelter, hospitals and schools for these refugees. To day these are 500.000 of them in Somalia. With 220,000 of these in refugee camps and the rest as integrated refugees. These are the causes of the refugee problems in the Horn of Africa.

You might be aware that, following the tragic events in the Horn of Africa, the Government of the Somali Democratic Republic in co-operation with UNHCR and other humanitarian organizations and through bi-

lateral assistance from sympathetic countries, launched an emergency relief programme for a large number of refugees in its territory. These people had been forced to flee their homeland and enter the territory of the Somali Democratic Republic due to compelling circumstances beyond their control, circumstances that involved brutal oppression and violence.

Our official estimates put the figure of such refugees around 500,000. Out of this number, so far 220,000 are in refugee camps. We have been able to set up 20 camps in 13 districts under 5 different regions of the Somali Democratic Republic. With the assistance of the UNHCR, other organizations and states, these refugees are provided with basic necessities like food, shelter, medicine, education and other social amenities. We are in the process of formulating concrete projects in order to involve the refugees in self-help programmes. Some of these projects include the provision of agricultural tools, fertilizers and seeds. Since virtually the majority of these refugees are rural-oriented, the most suitable approach would appear to be their involvement in the agricultural or stock-raising schemes as a part of a more stable temporary resettlement plan. The Somali Government is seriously considering the feasibility of such a plan both in terms of its practicality and the financial resources it would entail. In view of our serious human and material limitations, it goes without saying that Somalia alone cannot shoulder the heavy burden of the implementation of these and other vital projects required for the refugee people in Somali territory.

As many of you will recall, we possess some experience in the task of re-settling large numbers of rural victims. Following the 1973-75 drought, we had been obliged to transfer and resettle about 120,000 drought vic-

tims. Today they have regained new meaning in life in three large agricultural settlements and three fishing communities. Let us also add that a significant proportion of these former victims of the drought had entered the Somali Democratic Republic from the same region that has given us the refugees under discussion. Obviously, the causes and consequences of natural calamities are not the same as these associated with socio-political upheavals that cause conventional refugees. But the point is simply that the experience gained in dealing with the former natural disaster did give us a basis to react seriously and rapidly in handling the present man-made crisis.

Likewise, we took immediate and effective measures to deal with the present situation. As soon as we were confronted with the problem, the Government set up a special committee under the Presidency to examine such matters at the highest level and adopt appropriate measures. We have since appointed a National Commissioner for Refugees working under the auspices of the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development responsible to a full fledged National Commission for Refugees. Among other things, he is responsible for the co-ordination of national and international assistance. Having already acceded in the past to the UN Convention of 1951 and the Protocol of 1967 relating to the Status of Refugees, we were obliged to provide the basis for their practical implementation by laying down the juridical and administrative moralities for the determination of refugee status in Somalia. We have recently enacted a Presidential Decree No. 21 as part of our efforts to provide for better institutional arrangements in order to handle the refugee problem in our territory.

Within the 20 refugee camps in Somalia, there is an estimated total of 45,000 families; the children in the

camps constitute 57 per cent of the total, the women 28 per cent and the men 15 per cent. The number of school age children in the camps is 46,612. Every effort is being made to provide primary education within the camps so as not to displace the young ones from family ties. Secondary education is provided on a boarding basis within our existing high school institution. This being the International Year of the Child, we are making arrangements to set up specific projects for the benefit of the refugee child.

Presently, we have about 1,000 secondary school leavers among the refugees. Some of these have been placed in our young National University in Mogadishu. International assistance is needed to supplement our national endeavour to provide these young men and women with greater and more diversified opportunities for higher education and professional training.

In conclusion violation of human rights being the basis of Africa's refugee problem should never escape our minds. It is a painful and tragic spectacle to witness the reign of terror and oppression which prevails in certain parts of our continent where people are constantly subjected to inhuman suffering, torture, arbitrary detention and bloody massacres in violation of international Conventions on Human Rights. The country of refuge in cooperation with international agencies, may give all possible moral and material assistance in support of these refugees. But this is not enough. The refugees do not feel at ease nor are they psychologically contented with temporary material assistance rendered to them. For unless the Governments concerned demonstrate a sense of understanding and cooperation and extend a generous hand of mercy and forgiveness to these people for

their safe and peaceful return home, we cannot claim to have satisfied their real needs and human aspirations. Let us rededicate ourselves to the noble principles of justice, freedom and self-determination. These universal principles are not only reflected in our African traditional and past history; they also constitute a significant cornerstone of the UN and the OAU Charters to which we are fully committed. We are therefore bound by tradition, history and law to uphold them in our policies at national, regional and international levels.

PROFILE OF EDUCATION IN SOMALIA

Prepared by

The Ministry of Education, (1977)

INTRODUCTION

In July 1960, what was known as British Somali land and Italian Somalia were united as the Somali Republic. The country inherited two different systems of education: The British colonial education and the Italian. English and Italian were the two media of instruction in the two united provinces. One task of the Ministry of Education in the Somali Republic was the integration of the two systems. In 1962, English was chosen as the medium of instruction in the first year of intermediate enrolment, while Arabic remained the medium, of instruction in elementary schools.

In spite of this, the system was not completely integration and the curriculum, together with the philosophy of education was still a blueprint of colonial education. The innovator of change was the 21 October Revolution of 1969 which took fresh steps to lay the foundation for a Somalized and environmentalized education.

In the colonial era and until 1969, the administrative and education systems were unorganized, unintegrated and unfit for the young developing nation because:

1. Education was limited to a small minority of people who were to serve the colonial regime (elementary was grade 1-4 and intermediate grade 4-8) during the colonial era and small elite in the period from 1960-69.
2. 15 per cent of the schools in the country were owned privately by foreign organizations and religious communities.
3. Various curricula which perpetuated alien values and interests were followed in the different schools that existed in the country.

To rectify the above state of affairs, the Revolutionary Government took the following:

1. All private schools were nationalized.
2. A latin script for writing Somali language was adopted.
3. A mass education programme was undertaken.
4. Education, as from the 1975/76 academic year, was free and compulsory for children between 6 and 14 years of age.

Statistically, when the Revolutionary Government took over in 1969, the number of student enrolled in public schools was 55,021, of whom 44,708 were boys and the rest girls. After six years (1975/76), school enrolment reached 227,643 public of whom 77,087 were girls. In the year 1977/78, school enrolment was 228,365.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

In primary education, following the decree that Somali was to be the official language both in government administration and education and the declaration

of compulsory education, it was decided that the period of student instruction in primary schools be shortened from eight to six years. This move was based on two fundamental objectives :

Economic Objective

Education is one of the most expensive services that a nation bestows on its citizens. Realizing that the sooner the education system released enough manpower into the employment market, the quicker the advancement of the nation, the expansion of the educational system necessitated the shortening of the primary phase of schooling. The savings thus made will cover the additional expenditure incurred by such expansion.

Education objective

Since the pupil takes his lessons in the vernacular and the curriculum has been geared towards the child's own environment it was felt that the pupil should cover more ground than he did previously.

To show the expansion of primary schooling statistically, in the year 1969/70, the total enrolment in primary schools was 48,611 pupils, of whom 9,576 were girls. 1975/76 enrolment in the same school was 219,550 pupils, of whom 75,526 were girls. In 1976/77, enrolment was estimated to be 279,440 pupils, thanks to our adoption of free and compulsory education. Current estimation are 311,564 pupils.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

General Secondary School

The general objectives of this level are:

1. To produce students who can play a major role in the

social, economic and cultural development of the nation.

2. To prepare a generation who can ultimately pursue university education;
3. To equip students with the revolutionary philosophy of socialism and to liberate them from an obsolete colonial and neo-colonial mentality.

To further materialize these objectives, the following programme was introduced;

1. Technical and vocational subjects (wood and metal work, electrical installations, home economics, poultry farming etc) were introduced into the general secondary school curricula, the aim was to equip young people with some sort of trade that would be useful when they join the labour force.
2. To enable secondary school students to acquire scientific attitudes, the science curriculum was strengthened, courses in sciences and mathematics were increased from thirteen to sixteen hours a week.
3. The study of the ideology and philosophy of socialism was introduced in secondary schools. Statistics-wise secondary school enrolment was in general 6,512 pupils in 1969/70 of whom 737 were girls. In the year 1976/77, enrolment was estimated at 8,800.

TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL SECONDARY SCHOOL

Technical and vocational schools increased during the administration of the Revolutionary Government. Today the existing technical and vocational schools are as follows:

- | | |
|------------------------|---|
| 1. Technical Institute | 5 |
| 2. Polytechnic | 2 |

3. Clerical Training	2
4. Fisheries and Marine Institute	1
5. Agriculture	1
6. Veterinary	1
7. Nursing and Lab/Assistants	3
8. Telecommunications	1
9. Range Management school	1
10. Teacher Training Centres	3

Total: 19

The number of students in the above mentioned schools in 1976 77 was 6,020.

