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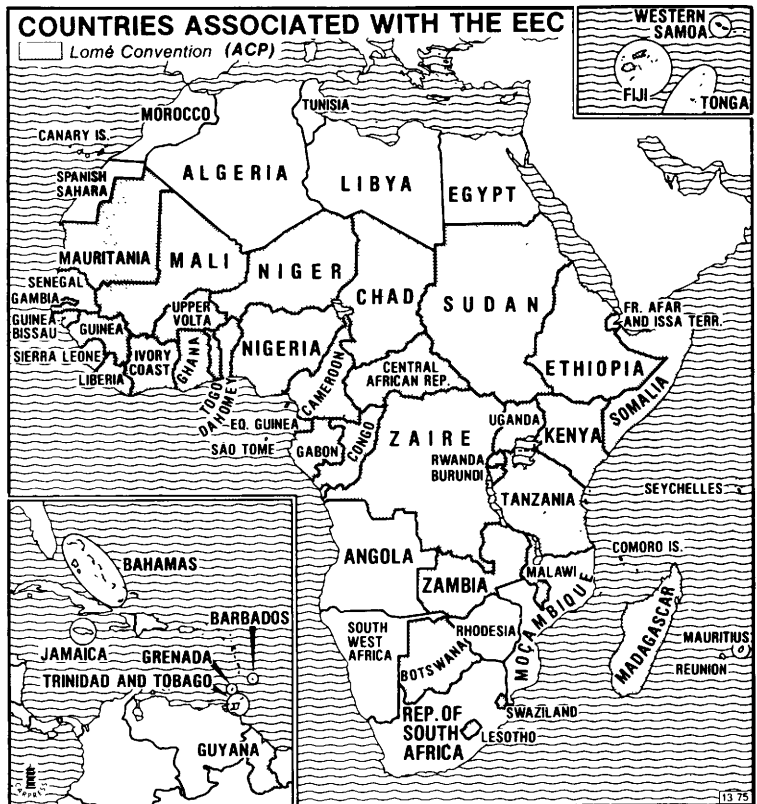
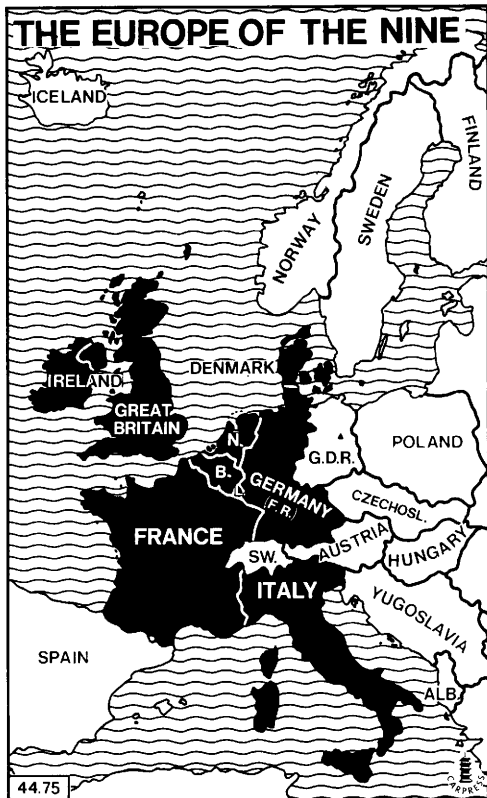
**EDF AGRICULTURAL
PROJECTS**

THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

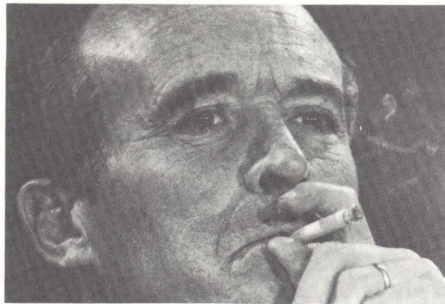
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THE ACP STATES

BAHAMAS	GUINEA	RWANDA
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GABON	MAURITANIA	WESTERN SAMOA
GAMBIA	MAURITIUS	ZAIRE
GHANA	NIGER	ZAMBIA
	NIGERIA	



Lt.-Colonel Kountché — After several years drought, Niger is facing serious economic problems. Lt.-Colonel Kountché, Head of State and President of the Supreme Military Council of Niger, gave "The Courier" his ideas on the solution he has been putting forward during his year in power to bring the country out of the difficulties caused by the drought, and internal and international conditions. **Page 3.**



Jean Sauvagnargues — The French Foreign Minister was chairman of the Community Council of Ministers at a vital point in the Europe-ACP negotiations. He held this office through the second half of 1974 and therefore at the time of the conference at Kingston (Jamaica). M. Sauvagnargues describes the Lomé Convention, signed on February 28, as "an exemplary agreement", showing that "the Community is well able to play an active part in the economic relationships of the world". **Page 9.**

Ivar Nørgaard — The Danish Minister for Foreign Economic Affairs, as chairman of the Council of Ministers, opened the discussions between the EEC and the ACP in July, 1973. Our series of interviews with the European Community leaders responsible for development aid ends with M. Nørgaard's views, 18 months later, on the new tasks the Community has undertaken in regard to its forty-six partners. He describes the role of so small a country as Denmark in international aid and economic cooperation, with particular reference to Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific. **Page 10.**



Philippe Yacé — President of the Ivory Coast National Assembly and retiring chairman of the last Eurafrican parliamentary conference held under the Yaoundé Convention, M. Yacé assesses the parliamentary institution as an instrument of cooperation between the EEC and the AASM and, under the Lomé Convention, between the EEC and the ACP. As Secretary-General of the P.D.C.I. (Democratic Party), he explains the function of the party in the life of his country. **Page 14.**

EDF agricultural projects — Preparations are now going ahead to bring the Lomé Convention into force. What are the results of the earlier agreements between the EEC and the former associated countries? To try to answer some of the questions on the effectiveness of cooperation between the EEC and the AASM, this issue's Dossier contains extensive extracts from the latest report by the Commission to the EEC Council of Ministers on the uses made of aid and an appraisal of its effectiveness. **Page 24.**



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NEWS ROUND-UP (cream pages)

The demand for our special number on the Lomé Convention outran all expectations. Our two normal editions in French and English had to be reprinted and translations of this special number are being prepared in several other languages.

Information and comment on the new convention will be subject matter for the Courier for many months to come. Just at present, however, the convention is going through its ratification process, both in the ACP countries and the member countries of the European Community. While waiting for the convention to come into force, we will make some assessment of what has been done in the individual fields covered by the previous Conventions of Yaoundé, more especially in financial and technical cooperation. The Dossier of the present number consists of an appraisal of the agricultural projects which the EDF has financed. It covers 16 agricultural development operations which have been examined on various occasions during the last few years to check on their condition and usefulness.

The projects fall into three groups. First there are the improvement schemes which have served as a basis for productive investment. Secondly, the hydro-agricultural development schemes aimed at improving farming conditions. Thirdly, the schemes in which priority was given to the introduction or development of industrial crops.

In connexion with the first of these groups, it must be remembered that the essential development factor in the Sahel region is water—drinking water for the people and water for agriculture, both for irrigation and for the local livestock and the migrant or nomadic herds. In the countries where these water problems are vitally important governments give top priority to improvements which precede production, such as dam building and providing pools to hold water for the cattle.

The purpose of these pre-production improvements is not only to make water available but also to use and maintain another scarce resource—fertile soil. The advance in medical knowledge, both

Looking back to plan the way ahead

human and veterinary, has increased populations and greatly added to the size of the herds. Over-grazing, deforestation, excessive land clearance and bush fires seriously reduced the grass and trees. Narrow and uncertain already, the margin of food sufficiency becomes more so; and this in its turn may add to the erosion and lay vast areas open to the encroaching desert.

The primary purpose of the projects in this group, therefore, is to carry out the investment needed to supply people and cattle with water, and to facilitate a more rational use of the soil.

Those in the second group are the logical complement to elementary improvement schemes. They comprise a central feature (hydro-agricultural improvement) which is backed up by a series of further actions undertaken, either at the same time or subsequently, to modernise conditions in the area concerned. These include land ownership reform, training, information and popularisation, supervision and setting up management and marketing organisations.

Under the third heading the projects are directly and principally concerned with improving the quantity and quality of agricultural production for industrial processing, supplying local consumption, developing an export trade and diversifying production. The aim of these projects is essentially to take the best advantage of the soil and climatic conditions in those associated countries where natural, economic and social conditions favour a considerable expansion in industrialised farming by integrating the farms and the processing mills. This type of project may be aimed at import-substitution or at developing the exports of processed or semi-processed products.

All these operations have contributed to agricultural development, increased farm

earnings and better stock-raising conditions. The execution of the projects and the uses made of them have in most cases been technically and functionally in line with the original aims. The outcome has therefore been good, though there have been cases in which the effectiveness of the schemes undertaken was checked by climatic conditions or operational problems due to insufficient adaptation to local conditions.

As regards the weather, the factors are external and beyond control and make it difficult to put forward any definite analysis of the results. In the second case, the authorities in the AASM countries are trying to increase their contribution to the supervision, training, popularisation and marketing problems, and to the maintenance of the work carried out. They also find justified the effort the Commission has made in aiming at the greatest possible integration of EDF interventions into their socio-economic background and the best possible penetration into the economic and social context of the region or country concerned.

The Commission also attaches the greatest importance to the applications made by associated countries for EDF finance being put forward as part of coherent programmes, framed with particular attention to the need for sufficient budgetary provisions and trained local personnel to ensure the proper working and adequate maintenance of the investments. In conformity with the approach laid down by the Association Council, agricultural development projects are often rounded off by technical assistance schemes providing, in particular, for the training of African personnel to handle the working of the projects. Through its bursary and training course programme the Commission endeavours to give priority to bursaries for training, specifically linked with investment projects. This training is in any case limited to the areas of priority defined by the associated country. About two-thirds of the bursary holders and trainees take their courses in institutes, universities and other centres located in Africa. ■

Niger : a year of national renewal

Niamey — Niger, land-locked in the Sahel, is one of the countries hardest hit by the prolonged drought which so seriously affected farming and stock-raising in this region two years ago. For the past year the Niger government has put in hand a plan for economic reconstruction; it faces a number of difficulties, largely due to the aftermath of the drought and the scarcity of national resources.

In this exclusive interview with Alain Lacroix, editor of the "Courier", Lieutenant-Colonel Kountché, Head of State and President of the Supreme Military Council of Niger, gives an outline of his country's present problems and the solutions which he and his government envisage for economic recovery and "national renewal".

► *Colonel Kountché, a year ago Niger undertook a programme of national renewal under your leadership. Would you describe its main lines of action?*

— I should like to begin by two statements about our country, one of them political, the other concerning the drought. It was these which led the armed forces to make the changes everyone knows about.

In the first place the administrative machine was broken down and worn out. It could handle no more than routine. It lacked spirit and had more or less given up to indifference.

Nature then added the drama of the drought; and it is a paradox that, with all the knowledge and power we have nowadays, we are nevertheless resigned to such burdens as nature imposes on us. As you know, our population is nearly 90% agricultural, in which I include stock-raising. The drama of the drought (1) was the destruction of both these means of livelihood, and international aid had to be sought because of the state of exhaustion, and because of certain minds that could do no better than promote corruption at the expense of this mass of people who, at one time, did not even have the minimum means of subsistence.



Lieutenant-Colonel Seyni Kountché.

All this led the armed forces of the country to initiate the changes of which you are aware. Our first thought was, necessarily, to save the population from famine, and we put into operation the measures needed on what we, in military parlance, call the logistic side. We greatly appreciated the sympathy we received from the international community, and more especially from countries which are our friends and neighbours and which put at our disposal means for attempting

to overcome these difficulties. Because of the drought, however, there was a population shift from north to south, with a concentration in the big centres. The rainy season was close, and we had to undertake what we called "Operation Back to the Village", which meant getting these people back into their own areas. In this, our idea was that in the best conditions, and if it should really rain, the population in question would once more be able to work their land. Of course, in taking them back to their villages, we had taken food with them and, thank God, the rains were exceptionally good and the people able to work and produce. The rainy season was good in comparison with other seasons; and if the resulting crops were not fully as good as had been hoped, the results were nevertheless satisfactory. There were of course areas of deficit, affected by caterpillar pests and the end of the rain, which led to serious shortfalls in the millet crop, more especially in the western part of the territory and to some extent in the north and centre.

Our action did not stop there. We had to do what we could to set the administration in motion, and as you know, it is apt to be difficult to get rid of specific kinds of mentality which are often pervasive and very difficult to combat. We were thus obliged to use methods of a somewhat military character. Moreover, the great mass of the workers had not had any rise in the minimum wage for more than 10 years, and we had to do something for them. Besides this great mass of workers

(1) The Inter-State Standing Committee to combat drought in the Sahel (C.I.L.S.S.) met at Niamey from May 7-9. Delegates from Upper Volta, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Senegal and Chad met representatives from international organisations and financing authorities, including the World Meteorological Organisation and the United Nations Development Programme.

in private or public employment, there had been no salary increases in the administration itself. Here again we had to intervene.

You must also remember the political set-up. There were two parties, the R.D.A. (1) and the Saaba, but the latter had had to live in exile for 15 years. For the sake of avoiding a national upheaval, we were obliged to make it a recognised rule that our entry into power did not entail any spirit of hatred or revenge, or any settlement of past accounts. This was a really positive factor when we think of the political confrontations which are apt to occur when one of the political parties has to live many years in an external wilderness and the spirit of freedom has not prevailed. Because of this, we had to inculcate a form of enthusiasm on all sides, so that the older hatreds might be forgotten. For this reason we had recourse to a time-honoured structure which we called the Samaïa, a youth organisation which at present comprises not only the young age groups of both sexes but also civil servants and others. We are making use of all that is healthiest in our culture, customs and traditions. Pending a better definition of a real social and economic development programme, this Samaïa is tackling a number of tasks of public interest, such as village sanitation and help for those in need.

We also had to make thorough reforms in the administration of State property, for there was a serious gap in the system we took over. In some cases the expenditure had no meaning at all. In other cases we had to issue specific orders to bring the use of departmental transport vehicles under control. In urban districts like Niamey, special housing arrangements had to be made, because rents were running around F-CFA 60/70 000 per month (2) while suitable tenants would be earning barely half as much. It was a paradoxical situation, and the State had to intervene. An instance was that of Niger school-teachers, whose salaries might not be as much as F-CFA 50 000, but for whom the State has provided housing costing F-CFA 90 000.

While we have been at work in laying down the broad lines of our action, we

have had to try to think out afresh what we mean by "development" in our own country. There is no denying that the outside world can do a great deal for us in the way of technical, intellectual and financial aid; but we have learnt the lesson of a number of unsuccessful development projects, and we believe it is only our own nationals who can determine our development requirements—the outside world is there to fill in the gaps. We accordingly had to set up a National Development Council (C.N.D.) which has the task of planning, execution and supervision. We have set up an administrative organisation, taking the central unit down to district and local levels. The important thing is that the local bodies should be able to define their own development requirements, that these should be centralised at district or regional level and that what has thus come up from the grass roots should have its influence in the C.N.D. itself, where it will become part of a coherent programme. Up to the present we cannot yet really talk about a plan, as this would presuppose definitions and objectives. There is not time enough for this, and I have asked for a three-year development programme in the attempt to put our economy on its feet. It is in this that the National Development Council is engaged at the present moment.

► *Are agriculture and stock-raising the first priority?*

— Yes. These two sectors are the priority of all priorities. We want to angle our agricultural work on making maximum use of surface water, along the Niger river towards Maradi and in various other districts, so as not to go on being wholly dependent on rainfall. In the northern area, which is a matter of special concern to us, we have to go deep to find water enough to reach the safety margin for the population.

The second objective is stock-raising. This suffered through the drought, and the nomad population, which lives solely by stock-raising, suffered accordingly. There are two methods open to us for reconstituting our herds. First there is the traditional reconstitution consisting of a system of loans which will enable the nomad herdsmen to obtain their cows,

their goats and their sheep and so revert to their accustomed way of life. In such a case it would be during the fourth year, when the animal is beginning to be productive, that the nomad would repay the money borrowed. This is a point, however, on which we are somewhat reticent, for the stock-raising system in its older form needs to be re-examined and changed, not because of the lessons we have learned from the drought but because of what we now know about development.

We are concentrating our efforts on rational reconstitution through breeding or reproduction centres, which will not only produce cattle for slaughter but also serve as a reserve from which we can meet present requirements. Projects on these lines are already coming forward. At the C.N.D. level it is a question of determining the best location for the centres envisaged.

My tours around the country have convinced also me of the need for tackling the problems of health and education. On the health side it has to be admitted that even the most developed countries of the world cannot easily face the problem, still less a country such as ours. The health infrastructure is insufficient and so are the instruments of action—the medicines and medical supplies. This is particularly true when we take into account the physiological aftermath of the drought and the famine, especially as affecting the children. The reversion to a normal physiological balance may well be a matter of years.

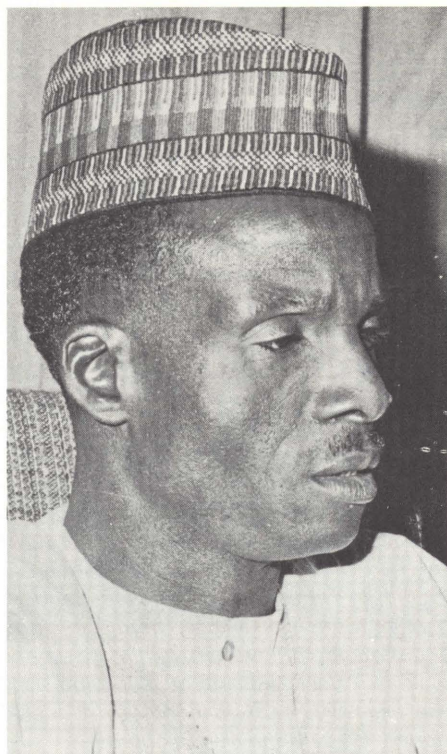
On the educational side, the O.A.U. resolution that ignorance has got to be fought dates back to 1963. However, when it comes to making education extensively available, one comes up against a kind of brick wall because of the very high annual drop-out rate and the lack of serious planning. The existence of a school presupposes a definition of what is to be done with the children afterwards; if they are just being trained for staff jobs in every field, some estimate has to be made each year of what the requirements will be and other outlets found for those who cannot make the grade. None of this has yet been done, and we are in a blind alley. The tendency is for the Niger citizen who sends his child to school to think purely and simply of a career in the public service. The high

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(1) Rassemblement Démocratique Africain.

(2) 1 CFA franc is equal to FF 0.02.

loss rate leaves us in difficulties too. Children who have been at school two or three years begin to have a wider outlook and no longer look forward to going back to their villages. Progressively they become less useful, whether to their families or to anybody else; and they find their way into the big urban centres where they congregate and accumulate. Moreover, the infrastructure is inadequate and at present more than 70% of our schools are in thatched open sheds. When it was a question of choosing durable material, the straw shed might have been reconsidered, but it wasn't. When I made a winter trip in the Agadez area I saw schoolchildren sitting on the bare earth, in schools where there were neither doors nor windows and temperatures were only 2° or 3° above freezing. Moreover, there is the problem of careers, and the orientation of the children leaves much to be desired. All this raises yet another priority, and meantime we are at a dead end.



The drought — "we appreciated the movement of sympathy in the international community".

► *So your approach is pragmatic and progressive?*

— Quite right. In a country such as Niger, one must be prudent and pragmatic at the same time, but more especially one must be realistic, one must know what what one can do before starting to do it, and whether the desired approach will fit in with local conditions. Admittedly it has been thought in some quarters that we were not being so very revolutionary in the strict sense. I have already had occasion to say that if we had launched a campaign of revolutionary slogans, we should not have been able to bring effective help to people who needed it, and we should have been wasting our time in holding political meetings. We should not have been able to make our internal readjustments, or undertake the important reorientations needed for getting our administration going again.

In the short term, the medium term or the long, the people of Niger should find interest in taking over the running of businesses, transport undertakings and even small-scale industries. Far be it from us to launch into systems which would scare private capital away from Niger. Though it is perhaps too much to say that everything in Niger has got to be

started afresh, this is not far from the truth. The population as a whole needs to be given an awareness, to be made keener before it is channelled into any particular line of activity. It goes without saying that, if we are in favour of Niger citizens being given an interest in running their own affairs, it is important that they should be given progressive guidance from the ground up.

► *When people talk about Niger abroad they often think about uranium, which is the country's principal national resource. Negotiations on this have already been held, or are being held at present. How do things stand?*

— We have of course done what we could to make the most of our uranium, which is the only resource we possess at the present time. The negotiations at inter-government level have already been held, but we have insisted on dividing the problem into two. The contribution of uranium to the Niger finances is only a thousand million francs a year; and this

used to be paid into our National Investment Fund, for spending on projects which would be drawn up and submitted, as you would probably call it, for approval by our trading partners.

Since a company was set up for this product we decided to use this as an opportunity for dividing up the problem. This means that our uranium dealings were no longer between government and government but that we dealt with the operating company. As from the beginning of 1975 our dealings with this company are such that the proceeds we get from the uranium are directly paid over to our Treasury and treated as budget receipts. We have not yet completed our work under this head, but this stage will come soon. We have been guided by a desire to be realistic, for the simple reason that at present we have only a single engineer at the production unit and no Niger citizen whatever in the management of the company, which is based on Paris. Moreover, we note that various taxes and dues which should be yielding us funds have been purely and simply cancelled, and others reduced by a half, on the basis of the allegation that the company was not operating. We have told our shareholders that we intend reintroducing these taxes.

There is also, of course, the question of the price of a kilogram of uranium. As things stand there is no recognised quotation for the ore, as there is for oil, copper or phosphates; and we had therefore to try working on the basis of a quantitative analysis, so that neither we nor the company should lose by it. Even though this did not double the price, we came fairly close to it, remembering that formerly it was only F-CFA 5 300 per kg..

In addition we thought we ought to increase our shareholding, which had been only 16%, and this is a matter we shall be discussing. Since we have no technical and management staff, either at the production or at the management end, I took the realistic line of saying our shareholding should be multiplied by two and a half. This is the third leg of the negotiation, and the point on which we are momentarily stuck is the way in which this holding shall be transferred to Niger. I have said that we should be given it without paying a counterpart, on account of the capital value constituted by the



Niger uranium reserve; and also because before the events of April 15, 1974 the company had sought to charge a form of royalty on the turnover on the pretext that this would cover part of the expenditure incurred at the prospecting stage. This is the last aspect of negotiation which remains open and we think we shall soon have it settled. As a result we expect a substantial annual contribution from the company to our budget where, in fact, the money is needed. This is an outline of what we have done since April 15. We are guided by a spirit of realism, but we expect the compensation to be fair.

► *Another characteristic of Niger is that it is land-locked. What are the measurable consequences of this on your country's economy?*

— In general, Niger does have this one main problem of its land-locked situation—without mentioning the energy crisis which, God only knows, has serious effects on us as it does throughout the world. We have our link with the port of Cotonou, but even for products of primary necessity, such as the cement so necessary for our development, prices are prohibitive. During the rainy season we lose tons and tons of mud which might have been applied in building retention dams in an attempt to raise the level of surface water, especially in the northern part of the country where it has fallen so seriously. At present a ton of cement leaves Cotonou at F-CFA 12 000 but by the time it gets to Niger it costs F-CFA 30 000. At the Bangui conference we emphasised that all this solidarity has got to take into account of our land-locked situation and other difficulties I have already mentioned. It goes without saying we shall be trying to do something about it ourselves, to establish a connexion with Niamey from the Parakou terminal on the same lines as our Nigerian friends; and to create links from the Zinder terminal and the one not far from Maradi. Another project is the Upper Volta one, which starts from the Tambao mine, and in connexion with which it might be possible to set up a link as far as Niamey. We also have a big project which I am at present considering, and about which I shall undoubtedly be informing the EEC, the World Bank and other finance sources.

This is a dam which might bring solutions to a lot of our problems. It is a hydro-agricultural project which would be located only a few kilometers from here, but it calls for a good deal of capital. All these are long-term projects which might bring remedies to some problems, but which call for capital on a scale which makes it necessary to approach everybody potentially interested.

► *You have given us a clear picture of the problems your country is facing and what it is doing about them, especially on the organisation side. You have also referred to the uranium question; obviously one thinks of this when the question of mining in Niger arises. The country has many other mineral resources, including phosphates, gypsum and I believe there is also coal, though it is not yet worked, but which might go some way to offset the energy shortage and the excessive cost of energy you mentioned. What is the outlook here?*

— We have indeed found phosphates, but the necessary assessments have not yet been made. Approaches have been made to various companies, not only in the attempt to ascertain the value of the phosphate seam but also for indications as to how we might set up a company jointly with foreign companies accustomed to working in Niger. In short, we are trying to find out how we should set about working these phosphates. In point of fact we have no fertilizers of our own and are obliged to bring them in from outside, which is a considerable burden on peasant incomes. This will give an idea of our interest in bringing our phosphates to the production stage and even of the hurry we are in to get the business started.

The second item is coal. A company has been formed in this connexion and has made various bores. In the Agadez region there is both coal and water, and this coal is to be worked in the immediate future to meet the requirements of two local factories, while we shall be trying to provide as much as possible for the requirements of various sectors, such as Agadez and Tahoua. Because of various prospects in the cement industry, we are anxious that this energy shall be brought as far as the Tahoua district to supply a new factory we are at present trying to set up

there. We have, I believe, made contact with private interests in Belgium, and with the considerable aid we have had from the Peoples' Republic of China, we are considering whether it would be possible in the immediate future to build a 5 000 ton production unit. On the energy side, as you can see for yourself, we are also very interested, especially since wood fuel, which is the predominant domestic fuel, is becoming scarce, due to the desert encroachment. It is therefore highly desirable that coal should be dug that timber should be carefully preserved and that coal should replace it in domestic use.

Niger has a number of other potentialities, and like a number of countries which have recently struck oil, we have great hopes from the prospecting operations which have been initiated here and there, and also for gypsum and various other minerals.

► *I would like to ask one or two general questions about the recently signed Lomé convention and the European Development Fund. Niger has always had first class relations with its French-speaking and English-speaking neighbours, more especially across its frontier with Nigeria. Is it your view, Mr. President, that the provisions in the Lomé Convention and the working of the joint institutions should promote a still higher degree of cooperation and put an end to this division of Africa into French-speaking and English-speaking groups, which, after all, is only due to history, the colonial period and separate economic and commercial practices?*

— The new Lomé Convention is in some sort a continuous sequel to the older Yaoundé Convention. What existed was used as a starting point and a number of other items were added in the attempt to enlarge the club, harmonise it and secure a certain cohesion in its content.

The striking factor is the arrangement for the stabilisation of export receipts. With the collapse of world prices for a number of commodities, this is a matter of much concern to the different countries at the present moment, whatever the raw materials they produce. The big novelty of course is the fact that the French-speaking, the English-speaking and even

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One year of government

April 15, 1975 was the first anniversary of the military takeover in Niger. Among the official ceremonies, Lt.-Col. Kountché, Head of State and President of the Supreme Military Council, gave a press conference on what had been done during the year.

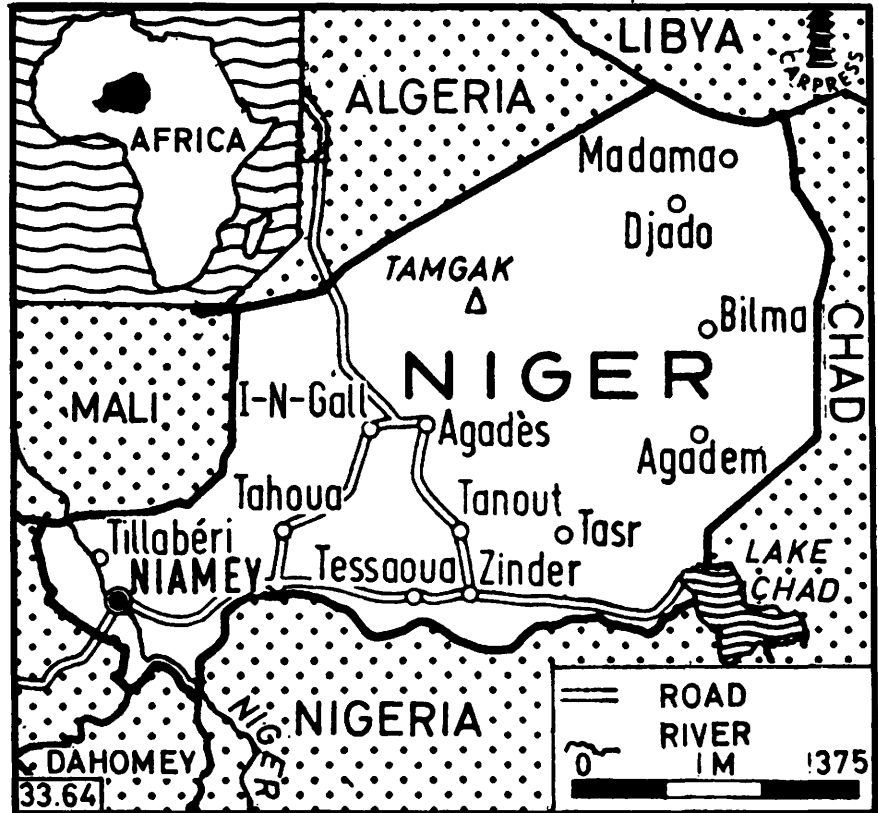
As regards foreign relations, Lt.-Col. Kountché said: "Niger has been able to make itself heard and felt with realism in the outside world. We exclude nobody; but in a modern world in which relations are based on give-and-take as well as self-interest, we consider profit should be shared by both sides".

On the subject of France's contribution to Niger, President Kountché considered French aid was developing favourably in the direction Niger would wish, adding that he hoped aid given to Niger by other countries would "follow the French example".

Looking back on the internal situation over the year, Lt.-Col. Kountché said the Supreme Military Council which he presided remained firmly determined to combat corruption in all areas and at all levels. He said the Committee of Enquiry and Control investigating the activities of the former government had been wound up because the leading members of the committee had become corrupt themselves.

In the social and economic fields a considerable number of reforms were soon to be made, the president said. These consisted mainly of land reform, so that "every field being farmed remains available to the farmer", and an economy and trade shake-up "to put all small-scale trade into the hands of our own nationals".

This wide-ranging action plan of reform should provide Niger with a base for carrying out a "better redistribution of wealth". National riches were growing "thanks to the will and spirit of realism" of the new authorities, who had, for instance, managed to quadruple the profit from uranium, President Kountché said. ■



NIGER

Niger covers 1 246 00 sq. kms north of Nigeria, with a population of some four million. Independent since August 3, 1960, the French-speaking Republic of Niger is one of the five Sahel countries hit by the drought of recent years, which has severely cut back an economy based mainly on agriculture and livestock. These account respectively for 65% and 35% of farm production.

Main products include: millet, sorghum, manioc, rice, unshelled groundnuts, cottonseed and tobacco.

Although livestock only accounted for 35% of farm production in 1970 it was a key sector, due to the size of the herds and its function in an area largely inhabited by nomads. There

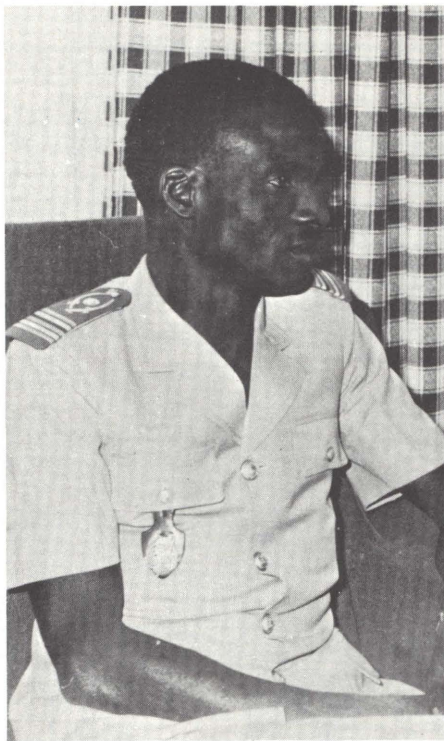
were some 13 million head of cattle, sheep and goats in 1970.

The present Niger government, which came to power a year ago, has turned its attention to diversifying economic resources by developing mining, particularly of tin and uranium (see Association News no. 29, January-February 1975, and interview p. 3 this issue with Lt.-Col. Seyni Kountché).

Niger lacks communications and has no seaward access, to further complicate its climatic difficulties and shortage of natural resources. It is one of the 24 least-developed or cut-off countries identified under article 17, par. 2 of the Lomé Convention, for which the new EEC-ACP agreement provides the possibility of special aid.

the Portuguese speaking countries have been brought together; for in the past the regional and sub-regional groups have always come up against linguistic difficulties, even though there were practical approaches to the problem between Niger and Nigeria, as there have been for some time between ourselves and Ghana and between the latter and the Ivory Coast. We countries of the interior are in fact traditional markets for meat, and there has accordingly been reciprocity and it is now for us to rationalise a line of commerce which already exists. There has always been a certain diffidence about this, partly because of the language question and doubtless, also, because of differences in colonial systems. Commerce, however, takes no account of colour, language or even civilisation. For the trader the essential thing is, that trade makes money. Because of the common ground between ourselves and Nigeria, both on the historical and on the geographical side, there is now a new line of approach to the West African Community concept. On this subject a meeting has been held in Liberia. It is a form of cooperation which Niger has always keenly supported. Even though there has not been any legalised cooperation between Niger and Nigeria, trade has continued on perfectly natural lines.

► *The Lomé Convention contains its novelties but, as you say, it also has an important element of continuity. An item under the latter head is the European Development Fund, which is to continue as before with various improvements. In the new form the accent is put more, especially on requests for cooperation which may come from countries in the interior, such as Niger; and also on a*



"A spirit of realism".

greater number of secondary points which include rural micro-projects. What do you consider is the interest of these EDF interventions for your own country?

— Your question is very apposite. I have always appreciated what the EDF has done in Niger, especially in matters of infrastructure, such as the reliable main roads which now link us with our neighbours in the south. I have also greatly appreciated a project which I have seen at first hand, the ultimate aim of which was soil conservation, but which worked through securing the interest and enthusiasm of the peasants themselves, teach-

ing them how to conserve their soil, how to form cooperatives and how to use whatever equipment is available to undertake whatever work lies ready to hand.

Another major effort has been made in school building and on the health side, but here there are things which will have to be set right. This is because our resources are not sufficient to provide for the upkeep of what international cooperation has put at our disposal. It is important that the buildings we put up should be adapted to the realities of our own position—there is no point in having a house beautifully designed and excellently built if those who live in it are not in a position to keep it up. This is a question on which we and our partners will have to approach the EDF and try to secure correctives. It goes without saying, of course, that the EDF has always been liberal with its contributions in matters of health and social organisation, and this already belongs to the past. With the passage of time, however, everything is apt to change, and from our new relationships there must come a closer understanding that there should be no waste in giving and that the gift should stand as a concrete asset for those who receive it. There must, therefore, be an identity of views. When things go badly it is generally because this identity is lacking, often as far back as the stage of planning and design. By this I mean that the EDF and ourselves must from the outset be in full agreement on the judicious and rational uses to which everything is to be put. Applying this to the forthcoming EDF, which is just about to take up its task, we hope there may be some corrective applied to adapt attitudes to Niger's realities. ■

Interview by
A. L.

Conference on migration and education in the Sahel

Colonel Kountché describes his country's concern with the displacement of village populations following the drought and emphasises the importance of education in the plan for national renewal. These preoccupations are shared by all the Sahel countries and a two-week

conference opened in Dakar on May 27 to discuss them under UNESCO auspices.

Experts from Niger, Senegal, Mauritania, Upper Volta, Mali and Chad concentrated on education problems and settlement measures for displaced communities. M. Bakary Kamian, UNESCO regional director, said a quarter of the Sahel population, 6 million out of 24 million people, had migrated from the Sahel zone in recent years.

Lack of schooling in these conditions, M. Kamian said, was not due to excessive

population growth or to "an inappropriate education system".

M. Mamadou Diop, Senegalese Minister of Public Works and Transport, who opened the conference, called for an appraisal of the various measures already undertaken to solve these problems, which were similar in all six countries. He suggested that the Senegal River Valley Organisation (O.M.V.S.: Senegal, Mali, Mauritania) could help "turn the tide of migration in a direction favourable to development". ■

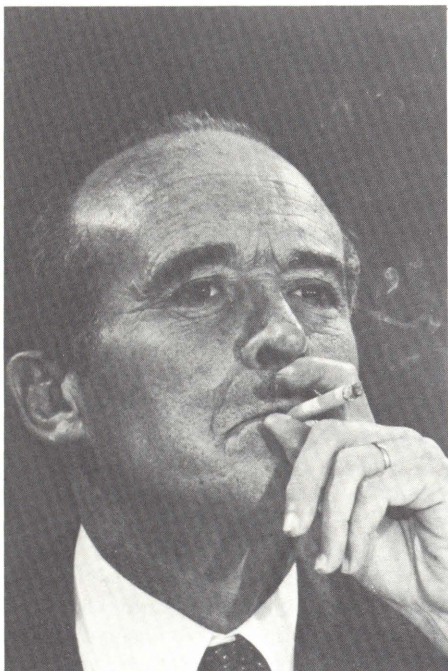
Jean SAUVAGNARGUES French Foreign Minister

"An exemplary agreement"

M. Sauvagnargues (photo) was chairman of the Council of Ministers of the European Community during the decisive stage of the EEC-ACP negotiations that led to the signing of the Lomé Convention on February 28th. He gave "The Courier" this assessment of the convention.

► *Minister, the negotiations with the ACP have now been brought to their conclusion. In the last six months of 1974 you yourself were chairman of the Council of Ministers of the nine EEC countries, and this was a period of special importance. It was a time when very considerable progress was made, especially at the Kingston conference at the end of July, 1974. The negotiations went through a number of phases—what is your appreciation of them overall?*

— Frankly I think the negotiations went very well. There was, as is perfectly usual,



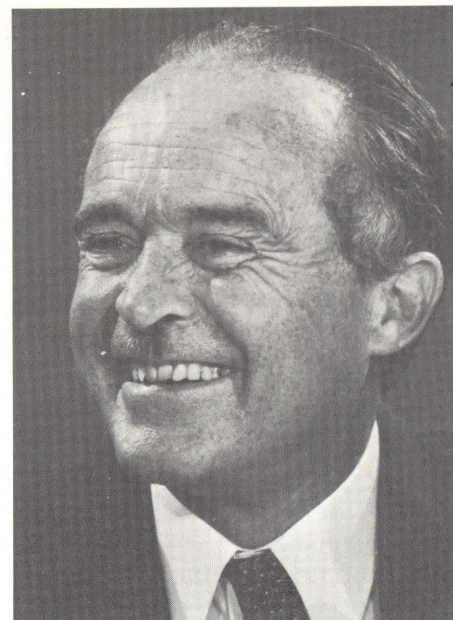
an initial phase for observation and studying documents, but apart from this the actual negotiation took no more than six months. When we think of the number of countries involved, the diversity and in many cases the complexity of the problems tackled, I think it was pretty much of a record.

The fact that we were able to finish so quickly was not wholly due to the procedural organisation, which I attempted during my own chairmanship to make as efficient as possible and which my Irish colleague (1) who then took over the task treated in the same way. Another, and I would say still more important, factor was that on both sides there was our objective desire to continue and improve a cooperation which had already proved itself.

► *A total of 55 different States signed the new convention, nearly half the member countries of UNO. What is your view of its international scope?*

— I think the new agreement is, in present circumstances, altogether exemplary. It proves that by getting people round a table and discussing genuine problems—I am of course thinking more particularly of development problems—on a basis of concrete proposals, it is possible in the end to find an area of agreement whatever may have been the ambiguities, the doctrines and even the divergences of interest at the outset.