HIGHER EDUCATION OF NATIONAL UNIVERSITY

The National University of Somalia was born in the period of the Revolution. It opened its gates in the year 1970. The rationale offered for its creation and its present existence has been to meet pressing national needs, that is, the production of high-level manpower prescribed for the short-term development programmes of the country. However, the decision for creating the National University was not only based on the country's need for manpower. Equally important, it took note of the trained manpower and financial resources needed to establish and run an academic institution. To attain this in the context of existing technical and financial resources, the following targets have been defined as goals:

1. To reduce and minimize the cost of university education;
2. To establish the faculties that are most needed;
3. To shorten the education by optimum utilization of student time and energy;
4. To accept and learn the art of improving the tools of

education like teachers, space, other education resources etc;

5. To effectively meet defined national targets for the acquisition of the necessary skills for development.

There now exists a national University consisting of nine (9) faculties, namely:

- College of Education
- Faculty of Agriculture
- Faculty of Veterinary
- Faculty of Geology
- Faculty of Medicine
- Faculty of law.
- Faculty of Economics
- Faculty of Engineering
- Faculty of Chemistry

In the academic year 1975/76 the University student population was 2,280,10 per cent of whom were workers who were given University opportunities.

FUTURE DEVELOPMENT

The infant University is beginning to take shape, form and character. It is moving towards full-fledged growth on an accelerated pace. Its main objectives are:

1. The creation of a self-contained and comprehensive campus to replace the scattered institution;
2. The establishment of new faculties;
3. The completion of the Somalization of the teaching staff;
4. The exploration of using the mother tongue as the medium of instruction.

3. Clerical Training	2
4. Fisheries and Marine Institute	1
5. Agriculture	1
6. Veterinary	1
7. Nursing and Lab/Assistants	3
8. Telecommunications	1
9. Range Management school	1
10. Teacher Training Centres	3

Total: 19

The number of students in the above mentioned schools in 1976 77 was 6,020.

HIGHER EDUCATION OF NATIONAL UNIVERSITY

The National University of Somalia was born in the period of the Revolution. It opened its gates in the year 1970. The rationale offered for its creation and its present existence has been to meet pressing national needs, that is, the production of high-level manpower prescribed for the short-term development programmes of the country. However, the decision for creating the National University was not only based on the country's need for manpower. Equally important, it took note of the trained manpower and financial resources needed to establish and run an academic institution. To attain this in the context of existing technical and financial resources, the following targets have been defined as goals:

1. To reduce and minimize the cost of university education;
2. To establish the faculties that are most needed;
3. To shorten the education by optimum utilization of student time and energy;
4. To accept and learn the art of improving the tools of

education like teachers, space, other education resources etc;

5. To effectively meet defined national targets for the acquisition of the necessary skills for development.

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CURRICULUM

As mentioned earlier, the country inherited a curriculum that was designed by two foreign governments for two colonial system with different educational philosophies. The Somali government between 1960 and 1969 did very little in the field of curriculum. Thus, when the revolutionary Government took over in 1969, it considered it imperative that education content be improved and revolutionized. Thus, in 1972 new syllabuses were produced, and textbooks written in Somali were prepared and introduced into our elementary classes. In the following year Somali was introduced into the first two years of a four-year intermediate education. The secondary schools curriculum remained more or less the same as in the past. Although these changes constituted a big step forward nevertheless it was found that curriculum was still short of what was envisaged. Another attempt to improve the curriculum was made in 1974 when it was decided to make Somali the medium of instruction for all grades (1-8) of primary education. Being rooted in the Somali culture and environment realities, the new curriculum aims at preparing the Somali child for the life that surrounds him, while the old syllabuses aimed at preparing all school leavers for university education. The Somali pupil is learning faster and the whole classroom atmosphere is different from what it used to be. The new curriculum is designed in such a way that students first learn about their environment and then are introduced to other information that they need to know about life, their country and the outside world. Another asset of the new curriculum is the emphasis it gives to science subjects in order to equip students with a firm scientific base.

To actualize these new curriculum changes the Revolutionary Government took the following measures:

1. INTRODUCTION OF WRITTEN SOMALI.

Somali as the medium of instruction was introduced

into elementary education in 1972 and into the intermediate phase between 1973 and 1974. In 1977 it was introduced in the first year of secondary education, and English as the medium of instruction will be consequently phased out in other classes.

The introduction of Somali as the medium of instruction meant that pupils covered ground much faster than before; it also actualized the Somalization and environmentization of our education. Therefore, it is anticipated that the student will no longer be alienated from his culture.

2. SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS

Just as Somali replaced foreign languages as the medium of instruction, so have new syllabuses and textbooks been written by Somalis to replace the foreign ones. The major aim of this revolutionary educational change was to realize a curriculum that caters for a new Somali Society whose political philosophy is based on the principles of socialism. To quickly implement the writing of textbooks for schools and to achieve the desired goals, the Ministry of Education appointed 15 author committees consisting of 268 Somali teachers and curriculum development officer in 1974.

One of the first tasks of these author committees was to review the curriculum and revise it to suit the needs of the Somali child. The second task was to write the textbooks in Somali. The fruit of the 9-month textbook writing campaign were 135 titles as shown in table 1.

TABLE I. Level and number of textbooks completed

Level	No. of books
1. Primary education (including 9 teacher's guides)	70
2. General Secondary	40

3. Clerical and technical for general sec. schools	5
4. Home economics	6
5. Kindergarten	1
6. Adult Education	10
7. Functional Literacy	3
Total	135

In addition to that, 26 textbooks were written for the teacher training programme in 1976 and textbook writing efforts were initiated for technical institutes.

TEACHER TRAINING

As the training of teachers is fundamental to any education system, the Ministry of Education has also taken big steps in this direction. Apart from short training courses and seminars that are conducted, there are plans to equip all teachers with graduate education at the university. This programme started in 1969, and this aim is to dispense with the system of hiring foreign teachers by the academic year 1978-80. This programme increased the shortage of teachers in the primary schools. This shortage is made up in two ways.

1. Each year a one-year teacher training course to 8 intermediate graduates is given. In the 1974-75 academic year such a course was offered to 2,500 teachers. last year, 3,000 student teachers are being trained this year for the same purpose. The one-year training is reinforced by summer seminars and refresher courses.
2. Using secondary school graduates as teachers. Beginning with the year 1972, all secondary school graduates were to undergo a military and ideological training period of six months. After this, the students go for their National Service and work as teachers in primary schools

for a period of one school year (9½ months). When the National Service period is over, these student/teachers are giving the choice of either going to the university or working in one of the Ministries or Agencies of the Government. In the years 1972-76, the number of National Service teachers who performed their national service period was as follows:

Year	Number
1972/73	700
1973/74	1,112
1974/75	1,224
1975/76	1,157
1976/77	1,680

Without the services of these young people, the expansion of education would have been greatly handicapped and probably unattainable. Any increase in the enrolment of primary education will naturally be transmitted to secondary education. Consequently, the teacher requirement at the secondary level will increase. To meet this requirement, 325 students were enrolled at the Lafolle College of Education last year and there are plans to enrol 525 teachers and National Service student/teachers in the same institutions this year.

CLASSROOM CONSTRUCTION.

To cope with the increase in student population it became necessary to construct more classrooms. Since the inception of the revolution, there has been an increase of 2,788 classrooms in primary education, of which, 1,877 were built in the last two years.

These classroom are more than twice the number existing prior in the Revolution, the construction of

these classrooms has been achieved by the principle of self-reliance, and its labour force consisted of the Revolutionary masses, workers and the armed forces. Furthermore secondary schools have been built. Moreover, a technical component has been introduced in secondary education. Into both these new schools and in previously existing secondary schools, laboratory extensions and workshops such as a metal workshop, wood workshop, electrical installations workshop, agricultural laboratories, experimental farms, home economic laboratories and workshops have been added.

GROWTH RATE OF SCHOOLS AND CLASSROOMS

In 1969 there were 204 elementary schools, 28 intermediate schools, 17 general secondary schools, 8 technical and vocational schools and 1 teacher training school. In terms of classrooms, the schools consisted of 1,439 primary school classrooms (934 elementary and 496 intermediate); 141 General secondary; 33 technical and vocational and 11 teacher training.

Six year later, 1975/76, there were 844 primary (elementary and intermediate) schools, 43 general secondary schools, 16 technical and vocational schools and three teacher training institutions, in terms of classrooms, the 1975/76 corresponding figures were 3,120 primary school classrooms, 290 general secondary school classrooms, 93 technical and vocational school classrooms and 18 teacher training school classrooms.

PERCENTAGE INCREASE IN SCHOOLS AND CLASSROOMS

During the six-year period (1969/70 to 1975/76), the percentage increase in schools was 263 per cent in primary schools, 100 per cent in general secondary schools.

ls, 100 per cent in technical and vocational schools and 200 per cent in teacher training schools.

During the same period the corresponding classroom increases were 116.8 per cent in primary schools, 105.7 per cent in secondary schools, 181.8 per cent in technical and vocational schools, and 636.4 per cent in teacher training institutions.

TRAINING AND GROWTH RATE OF TEACHERS

1. In the scholastic year 1969/'70 the available teachers were as follows:

Primary schools	1,542
General secondary schools	242
Technical schools	79
Teacher training	10
Total	1,873

2. In 1974 corresponding figures were:

Primary schools	1,800
Secondary schools (general)	437
Technical school	159
Teacher training	44
Kindergarten	20
Total	2,460

This indicates that there is an increase of 17 per cent in primary school teachers, 84 per cent in secondary school teachers (general and technical) and 40 per cent in teacher training institutions. The above statistics indicate that there is a fairly large gap between class/teacher ratio (there are 2,544 classes versus 1,800 regular teachers). This shortage has been remedied by the utilization of secondary graduates as national volunteers.

In the scholastic year which began in July 1975 there was a tremendous increase in the regular teaching force due to the fact that there was a huge output from the teacher training institutions as indicated below:

1. Primary school teachers	2,054
2. Secondary school teachers	70
3. Technical school teachers	42

When this is added to the previous number of regular teachers that total becomes:

Primary school teachers	4,029
Secondary and Technical school teacher	607
Total	4,636

KINDERGARTEN

It is the policy of the Government to educate and nurture pre-school age children (4-6 year old).

The objective of this is to establish nurseries where children are raised and their health controlled before they join the regular school system. At present there are 12 Kindergartens in which 1,240 children are enrolled. Prior to the Revolution, there were no institutions of this type which were government-owned. There existed, however a few foreign-run nurseries. Currently, the short-term plans envisage the establishment of kindergartens in each regional capital but in the long run the plan is to establish these institutions throughout the country.

FUTURE TRENDS

The entire curriculum in the schools has been geared towards the local environment and to the needs of the Somali people both vocational and prevocational

education have been introduced into the secondary and primary school curricula. Moreover, in order to further reduce the gap between what is taught in schools and the actual economic activities of the society, the government decided to:

1. Introduce farm and factory schools where students can receive first hand information and practical experience.
2. Establish rural education centres (nomadic and agricultural) where teachers can be dispatched to help the rural masses in their daily activities and to learn from them.
3. Establish a close link between the school and society by the temporary employment of local craftsman to visit and demonstrate their skill in schools and teacher training institutions; to make use of local materials and expertise.
4. Increase the number of technical and vocation schools.
5. Create home economic centres in all regional and district capitals.

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

Before 1972 few people recognized the need to educate the adult population. Many viewed it as an irrelevant appendix to the established formal school system of the time. This attitude has changed with the writing of the script of the Somali language which produced an influx of literate people who wanted to further their education. The demand for education coincided with the Government's realization that rapid economic and social development was unattainable unless proper training and educational opportunities were provided for the masses.

The first step taken toward meeting the new challenge was the launching of two successive campaigns

aimed at the eradication of illiteracy throughout Somalia. The second campaign, which was extended to the rural areas in 1974, was in effect for ten complete months. Hundreds of thousands of students, teachers, and civil servants followed by veterinary and health units moved to the most or parts of the country and to every nomad hamlet and village in order to teach and treat their fellow brothers.

The rural and urban literacy campaigns resulted in making 1,757,779 people literate, and millions of persons and their animals received medical and veterinary services. In order to keep up and improve on the achievements won, and especially to prevent relapse into illiteracy, yearly follow-up campaigns have been organized in all regions of the country and a national committee has been set up to see that everything is carried out properly. But the new literates of the campaigns in turn have general new demands, it is a fact of life that people never become content with what they have, once they see the road to a higher stage. Therefore, the Ministry of Education was confronted with the urgent task of providing educational opportunities for the literates. To that effect, formal adult classes, which were formerly confined to major towns were extended to the village to educate the masses.

For those adults who had primary school certificates, a correspondence school geared to secondary education was opened in 1974. Correspondence lessons are prepared and mailed to those registered and, the end of each year, examinations are conducted and those who pass are promoted. The introduction of the correspondence schools helps adults to continue their education, and it has relieved the ordinary secondary schools from the task of educating the masses of adults who sat in the clas-

srooms with the adolescents. Another kind of non-formal education is Home Economy Education. Never before in the history of education in Somalia has home economy education been given such an important role as at the present time. Since 1976, home economic education has been given great priority because of social, national and technological changes which profoundly affected human affairs and personal relationships. This education has moved far beyond the earlier emphasis on sewing and a few other skills of home-making designed to cater for a selected number of women in the major towns.

The Ministry of education has recognized and fully understood that home economy education is the one which, when carefully planned and implemented, can meet the needs of the Somali family and help it solve the main problems related to nutrition and child care, health and hygiene, sewing, and all other skills of home-making. That is why today's curriculum includes all aspects of family living. Since all members of the family unit are concerned, the scope and function of home economy have been extended to nearly all districts. The policy of the Ministry of Education is to further expand this kind of education to the village level in the near future. In addition to this, seven centres for nomads and three multi-purpose centres will be opened in well-settled areas this year. The seven centres will be established in suitable rural areas, with three multipurpose centres in the agricultural rehabilitation centres where the drought stricken population has been settled (see Paper 14, the Nomadic Education Project in Somalia).

LOOKING FORWARD

Somalia has decided to gear its education towards utility and production. The philosophy behind this

is that the education of the child has little value if it does not help the child to adjust to his own environment and the best possible benefits accrue to society. Education should be utilized and it should serve man to improve his life and that of his fellowmen. Because of this basic philosophy, the Somali child will from now onwards, study his own immediate environment and be instructed in subjects that are unique to his locality. Basic education will be taught to every child, but schools in agricultural regions, those on the coast and others that are situated in areas where livestock rearing is suitable, will study agriculture, fishing and livestock rearing respectively. Schools located in urban centres will study topics like wood and metal work, poultry farming, electricity and a multitude of other subjects that might prepare for life. The purpose of this type of philosophy is two fold:

1. Children in villages and rural areas will by the nature of the instructional programmes, be prevented from rushing to towns and urban centres for employment after leaving schools. Contrary to the practice in the past, children will now stay and be useful in their own environments for which they will be prepared after terminating their schooling.
2. The different disciplines taught to students will equip them for life and contribute towards the general betterment of communal life.

Our policy in secondary education is directed towards science and technology. Development in modern society depends and relies on scientific advancement and technological know-how, and because of that, suitable individuals in society should be highly trained these fields to guarantee healthy progress.

Mass education is another item that will be given due emphasis in future. Steps towards this goal have already started and what has been achieved so far is outlined in the preceeding paragraph.

THE USE OF THE SOMALI LANGUAGE

The use of the Somali language is the most important factor in liberating our education from its colonial past. In the use of the vernacular, Somalia has made a great leap forward in the emancipation of its people and in the revival and strengthening of its culture and heritage. The writing of the language produced a new flood of literature and released energies and talents especially in the field of poetry, folklore, etc. that were denied an outlet for expression in the past. It is through the use of the Somali language that the people are reclaiming their own identity and pride, in their past and in their achievements. Without the use of Somali, the rural development campaign which was launched in 1973 74, would have been unthinkable. The result of this campaign, as mentioned before, were most fruitful. For the time, the rural people found the opportunity to benefit from the fruits of independence. True communication based on equality and progress was established between the rural people and Revolutionary Government. Suspensions and stereotyped ideas between towns people and the rural people were eliminated and contradictions between them uprooted.

The question now facing us is not one of priorities and policies, but one of discovering the suitable strategies and programmes for the attainment of our goals and ideals. In our individual efforts of preparing the child for life, it is most important that we exchange experience at the practical level and in this way discover the common elements in our endeavours to create societies based on justice equality and progress. Only by exchanging experiences of this kind can we translate our policies into practical realities.

**CLOSING ADDRESS DELIVERED BY DR. AHMED
ASHKIR BOTAN, MINISTER OF HIGHER EDUCATION
AND CULTURE.**

Dear Participants and Guests, Brothers and Sisters,

You have come to the end of your Excellent Conference. It gives me honour and pleasure to make these brief concluding remarks.

During the past six hectic days, you have accomplished a great deal. First of all, most of you travelled thousands of miles to get to Mogadishu for this Conference. During your long trip here and even before that, you suffered a number of inconveniences and discomforts.