(1) Dr. Garret FitzGerald.



This negotiation has also shown that the European Community, which is criticised daily and described as moribund, is well able to play an active and constructive part in the economic relationships of the world as we know it today.

► *The convention contains new provisions going beyond the Yaoundé Convention, especially those providing for the stabilisation of export receipts and under the industrialisation heading. Does it seem to you too much to say, as has been said, that it marks the beginning of new relationships between industrial and non-industrial countries?*

— I should like to tell you how very glad I am that a number of ideas which France has long defended have now made their breakthrough, more especially in this agreement, and taken the form of a system of stabilising export receipts for basic products. It should be said that this is a real and meritorious effort by the member countries of the EEC. As you are well aware, this is a field in which the Community by itself cannot cover all the risks or all the situations which may arise. It is my hope that what has been done now will have shown the way and demonstrated once and for all that discussions between industrial and non-industrial countries will never produce solutions without a minimum of courage and imagination. ■

Interview by
ALAIN LACROIX

IVAR NØRGAARD

Danish Minister of Foreign Economic Affairs

Giving the most useful kind of aid

Mr. Nørgaard was chairman of the Council of Ministers of the European Community during the opening of the EEC-ACP negotiations which led to the Lomé Convention. He gives his view of the role of a small country, Denmark, in the field of development aid, and stresses the importance of adapting aid to the real needs of the poorest countries.

Mr. Nørgaard, who is also Minister for Nordic Affairs, is a well-known writer and journalist specialising in political and economic commentary. A member of the Folketing (Parliament) since 1966, he has been a minister in the economic and European fields several times and now combines these activities in his present ministry. Since 1961 he has been a member of the executive committee of the Social Democratic Party, which came to power in a minority government in January.



▶ *Mr. Nørgaard, most Danish development aid goes to Asia and East Africa, with particular emphasis on agriculture, health and education projects. What are the main lines of the Danish development aid policy, and how do you think it will evolve in the near future?*

— Our general point of view is that we, as a small country, should try under our bilateral aid programme to offer assistance in a field where we have a special ability. We try to concentrate on agriculture, as you say, where we have very long experience. We have ourselves developed agriculture to a high degree; and also on training programmes and education, where we also feel we have developed the educational part of Government expenditure to a high degree. As you know, we have no raw materials of our own at all, so our agriculture and our labour force are our main raw materials.

▶ *One of the main characteristics of Danish thinking on development is that the criterion of need should be more important than, perhaps, the criteria of efficient use of aid or geographical and historical links. Is this so?*

— It is so, yes.

▶ *In which case, what is your appreciation of the Lomé Convention, covering 46 developing countries?*

— We regard the Lomé Convention as an important step forward. We feel that the principles laid down in this convention are very close to the principles in our own programme, except that the Lomé Convention is still restricted to a certain part of the world. We very much favour all the principles in this convention. We are especially interested in the new set-up for raw

materials, the "Stabex" fund, which we feel is a new step in the right direction and something in which the future is inbuilt.

▶ *Denmark participates in almost every international commodity agreement. Is this especially important to you?*

— It is, yes.

▶ *Is this reflected in the fact that Denmark now has two foreign ministers, yourself, responsible for economic and Community affairs, and M. Andersen, responsible for more purely political affairs?*

— Yes, you could say so. We feel that we, as a very small country, are very dependent upon the outside world and a great proportion of our national

→

product comes from importing and exporting. As I said, we have no raw materials whatsoever ourselves so our relatively high standard of living is built upon our relations with the outside world. We therefore feel it is natural to employ two people to deal with these problems when we have 14 to deal with internal affairs.

▶ *One of the imported products that affects you particularly is oil. You import at least 95% of your energy. There has been a general cutback in Denmark following the oil crisis—does this seriously threaten your aid programme?*

— The figure is in fact 98%. Well, it is the Danish Government's point of view that the aid programme should be the last item on the budget which we should reduce. Although our general economic situation is, as you say, very much affected by the rise in oil prices, we don't feel we shall reduce our aid programme even if we have a decrease in the development of our national income.

▶ *Do you think you might reach the aid target of 0.7% of GNP by 1980?*

— I will say that I hope so.

▶ *A general question: the results of development aid sometimes seem disappointing in view of the effort involved. Do you think there are any far-reaching changes in approach that should be made, and if so, should they come from the rich or from the poor countries?*

— I think they should come from a cooperation between the rich and the poor countries. I think we should try to continue the development which started in the Lomé Convention concerning raw materials, because I feel it is a greater help to the developing world if the developed countries pay a higher

price for commodities than we did in the '50s and '60s than simply to give aid. We have to accept that the price for raw materials will be higher than before. We shall have to accept that the terms of trade fixed for the industrial world will be affected: for us they will be worse, for the developing world better. That is a much better way of contributing to a more equal division of wealth and labour than to give special support via the budgets. We



“... We will have to make a constructive contribution to the development of arrangements for more stable raw materials markets (...). In the long run this is more important than grants and loans”.

hope that, within the EEC, we will come to the conclusion that we will have to make a constructive contribution to the development of arrangements for more stable raw material markets. I think that in the long run this is more

important than grants and loans. I do not think it will do away with financial aid and training programmes, but I think that if we really arrive at a more equal and just distribution of wealth by paying more for raw materials, this will be an easier way, in my opinion, of allowing the developing world to earn more currency and to develop themselves quicker.

▶ *Do you think that, in the present economic climate in Europe, public opinion will accept paying these higher prices?*

— I really think so, yes. Of course, if you increase your public budgets you will have difficulties; but if you can find some way to put it into the market system with a commodity agreement and so on, I think it will be accepted. Young people, especially, will accept that the increase in national product will have to be lower in the developed world in the future. We have to accept that we cannot have the same kind of economic growth as we had in the '50s and '60s which was partly due to very low raw material prices. But I am not a prophet of doom. I think that in the long run it is just as advantageous for the developed as for the developing world to have arrangements allowing higher prices for raw materials, while at the same time preventing big fluctuations in commodity markets.

I think it may also be of interest to the “Courier” if I mentioned that I have just opened a conference in Denmark on research into development aid. A lot of Danish and other research experts are discussing how we can best transfer our research so that it is adapted for use in the developing world. The field of alternative technology is of great interest to us. We want to specialize in methods of applying aid so that it is of real benefit to the people who most need it. ■

Interview by
BARNEY TRENCH

Claude Cheysson: The overall development policy of the Community

A report on the Community's overall development policy was discussed in the European Parliament in Luxembourg in April, 1975. Put forward by M. Bersani (Italy), reporting member of the Parliamentary Commission on Development and Cooperation, it discussed what should be the general policy of the Community towards the ACP countries of the Lomé Convention

and to the Third World in general. M. Claude Cheysson, Member of the Commission in charge of Development and Cooperation, replied to questions from the European parliamentarians, explaining what he thought should be the bases for such a development aid policy. The following are extracts from his remarks to the European Parliament.

"The fundamental idea accepted by everyone is that the Community ought to have a general development aid policy. On this there is not the least disagreement in any group ... and to us, this is most satisfactory.

"Such a policy is necessary to the countries of the Third World; but it is also necessary to us. I have repeatedly said that the countries of Europe have too little space at their command to be able to stay folded in upon themselves. They need external countries, they need Third World countries as sources of supply, as markets, as contacts in the most general sense. Any policy of this kind is therefore a matter of mutual interest.

"It is true, too, that such a policy can be better put into effect by nine nations working together than by nine nations working apart. Everyone appreciates this. Even Mrs. Hart (1) when she gave an account of the Lomé Convention to the House of Commons, emphasised that there was much in this convention that Community countries could never hope to do by themselves.

"All this is not only true, it is obvious. It is not by mere chance that one of the few fields in which the Community has made progress is development aid, and in the past few months or years, its performance here has been singularly creditable.

"And while we are talking about our dependence on the Third World, do not let us forget that our own countries need to recover their rate of growth and that our liberal society cannot develop, cannot take on its new form, unless it be in a state of growth; in the years ahead, the most probable motive force in this growth is the opening of the Third World, and indeed of a Fourth World, to a system of consumption and development more conformable with the hopes and desires of these human beings and more in line, also, with our own selfish requirements.

(1) Judith Hart, British Minister of Overseas Development.

THE MAIN PRINCIPLES OF THIS COMMUNITY POLICY

A policy of development aid is "in the interests" of the countries which have the benefit, but it is also in the interest of the Community itself, M. Cheysson said. What are its governing principles? In recent years the Commission has suggested such principles and they have been acknowledged as the right ones by the Parliament. They can be summed up in M. Cheysson's formula, "to each according to his needs", which he put forward earlier in his "sketch of Community action for tomorrow" (Courier no. 29).

"To each according to his needs, we said", M. Cheysson continued, "and in this we wanted to indicate that the real requirements of a developing country differ in accordance with the degree of development it has already reached. For the thousand or so million people in utter poverty, as Mr. MacNamara said, the two things which count are food aid and financial aid.

"For those which have raw material resources, supplies and a healthy population, what is needed is cooperation, training, transfers of technology.

"For the many countries still at an early stage in their development, still barely emerging from the colonial period, in which a single line of production has been systematically developed, and which have thus been left dependent on a single line of export, what is needed is the stabilisation of their export receipts, a guarantee of markets for the products which matter to them.

"Here then are three types of problem, and some countries are facing more than one of them at the same time. Our aid and cooperation resources must be adapted to their position. This is what we meant when we said "to each according to his needs".

AN EFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT AID POLICY

A Community policy, if it is to do any good, has got to be made effective. This requires contractual links between the partners which allow them nonetheless to preserve their own culture.

According to M. Cheysson "it is obvious we can best make use of our many resources in some form of association, whatever legal name we give it. We can do this all the better for the fact that an association agreement presupposes continuity, and its contractual character bears witness to its permanence. It is in this that our policy has its full value and effectiveness, and all the more so for the institutional provisions, which have the effect that all these countries come into direct contact with the political, economic and social forces by which we are governed. In our association policies we see a constant readiness to adjust our methods and modes to the real requirements of these countries, as they feel them and express them. The ultimate point is that the development of a country comes from within, from its culture, from its inner reality and not from technical models and economic patterns imported from abroad.

"There is no contradiction between this regional policy and the world policy, in which we must also be associated and play a considerable part. We must therefore have a wide policy stretching outside our associations, and this necessity has been the object of our debate. The key instrument of the policy must be food aid; we shall be discussing this further when the Parliament approves our programme of food aid in powdered skim milk, finance aid and the coordination of bilateral aid programmes. The report even asked for an annual account of what has been done in virtue of these bilateral policies. The solution is an ingenious one and a bold one, which the Commission has not yet ventured to put forward, but which it will indeed propose

now that it knows it has the support of the Parliament.

"Community finance aid definitely comes into the picture whenever there are disasters and catastrophes. We have provided such aid for countries affected by the crisis, for whose benefit we participated in the United Nations Emergency Fund.

"In the future we must give such aid systematically, as was stated in our proposals for finance aid to non-associated countries. We are proposing to increase the finance aid progressively, so that it amounts to U.A. 100 million in 1976 and U.A. 200 million in 1980. This is a proposal the Parliament will soon be considering.

"This finance aid, of course, like all our actions, has to be put into practice with full respect for the principle of non-interference in the internal policy of the countries concerned. The experiences of recent years, such as those which came to an end on April 30 (2) in a country at the other end of the world, show how dangerous influence and interference can be.

"The aid has to be selective. Our resources are limited and we cannot help everybody, everywhere, in every connexion. The criteria must necessarily be the needs of the aided country and its degree of poverty. There are additional criteria also, and the resolution does well to emphasise this, and we ourselves foresaw it in the sketch, or "fresco", we put forward. These criteria are the effort which is being made by the beneficiary country itself; its capacity to use the aid; and the other aid which is available to it. There is also one final criterion—the purpose for which the aid is to be used. It is with great pleasure that the Commission declares its full support for paragraph 12 of the resolution, which gives absolute priority to investments for food production and agriculture. I would mention, too, that the European Development Fund has, over the past four years, devoted no less than 27% of its credits to furthering agricultural production, which compares to a corresponding figure of only 8% in the total aid given by our nine countries on a bilateral basis. I would say, again and again, that the path we have taken is the right one.

"On the commercial side a number of speakers have rightly called attention to passages in the report, and the proposed resolution, referring to the highly original and audacious action of the Community in adopting the system of generalised preferences. As you know, it has now been decided to continue this system beyond 1980, but it has got to be improved and for this it must first be better appreciated.

"The system must not be allowed to benefit only the more advanced countries. There is a very serious risk of this and the resolution before you has the merit of bringing this into evidence. Mr. Müller, in his report, raises the very difficult problem of selecting the countries which are to benefit from the generalised preferences system. Some people, indeed, may think it out of place that countries with a national income per head considerably higher than a number of the Community countries, should still be on the list of 77—that is among the 100 or so countries which have the benefit of the system. This is a question on which we shall have to think further.

"Our commercial aid can be seen in the systematic efforts we are making towards trade promotion. Our preoccupation with trade questions is shown in the part we take in world discussions, for, I agree with Mr. Sandri, it is only at this level that solutions can be found. This brings me to our discussions at the world level on problems regarding basic products and raw materials. This is the big subject of our decade.

"The time has come to take action. We can and must learn from the experience we shall gain inside the Lomé orbit with the stabilisation of export receipts. It must be owned, nevertheless, that this is a horribly difficult subject, and it lies at the very centre of the new world economic order, which we must resolutely support and determinedly seek to organise."

TOWARDS A NEW WORLD ECONOMIC ORDER

Development aid policy is now a reality, an accomplished fact; the question is what is its ultimate outcome. For the Member of the European Commission, it is a matter of working towards a new type of international economic relationship.

"If it is a new world economic order that we would organise, it means that Community policy for development aid must lead on to discussions on a world basis. In this I would join forces with several speakers, and with the rapporteur, in deploring the lack of unity which comes only too often to the surface among our Nine member countries.

"Something very curious happens here. At Brussels the Nine find unity, but it is no longer there when they hand things over to their specialists on world discussions. It is very serious for the world at large that there should exist this atmosphere of division which, it must be admitted, has characterised meetings at world level for more than a year past, and in conditions which are becoming dramatic. It is serious for us that at present every big international meeting becomes a meeting for systematic confrontation.

"It is serious and I do not think it should be allowed when we all know that when we meet on a different basis we succeed in understanding one another. You have only to think of the Lomé Conference and the meeting of Commonwealth Prime Ministers in progress at this very moment at Kingston (3), and many other instances.

"We must manage to find in these world meetings the same determination to cooperate, to talk things over and secure understanding which marks the meetings held at less exalted levels. Perhaps the path to this is to compare notes with our own Third World partners before the meetings take place."

M. Cheysson confirmed that the Commission intends making the fullest use of non-governmental organisations and that the advance draft for the budget which will be put before Parliament in a few months will include credit to cover activities involving these organisations. This, M. Cheysson said, is in conformity with the parliamentary resolution, which goes a long way and is highly original in correlating development aid policy with other Community policies. "I believe", he added, "that is a vital new approach. Development aid policy is no longer a side issue.

"Of course for those who think of development aid as no more than financial assistance, like the Sunday collection in church—and this alas is still the case in some big industrial countries—the aid may well seem to be no more than a side issue.

"But for us who are decided to give guaranteed access to our markets, to make way for some integration of activity with the Third World in our own economic environment, there can be no separation and no distinction between our development cooperation policy and our other policies.

"There is interaction, there is integration. There will be consequences for our industrial structures, for our workers, for our peoples. This means that our development cooperation policy must be a general policy, an overall policy, a policy within the direction and control of all those who speak for the realities of politics and economic and social conditions. This indicates how high a place in it this Parliament must have, as also must the representatives of the workers, the trade associations or unions.

"I should like at this point to tell the Parliament how confident I am that we

(see page 49)

(2) Alluding to events in South-East Asia.

(3) See News Round-up, p. 1.

The role of the Eurafrican parliamentary institutions

Yamoussoukro (Ivory Coast) — The joint institutions provided under the Yaoundé Conventions and the Lomé Convention attach great importance to consultation at political level, and also (Lomé) at the level of trade unions and other responsible economic bodies.

Philippe Yacé, President of the Ivory Coast National Assembly and retiring chairman of the Eurafrican Parliamentary Conference, talked to Alain Lacroix in his home at Yamoussoukro (birthplace of Mr. Houphouët-Boigny, President of the Ivory Coast) about the role of the parliamentary institution in the Yaoundé Conventions in the past and the Lomé Convention in the future. Mr. Yacé is also Secre-

tary General of the Ivory Coast Democratic Party (P.D.C.I.), which is to hold its general meeting in August, in which capacity he was keen to emphasise the part played by the party as a motive force in the country's development.

The Ivory Coast National Assembly (parliament) has unanimously passed a Bill nominating the President of the National Assembly President of the Republic in the case of the Presidency becoming vacant through death, resignation or unavoidable circumstances. The Bill gives the stand-in President full powers until the end of his term of office.

► *M. Yacé, you attended most of the meetings of the Association Parliamentary Conference, which were held alternately in Africa and Europe, and also most of the meetings of the Parliamentary Joint Committee. What was the part played by, and what is the importance of, these recurrent meetings between African and European parliamentarians?*

— Yes, I was at most of the conference meetings both in Europe and in Africa. Up to 1968–69 and the death of President Lamine Gueye of Senegal, I was an active member of the conference as a rapporteur and spokesman, acting more or less as an assistant to President Gueye. After his death, my African friends and colleagues, especially those from Senegal and Mali, were kind enough to ask me to become chairman. I already had rather full responsibilities at home in the Ivory Coast as President of the National Assembly and Secretary of the P.D.C.I., and this made me rather hesitant. I was, however, concerned about African interests in these discussions with the Europeans, so in the end I accepted.

What I should like to emphasise in this context is the dominant part played by



Philippe Yacé.

the parliamentarians. In these parliamentary conferences we consider the really

big questions. It is not a matter of going hat in hand for technical aid from, for example, the Germans, so that we can set up a new plantation, as happens under the bilateral aid agreements. We have been much more concerned with the big issues such as the industrialisation of Africa and trade. They are questions which affect us all, and it is this which makes me keen to underline the important role the conference plays. Without wanting to blame other people, it must be said that the Europeans, other than France, were at first rather inclined to hold back. As they saw it, there was no question of France dumping her colonial burden on them. The more the French were anxious to encourage the Association, the greater was the scepticism of the Germans and, more especially, of the Dutch after the loss of Indonesia. I say this in all friendship and all simplicity. If our Association had been only a matter of a country asking Europe, for example, to give it help in laying out a plantation, in undertaking an agricultural or an ecological experiment, if all we had been saying was "come and help us build a processing mill because we produce such a lot of cocoa in the Ivory Coast"—we should never have got as far as the big questions.

► *There would only have been cooperation agreements?*

— Yes. It is this which makes the Parliamentary Conference so important. At the outset some of the European parliamentarians, though not exactly hostile, were nevertheless somewhat sceptical. Progressively since 1965, however, these very Europeans have become the stoutest defenders of the African cause, and we have been able to start again on a new basis in the Lomé Convention thanks to the dynamism and conviction shown by the Europeans at the same time as the Africans. After all, the European parliamentarians, by taking up the African cause, contributed to the creation of a great community which, one day, will have greater strength.

► *So real progress was made on the basic problems thanks to the parliamentary conference and the joint institutions under the two Yaoundé Conventions. Do you not think that, apart from the technical knowledge of the problems involved, a factor which made progress possible was the human contact, the fact that people were beginning to know one another, respect one another and develop what I could almost describe as a club spirit?*

— A club, how right you are! So much so that the Europeans and the Africans really do speak the same language. I was particularly struck by this two years ago at the Rome Conference. As retiring chairman of the conference I was the first to speak, and to my great surprise most of the European speakers actually quoted what I had said and developed the arguments I had put forward, including industrialisation problems and the stabilisation of export receipts. The Europeans were very quick to recognise the validity of the points of view we were advancing.

As a result we owe a great deal to these parliamentary meetings and for this reason we were apprehensive that the Parliamentary Conference might be left out of the arrangements with the renewal of the convention because it did not suit the English-speaking countries. As you

know, everybody comes into an association of this kind with his own questions and his own problems; those whom we know as French-speaking countries are apt to have a certain belief in dialogue. French civilisation and colonisation consisted to some extent of absorbing the human being slowly, but much more surely, with a view to the reduction of some of the internal antagonism, and the new Lomé-type association seemed likely to raise problems which would lead to clashes between individuals. The French-speaking countries were familiar with confrontation under the previous conference. But for the English-speaking countries it was a new problem and a testing one. We were somewhat scared, but luckily things went all right.

► *You mentioned the Association Parliamentary Conference in Abidjan last January. It was the last of the Yaoundé type, and it took place only a few days before the final ministerial encounter in Brussels at the end of January. This was the final phase of the negotiations; how far was the successful outcome influenced by this parliamentary conference?*

In the end, I don't think the negotiations ran into any difficulty regarding the renewal of the institutions except as regards to the parliamentary conference. I think the intervention of President Houphouët was decisive. He is a parliamentarian of long standing. Since independence he has dealt with the rather irreverent atmosphere of the Ivory Coast parliament with outstanding good humour, so that he was really astonished that there was any question about whether the parliamentary conference was useful. Abidjan was the decisive stage. The AASM came to Abidjan determined that the parliamentary institution should be included in the new form of the Association, and that if it were not included, they would themselves create an inter-African parliamentary association. I think that it was our insistence on this which led both sides to agree that the conference should remain as an institution, but that its name should be changed. It is now to be called the Consultative Assembly—but what's in a name? As the shortly retiring chairman of this conference, which is making way for the Consultative Assembly, I

should like first of all to meet our ACP friends—the ones which were not among the AASM—and hear from them how they think the future work should be handled, and to make quite sure they do not think we want to impose ideas on them that we have worked out in advance.

► *Throughout the negotiations the ACP as a whole—both the AASM and the Commonwealth newcomers—showed a remarkable unity of approach which gave them the strength to secure some of the things they wanted. Do you think the entry into force of the Lomé Convention in 1976 and the subsequent operation of the planned institutions, especially the Consultative Assembly, will have the effect of maintaining and strengthening this unity?*

— Yes, I think this is now certain. The Europeans have their problems; and I would even say that, like us Africans, they have their problem of unity; but whether we like it or not, we have at the moment a number of blocs—I was on the point of saying two blocs—and the Europeans are feeling their way. On the other hand, there are historical links which bind us without question to the Europeans, not only on the economic and social side but also the cultural. You will have seen for yourself that an African is much less out of his element in Europe than he is in Asia or in America, it's a fact.

► *And it's equally true the other way round?*

— Undoubtedly. As I say, it is now the Europeans themselves, convinced as they are about the association, who will facilitate the integration and development of Africa, of the ACP countries. The problem of course is that the ACP are in rather a hurry. The loveliest woman in the world can't give more than she's got. This means that to us the starting point of 3 390 million units of account is no more than a figure. The important thing is the idea, the thing which has been created. We believe this community can develop; it is something for which there is no precedent and it is in itself a force. We Africans are fundamentally convinced that the new order now to be

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established will come into existence. We will be talking about it for 20 or 30 years.

► *We all hope so very much. On another point, the Lomé Convention has the experience of the previous Yaoundé Convention behind it. This is quite natural. But in the new convention there are a number of new provisions. Which of these do you regard as particularly valuable for the Ivory Coast?*

— One way and another, all these new arrangements are quite a revolution compared with the past. On the trade side,

retailer. I suppose from all this we've got to understand peoples' attitudes.

Some of this trade potential, as you see, is very valuable to us. Added to this there is the stabilisation of export receipts. This is important, for we have had serious fluctuations, especially in coffee, cocoa and timber.

On the industrial side, the Ivory Coast is just now one of the leaders and we think we shall be increasing our industrialisation. This is a problem of great interest to us and we think it is high time to put the new arrangements which figure in the convention into practice.



"With the Lomé Convention we have started again on a new basis".

European markets are open to our markets. I myself, with President Houphouët, am probably one of the biggest banana producers in the Ivory Coast, and for ten long years we've been fighting this battle, as my young friend and colleague Eholie (1) is here to tell you. I remember five or six years ago in Hamburg, a German importer practically jumped down my throat when I noted that he himself was not only a grower in Latin America but also a ship-owner and a shipper, and in Germany both a wholesaler and a

► *As Secretary General of the Ivory Coast Democratic Party, you say it represents the most dynamic section of the population and is in fact the backbone of the country. What role do you think the party could and should play in the Ivory Coast? What part does it play in carrying out presidential directives, such as on smoothing out the difference in development which exists between the northern and southern part of the country, as it does in many other African countries?*

— Our aim was to give the only party its full significance and purpose, and it is

now certainly the most elevated institution in the Ivory Coast, although this is not its title. The election of the Head of State, the institution of the government and the appointment of members of parliament all begin in the single party. In practice, we are the appointing body, and it is after this we call for general elections. The big national points of policy are discussed and dictated by the party. As things now stand you have an Ivory Coast which is unified economically, educationally and socially. How? When it all began, the southern part of the country was comparatively developed because it was the forest region and the region in which the colonial powers had planted coffee and cocoa, whereas the north was comparatively poor and undeveloped. When independence came we had a major internal problem because colonialism had created as many political parties in the Ivory Coast as there were in France itself. This was a bad state of things and carried the risk that it might plunge us, as it has in some of the other countries, into fratricidal warfare. Something had to be done about it; and in fact the political groups and sub-groups rallied to the appeal launched by President Houphouët. In fact what we have got is not so much a single party as a unified party. Everybody came inside the PDCI-RDA (2). In the government as it now exists we have people who were formerly in the opposition but who are now supporters of PDCI-RDA and followers of President Houphouët. Though there was a time when we were divided on internal issues, the work of national construction has been such that today the people of the Ivory Coast have come back together. People who fought bitterly 20 or 30 years ago have now grown old. Their children are now unquestionably in control and there is no discrimination. I think the party is going forward and it is this which enables President Houphouët to start from the party when he makes his decisions.

As I was saying, the southern part of the country is comparatively the better off, and in this connexion we have set up a stabilisation fund. It is fed to a large extent by funds produced by growing

(1) Advisor to M. Yacé.

(2) RDA: African Democratic Assembly.

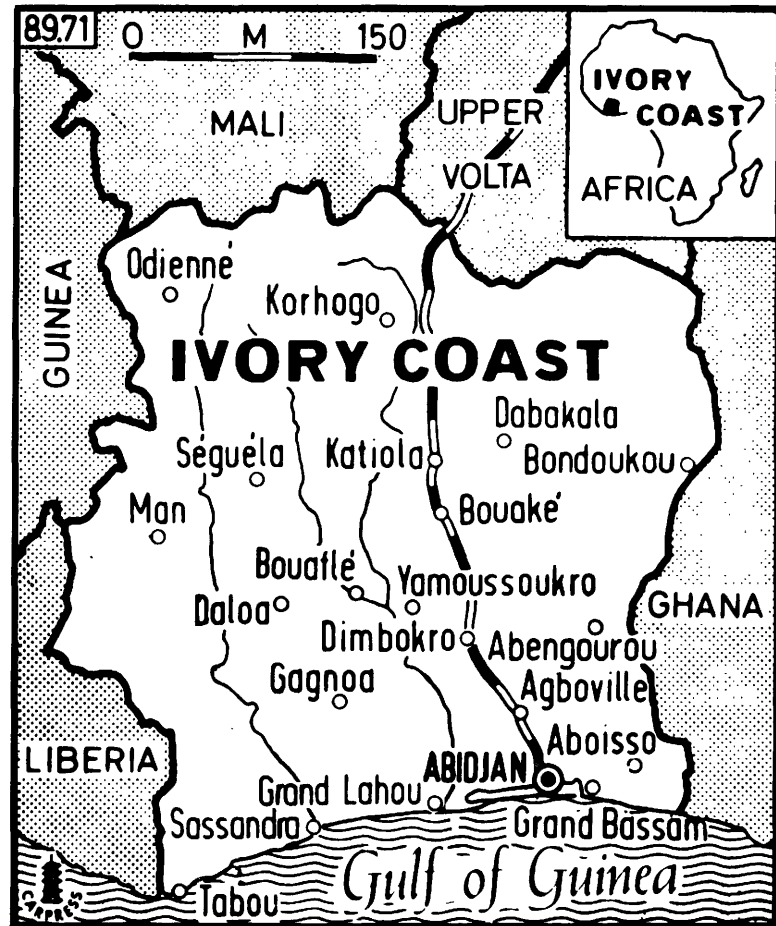
coffee, cocoa and similar activities; this means that most of this money comes from the south. Starting from here, the party and the Head of State decided to set about equalising out the economic conditions in the country. This was the big turn-round because it meant to some extent reappportioning this money which is partly used for the south but which we could not systematically use only for the benefit of the southerners. Without the party we should not have been able to get this result. In the first stages, the south tended to grumble. We have schools to build, the southerners said, we need more roads and for us there is no aid and our funds are blocked. However, when we showed them what a different Ivory Coast they would have if rice, cotton and sugar cane were developed, and if this Ivory Coast, which now imports nearly 98% of its meat, were itself to raise herds; when we made it clear that this was possible by using the enormous area of land in the north; the south quickly recognised that this development was in its own interests.

► *Then this might be called a measure for income redistribution?*

— Precisely, but a redistribution advocated by the party and then taken in hand by the parliament and the government. In this way all the big reforms come from the party. We now have a civil code, and one effect of this is to institute monogamy and do away with the matriarchy. We were only able to make a success of this because the party was with us and even so it often took three or four years of discussion with the peasants to bring them to accept the change. We are still working on a number of problems, such as the abolition of the enormous funeral ceremonies imposed upon us by custom, when certain people of importance were buried with enormous pomp, the liquor would flow and much else might happen. With the force of the parliament on our side we are now abolishing these great funerals in the Ivory Coast and we think we shall have done so by the end of the year, as a result of the congress to be held during August.

The general result is that by our single party system we have succeeded in setting up what we call the presidential

THE IVORY COAST



The Ivory Coast is a square, French-speaking country of some five and a half million people and 322 463 sq. kms, situated on the West African coast between two English-speaking neighbours, Liberia and Ghana, and bordered inland by Guinea, Upper Volta and Mali.

It is among the top world producers of coffee, cocoa, bananas and pineapples, and the leading African producer of unsawn timber. Yams are another major product and the Ivory Coast also mines diamonds.

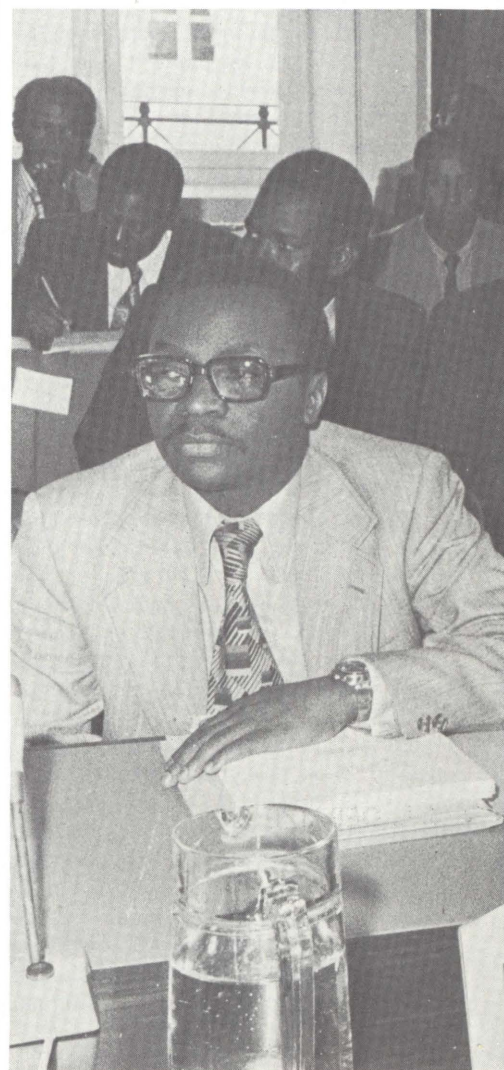
Production rose by an average 8% p.a. in real terms between 1960-1970, during which period the primary sector percentage of GDP fell from 46.8% to 29.8%. Statistics for 1971 put GNP at US\$ 1 730 million. The current national plan aims to provide

nearly half of Ivory Coast exports in industrially-processed form by 1980. This pragmatic, development and export-oriented policy is complemented by plans for agricultural diversification and tourist promotion, the latter including the huge "African Riviera" scheme.

The Ivory Coast's geographical position gives it a potential regional role: the "Air Afrique" airline and the African Development Bank have their headquarters in the capital, Abidjan, as does the "Entente" organisation which also includes Niger, Upper Volta, Dahomey and Togo. It is a member of the West African Economic Community, the West African Monetary Union, the Organisation of African Unity and OCAMM (Organisation commune africaine, malgache et mauricienne). Abidjan is the major commercial port in francophone black Africa.

HENRI KONAN Ivory Coast Minister of Economy and Finance A decisive step in Europe and the

M. Henri Konan Bédié, Ivory Coast Minister of Economy and Finance, considers the Lomé Convention marks "a decisive and irreversible step" towards setting up new relationships between the Third World and the industrial countries. Interview by Alain Lacroix.



(Centre) Henri Konan Bédié, (left) Gratien L. Pogon, Ambassador of Dahomey

system. We had feared there might be personal rivalries, especially with the Prime Minister on his side, the President of the Assembly on the other and in fact two Presidents with two-Chamber legislation, one each for the National Assembly and Senate. We were keen to avoid all this by adopting the American presidential system, but without the office of Vice-President. The party thus becomes a motive force, with its Secretary in the service of the President of the Republic. I must tell you the single party enables us to build, to make all the big decisions and economic advances, to set up what we call the great agricultural domain, with its mills, plantations and farming villages all round. Around here we grow coffee and cocoa. If you go to San Pedro you will find rubber, coffee and cocoa. Further south on the coast you will find coconut palm and oil palm. In the north, before long, there will be sugar cane, cotton and rice. All these decisions were determined by the political committee, by the party itself and later given concrete form by the government. Parliament comes into it too, but the spearhead, the master planner pushing all decisions forward is the party. I would add that we took care not to include the party in the constitution, so that our successors have a free hand. The door is thus open to a revival of the multi-party system. Those who come after can do what they will; but we shall act so that they are convinced of the advantages of the single party system.

► *The Ivory Coast is generally recognised to have made great progress over the past 15 years under the administration of President Houphouët-Boigny. What do you think are the most important economic problems your country is at present facing?*

— The answer follows on from what I was saying. At present we cannot say that one project is more important than another for our overriding objective is a harmonised economy for the whole Ivory Coast. Up to now there have been big projects in the south—oil palm, coconut palm, bananas, pineapple, rubber, the Port of San Pedro and others—but it is our impression that in 10 or 15 years the north will be growing more important than the south because of its

great area and its very diverse potential. So I can't give any opinion as to whether one project is more important than another.

► *Are you optimistic about the Ivory Coast's economic future?*

— I am highly optimistic! Very soon we shall be holding a congress, and a priori I have no fears. The problem with us is purely a human one, an Ivory Coast one, an internal one. The Ivory Coast is going to develop, the Ivory Coast is going ahead with President Houphouët.

But President Houphouët is not immortal, no more than any of us. The question we are asking is, what will happen tomorrow? If you raise the same question I shall have to answer you sincerely, because I must throw the responsibility upon you yourselves, the journalists of Europe. It is the responsibility of having trained our young people by imbuing them with the spirit of democracy in the French style, in the European pattern, which insists that there must be confrontation before there can be decision. This is what makes us anxious. Will the young people of tomorrow accept the single party, free discussion, dialogue? Won't they split up into a lot of separate parties? We are afraid if so that our work will be undone.

But for the present and so long as we have a man like President Houphouët, we don't really see any difficulties ahead. We are extremely optimistic and believe that our young people will understand us. This is basically what we want. We have confidence in our young people and this is why, before it is too late, we have lowered the average age of our government as much as we could. It now has 20 young ministers out of 30, while we have rejuvenated the National Assembly to 60 young people out of 102 deputies.

► *You are young yourself!*

— Everything is relative! But if we seem anxious, the basic reason is that we want to make the youth of the country see the point. It is not that we have no confidence in them, but that we hope they will continue the work we have begun.

Interview by
A. L.

AN BÉDIÉ, Economy and Finance: relations between Third World

► *Minister, you took part in the negotiations and on February 28 it was you who signed the Lomé Convention on your country's behalf. What is your general impression of the way these negotiations went and of their conclusion?*

— My feeling after the signature of the Lomé Convention is that a decisive and irreversible step has been taken in setting up new relationships between the Third World and the rich countries.

We have seen 46 countries from Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific and nine European countries reaching agreement over a programme of cooperation and development for the more backward countries. This is specially significant as a sign of the acceptance of ideas which have always been advocated by the developing countries in their aim of fairer world economic relationships. It is all the more significant for the fact that the negotiations took place when world

economic conditions were highly disturbed and the industrial countries of Europe might have been tempted to turn in upon themselves.

I think the Lomé Convention has a universal value, and is indeed the starting point of a new world economic order founded upon equity and human solidarity.

► *Throughout these negotiations the ACP countries proved remarkably united, despite the diversity of their problems and of their geographical location. Do you think the entry into force of the Lomé Convention and the operation of the joint institutions will strengthen this unity?*

— It is true that the ACP presented an extremely united front throughout the negotiations. This had its origin in the extremely difficult situation in which practically all these countries stand in regard to development, and their desire to make their relations with the EEC a support point in their policy for economic and social progress.

However, I think the problems arise in very different terms now that the negotiations have succeeded and unity among the ACP is not an end in itself. The EEC countries have indeed made important concessions in the negotiation; but there is no ground for suspecting them, now that we are getting ready to bring the convention into force, of desiring to go back on it.

► *In the Lomé Convention two subjects seem to have aroused particular interest. One is the stabilisation of export receipts and the other is the stress on industrial cooperation. What importance does the Ivory Coast attach to these two aspects?*

— We regard the machinery for stabilising export receipts as the chief innovation in the Lomé Convention and we think it marks considerable progress towards improved relationships between producers and consumers of basic products.

The creation of normality in world markets for raw materials is one of the

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"Financial aid to the development of a country, for example, can have only limited effects if there is no stability in the prices for raw materials or if the terms of trade continue deteriorating"

reforms the Ivory Coast has long sought, in the belief that this is the keystone of any policy effectively aimed to combat poverty and want in the developing countries.

The convention provisions regarding industrial cooperation are also extremely encouraging. Experience in this field in recent years has not always been very successful for the developing countries. Industrial development has too long had its foundations in trial and error, improvisation, and a new approach was clearly indispensable.

The Lomé Convention points the way to industrial cooperation which will be rational and more fruitful, and the Ivory Coast looks forward to speedier development.

► *Under the Lomé Convention financial and technical cooperation is to continue, and the EDF will be acting under new arrangements with specially favourable terms for the 29 countries classified as worst-off. What do you think of this new arrangement?*

— It seems to me quite satisfactory. It is a method for tackling the difficulty arising from the growing diversity of under-development conditions, and the fact that special steps are envisaged for the less developed countries is conformable to the spirit of justice and solidarity which was the key-note of the discussions.

► *How important do you think EDF intervention has been in the Ivory Coast economy? Do any of its past or possible future investments seem to you specially important?*

— The EDF has, since it was formed, played an essential part in financing public investments in the Ivory Coast, and it has made a very significant contribution to the country's development.

Under the first EDF the financing for our benefit amounted to F-CFA 9 400 m. From the second EDF a further F-CFA 14 000 m was put at our disposal, and from the third EDF the commitments up to the end of 1974 amounted to F-CFA 14 700 m. Bringing in the further F-CFA 1 100 m finance from the reserve account of the first and second EDF, the Ivory Coast has, since 1960, received from the

EDF a total aid of F-CFA 39 300 m. The sector distribution of these financings are a clear indication of the EDF's anxiety to promote development in depth. Over the whole 1960/74 period, for example, F-CFA 18 900 m was given to agricultural diversification. This was 48% of the total. The amount laid out for economic infrastructure was F-CFA 11 600 m, or nearly 40% of the total.