We admire the courage and patience you have shown in overcoming all obstacles in order to attain your objective: to gather in Mogadishu for the Third International Frantz Fanon Conference.

As soon as you arrived, the Conference opened and you visited Orientation Centres before departing early the next day for your field trips. Our country is normally sunny but June happens to fall in the rainy Season.

We salute you for undertaking the field trips inspite of rains, mud and bad roads. Your will and determination permitted the original Conference Programme to be followed, and therefore, everything went according to schedule.

The theme for your Conference «Human Development Models in Action» required you to study our development projects. You were also able to hear Somali papers written in order to throw light on such issues as the Somali experience in planning and human resources development, the role and function of our public sector, educational policies and the development of the Somali language, rural development and the literacy campaign and aspects of community health and medical research being undertaken in Somalia. You made excellent theoretical contributions that will enable us to benefit from our own experience. Our intellectuals benefitted a great deal from the variety of papers presented and discussed during the Conference.

You were also able to hear informative keynote addresses: The opening Address by Dr. Mohamed Aden Sheikh and the others by Mr. Ibrahim Meygag Samatar, Dr. Mary Robertson and Mr. Ahmed Mohamed Mohamoud.

You also had the rare opportunity to meet with and exchange views with the Leader of our Revolution, Jaalle Mohamed Siad Barre, the Secretary General of the SRSP and President of the Somali Democratic Republic. His presence among you last night demonstrates the great interest and concern shown for this Conference by our people.

Mogadishu has hosted numerous international gatherings. We have also had the occasion in the past, for example, following the Sixth Pan-African Congress held in Dar-es Salam in 1974, to host a large number of its delegates who visited Mogadishu briefly after the Conference.

However, your visit, coordinated around a well-organised academic Conference is in several respects unique and you have made a lasting impression on our people.

As Minister of Higher Education and Culture, I am particularly interested in the Pan-African cultural exchange suggestions made during this Conference. You must do everything in your power to contribute to the socio-economic and cultural development of our mother continent, Africa. Your history and position should allow you to make important contributions in various aspects related to the transfer of technology.

To implement such ideas requires concrete proposals or projects, reliable methods of communications, patience and optimism. We on our part will do everything in our power to facilitate the exchange of personnel and materials between Somalia and Black peoples everywhere.

It is very difficult to plan and organise a Conference such as this one. I congratulate all of you for what has been accomplished so far. But, I must also remind you that it is more difficult to follow-up the suggestions or recommendations made at this Conference. Be modest about what can be accomplished following a scholars Conference. Nevertheless, please be firm and consistent in follow-up actions. The name of Fanon is always associated with the linkage between theory and action. During these days you have met and discussed and talked a great deal; following the Conference is the time necessary for action.

We hope that your brief stay in Mogadishu has been as pleasant and productive for you as it has been

for us. We wish you all a safe journey back home.

I hereby declare «closed» this Third International Frantz Fanon Conference.

Thank you

**A REPORT ON CHILDREN'S YEAR IN SOMALIA
THE FIRST NATIONAL FESTIVAL
FOR CHILDREN 1.6.79**

**Dr. Mohamed Ali Nur
Vice-Chairman of the
Bureau of Social Af-
fairs of the C.C. of
SRSP**

The following report is in the form of notes. This outline was used by Dr. Mohamed Ali Nur during the speech he made over luncheon on Saturday June 23rd, 1979.

NOTES ON EVENTS AND ACTIVITIES

The first of June is the Somali Children's Day. To commemorate the occasion, the children of the seven day-care centres of Mogadishu had put together an evening programme on that day.

The programme was composed of children's arts, crafts display, folklore dances as well as plays based on the essential things for the development of the child in Somalia. (The whole programme was staged by 4 to 13 years old children.) The programme was divided into:-

- I. Display of arts and crafts consisting of:
 - (a) Articles made by 4-6 years old children from the Day-care centres in Mogadishu.
 - (b) Articles made by the assistance of D.D.C. teachers.
 - (c) Visual aids made by the teachers showing how they deliver the learning experience to the children.

- (d) Photo display showing welfare programmes for children in the S.D.A.

In these it was observed:-

- How the children perceive the world and environment around them.
- Their aesthetic and artistic tastes.
- Their imaginative ability.

II. The play was staged by 250 children. This was composed of songs, dances, recreational activities, music etc.

- Time :- 0 - 18 years children
- Place :- The world
- Theme of the story:- The child on the move, moving from starting point to a defined target. It could have a number of interpretation namely:-

1. Moving the stages of physical development from inception to whom he/she is able to work.
2. Movement through balanced growth i. e. physical, mental and emotional balance.
3. Moving through activities and struggling to overcome obstacles that he/she may counter.
4. A flight in which he/she employs the above 3 points to cross from one growth level to another.

SEQUENCE OF THE PLAY:-

Introduction: Children marching through life.

Scene I;

- a. The national music composed for the occasion of the I.Y.C. and particularly for the Somali Child.

Scene II:-

- b. The voice of the New-born baby on 1.6.79

Scene III:-

A song depicting the importance of the mid-wife in child development.

Scene IV:-

The baby moves from the mid-wife to the mothers care. Followed by a song defining the mothers essential role.

Scene V:- Shows the child's second stage of development i. e. Responsibility of the school and teacher.
Scene VI:-

A services of recreational activities, songs folklore and traditional child dances to welcoming the I.Y.C.

II. REVOLUTIONARY PIONEERS OF OCTOBER

— Special songs for I.Y.C. story in Action describing what the revolutionary Government has done for the child.

ACTIVITIES AND PLANS FOR THE IYC

This is a short report of the IYC Committee's plans, aspiration, and activities decided so far. There are several other ideas not yet finalized.

1. Special edition of the 'KAAH' magazine (quarterly Youth magazine) will be published and it will contain articles concerning children.

2. New sets of postal stamps have been issued for the IYC.

3. A Somali Song of the 'Child' or IYC is being composed by the Ministry of Information.

4. Exhibition of Children arts and crafts was on display at the Hotel Uruba from 1st June 1979.

5. A special registration of the children born on 1 June 1979 (The day of Child) was made, and presents were given to the family of those children born on that date.

6. It was decided at National level - Party Decision - that the following will be established:-

a) A Children's Palace (centre) to be constructed in Mogadishu. The survey, design and feasibility study is in process.

b) A special fund for children has been established by the President.

— The fund started on 1st February 1979 with the initial contribution by the Central Government and Agencies of So. Shs. 5 Million is already paid.

— It was suggested that the Political and Senior Civil Servants also contribute to this fund.

— From 1st June 1979 to the end of the year fund raising activities are planned. The starting event took place on the 1st June 1979 at the Uruba Hotel. The event consisted of a play, folk songs, dances, etc., plus display of children arts and crafts. There were other musics for modern dances. Admission fee of Somali Shs. 50 was collected from each guest.

7. Sport event took place on 31st May 1979 in Mogadishu Stadium for the children in which all school children, between 6 to 14 years of age participated.

8. On 12th June 1979, the day of the 'UBAH' commemorated the International Year of the Child through rallies, public meeting and decoration of the pities. Special emphasis was given to the declaration of the 'Rights of the Children.

9. The Immunization Programme now operating in 4 regions will be extended to other regions.

10. A National Festival of Children will be organized.

The Programmes for Children in the Youth Centres and Resettlements areas who are already receiving the maximum benefits according to the country resources were reviewed and evaluated so that steps of improvements necessary could be taken. The Government decided to give with the assistance of the International Organizations the Refugees children as far as possible the same facilities as one available to the children of the Youth and Resettlement Projects.

REGIONAL ACTIVITIES:

Benadir Region

Mogadishu — within this year the Municipality of Mogadishu city will construct the following:-

1. 4 Dispensaries with MCH wings
2. 3 Day-care Centres
3. 3 Family Life Centres
4. To repair all the existing dispensaries, MCH, Family Life, and Day-care Centres in Mogadishu.
5. The construction of play ground started in 5 district of Mogadishu.

Appendix II

THE DEATH OF RICHARD CORFIELD

MAHAMED-ABDILLE HASAN

This poem was composed to celebrate the death of Richard Corfield in the battle of Dul Madobe (Dul Madoobe) on 9 August 1913, when a Party of the Dervishes surrounded and launched a fierce attack against the camel detachment which Corfield commanded. Corfield had been sent to Somaliland to organize a camel constabulary to restore some order out of the chaos which had followed the ill-fated policy of coastal concentration pursued by the British Government between 1910 and 1912. His field of action was, however, firmly restricted to protecting the main clans friendly to the British within a limited area. He was to avoid engagements with the Dervishes as far as possible. But Corfield was a man of courage and determination and in the events which led to his death at Dul Madobe disregarded his orders. In the battle he was struck in the head by a Dervish bullet and apparently died instantly. Consequently, the savage manner of his death described exultantly by the poet seems to be exaggerated.