Among the projects still in course of execution, those concerned with cotton-growing and rice cultivation seem to me worthy of particular interest. They are particularly in line with the regional development policy of the Ivory Coast government, which is aimed at ironing out the disparities between one part of the territory and another.

► *As a director of the World Bank on behalf of the Ivory Coast and chairman of the IMF/IBRD joint committee, your responsibilities give you a good insight into the effectiveness of international aid. Do you think that some of the ideas on which the Lomé innovations were based could be taken over and enlarged on a world scale?*

— The fundamental idea on which the Lomé Convention rests is that cooperation for development, if it is to be effective, has got to be comprehensive.

Financial aid to the development of a country, for example, can have only limited effects if there is no stability in the prices for raw materials or if the terms of trade continue deteriorating. In the same way the industrialisation of developing countries, if it is not backed by guaranteed access for its products to the markets of the more advanced countries, will certainly not produce the progress expected of it.

The great merit of the new convention between the EEC and the ACP is that all aspects of cooperation—trade, industry, finance and technical—are brought under one agreement.

This integrated cooperation is of course a pattern which should be extended to all countries in the world. For our part, we are doing our best to vindicate these views in the IMF/IBRD joint ministerial committee, to secure the transfer of real resources to developing countries. ■

Interview by
A.L.

IBRAHIM Niger State for Info

More relax between coun

After Lomé "we are going to be more relaxed in our inter-African relations" said Ibrahim Lou-tou, Secretary of State in the President's Office of Niger, responsible for information.

► *Niger seems to have had a better crop in 1974 following a more normal rainy season. How does the food position stand now?*

— The food situation has gradually improved. This is partly due to better crops than we have had in the last few years and also to the action taken by our friends, nations and organisations alike, including the EDF, whose action has enabled us to meet the basic requirements of our people and support them through the working period and the rainy season, helping production to go ahead. In general we think our country has managed to balance food supply and demand, except for a few pockets of insufficiency where further action is needed.

As you know, the government had to take a number of measures, buying up millet and sorghum from the peasants at prices above the market and thereby

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LOUTOU

**Secretary
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putting a certain amount of money at their disposal. The crop of export products, including groundnuts, was not good, and the government took the view that the incomes from groundnuts would have to be replaced by earnings from other crops. The government accordingly bought up a certain tonnage of millet at F-CFA 2 500 per sack, which resulted in a total expenditure of some F-CFA 2 500 million. The cereals bought were put into store and we think we have nearly a year's consumption in reserve. You may know that by tradition, in this and neighbouring countries, you don't often see a peasant consuming what he has produced that year. In his home he always eats the product of last year, or even of two years ago, and he doesn't like neighbours to see his family eating millet harvested in the current year. Since there were no reserves left because of the drought, the government was anxious to do what the peasants might otherwise have done themselves, setting up a reserve of cereals until the normal course of things is resumed. This is of course a contribution to the food balance, and in any case it costs much less for the government and aid organisations, such as EDF, if cereals can be bought locally and redistributed in needy areas. It is much best to be able to buy cereals locally, which is why the government is building up these stocks. The time is now coming when we must face the problem of conservation of the cereals we have in store. At the moment everything which



Ibrahim Loutou.

has been bought is in the market store in bulk. It is not raining and there are no present problems, but June is coming and with it come the rains, so all this grain must be brought indoors. It is an important problem, especially since, as you know, we are short of cement. We should have liked to start a building programme for cement grain-silos, which has been done to some extent pretty well everywhere, but we ran into the problem of cement supplies—they are both scarce and expensive.

▶ *You have answered part of my second question, but I propose to ask it nevertheless. I have just seen in the local paper that the Inter-State Committee to combat the drought in the Sahel has just held a meeting in Niamey. What measures are required and have been taken on the national and regional level to deal with a possible new emergency resulting from bad weather conditions, and what contribution do you think international aid should make?*

— This committee, known as the C.I.L.S., was set up by the different Sahel countries with the support of organisations

such as the EDF, the FAO and the FAC and had a mandate to consider all the problems resulting from the drought. It was extremely active in the food distribution phase and at the point when emergency intervention was needed to save people in the remoter regions, and in the worst period. Unfortunately, however, as soon as things improved we noted a certain slackening in the corresponding activities. It was rather as though this had been only an emergency committee, whereas our view was that C.I.L.S. should not and could not be restricted to the emergency, but must go to the root of the evil and take whatever measures would avoid the recurrence of such a situation, or at any rate limit its effects. Drought, of course, is a natural phenomenon and we cannot say there will never be another. All the same, we can prevent the effects of a future drought from being as disastrous as those we have lately seen. The meeting which has just taken place was mainly concerned with the measures needed for our action to be continued. The Niamey resolutions amount to a statement of the member countries' determination to resume their action at the C.I.L.S. level.

▶ *What then does Niger think C.I.L.S. could or should do within the limits of its mandate?*

— We have pointed out several times that there are a number of things which do not make sense if they are tackled only at the level of the individual nations. A common approach by the region is the first necessity and with this in view we have asked C.I.L.S. to look into the problem and propose solutions. We know well enough that our countries are underdeveloped and their resources are so small that they barely cover the cost of keeping the administration at work and covering the cost of everyday life, and therefore laughably small in the context of the task which has got to be faced if we are going to make a joint attempt at solving the problems our countries are facing, including mitigating the effects of drought. It is in this context that organisations like the EDF would naturally be a great help. They showed their worth when emergency food supplies had to be brought in, and in future the action of the EDF and similar organisations will be

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every bit as important when it comes to preparing for possible drought.

► *So you have had a better crop in 1974, measures have been taken on the national level and may now be taken on the regional level through the reactivation of C.I.L.S. and you can fall back on international aid should there be an emergency. Can you now look forward to the next year with comparative optimism?*

there's water available, a branch of a river to be used, wherever they have to dig to get at the water, wherever there are small irrigation works to be tackled and minor improvements to produce whatever can be produced, they must tackle it outside the rainy season. The same with cotton, maize and many other food products which are part of the food balance and which may also help the farmers' finances. We are putting the people through a sort of training, using this astute formula of getting them to

ground level. This seems to me fully in line with the general policy of your President on the national level, in which he has sought to stimulate the Niger economy and start the country moving forward.

— Yes, and as you know, the Head of State has recently given instructions for laying down what he calls a three-year development programme. At present our National Development Council, a new institution containing every Niger specialist in every field which could contribute to the country's development, is now working on this three-year programme. We don't want the people thinking of this as a three-year plan, because we don't see any real possibility of planning in a country such as ours, where no industry can take root and market its product without State aid. The price of energy, for example, is such that any factory whatever must be given some kind of assistance if it is to be made profitable or even enabled to balance its accounts. We have still quite a number of successive tasks before we can raise our economy to the point at which we can start planning.

► *Then this programme is just a practical effort adapted to current realities in Niger and which might lead one day to a more systematic plan.*

— That's right.

► *May I put one or two questions to you, Minister, on the Lomé Convention? This was signed, as you know, on February 28. Niger is a French-speaking country but it lies very close to the English-speaking countries, with which you are well acquainted and with one of which you have a common frontier. Do you feel that when this convention and its institutions come into operation they will carry on the remarkable unity which characterised the ACP throughout the negotiations?*

— This is a most important point. We regard the unity which was maintained among the ACP countries throughout the negotiations as being the primary merit

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Ibrahim Loutou with Lt.-Col. Seyni Kountché, Head of State of Niger.

— Yes, especially since our national policy has now been specifically directed to satisfying the needs of the bulk of our population. All the activity of our government is now based on the production of enough food to satisfy the needs of the population at all times.

In this context we have organised a great deal of collective work designed solely to show our people that it is not possible to count on a decent livelihood from the fruit of only three or four months work annually. This is of course the case for our whole population. People work during the rainy season, and the rest of the time they sit back and do nothing. We are trying to show them that whenever

work together on projects which interest them all. In other countries it is usual to ask the people to do this because it is in their own interest and they do not get paid for it; but in our case, not only is the work of direct value to the population and only to them, but we pay them in two forms, in cash at the rate of F-CFA 150 per day and also with a food ration sufficient to cover the needs of a family of five, so that a married man with a family of three children has both money and food enough for his whole family.

► *What you have described is a relatively foolproof attempt at improvement at the popular level, going right down to*

of the Lomé agreements. For us African countries, and more particularly for the French-speaking countries which were already associated with the Common Market, the spirit in which the Lomé Convention was negotiated relieves us of certain political burdens which cannot be concealed. There was in fact a certain uneasiness in all our relations with our other partners, not only in the OAU and in Africa generally, but also with the Third World as a whole and the other ACP countries. It has always been an embarrassment in the OAU that we, who were formerly under French domination and had become by force of circumstances the chief countries associated by the Yaoundé Convention, were always having to defend the attitudes of Europe, of the Yaoundé Convention and of the Association. We have now successfully negotiated our way together into an agreement with the European countries. This means we are no longer on the defensive, no longer standing in the dock, and we shall be much more relaxed in our inter-African relations and with the Third World. This is very important for it means that we shall be much more at our ease politically. This is the first feature, and the primary benefit for us in the Lomé agreements.

Secondly, we negotiated the Lomé pacts jointly with the countries around us, including Nigeria. Among them is Ghana which, though it has no common frontier with us, is nevertheless regarded as a neighbouring country because there is a big movement of population between us and considerable trade. Our economic relations will be easier and this is another case where there was formerly a certain awkwardness because of the fear that the movement of goods (e.g. between Nigeria and ourselves) might be adversely affected by our association with the Common Market through the Yaoundé Convention. I can assure you that it is very difficult, both politically and diplomatically, to be a brother country with

Nigeria with all that this implies, and yet be required to charge Nigerian goods with customs duties considerably higher than those we charge on goods from the Common Market, even to have to embargo Nigerian goods and allow the same products to come in from Germany or the Netherlands without any restriction. These difficulties are now smoothed over and I can assure you this is most important.



... "A decisive turning point"...

► *Do you not think that the Lomé Convention is really an instrument for getting rid of this abnormal obstacle which has stood so long between the French-speaking and the English-speaking countries in Africa, which only derived from history, colonialism, language and habit?*

— Yes, I certainly think this was another of the merits of the Lomé Convention. Africa is becoming united. It ought to have done so when the different States became independent, but it failed because the Yaoundé type of convention was

there to remind the different countries that there was really a barrier between the French-speaking and the English-speaking countries and there were situations which were bound to prejudice any attempts at unity through the OAU. These difficulties are now very largely smoothed over by the Lomé Convention.

► *To turn to the European Development Fund, how important has aid from this fund been to Niger in the past and how important will it be in the future?*

— I need hardly tell you that the EDF is a very important factor for Niger since, as I said at the beginning of this interview, our country is one in which native resources are really limited and scarcely suffice to finance the cost of running the country. There can be no doubt that an organisation such as the EDF, with its interventions for infrastructure projects such as roads and social infrastructure such as dispensaries, schools and colleges, must be an instrument of great importance. Recently I had the privilege of accompanying the Head of State on a tour of the interior of the country. I was able to see for myself that the colleges of general education financed by the EDF are clearly one of the best investments ever made in Niger. This cannot be denied and I think I should mention it now. If you go to places such as Tanout, Gouré, Matamé or Magaria, you see at once the great contribution these EDF-financed colleges are making to Niger's development. Another example is the road between Niamey and Zinder, which is a vital axis of communications in our country and is now being newly surfaced with the help of the EDF and certain others. In our view the EDF contribution is essential for our economy and our development. ■

Interview by
A.L.

E.D.F. agricultural

With the Lomé Convention soon coming into force, this is a good occasion to summarise what has been achieved in the previous agreements between the EEC and its former associates. To try to answer questions on the effectiveness of Community cooperation with the Associated African States and Madagascar (AASM), we present extracts from the last report by the Commission to the EEC Council, concerning the uses made of aid and assessing the value of various projects. Because of the wide range of European Development Fund activities, this dossier is limited to one vital field: agricultural projects.

*

The evaluation covers the following 16 agricultural development operations financed by the EDF. Agriculture is one of the aspects of development with which the associated countries have been most concerned. The three European Development Funds (up to December 31, 1973) have given respectively 16%, 37% and 30% of their resources to agricultural investments.



E.D.F.

Ivory Coast: 32 000 hectares of oil palm, on

tural projects



of the biggest EDF investments (U.A. 40 million).

EVALUATING THE PROJECTS

The Commission has put in hand a general appraisal of 16 agricultural development operations which have been examined on various occasions during the past few years to check on the conditions in which the Community investments were being used.

This is a sector of special importance for the development of most of the associated countries and it has always been a major field for financial and technical cooperation. The first European Development Fund devoted 16% of its financial commitments to agricultural investment, the second EDF raised this to 37% and up to the end of 1973 agriculture had accounted for 30% of the commitments of the third EDF. It is possible that the last of these percentages may in the end prove considerably smaller because financing decisions have already been made on nearly all the agricultural projects.

Financing decisions up to 31.12.73 (million U.A.)

	EDF I	EDF II	EDF III
All decisions	570.9	717.7	637.7
of which: rural production	94.1	266.9 ⁽¹⁾	189.0

(1) Including U.A. 25.0 million for agricultural price support.

There were material changes in the types of project financed by the three successive funds. The commitments of the first EDF gave primary importance to hydro-agricultural improvements and projects for crop development were still comparatively few. Projects of the latter type, however, took precedence in the second EDF, both in number and in the amount of the credits given, while the hydro-agricultural schemes still figured in the list for about the same amount as in the earlier funds. The feature of the third fund was the progressive concentration on industrial farming.

Rural production projects up to 31.12.73 (million U.A.)

	EDF I	EDF II	EDF III	Total
All rural production	94	267	189	550
of which: hydro-agricultural schemes	40	32	44	116
industrial cultivation	19	111	139	269

Most of the **hydro-agricultural schemes** financed by the three funds were in Upper Volta, Madagascar, Mali, Mauritania, Surinam, Burundi and Réunion. Appraisals have been made of most of the projects carried out in the first five of these countries, and it is these which are discussed below.

Industrial cultivation aided up to 31.12.73 (million U.A.)

	EDF I	EDF II	EDF III	Total
All industrial crops	19	111	139	269
of which: oil palm	11	62	27	100
coton	—	19	34	53
tea	5	14	35	54

Taking the three funds together, oil palm took much the largest proportion of the funds committed, while tea and cotton took about 20 % each of the total. The big palm development project carried out in the Ivory Coast, which is examined in this report, accounted for U.A. 40.1 million from the resources of the first two funds and represents about half the palm projects which these two funds financed. Dahomey is second on the list as a beneficiary under schemes for industrial palm plantations. The Mono project, which was financed by the first EDF, is analysed below. There is also an analysis of the development of cotton growing in Senegal.

These statistics suggest that the projects evaluated in this report can be regarded as generally representative of the agricultural projects which have been carried out.

On the other hand, they are less representative of the whole range of agricultural development projects financed by the EDF, more especially the projects of later date. The time needed to complete an agricultural development operation, and examine its results, is inevitably long. This means that the projects which have been effectively completed and are evaluated in this report are the result of plans made during the very first years of the EDF's existence. Further knowledge has been gained from subsequent experience and the projects are now differently conceived and differently examined; they cover only part of the range of questions arising and solutions to particular problems are often found during the actual conception of the agricultural schemes. This should borne in mind in drawing conclusions from this examination.

There is a second and more general reservation. The prolonged drought in the Sahel countries had a considerable influence on the use made of some of the completed investments. This was an external factor, the duration and intensity of which could not be foreseen, and the adverse effects of the drought have not been taken into consideration in this appraisal.

The projects submitted to the evaluation were in many cases aimed at a number of objectives, though these were often complementary.



Oil palm: production is on the way up.

The projects can be divided into three main groups:

- improvements intended as a basis for productive investment;
- hydro-agricultural improvements aimed at better production conditions;
- intervention schemes giving priority to the introduction or development of industrial crops.

The first two of these groups roughly correspond to the "hydro-agricultural" improvements in the summary statistics given above and the third group to the "industrial farming" heading. ■

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Improvements as a basis for productive investments

The projects in this first group are mainly concerned with infrastructure and public works necessary for securing other objectives, especially improving the food situation. They are more particularly concerned with elementary infrastructure necessary to mitigate some of the constraints on economic development but without any direct action on the production processes.

RURAL DAM CONSTRUCTION (Upper Volta)

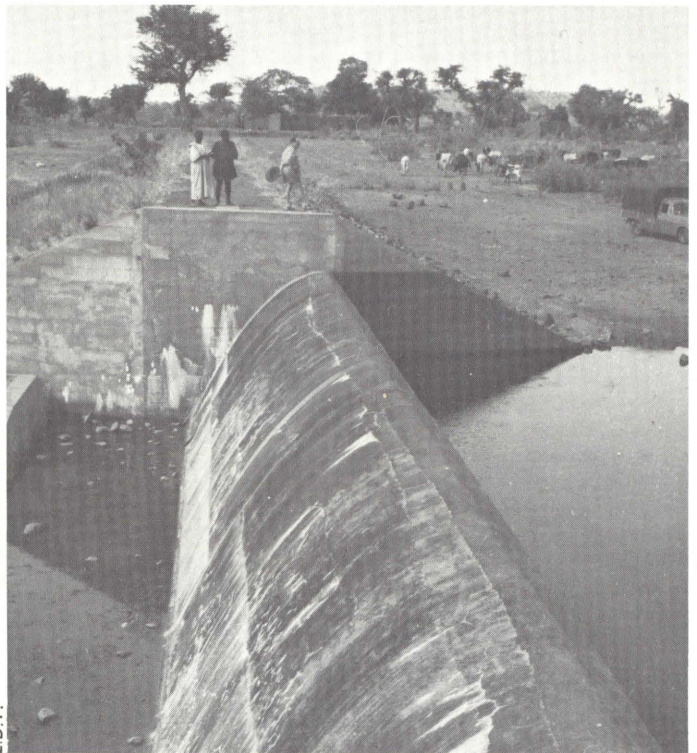
Scanty, irregular rainfall raised a number of problems for the population of Upper Volta and for their herds and agriculture; as from 1960 the national government has given priority in its investment policy to building earth dams.

This preoccupation with water supplies was behind the construction of 40 dams between 1960 and 1966. These were financed with Community aid in three successive projects (1).

The first two projects involved building 11 earth dams, creating permanent retention reservoirs which were to ensure water supplies for population and cattle, provide irrigation for farmland and improve pasture and fish-farming resources. The third project, which concerned 29 earth dams, was planned on the same lines.

Most of the 11 dams covered by the first two projects were brought into service in 1962. Those built under the third project were subject to a number of delays because of changes in the technical planning, but they came into operation in 1964 and 1967. At first the constructions were somewhat rudimentary, but a good deal of experience was accumulated and the security margin for the later dams was appreciably higher. The technical advance turned out to be beneficial, though it limited the number of dams covered by Community finance to 29 as against the 64 originally planned.

The **works resulted** in the creation of considerable water reserves, which did ensure as required the provision of water for



In Upper Volta the EDF financed a number of small dams to deal with the water requirements of a population of around 200 000.

people and cattle. When an examination was made in 1971, most of the retention reservoirs were functioning properly. The state of the dams was in general reasonably satisfactory, though no serious maintenance had been carried out because funds had not been made available.

On the other hand, the irrigation potential had been only partly used during the early years. Apart from fish-farming, agricultural development in the plains served by the dams was on a very modest scale.

In order to make better use of the dams, the Upper Volta government has been experimenting since 1966 with crop selection and a few basic production norms; this has doubled

(1) Total expenditure: U.A. 9.8 million.

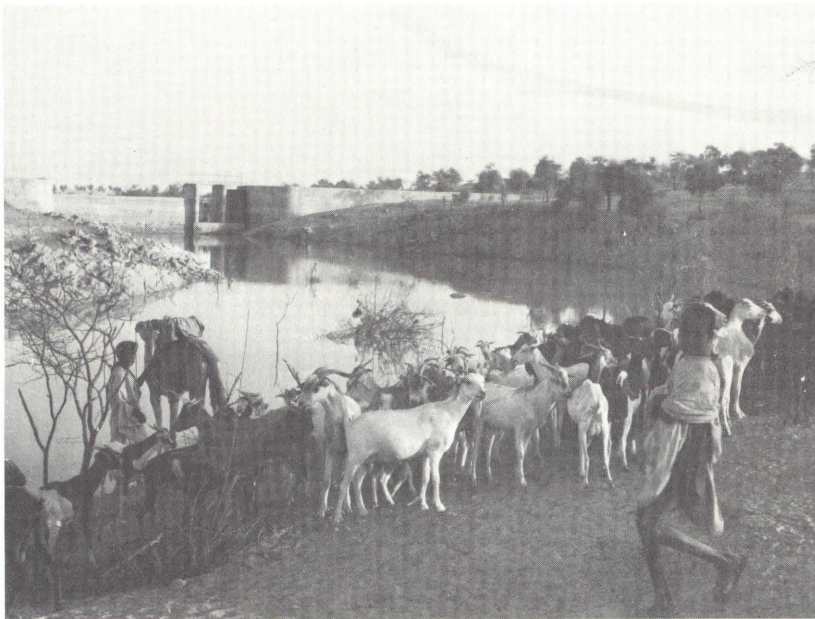
and even quadrupled the yield, with rice crops rising to 4 tons of paddy per hectare. A further campaign to adapt the traditional administrative structure has finally resulted in an increase in the areas farmed below the dams. Subsequently some progress has been seen in the farming results, with higher yields and an increase in farm incomes.

The same desire to make better use of the earlier investments led the Community in 1974 to undertake to finance improvements and development in the flat country below the existing dams, where there was an irrigable area of 150 ha. The importance of this intervention for ricegrowing and market gardening is confirmed by its prominence in Upper Volta's second development plan (1972-76) which includes the development of 500 ha below the dams.

The **results of these schemes** show that building the rural dams effectively improved water supply conditions. This was

designed to increase the amount of water retained from the rainy season, and thus to extend and intensify millet growing in the Brakna region so that the population could cover its own requirements and dispense with imports from Senegal and Mali. The project was also intended to help settle the nomads of this region.

When the works were completed (1) between 1961 and 1963, the five dams were brought into operation. Their design was unexceptionable and after 10 years they are still in good condition, despite the lack of upkeep because of the shortage of funds for maintenance work and the belief of the local people that maintenance was a matter for officialdom and not for themselves. For the most part this lack of interest does not seem due to inertia and conservatism but rather to there being no campaign to stimulate public awareness nor any effective administrative supervision and support for the users from the competent public services.



The battle against drought in Mauritania.

its primary purpose. Even though the government could not afford to promote the immediate development of the plains below the dams, nor to secure more intensive farming by popularisation and administrative supervision, the value of the rural infrastructure works is nevertheless fully confirmed. They are an instrument of rural development policy and a condition of its success.

HYDRO-AGRICULTURAL IMPROVEMENTS IN BRAKNA (Mauritania)

This scheme, like similar ones in Upper Volta and Mali, was part of an attempt by the government to overcome the water supply problem. The construction of **five concrete dams**

In 1971-72 an investigation was made into the **use to which the five dams** had been put. It was shown that three were in full operation and, by making more water available, were promoting the necessary agricultural development of the region. The other two dams, however, were not, because there had been dams there before and custom dictated the farming of traditional areas.

Though the theoretical farming area could only be partly brought into operation, the total production was more than was needed for local subsistence. The best results were secured in one of the newly developed areas, where it was noted that fertilizers, fungicides and insecticides were being used.

The provision of water points made things better for the livestock, which was reported to be in better health though still in no more than mediocre condition. The three dams brought into operation acted in the same way as those in Upper Volta as settlement centres for nomads; this led to new or bigger villages, more shops, schools and dispensaries. It can also be considered that the better water supplies contributed to improved health conditions, and the attitude of the population to the investment is found to have been favourable.

The facts noted suggest that the use made of the dams is satisfactory, at any rate in years of adequate rainfall. For two of them, however, the choice of site seems open to discussion, which could have been avoided if the users had been consulted before the work was done. The Commission is accordingly taking precautions to see that local populations are involved in preparing further projects of this type, so that they become interested in their operation and provide better assurance of the success and correct functioning of the investment.

(1) Total cost: U.A. 734 000.

DAM BUILDING IN EASTERN MAURITANIA

This is another case in which a project was designed to make the fullest possible use of the scarce water resources in this sub-Saharan region. The aim was to deal more effectively with the requirements of a population living essentially on traditional agriculture and stock-raising.

The **building of nine dams and the tapping of two springs** was designed to enable millet to be grown in a number of flat areas, to improve watering facilities for cattle and create development areas in which nomadic populations would progressively settle.

The work began in 1967 and was completed in 1969. Dams were built in earth, concrete and in one case, sheeting pile.

The use made of the investment was investigated in 1972, when the dams were found to be in only fair condition, because of various technical shortcomings at the time of their construction which prevented official acceptance of the work and were followed by the compulsory liquidation of the contracting firm. The dams and springs had, nevertheless, improved the water supply, both to the inhabitants and to the cattle; the cattle appeared to have benefitted most.

The schedule was for an area of 1 450 ha to be flood-farmed and of this about 1 100 ha were effectively under cultivation. No training or administrative supervision programme could be carried out by the national authorities because sufficient funds were not available, and the farmers continued on traditional lines, not using fungicides or fertilizers. This results in under-utilisation of the production potential of the dams and the yield does not come up to schedule, though it has been better than it was before the improvements.

The results make it clear all the same that the project has helped in defining new development centres, and the settlement of nomad populations has been reflected in the construction of semi-durable dwellings and villages. It has been possible to improve farming conditions for food crops, though better results would have followed if the scheme had been better matched with its social and economic environment by administrative supervision and peasant organisation.

IMPROVEMENT SCHEME FOR 16 POOLS IN MALI

This project originated in the intention of improving cattle watering facilities along three of the routes taken by herds at the beginning and end of the rains, moving between the Macina (the Niger flood area) and the Sahel. The main provision in the project was for the **deepening of 16 pools** to a maximum of 1.50 m., (so as to stay inside the clay stratum), to increase the amount of water they could hold and the length of time they could hold it.

The work, carried out in 1960–61, involved a total of 70 000 cu m. of earthmoving, without special improvements such as proofing. The cost was only UA 135 000.

An inspection was made on the spot in 1970, eight years after the deepening operation. It showed that 12 of the 16 pools were in good, or very good, condition, despite the almost total lack, for budget reasons, of maintenance. In June, with the first tornadoes, the pools usually take in water enough to avoid drying out between two rains, and the herds can move quite safely back to the Sahel and return earlier to these pastures. In November and December the herds can stay longer in the Sahel and on the way back from it, because they are sure of water in the deepened pools and can wait till the retreat of the flood water opens the pastures of the Niger delta. The pools keep their water until January/February, the only limiting factors being evaporation and soil permeability.

The drought of the last few years, however, has led to several of the pools drying up. The scheme can nevertheless be regarded as a general success. A comparatively small investment led to a considerable improvement in watering facilities which brought better health to the nomad herds. Herdsmen and villagers alike are showing a considerable interest in operations of this type.



In Mali the flooding of the rice fields is carried out by a system of dykes.

All the projects examined above have led to material improvements in water supplies to the population and for the cattle, and marked progress in stockraising conditions. This was their main objective.

It is also interesting to note the social and economic importance of such projects. Water supplies are the limiting factor of all economic life; their increase helps the farming development in the regions concerned, sets up settlement areas for nomadic populations and brings better health both for the cattle and for the population. Below the dammed area it becomes possible to farm more rationally, provided the necessary improvements are carried out, suitable supervision set to work and, in the longer term, running repairs made to the dams and other investments.

→

The use made of the investments seems to have been less satisfactory in the improvements—of which too few were carried out—and on the operating side, largely because of problems in providing supervision for the new farming areas and the maintenance of the structural investments.

The competent authorities, indeed, were barely able, because of the lack of funds, to carry out the **maintenance** of the dams and pools. It looks as though these problems cannot be solved without an additional long-term education campaign for the population affected by the scheme, so that they can cope with at least the more elementary maintenance themselves.



Landry-Afrique Photo

Zebus crossing a river in Madagascar.

With this in view, the works are being dealt with increasingly by bodies under government supervision. This system facilitates bringing local populations into the work and so improves the chance of their being able to handle the maintenance.

The farming of land below the improvement schemes would doubtless have done better if adequate supervision had been provided in the potential farm areas. In practice funds were not available and it was not possible to carry out any serious supervision and training programmes. In this connexion it should be remembered that in the early years of the EDF, projects of this type tended to be worked out in isolation, predominantly with a view to providing the investment needed for water supplies. Making such equipment available to the population was supposed to lead spontaneously to better farming and higher yields; and the countries aided took it upon themselves to provide the necessary supervision. Practical experience, showed these ideas to be somewhat short-sighted. It has been demonstrated that comparatively small investments can materially raise the profitability of infrastructure investments. Since this time, therefore, projects of this type have no longer been conceived as limited to pre-production improvements but also include, as an integral part of the scheme, the development of the land affected by means of supervision and popularisation campaigns carried out by local technical departments or by management companies. This line of thought was to be reflected in the planning of the hydro-agricultural improvements in the second group of operations. ■

HYDRO-AGRICULTURAL IMPROVEMENTS AT NICKERIE AND TIJGERKREEK (Surinam)

These two projects are similar to the first group, in that their aim was not to supply water but to set up an infrastructure which would provide sufficient control of water for the extension of farming in Surinam.

The two projects are part of a 10-year plan including very considerable **improvements in the polders**, which have been in hand since 1949 and are aimed to cover the country's food requirements, increase exports of agricultural products and raise the number of jobs. It was a matter of extending the farm area under a considerable and expanding agricultural population. The creation of the polders was intended to enable newly recovered areas to be allotted to small farmers, and thus check the drift into the towns, which could not offer enough jobs.

In the Nickerie district the hydro-agricultural works plan included an infrastructure of canals and roads covering 14 000 ha, of which 10 000 ha existed and the remaining 4 000 ha were proposed. This included the technical and socio-economic surveys to determine the general lines for using the 4 000 ha envisaged and to secure a more economic use of water. The crops decided upon were rice and bananas. Community aid of U.A. 1 988 m was provided to cover the surveys and the work was supplemented by Dutch bilateral aid of U.A. 3 662 m.

The improvements at Tijgerkreek West were part of the work scheduled for completion in 1967 for the recovery of polder land in the Nickerie district. The target was to provide canals and roads for a 1 090 ha unit and construct the roads for a further 190 ha. The crops selected were rice and vegetables. The EDF and the Dutch government covered the cost of the operation in approximately equal shares, including the preliminary surveys and the works supervision. The EDF finance was U.A. 443 000 and the Dutch aid U.A. 522 000. The works were completed in 1973.

The improvements carried out under the two projects are illustrative of agricultural conditions in Surinam, where 30 % of the cultivated land is in the hands of big operators, side-by-side with whom there are many small independent farmers. More than half the 4 000 ha for which improvements were undertaken had to be parcelled out to small farmers in lots of between 6 ha and 9 ha. By the beginning of 1974 the main part of the recovered land had been allotted.

Legally the conveyance of title to the land is initially for a period of between three and five years, pending repayment of the advances and the cultivation of the land. After this the land is held on a long-term lease.

All the arrangements for agricultural development and maintenance are in the hands of the Minister for Agriculture. He has his local agents and is responsible for agronomic research, experiments and other facilities. A model farm was set up in the area concerned and a large variety of vegetables has been tested in an experimental station. The water system and its maintenance are the responsibility of a special department. A few shortcomings have appeared because there was not enough bank credit for equipping the farm units.

There is not yet enough information about the use made of these two schemes for any full account of their economic impact.

The results, however, appear to have been very promising, and have already raised the standard of living among farmers. With the new irrigation facilities it is possible to take two rice crops annually instead of one. This was because the surveys and works led to the equalisation of the irrigation and better water control over the whole of the 14 000 ha polder. ■

Hydro-agricultural projects for better farming conditions

In this second group of projects the investment has the double purpose of improving the agricultural infrastructure and securing better farming conditions over a defined area. It differs from the first group in that it is no longer a question of ensuring water supplies, but rather of controlling water to secure a systematic improvement and intensification of production.

HYDRO-AGRICULTURAL IMPROVEMENT SCHEME IN THE ANONY DELTA (Madagascar)

This scheme originated in the socio-economic development programme for the whole area of lake Alaotra, with the specific aim of improved water supplies and improvement in the crops, especially rice. The chief points were:

- improvement in farming conditions over 5 000 ha of rice-growing area already cultivated, of which only 1 000 ha are regularly irrigated;
- recovery of 1 650 ha of new ground; and
- extension of market gardening to 1 600 ha.

The total area cultivated was to extend to 7 250 ha.

The project was designed to include:

- an attempt to secure higher family incomes;
- land ownership reform resulting in the land being fairly equally distributed, with average farm units of 4 or 5 ha;
- promotion of individual property ownership, with the full title delivered at the end of 15 years;
- crop diversification, especially including early and out-of-season fruit and vegetables;
- modernisation of new farm units (equipment, savings);
- systematic repayment by the owner of all the expenditure incurred for the improvement and reallocation of land, supervision and other services provided, except for the infrastructure.



Hydro-agricultural improvements in Madagascar.

The EDF provided the main part of the finance needed for the infrastructure. The new running costs borne by the Madagascar authorities (public works, supervision, social charges) were to be covered by a water tax.

The total cost of the scheme, which was carried out in 1958/70, was UA 4.33 m (1) or UA 597 per ha for the 7 250 ha brought into the scheme. The institutional framework for the project was the Malagasy company SOMALAC (2).

The scheme may be considered to have been a success for the following reasons:

— the land allocation was carried out as originally planned, and in 1968 more than 1300 farm units of 4 to 5 ha were set up in the Anony region;

— with the completion of the hydro-agricultural improvements, it became possible to carry out the programme in its entirety in 1970;

— the functional cost of the area organisation is borne by local bodies and the farmers themselves. There was, however, a departure from the original plan in that the recurrent costs for maintenance of the water improvements are not covered by a water tax, but are payable by the users themselves;

- (1) U.A. 2 759 000 (financed by EDF I and II)
U.A. 176 000 (financed by FAC)
U.A. 1 392 000 (participation by SOMALAC)

U.A. 4 327 000

- (2) Société Malgache d'Aménagement du Lac Alaotra, a company of mixed public and private ownership formed in 1961.

— the farming community seems to be better off socially and economically, and also individually and collectively. The equipment targets for the farms were in practice reached within four years. The collective equipment (tractors, threshers, etc.) is expanding extremely well, the owners of the land being organised through the rural associations which have the benefit of their members' subscriptions, besides their access to credit with the National Bank.

The internal profitability of the scheme has been very considerable. The net profit per hectare is four times as high as it was before the improvements (3). The economic benefit to the country is also undeniable, as the capital coefficient (investment/profit ratio) is about 4.5 (4). Analysing the **effects of the project** raises the following points:

— the primary purpose was the technical modernisation of the ways and means of producing a traditional food crop for local consumption. The project therefore does not contain the risks inherent in novelty, or the speculative character associated with industrial crops or population movements;

— a basis has been found for creating an up-to-date peasantry, owning farms of reasonable size which are their own individual property and enabling them to earn substantial cash incomes. On the other hand the size of the farms and the possible earnings are such that the owners are becoming employers of labour.

(3) Before the improvements production was 1.6 tons of paddy per ha, earning F(malagasy) 8 100; and after the improvements it was 3.4 tons per ha earning F(malagasy) 32 450.

(4) An investment of FMg 1 127 m is producing an increment of production at a normal rate of about FMg 250 m.

Madagascar—planting out the rice.

(see page 33)



THE LOMÉ CONVENTION

Ratification by Nigeria

Nigeria has ratified the Lomé Convention. It is the first of the signatory States to do so.

The Lomé Convention between the ACP and the EEC was signed on February 28, 1975. It provides (Article 86) that it shall be ratified by the signatory States in conformity with their respective constitutional requirements. The instruments of ratification are to be deposited, as concerns the ACP States, with the Secretariat of the Council of the European Communities; and as concerns the Community and its member States, with the Secretariat of the ACP States.

In virtue of these provisions, M. Olu Sanu, Ambassador of the Federal Military Government of Nigeria, officially informed the Secretariat of the Council of the European Communities on April 24, 1975, that H. E. General Yakubu Gowon, Head of the Federal Military Government and Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces of the Republic of Nigeria, had ratified the Lomé Convention on March 21, 1975.

...and Guinea adds her signature

In a ceremony held in the Charlemagne building, Brussels, seat of the EEC Council of Ministers, on April 10, 1975, H. E. Seydou Keita, Ambassador Extraordinary of the Republic of Guinea to Western Europe, acting in the name of his government, added his signature to the Lomé Convention between the ACP and the EEC.

Present at the ceremony were the ambassadors of the member States of the EEC and of Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific, representatives of the European Commission, the European Investment Bank and others.

Guinea's signature raises the number of African, Caribbean and Pacific countries now in the convention to 45. ■
(See also page XII)

GUYANA
(Georgetown)

ACP Council of Ministers to meet

The first meeting of the ACP Council of Ministers to be held since the signature of the Lomé Convention is fixed for June 5 and 6, 1975 at Georgetown, Guyana. The preparations are to be made by a meeting of the ambassadors and plenipotentiaries in Brussels on June 3 and 4. The agenda will include three main points:

- Institutional status for the ACP group and opening of secretariat in Brussels;
- Advance application (as from July 1, 1975) of the trade section of the Lomé Convention, as for the
- Financial and technical cooperation sections of the Lomé agreement.

In addition, the EEC-ACP interim committee continued its work during April on preparations for the entry into force of the Lomé Convention. Sub-groups were formed to study the possibilities of increased cooperation between the ACP countries. Seven of these sub-groups were constituted:

- Trade cooperation: consisting of 17 countries with the Trinidad and Tobago representative as chairman. This sub-group will deal with urgent questions, especially the preparations for putting the commercial section of the Lomé agreement before GATT.
- Stabilisation of export receipts for basic products. Sub-group to consist of representatives from 30 countries with Senegal in the chair.
- Industrial cooperation: to consist of 20 national representatives under a Nigerian chairman.
- Bananas: Chair, Cameroon. Participation: Somalia, Caribbean, Congo and Ivory Coast.
- Financial and technical cooperation: Chair Dahomey. Participation: 23 national representatives.
- Sugar: Chair: Fiji. Participation: 11 national representatives.
- Customs cooperation. Chair: Kenya. Participation: 12 national representatives. ■

SENEGAL

M. Senghor on Europe-Africa cooperation

M. Léopold Sedar Senghor, President of the Republic of Senegal, in his annual speech to the Senegalese Economic and

Social Committee, made a very firm statement in support of extremely close association between Europe and Africa. Neither the USA nor the USSR has any real need of Africa, M. Senghor said, but both Europe and Africa need one another. "Europe has not got the raw materials and we have not got the technology", he said, quoting a recent interview in which EEC Commissioner Claude Cheysson took a similar line.

The Senegalese Head of State described as "exemplary" the association of the 46 African, Caribbean and Pacific countries (ACP) with Europe, despite the fact that the ACP "because of Europe's economic difficulties" had not obtained everything they had hoped for in the preliminary negotiation. "The agreement reached is not ideal", M. Senghor added, "but it is well-balanced and the financial contribution agreed by our associates is on a substantial scale".

M. Senghor said he regarded it as "reassuring", in a world of "wolves", to see 55 different countries bringing into existence "a new type of relationship between developed and developing countries". It advances us rapidly in the dialogue and cooperation between Europe and Africa, in which we are already engaged, and with the integration of the Near East", he said.