The poem was composed by Sheikh Mahammed shortly after the news of the battle was reported to him.

Stylistically, it will be seen that many of the lines in the poem are set in the form of injunctions introduced by the word 'say', in a manner reminiscent of the diction of the Quran.

This poem reappeared as recently as 1959 in a political broadsheet distributed in Mogadishu.

1. You have died, Corfield, and no longer in this World,
2. A merciless journey was your portion.
3. When, Hell-destined, you set out for the other World,
4. Those who have gone to Heaven will question you, if God is willing;
5. When you see the companions of the faithful and the jewels of Heaven.
6. Answer them how God tried you.
7. Say to them: 'From that day to this Dervishes never ceased their assaults upon us.
8. The British were broken, the noise of battle engulfed us'.
9. With fervour and faith the Dervishes attacked us'.
10. Say: 'They attacked us at mid-morning'.
11. Say: 'Yesterday in the holy war a bullet from one of their old rifles struck me.
12. And the bullet struck me in the arm.'
13. Say: 'In fury they fell upon us.'
14. Report how savagely their swords tore you,
15. Show these past generations in how many places the daggers were plunged.
16. Say: «Friend,» I called, «have compassion and spare me»

17. Say: 'As I looked fearfully from side to side my heart was plucked from its sheath.'
18. Say: 'My eyes stiffened as I watched with horror;'
19. The mercy I implored was not granted.'
20. Say: 'Striking with spear-butts at my mouth they silenced my soft words;
21. My ears, straining for deliverance, found nothing;
22. The risk I took, the mistake I made, cost my life.'
23. Say: 'Like the war leaders of old, I cherished great plans for victory.'
24. Say: 'The schemes the djinns planted in me brought evil consequences.
25. Say: 'When pain racked me everywhere
26. Men lay sleepless at my shrieks'.
27. Say: 'Great shouts acclaimed the departing of my soul.'
28. Say: 'Beasts of prey have eaten my flesh and torn it apart for meat.'
29. Say: 'The sound of swallowing the flesh and the fat comes from the hyena.'
30. Say: 'The crows plucked out my veins and tendons'
31. Say: 'If stubborn denials are to be abandoned, then my clansmen were defeated.'
32. In the last stand of resistance there is always great slaughter.
33. Say: 'The Dervishes are like the advancing thunderbolts of a storm, rumbling and roaring.'

DHIMASHADII KOOFIL (R. Corfield)

Maxamed Cabdulle Xasan

1. Adaa Koofilow jiiṭayoo,
dunida joogeyne
2. Adigaa jdkii lagu waday
jimic la'aaneede
3. Jahannamo-la-geeyow, haddaad
Aakhirow jahato
4. Nimankii Janno u kacay war bay
jirin inshaa'allaaye
5. Jameecooyinkii iyo haddaad
jawhartii aragto
6. Sida Eebbahay kuu jirrabay
mari jawaabteed
7. Daraawiish jigraar nagama deyn
tan iyo jeerkii dheh
8. Ingiriis jabyoo waxa ku dhacay
jac iyo baaruud dheh
9. Waxay noo jajuunteenna waa
jibasho diineed dheh
10. Jigta weerar bay goor barqo ah
nagu jiteeyeen dheh
11. Aniga jikray ila heleen
shalay jahaadkii dheh
12. Jeeniga hortiiṣay rasaas
igaga joojeen dheh
13. Jiiraayaday ila dheceen
jiric-afkoodii dheh
14. Siday kuugu jeexeen magliga
jararacdii sheego

15. Billaawuhu siduu kuu jarjaray
jeerarka u muuji
16. Naf jaclaysigeed baan u iri
jallow iga daa dheh
17. Jaljalleccadii baa wadnaha
jeeb ka soo ruqay dheh
18. Jeedaalladii baa indhuhu
kor u jillaadmeen dheh
19. Jimic kama helin tuugnadaan
jeriyey ruuxii dheh
20. Kolkaan juuq iraaqdo ba afkay
iga jifceyeen dheh
21. Wax badan baan jalleecoo dhegaan
22. Goortaan jarreerona gafoo
nolol ka jaan qaaday
jalaq la iisiin
iga ag jiibsheen dheh
23. Sida janaannadii hore tashigu
igu jaguugnaa dheh
24. Taladii jinnigu ii hor-maray
jaasadeed helay dheh
25. Jiidaha xanuunka leh markii
la igu jeeraarshay
26. Jibaadka iga soo baxay dadkii
jiifka qaban waa dheh
27. Kolkay rubaddu jow tiri or bay
28. Jirkaygiina bahal baa cunoo
jiitay hilibkii dheh

29. Jurmidiyo baruurtii dhurwaa
jugux ka siiyaa dheh
30. Jiiljiiladiyo seedahay tukuu
igaga jaadeen dheh
31. Haddaan lays-jikaarayn tolkay
laga jiilroonaa dheh
32. Weligood waxa lagu jaraa
jilib-dhig duulaan dheh
33. Daraawiish waa jibin-dhowga iyo
jowga soo bixi dheh.

Appendix III

CLASSICAL SOMALI POETRY

THE LIMITS OF SUBMISSION

By Farah Nur

This poem describes a universal human theme-it deals with oppression, suffering, patience and the ultimate reaction against oppression.

1. Over and over again to people
2. I show abundant kindness.
3. If they are not satisfied
4. I spread out bedding for them
5. And invite them to sleep.
6. If they are still not satisfied,
7. The milk of the camel whose name is Suub
8. I milk three times for them,
9. And tell them to drink it up.
10. If they are still not satisfied,
11. The homestead's ram,
12. And the fat he-goat I kill for them.

13. If they are still not satisfied,
14. The plate from Aden
15. I fill with ghee for them.
16. If they are still not satisfied,
17. A beautiful girl
18. And her bridal house I offer them.
19. If they are still not satisfied,
20. I select livestock also
21. And add them to the tribute.
22. If they are still not satisfied,
23. 'Oh brother-in-law, oh Sultan, oh King.'
24. These salutations I lavish upon them.
25. If they are still not satisfied,
26. At the time of early morning prayers I prepare
27. The dark grey horse with black tendons,
28. And with the words 'Praise to the Prophet'
I take
29. The iron-shafted spear,
30. And drive it through their ribs
31. So that their lungs spew out;
32. Then they are satisfied;

Appendix IV

A PLEA FOR AFRICAN UNITY

A poem by ABDULQADIR HERSI «YAMYAM», originally presented in Somali at Festac 77, in Lagos, Nigeria. This is a slightly abridged English translation prepared by Mr. Ismail Musa and Dr. Radhmani Gopalkrishna, a faculty member of Lafale College of Education.

To the black brethren with whom

We share skin of the same shade,
To those now gathering all around,
Under the canopy of the Festival of Culture,
To those who, with skill, technique and art,
With sense of beauty brimming, overwhelming,
Have created that vast pavilion of culture,
The miniature mirror of aesthetic Africa,
To the writers with their mighty pens,
To poets breathing songs of fire,
To those now gathering all around,
The fountain-head, the spring of arts,
Greetings and all good wishes,
From our virgin land of great renown
Fresh and fragrant blossoms all.

Of the most aromatic trees!
Nigeria wins our gratitude,
Fresh and sweet as the morning breeze,
To those brains who planned the Festival,
To those hands that worked for days and nights.
For Africa's pride to gather around the festival colours,
Our felicitations . . .

We offer the Chairman of the Festival
And to Nigeria, as a whole,
Our heartiest congratulations,
May Lagos remain the beacon,
For the entire continent.

We welcome you with open arms,
With longing, our own kith and kin,
Brothers of the soul now back again,
On the soil that has brought you forth,
Shipped off across the Atlantic,
Under cover of darkness, the colonial preys,
The brand of slavery written large on their brows,
To work to the bone, to bleed, to enrich
The masters of the colonial rule,
Far, far off, in the vast «New World»,
To starve themselves, to fatten the Whites,
Yet, brethren, you were with us,

In heart, in soul, your roots still here,
Deeply entwined in the African soil,
Dark and rich, at long last-free.

WELCOME BACK, LET US CHEER IN UNISON,
TO OUR MOTHERLAND, NO MORE IN BONDAGE,

CHEER

Allow me to introduce myself,
Before proceeding with my stream of thoughts,

Allow me to introduce myself,

I'm a member of a sturdy group,
A family of forty-eight at present.
A few among my kith and kin,
Are even now in racists' hands.