M. Senghor also confirmed his support for the World Energy Conference proposed by M. Giscard d'Estaing. "It will be a conference holding a number of meetings", he continued. "Our only desire is that it should not be confined solely to oil, but should deal also with raw materials." ■

JAMAICA

The Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference

The Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference, held in Jamaica from April 29 - May 6, was characterised by increasing realism and intransigence. This English-speaking club, meeting every two years, has little of its previous cosiness and Kingston confirmed the new confidence 21 Commonwealth countries have drawn from the Lomé Convention.



The Conference decided to set up an expert committee to study the possibility of general agreements on raw materials. Their report will be presented to Commonwealth finance ministers at Georgetown in August. Caribbean delegates, on their own ground, called for a fundamental reform of the world economic system and the indexation of raw material prices. British Premier Harold Wilson proposed the creation of international regulatory stocks, a raw materials strategy which should find favour in Washington, where he was due after the conference.

The conference also established plans to tighten the trade blockade of Rhodesia (Zimbabwe). The blockade of road and rail links through Mozambique would be followed by a western blockade of lines through Botswana to South Africa, and compensation was pledged to Mozambique and Botswana.

Britain still provides the Commonwealth with a queen, but the particular importance to the conference of Britain was her membership of the UN Security Council, whose approval is required for the Rhodesia blockade plan.

A wide range of other political and economic questions was debated. Guyana's Foreign Minister Shridath Ramphal was appointed Commonwealth Secretary-General in succession to Arnold Smith (Canada), who has held the post since its creation ten years ago. ■

COMMUNITY

Agreement with Israel

A new trade cooperation agreement between the EEC and Israel was signed in Brussels on May 11, 1975. It will come into force on July 1, replacing the 1970 agreement which expires on October 1 next. The agreement is of unlimited duration but can be renounced on either side with 12 months notice. It has a double purpose:

1) to develop the economic relations established between Israel and the Community in its six-nation form, under the preferential trade agreement of 1970, and extend those relations to the enlarged Community;

2) to set up forms of cooperation on a mutually advantageous footing as an additional trade factor.

Under the **industrial headings** (which now include ECSC products) all Israeli exports will enter the Community free of customs duty as from July 1, 1977. The elimination of the customs duties will take place in three stages—a reduction of 60% upon the entry into force of the agreement, followed by a further 20% reduction on January 1, 1976 and a final 20% (making 100%) on July 1, 1977.

Under the **agriculture headings**, substantial concessions are made for the chief Israeli export products. The Community concessions relate to 85% of Israel's agriculture exports to the Community; for more than 70% of the products covered by the Community offer, the duty reduction in the new agreement is 50% or more.

For **imports into Israel** the rate of duty reduction will be slower than for the trade in the other direction. For a list of products covering 60% of imports from the EEC, Israel is to grant duty-free entry as from January 1, 1980. The elimination will be in five stages—30% upon the entry into force of the agreement; 40% as from January 1, 1976; 60% as from January 1, 1977; 80% as from January 1, 1979 and 100% as from January 1, 1980.

* *

The conclusion of an agreement with Israel has raised comment among the Arab countries. On May 12 M. Claude Cheysson, the European Commissioner in charge of cooperation policy, said he considered this indignation out of place.

"The Community's policy, which it has no intention of abandoning", he said, "is directed to set up the closest possible economic links with all countries on the southern side of the Mediterranean. This led it to seek preferential agreements with the Maghreb countries and Israel, and it hopes soon to do the same with Egypt, Lebanon, Syria and Jordan." M. Cheysson went on to emphasise that by signing an agreement with Israel, the Nine put themselves under an absolute obligation to make one with the Maghreb countries. "We are now condemned to succeed", he added.

M. Cheysson concluded by saying there was absolutely no justification for the critical comment made about the agreement with Israel which, he insisted, was the same sort of agreement as had been made with other countries. Moreover, the agreements envisaged and currently under negotiation with these countries would be "more advanced" than that between the EEC and Israel, relating not only to trade, but also to financial and technical cooperation and to manpower from the Arab countries. ■

(See page XII)

...and the Euro-Arab talks?

Before the signature of the agreement with Israel, what was the Community policy towards the south Mediterranean countries and how important were the discussions between Europe and the Arab countries? The closer relations between the Community and the Arab States were the subject of an article in the Cairo newspaper "Le Progrès Egyptien" on April 30, 1975:

"Mr. Mariano Rumor's talks with his Egyptian counterpart, Mr. Ismail Fahmi, put special emphasis on renewed cooperation between Rome and Cairo, but happily they are also part of a wider dialogue with Europe, which we have every reason for expecting to be fruitful. The results seem likely to go beyond the economic and political fields, touching more especially upon the human side, the most all-inclusive aspect of civilisation. Our relations with France came into the limelight last January, with the visit to Paris of President Sadat; and those with Italy are marked by the decision of our two Foreign Ministers to amplify them and base them on still more solid institutions. Egypt is still a pole of influence and attraction among the Arab peoples, as befits her history and her geographical location; France and Italy are still determinant factors in the Europe of today. It seems that Europe and the Arab peoples have recovered their true vocation—for does not this lie in the sense of humanity in contemporary society, which is so apt nowadays to be stifled or overshadowed by the cult of the gigantic so triumphant in the USA and the USSR? There is a certain internal dimension corresponding to humanity itself, which cannot be ignored without danger to the greatest acquisitions which have accrued to us in the course of human history.

Our society, as it emerged from the last world war, has for many years been torn between two opposites, both of them drunk with material power and each claiming to exercise exclusive dominance in the world. We can never be grateful enough to General de Gaulle for his work in deflating to nothing the pretensions of Washington, while maintaining against Moscow his high moral stature, thus liberating the world of the choice between alternatives to which the super-powers would have tied it.

It was his great merit that he understood the aspirations of the Third World in quest of its very existence, far from the importunities of the many who sought its favours. In this way he sketched out for Europe a course better conforming to its history and its real vocation.

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Egypt has many centuries maturity, and is especially sensitive to the realities of different peoples and different States. Today we see the Arab world taking a leaf from Egypt's book, turning its face towards this Europe, so rich in possibilities, confirming it in its vocation, asking it to play its role fully, seeking to persuade it to renew, in the forms and conditions of today, the old contacts which gave our Mediterranean basin the human aspect which is so distinctively its own.

This Mediterranean influence stretches far beyond the countries on the seaboard of this great "lake of peace". Among those who accept it, it has a way of establishing affinity, a sort of cultural and spiritual family feeling, instinct with joy and the love of living, and the moderation which this joy and love inevitably engender...". ■

GREAT BRITAIN

Referendum on Europe

On June 5, 1975 Great Britain will be voting whether or not to stay in the European Community, of which she has been a member for two and a half years.

Why this referendum — the first in the long constitutional history of the first of the western parliamentary democracies? It is the Labour Party, in power at Westminster since February, 1974, which regards the terms of British membership of the Community as unduly disadvantageous to the country by comparison with its economic potential. They were negotiated by the Conservative government under Mr. Heath and duly approved by Parliament. According to Mr. Wilson, head of the Labour government, Great Britain's share of Community expenditure would have exceeded the country's economic capacity. The terms of Great Britain's entry into the Community had therefore to be "renegotiated" to take account of this aspect of Britain's membership of a Community where each partner should contribute on an equal footing.

The budget is not the only point on which some of the British find fault with the EEC. There are some who oppose the basic principles of it, especially in the left wing of the Labour Party, where it is argued that British membership of the Common Market will result in a loss of national sovereignty and bring the country into a Europe which is more capitalist than socialist. The same view is held by

the trade unions, whose social and political influence is very considerable. So there is a confused background, not only politically but also from the economic and social standpoint, which complicates public discussion and makes the result of the vote uncertain.

The big pre-referendum question is naturally the assessment of the advantages and disadvantages to Great Britain of Community membership. Mr. Wilson, as head of the government, asserts that the "renegotiation" has led to a favourable readjustment of Great Britain's share of the Community budget. Another point in the renegotiation was the policy of the EEC towards the countries of the Commonwealth, many of them signatories of the Lomé Convention between the EEC and the ACP which now guarantees them advantages comparable to those they have had in the past from Great Britain.

Mr. Wilson, with the success of the re-negotiation behind him, now considers it would be in the interest of the United Kingdom to remain in the European Community and recommends the electorate to vote accordingly. The recent Commonwealth Conference at Kingston, Jamaica, expressed its sincere hope that Great Britain should remain a member of the European Community. ■

E.D.F.

Following the assent given by the EDF Committee at its 97th meeting, the Commission has approved five further decisions for non-repayable aid from the 3rd EDF, amounting to U.A. 9.839 million (1).

Malagasy Republic — *Works on the centre-south road axis:* FMA 1.400 m, or about U.A. 5.04 million.

The project covers the building of 14 bridges and their access to the Ankaramena-Ihoso main road (RN 7) and four bridges on the Baraketa-Isoanala section (RN 13). The purpose is year-round trafficability for the main road connexion between the centre of the country and the extreme south.

Democratic Republic of Somalia — *Development of the Golwein-Bulo Mererta farming area:* 5.023 m Sh.So.

(1) 1 U.A. = ± \$1.20 US (new parity).

or ± U.A. 668 000 from the 2nd EDF and 25.45 m Sh.So. or ± U.A. 3.385 m from the 3rd EDF.

This is the first section of the scheme covering the basic infrastructure (roads, tracks, buildings, wells etc.) for the laying out of a first grapefruit plantation of 200 ha. The introduction of this crop will help the diversification programme and expand the agricultural sector, besides developing a new export product.

Republic of Togo — *Raising of beef cattle in the plateaux and central regions:* F-CFA 219 m, or c. U.A. 790 000 from the 2nd EDF and F-CFA 71 m or ± U.A. 254 000 from the 3rd EDF.

This covers a number of items aimed at increasing agricultural and stockraising productivity. It includes propaganda to develop the use of animal transport in farming and increases in the number and quality of the herds of beef cattle.

Republic of Chad — *Bridge over the Ba-illi:* additional finance of F-CFA 187 m or ± U.A. 673.000.

The original financing of this project was approved in October 1973. Because of the considerable rise in prices and wages, additional finance was found to be needed. A bridge of 80 m. length is to be built over the N'Djamena-Sarh road, some 283 km from Sarh.

Republic of Dahomey — *Extension of the water conduit to the city of Cotonou:* additional finance F-CFA 135 m or ± U.A. 486 000.

The original financing of this project representing a call of U.A. 2.827 m from the 3rd EDF dates from 1971, but an additional credit is needed for its execution, because of the general upward movement in prices, resulting from world inflation around the turn of 1973-74.

Following the assent given by the EDF Committee at its 98th meeting, the Commission has approved the following additional financing by way of non-repayable aid from the 2nd and 3rd EDF, including one project financed by a loan of U.A. 2 400 million on special terms and of another amounting to U.A. 734 000 which involves an adjustment in previous credits from the 2nd EDF.

Republic of Rwanda — *Bridge over the Nyabarongo:* F-RW 92 m or ± U.A. 820 000 from the 2nd EDF and F-RW 76 m or U.A. 680 000 from the 3rd EDF.

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The purpose is to build a new bridge over the Nyabarongo on the main road from Kigali, the capital, to Butaré on the Burundi frontier. The old bridge, built 25 years ago, is no longer up to the traffic of about 1 210 vehicles per day.

United Republic of Cameroon — Improvement and extension of hospital at Garoua: F-CFA 610 m or ± U.A. 2.197 m from the 2nd EDF.

This is for the improvement and extension of the Garoua hospital, and the supply of equipment for the new buildings so that the hospital can act as a regional facility for the northern part of the country.

Republic of the Ivory Coast — Formation of a market-gardening area at Ferkessedougou: F-CFA 330 m or U.A. 1.19 m from the 2nd EDF.

This will make it possible to lay out a market-gardening area of 300 ha of irrigable agricultural land, near Ferkessedougou in the northern part of the country. Cultivation will be by about 120 peasants organised in cooperatives. In a normal year production should be about 1 500 tons of tomatoes, 1 875 tons of onions, 150 tons of lettuce, 270 tons of rice and 200 tons of maize.

New Caledonia — Construction of by-pass road Moindu-Bourail: U.A. 2.4 m, or ± F-CFP 242.4 m (loan on special terms from the 3rd EDF).

A new 25.8 km section of by-pass road, which is part of territorial road No. 1 between Moindu and Bourail on the west coast, is now needed because of traffic difficulties. Part of the finance is provided by this 25-year loan at 3% p.a. with an initial grace period of five years.

Republic of the Ivory-Coast — Reconstruction of road network in the Kossou-Bandama region.

This project, financed from the 3rd EDF, is concerned with three sections of road which are part of the loop around Lake Kossou. Its execution resulted in some of the credits being saved; and their utilisation is the object of the present decision. It is concerned with improvements on 19 km of the Gouitafla-Zuenoula road, a prolongation of the original project.

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Following the finance decisions which have now been made, **the total commitments from the 3rd EDF amount to U.A. 826 087 000, covering 307 decisions** since the entry into force of the Yaoundé Convention on January 1 1971. ■

COMMISSION

Harmonisation and coordination of development cooperation policies

A feature of the overall development cooperation policy which the Community has undertaken is that national and Community policies will exist side-by-side. The Council of Ministers adopted a resolution in July, 1974, recognising the usefulness of coordinating these policies to make them more effective.

The resolution envisaged more extensive exchanges of information and experience on aims, principles and methods; consultation on aid policies; a coordinated scrutiny of aid systems in respect of which there is joint action by the Community and the member countries; consultation on attitudes to be adopted in international bodies; and cooperation with international organisations handling development aid.

The Commission, in its communication to the Council, is seeking to organise this cooperation. It differentiates between two aspects:

— Policy coordination on the **general aspects** should, in the first instance, be a matter for the Council working through a group appointed ad hoc.

Work on **themes already in hand** (e.g. the volume, terms and geographical distribution of the aid and the indebtedness of developing countries) should be primarily a matter for the member countries. There should be a periodic examination, held in principle once a year, to see what progress has been made.

New themes of general interest should be chosen by reference to their potential influence on the cohesion and effectiveness of Community policy. In the initial phase the choice of themes could well depend upon discussions in the many international meetings to be held in 1975 and 1976, such as UNIDO, UNCTAD, ECOSOC, the UN General Assembly and the OECD Development Aid Committee.

— In regard to **functional coordination** the work should be handled mainly at Commission level, but more regularly and more systematically than in the past. A distinction should be made from the outset between those developing countries with which there is already active and diversified Community cooperation

(e.g. the ACP and Mediterranean countries) and others.

The need for operational coordination is most apparent in regard to the former group of countries.

Financial and technical aid programme 1976-80 for non-associated developing countries

In its communication to the Council on general development aid problems, the Commission had stated its intention of making proposals on financial aid. The conclusion of the Lomé Convention now makes a practical issue of the question of aid to non-associated developing countries, which has in fact been approved in principle by a resolution of the Council.

The Commission's first proposals are mainly concerned with financial and technical aid financed from the budget.

A general five-year programme

Encouraged by the Council's welcome for its communication last autumn, the Commission confirmed two priority targets:

— covering the food requirements of developing countries;

— promotion of regional cooperation and integration between developing countries.

Food requirements

Covering food requirements now seems likely to be one of the basic necessities of development policy in the next few years. The Commission accordingly proposes that this be regarded as an addition to the food aid already given by the Community to non-associated developing countries, more especially the poorer ones.

This should be aid in the widest sense, covering a very extensive economic and social field, embracing all forms of agriculture, improvements in production, marketing and storage and extending to industrial development on the food side, or on a regional or structural basis.

Regional cooperation and integration between developing countries

The target here is to promote investment, go beyond technical assistance and enable countries in which the domestic market is narrow to secure the economies of scale which they might otherwise be unable to enjoy. The types of action required will depend on the specific requirements of the countries concerned, running from industrial and energy projects to infrastructure development.

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Emergency schemes and technical assistance

In addition to the priority plans, there are other lines of action which could be undertaken. These include emergency schemes in the event of disasters; for this a provision of U.A. 10 m, to be renewed annually, should be set aside. In parallel with this the normal concept of trade cooperation agreements should be broadened, so that instead of dealing with mere export promotion, they become concerned with the promotion of trade relationships on a wider basis.

Amount and geographical distribution of the aid

Though there is no wish to subject financial aid to unduly rigid criteria, it should be made available as a matter of principle to non-associated developing countries, more especially in Asia. When, however, it is a matter of promoting trade relations, the essential resources, which are not unlimited, might usefully be deployed in the developing countries of Latin America which have a comparatively developed economic system.

The Commission considers that an appropriation of U.A. 100 m might be provided to cover the different forms of aid in the first year, while a further U.A. 5 m should be provided for promoting trade relations. The general objective should be for these appropriations to be doubled by 1980.

Although there are many cases in which aid to programmes might be the most appropriate form, Community aid should, so far as possible, be channelled into the financing of specific projects. The financial aid should, in the Commission's view, embody 84% of non-repayable aid, as recommended in 1972 by the OECD Development Aid Committee. ■

Community generalised preferences

The Council has discussed ideas put forward by the Commission last February on future developments in EEC generalised tariff preferences policy.

The Council recalls that the Community countries were the first of the aid-giving countries to bring a generalised preferences scheme into operation for finished and semi-manufactured goods from developing countries. This dates from July 1, 1971. Substantial improvements have since been brought into the Community scheme; as from January 1, 1974 it has been applied by the enlarged Community. The beneficiary countries have on many occasions pointed out the

scale and importance of the progress made by the Community in the application of the scheme.

The Council emphasises that generalised preferences are a fundamental instrument of development cooperation. It expresses its desire that the preferences should be progressively improved on the following lines:

- increased utilisation of the Community's scheme as it stands, especially with measures for its simplification;
- better management of the scheme;
- suitable improvements and adaptations by the Community to take into account the exporting potential of developing countries and the economic potentialities of the Community.

The Council confirms its desire that these improvements should take into account, more particularly, the less wealthy of the developing countries in such a way as to give them better preferential access to the Community market.

The system of generalised preferences was initially designed for a period of 10 years ending in 1980. The Council considers, however, that since its objective was and is to increase the export receipts of developing countries, promote their industrialisation and speed up their economic growth, it is desirable that the policy be continued. The Council therefore considers it will be necessary for there to be a further period beyond 1980 for the application of the generalised preferences scheme. ■

The Dakar Club

The need for a "new, fairer world economic balance with greater solidarity" is reaffirmed in the final communiqué of the second plenary meeting of the Dakar Club, held in Paris in May this year.

The members of this informal discussion group were meeting in a European capital for the first time. They include some 50 leading personalities in public and private life, both in industrial countries and in those of the Third World, and come only in their own names. They discussed the five themes tabled at their constitutive meeting at Dakar last December. These themes reflect the interests of the club, which intends to work for the quickest possible closing of the "economic gap" between the rich countries and the poor.

In a press conference after the meeting, one of the members, M. Pascal Lissouba, former Prime Minister of the Congo, said the Dakar Club conviction that "it is obvious Africa will industrialise, come what may" had been strengthened by the Paris meeting. It was for this purpose that the new international division of labour for which the club called must, in

the opinion of its members, lead to a transfer to Africa of European industry.

The third plenary meeting of the Club will probably be at Jos, in central Nigeria. According to the final Paris communiqué, the third meeting will be asked to adopt four further documents on new forms of cooperation between industrial and developing countries and on the "overall development of the whole of West Africa." ■

CEAO

Offer of research bursaries on West African integration

The Economic Community of West Africa (CEAO), in order to encourage the study of the different aspects of the problems relating to the economic integration of Niger, Upper Volta, the Ivory Coast, Senegal, Mauritania and Mali, proposes to award **five research bursaries**.

These bursaries are intended for young research workers who have completed their advanced study course; for teachers and assistant teachers in the early stages of their career, engaged individually or as members of a group in studies relating to the economic integration of the sub-region, in an institute of higher education, a research institute or a university faculty.

The amount of each bursary will be determined by reference to the nature of the research (which must be on one of the subjects stated in the annexe) and the time required for its completion. The maximum amount is F-CFA 569 000 (1). The bursaries are not renewable except for purposes of a further research programme.

Applications should be sent to the Secretariat-General of CEAO—B.P. 643, Ouagadougou, before **June 30, 1975**. They should be accompanied by a candidature form (2), a curriculum vitae with particulars of university degrees and diplomas, a letter of presentation from the academic authorities, a description of the research to be undertaken, an estimate of the necessary expenses and a timetable for the work.

Awards will be made not later than November 15 of the current year. Candidates' applications will not be returned to them.

No agent of CEAO, and no wife, husband, child or grandchild of such agent may apply.

(1) FF. 11 380.00.

(2) Forms can be obtained from the CEAO Secretariat-General (B.P. 643, Ouagadougou (Upper Volta)).

Mozambique to be independent on June 25, 1975

The date fixed for Mozambique's independence is June 25, 1975. It will be the second Portuguese colony (after Guinea-Bissau) to attain international sovereignty after five centuries (since 1498) of Portuguese presence. This follows a struggle for independence led since 1962 by FRELIMO (the Mozambique Liberation Front), whose leader Samora Machel will become head of the government of the new independent State.

Mozambique covers an area of 799 380 sq. km and has a population (1972) of 8.5 million, reestimated in 1974 at 9 million, including 100 000 Portuguese. The capital is Lourenço Marques, at the extreme southern end of the country, with a population of 400 000.

The Republic of Mozambique has a long coastline lying opposite Madagascar. It has common frontiers with six countries — Tanzania, Malawi, Zambia, Rhodesia, Swaziland and South Africa.

Economically, Mozambique still has more than 90% of the active population engaged in agriculture, which accounts for about 80% of its exports (1972) though it occupies only 7% of the country's area. Industry produces 10% of the exports and occupies 2.5% of the population. This gives a GNP of \$ 2 200 m (1972) and an income per head of \$ 280 per annum.

Main products are: manioc, sugar, cashew nuts, maize, sisal, cotton, tea, rice, wheat, groundnuts, copra, tobacco and timber.

Mozambique also produces coal, (330 000 tons in 1972), granite, salt and iron.

Stock-raising, which produces 1.2 million head per annum, could be further developed, as could the fisheries, using one of the country's most valuable resources.

The production of electricity amounted in 1972 to 570 million kWh, of which 440 million kWh were produced in Mozambique. The production will be very greatly increased with the Cabora Bassa dam in operation (see Courier no. 29, Jan. - Feb. 1975).

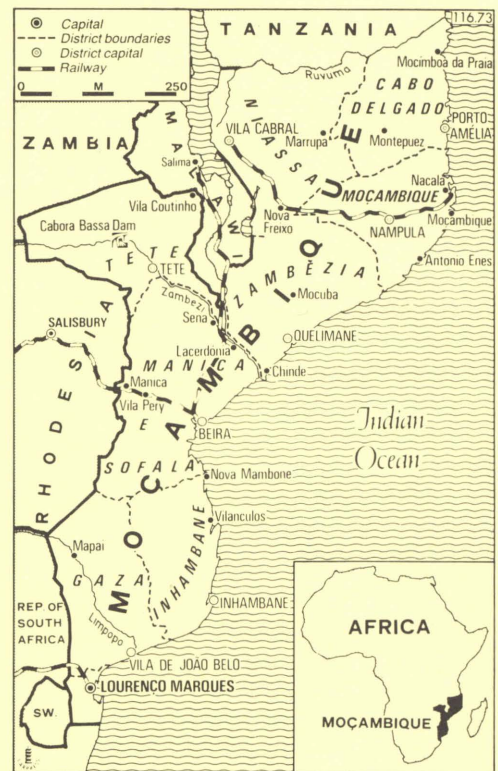
The principal exports are cashew nuts, (esc. (1) 1 200 m), cotton (esc. 657 m), sugar (esc. 625 m), tea, timber, vegetable oils and tobacco.

Imports consist mainly of machinery and chemicals.

Up to the present the Mozambique balance of payments has shown a deficit.

Mozambique's accession to independence is a matter of capital importance for the future not only of this region, but for the whole of Africa. Mozambique is in a key position, and its independence may hasten political developments in various other parts of East Africa, more especially in Rhodesia (Zimbabwe). This was one of the hopes expressed by the Common-

(1) The escudo (equivalent to 4 US cents) is the present currency in Mozambique.



wealth countries in their conference at Kingston, Jamaica, which ended on May 6. After this meeting Mrs. Judith Hart, the British Minister of Overseas Development, made an official visit to Lourenço Marques during the second weekend in May. ■ L.P.

A film on the Lomé Convention

A film on the signature of the Lomé Convention made by the Directorate-General for Press and Information of the EEC Commission was given a first showing to the ambassadors and plenipotentiaries of the ACP countries in Brussels on April 18. It is a colour film lasting 28 minutes, the work of Louis C. D. Joos, a Brussels journalist who has for many years been following cooperation between the Community and the ACP. He wrote and gave the commentary, with excellent photography by W. Van Schoor and help from Niaky Barry, whose approaches to the Togo and Ivory Coast governments did much to facilitate the shooting; and from Kalombo Kitoto who coordinated the script.

This feature film is to be translated into six languages (English, French, German, Italian, Dutch and Danish) and is intended for public showing and for school television, especially in Europe.

C.E.C. - J.L. Debaize



The Commission offers a cocktail after the first showing of the film on the Lomé Convention.

It is certain that scholars and students in the ACP countries, and the general public too, will be interested in the film. In short sequences it tells the story of the negotiations between the Nine and the 46, culminating in the signature of the Lomé Convention on February 28, 1975. The commentary and the pictures highlight, successively, the different sectors of the Lomé Agreement, more especially the organisation of trade relations with the ACP for the purpose of ending this "Africa of the Africans which had remained stuck in the economic structures of an archaic past". Other aspects, such as the stabilisation of export receipts for basic products and the industrialisation of the ACP countries, are duly brought out.

This is an informative film of interest both to Europe and to the ACP countries. It is a pity it did not include a map of the ACP so that viewers could better locate the countries involved. It might also have been interesting to focus more attention on the actual signature at Lomé, showing each of the delegations and highlighting the big moments and the popular festivities which preceded and followed the signature. The film does not seem to record those captivating moments at Lomé which marked the culmination of 18 months of work. ■ LUCIEN PAGNI

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Sampling tropical fruit at the Milan Fair: left, Jacques Ferrandi, EEC Deputy Director-General of Development and Cooperation; right, Mario Pedini, Italian Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs.

FAIRS AND EXHIBITIONS

Tropical products promotion at Milan, 1975

The Milan Fair, the first big commercial show in the spring, this year included the participation of the African countries. Their stands were in the new Africa Palace, specially fitted out by the management of the fair as a permanent home for the stands and information offices of the African countries which are members of the Lomé Convention.

Throughout the fair (April 14-25) tens of thousands of visitors were able to find information about the economic conditions of these young States, about their agriculture, their forests and their industry, about their external trade and their tourist attractions. European industrialists and traders interested in tropical produce made contact with the delegates from Africa, Madagascar and Mauritius.

The high point of the Milan show was the discussion on "assistance in trade promotion available to associated countries and other developing countries through the special organisations of the European Economic Community". This meeting was organised by the Commission and took place in the Africa Palace on April 21. Mr. Edoardo Martino, a former member of the EEC Commission, was in the chair.

The first speaker was Mr. Husein nur Elmi, Ambassador of Somalia and official representative of the associated countries. After this the delegates from specialist organisations in the EEC countries took it in turns to describe their bilateral programmes for assistance in trade promotion, and technical and commercial training for developing countries.

Some 20 African countries were represented. ■ L.P.

in May 1973 and comprises the chief exporters from the countries concerned, members of the importing and distribution trades, air and sea transport companies, transit companies and research institutes.

This year for the first time Coleama undertook, with help from the European Development Fund, a promotion campaign in the European market for tropical fruits (mango, pawpaw, lime) and vegetables (pimento, aubergine) which these African countries can bring to market during the winter months.

This operation took the form of 300 show days, with tasting and sale facilities, in supermarkets in the more important towns of France, Federal Germany, Benelux and Italy, concentrated in the last fortnight of May. The object is to make the European consumer better aware of the products.

Coleama

Coleama is the liaison committee for the promotion of tropical fruit and out-of-season vegetables from the African countries, Madagascar and Mauritius associated with the EEC. It was formed

Programme 1975

Abidjan. "SITHA" 1975 — International textile and clothing exhibition

The aim of SITHA is to enable African, Malagasy and Mauritian producers of





The Coleama stand offers a delicious display of tropical fruit and vegetables, with hostesses to offer samples.

textiles to show their products to professional buyers. It is confined exclusively to producers of piecegoods and clothing articles in the ACP countries and only professionals will be admitted to the show.

It is expected there will be about 70 exhibitors. The show is to be held from September 20-24, in the Palais des Congrès of the Hotel Ivoire at Abidjan. It is understood some 400 professional visitors will attend.

Algiers — 12th International Fair

In recent years there has been a material increase in the trade between the AASM and the Maghreb countries, but considerable expansion is still possible.

With this in view the exhibit of the associated countries at the Algiers International Fair in 1975 will again, as in 1974, contain valuable evidence of the diversity of their exports. The Algiers Fair is essentially the big Maghreb market, but its influence extends through the whole Mediterranean basin and the Near East.

The Algiers 12th International Fair is organised by ONAFEX (Office National

des Foires et de l'Expansion Commerciale) and will be held in the Palais des Expositions, from August 22 to September 7.

Berlin. "Partners for Progress" — 13th Overseas Import Fair

Berlin's Overseas Fair is an annual event well known outside the frontiers of Federal Germany. The original feature is that participation is only open to overseas countries, and on three of the five days of the fair only professional buyers are allowed in. This makes the fair a meeting place with special trading facilities for the associated countries. The organisation responsible is A.M.K. — Berlin, Messedamm 22, 1000 Berlin 19, FRG.

Brussels. 46th Exhibition of Food and Domestic Arts

This is an international show, specialising in food, drink and household equipment. Artisan products are well represented and the furnishings exhibition may well be of interest to some of the ACP countries. The fair will be held from October 4-19, 1975 in the Palais du Centenaire, Brussels.

Cologne. "ANUGA" — the world food market

The Cologne Fair ANUGA is known the world over. It is held every two years and is very highly reputed in the food trade. In 1975 it will be the chief food show in which the AASM will be present in force.

The dates for ANUGA: September 13-18.

Göteborg. "Dagens Hushall" — International Consumer Goods Fair

The International Consumer Goods Fair at Göteborg is the biggest fair in Scandinavia, and at Göteborg it is situated right in the middle of the big Scandinavian market between Copenhagen, Oslo and Stockholm. Göteborg is the biggest port in Scandinavia.

Exhibition at this fair is strongly advised for all firms in the AASM desiring to make contact with the Danish, Norwegian, Finnish and, more especially, the Swedish markets.

The dates for the fair are September 13-21, 1975.

Closing date for space reservations, July 20, 1975.

Kinshasa. 4th International Fair

This is an international fair of considerable importance. It is held every two years in the Zaire capital; in 1971 it had 2 800 exhibitors, of whom 2 500 were foreign. Nearly 800 000 people visited the fair.

The dates for the Kinshasa fair in 1975 are June 21 to July 6.

Marseilles. 51st International Fair

The Marseilles Fair was first held in 1924 and last year was its 50th anniversary. It is an international samples fair; the 51st fair is to be held from September 19-29 and the closing date for applications is in May.

The Marseilles International Fair is of interest to ACP countries aiming at the markets in the south-east Mediterranean. It will gain new importance from the developments in the port of Marseilles (Fos) and its links with northern Europe.

Paris. 33rd International Leather Week

The International Leather Week in Paris, the 33rd since it began in 1926, is mainly frequented by professionals in the leather and hides section. It carries authority in the trade, and there are normally some 1 300 exhibitors over an area of 80 000 sq. m.

Two fashion parades are held each day and there are many trade and professional conferences.

The Leather Week is to be held from September 6-9, 1975.

Paris. 30th Exhibition of ladies' ready-to-wear clothing

This is a specialised show, solely for professionals in the ready-made clothing trade and industry. It will be an opportunity for ACP countries to confirm the



already recognised importance of the African fashion and clothing trade.

The show will be held at the Port de Versailles, Paris, from October 18-23.

Trieste. 27th International Fair

The fair at Trieste is an international samples fair and will be held this year from June 17-19. It is organised by Ente Autonomo Fiera Campionaria Internazionale di Trieste, Piazzanale A. de Gasperi 1, Trieste, Italy.

Trieste ranks with Marseilles and Genoa as one of the great Mediterranean ports of the European Community. Its other advantage is that it serves the countries of central and of south-eastern Europe. The Trieste Fair is of special interest for ACP firms seeking connexions not only with Italy, but also with East European countries.

African countries exhibit at the 17th Holiday, Leisure and Tourist Show in Brussels

The great attraction in the 1975 show were the exhibits of nine African coun-

tries associated with the EEC, which participated under the Community trade promotion programme with financial support from Belgium and the EDF and technical assistance from the EEC Commission.

Rwanda, Somalia, Chad and Togo were exhibiting at the Brussels show for the first time; Cameroon, the Ivory Coast, Gabon, Mali and Senegal came last year and thought it useful to come back.

The African continent has immense tourist potential: sunshine, fine sandy beaches, a wealth of fauna and flora, fishing, shooting, safaris, a historic past, intriguing folklore. All sorts of holiday formulae have been put forward for the public and the tourist trade—seaside holidays, including trips through several countries; the hunting, shooting and fishing holiday; cultural visits; holidays for the young; the businessman's holiday—there is no end to the possibilities.

Since 1972 the development of the tourist trade in Africa has really picked up speed and should make great progress by 1980. It did not begin all by itself, but was promoted by the African govern-

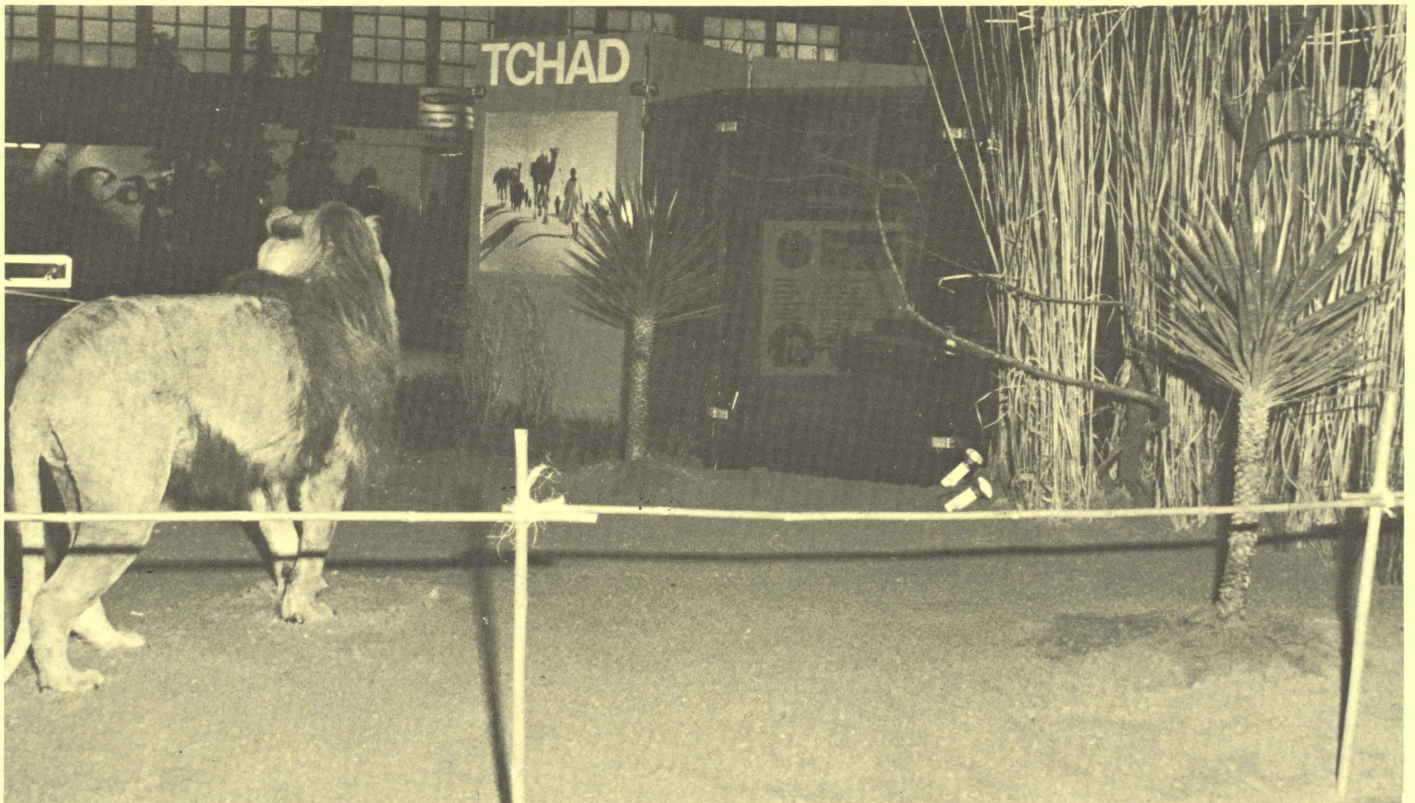
ments, the airline companies, the hotel chains and the travel agents.

The EEC Commission has played its own part in promoting a good class tourist trade in Africa, as part of its campaign for the trade promotion of its associated countries.

After the Paris meeting of the tourist trade interests in mid-May 1974, one of the speakers was Mr. Mohamed Omar Glama, Ambassador of the Democratic Republic of Somalia. The Governments of the associated countries, he said, are keenly aware of the "important part an expanding tourist industry can play in the economic and social development of a country, especially when that country has the necessary potential for real tourist development".

It will be remembered that when the African countries came to the 16th tourist show in Brussels, the national tourist authorities of the associated countries had a meeting among themselves in Brussels to consider the problem of developing the tourist trade in their own countries in the European and international market. They compared notes on how to develop the African tourist trade, especially the type of holiday which consists of a circuit of several countries in the same visit. ■

The African exhibition took the lion's share of public attention at the Brussels Holiday, Leisure and Tourism show from March 8-16.



TRADE UNIONS

Cheysson meets ECTU delegation

EEC Commissioner Claude Cheysson met a delegation from the European Confederation of Trade Unions, led by its Chairman and Secretary-General, on April 24. The meeting was given over to a discussion of the possible association of trade union organisations with the EEC development policy, especially in the framework of the Lomé Convention. Such an association was desired by both sides.

The trade union leaders expressed their wish to cooperate effectively in an open policy of development cooperation. They set out the conditions which they regarded as essential, both in regard to the content of the cooperation and to the way their participation should be organised. M. Cheysson promised Commission support in securing the effective association of the ECTU, in a suitable form still to be defined, in the application of the Lomé Convention. ■

POPULATION

World figures

The world's population reached 3 860 million people in mid-1973, an increase of 78 million in one year, according to the most recent edition of the United Nations Demographic Yearbook. This figure represents a 2.1 per cent annual growth rate, which if maintained will double world population in 32 years. Other statistical data on population reported in the UN publication:

— On a regional basis, the most rapid increase in the world's population is taking place in Africa. Rates of population growth are two per cent or more in 39 out of 45 countries or areas in Africa for which data is available, and nine of these report population growth of three per cent or more.

— The ten most populous countries, in order of size are: China, India, Soviet Union, United States, Indonesia, Japan, Brazil, Bangladesh, Pakistan, West Germany.

— The ten most populous cities, in order of size are: Shanghai, Tokyo, New York, Mexico City, Peking, London, Moscow, Bombay, Seoul, Sao Paulo.

— In only seven countries does the life expectancy of the male exceed that of the female: Liberia, Nigeria, Upper Volta, India, Khmer Republic, Jordan, and Pakistan. This trend is attributed to the relatively high rate of women dying during, or as a result of, childbirth.

— Most African countries report that their citizens have a life expectancy at birth of less than 50 years, including 21 countries whose people have life expectancies of less than 21 years, 22 countries that have life expectancies of between 40 and 49 years, and only nine whose people have life expectancies of more than 50 years. ■
"Contact". Canadian International Development Agency — April 1975.

OECD

0.33% of GNP for the Third World

The first OECD estimates of public development aid given to developing countries in 1974 by members of the Development Aid Committee (1) put the

(1) The members of the Development Aid Committee (D.A.C.) are: Federal Germany, Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, United States, Finland, France, Italy, Japan, Norway, New Zealand, the Netherlands, Great Britain, Sweden, Switzerland and the EEC Commission.

figure at \$11 300 million against a 1973 estimate of \$9 408 million. The proportion of the GNP represented by these figures is 0.33% in 1974 against 0.30% in 1973.

The committee chairman, Maurice Williams, considered the increase in 1974 was a significant performance in a year marked by inflation and other serious difficulties affecting the world economy. He also called attention to the fact that the aiding countries which were members of OPEC (Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries) contributed some \$2 540 m (or about 1.8% of their GNP) to the total public aid, which totalled \$14 970 m. in 1974. He called this a "quick and effective response" to the needs of the Third World.

The table below shows the contribution from the principal groups of aiding countries to the developing countries and to the multi-lateral aid organisations. The figures shown cover effective payments.

The aid given by the OPEC members and the countries with a centrally planned economy is mutually concentrated on a smaller number of countries than that of the DAC members. Four countries—Egypt, Syria, Pakistan and India—account for 78% of the bilateral payments made in 1974 by the OPEC countries. Four other countries—North Vietnam, Cuba, Yugoslavia and Tanzania—received the bulk of the aid from the socialist countries. The share given in 1973 by the DAC countries to the principal beneficiaries (Indonesia, the Republic of Vietnam and Bangladesh) was less than 25%. ■

Financial aid from all sources

(million dollars)

	1970	1973	1974 (estimations)
Net total contributions			
DAC countries	15 737	24 429	26 350
OPEC countries	650	1 350	4 750
Countries with centrally planned economy	1 150	1 400	1 400
Total (2)	17 600	27 200	32 500
Public development aid			
DAC countries	6 845	9 408	11 300
OPEC countries	379	531	2 540
Countries with centrally planned economy	1 000	1 100	1 100
Total (2)	8 250	11 080	14 970

(2) Including small amounts from other sources.

FOOD AID

The Council has drawn up the 1974-75 schedule for carrying out the commitments by the Community and EEC member countries under the Food Aid Conven-

tion. These commitments total 1 287 000 tons of cereals per annum, of which 643 500 tons (50%) represent Community aid and the remainder is to be distributed as bilateral aid.

The Community aid and that of the member countries go to 35 countries and three international organisations. The distribution is as follows:

Execution schedule 1974/1975 (thousand tons)

Beneficiary country or organisation	Total	Community aid	National aid
Europe			
— Cyprus	6.0	5.0	1.0
— Malta	7.0	2.0	5.0
Africa			
Sahel countries, Gambia, Ethiopia	100.0	70.0	30.0
Other countries			
— Burundi	3.7	2.5	1.2
— Dahomey	2.5	2.5	
— Mauritius	7.5	7.5	
— Kenya	5.0	5.0	
— Rwanda	2.5		2.5
— Somalia	28.0	15.0	13.0
— Sudan	10.0	5.0	5.0
— Tanzania	21.5	20.5	1.5
— Tunisia	10.0		10.0
Near East			
— Lebanon	5.0		5.0
— A.R. Egypt	41.0	10.0	31.0
— Jordan	10.0	10.0	
— Syria	10.0		10.0
— Yemen, Arab Rep.	10.5	7.5	3.0
— Yemen, Peoples' Rep.	3.0		3.0
Far East			
— Afghanistan	2.5	2.5	
— Bangladesh	219.3	150.0	69.3
— India	295.8	163.0	132.8
— Indonesia	10.0		10.0
— Pakistan	36.0	20.0	16.0
— Philippines	5.0		5.0
— Sri Lanka	28.0	20.0	8.0
Latin America			
— Haiti	3.0	3.0	
— Honduras	3.5	3.5	
— Peru	8.5	7.5	1.0
Organisations			
— WFP	127.0	40.0	87.0
— UNICEF	11.0	10.0	1.0
— UNRWA	25.0	20.0	5.0
Reserve	166.2	42.2	124.2
TOTAL : Community aid + bilateral aid = 1 287 000 tons			

It should be noted that the Council agreed to increase the Community commitment to India decided on November 26, 1974 bringing it up to 163 000 tons of cereals. With bilateral aid from the national governments, total EEC food aid for India is about 300 000 tons. Including the earlier Council decision to supply India with 700 000 tons by way of trade, the Community has covered India's initial request for a total delivery of a million tons.

* *

In addition, the Council has recorded Community approval for the execution of the agreements with the World Food Programme on July 3, 1974 and September, 24, 1974, covering the supply respectively of 15 000 tons of cereals and 15 000 tons of butter oil. ■

MOZAMBIQUE

Geneva. — Mozambique was unanimously voted into the World Health Organisation on May 14 at its annual meeting in Geneva. The WHO is the first UN organisation the former Portuguese colony has joined, with effect from its official independence on June 25. ■

ATLANTIC EXPEDITION

Developing countries bordering the Atlantic are due to receive an unusual visit over the next few months. A team of journalists and scientists will be arriving to study development questions, but instead of stepping out of an airliner they will be coming ashore from their own sailing ship.

The 40-meter "Outlaw" will be sailed by the team around the Atlantic on a three-year expedition to thirty or more developing countries of Africa and Latin America. Objective: to make these countries better known in Europe.

The scientific work of the expedition will be supervised by the Royal Institute of Belgium and the team plan to pay their way by reports and films to be distributed by "Information et développement", a Brussels-based centre for development information.

They hope their unusual approach will enable them to learn much that is still widely unknown about these countries. ■

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THE LOMÉ CONVENTION

Guinea-Bissau signs the Lomé Convention

Brussels. — At a ceremony in the Charlemagne building on 16 May, Mr. Vasco Cabral, State Commissar for the Economy and Finances of Guinea-Bissau, signed the ACP-EEC Convention of Lomé on behalf of his Government.

The ceremony was attended by the ambassadors of the Member States of the European Communities and of the African, Caribbean and Pacific States, by representatives of the European Commission and the European Investment Bank and other dignitaries.

The signing by Guinea-Bissau brings the number of African, Caribbean and Pacific States who are party to the Convention to 46.

...Togo ratifies

Lomé. — General Eyadéma, Togo Head of State, and his Cabinet have ratified by decree the EEC-ACP Convention signed here on February 28, 1975.

This announcement from the Ministry of Information specifies that the new convention succeeds the Yaoundé I and II conventions, brings into action a wide variety of cooperation instruments based on the principle of equality between partners, aims to promote the economic and social development of the African, Caribbean and Pacific States and aims to define new relations between industrial and developing countries.

ACP ask EEC to improve consultation procedure

Brussels. — Ambassadors of the 46 African, Caribbean and Pacific countries that have signed the Lomé Convention have asked the EEC to improve the consultation procedure agreed in the convention.

The ambassadors made a strong call for the improvement at the second meeting of the EEC-ACP Joint Committee in Brussels in the middle of May.

The ACP's main objection is that the EEC forgot to consult them on its beef import system. The European market has been closed to beef imports from third countries since last autumn, to use up the surplus European production. An exception has nonetheless been made to allow various African countries (Kenya, Botswana, Swaziland) to continue their traditional beef exports to the United Kingdom.

The ambassadors considered it regrettable that this measure should have been taken without previous consultation with ACP representatives. They pointed out that the EEC was preparing new measures on sugar without having asked their opinion.

ACP sugar has a special clause in the Lomé Convention granting preferential access to the European market.

The EEC representatives officially took note of the ambassadors' observations. Commentators added that the African countries complained about consultations under the Yaoundé Convention. On the European side, it was noted, the ponderous decision-making process in the Community did not help towards the sort of consultation the ACP have in mind. ■

MEDITERRANEAN

Community Mediterranean policy

Cairo. — Egyptian Premier Mamdouh Salem has told parliament the Euro-Arab dialogue is to be continued now that Egypt has received "clarifications and satisfactory assurances" on the agreement recently drawn up between the EEC and Israel.

These assurances concern "occupied Arab territory", which will not be covered by the EEC-Israel agreement. Before Mr. Salem's announcement at the end of May, EEC development commissioner Claude Cheysson reminded the European Parliament that "the trade agreement with Israel under EEC article 113 was clearly less advantageous than the agreements currently being negotiated with the Maghreb

countries, which are real association agreements as defined by article 238 of the Treaty" (of Rome). (See page III) ■

SENEGAL

Hans-Broder Krohn in Senegal

Dakar. — Dr. Hans-Broder Krohn, EEC Director of Cooperation and Development, told a press conference here in May that the breakdown in the Euro-Arab talks following the agreement between the EEC and Israel could not last long.

Dr. Krohn, at the end of a one-week official visit to Senegal, highlighted the difficulties in the EEC-Maghreb talks, especially the question of Algerian wine. He said it was time to sign an agreement with Israel while continuing the Maghreb talks as "everything is in place for establishing cooperation links with Israel".

The EEC development director emphasised the value of triangular European-Arab-African cooperation, with the possibility of Europe financing initial projects and studies and the Arabs carrying them out.

Regional projects

Describing his visit, Dr. Krohn underlined the importance of regional projects such as the Senegal Valley Development Organisation (O.M.V.S.), concerning three countries, or the bridge across the river Gambia concerning Senegal and The Gambia. He said a special fund for regional projects had been set up under the Lomé Convention, equivalent to 10% of the 4th EDF, which was fixed at U.A. 3 390 m. The initiative for these projects would have to come from the ACP countries signatory to the convention and they should work out their priorities, he added.

Describing the Lomé Convention as "a highly important political event" proving that "rich and poor can get on with each other", Dr. Krohn said he had visited Senegal to contact the authorities in order to study practical ways of putting the new convention into effect. The visit will be followed, as in the other ACP countries, by delegations of aid programming experts.

The essential point was to maintain the continuity of EDF interventions, he said.

Dr. Krohn met President Senghor and had several working sessions with ministers interested in EEC aid during his visit. He visited a number of EDF projects in the north and south and the Casamance area.

He said the EDF could provide technical assistance for the secretariat of the O.M.V.S. and give financial aid for Senegal valley development from the regional aid section of the fund. ■

ETHIOPIA

Ethiopia makes official contact with European Commission

Brussels. — A delegation from Ethiopia has visited the European Commission, to make an initial contact which should be followed by more detailed discussions. Ethiopia has never had direct relations with the EEC nor with its institutions. It is now a member of the Lomé Convention, but the Ethiopian authorities who negotiated the convention are no longer in power. The new government in general has little real familiarity with Community affairs or knowledge of the advantages obtainable from association with the EEC, or of the obligations undertaken by the Community. ■

UNIVERSITIES

Development degree

Students will be able to study development under a new scheme by the University of Clermont-Ferrand (France). The university's economic science faculty has proposed to create a specialised degree course, offering practical economic development studies to train "development economists" capable of inventing, programming and analysing projects in the light of the socio-economic environment of particular countries. The course would be based on relations between Third World countries, France and the Community in general. Particular interest has been expressed at the EEC Commission by M. Jacques Ferrandi, Assistant Director General of Cooperation and Development responsible for the EDF, and Mr. Giovanni Livi, Head of Education Programmes, In-service Training and Symposia.

IRELAND

Last EEC-AASM Joint Committee Meeting



M. Cheysson (photo, center) took a firm position on the problem of commodities, emphasising that the EEC should define its own position while taking the interests of the ACP into account (left Dr. Hans-Broder Krohn, EEC Director General of Development and Cooperation; right, M. Philippe Soubestre, head of M. Cheysson's bureau).

The last meeting of the Joint Committee of the Yaoundé Association Parliament in St. Patrick's Hall, Dublin, from May 21-24, was a time to look forward rather than back. The European and AASM delegates were joined by observers from the new ACP partners under the Lomé Convention.

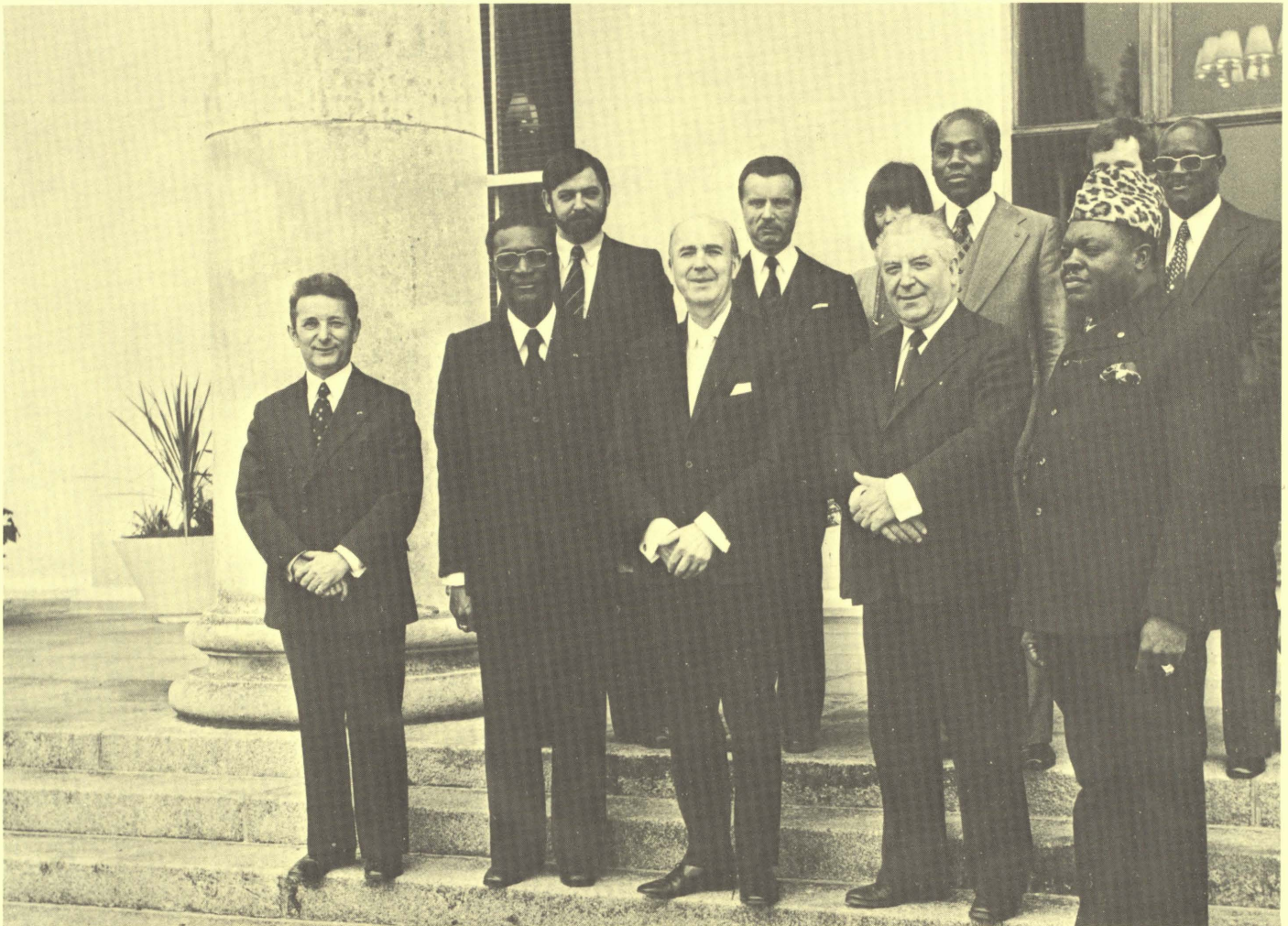
The meeting adopted a final resolution declaring that the participants:

— take note that all the conditions are satisfied for the entry into force on schedule (July 1, 1975) of all the transitional measures planned, and request the EEC/ACP Council

of Ministers, the Council and the Commission to see to it that the deadlines are strictly observed;

— emphasise the importance of bringing all the provisions of the convention into force as early as possible and therefore request that ratification proceedings be speeded up;

— call for a joint preparatory meeting between members of the European Parliament and representatives of the signatory States before the end of the year, in order to set up without delay the institutional machinery planned under the convention.



Gathered around M. Cearbhall O'Dálaigh, President of Ireland, are (left to right): Messrs. Pierre Deschamps, co-chairman of the Joint Committee; Philippe Yacé, President of the Ivory Coast Parliament; Georges Spénale, President of the European Parliament; Kasongo Mukundji, co-chairman of the Joint Committee.

Dublin. — The scene at the last meeting of the Joint Committee of the Yaoundé Association Parliament, held in St. Patrick's Hall, Dublin Castle, from May 21-24. Representatives of the new Lomé Convention partner countries attended as observers beside the EEC and AASM delegates.

Representatives of the Association Council, the EEC Council of Ministers and the European Commission were also present under the co-chairmanship of Pierre Deschamps (Belgium, Chr.-Dem.) and Kasongo Munkundi (Zaire). Discussions covered the final phase of the EEC-AASM Association as

well as the new perspectives, particularly in the institutional field, of the EEC-ACP Convention.

Philippe Yacé (President of the Ivory Coast Parliament) and Georges Spénale (President of the European Parliament) reported on the brief given them by the Eurafrikan conference in Abidjan to "make all suitable contacts in order to provide concrete application of the provisions of the new convention relating to the institution which will represent the peoples of the signatory States". They conferred with European development commissioner Claude Cheysson (*see next page*).

Cheysson on raw materials

At a joint press conference with M. Yacé and M. Spénale, the European commissioner took a strong line on raw materials, emphasising that the EEC should define its own position, taking into account the developing countries' interests. Even if it wanted to, M. Cheysson said, the EEC could not follow the line of "confrontation"; the Community was almost without raw materials and had limited economic elbow-room; it needed the Third World. The situation in Europe was therefore markedly different from that of the United States or the Soviet Union and some other industrial countries. The Community should realise the fact and draw conclusions from it, expressing this difference at world-level discussions and negotiations. Such an attitude would be in line with European interests and with the options chosen by the EEC at Lomé and in other agreements settled or being negotiated; it should be understood and admitted by Europe's western partners.

M. Cheysson considered the EEC should define a policy based on uniform principles and methods, while allowing for differences from product to product: world agreements, jointly financed international stocks, stabilised export receipts, etc.

It was observed that M. Cheysson's personal position went considerably further than that of the European Commission in its report to the Council on the same subject. ■

NETHERLANDS

Symposium on a new world economic order

Officials from 26 countries and representatives of the world's main aid organisations met in The Hague (Netherlands) on May 23-24 to draw up proposals on a new world economic system giving developing countries a better deal for their raw materials.

The meeting, organised by the Dutch development aid ministry, prepared ideas for the special session of the UN General Assembly on development in September. The UN called for a new world economic order at its last special session.

Among those present were Claude Cheysson, EEC Development Commissioner, Hendrikus Witteveen, Managing Director of the International Monetary Fund, and Gamani Corea, Secretary-General of UNCTAD.

The conference examined ways of reducing trade imbalances between rich and poor countries, alleviating the food crisis and accelerating progress in the UN's second development decade. Other problems considered were the cost of energy and the establishment of a system guaranteeing developing countries fair prices for their raw materials. ■

COCOA

Conference on "brown rot"

Accra. — "Brown rot" cocoa blight was studied at the third conference organised by the Ghana Cocoa Research Institute, held here at the end of May. Representatives of Nigeria, the Ivory Coast, Cameroon, the Congo and Ghana, and French and American observers, attended the four-day conference.

Colonel Frank Bernarsko, Ghana Minister for Cocoa, said in an opening speech that brown rot (affecting the cocoa seed pod) varied in different regions. Suitable control measures should be taken against the spread of the blight, he said. Institute director Eja Asomaning pointed out that 10% of world cocoa production was destroyed on average each year by the blight.

African and American working groups are to hold a further conference in September in the Ivory Coast to discuss the problems and results of research into brown rot. ■

NIGERIA

Economic Community of West African States launched in Lagos

The Ivory Coast, Dahomey, The Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Upper Volta, Liberia, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Togo set up the Economic Community of West African States on May 26.

Heads of State, premiers and ministers from the 15 countries met to sign the treaty setting up the community (the C.E.D.E.A.O.), which is to be ratified later.

The idea of creating the C.E.D.E.A.O. began at the meeting in December, 1973 between Generals Gowon and Eyadéma, respective Heads of State of Nigeria and Togo. The member countries intend to align their agricultural, industrial and energy policies and remove trade barriers.

Six of the French-speaking members (Ivory Coast, Upper Volta, Mali, Mauritania, Niger and Senegal) had already set up the West African Economic Community (C.E.A.O.) in June, 1972. A C.E.A.O. spokesman in Lagos emphasised that there would be no conflict of interests between the two organisations. ■

EUROPEAN UNIT OF ACCOUNT

Value of U.A. published in main currencies daily

Brussels. — As from May 26, 1975, the European Commission has begun giving daily valuations (except on official holidays) of the European unit of account in Community currencies and in the main international currencies. The calculation is made on the basis of two elements: the U.A. "basket" as agreed by the Council on March 18, and the value of each currency in Belgian francs.

The "basket" is made up as follows: one unit of account is made up of the nine EEC currencies in the following proportions: DM 27.3%; French franc 19.5%; £ Sterling 17.5%; Lire 14%; Florin 9%; Belgian franc 7.9%; Danish crown 3%; £ Irish 1.5%; Luxembourg franc 0.3%. These percentages have been calculated in the light of each country's national product and external trade, with a few correcting factors. The conversion of the unit of account into national currencies is carried out on the basis of the value of the different currencies from day to day, and the Belgian franc was chosen as the basic currency for working out the value of the others purely for practical reasons.

At present the European unit of account is used only for the European Investment Bank and the new EDF; the European Commission is drawing up the relevant measures to bring it into use as soon as possible for the ECSC and the Common Customs Tariff.

The value of the unit of account is conveyed daily to the central banks of the Member States and published in the Community's Official Journal.

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Example: value of U.A. on May 26, 1975, as used by the EIB and the EDF, in different currencies:

Community

FB/F Lux.	45.7607
DM	3.06048
H Fl	3.15017
£ Sterling	(not available)*
D kr	7.09062
F F	5.20585
L It	818.774
£ Irish	0.565645

Others

\$ US	1.31686
F Sw	3.25190
Peseta	73.2054
S kr	5.12496
N kr	6.45700
\$ Can	1.34908
Escudo	31.7342
Aus. Sch.	21.6107
Markka	4.64812
Yen	382.615

(see page 50)

(*) Exchange closed: value on May 23 would have been 0.563274.

(See also page 50).

THE NATIONAL DEBT IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

The growth rate of the external public debt in developing countries was 14.4% in 1973, according to a World Bank study (1). "Trends in external public debt of developing countries".

This figure is similar to the 1967/72 rate but lower than in 1972 (16.8%).

Growth of debt

Analysing the external debt by categories of loan sources, the study notes that debts towards foreign governments grew more slowly in 1973 than in the previous year, which seems to account for the lower rate of increase in the overall debt. Net debit to international organisations grew at a slightly faster rate, although debit to the private sector maintained a similar rate to 1972.

Even without scaling down the debt to account for changes in exchange rates, it is noticeable that debit to

foreign governments has slowed down, with a growth rate of 12.2% in 1973 against 14.9% in 1972. After adjustment the 1973 figure would probably be

lower than that for 1967/71. The cut-back was mainly due to the continued reduction of net loans to East Asia and the radical transformation of the debt position in a small number of Middle Eastern and South European countries.

The increase in the debt towards foreign governments in 1973 was equally due to a small number of countries.

The increase in net debit in Africa derived principally from borrowing by five countries: Algeria, Egypt, Tanzania, Tunisia and Zaïre.

Borrowing from the private sector

The debt towards the foreign private sector rose by \$ US 6 800 m in 1973, just over half of which went to countries in the western hemisphere.

African countries' debts to the private sector rose sharply in 1973 (\$ 2 300 m), largely due to Algeria (\$ 1 700 m), Gabon, the Ivory Coast and Zaïre.

The fact that developing countries depend increasingly on private sources of finance explains the difference between the rate of increase of debt servicing payments and the rise in the debts contracted. In the whole period 1967-1972 the latter rose at an annual rate of 14.6% while debt service payments rose at a rate of 16.4%.

It should be noted that the rise in interest rates has affected loans granted by commercial banks. The growing relative importance of private sources of finance has also influenced debt repayments. (*CEDIMOM Bulletin, May 1975*) ■

MAGHREB

Practical aspects of an agricultural agreement with the Community

Luxembourg (European Community). — EEC agriculture ministers met here on May 26-27 to examine under what practical conditions the Community market might be opened to farm and food products from Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia.

The Maghreb countries found the Community's earlier "agriculture offer" inadequate and the preferential agreement talks have broken down since opening more than two years ago.

Italy, with tacit support from France, has asked the Council of Ministers to obtain some form of come-back or guarantee in favour of EEC producers before agreeing to substantial trade concessions on Maghreb exports, arguing that Italian and French producers of wine, early fruit and vegetables and preserves are directly threatened and should not have to pay for the EEC's Mediterranean overtures. (*Le Monde*) ■

RAW MATERIALS

Manganese. — A new organisation was set up in Paris on May 5 to bring together on the world scale all companies mining and processing manganese.

The inaugural meeting of the new Manganese Centre was held to define its intended activities.

Rubber. — Five rubber-producing countries covering 85% of world production between them (Indonesia, Thailand, Sri Lanka, Singapore, Malaysia) decided on May 9 to set up a stock of 100 000 tons to try to regulate world rubber prices.

The stock will be financed from these countries' Special Drawing Rights held by the International Monetary Fund.

If this measure proves inadequate for bringing rubber prices into line, the countries could reduce their production. The group of rubber producing countries is similar to the group of tin producers who are already acting to regulate tin prices.

Oil. — Oil seems to have been struck in Niger some 300 kms north of Lake Chad.

The strike, by Texaco Niger Inc. and Esso, was made on May 27 between the towns of Termit and Agadem. A bore to 1 500 meters showed traces of oil and gas, but drilling will continue to 4 000 meters. It will take several months before the discovery can be assessed, a spokesman for Texaco Niger Inc. said in Niamey.

Sugar. — The price of sugar dropped to new depths in June; it was quoted in London at £153 a tonne, the lowest price for 18 months. ■

(1) World debt tables.

Theoretically, the return from the family units made available should be capable of covering family requirements without resort to external manpower. In reality what is happening in this region is the formation of a class of medium-sized working farmers materially better situated than most other Malagasy peasants. Their cash incomes are large by regional standards, and enable them not only to cope with their debts, but to save money. It is, however, noted that individual savings are in some cases partly absorbed by paying wages; and in some of the farms more than a third of the total man-hours are wage-paid. This may suggest that the land was reapportioned in unduly large parcels; but in fact the farms are by no means too big for the collective equipment made available. Whatever the criticism, the farmers are better off than they were.

— Notwithstanding these circumstances, one factor of success has been that the operation has taken place entirely within the region itself, and to the advantage of the farms and farmers, so that there has not been any emigration nor any settlement from outside;

— the planning, equipment and supervision of the scheme was made effective and coherent by full studies carried out beforehand and a general plan which was closely followed. The SOMALAC management personnel, and the foreign personnel handling the popularisation and stimulation, deserve special commendation;

— lastly, it is to be noted that the investment in land improvement was at the very modest rate of only U.A. 597 per ha.

The results of the project have been remarkable. This applies both to production, in which the expected changes have been secured, and also to the integration of the resulting system into the national economy and social structure. The scheme seems to have been well planned, coherent and well adapted to local conditions. It generated an undoubted change in the socio-economic background to the benefit of all the population involved.

HYDRO-AGRICULTURAL IMPROVEMENTS IN BAS-MANGOKY (Madagascar)

This project was designed to develop an area lying in the Bas-Mangoky delta, where the agricultural potential was very considerable provided the land were irrigated. The improvements here were also meant to create opportunities for immigration which would help relieve the congestion in the over-populated parts of the country, creating a growth area of particular interest to the inhabitants of underdeveloped areas in the south. The new arable land was, in the light of the ecological conditions, earmarked for cotton and rice. The first experiments had already been made with a pilot unit of 1 000 ha in 1961–65 with FAC finance.

A first section of the work, with finance of U.A. 4.8 m from the first EDF, was carried out in 1964–66. It comprised taking water from the river Mangoky, digging a 20-km canal to bring water to the land scheduled under the scheme, and a main irrigation canal of 16 km, with a protective dyke, to serve an area of about 10 000 ha.

The second section of the work was begun in 1966. This consisted of laying out the farm areas, using U.A. 9.7 m of credits from the second EDF. This instalment of the work was scheduled for the improvement of an overall area of 3 750 ha.

Financially the EDF total commitment was U.A. 14.6 m (including technical assistance). This supplemented the contribution of the Malagasy government, which included its participation in Samangoky (1) and connected expenditure on roads and social, medical, educational and administrative equipment.

It should be noted at the outset that the land was hit by two cyclones in 1969 and 1970 which did a great deal of damage to the water intake and protective installations, and flooded a large part of the agricultural area. The Commission accordingly decided to renew the appropriation of part of the commitment for the second section of the work, which was to finance measures for protecting the farmland. The area under crops is thus still limited to about 2 500 ha.



Harvesting the rice.

The main feature of the plan is a form of "association" farming, by which the work, the costs and the earnings will be divided between Samangoky and the associated farmers. Samangoky provides the administration and technical management of the farming area, that part of the farming operation which can be carried out by machinery and various supplies and services, including water, mechanised ploughing, air-spraying herbicides and insecticides and the technical supervision.

The farmer is not the owner of the land, but has user rights and contributes only some of the farm labour in accordance with specifications and a timetable issued by Samangoky. The farmer himself, followed by a network of Samangoky supervisors, works on a strip of land located according to crop rotation requirements. Its size is determined so as to secure the best possible productivity for the area of land available.

(1) Société pour l'Aménagement et la Mise en valeur de la Vallée du Bas-Mangoky.



To cover the costs of the operation, Samangoky takes half the cotton crop and half the rice crop. The other half of the cotton is bought at a uniform price of 40 FMg per kg of cotton grain (1973), and the rice is left at the disposal of the peasants. The peasant's income thus depends partly on the yield and partly on the strip of land allotted to him. The peasant demand for "membership" has always been much bigger than the number of strips available, and over the years Samangoky has had to reduce the size of the strips. This was largely because of the cyclone damage, which resulted in the expansion of the area being slower than anticipated.

The production obtained has been satisfactory, with yields far higher than had been expected (1).

There are a number of problems arising from the plan itself. Its purpose was two-fold, comprising first the development of an untilled area very sparsely populated and laid out for immigrants from the south; and secondly the economic objective of increasing the production of cotton. The site was chosen to fit in with regional development plans and had the advantage that there were practically no problems in regard to property ownership. On the other hand the most scarce of all the factors of production was manpower, and it was quite a problem to get people to go there. Most of the "associates" coming into the scheme were not farmers by origin. It was nevertheless to them that the cotton growing was entrusted, and this is a crop which calls for strict discipline and the highly conscientious performance of all tasks at the right time. The way the work was shared with Samangoky left a certain responsibility with the new farmers. The system is an intensive one, and any slackness is apt to cause much more damage and inconvenience than in traditional farming.

There are grounds for wondering whether the peasants are really sufficiently interested in farms which they do not own and from which they do not derive a wage. They are cut off from their traditional background and their work takes them from one cotton strip to another. If the associate does not carry out the necessary tasks at the right time Samangoky has no choice but to take action, which consists of sending its own wage-paid workers onto the strips of the farmers who are at fault, the cost of this operation being charged to the associate's account. The consequences nevertheless may be more serious for the company than for the peasant; for the latter can slip out and do some ordinary farm work outside the scheduled area, or if he is unduly in debt, he can show a clean pair of heels at a moment's notice. There is in fact an underlying migration problem. The people from the south come into these areas primarily to earn some money with which to buy livestock and go back in a few years time into their own part of the country. When they have used up all their savings, they are apt to come back as associates; but as the years go by, the average time they stay tends to grow longer and their return to their own part of the country becomes less frequent. This shows that there is a certain basic interest in staying put and suggests a full wage system in

(1) Over the period 1960-71 the average yield of cotton was 2.6 tons per ha of cotton grain, exceeding 3 tons in the best years. It is hoped in the future to secure a mean yield of 2.8 tons per ha, which is among the best in the world. The 1960-71 production of rice, cropping only once a year, was 3.3 tons per ha.

industrialised plantations might not necessarily be the best solution, even though it were to bring higher productivity and thus work to the advantage of the company. In the rice fields, however, it is difficult to think in terms of a wage system. On the other hand, if we remember that the purpose of the scheme is to develop a backward region, there may be doubts whether a system of land allocation simply by rights of user is sufficiently attractive to the peasants, and capable of rousing enough sense of responsibility and enthusiasm to encourage their definite settlement. The problem of allotting the land to the peasants as individual property raises the question of the cost of infrastructure and land improvements. All these improvements were handled on practical modern lines, with an eye to further development in the future, and on the technical side alone they are a model for similar hydraulic schemes. Now that the flood and cyclone protection works have been strengthened, it may well be claimed that the security margin is adequate. Since the slopes where the river Mangoky rises are progressively deteriorating and the flow of the river is an unknown factor, it is clear that the average investment cost per hectare must necessarily be a big factor in any estimate of profitability, and could scarcely be charged, even in part, to the possible owners.

It should also be noted that the general management of Samangoky is at Tananarive, which is much too far from the project itself, especially since communications are difficult. This problem is closely linked with the general question of the attraction of town life for staff workers, which may prove a very serious obstacle to the balanced development of the countries concerned.

In any case there can be no denying the political and economic interest attaching to the scheme, particularly on account of the possibility of extending it and making it an instrument of regional development, production and employment. Now that the original basic improvements have been carried out, the EEC Commission made decisions in 1973 calculated to enable the total area to be raised to a point which will enable Samangoky to cover its costs from its own receipts. It accordingly decided to finance a 3 000 ha extension of the scheduled land area, bringing the total up from 2 500 ha to 5 500 ha.

THREE RICE IMPROVEMENT SCHEMES IN MALI

The purpose of this project was hydro-agricultural improvement for three areas requiring better water control for rice and sorghum growing, involving the digging of canals and regularising water inflow and outflow. The protective dykes and certain additional road works were expected to enable these crops to be expanded and grown more intensively. They are vitally necessary to a densely populated area, marked by under-employment and unable to tackle the very difficult water problem from local resources and skill.

The project specified improvements in the following areas:

- the Mopti-South plain: formation of a rice-growing area of 4 500 ha;
- Sarantomo-Sine: 6 800 ha to be brought under rice;

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— the Korbora marshes: 2 000 ha to be brought under sorghum on drained land and under rice on flooded land.

The improvements were carried out in 1964–65 (1), partly by government bodies and partly by private firms, and in the case of Korbora with help from the local population.

An examination of the use made of these improvements leads to very positive conclusions on the results of the project. They are all in good operational condition, except at Sarantomo, where the land concerned suffered considerable damage through the Niger floods of 1967–68.

The Korbora scheme had various special features, because it was designed for growing sorghum on drained floodland. This was a poor and densely populated area and the important thing was to be able to control the flood water and also to extend the area available. At Mopti-South the new arrangements were already running normally in 1968, only five years after the works had been completed, and the results were especially good (2). At Sarantomo, on the other hand, bringing the land into production was delayed by a number of shortcomings in the work of the national technical services assigned to clear the land and prepare it before its conversion, which was not scheduled for EDF finance. The position was made worse by the damage caused by the Niger flood. The results anticipated were therefore not fully achieved.

An analysis shows the satisfactory results to be essentially due to the fact that the farmers were already familiar with irrigation

(1) Total cost U.A. 1.9 m.

(2) Sharing the 4 800 ha brought under the scheme (300 ha more than originally planned) are 600 peasant farmers. The yield rose from around 0.6 tons per ha to reach 1.5 tons per ha in 1968–69.

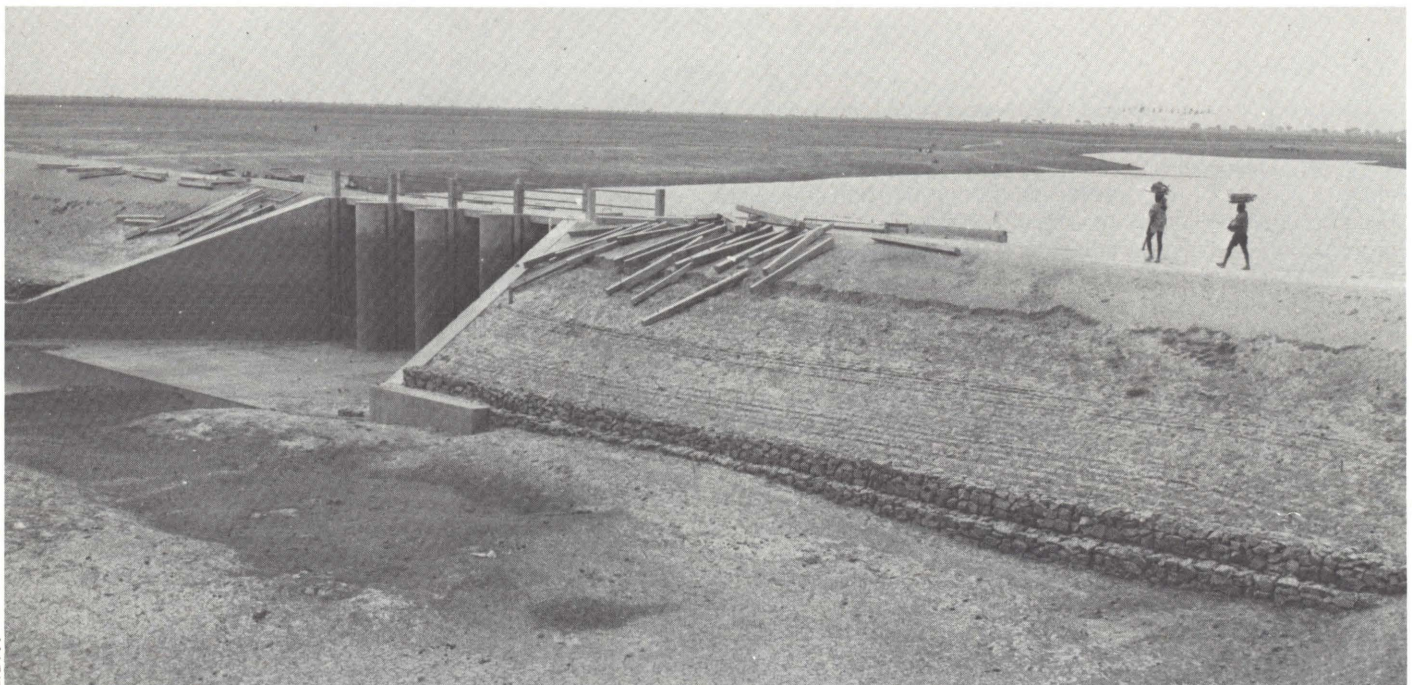
techniques and with the crops chosen for growing. The intervention, aimed at water control and an increase in the cultivated area, was based on this familiarity, and on modernised techniques and intensified farming, while still adhering to the traditional village production structure. The local population takes an extremely positive attitude towards projects falling into this category and this is a condition for their success. It should also be emphasised that the peasants are appreciably better disposed towards the improved operating techniques by virtue of the fact that the supervisors are their own nationals, whose competence for the purpose has already been proved.

These three rice-growing schemes are a first step towards more complicated arrangements in this type of undertaking aimed at food production. Their target was increased production of foodstuffs to satisfy local, regional or national demand. During the last few years the EDF has financed a number of projects of this type in Mali, Niger, Mauritania and Senegal. With the experience derived from earlier hydro-agricultural schemes the Commission has improved its approach, especially in regard to the administrative supervision. In practice the supervision and the popularisation campaigns have a way of determining the effectiveness of the scheme as a whole.