As to my geographical location,
I am one of the horn's eastern doors,
I long to see her in full command,
With high renown in the OAU,
I am a true-born African.
Were I to describe my country,
I would say it is a virgin land,
That is rich in sheep, cattle, camels,
And every species of game.
I am one who loathes colonialism,

Struggling forever for my country's freedom,
I long to see her in full command,
Over herself, majestic, upright, free.

We are doves, lovers of peace,
Yet Lions, we fiercely guard our door,
With courage ever-ready to face,
Aliens prying, to invade our home.
I am from the Horn of Africa,
I am a Somali !

Now to share my political views,
With you, in whose company I spend,
Precious moments, rarely found,
Indelible on the canves of the mind,
On the re-birth, revival of the eclipsed culture,
Of Africa, we gather, joyous all.
Of late, I have been looking closely,
Into the black communities the world over,
And on this I shall raise a few queries:
O ! poor , heat - scourged tree !
What makes you so thirsty,
While growing as you are,
On the confluence of clear springs.
And perennial rivers ?

As your roots don't penetrate the soil,

Do these thundering clouds,
Ever quench your thirst ?
On your tender green leaves,
The desert locust gets fat,
Is there not some loving hand,
To frighten and to ward them off ?
Are you Ill-fated Mother,
Divorced from prosperity, deprived of sons ?
You are like the legendary bird,
That eats up its offspring in times of drought.
But claims to be a maiden again,
When the spring rains fall.

Does one trust the slave driver,
To whom he was put a beast of burden?
And be loyal to those who sold,
One's kindred souls, with yokes and chains ?
Such a man, if any there is,
He jeopardizes our freedom,
Colonialists have found a bait.
The scourge of African Unity,
Who sows discord among paternal siblings ?
The Israeli racists of the Middle East ?
Apartheid of South Africa ?
Or Ian Smith ponder for sometime,

Yet, strong rays of the sun,
And the soft light of the moon,
That facilitate man's life on earth.
Has the almighty God ordained,
That you deprive Africa of your light,
And thus leave her in perpetual darkness ?
Or are the Africans only to blame themselves,
For their self-inflicted blight ?
Why blame the days and stars
For self-made misfortunes ?

DELVE DEEP INTO THE REALMS OF YORE,
REVIEW GLORY, PHASE BY PHASE
RECALL THE AGE OF THE PHAROAHs.

And the Eternal Pyramids,
The days of the unforgettable Benin,
Or the great Zulu people.
Or the North Africans who,
Took to Europe the civilized oriental ways,
Through fair Andalusia,
The Malians who amazed the world,
And earned a place under the sun,
The Zimbabwe merchants,
Whose caravans used to reach North,
As far as Aualites (Zeila)

And Ras Raheita.

Along our aromatic coasts:

The land of Punt.

Who did impound your passport,
Your forward march to prosperity ?
Are the shortcomings far to seek,
Or are they here, in your own heart ?
Where are those who, given time, would leave,
Risen, meteor-like to world fame ?
The able, adroit politicians, we
Badly needed, but prematurely gone ?
O, where are your Elder Statesmen who,
Gave up their very lives for you?
And where the learned men, who were,
Pioneers of African renaissance ?
Where is Sayid Muhammed ?
The father of African Revolution,
Who pioneered the defeat of Colonialism,
That daring Dervish against whom,
When he was about,
To triumph.
The British invaders used war planes,
Where is the Great Lumumba,
The Star of all Africa ?

Where is the Indomitable Nasser,
Who used to shine as a Beacon.
Of the progressive peoples the world over
Who helped launch the Non-aligned Movement ?
And who helped fiery Nkrumah voice,
The interests of Third World ?
Where is Mondale who never
Succumbed to sligh or ill-treatment ?
The Mondlane whose children,
Were jammed into prison cells,
In the heat of his national struggle,
But who from where he used to roar,
Live sparks still shoot out ?
Where is the Mahdi,
The heroic revolutionizer of the Sudan?
Where is Mukhtar,
Where is Harbi,
The founder of Libya ?
The great orator of Nationalism?
Where is the much-lamented Cabral,
Whose assassination still wrings,
Our continental heart with pain ?
Are we not to discover yet,
The trails bright they blazed for us?

Watch, in Namibia, Rhodesia too
Alien minorities govern supreme,
Disinterested, passive, we look on,
The ghastly scene, without a stir.

The day engraved in letters gold,
The day the Black World gathers here
It marks a real gigantic step
Of a nation on the forward march,
It is a step that moistens
The eyes of history with tears of joy.
Let me illustrate, with a gem,
From proverbs, of the fragile stick,
Easy to break, and of their bundle strong,
Never to be broken - «UNITED WE STAND».

Many are such literary gems,
Ever to remind of the same truth.

Let us all now join hands
For onward march with steady feet
In every field, soar higher yet,
Bound each to each for common weal,
Bound to the land that gave us birth
Ahead yet, with heart and hand.
So make Africa a Common Wealth.
She needs all sections closer still

Under the Banner, all as one.
So let us have a single Flag,
Which we must collectively own,
A Flag that is adorned by the map of Africa,
Recognized by the World body,
And hoisted high above the UN building,
We must have an elder Statesman
Ripe in wisdom, and the ways of world
He who stands for us should be
An African Nationalist to his marrow.
Those countries boasting of their might
Our mouth piece should out-maneuvre,
Their weapons, vetoes, brandished straight
Oppose the ways of righteousness,
I, however, stand before this assembly today,
In the hope that, one day,
My plea may be affirmatively approved,
Since it is the highest aspiration,
Of our broad masses.
I have the feeling, however,
That the Heads of State will soon,
Steer us on to the right course.
But no matter what they do about it
This is my considered opinion,
My thanks, to the elders of the audience.

Appendix V

MATHEMATICAL SONGS

Professor Mohamud Nur Alim

Lecturer College of Education Ifoole

HEESAHA XISAABTA

Heesaha xisaabta waxay
naafaqsan yihiin dhaqanka
waxbarasho ee Afrikaanka,
isla markaa si dhug xeel
dheer ayey u qeexayaan ere-
yada ku hirgalay xisaabta.

Isku dhufasho Kalagoyin
Isugeyn Isugeybin

1. Xisaabteenna guudnimo,
tiirarkeeda waaweyn;
tiradoodu waxay tahay,
Afar tiro ahaaneed.

Adna taas ogsoonow! !

$$3 \quad 4 - 4 = 0 \quad 7$$

$$3 \div X = 7$$

$X = 7 - 3$ Isweydaar inta
isugeynta iyo
kala goynta

$$\therefore X = 4$$

4 waxa u ah isugeynta is-
weydaar - 4

4 waxa u ah isku dhufashaa
isweydaar $\frac{1}{4}$.

$$3 \quad 4 \times \frac{1}{4} = 1 \quad 12$$

2. Kala goynta waxay ta-

MEANING OF MATHEMATICAL SONGS

These mathematical songs suit the African culture of teaching mathematics and they also define well the concept of teaching mathematical terminologies.

Multiplication Subtraction
Addition Division

1. (Our) mathematics in general has (these) supports, which are four in number.

Please note this! !

$$3 \quad 4 - 4 = 0 \quad 7$$

$$3 \div X = 7$$

$X = 7 - 3$ Inverseness of
Addition and
Subtraction

$$\therefore X = 4$$

4 is the additive inverse -4

4 is the multiplicative inverse $\frac{1}{4}$

hay Isugeyn isweydaar
Isugeybinteeduna
Isku dhufashadeeday
Isweydaar u tahayoo
Tusmadeeda muujee
Kor ayay ku taalaa.
Adna taas ogsoonow!!

Subtraction is an inverse
operation of addition
So does division operation
is an inverse operation of
multiplication; as demon-
strated above.
Please note this !!

Waa

Equals

Isugeyn: $2 \div 3 = 5$
biiro biiro wadar
3. Isugeyntu waxay tahay
tiro u geeyoo
tiro waliba waxay tahay
biiro teed u taaloo
wadartoodu waxay tahay
tiraday ku oodmaan.
Adna taas ogsoonow!!

Addition: $2 + 3 = 5$
Addent Addent Sum
Addition is a fundamental
operation combines a num-
ber to a number, each of
the series numbers to be
added is called an addent
Sum is exact number they
yeild (close).
Please note this !!

Kala goyn: $7 - 3 = 4$
 $7 - 9$ karti uma
hufna Ururka
tirsiimada
4. Kala goynta waxay ta-
hav, tiro tiro ka gooyoo,
karti how hufnaato, tus-
madeeda taan yeel ha-
dhaageedu wuxuu ya-
hay, inta hoosta ku taal
Adna taas ogsoonow !!

Subtraction: $7 - 3 = 4$
 $7 - 9$ impos-
sible in set of
natural num-
ber.
Subtraction is a fundamen-
tal operation involves to ta-
ke away a number from
another provided that it
should have natural possi-
ble solution. The remainder
(difference) is to be indi-
cated below.
Please note this !!