In Mali, the work done by the EDF was associated with undertakings by the government itself when, in 1969, it started a first supervision campaign for rice-growers in the Ségou and Mopti areas. This made it possible to test the way the supervision machinery could intervene in rice-growing under controlled submersion. The information thus gained was used in drawing up the plan for increased rice production, to be financed by the EDF, in the Ségou area, together with the similar project for Mopti, which is now being carried out with IDA finance.

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The sluices in Mali make it possible to control the flood-waters of the Niger and Bani rivers.



The analysis of results shows that the same reasons underlay the success of the hydro-agricultural improvement schemes in Madagascar and Mali.

The improvement and modernisation of operating material and method is based essentially on the traditional village production structure. On the one hand the improvements provide water control; and on the other, copiously staffed and efficient supervision arrangements emphasize that they are concerned with food growing, in which the local population is always very keenly interested.

In **Madagascar** the Bas-Mangoky project raises a number of problems:

— the scheme seems to have attained its priority objective, for the regional development of an area of virgin land which was intended to relieve the congestion in the over-populated southern regions, and to increase the country's cotton production;

— these results, however, were only obtained by a considerable investment which is a big charge in any calculation of economic profit;

— there were practically no fundamental problems in carrying out the scheme in a very sparsely populated area. On the other hand, the permanent settlement of immigrants from the south was only partial and less than expected;

— farmers who come into the scheduled area on a wage-earning basis are not in general familiar with cotton growing. Through the very highly staffed supervision facility, they were able to take quickly to the manual work left in their hands. On the other hand, the "association" arrangement (allotment of strips) is less effective. It does not arouse among the peasants a sufficient feeling of responsibility and may thus impair the productivity of the operation.

* * *

The two following projects have much in common with the second group, though their characteristics are different. They are cases of land utilisation without previous hydro-agricultural improvement. In Upper Volta the land in question had previously been brought within an anti-erosion scheme, and the present project is limited to the better utilisation of the land by the financing of technical assistance. In Rwanda, road-building and social development proceeded in parallel, and then came the installation of peasant settlements. In general, such projects arise only in the second stage of the investments in the second group, the fundamental improvements having been made at an earlier stage (Upper Volta), or not being necessary because dry farming is envisaged (coffee in Rwanda).

DEVELOPING THE YATENGA REGION (Upper Volta)

On the basis of anti-erosion measures which had been taken earlier in Yatenga, Community aid was involved in financing a technical assistance project concerned with a supervision and

popularisation scheme which was to be put in the hands—on the lines of Upper Volta policy in these matters—of a regional development organisation.

The action was begun in March 1965 (1) and was essentially concerned with:

— setting up the regional structure and training staff for the QRD (Regional Development Organisation); and

— improvement of productivity by the propagation of simple themes which can be easily assimilated by peasant farmers and aimed at the use of fungicides, fertilizers, selected seed and the use of animal-drawn aids.

This operation was completed in 1970, with the technical assistance of five people. It was financed by the EDF and the work was divided into three stages:

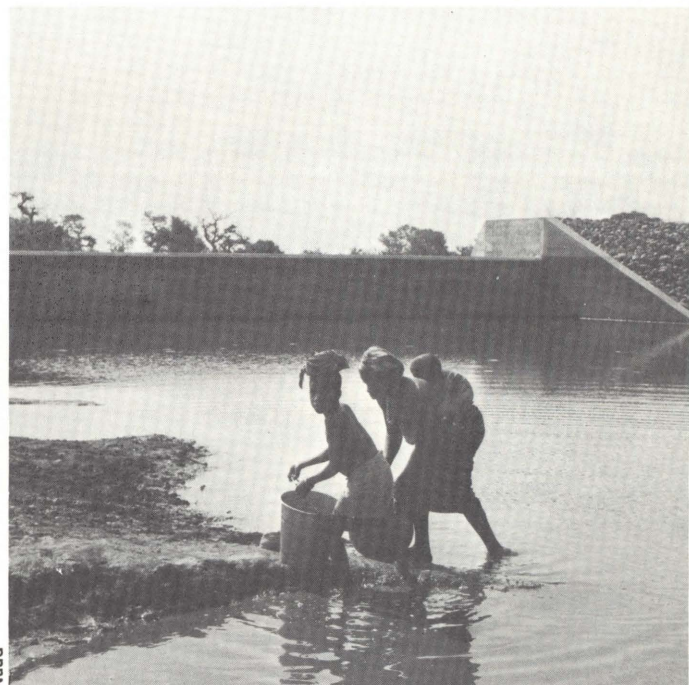
— supervision and popularisation campaign in an area roughly corresponding to the administrative boundaries of Ouahigouya (1965–67);

— setting up the ORD at Yatenga and extension of the popularisation campaign to the whole Yatenga region (1967–68);

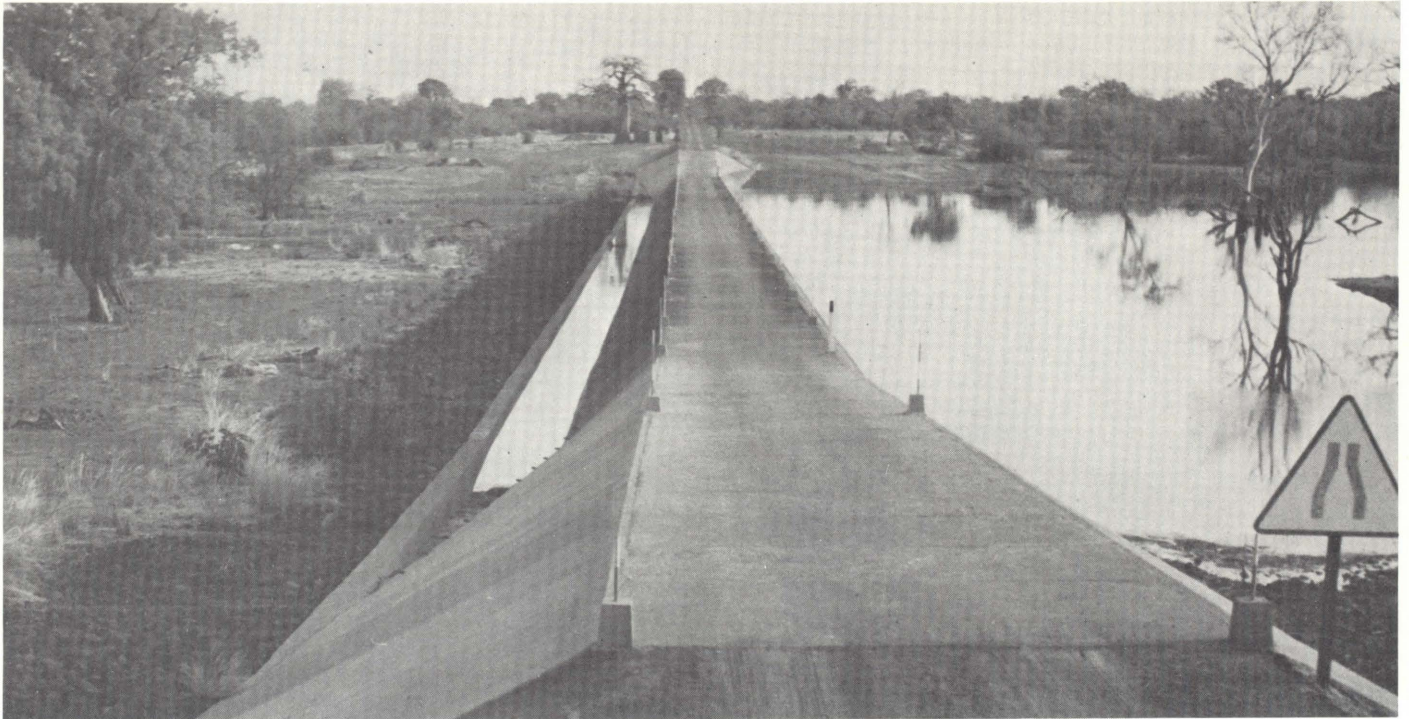
— continued assistance to ORD and reduction in number of technical assistance personnel (1968–70).

The ORD at Yatenga came into operation in 1967. Structurally, its advantage lay in the fact that it brought under one system a number of services until then operated in isolation but capable of integration into a general scheme. The ORD became

(1) Total cost U.A. 1.5 m, of which 37 % was to be financed by Upper Volta.



A dam for agriculture.



Eight earth dams built with EDF finance should improve living conditions for some thousands of Upper Volta inhabitants.

a useful instrument of intervention, extremely effective for rural development in the region. Technical assistance had, as its primary target, its own replacement by staff workers from Upper Volta itself. This was achieved, sometimes in advance of the scheduled date. In addition the Upper Volta authorities transferred particularly good staff to the ORD and more of them than had been expected.

The **popularisation** campaign, carried out by the members of the supervisory service, put out an organised series of themes mainly concerned with increasing the yield in the growing of foodstuffs. It seems the farmers concerned took to the various themes and techniques sponsored: in two years the production of millet and sorghum rose 20 %, groundnuts 26 %, sesame 51 % (1969 increases over 1967). The results would doubtless have been even better had the rainfall been normal, or at least sufficient. A number of farmers turned over to animal-drawn farming techniques.

There can be no doubt of the **usefulness and effectiveness of the project**. This EDF intervention applied to a strictly defined area and was based on there being no change in the existing infrastructure. It contributed effectively to setting up better conditions for increasing production. The efficient technical assistance and the ORD supervision were important contributions, both well-designed, well-operated and backed up by the Upper Volta campaign to make better use of the land available and improve rural development conditions in the Yatenga area.

With this success on the record, the Community decided in 1970 to finance an extension of the technical assistance for

three years to cover a popularisation programme in intensified form by the ORD and certain additional items for taking better advantage of investments already completed in the Yatenga region.

PEASANT SETTLEMENTS IN THE MAYAGA-BUGESERA REGION (Rwanda)

The project of setting up peasant settlements was part of a general plan for relieving congestion in the over-populated areas in Rwanda and intensifying and diversifying agriculture, which was to include export crops, food crops and stock-raising.

As part of a general development plan for Mayaga-Bugesera, the project called for the creation of ten settlement areas and the **installation of 12 000 families under well-planned up-to-date conditions** (1). The EDF intervention was concerned mainly with the establishment of these colonies and the operation of the settlements they constituted; but it included also various surveys and researches, road improvements, a campaign against the tsetse fly and improvements in the social infrastructure.

The basis of the programme is the peasant settlement. Peasant families are installed on two hectare lots, which are systematically laid out and leave adequate areas for pasture and

(1) Three other areas had already been developed with Belgian bilateral aid.

thicket. The peasants are given help in their installation and in planting coffee, and are required to adhere to a specific programme in developing their land. The farming techniques introduced are partly concerned with increasing and improving the production of coffee and partly with intensified food production. The combination of the different forms of assistance is coordinated by the OBM (Office du Bugesera-Mayaga).

The supervisory organisation, both locally recruited and foreign personnel, was largely financed by the EDF. Its tasks, while the present settlements were being set up, consisted mainly of seeing to the planting of the coffee and the installation of the peasants and their cooperatives. During the intensification phase, the task extended to seeing that programmes and dates were observed and organising agricultural credit, the functioning of the cooperatives and the marketing system.

The execution of the projects was staggered over the 1959–73 period (1). Some technical assistants will be staying there until 1975–76.

An examination of the results and effects of the overall scheme was made in 1972. It was found that about 13 000 lots had been laid out and nearly 14 000 families installed in the areas financed by the EDF. Migration had been greater than expected.

A large part of the credit goes to the **supervision arrangements** which were more fully staffed than initially provided and in fact stronger in the peasant settlements than elsewhere. The methods underlying the system were originally based on a small number of selected peasants, chosen because of their progressive attitudes, but this did not result in much imitation. After this the system was based more successfully on the concept of rural "animation", taking all the peasants as its target by demonstrations and persuasion, backed by frequent contact.

The **special additional objectives** were largely attained. These include, in particular, the surveys and research and the anti-tsetse campaign in Bugesera. The work on the social and economic infrastructure (schools, dispensaries, storage sheds, shops, insect extermination and similar work) made it possible to give the peasant settlement much more comprehensive equipment than is available in traditional circumstances.

An examination of the use made of the investment shows a material improvement in living standards among the population moved into the settlements. The production of coffee expanded to a satisfactory extent. By 1971 about 3/4 of the target number of coffee bushes had been planted and the production per tree was also about 3/4 of the target. The volume of **food products** produced and marketed was higher than corresponding figures outside the peasant settlements, but the yield is still quite small.

It should be noted that there has been a steady increase in the area of banana plantations, and that this in fact has gone ahead faster than the coffee. The banana plantation is a status symbol



EDF.

Regional development at Mayaga-Bugesera—a coffee plantation.

for the peasant and the considerable income from the sale of banana beer puts coffee into second place. This banana production takes up some of the best soil and a far from negligible quantity of labour, leading to some distortion in the peasant production. The tax system, too, seems to make it more in the peasants' interests to produce beer than coffee, since only the latter is taxed when it leaves the country. In 1971 the fiscal charge was a full quarter of the income accruing to the peasant producer.

The use made of the investments can on the whole be regarded as satisfactory, despite some deterioration since 1972. The results obtained, however, call for certain comments on the general planning of these projects:

— it is definitely worthwhile having an integrated approach, such as was made in the peasant settlements of Mayaga-Bugesera. The peasant producers' interest must be maintained in all aspects of the development of their farm undertaking.

— in the modernisation of the traditional farm economy, the contribution made by the supervisory system and technical assistance is at least as important as the equipment and the land allocation.

— the emphasis in the project was successfully put on the creation of peasant settlements and the corresponding infrastructure and land improvement. To some extent the operation of the investments and the management questions were neglected, so that the OBM, which has no resources of its own, does not yet carry out all the work assigned to it and the cooperatives have not yet come fully into their own. ■

(1) The total expenditure on the whole Mayaga-Bugesera programme was U.A. 7.6 m. The EDF defrayed 3/4 of the total expenditure.

Introduction and development of industrial crops

The associated countries are well aware of their possibilities in this sector and are setting up processing industries directly linked with their agricultural potential. The Community has consistently encouraged this and provided financial help for projects of this kind.

DEVELOPMENT OF COTTON GROWING (Senegal)

This is part of Senegal's attempt to free itself from reliance on the groundnut crop, which formerly accounted for more than 80% of the value of its commercial exports. Cotton was chosen to balance the economic dominance of groundnuts, both regionally and nationally. It was considered a better product for the labour force available in outlying rural areas and a likely source of higher incomes.

The project was aimed to cover the country's own requirements of cotton fibre. It was to be grown as a dry crop, beginning in 1965 in eastern Senegal and Upper Casamance, and in 1967 in Siné-Saloum. After an initial experimental phase the main constituents of the programme were:

- stimulation and technical popularisation campaigns, supply of minor equipment and intermediate materials (fertilizers, pulverising equipment, etc);
- marketing at the primary stage (buying from the peasantry);
- industrial activity (ginning);
- marketing, both on the internal and the international markets.

All these tasks were put in the hands of the CFDT company (Compagnie Française pour le développement des Fibres Textiles.)

In 1973, the use made of the operation was investigated on the spot; the findings confirmed the effectiveness of the planning. Both the area converted and the yield obtained had reached the target level. In 1973-74 Senegal had more than 29 000 hectares under cotton, with a production of 33 000 tons in the three areas. This was a new departure, as in 1964 Senegal had not produced any cotton whatever. Imports of cotton for

the Senegalese textile industries had ceased altogether by 1969 and in 1970 Senegal had become a cotton exporter.

A further evaluation of the project shows it to be an outstanding success. This was due to the combination of a number of favourable factors:

- the organisation handling the popularisation campaign (CFDT) had substantial experience of intensive growing techniques in similar areas. Initial information activities were successfully undertaken in the areas concerned;



In the Senegal cotton fields.

— Eastern Senegal and Upper Casamance were chosen as the first planting areas and proved particularly suitable for the purpose. Ecological conditions were extremely favourable and the population was anxious to increase its cash income;

— the operation was organised on particularly well-integrated lines, with CFDT in charge of the whole process right up to the end of the project, including the finance, production itself, processing and marketing. Moreover, it had effective support from IRCT (Institut de Recherches sur le Coton et les Textiles) which handled the research assignments associated with the operation.

In financial terms, the operation is well-balanced, paying for all the factors of production at their real cost (i.e. without subsidies) except for the supervisory service.

On the other hand the contribution to the growth in the national product has been rather small, because of the high cost involved in the conversion to cotton of a groundnut area. This is particularly true in Siné-Saloum, where the groundnut plantations had been extremely well-developed; but the contribution to the national product is higher in areas of comparatively small groundnut plantations.

The main purpose of the operation was to diversify the Senegalese economy. It sets up a valuable insurance against the risk of collapse in the groundnut market. Moreover, the diversification is flexible, since the reconversion between groundnuts and cotton can always be made without high cost. There were a number of **special problems** which should be mentioned:

— this was a product-for-product approach, which was undoubtedly the most effective way of securing diversification. It was based on large-scale intensification propaganda of a comparatively simple kind, exclusively aimed at producing as much cotton as possible. In the existing state of Senegal, this type of operation seemed a better solution than trying to transform the whole set of traditional practices. The method used, however, is adapted to short-term needs and implies that



Textile production in Senegal.

the present action is only one stage in the general long-term development of the country;

— the vertical integration of the operations handled by CFDT is a substantial advantage, since the organisation could coordinate the whole process of information, training and marketing. More especially CFDT supervises all demand and supply of intermediate products. It takes a percentage withheld from the proceeds of marketing the product so that it has no problem of recovering debts from the peasantry. It is vested with monopoly rights and controls the primary marketing, so there is no "parallel" market.

This vertical integration has the merit of being simple and enabling the operation to run on the right lines. If a number of intervention companies were operating on top of each other in each individual region, the country would risk losing the economies of scale:

— the supervision of Operation Cotton was fully staffed and aimed directly at the peasants without intermediaries. The information campaign was technically quite simple, the primary message being the need for conforming to the discipline appropriate to this crop. The key to success was the phase of the rural campaign which had to interest the peasant farmers in cotton growing, convince them to devote their best soil to it and give cotton priority in their farming programme.

The risk inherent in such an operation is, of course, that it may set up another single crop system. This was why the message in the popularisation campaign that cotton was to be integrated into the farm programme was repeated again and again by the supervisory staff, the ultimate objective being to turn the growers into positive agricultural contractors capable of making and carrying out their own economic choice for their own farm:

— though the project got off the ground satisfactorily it had to be steered round a number of obstacles, mainly the question of "senegalising" the CFDT staff and, indeed, the company itself. Staff replacement has started well, using training methods for African staff which have all the appearance of being satisfactory. Instead of appointing African "counterparts" to work "side-by-side" with the foreign staff member for a predetermined period, the CFDT method integrates the candidates into the project on an internal ladder, giving them definite responsibilities on a rising scale of importance. Those who are eventually going to carry responsibility thus feel they are part of the project from the word go.

The conversion of the intervention company into a national organisation was carried out during the first half of 1974, when the local company SODEFITEX (1) was formed. This is a mixed public-private concern, in which the Senegalese government and the CFDT are shareholders, in charge of everything from production to marketing.

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(1) Société de Développement de Fibres Textiles.

SELECTED PALM PLANTATIONS (Ivory Coast)

An Oil Palm Plan was launched by the Ivory Coast government in 1961. The principal object was crop diversification away from coffee, cocoa and bananas, which then made up 80% of the total value of the country's exports. The diversification of agriculture was needed for several reasons. It was to facilitate:

- spreading the constant risk of big price fluctuations in coffee and cocoa;
- correcting imbalances between the different regions due to their natural geographical differences.

The Palm Plan envisaged 76 000 ha of oil palm plantation, using selected species and calculated for a normal yield of 150 000 tons of palm oil and 38 000 tons of palm kernels beginning in 1976. These objectives, as put forward to the EDF, were contained in two separate but similar projects.



Preparing palm fruit for extracting the oil.

The **first project** was financed from the first EDF and carried out between 1963 and 1969. It provided for:

- laying out 2 200 ha of industrial plantations and 2 500 ha of village plantations;
- maintenance for four years;
- construction of two palm oil factories;
- the necessary infrastructure and equipment.

The **second project** was financed from the 2nd EDF and carried out in 1965–72. It provided for laying out 32 000 ha under selected palm. The entry into operation of the successive industrial stages was spread over eight years. It included:

- clearance infrastructure, ground preparation by mechanised deforestation;
- management and supervision of the work;
- planting and maintenance for two years;
- additional equipment;
- social infrastructure.

Eight regional centres were chosen as constituting the best production areas for palm and each of them was given one or more plantation areas calculated to provide regular supplies to the mills which were to be set up. A vigorous information campaign was carried out with the cooperation of SODEPALM (1). This was intended to persuade village planters to set up family production units.

The **aim** of the two projects was:

- to secure a diversity of producers;
- to cover the deficit in production for the home market before the first project was completed;
- to develop an export trade.

The **plans** for the two projects provided for a number of stages and for setting up several management companies, which are a valuable and efficient factor in operational integration. The stages were:

- serious preliminary studies (2) had provided valuable information and made it possible to specify the technical requirements;
- the supervision (plantations, popularisation, information) for the first project was put in the hands of SATMACI (3);
- the two oil mills were taken over by PALMINDUSTRIE (4);
- SODEPALM took charge of programme planning and management of the works. As a plantation company it produces and plants the stock, handles the maintenance until the palms are in bearing and the harvesting. It also has responsibility for supervision in the village plantations and the collection of the production from them;

(1) State-owned company formed in 1963 to carry out the palm plan.

(2) These studies were carried out by I.R.H.O. (Institut de Recherches pour les huiles et les Oléagineux).

(3) Government organisation with the task of carrying out the ground-clearance infrastructure financed for eight years by EDF.

(4) Mixed public-private undertaking with majority government shareholding.



— PALMIVOIRE (1) is responsible for the management of plantations and mills and marketing the output.

An examination was made in 1972 of the use to which the investments had been put. It shows that the treatment of both projects (of which the second is almost complete) as part of a single "Palm Plan" made it possible to carry them out with very efficient means and good results. Taken together the two projects can be regarded as a distinct success. The investments made a big contribution to diversifying national production, expanding exports and satisfying domestic consumption.

From the production standpoint, the results were satisfactory and the scheduled industrial plantations were brought into existence. On the social and economic side the effects are undeniably good: the investments created 7 000 new agricultural jobs. Under the supervision of SODEPALM, more than 10 000 Ivory Coast planters set up over 25 000 ha of village plantations. In the last few years these plantations have had a real explosion in production.

In the industrial plantations, 85 % of the agricultural workers come from Upper Volta. Their outlook for promotion is rather limited and this results in a certain social imbalance, with a rather unstable labour position in the lower grades. On the other hand, their incomes are well above anything they might be earning in Upper Volta. The system of remuneration used by SODEPALM at harvest time is an inducement to the worker to earn even more than the minimum guaranteed wage. The weighted average wage of a harvester is 40 % above the guaranteed minimum.

In addition the plantations have led to a substantial improvement in the social infrastructure, and a F-CFA 2 000 m programme is now being carried out to provide housing and social equipment.

The undoubted success of these operations is largely due to the efficiency of the management companies, who showed great competence in carrying out their tasks. In addition, the combination of the plantation development with the vigorous encouragement and supervision of the village planters proved particularly well adjusted. In 1973 more than 20 % of the total production of palm fruit came from the village plantations. It is open to question whether the whole objective of the operation might not have been attained by relying entirely on the village planters; this is of course a valid alternative, but it has the disadvantage that it cannot guarantee regular supplies to the oil-pressing plant. In addition, only a fast up-to-date technique, based on industrial methods, can make it possible to carry out a programme on such a scale within a reasonable time. The industrial plantation, which can tap an additional reserve of manpower, is therefore the best system for this type of continuous cultivation. It makes it easier to get the required output with higher labour productivity and a better yield (2) from the soil. It is quite clear, however, that the extension of the plan into the traditional framework cannot fail to have strengthened the economic and social benefits of the operation.

(1) Company with majority private shareholding.

(2) The yield from the industrial and village plantations in 1973 were respectively 8.3 tons per ha and 5.6 tons per ha.

It should also be pointed out that the success of the project owed something to the favourable conditions in the world market for vegetable oils.

THE MONO PALM PLANTATION (Dahomey)

The aim of the project was to restore and maintain the production of oil, which is one of the principal resources of the national economy. The general objective was set out in an oil palm plan drawn up in 1947, looking to improve plantations and conditions by better plant stock cultivation, processing and offtake.

This general objective led to an initial project on a substantial scale:

— to lay out a plantation of 4 000 ha of selected palm to replace the use of natural-grown palm;

— to set up a processing plant with a capacity of 6 000 tons of oil.

The choice of the site in the Mono valley was intended to help break down the isolation of this backward region, and conform to the desire of the authorities to avoid quarrelling with the population through unduly frequent encroachment on property rights. The site was also chosen on grounds of soil study, but it was some way from the humid areas and the swamps.

The scheme set up an autonomous agro-industrial unit, consisting of the plantation and the processing plant, which was put under single management of the cooperative type. This form of compulsory association in a cooperative was an attempt to reconcile respect for individual property with the preference for a big plantation of the industrial type. The owners of the ground, in exchange for bringing it into the scheme, received "A" shares in the cooperative; work was remunerated partly by advances of money and partly in the form of capital by way of "B" shares. The "A" share was the price of 1.5 ha of land and represented a nominal value of F-CFA 30 000, bringing the owner an interest payment of 3 %. The "B" share was the reward of at least 200 days work for the cooperative, which was brought into account at F 300 per day, against which an advance of F 150 per day was paid.

The use to which the investment was put was investigated fully in 1972–73. The selected palm plantation set up between 1962 and 1966 covered the scheduled 4 100 ha. The plantation came into bearing in good condition and the incomes distributed in this phase improved the living conditions of the local people.

On the negative side, the production target was never reached. In 1971 and 1972 the production of palm fruit from the selected plantation was far below expectations, because of insufficient rainfall. The average yield was less than 3 tons per ha, and the still more serious shortage of rainfall in 1973–74 killed quite a number of the trees. As a result, the 1974 yield will scarcely amount to 2 tons of fruit per ha.

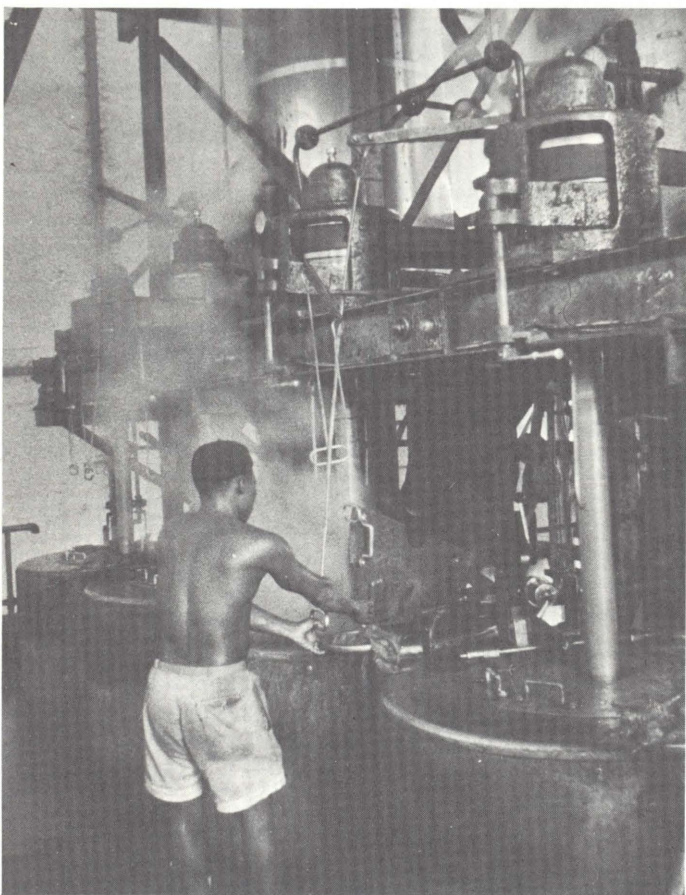
For the cooperative the expenditure on manpower and other charges remained around the expected levels, so that the operating account for 1971–72 showed a deficit of F-CFA 8 m from

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a sales total of F-CFA 48 m, despite the fact that the interest on the "A" shares and the sums payable on the "B" shares were not in fact paid.

The **processing plant** was not brought into operation till 1971, by which time it was two years late. This was due to technical modifications which had been found to be necessary. Despite the technical improvements and the tests carried out, the plant is still a temperamental installation, calling for continuous maintenance by extremely competent personnel. Economically, the higher prices for the oil sold and the palm kernels partly offset the reduction in tonnage. The 1971-72 results from the processing plant were 76% of the F-CFA 61 m profit which had been expected; but the accounts for 1972-73 showed a loss.

The cooperators passed through a period of comparative prosperity, which led them to be all the more seriously affected by the lack of rainfall. Their average annual income from the plantation in 1972 amounted to F-CFA 21 000. Because there is little land available for food cultivation in the plantation, the standard of living of the cooperators depends very largely on their cash income, which is itself based on the jobs offered by the cooperatives. This offer, however, fell from 260 days work for each cooperator in 1969 to only 140 days in 1973 and this naturally had a bad effect. The conversion of land for food



Centrifuges in a palm oil mill in Dahomey.

growing, which was not provided for in the cooperative structure, would have produced a better guarantee of subsistence in times when the cash incomes were low.

The choice of the site appears to have been questionable; but quite apart from this, a study of the use made of the investment suggests that there are inherent problems in converting a self-subsistent peasant economy into a cash economy. This was the more difficult in the present case because the cash economy was to be based solely on agricultural production and so entirely dependent on the rainfall. The insufficiency of the rain was made worse by its unfortunate distribution. Even though the district has natural palm among its resources, the impression emerging is that it is unsuitable for the cultivation of selected palm.

This was the first big oil palm plantation in West Africa financed by the EDF; even though the rainfall needed was underestimated, the Commission has learned a good deal from the experience. In order to provide the cooperators with extra cash income, and allowing for the urgency of the need for improvement, a rural development project is at the moment being considered. It deals with an adjacent area and concerns intensifying production of food crops, especially maize, improving the cultivation of natural palm by making better equipment available and other complementary activities to improve farming.

The lessons the Commission learned from the Mono project also influenced the planning of two similar projects in Dahomey. These were the agro-industrial improvements in the **Agonvy** region and in the **Ouémé** department. The objectives were the same—laying out selected palm plantations in the form of industrial blocs in a cooperative organisation similar to that at Mono—but the plan provided for land to be laid out at the same time for the cultivation of food crops, so that the cooperators would be able to use it to satisfy their own subsistence needs and even to provide a surplus to supplement their cash incomes.

The first results from Agonvy were instructive. They dealt with the period 1967-74, at the beginning of which the cooperators were using only a small portion of the area available for food cultivation. There was, however, a very noticeable rise in the demand for manioc flour and the cooperators then began to show a more marked interest in farming this land. In Ouémé (Pobé-South), the cooperators were, from the start, much more interested in the food crop farming with special emphasis on maize and groundnuts, than they were in the selected palm plantation, which has been in progress since 1973. The reason is that maize was selling in May 1973 at F-CFA 23 per kg and groundnuts at F-CFA 55, and that even higher prices might be expected, provided the products could be stored, because the outlets in Nigeria were seen to be increasingly important.

This shows how considerably the prices of the crops can act on the choice producers make between various types of crop, whether they are peasant farmers or working on an industrial plantation. The influence of these prices may be decisive, but in addition they may call in question the whole of a rural development policy. Though it is clearly useful and opportune that a rural development strategy be laid down with a view to various well-defined objectives, disturbances may arise while it is being carried out and compromise the objectives laid down for it. These must be taken into account.

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It would be interesting to go further into this problem to gain better knowledge of the conditions under which agricultural development problems come into effect, and the determinant influence they may have in motivating the short-term and the long-term decisions producers may have to make.

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From this analysis of three agricultural production projects scheduled for industrial processing, it emerges that those in **Senegal** and the **Ivory Coast** were a clear success, easily reaching their target, diversifying production, providing better cover for the home market and improving the trade balance. On the other hand, the Mono operation in **Dahomey** was a setback, due to the unsuitability of the area for selected palm plantation as well as the disastrous effect of the lack of rainfall in the past few years.

Results can, however, be further analysed to show in outline the problems which may arise in formulating this type of project.

— The choice between industrial plantation (Ivory Coast) and peasant cultivation (Senegal) depends on the crop under discussion. Palm growing calls for the industrial plantation type of operation, which is the only way to secure a high degree of rationalised production by the supervision of growing, setting up product-collecting circuits, processing the product and similar operations. Only an industrial plantation has the scale of production to supply the processing mills surely and economically. This kind of growing, of course, does not exclude a parallel or subsequent development of peasant plantations. Indeed, the extension of the scheme into the traditional framework may well enhance the progress recorded on the plantation (Ivory Coast).

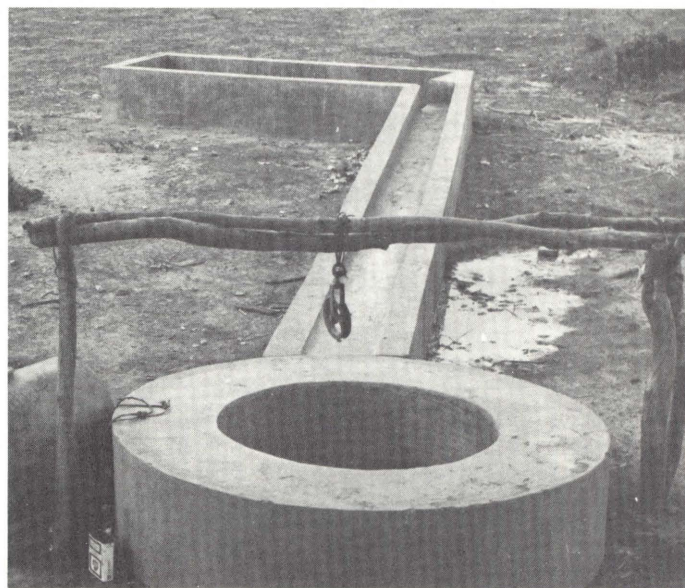
Cotton, on the other hand, is an annual crop and does not call for an industrial plantation. It is a crop which can be easily introduced or withdrawn, and provided there is regular crop rotation it is better suited to peasant cultivation. Thus for the cotton growing in Senegal, and, for other cotton schemes financed by the EDF, cultivation is left entirely to village operations.

— Industrial plantation seems to fit in better with the operative discipline needed in developing a new line of production (palm in the Ivory Coast and Dahomey).

The same approach has been successfully used in tea growing schemes financed by the EDF in Rwanda and Burundi. If the new crop does not lend itself to growing in industrial plantations, the discipline needed has to be maintained by a heavily manned and effective system of supervision (cotton in Senegal).

— The supervision system is thus extremely important in peasant cultivation. For the introduction of cotton in Senegal,

the first problem was rural information and encouragement, the effectiveness of which is certainly the key to success. The task of the popularisation campaign was the propagation of comparatively simple technical themes for adoption in making the successive changes. In the extension of palm growing in the Ivory Coast, the company in charge provided adequate and well-briefed supervision for the village planters and its success was the greater because of vigorous encouragement campaigns.



A standard EDF well in Mali.

— Both in the Ivory Coast and in Senegal the information and encouragement campaigns had secondary effects. They led to improvements in the farming system as a whole, and thus contributed towards the training of a responsible peasantry.

— The vertical integration of all the operations of production, supervision, processing and marketing in a single company (CFDT in Senegal) or in several well-coordinated companies (Ivory Coast) has been shown to be one of the conditions of success, though it is subject to the reservations made regarding the work of CFDT.

— The cooperative form of organisation used at Mono (Dahomey) is not necessarily wrong. In normal conditions (Ouémé and Agony) its operation does not seem to raise any special problems.

— It was a mistake to base the planning for Mono (Dahomey) on only a single industrial line of production, taking insufficient account of the food supply problem. Subsequent schemes financed in Dahomey have already taken this into account and plan for the simultaneous provision of land for food crops. ■

Recent developments in African air transport

by P.S. MORRELL(*)

TRENDS IN TRAFFIC

Air transport consumes more fuel in relation to the gross weight of vehicle than any other form of transport. In general, therefore, the recent fuel crisis is certain to cause a discontinuity in the rates of growth and technical progress of the past.

The impact of the spectacular increase in the price of fuel on an industry which will now have to pay over one fifth of its total operating costs to oil companies will depend on, amongst other things, the degree of surface competition and the length of journey. It is unlikely that the higher fares necessary to cover increased costs will be competitive with surface trips of a similar length; a premium will be paid for the substantial time saving and greater comfort.

In the African context, domestic traffic has in most cases been negligible compared with road and rail traffic. An exception here is Zaïre, with its large surface area; total domestic air traffic in 1972 was around 50 % of rail traffic.

A sensible transport policy from an economic standpoint would seem to suggest confining scheduled air transport to longer domestic, inter-African and intercontinental routes. At present

national policy is often not spelled out, such that national carriers often feel obliged to offer unprofitable short domestic hops. A valuable part could still be played in the domestic economy by smaller air charters, especially for emergency purposes. Unfortunately this inter-

esting role will be largely neglected in this article due to insufficient reliable data. The data available, given below, cover only the larger national flag airlines, whose importance can be better measured internationally.

INTERNATIONAL TRAFFIC OF ICAO⁽¹⁾ AIRLINES

Year	Passenger km (mill.)			Freight tonne km (mill.)		
	African states	World	% African	African states	World	% African
1969	5 677	133 311	4.3	188	5 861	3.2
1970	6 903	162 042	4.3	206	6 300	3.3
1971	7 863	173 193	4.5	240	7 035	3.4
1972	8 756	206 203	4.2	259	8 222	3.2
1973	9 727	236 310	4.1	315	9 962	3.2
Av. % ⁽²⁾	+14.4	+15.4		+13.8	+14.2	

(1) International Civil Aviation Organisation.

(2) Change p.a.

INTERNAL TRAFFIC OF ICAO AIRLINES⁽¹⁾

Year	Passenger km (mill.)			Freight tonne km (mill.)		
	African states	World	% African	African states	World	% African
1969	1 862	217 398	0.9	28	4 003	0.7
1970	2 223	298 092	0.7	33	4 163	0.8
1971	2 431	320 860	0.8	35	4 457	0.8
1972	2 689	353 589	0.8	37	4 997	0.7
1973	3 166	381 842	0.8	46	5 731	0.8
Av. %	+14.2	+15.1		+13.2	+9.4	

(*) Economist, Association of European Airlines, Brussels.



It is also interesting to contrast the degree of development of international air transport and trade in Africa with the other world regions. Africa is seen from the diagram below to be relatively less developed in air transport relative to its

Between 1969 and 1975 there has been little change in weekly frequency of scheduled flights on routes connecting Europe and Africa; what is noticeable, however, is, firstly the greater proportion of services performed by African airlines,

independence of the islands from the Portuguese could pose problems for the South Africans who have yet to take delivery of "special performance" Boeing jumbo jets with non-stop Johannesburg to London capability.

On international flights within Africa itself a dramatic change has occurred in the type of aircraft in service, even in the past five years. Whereas in 1969 the 35 weekly flights between Nairobi and Dar-es-Salaam were served by propeller Dakota and Fokker Friendship aircraft, today turbojet Caravelles and the modern jet DC-9s are in use.

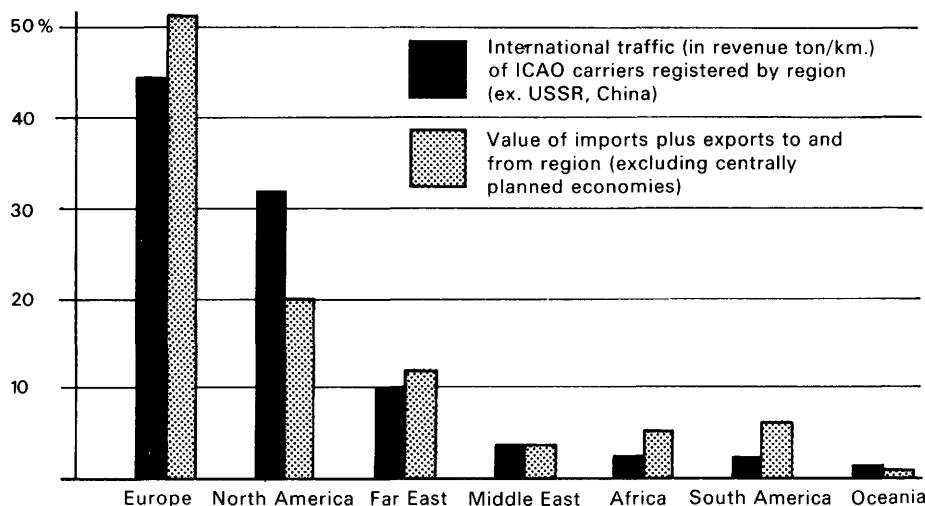
Fares

The general level of fares in Africa on scheduled services is roughly comparable to Europe. In 1972, the average in Africa was US¢5.1 per km over flights of approximately 2000 km in length, compared with ¢6.5 in Europe over under 1000 km. It is important to mention the stage distance, since the longer this is, the greater is the possibility of spreading the high proportion of overheads over a larger number of kilometres. This has the effect of lowering the unit costs on longer journeys and therefore lowering the unit fares required to cover these costs. The level of domestic fares per kilometre, therefore, applicable to shorter distances is significantly higher than inter-African and intercontinental fares.

Zambian average fare levels of just over US¢7 per km are marginally below averages of ¢9 in Kenya, ¢8 in Malawi and ¢9 in Zaïre. It is doubtful whether the domestic services are very profitable even at these levels, considering the costs of providing the service, the density of traffic and the stage of market development. Unless the routes possess good potential as feeder lines for their international network, their continuation should be dependent on their being part of an overall government transport plan, with a commitment to subsidisation at least in the early stages.

The future

The future growth of air transport in Africa is tied up closely with both



trade position, and therefore market development, compared with the Middle East, Oceania and the Far East.

Traffic carried on charter services is estimated at just under 10% of all traffic, the majority flying with the

and secondly, the larger seat capacity of the aircraft involved. This point is well illustrated by the table below for data up to 1973.

The average time taken for the journey has not been reduced significantly

OPERATING CHARACTERISTICS — ICAO — Africa:

	Domestic		International	
	1969	1973	1969	1973
Average no. of seats per aircraft	45	62	102	137
Average passengers per aircraft	27	37	50	66
Average speed k.p.h.	317	341	606	624

large scheduled airlines (or their subsidiaries). There is considerable scope for expansion in this market, especially in providing transport to Mecca for Muslim pilgrims. One of the largest purely charter airlines is African Safari, which is registered in the East African States and possesses three long-range aircraft.

(as the figures for average speed above suggest). Indeed, in isolated cases, bans on overflights imposed on certain carriers by some African states has led to time-wasting detours. In this connection, South African Airways are prohibited from overflying black Africa and must detour to refuel at Ilha do Sal in the Cap Verde Islands. The

economic progress and political stability. Form a forecast made prior to the oil crisis the average rate of growth of intercontinental traffic was expected to be 8.6% per annum for the decade 1970 to 1980. This compares with 8.2% for the previous decade. Traffic between Africa and Europe is forecast to grow at a slower rate of 8.2% (12.8% for 1960-70) and domestic African traffic would have increased at 16.4% (13.3% for 1960-70).

Radical revisions of these forecasts will depend on both the effects on traffic of large increases in fares, and of equal importance, the vulnerability of African economies to the general world slow-down. The International Civil Aviation Organisation has suggested a post oil crisis figure of 10% per annum for the average growth of the total traffic carried by African carriers between now and 1985.

MAJOR AFRICAN CARRIERS

The two African airlines that have contributed most to the recent development of air transport and tourism in Africa are Air Afrique and East African Airways. Apart from their basic task of the transport of both people and goods, these two carriers also provide good examples of inter-African cooperation through the pooling of resources of ten and three countries respectively. Together their networks criss-cross the whole continent, extending even to Europe, America and the Orient.

Air Afrique was born on 28th March 1961, the result of the treaty of Yaoundé signed by Mauritania, Senegal, Ivory Coast, Togo, Dahomey, Niger, Chad, Central African Republic, Cameroon, Gabon, and Brazzaville, all French-speaking states. Each took a 6.5% share in the new airline, with the remaining 28.5% held by the Society for the Development of Air Transport in Africa, SODETRAF, which is 75% owned by the French airline UTA. Thus, if any other African nation wished to join, SODETRAF would be obliged to sell a 6.5% block of shares until eventually Air Afrique could become 100% African-owned. Since the foundation in 1961, Cameroon has pulled

out, and Chad and the Central African Republic have withdrawn and re-joined a few months later for nebulous reasons. In 1973, an agreement was drawn up between Air Afrique and Ghana Airways to conduct operations as far as possible in a common multi-national organisation. This extended the possible scope for cooperation to an airline of an English-speaking African state.

Air Afrique is the second largest African airline (after South African Airways) and serves 140 cities in 23 different countries. In 1974, 89% of its 3726 personnel were African. Its fleet includes five long-range DC-8s (one of them an all-cargo version), three short/medium haul Caravelles and a "widebody" DC-10/30. The widebody trijet was the first of its kind to be operated in Africa and incorporates technology far superior to that of many African airports. A second has been ordered for delivery later this year.

In addition to scheduled services within Africa and between Europe and Africa, Air Afrique started a New York-Dakar link in 1971. Frequency of service and traffic density are low on this route, but experience is gradually being accumulated for the day when mass American tourism seeks alternative resorts to high-cost European destinations. In 1973, the carrier flew 15 000 pilgrims to Mecca on their fast-expanding charter services. Freight revenue, accounting for some 25% of total revenue, is mostly generated from full plane loads from Europe to Africa and must subsidize almost empty aircraft returning to Europe.

For all its achievements, the co-operative venture of Air Afrique has had its problems. Its obligation under the treaty to provide an equal service to each country has resulted in a weekly DC-10/30 flight (offering approximately 250 seats) to both Dahomey and Togo, neither of which have the traffic base. This imposes financial strains on the airline which are exacerbated by a problem of overdue accounts from some member states. However, the withdrawal of Cameroon has been weathered without undue disruption and the airline is well placed to play an important part in the future economic development of West Africa.

East African Airways is the common carrier to Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania and contrasts with Air Afrique in serving the basically English-speaking states rather than the French-speaking. It has expanded very rapidly to become the third largest airline registered in continental Africa. In 1973, it employed 4644 people (significant progress having been made in Africanisation) and operated a fleet of three DC-9s and four Vickers Super VC-10s. The total length of its scheduled route network was 113 067 kilometres.

One of the central points in East African's network, Nairobi, poses particular problems for operating economics due to its height above sea level—5278 feet—and high mean temperature. Briefly, at high altitude, a greater fuel consumption is required for take-off due to the reduced density of the air. The problem of high temperatures (not confined to this part of Africa) is again higher fuel consumption, this time due to the reduction in thrust per kilogram of fuel. These larger fuel requirements result in a penalty of either the maximum possible payload or the maximum range for a particular flight. Equally important is the rocketing total fuel bill.

The VC-10, quite apart from its excellent passenger appeal, is well suited to operating under these conditions.

Similarly to Air Afrique, East African is to some extent subject to political pressures, and rumours circulate from time to time on the possible withdrawal of one of the three member countries. In this respect, the highly successful cooperative venture in Scandinavia, SAS, experienced similar instability in its earlier days. A more pressing problem is that of profitability. Losses in the years 1970, 1971, and 1972 resulted in an investigation by a select Committee of the East African Parliament. This was followed by the visit of an Eastern Airlines management team from the USA to advise the company. The advice has so far paid off, and a general retrenchment by postponing expansion plans (New York and Far Eastern services) gave a turnaround in result to Ksh 15 million in 1973. In the meantime Boeing 747 widebody experience is

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being gained through a wet-lease agreement (flying the East African colours but crewed by the staff of the leasor) with Aer Lingus to operate Nairobi-London. In conjunction, reservations at the East African London ticket office are linked direct to the Aer Lingus computer in Dublin.

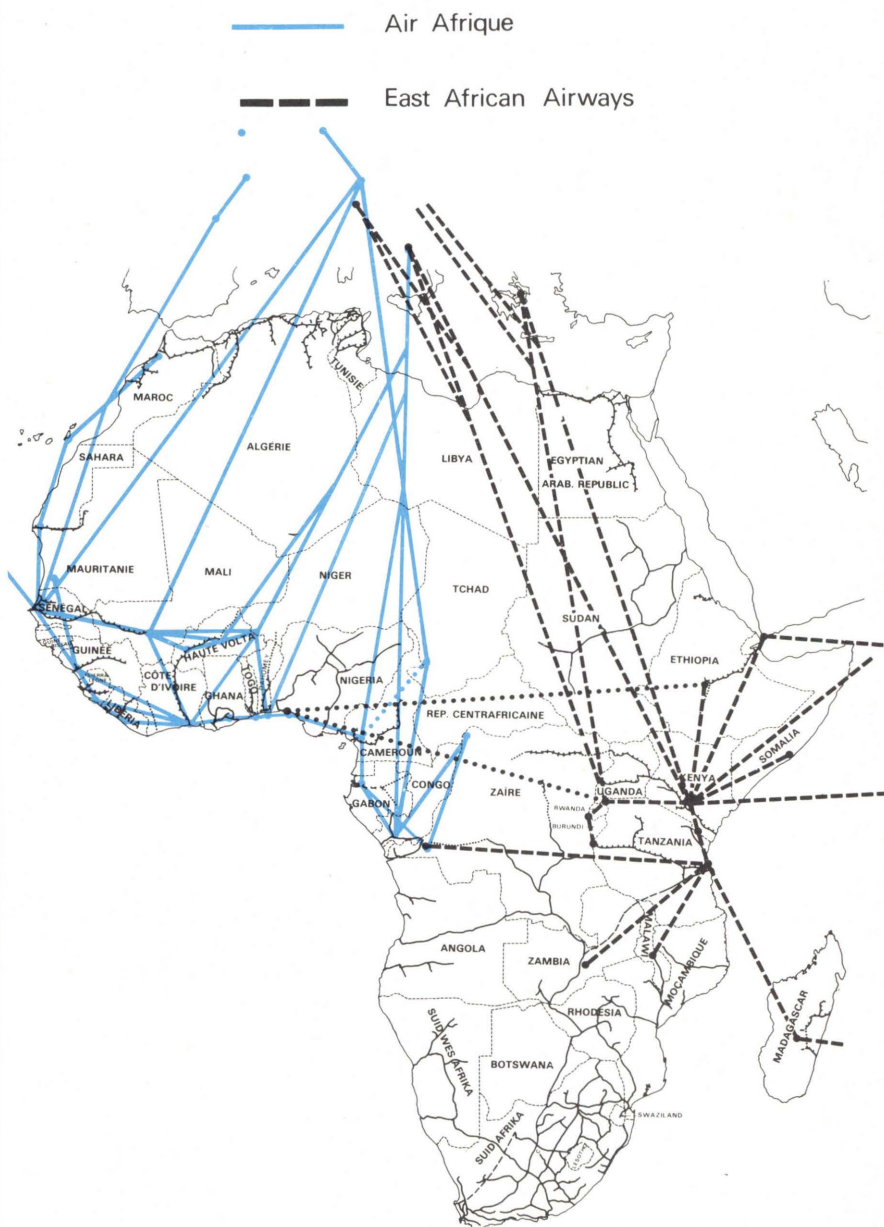
One further example of cooperation in its very early stages is Air Maghreb. The airlines involved are the flag carriers of Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco, and, so far, economies have been achieved through joint activities in the fields of insurance and European station staff.

Finally, mention should be made of a notable achievement by Ethiopian Airways; early in 1973, they became the third airline in the world (the first in Africa) to start scheduled services to Peking.

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION IN AFRICA

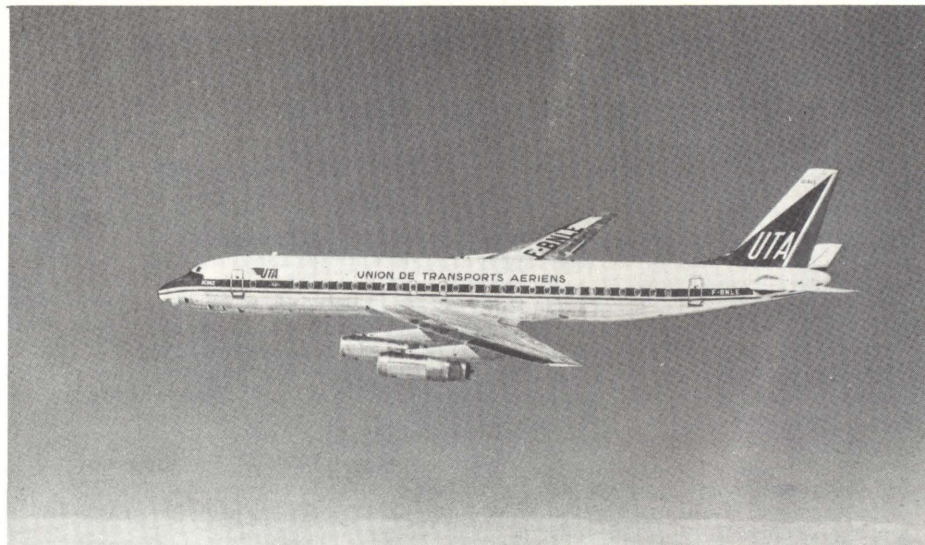
It has been mentioned earlier that some of the equipment operated by African airlines is far superior to what can be found at airports. This is often necessitated by the need to fly through crowded European airspace or to land at relatively sophisticated European or US airports. As air travel develops in Africa, it will become increasingly important to match this level of sophistication on the ground, and indeed World Bank loans are readily available for this kind of infrastructure investment. Responsibility for planning airport construction and en route navigational facilities generally lies with the national aviation authorities of the various countries; however, the highly interdependent nature of air transport implies a significant degree of cooperation, and in Africa this is fostered at the State level by the African Civil Aviation Commission (AFCAC). In addition to setting standards and guidelines on basic infrastructure policy, AFCAC have recently made recommendations on fares, charter flights, optimum development of air services in Africa, personnel training, technical assistance, airline cooperation and state bilateral policy. After only six years of existence, AFCAC has clearly had little time to make its mark on African civil aviation, though this is beginning to change.

THE MAJOR AFRICAN CARRIERS



Although the map only gives an indication of the routes flown by two big international airlines, Africa naturally has important national airlines such as Cameroon Airlines, Air Zaire and Nigerian Airways, whose flights cannot be indicated on this scale.

Super DC-8 of the French carrier UTA, which is one of the main European airlines that have partnered African airlines in management and training schemes.



In the field of inter-airline cooperation, the Association of African Airlines was recently set up to provide a forum for joint activities and the exchange of know-how between 15 airlines. Presently the main areas of concern are management, training and maintenance, and the Association has recently been studying ways of increasing the contribution of charter passenger traffic development to the African economy as a whole.

EURAFRICAN COOPERATION

At the present time many African airlines are in the transition stages from either piston-engined or turbo-prop to turbojet and turbofan aircraft. Very large capital outlays in equipment must be recovered through high utilisation, efficient aircraft and crew scheduling and good marketing. In addition, the modern turbojet airliner requires extremely skilled engineers and technicians. All this adds up to a considerable amount of training in both management, flying and maintenance. European airlines have been natural partners to many African airlines in this process, due to commonality of routes and equipment as well as other historical reasons. Many European airlines experience a marked seasonal pattern in traffic, using their aircraft and personnel to the full in the peak summer holiday months but unable (and unwilling) to lay off staff in the slack winter months. In contrast, the European low months

tend to be extremely active for African carriers, especially those involved in ferrying tourists south from Europe. In this way, they have tended to take aircraft on lease from Europeans in their peak period, which in turn has led them to contract maintenance and training facilities.

Examples of this are the maintenance of Air Afrique's DC-8s and DC-10s by the French carrier UTA, while British Caledonian maintain the VC-10s they used to operate for Air Malawi and have since sold to them. Alitalia gave managerial assistance to Zambia Airways following the sale of a DC-8 (which incidentally was not ideally suited to the Zambian network or route structure). Often the agreements stemmed from or were backed by some financial involvement: the British Caledonian majority holding in Gambia Airways and Sierra Leone Airways has been transferred to the respective States, but responsibility has been retained for financial and commercial management. Air France has recently sold its 18% share to the Algerian Government, but continues to give technical training assistance. As the training progresses, so will the process of Africanisation, such that these types of inter-airline assistance agreements will gradually be replaced by the strictly commercial ones. Thus, on routes between Europe and Africa, UTA operate in pool with Nigeria, Ghana and Mali Airways with joint selling agreements. East African Airways have the same arrangement with Alitalia and Lufthansa. In this

way, duplication of capacity and marketing resources is kept to a minimum on these long-haul, relatively low traffic routes. ■

P. MORREL

EEC development policy

(from page 13)

can hold a constructive dialogue with the unions. On several occasions already we have organised meetings between European and ACP trade unions under the Commission aegis. Every one of these meetings has made it clear that constructive dialogue is really possible.

"This is one of the original features of our current approach and it holds out great hope for tomorrow.

"Naturally enough, the workers' representatives raise problems such as compensation, conversion, indemnities, and they are right to do so. Our policy of development cooperation must be bold and dynamic, but it must not be carried through at the expense of the workers. We have got to take their interests into account and this is well expressed in the resolution we are considering.

"This has defined the Grand Design. The policy is a very wide one indeed, and additional to the policies of the individual governments. It consolidates the policies of each and every government, just as, in my belief, the European policy in all fields embodies the independence, the sovereignty, the autonomy of individual government policies. It is a Grand Design, useful to the Third World, and useful also to ourselves. It is one to which, I believe, we can rally our people and, more especially, our youth." ■

The unit of account

The Council of Finance Ministers of the European Community recently adopted (1) a new "unit of account", of the shopping-basket type, no longer based on currency parities but on the day-to-day fluctuations in their market value. By this system the unit of account will really be the average of the component items.

Since fluctuations in the value of a small currency cannot have as much influence as those of a big one, each of the component moneys has to be weighted in accordance with economic criteria such as the production capacity and the trading capacity of the countries whose currencies are used. What emerges, therefore, is a "shopping basket" of currencies which constitutes a unit of account, the value of which is equal to the sum of a fixed amount of each of the currencies concerned.

In current monetary conditions the shopping basket has substantial advantages:

— its value is calculated each day from the exchange rates of the constituent currencies, which is of primary importance in the present conditions of general flotation;

— in the same context, with no external reference available for measuring changes in the value of each currency, this unit of account divides between all the individual currencies the burden of adjustment resulting from changes in the value of a single currency.

Why have a European unit of account?

There were three principal reasons for this:

— If the choice had fallen instead upon the Special Drawing Rights basket, the effect would have been for Community requirements to be expressed in a unit of account depending only to the extent of 45% on fluctuations in the Community currencies and 55% on the average fluctuations in external currencies, among which the "weight" of the dollar is 33%. It hardly makes sense that relationships inside the Community should have to be changed solely because of a difference in the value of the yen or the dollar; but if

the SDR had been used, this would have been the position.

— The EEC, as an economic entity, is regarded as big enough and homogeneous enough for the currencies of the countries constituting it to be regarded as an independent "basket", reflecting changes in the monetary position in this area. It is quite normal that the Community should maintain control of the unit of account it uses, whereas the SDR can be changed against the Community's will.

— It is to be hoped that the progressive use of this unit of account will be one way of clearing the way towards economic and monetary union.

How is the Community "shopping basket" made up?

The following are the main particulars of the unit of account to be created:

Definition — It consists of a "typical" or "standard" basket, the value of which is equal to the sum of the following amounts in the currencies of the member countries:

DM	0.828	BF	3.66
£ Sterling	0.0885	Flux	0.14
FF	1.15	DKr	0.217
Lit	109	£ Irish	0.00759
HFI	0.286		

Initial value — The initial value of the unit of account thus defined was fixed, as of June 28, 1974, at \$US 1.20635, this being the day of the institution of the SDR shopping basket with a value also equal to \$US 1.20635.

The choice of this date was intended to take account of the need for a relationship between the value of this new unit and not only the SDR, but also the former Community unit of account. The latter was defined by a weight of gold of 0.88867 grammes fine, the countervalue of which was also \$US 1.20635.

This identity of value with the SDR on June 28, at \$US 1.20635, can be reexpressed by a similar procedure, and still holds good in all the Community currencies. In Belgian Francs, for example, the value on the date in question, both of the SDR basket and of the European basket was BF 45.8564.

Percentages — The weighting coefficients used for determining the amounts in national currency shown above were fixed in close consultation with the Monetary Committee. They were as follows:

DM	27.3	BF	7.9
£ Sterling	17.5	Flux	0.3
FF	19.5	DKr	3.0
Lit	14.0	£ Irish	1.5
HFI	9.0		

These are percentages (i.e. they add up to 100.0) and they were calculated by reference to the five-year average (1969–73) of the GNP of each country and of its intra-european trade, but subject to a correction to allow for its share in short-term monetary support.

Deciding the rate of exchange — The rate of exchange or conversion between the "basket" and any individual currency is obtained by adding up the counter-value of each of the nine constituent currencies in terms of the currency concerned.

It would have been possible to value the "basket" by reference to the exchange rates of external currencies in each of the national markets, but this would have been more complicated and would have taken a good deal longer.

For this reason the decision was that the rate of exchange used for the Community currencies should be that prevailing in the Brussels market. The shopping basket is therefore calculated in terms of the Belgian Franc, and from this in terms of the other currencies. A more exact statement is, that the rates used are those in the Brussels market; and though the unit has been described as a "basket of Belgian Francs" this results only from the choice of market and does not give the Belgian Franc any particular status in relation to the other Community currencies. It was chosen only as a way of simplifying the operation.

Calculating the value of the unit of account

The value of the unit of account in the individual currencies is calculated every working day by the Commission. The calculation is made both directly for the Belgian Franc on the basis of the Brussels market rates, and indirectly for the other EEC countries, from the rates for the Belgian Franc in their own markets and in their own currencies.

If these cross-rates were perfectly consistent the value of the "basket" in, for example, pounds or deutschmarks would be exactly the same irrespective of whether the calculation had been made by the method described, by taking each element by its pound or its deutschmark value, or by taking the value in any other currency or any other market.

The value of the "basket" is also calculated in dollars, and in terms of all other important currencies, using the Brussels rates as the basis or, failing a Brussels rate, from those ruling in London or Frankfurt (in that order of choice). The results of the calculations are available in mid-afternoon and transmitted by agency telex before the end of the day. ■

(1) The United Kingdom agreed with the reservation the agreement would first have to go through a parliamentary procedure.

On April 21, 1975 the Council finalised in the official languages of the Community, the text of a decision settling the definition and conversion of the European unit of account used to express the amount of the aid mentioned in Article 42 of the Lomé (ACP-EEC) Convention.

Improved technical cooperation under the Lomé Convention

The Lomé Convention provides, as did the earlier conventions, for the financing of technical cooperation schemes (under Article 46; the content of and arrangements for this form of cooperation come under Article 6 and Articles 24–28 of Protocol no. 2 on the application of financial and technical cooperation).

The content, whether the technical cooperation be of a general character or linked with specific investments, is identical with the definition in Protocol 6 of the Yaoundé II Convention. In this, therefore, there is no innovation.

The novelty is the negotiated text laying down the principles for managing and operating this cooperation, which have hitherto been virtually dictated by the Commission, and the establishment of procedures first, for national authorities to have a more effective share in managing the technical cooperation, and second, for enabling nationals of the countries concerned to take part in operating the schemes.

The negotiations between the Community and the ACP countries did not raise any serious difficulties on this point. This was because the Commission was aware of the centralising effect of the procedures then being used, and was able to convince the EEC countries of the need for decentralising, on lines acceptable to the ACP countries as to both the basic procedure and to the more genuine integration of their nationals into the task of carrying out the schemes.

This article consists of a summary, first of the procedural changes and second of the changes regarding the participation of nationals in the staffing.

PROCEDURAL CHANGES

The Community proposed a number of reforms which emerged as diversifications in the contract procedure, giving wider scope to the real choice now open to the ACP countries and transferring to them responsibility for negotiating and drawing up the contracts.

Diversifying the contract procedure

Under the current procedure all technical cooperation contracts are arranged by mutual agreement. The justification for this lies in the desire of the Commission to secure as satisfactory a balance as possible between firms in the different member countries. This balance is indeed still desired, but will have become less easy to obtain. Under Article 24 of Protocol no. 2, though the mutual agreement procedure will still be the rule, an option is given to the ACP countries to call for competitive tenders, notably for important studies that are complicated or technically difficult, and where technical, economic or financial reasons justify recourse to this procedure.

In the cases of competitive tendering:

— the call for tenders shall always be made to a limited list consisting only of candidates whom the Commission and the ACP country concerned decide to consult;

— the methods of calling for tenders may vary from case to case. They may comprise:

- consultation solely on the conception and execution of the survey, excluding any financial question, leaving the price for subsequent negotiation and agreement;
- or, consultation covering both the execution and conception of the survey and the price;
- or, consultation relating exclusively to the price, the work to be undertaken having been defined in the particulars issued for the tender.

Widening the choice open to ACP countries

At present the Commission maintains a card index of survey offices (“bureaux d’études”) interested in taking part in operations financed by the EDF. It puts forward only one name for each operation. This is submitted for approval by the beneficiary country, which is thus left without any real freedom of choice.

This freedom is considerably enlarged by Article 25 of Protocol no. 2:

— As in the past, the Commission will still keep a register of survey offices eligible to take part in technical cooperation schemes, though recording on this register does not constitute approval.

The Commission view was, that this registration work should remain within its own exclusive competence. On the initiative of the ACP countries, however, Article 25, section 3 introduces the principle of cooperation by the ACP country concerned whenever it is a question of putting on the register a survey office in

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its own country. In these cases not only the qualifications, experience and specialised capacities of the office will be brought into account, but also its national character on the basis of criteria laid down in Article 20 of Protocol no. 2.

— For each operation a restricted list of eligible candidates is to be drawn up and the award is to be made to one of the names on this list.

According to the Community proposals, the compilation of this list was within the exclusive competence of the Commission. The ACP countries made a counter proposition, by which the ACP country concerned would be associated in compiling the eligibility list. They accepted a compromise proposal because they recognised that under the mutual agreement procedure, the function of proposal must be separated from the function of choice, since the compilation of the list would otherwise be pointless. The compromise was as follows:

- in the mutual agreement procedure, the eligibility list shall be drawn up by the Commission, but the ACP country will have free choice among the listed candidates in placing the contract;
- when competitive tendering is used, the eligibility list is to be drawn up in close cooperation between the Commission and the ACP country concerned and the contract is awarded to the listed candidate submitting the offer deemed by the Commission and the ACP country to be economically the most advantageous.

Transfer of responsibility for drawing up and negotiating contracts

At present the drawing up and negotiating of contracts is essentially the work of the Commission, even though the actual conclusion of the contract is a matter for the associated countries.

Such conditions were bound to produce difficulties and uncertainties. The associated country, the survey office and the Commission form a triangle in which responsibility has a way of being diluted. The survey office obtains a contract

signed by the government of an associated country with which it has had practically no contact during the phase of preparation. Article 26 of Protocol 2 seeks to remedy this, transferring the responsibility for drawing up and negotiating contracts to the ACP country to which, as at present, the final right of concluding them belongs. Hitherto the centralisation of contract drafting in the Commission departments had produced **de facto** a certain uniformity in the terms of contracts financed by the Community and in the fees for the contractors. With the very wide decentralisation, leaving to the ACP governments the consideration and determination of the contract particulars, it was important to find some safeguard for these uniformities.

For this reason, Article 26 of Protocol no. 2, in transferring to the ACP States the negotiation and determination of the particular clauses, stipulates for them a definite framework. This comprises:

— the first place, common rules to be laid down by the Council of Ministers under Article 22 of Protocol no. 2;

— secondly, a requirement that the general conditions of payment shall be established by the Commission and submitted for the agreement of the ACP countries in virtue of the joint declaration by the EEC and the ACP countries contained in annexe XI to the convention.

• Since the adoption of the common rules will come later than the entry into force of the Lomé Convention, it was necessary to provide interim arrangements. For this purpose annexe XI also provides that, pending the application of the general rules, contracts shall be governed by the general clauses currently used in contracts financed by the EDF, with an option for the ACP countries which are not parties to the Yaoundé Conventions to apply their national legislation or established practices regarding international contracts.

• The Commission is to establish the general conditions of payment and submit them for the agreement of the ACP countries so that scales guaranteeing uniform fees and equality of treatment for different survey offices can be adopted practically without delay after the entry into force of the Lomé Convention.

— Without there being any desire to go back on the decentralisation measures provided for the benefit of ACP countries, it was also important for the Commission to be able to supervise the nature of the technical cooperation schemes financed by the Community and the arrangements for their execution.

For this reason, Article 26 of Protocol no. 2 specifies that the special clauses of the contracts shall be prepared and negotiated by the ACP countries in participation and agreement with the Delegate of the Commission. The text of Article 26 is thus also a decentralisation upon the Delegate of responsibilities previously exercised by the Commission.

The Commission may, if necessary, send out a special mission to take part directly in a negotiation; but, subject to this, the part played by the Delegate in the drafting of a contract is now to be an active and essential one.

His role will not be limited to ensuring that the contracts conform to the general conditions and scales which have been adopted. It will also involve checking very carefully that the services to be rendered cover the actual requirements for the study and preparation of projected investments, without any serious gaps but avoiding undue perfectionism; or that, in cases of the operation or supervision of a project, they correspond to technical assistance requirements as defined, and allow both for the strengths and the weaknesses of the administration concerned.

MEASURES FOR BETTER NATIONAL STAFF PARTICIPATION

The original purpose in financing technical cooperation schemes was the need to make good the insufficiency of national staff prevailing just after independence in the associated countries. It is therefore natural that its main instrument has been recourse to European survey offices.

The associated countries, however, have gradually increased the number and qualifications of their staff workers, and the Commission has noted on various

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occasions that they are often quite capable of making a good job of tasks normally reserved for European offices. This is not very often the case, nonetheless, and the associated countries, though they are not anxious to give up the intervention of these offices altogether, would like to play a more direct part in preparing and carrying out investments whenever they have staff for the purpose.

It was for the Community to put forward proposals for meeting this very legitimate aspiration and adapt the technical cooperation procedures to the development of the capacity of the beneficiary countries to solve more of their problems for themselves.

This is the object of Articles 27 and 28 of Protocol no. 2. Article 27 deals with survey offices and independent consultants in the ACP countries and Article 28 deals with the national administrations themselves.

Offices and experts in the ACP countries

The technical cooperation provisions under this heading differ from those covering supply and works contracts in that they do not modify the fair competition rules by preferences in favour of ACP nationals or residents. Nevertheless, whenever an office or expert from one of the ACP countries figures on an eligibility list by virtue of qualifications, experience, competence or special aptitudes for a given job, it is clear that:

- under the mutual agreement procedure, the choice of the beneficiary country will be weighted in his favour, particularly if he is a national of the country concerned;
- under the competitive tendering procedure, when the offers made by a European and an ACP candidate are regarded as equivalent, the beneficiary ACP country will be inclined, quite legitimately, to press the Commission that the contract be awarded to the ACP candidate.

It must not be overlooked, however, that the ACP offices and experts are fewer, less experienced and less well-equipped than their European colleagues, so that the opportunities for competing with them may not be very many and they will have less chances of participation than their European counterparts.

This is taken into account in Article 27 in a manner quite different from making participation open on equal terms to EEC and ACP consultants and experts, and the possibility of appointing ACP nationals which results from this. The Commission in fact is given the permanent task of:

- encouraging cooperation between consultants and experts of EEC and ACP countries, so that the latter, even when it comes to operations they could not undertake single-handed, will be able to participate in carrying out work of this kind and thus increase their experience and have opportunities for training qualified staff.

This cooperation may, for example, consist of temporary partnerships and sub-contracting.

- for purposes of specific schemes, encouraging the temporary use of national experts in teams of consultants from EEC countries, thus giving them additional experience and "on-the-job" training.

The national administrations

Since the Community began financing technical cooperation schemes, technical staff and experts from the associated countries, many of them products of Community training schemes, have found jobs in their national administrations. They have not, however, been able to take sufficient part in the surveys or execution of projects, because they had not the financial resources and the material needed for using their qualifications on any specific job, while the Commission,

in virtue of the limitations of the EDF rules, was not in a position to bridge the gap.

It is not surprising that the national administrations feel somewhat bitter at being forced to give up part of their own prerogatives to foreign consultants or experts, when they themselves have competent personnel on their own staff but lack the money and material.

This gives particular importance to the provisions of Article 28 of Protocol no. 2. Subject to certain conditions, the associated countries can now be given financial support from the Community for the execution of the work by their own Public Works department.

The provision is that when an ACP country has, within its administrative and technical staff, national personnel making up a substantial part of the work force necessary for the execution of a technical cooperation project, the Community may contribute financially either by providing the material means lacking or by supplying the required additional staff by making available experts from another country.

The participation of the Community in the financing of operations by a public works department is not intended to cover the current operational expenditure, but is to be concerned only with supplementary measures of a temporary character and strictly confined to the requirements of the project in question.

* * *

The provisions of Protocol no. 22 on technical cooperation, enable all the technical and technological resources of all the signatory countries to be brought into play, but no longer presuppose recourse exclusively to experts and consultancies in EEC countries. They are thus fully in line with the intention of giving greater effective responsibility to the national authorities in preparing, managing and supervising the investments in their countries financed by the Community. ■

By car across the Sahara

Even flying over the Sahara is a dizzying experience, so vast is the ocean of sand. Getting over it by car is not a new achievement, but it is nevertheless a stalwart one. It has just been tackled by a group of officials from the EEC Commission, led by Dieter Rogalla, Head of the "Statutes" division. The team included Frau Gerhild Rogalla, young Frank Rogalla (aged 12), Frau Bauer, a child doctor from Cologne, and Herr Martin, a lawyer from Munich.

This exploit took the party from Morocco across Mali and Niger. The following are extracts from the story.

Friday, March 24 Forty km south of Beni Abbes

Panic all round at nightfall last night. The medicine bag has vanished, and with it all our malaria preventives. It was on the roof, firmly strapped and fastened in place, just in front of a red bag which is still there. Odd that we couldn't find it, but anyhow, that's over. We had a second mishap—looking for the camp near Tamtert, 5 km east of the track, we got slightly stuck and had to get out and push. We had very much hoped to find somewhere sheltered from the wind, because ever since Béchar (capital of the big department of Saoura) a strong south-wester has been blowing all the time and burying the track in sand. Not a ray of sunshine all afternoon.

Monday, March 27 Tessalit (Mali)

Tazoult is an abandoned village. In the foreground there is a cemetery and the landscape is fascinating. We came up to the village and went through a little gateway into the cemetery, and here there are two dangerous little wells. Frau Bauer came up with her camera and Herr Martin was with her, while the three of us were on our way back to the car. Suddenly Herr Martin shouts for help: Frau Bauer has fallen into one of the pits to a depth of some 15 or 20 m. We can hear her voice down below. The pit has jagged stones and we know she must be badly hurt. What can we do? Our tow rope is much too short so we try fastening our straps end to end. Then quite suddenly we see on the horizon a huge Berliet truck approaching us from the south. It is carrying components for lamp posts, has the registration number A 206 FZ, and the driver is called Abdelkader Benabid and his co-driver Mohammed Mazouni, both of them from Oran. They come up to

us and in the truck is an enormous rope. We tie it in a running loop and let it down into the well shaft, and Benabid goes down to help our injured colleague to safety. We haul her up slowly and find her in a sorry state, still intact however, and at first sight with no bones broken. We have been lucky.

Several military vehicles stop nearby and tell us we should find an infirmary at Zauoiet-Kounta, which is quite close. One of the men gives us his tarboosh, for the bandages were in the bag we had lost. We go back 6 km to the infirmary and there Gerhild and the medical orderly deal with her many injuries.

The events at Tabankort

It all began on March 29 when we got to Amefis at 6.30 exactly, trying to get quickly to Gao. We covered the first 40 km with comparatively little sand on ground which was mostly quite hard, so that we could move quickly. At about 7.10 we pass Tabankort, leaving the village on our right and coming to a number of important springs with hundreds of sheep, camels and goats and a Land Rover from the Mali army. We want to ask the way, but the Land Rover does not stop, so we take the track by which it came, which leads south-west. This seems likely to be right because the track leading to Bourem, which we were anxious to avoid, is shown as going due west. The vegetation was much as usual, but there are two things we notice. There is no signposting and there is a lot of sand. This is surprising because up to the present the track has been well signposted. Despite it being in the early hours of the morning, the sand is getting dryer and deeper, and we come to the conclusion we ought to go back and find out whether we are on the right road.

By now we are some 30 km south of

Tabankort. Once again we clean out our air filter, which was completely blocked with sand, and back we go. The sand banks become longer and longer. After 10 km we clean out our air filters again and put in fresh sparking plugs, but despite all our efforts we find we cannot start. The engine is utterly mute, and we reckon the trouble must lie in the carburettor, which it would be madness to take apart and clean in the midst of a sandy desert. The pistons, too, we think, must have got dirty. The car must be taken back to Amefis, or to the military post which so luckily gave us water the evening before. There we should certainly find oil and petrol and some form of first aid for the engine.

At about 9.45 Herr Martin and I hasten to set out, carrying three gourds of tea. We set our course eastwards towards the village, and there should, it seems to us, be about 2 hours walk ahead.

The sun is very hot. After a good hour, while we are still fresh, we come upon the nomads' spring which, we were to find later, is 18 km south of Tabankort. We take a leaf from the book of the Prussian guard and count the paces we take per minute. "The important thing now is that we hold out", we think. Meantime I find the sole has come off my right shoe, and though there is an inside sole, the sand accumulating inside is burning hot. The countryside seems less varied than we remembered when we drove through it. There are few trees, nothing but the track, straight and featureless, and not a vehicle on it.

At around 12.15 we wonder for the first time if it might not be a good plan to sit down for a bit. We decide, however, that though we badly need the rest, it would be an occasion for drinking some of our tea and the best plan would be to keep on walking. A little later Herr Martin points out a magnificent green tree just beside the road, which proves a pressing invitation to relax. It is about 12.45 when we stop for a moment and talk things over. Martin thinks the road is more monotonous than it should be; as he remembers, it was much more varied. I get him to turn and look eastwards, in the opposite direction. The village must surely appear soon, but when, we cannot tell. Herr Martin's compass makes it clear that we have not changed direction and that we are indeed going where we want to go. We go on a little longer, and once

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more a tree invites us to take a little rest. This time our doubts are growing. Are we really on the right road? Ought we not to go back to the nomads' spring and make sure we don't run out of water? The village cannot be as far as this. Is the track leading us there, or is it leading us astray? What ought we to do? I reckon we should go on, Herr Martin thinks it would be better to go back to the spring. It is now 1.15 in the afternoon, and I propose we should follow the road onward for at least another half-hour. Then as I turn, I see a targui sitting high on the solitary hump of his dromedary. My mouth is dry as dust and my limbs have no strength in them.

camels' milk which is really delectable. Slowly our spirits begin to rise, though there at the spring at 3 o'clock in the afternoon the heat is still unbearable. The spring is 2 km from the houses and that is where we've got to go.