Isku dhufasho: 3 goor oo 4
ah waa 12

$$3 \times 4 = 12$$

Isir Taran

Isku dhufasho waxay ta-
hay

Tiro tiro ku gooree

Tiro waliba waxay tahay

Isir teed u yaaloo

Tarantoodu waxay tahay

Tiraday ku oodmaan

Adna taas ogsoonow !!

Multiplication: 3 times 4
equals 12

$$3 \times 4 = 12$$

Factor Product

Multiplication is fundamen-
tal operation that involves
a number times a number.
Each of numbers multiplie
is known as factor. Their
product is the result that
they yield (close).

Please note this ! !

Isuqeybin: $12 \div 4 = 3$

La qaybshe = qayb $\times$ qaybiye

6. Isqeybinteeduna

Tiro weeye guudoo

Bal tismeyn la qaybsho

Rag tabcaday intuu helay

Tarantii la qaybsaday

Karti ay wadaageen

Qof waliba tiskii helay

Adna taas ogsoonow !!

Division : $12 \div 4 = 3$

Divident = Qotient $\times$ divisor

As for the division

It involves specified num-
bers.

One of which is to be known
as a dividend representing a
product obtained by wor-
king together; so as each of
them has to get his own
share.

Please note this ! !

Hab dhiska xisaabta

Iyo xeerarka khuseeya xi-
saabta qaarkood.

7. Afartan: xisaabfale

Labuun tilmaamo leh

Taakulin bal urur tiro

Xeerarkeed tismeynuu

Mathematical systems and
basic properties that con-
cerns certain operation.

From these four fundamen-
tal operation. Only two of
them illustrate dividly their
basic properties when cer-

Isugeynta wadarta leh
Adna taas ogsoonow

tain set numbers are employed.

One of these two operation is the addition with the uniqueness of its sum; and other is the multiplication with the uniqueness of its product.

Please note this ! !

8. Xeerka Oodanka ee Isugeynta iyo isku dhufashadu ay leeyihiin.

Isugeyn Isku dhufasho

$$3+4=7 \quad 3 \times 4=12$$

$$4+5=9 \quad 4 \times 5=20$$

Dhammaan tirooyinku waa tirsiiimo

Oodanley tusmeeye

Isugeynta dhowr tiro

Tiruun bay ku oodmaan

Wadartoodu la yiraa.

Isku dhufashadooduna

Tiruun bay ku oodmaan

Tarantoodu la yiraa.

Adna taas ogsoonow !!

9. Asal-ma-doorshaha isugeynta

$$3+0=0+3=3$$

Bal aan kuu tilmaamee

Tiro asal ma guurta ah

Wadar tamar u yeelan

Tiro eber u geeyoo

Tabteeday ahaanoo

Waxba kama tareysoo

Waa tiro-ma-doorshee

8. Law of closure for addition and Multiplication.

Addition Multiplication

$$3+4=7 \quad 3 \times 4=12$$

$$4+5=9 \quad 4 \times 5=20$$

All natural numbers illustrating the law of closure can be indicated by adding certain numbers to yield exactly one number known as the sum that they close, these numbers they yield exactly one number known as the product that they close as well. Please note this ! !

9. The identity element for addition.

$$3+0=0+3=3$$

To give you some illustrations displaying examples as when a number is added to zero the result obtained as a sum is exactly the same as the original number.

Isugeyntu leedahay
Adna taas ogsoonow !!

$b \div 0 = b$ sidaas awgeed
Ayu eber yahay
Asal-ma door-
shaha Isugeynta.

because zero is the identity
element for addition.

Please note this !!
 $b \div 0 = b$ since zero is the
identity element
for addition.

10. Asal-ma-doorshaha is-
ku dhufashada.
 $3 \times 1 = 1 \times 3 = 3$
Bal aan ku tilmaamee
Tiro asal ma guurta ah
Wadar tamar u yeelan
Tiro kow ku jiido
Tabteeday ahaanoo
Waxba tareysoo
Waa tiro ma-doorshee
Isku dhufasho leedahay
Adna taas ogsoonow !!

The Identity element for
Multiplication.

$$3 \times 1 = 1 \times 3 = 3$$

To give you some illustra-
tions displaying examples
like when a number is mul-
tiplied by ONE the result
obtained as a product is
exactly the same as the ori-
ginal number, because one
is the identity element for
multiplication.
Please note this !!

$b \cdot 1 = b$ sidaas darteed ayuu
hal u yahay Asal-ma
doorshaha isku dhu-
fashada.

$b \cdot 1 = b$ since one is the iden-
tity element for mu-
ltiplication.

11. Xeerka kala horumarin
ta ee Isugeynta iyo Is-
ku dhufashada.

Commutative law for addi-
tion and Multiplication.

$3 + 4 = 4 + 3$ Xeerka kala hor
 $b + t = t + b$ marinta
ee Isugeynta

$3 + 4 = 4 + 3$ Commutative
 $b + t = t + b$ Law for Addi-
tion.

Hab kasta oo la isugu
geeyo laba biiro (bu-
shi) amase turxan uma
leh wadarta ay isku

The order of adding two ad-
dends does not affect their
sum

$a + b = b + a$
Multiplication

$3 \times 4 = 4 \times 3$ Commutative

noqdaan.
 $a + b = b + a$
 Isku dhufasho
 $3 \times 4 = 4 \times 3$ Xeerka kala
 $b \times t = t \times b$ hormarinta ee
 isku dhufa-
 shada
 Hab kasta oo la iskugu
 dhufto isir (bushi) am-
 ase turxaan uma leh
 tarantooda.
 $a \times b = b \times a$

Heesta

Bal aan sii tixraacee
 Tusaalooyin bixiye
 Wadarta iyo tarantaba
 Tiradaad ka keentiin
 Kolba kaad hormarisaan
 Turxaan uma lahaatee
 Adna taas ogsoonow !!

12. Xeerka Hormogelinta
 ee Isugeynta iyo isku
 dhufashada.

$$(3+4)+5=3+(4+5)$$

$$(b+t)+c=b+(t+c)$$

Xeerka hormogelinta
 ee Isugeynta.

Xeerkan wuxuu ku saabsan yahay si kasta oo loo hormo geliyo Isugeynta saddex biiro turxaan amase bushi uma leh wadartooda.

$$(b+a)+c=b+(a+c)$$

Isku dhufasho

$$(2 \times 4) \times 5 = 2 \times (4 \times 5)$$

law for Mul-
 $b \times t = t \times b$ tiplication
 The order of adding two
 factors does not affect
 their product.
 $a \times b = b \times a$

MEANING OF THE SONGS

With the reference to the above illustrations: the sum and product can not be affected if the order of the addends or factors to be arranged in vice versa. Please note this!!

12. Associative law for addition and multiplication.

$$(3+4)+5=3+(4+5)$$

$$(b+t)+c=b+(t+c)$$

According to this law the way in which three addends are grouped does not affect their sum.

$$(b+a)+c=b+(a+c)$$

Multiplication

$$(2 \times 4) \times 5 = 2 \times (4 \times 5)$$

$$(b \times t) \times c = b \times (t \times c)$$

Associative law for multiplication.

$$(b \times t) \times c = b \times (t \times c)$$

Xeerka hor-
magelinta ee
Isku dhufa-
shada.

Xeerkan wuxuu ku saabsan yahay si kasta oo loo hor-mogeliyo saddex isir oo isku dhufasho. Idu turxaan amase (bushi) uma leh tarantooda.

$$(b \times t) \times c = b \times (t \times c)$$

HEES

Bal aan sii tixraacee
Tilmaamaheeda bixiyee
Wadarta iyo tarantaba
Tiradaad ka keentiin
Si kastoo hormadu tahay
Turxaan uma lahaatee
Adna taas ogsoonow!!

According to this law the way in which three factors

are group does not affect their product.

$$(b \times t) \times c = b \times (t \times c)$$

MEANING OF SONG

With the reference to above illustrated examples. The sum and the product cannot be affected; no matter what way the number (addends) or the factors are grouped. Please note this !!

13. Xeerka kala dhigga

Haddii si gaar wadar loo tusmeeyo oo lagu dhufto tiro kale wadarta markaas waa mid biiro kasta oo tiradaas ku dhufsan sidaas darteed $a(b+c) = ab+ac$

Distributive Law

If an indicated sum is to be multiplied by a number then multiplied each addend by the number.

$$\text{Thus } a(b+c) = ab+ac$$

14. Tirsiimo: (1,2,3,4,...)

Tirsiimo waxa weeyaan Ururka xubnihiisa yihiin tirooyinka la tiriyo. Ereyga tirsiimo waxay laqbadu tahay tirooyin sameyn hab-

The Natural Numbers (1,2,3,4,...)