About 5 o'clock we come to the house of the village Headman, Mr. Kherazi. Here there is water and refreshment and forty winks among a host of flies on a mat in his own chamber. He has a calf slaughtered and makes us welcome, offering us roast pieces of heart, lungs and other tender morsels. He is an alert Algerian about 50 years of age, café-au-lait in colour, who is not only the village Chief but also the village merchant.

we should have been wondering whether we were on the right road.

On Thursday morning, March 30, we have breakfast with Mr. Kherrazi. It consists of tea and meat, and we thereupon decide to wait till 5 o'clock that afternoon before making our way back to the car by camel and talking out the situation with our womenfolk. Suddenly out of the silence comes the noise of an engine, and a truck is coming towards us. Mr. Kherrazi shoots out like a bullet into the courtyard waving his arms. The noise of the engine comes nearer and at last the truck is outside the door. It is loaded with tobacco.

Now is the time for negotiations with the man in charge. Eventually we leave with him bound for the car, and the village Headman, with his mat and a boy, also join the party. The distance seems absurdly short, sitting beside the Algerian chief who is in charge of the convoy, and is trying out a new driver for the first time. Hot indeed it is, and I can hardly say I am feeling in my best form; but we are anxious to go on. When we get to the car we bring out the necessary items from the bags and cases and load them into the truck bound for Gao. Who knows when it will get there? Who knows whether we have taken all that is really necessary?

Half-way there we meet a truck full of sheep, bound for Algeria from Mali. This truck has without any doubt been towing our Volkswagen into Tabankort that very day, but we, tired as we are, roll on in our truck bound for Gao. One of the Algerians, wearing a white tarboosh, is able to speak a little French. At every halt he washes with a little water; he talks a great deal; in the evening he is specially interested in the Moon. Why is the Moon invisible for part of every month? Have the Americans really been on the Moon, and have we seen them? How is this possible if the Moon disappears altogether during part of the month? Where do the Russians stand about it all? Gerhild bravely comes to my aid in dealing with these many questions, for I am pretty well at the end of my tether.

He knows the track like the back of his hand. He himself and his father have a truck of their own, a Mercedes, which is now in Gao. On Saturday he wants to go back north with a cargo of sheep. This, too, is the day we take a siesta from noon till 4 in the afternoon. ■ D. ROGALLA



Crossing the Sahara; the further south, the tougher the going.

The Targui shows us the way

He stops by us and shows us where Tabankort lies. It is now only a matter of a couple of hours, and our distance from the village is 5 or 6 km. The targui cools our thirst from his water skin and we still have some of our tea. The heat is appalling. Still more agonising is the journey sitting behind his saddle, and for some kilometers I dismount and continue on foot. Finally we pass through the edge of forest land which extends in front of the village, and come to a big nomads' spring, where a whole crowd of camels, goats and sheep are drinking. Our targui is anxious that we reward his services, so Herr Martin gives him his watch, which he was later to sell in the village for 3 750 Mali Francs. There are others who give us water, and excellent

Tabankort has a population of not more than 300 souls.

Pause for reflexion

Perhaps the worst of the difficulties we did not overcome lies in the rhythm of travel, the alternation between great activity and repose; or perhaps it lay in our incapacity on the technical side to get the sand out of the engine. Now that we travel in trucks, buses and trains, there is time for us to think over quite a number of things. Perhaps after all, the desert is not the ideal place for people of our age who like comfort and cannot stand too strong a sun. Our walk to Tabankort was very hastily organised. Such a walk would have called for less effort in the dusk, though this does not mean it would have succeeded better because in any case

DAHOMEY

E.D.F. activities in figures (up to early 1975)

RURAL DEVELOPMENT

'000 CFA francs (1)

— 14 000 hectares of selected palm plantation and formation of 13 cooperatives	4 089 929
— Diversification of COOPAHA	225 000
— 2 palm oil plants (20 t/h)	1 607 776
— 12 400 ha of cashew nut	790 272
— 1 shelling plant (1 250 t/p.a.)	119 592
— Agricultural development at Atacora	299 750
— Agricultural development in the Boukombé region	260 240
— Stock-raising development	609 185
— The Kénaf survey	13 420
— Production aids (cotton, oil-palm, coffee, groundnuts)	908 383
Section total	8 923 547

WATER WORKS

— Water conduit to town of Ouidah	49 391
— Water conduit to town of Cotonou	918 461
— Rain-water treatment improvements at Cotonou	666 189
— Creation of water points (160 wells, 13 boreings)	490 414
— Construction of 345 wells	589 280
Section total	2 713 735

ROAD WORKS

— Cotonou–Porto-Novo (31 km)	200 933
— Come–Lokossa–Dogbo (65.1 km)	587 022
— Hillacondji–Cotonou (97.5 km)	1 108 813
— Porto-Novo–Pobé (68.5 km)	1 302 862
— Rural tracks—Mono (75 km)	38 642
— Road improvements Bohicon–Porga (1st section)	235 000
Section total	3 473 272

PORT DEVELOPMENTS

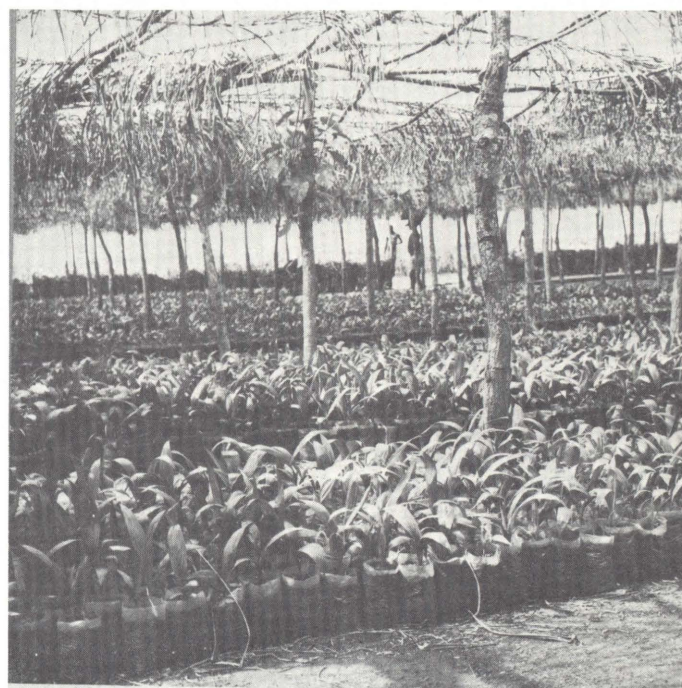
— Port of Cotonou superstructure (handling-space, roadways, water conduit, shed foundations)	473 168
— Fishing port of Cotonou (173 m. of quay; 2 refrigeration chambers; 1 deep-freeze tunnel; 1 ice machine; 1 technical building; 1 fish warehouse, 1 semi-wholesale sales shed)	358 993
Section total	832 161

(1) 1 F-CFA = 0.02 FF = 0.002 £.



(above) Atacora development project—sowing groundnuts.

(below) Palm saplings at Mono.



The material used under this heading is taken principally from the reports of E.D.F. delegates in the A.A.S.M.



Cashew plantation.



*The Porto Novo-Pobé road before...
... and after EDF intervention.*



HEALTH AND SANITATION

'000 CFA francs

— Hospital group at Savalou	20 899
— Hospital group at Lokossa	9 807
— Public health equipment	19 409
— Secondary hospital at Parakou	127 816
— Hospital at Abomey	688 879

Section total 866 810

SCHOOL BUILDINGS

— Nursing school at Cotonou	135 231
— Mixed Secondary school at Parakou	372 399
— Secondary classes for girls at Abomey	122 167
— Secondary classes for girls at Cotonou	95 000
— School project—works administration	26 014
— 20 primary schools	79 830
— Nutrition and horticultural centre at Ouando	267 434
— Construction of CERFER (Regional Study and Training Centre for Road Upkeep) at Lomé (inter-State project)	48 800

Section total 1 146 875

MINE PROSPECTING

— Limestone prospecting at Arlan and systematic mine prospecting in Dahomey	168 391
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Section total 168 391

GENERAL SURVEYS

— Dahomey economic survey and development plan	544
— Survey for agricultural school at Godomey	2 447
— Survey for SONADER organisation	8 227
— Tourist development survey	3 123
— Survey of opportunities for setting up industries to export to A.A.S.M. countries	—
— Study of conditions for setting up industrial undertakings	—
— List of industrial studies and surveys	—
— Organisation of Fairs and Exhibitions	—

Section total 14 341

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

— Bursaries and training courses (average 188 bursaries and home instruction courses)	646 383
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Section total 646 383

TOTAL EDF AID 18 785 515

FOOD AID

— 9 000 tons wheat	—
— 2 000 tons rice	—

EMERGENCY AID FUND

— (Cheysson Fund)	220 000
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Interventions by the 3rd EDF

(up to early 1975)

CIVIL ENGINEERING

Water conduit to City of Cotonou

Convention no. 1026 signed 20 July 1971.

Amount committed: F-CFA 902 million. A supplement has been asked for, and this will bring the total cost of the project to about F-CFA 1 027 million.

Purpose: To equip the city of Cotonou with a drinking-water system to cover requirements till 1985.

The work in progress will have necessitated:

- laying of 142 km of conduit (diameter 60–600)
- construction of four reservoirs of 1 600 cu. m.
- pumping station
- water treatment station.

The project is accompanied with technical assistance for supervision of the works.

Palm oil mill at Agonvy

Convention no. 1051 signed February 22, 1972.

Amount committed: F-CFA 902 million by loan from the European Investment Bank.

Purpose: Construction of a palm-oil mill with a total capacity of 20 tons of fruit per hour.

The oil plant will deal with the fruit from two plantations:

- 7 000 ha financed from EDF 2
- 3 000 ha financed from EDF 3

expected annual production: 10 000 tons of palm oil in 1976 and 2 400 tons of palm kernels.

The extension of the oil mill is scheduled for 1977.

The oil mill came into production in December 1974.

Porto-Novo-Pobé road

Convention no. 1107 of 21 February 1973.

Amount committed: F-CFA 1260 million. If the full programme is to be carried out, a supplement of F-CFA 125 million will be needed.

Purpose: Improvement and surfacing of Porto-Novo-Pobé road, central artery of the Department of Ouémé.

About 70 km of the road have been completed.

Completion of the work in progress is scheduled for May 1975.

Purpose: Construction and equipment on two levels to extend the existing institute, which had itself been financed from the 1st EDF.

This extension has become indispensable since the institute took over the training of midwives and the study course was raised to three years to permit of the issue of a diploma equivalent to the French diploma.

Completion of the works in progress is scheduled for May 1975. The equipment may have been fully installed by the end of 1975.

Superstructure extensions in the fishing port of Cotonou

Convention no. 1132 of 27 June 1973. Amount committed: F-CFA 150 million.

Purpose: Construction and equipment of a number of buildings and other works for fish storage, conditioning and sale, consisting mainly of:



The Agonvy oil palm scheme.

It will be noted that the increase of about 40% in prices of petroleum products has a considerable effect on this project.

Accompanying the project is technical assistance for supervision of the works.

Extension of the National Medico-social Institute

Convention no. 1138 of 27 June 1973. Amount committed: F-CFA 97 million.

— a cold chamber at -25°C (190 sq. m.);

— a cold chamber between 0 and -25°C (87 sq. m.);

— a deep-freeze tunnel and an ice machine;

— a technical building;

— extension of the fish warehouse (770 sq. m.) and a semi-wholesale sales shed (775 sq. m.).

The work in progress will be completed at the beginning of March 1975.

AGRICULTURE

Horticultural and nutrition training centre at Ouando

Convention no. 1022 of 20 July 1971.
Amount committed: F-CFA 267.5 million.

Purpose: Training of supervision and stimulation officers in horticulture and nutrition and personnel to replace foreign experts after completion of the project.

The plan is to provide instruction in matters of nutrition, hygiene and family economy to about 400 mothers of families. Apart from financing the supervisory personnel, the project provides for the purchase of various types of material and the setting up of certain buildings.

10 000 hectares of cashew nut trees

Convention no. 1082 of 7 August 1972.

Amount committed: F-CFA 780 million.

Purpose: Execution of a four-year agro-industrial programme for planting nut trees and processing the nuts. The plantation area is 10 000 ha, including 3 500 ha of village plantations; and an additional 1 800 ha of existing plantations are being taken over.

A mill for processing the nuts has also been erected. It came into production in December 1974 and has a nominal capacity of 750 tons p.a.

Agro-industrial improvement scheme in Department of Ouémé

Convention no. 1081 of 7 August 1972.
Amount committed: F-CFA 1170 million.

Purpose: The Ouémé scheme is part of the national oil-palm development programme and aims to lay out 3 000 ha of selected palm in the form of cooperative blocs shared by three cooperatives. The project includes a number of connected measures calculated to secure a smooth development in the agro-industrial complex at Agonvy, with the formation of villages, a network of paths and tracks, cereal storage facilities and 2 000 ha of area for annual crops.

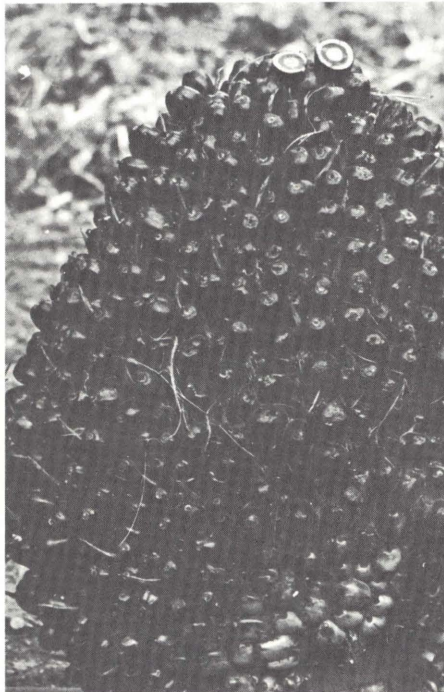
The project is additional to the programme financed from the 2nd EDF (Project 211.007.15—7 000 ha at Agonvy).

SURVEYS AND TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

— Technical study for the construction and operation of the Agonvy oil mill.
Survey completed — Cost: F-CFA 1.03 million.

— Outline organisation and accountancy plan for the National Rural Development Company (SODADER).

Survey completed — Cost F-CFA 8.33 million.



Oil palm fruit.

— Compilation of explanations and action plans for investment project to develop stock-raising in Northern Dahomey.

Study completed — Cost F-CFA 37.49 million.

— Study of possibility of developing cultivation of long textile fibres and if necessary, laying down an execution programme.

Study completed — Cost F-CFA 8.33 million.

— Technical assistance to the oil mill at Mono, and financing availability to SONADER of:

— an engineer for missions of short duration;

— a technical engineer to make two visits of 3 months each

Amount committed: F-CFA 16.66 million.

— Expert mission to compile tourist development project for Dahomey.

The survey included: camping site at Porga, museum at Abomey, a promotion centre for crafts and the tourist trade.

Survey completed—final cost: F-CFA 3.3 million.

— Survey for extension of Cotonou fishing port.

The survey falls into three parts;

— Preliminary study to identify conditions of development of the future fishing port at Cotonou (completed);

— Working out general projects for the fishing port (in progress);

— Laying down technical project for port installations to be provided, with particulars for the call for tenders.

Amount committed: F-CFA 30.55 million.

— Survey for hospital at Abomey. This is concerned with building a hospital of about 200 beds at Abomey. It includes programming for the pre-project and execution project and the drafting of particulars for the call for tenders and architectural supervision for the building of a hospital.

Amount committed: F-CFA 38.88 million.

MISCELLANEOUS

— Continuing bursary award programme.

Amount committed up to 1975: F-CFA 289.651 million.

— "CERFER LOMÉ".

Dahomey's share in operating the regional Study and Training Centre for road maintenance at Lomé.

Amount committed: F-CFA 48.8 million. ■

TOGO

Steady progress of oil palm projects

The first programme of oil plantation development in Togo was concerned only with the natural-grown palm tree, covering about 70 000 ha and producing between 5 and 7 000 tons of crude palm oil and between 16 and 20 000 tons of palm kernels.

In 1955 an expressing plant was built at Alokoeqbé for extracting oil from natural palm fruit picked by the peasants. The capacity was 9 000 tons of fruit per annum, corresponding to 800 tons oil. In 1973–74 it produced 370 tons of oil.

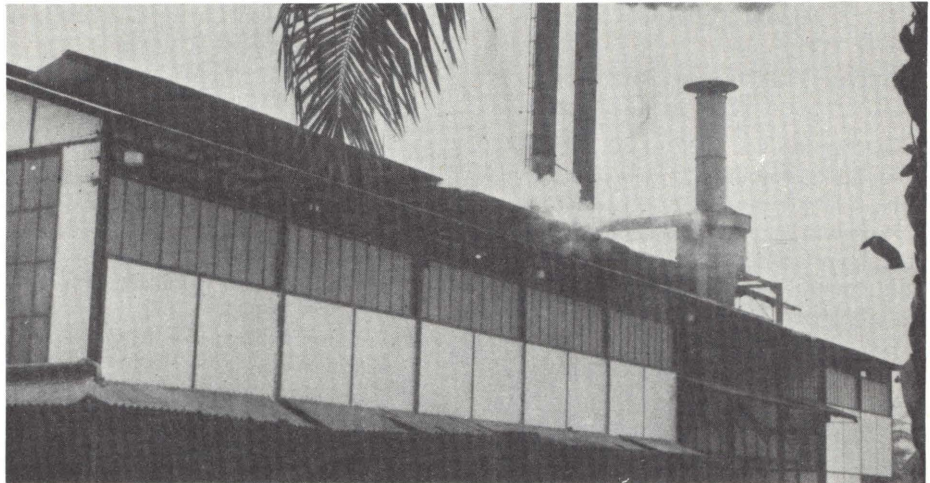
In 1968 the management of this plant was put in the hands of a specific body, known as SONAPH (Société Nationale pour le développement des Palmeraies à Huile) which also had the job of carrying out a development programme for selected palm.

For an initial project financed by the EDF, Togo received a subsidy of F-CFA 175 m to get the processing plant into good order and lay out, in 1967–68, an area of 500 ha of selected palm in the same neighbourhood so as to improve the supplies available for treatment.

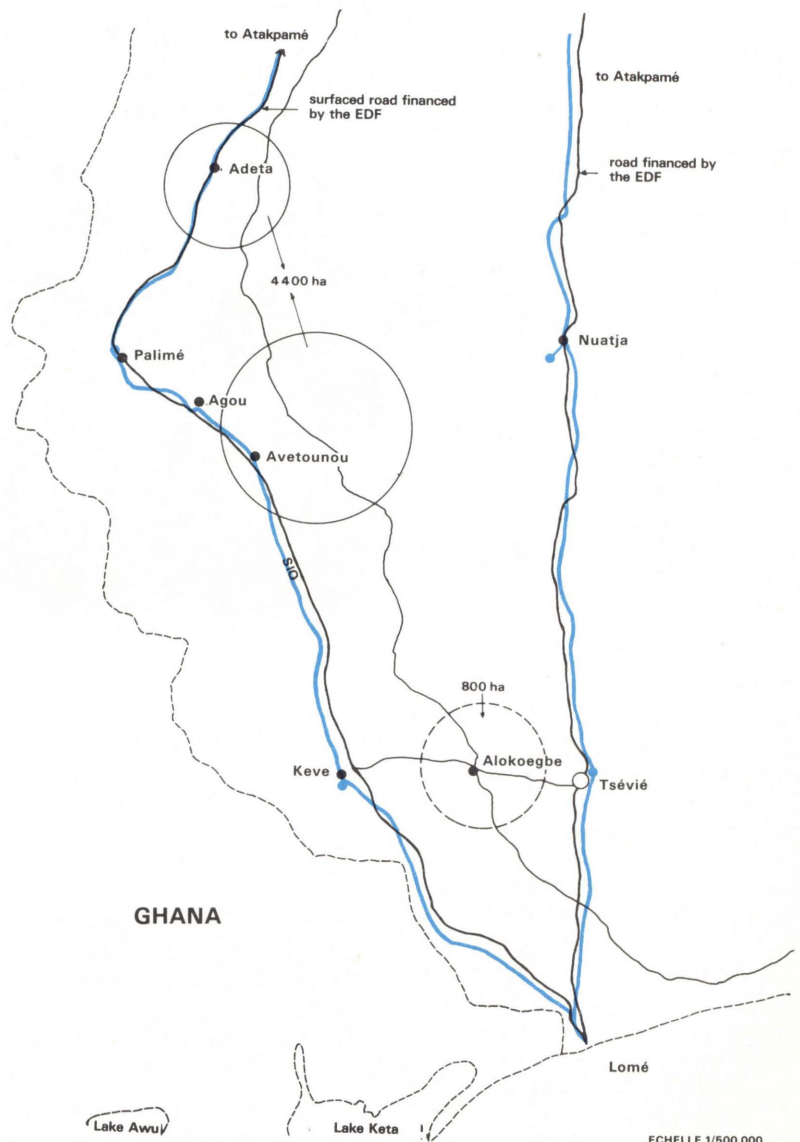
In 1969 another subsidy of F-CFA 600 million was granted by the EDF for laying out 3 000 ha with selected palm. There were two regions involved;

— The Alokoeqbé region, which was the collecting zone for the existing oil plant and where a further 300 ha of plantation were laid out, bringing the total selected palm around Alokoeqbé to 800 ha in village plantations.

— The Abou and Adeta regions where 2 700 ha of plantation were laid out in 1970–73. Their product is to supply another oil mill to be built later.



Palm oil mill at Alokoeqbé.



Location of the Alokoeqbé oil palm project.

The present programme is concerned only with the latter regions, and schedules a total of 1 700 ha of industrial plantation between 1974 and 1976. Based on credits from the EDF, 700 ha are now being laid out and the Togo government is covering from its own resources the laying out of the remaining 1 000 hectares. In October 1974 the EDF provided a further subsidy under the programme, amounting to F-CFA 380 m, for the development of these 700 ha and additional maintenance for the 3 000 ha previously financed.

The total selected palm plantations on the Agou and Adeta Plateaux will thus be around 4 400 ha after the end of 1976.

The Togo government's target is not limited to setting up the selected palm plantations and raising the production of palm oil, but also aims to diversify the region's agricultural production. On the employment side, the plantations require 150 man-days per ha for laying out and a further 50 man-days per ha per annum for maintenance and harvesting.

Processing the product

The scheduled deliveries of natural palm fruit to the Alokoegebé mill are 10 000 tons p.a. This figure was reached in 1971-72, and with the further 5 000 tons coming from the 800 ha of

selected palm plantation, the processing capacity at Alokoegebé will need to be raised to 15 000 tons p.a. For this purpose the EDF provided Togo with F-CFA 233 m for putting the Alokoegebé oil plant in better order and extending its processing capacity to 15 000 tons p.a. The funds provided for this purpose were supplemented by Togo with a further F-CFA 25 m from the 1975 investment budget.

There is a risk that the future price of oil from Alokoegebé may be above what the Togo consumers will be paying if they were taking their supplies from outside the country. The internal market,

(See page 63)

The EDF in Togo: some facts and figures

Volume of EDF investment in Togo (1960-75)

	in million units of account	in million F-CFA
1st EDF	15.6	3 900
2nd EDF	19.8	5 500
3rd EDF	28	7 700
Total		U.A. 63.4 million equivalent to F-CFA 17 100 000

The biggest intervention heading in Togo for all three EDF has been for road building, which took a total of F-CFA 7 221 m, or 42% of the grand total for 1960-75

1st and 2nd EDF - completed projects

	F-CFA million
Roads: Atakpamé-Palimé—Atakpamé Badou	1 488
Roads: Tsevié-Atakpamé	861
Roads: Lomé-Palimé	850
Roads: Lomé-Tsevié	357
Coast road Lomé-Dahomey frontier	350
Road: Lama-Kara-Kandé (section 1)	135
Modernisation of Togo Railway	423
	4 464
Construction: Secondary school at Tokoin	529
Construction: 50 Primary schools and 5 C.E.G.	511
Construction: Agricultural school at Tové	173
Construction: Maternity hospital, surgical block and nursing school at Tokoin	240
Drainage at Lomé (section 1)	235
Improving Lomé water supplies	160
	1 848
500 ha Selected palm plantations	175
Development of Central and Plateaux regions	199
Poultry farm at Baguida	77
Production aids	936
3 000 ha of selected palm plantations	599
200 families settled in Kara valley	127
	2 113

Scholarship programme	320
Sundry project surveys:	
1st EDF — Works management	265
2nd — Technical assistance linked with investment	390
	975
Total	9 400

Division of investments

1st EDF total	F-CFA 3 900 m
2nd EDF total	F-CFA 5 500 m
	F-CFA 9 400 m

3rd EDF (1971-1975) Projects in progress

	F-CFA million
Road: Tsévié-Atakpamé (section 2)	545
Road: Atakpamé-Blitta	1 396
Road: Lama-Kara-Kandé	1 120
Survey: Road Kandé-Upper Volta frontier	119
total roads	3 180
Port of Lomé extensions	300
Togo share of CERFER	48.4
total other infrastructure	1 348.4
Village water works programme	500
Drafting particulars for tender and supervision	32.5
Well maintenance material and construction of 262 wells	65
total water	597.5
Cotton growing development, including interim TA	880
Selected palm at Agou	380
Extension oil-mill at Alokoegebé	233
Various SONAPH surveys	28
Stock-raising improvement (survey)	12
Stock-raising improvement (works)	70
total farms/stock	1 603
Bursary programme 1972-75	375
5 University instructors (2 projects+school at Tové)	181
total education	556
TOTAL 3rd EDF PROJECTS, TOGO	7 285

MAURITANIA

Port equipment in Nouakchott

Fifteen years ago the newly independent Islamic Republic of Mauritania had only one port, Nouadhibou, which lies at the extreme north of a low straight coast running for more than 600 km. Nouakchott, the capital city, and the main part of the national territory were unable to use the port because of the lack of means of communication.

One of the first tasks for the Mauritanian government was to provide the country's capital with communications by sea. The tonnages at the time were quite modest and it was not easy to justify a deep-water port.

1st intervention

In 1966 a finance convention was signed between Mauritania and the EEC. This provided F-CFA 500 million, which was put at the disposal of the country for the first port equipment for Nouakchott. This was a commitment from the 1st EDF. The works were put in hand in February 1963 and completed in September 1966.

The project was not a very ambitious one, but was based on the realities of the time. The annual traffic with which it would have to deal was put at 50 000 tons. The port installations provided in this first project were:

- A lighterage wharf consisting of a platform stretching into the sea;
- A "Sea Line" for unloading oil fuels;
- A storage shed on land;
- A road linking the wharf with the Rosso-Nouakchott road;
- A water conduit;
- An electric transmission line from the capital;
- Mobile equipment, including trains, rolling stock and launches.

It was not long before the trade, inward and outward, had grown materially and the first equipment at Nouakchott wharf was no longer enough.

2nd intervention

The Mauritanian government accordingly put in a request for a second financing convention with the EEC Commission, which was duly signed in 1969. Its

purpose was to provide a loan to Mauritania on special terms to cover the extension of Nouakchott wharf. The amount specified was F-CFA 765 m. The content of this second project was:

- Enlargement of the existing platform, the length of which was raised from 86 to 145 meters and the breadth from 21 to 25 meters;
- Construction of a second access bridge to the platform (width 5 m.);
- Improvement of land installations in the port area comprising:
 - Construction of a workshop-warehouse of 600 sq. m.;
 - Enlargement of offices by 100 sq. m. with sanitary equipment;
 - Supply and laying of water conduits and electrical connexions, including



Port installations at Nouakchott.

a 350 KVA transformer and emergency generating unit and lighting for the new installations;

- Levelling, paving and closure of the open space;
- Additional land-based and floating equipment—cranes, elevator trucks, three 150 h.p. tugs and eight 50-ton lighters.

3rd intervention

In 1971 a third financing convention was signed, providing for an EDF commitment of F-CFA 100 m. It was described as "additional improvements to Nouakchott wharf". It comprised:

- A) loan on special terms = F-CFA 765 m
- B) non-repayable aid F-CFA 667 395 m

* *

In the light of these figures and estimates of the "profitability" of projects which have had EDF finance, it is interesting to glance at the results of the project.

After eight years handling of traffic at Nouakchott wharf, it can now be said that this project from the 1st EDF made a very considerable contribution to Mauritania as a whole and to the social, commercial and industrial development of the country's capital.

The figures tell an impressive story.

In 1973 the Nouakchott installations were used by 143 ships. In 1974 the number was over 150.

At the moment Nouakchott wharf has again reached the limits of its capacity. It was designed for a traffic of 50 000 tons in 1966 and has since been enlarged and refitted, but now the existing installations are being used at the absolute limit of their capacity.

Mauritania is now thinking in terms of a deep-water port. As recently as 1961, this sounded like Utopia; but progress usually looks like a dream. The EDF is there to provide a base for future development, a base such as the Nouakchott wharf. ■
C. PELLAS



Powerful cranes in the service of Mauritanian trade.

- Additional strengthening of the mooring quay;
- Further electrical improvements.

Afterwards, and in addition to this work, various other sums were committed by the EDF by way of temporary aid to Nouakchott Marine Authority. The amount involved was F-CFA 30.27 m plus two technical assistance contracts amounting to about U.A. 125 000.

The EDF commitment for building the Nouakchott wharf, its extension, equipment and additional improvements over the period since 1961, thus amounted in round figures to:

Goods shipped

- 1966	10 000 tons
- 1967	32 000 tons
- 1968	45 000 tons
- 1969	59 000 tons
- 1970	55 000 tons
- 1971	75 000 tons
- 1972	125 000 tons
- 1973	173 000 tons
- 1974	180 000 tons
- 1975 (est.)	200 000 tons

In 1974 the traffic was made up as follows:

- **Exports:**
 - Copper 30 000 tons
 - Gums and resins—hides 60 tons
- **Imports:** ± 150 000 tons

TOGO: oil palm projects

(from page 61)

however, is becoming bigger and bigger, and it is expected that by 1985 all the 1 800 tons of Alokoebé production will find their outlet in the local markets.

The first production from the 4 400 ha of palm at Agou is to be processed at Alokoebé; but by 1978, the Agou production will be around 15 000 tons and Alokoebé will no longer have the capacity to deal with it. An additional mill is therefore projected for construction at Agou. It will call for an investment of nearly F-CFA 1 300 m for a treatment capacity of 20 tons per ha. The oil production forecast is around 9 000 tons p.a. There is already an agreement of principle for the mill to be financed by the EDF, by means of a loan on special terms.

With the improvements in the mill at Alokoebé and the new one at Agou in normal operation, Togo hopes to raise its annual production of industrial palm oil, by about 1985, from the present figure of about 400 tons to a total of 11 000 tons, of which most will be for export.

The SONAPH future projects are largely concerned with oil storage facilities in the port at Lomé and a seed pressing plant in the port industrial area to be erected in 1976, with a capacity of about 20 000 tons p.a.

The total capacity of the SONAPH installations will thus cover:

- Palm oil 11 000 tons p.a.
- Palm kernel oil 10 000 tons p.a.

There are other plans for local processing to manufacture soap and margarine. ■

N. VINK

BOOKS

Herman JOHANN, in cooperation with Ilse JOHANN. - **Die wirtschaftlichen Integrationsbestrebungen der Entwicklungsländer** (Attempts at economic integration in developing countries). Deutsches Übersee-Institut—Probleme der Weltwirtschaft. (German Overseas Institute—World economic problems). Hamburg 1973.

The experience of recent years has shown that, whatever may be the cause, the aid given by industrial countries to those of the Third World comes up against limiting factors. It is increasingly evident that developing countries have got to make greater and more effective efforts in surmounting their own underdevelopment and redeeming their backwardness. The problems arising in these countries, however, are so serious and so varied that solutions can only be reached by joint action. It is for this reason that the countries concerned have taken a number of steps towards cooperation and integration for the sake of securing a better deployment of their productive energies, remedying the narrowness of their markets and creating multinational links of various types, such as free trade areas, common markets and other systems of cooperation.

The present analysis begins by examining the questions of principle in an integration policy. Its aim is to give a summary description of the various forms of integration in the Third World, and a critical survey of what has so far been achieved. The author seeks to identify the basic characteristics of these integration schemes, and only enters into detail to the extent that this is necessary for forming a balanced judgement. He does not, however, limit his description to the situation as it now exists, but endeavours to put it, however broadly, into its historical context without some knowledge of which the present position and problems of developing countries are difficult to understand.

The work makes no claim to be exhaustive and the authors' conclusions must thus be regarded as provisional. The tendencies followed and the objectives pursued by developing countries in their attempts at integration can, however, be clearly seen, as also can the impediments and limiting factors. The study may thus serve a useful purpose in defining an

integration strategy which will have real chances of success, and which the author considers to be an important stage on the road away from underdevelopment.

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Teaching International Development. — Community Alternatives, 2524 Cypress Street, Vancouver B.C. V6J 3N2, Canada 1974.

How should international development be explained to the growing generation of schoolchildren in the classrooms of the West? Two Canadian teachers, John McBride and John Olsen, active in community and educational work, have produced a manual for teachers that suggests a wide range of educational techniques to bring home to young people the essentials of the subject.

They believe the political and moral problems of all that is implied by "development" can be brought into the classroom, provided first principles are established. To do this, they propose simulation games, outside exercises and plain blackboard teaching to try to make young school pupils feel what it means to belong to the poor two-thirds of the world. The chapters include population, hunger, literacy, aid and trade, a general review of the subject and a practical guide to obtaining information.

Good points in the manual are notably: its awareness of children's natural curiosity about daily life in other cultures, especially its positive side, and their freedom from the criteria accepted by adults; its inventiveness in teaching ideas; its comprehensive coverage of the subject at schoolroom level; and its caution before moral and political stances that can blight a youthful curiosity growing in its own way.

Bad points perhaps include a tendency to discuss the subject itself in staffroom rather than in classroom terms, and to scrape the barrel for possible exercises when the plain consideration of underdevelopment is in itself so rich and vital a subject for today's children in the industrial countries.

ooo

Jean-Pierre RAISON. — **L'Afrique des Hautes Terres.** — (The Highlands of Africa), Editions Armand Colin, Paris 1974.

The Upland Plateaux and volcanic mountains of East Africa are an enormous region which, for all the differences in its appearance, is not lacking in unity. In this book the author covers not only Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania, but also Ethiopia, Somalia, Rwanda, Burundi, the Comoro archipelago, Madagascar, Mauritius, the Seychelles and Réunion Island.

The author holds a degree in geography and is research director at ORSTOM. He sees in this part of the African continent a "unity in contrast which is all its own", which makes it unlike West Africa, where the group structure is more coherent. It is a rural world, in which the spread of population and economic activity are closely linked with the topography. Side by side with cereal-growing and pastoral areas, there are commercial crops, such as sugar cane, bananas, coffee and cotton.

"East Africa, like West Africa produces and exports coffee and cotton, but under these heads it is the more advanced. Among the cotton countries of tropical Africa Uganda and Tanzania come in second and third place after Nigeria. In coffee production only the Ivory Coast is ahead of Ethiopia and Uganda; and in the east the main part of the growing is arabica, which is almost unknown in the west. East Africa, leaving out cocoa and oleaginous crops, has made its place on the African continent as a specialist in secondary and marginal produce for which the markets are limited, such as cloves, vanilla, perfume plants and pyrethrum. For other lines of production it is in competition with the much better equipped countries of southern Africa. This is the case for sugar, sisal, copra, cashew nuts, tobacco and even for cereals and animal products."

It would be to the advantage of the African highlands to organise themselves economically as a unit of more coherent structure; but the East African Community, nevertheless, is having many difficulties. How, the author asks, is this part of the world to provide for its own development? Will it take advantage of its coastline and throw itself open to the East?

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Klaus BILLERBECK. — **Alternative approaches for the future order of international trade in commodities.** — German Development Institute, 1, Berlin (West) 10, Fraunhoferstrasse 33-36, 1974.

Well before the oil crisis spotlighted the political importance of raw materials, the fact that the market-place alone cannot satisfactorily distribute the world's resources was becoming apparent in the international trade in commodities.

Klaus Billerbeck of the German Development Institute has written an invaluable summary of the alternatives to the market-place, tracing the outline of a world-scale mixed economy in a 50-page booklet.

Klaus Billerbeck does not believe in single or ideal solutions. After a methodical examination of his "alternative approaches", which incidentally offers a sound introduction to the complex field of commodities, he comes to the loose conclusion that future international commodity trading must be based on international consultations offering the greatest possible satisfaction to both producers and consumers. In the frequently dense language of economics, the author asks us how we propose to share out the world cake in future.

ooo

Joseph KLATZMANN. — **To feed ten thousand million** (Nourrir dix milliards d'hommes). — Collection SUP, Section "Le Géographe"—Presses universitaires de France, Paris—268 pages, 37 FF.—1975.

This is the most recent overall look at a subject of equal concern to the present and the future—the world food situation. M. Klatzmann teaches at the National Agronomic Institute of Paris-Grignon, is Director of Studies at the Ecole pratique des Hautes Etudes and a member of the French Academy of Agriculture. He makes a clear and honest attempt to provide an idea of the food situation, present and future, and gives special attention to the points on which equally distinguished experts are most passionately at odds.

We learn a good deal: nutritional norms and dieticians' debates, the effectiveness and the dangers of DDT, the range of the "green revolution", etc. Above all, it is clear that nothing in this field is simple. The Aswan dam, for instance, certainly represents progress; according to the press it should allow an increase of 20% in the 38 000 sq. kms of farmland supplying 37 million Egyptians; but it is less generally known that "the dam is filling up and the dose of fertilizers will have to be stepped up to compensate for lost lemon crops", that irrigation by canals helps spread bilharzia, that fresh water coming into the Nile delta with less nutritional elements has reduced the sardine catch... So even the most spectacular achievements can be controversial.

Over and above the discussions on such-and-such a point, the critical analyses and the FAO statistics, one thing at least remains starkly clear: the question of how many people the world can feed without compromising the future of coming generations by pollution and the destruction of natural resources. Joseph Klatzmann's answer is straightforward for all the caution of his analysis: the Earth's resources are adequate to feed at least ten thousand million people, without giving up animal products. He reckons the means already exist for using these resources and that there are no insurmountable obstacles, not even the traditional routine of the peasant farmer.

So what should be done? Firstly, "give agriculture priority". This emphasis would change the scale of values in under-developed countries. As far as the material means are concerned, they could be obtained if the big powers agreed to reduce arms spending a little and to impose disarmament on smaller powers.

Then, set up a world organisation independent of national governments to manage natural resources. Finally, it seems essential to fight population growth, both in the short term—because it will take time to really start increasing farm production—and in the long term, because stabilising the world population at ten or twelve thousand million requires immediate action now.

The author has no illusions about the possibility of putting these proposals into effect quickly and on a large scale. He ends: "what must be proposed is action wherever it seems possible, because not all the necessary measures will be taken... The fact that digging a well in Africa only saves a few people, while the human race has the means of saving us all, is no reason for not digging that well".

ooo

Jacques CHEVRIER.—**Littérature nègre (Black literature).**—Editions Armand Colin, Paris, 1974.

In this work Chevrier begins by summarising the history of negro culture, with a special study of the work of the founders of the movement—Césaire, Damas and Senghor. He goes on to analyse the contemporary African novel, exemplified in the writings of Camara Laye, Ferdinand Oyono, Mongo Beti, Sheikh Hamidou Kane, Ahmadou Kourouma and others. In this he sees through to their essential attitudes, to their frustrations under the colonial system and the clash between Africanism and the culture of the West.

The book ends with a thorough study of the distribution of books in Africa, attendance in libraries, African publishing houses and other aspects, in the light of the competition of audio-visual culture. ■

THE COURIER
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