The natural numbers are the sets whose elements are counting numbers. The word (Tirsiimo) means numbers arranged in

siimo isku xiga. Ururka tir-
siimadu waa:

(1,2,3,4,.....)

Saddexda ee gadaal ka raa-
caan waxay tismeynayaan
inuu urur yahay dacallaa-
we — la soo koobi karin—

HEESTA

Tirsiimadu waxay tahay
Tiradii la tiriye
Habsan la tiriye
Tiriyaaba kow yiri
Lagu beego tirintana
Wax la tirin intay tahay
Tusmadeedu waxay tahay
Urur weynta tiradeed
Dacalkeed la tabeyn
Adna taas ogsoonow.

order of one after another
and newly coined the set of
natural numbers (1,2,3,4,..)
The three dots indicate that
the set is infinite and end-
less.

THE MEANING OF THE SONG

The natural numbers are
counting numbers happen
in good sequence (order)
when one counts the first
word he utter is «ONE»
when one counts the first
counting has corresponding
sequence objects to be
counted. The set of the
natural number is an infi-
nite set (endless)
Please note this!!

15. Tirooyinka idil (0,1,2,3,
.....)

15. The whole numbers
(0,1,2,3,.....)

- Tiro idil waxay tahay
 Ka tixraac eber uun
 Ku xigsiin tirsiiimo
 Xubnaheed la tiriyaun
 Tusmadeed waxay tahay
 Urur weyn tiradeed
 Dacalkeed la taabeyn
 Adna taas ogsoonow.
16. Tirooyin Maangal
 Xariiqda tirooyinka
 maangalka ah.
- Maangal tiro waxay tahay
 Asto joomatariyeed
 Jiiftow xarriiq taal
 Waxay kala tusmeysaa
 Isweydaar ka tiraduun
 Taladii xisaabiyahan
 Inta taal gees midig
 Tiro togan ayay tahay
 Inta taal gees bidix
 Tiro taban ayay tahay
 Adna taas ogsoonow !!

The set of whole numbers has the initial elements and the rest of the other elements are the one in the set of natural numbers and thus this Universal set is an infinite set whose end could not be reached.

Please note this !!

The Real Numbers

The geometric induction of the real numbers are set of points in a line. The point in the middle chosen arbitrarily is labelled with numeral zero so that each other point on the real number line shows the additive. Inverse of another point on the line. By convention those points on the right of zero have positive value, and those points on the right have negative value.

Please note this !!

LAYLIYO

Assigments

1. Mas'alooyinka hoos ku qoran kuwee baa run ah?
 a) Haddii aad damacdid in aad taraq ka saartid sanduug taraqa markaas laba docood, geestaad u furtid suuragal ma tahay inaad kala baxdid mid taraqa ?
1. Which of the following problems are True ?
 a) If you want to get a piece of match out of a match-box then to push either of the two sides can you possible to get your piece of match ? (Yes)

(HAA)

b) $4+6=6+4$ (Haa)

Sabab: xeerka kala hormarinta ee isugeynta

c) $7-2=2-7$ (Maya)

Sabab: $7-2=5$

$2-7=\text{karti uma hufna hadhaagu ururka tirsii-mada}$

d) $9 \times 3 = 3 \times 9$ (Haa)

Sabab: Xeerka Hormogelinta ee isku dhufashada

e) $(2+3)+4=2+(3+4)$

(HAA)

Sabab: Xeerka hormogelinta ee isugeynta

f) $(2 \times 3) \times 4 = 2 \times (3 \times 4)$

(HAA)

Sabab: Xeerka hormogelinta ee isku dhufashada.

g) Haddii la isugeeyo amase la isku dhufto laba tiro oo tirsiiimada ka mid ah markaas wadarta amase taranta ay ku oodmaan waxay tahay tiro kale oo tirsiiimada ka mid ah. (Haa)

Tusaale:

$$4+5=9$$

$$4 \times 5 = 20$$

b) $4+6=6+4$ (Yes)

Reason: Commutative property for addition.

c) $7-2=2-7$ (Maya)

Reason: $7-2=5$

$$2-7 = \text{difference}$$

has no possible solution in the set of natural number.

d) $9 \times 3 = 3 \times 9$ (Yes)

Reason: Commutative property for multiplication.

e) $(2+3)+4=2+(3+4)$

(YES)

Reason: Associative property for addition

f) $(2 \times 3) \times 4 = 2 \times (3 \times 4)$

(YES)

Reason: Associative property for multiplication

g) If two natural numbers are to be added or multiplied then the sum of the product obtained is to be other natural number (Yes)

Example:

$$4+5=9$$

$$4 \times 5 = 20$$

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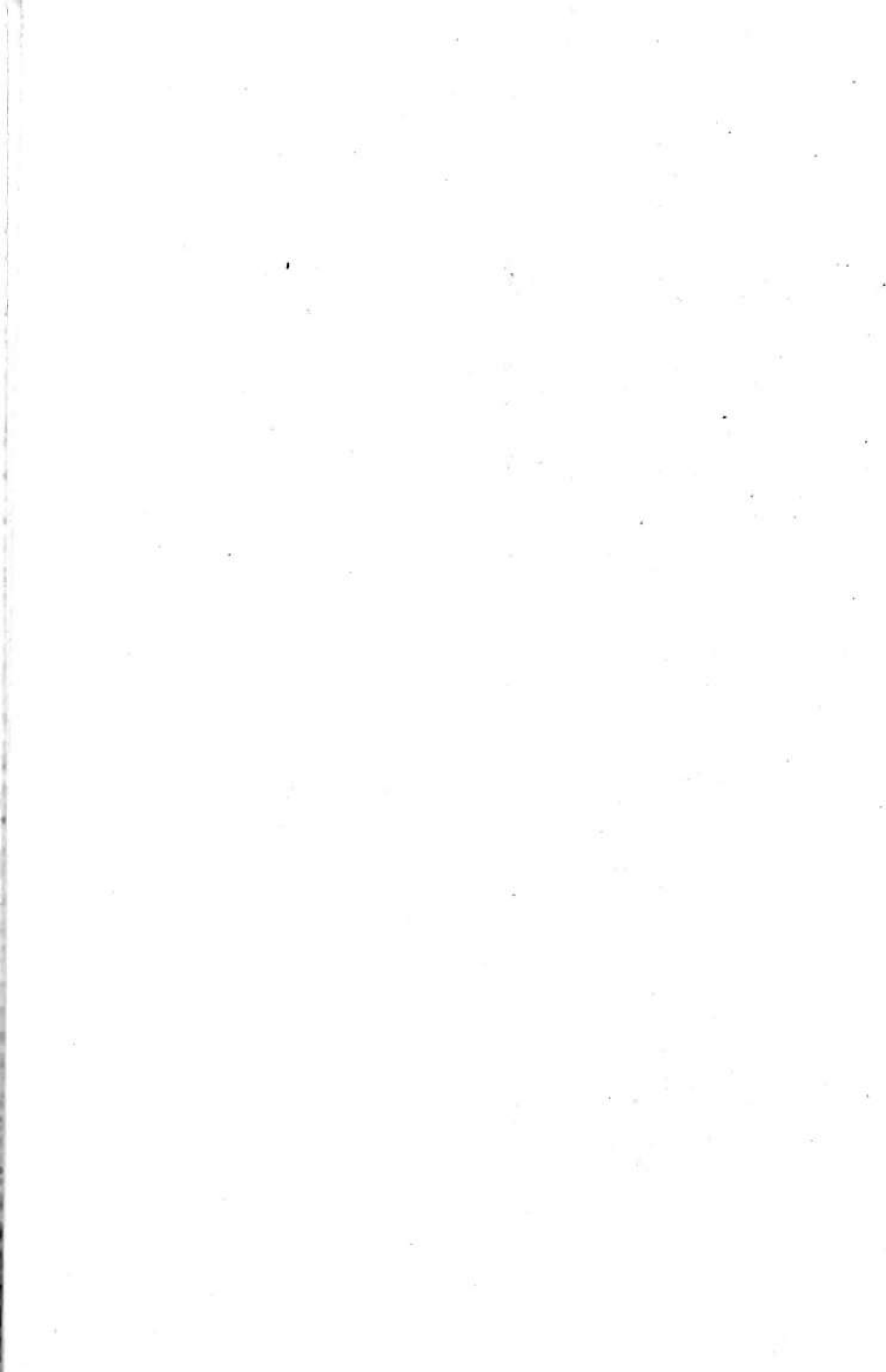
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THEME: HUMAN DEVELOPMENT
MODELS IN ACTION



MOGADISHU, SOMALIA
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