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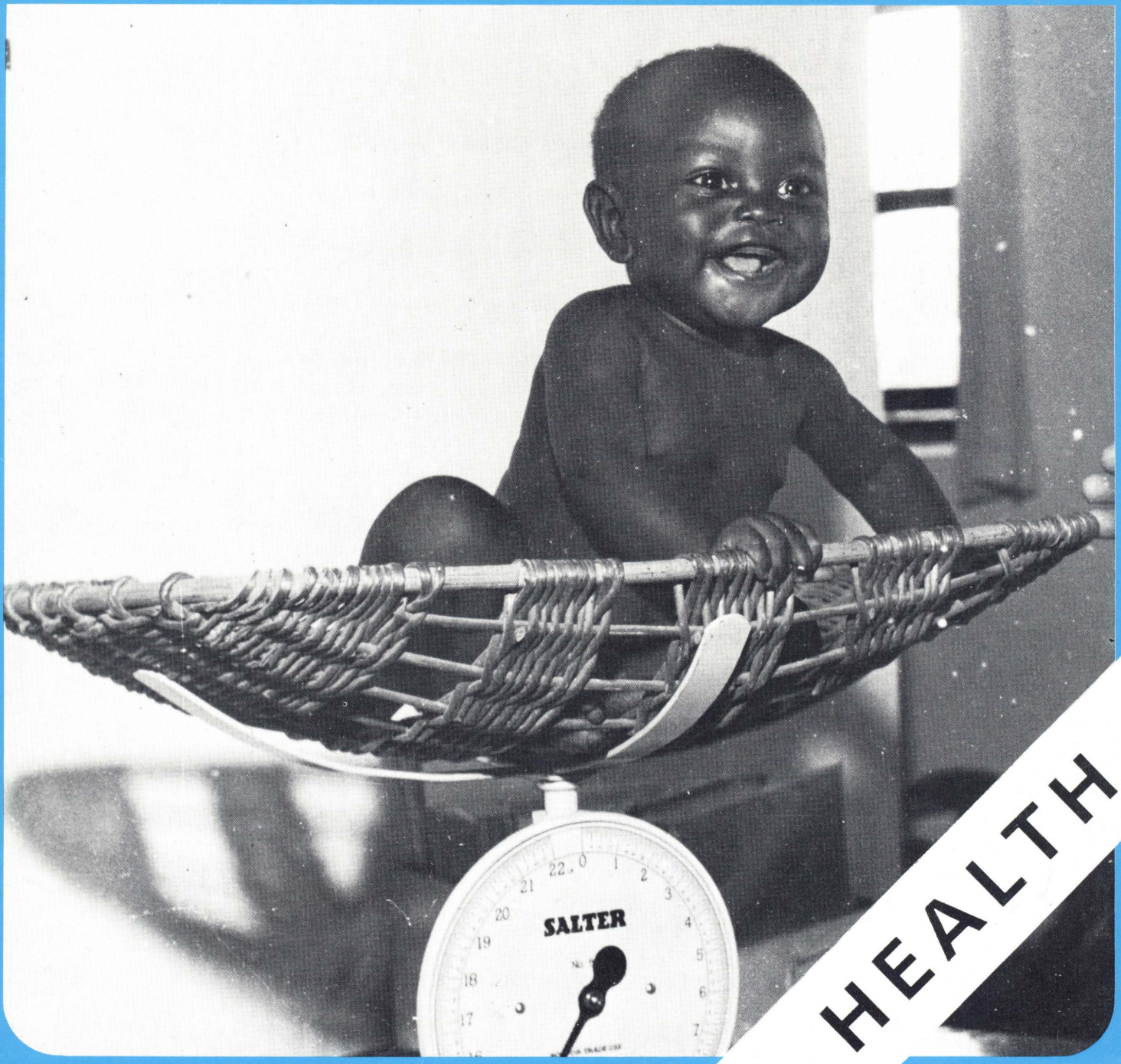


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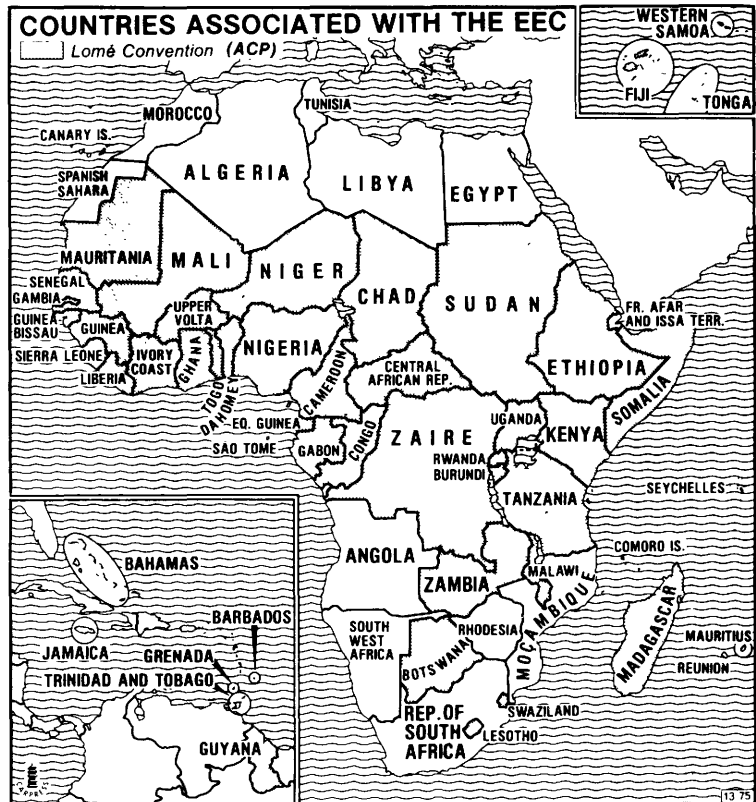
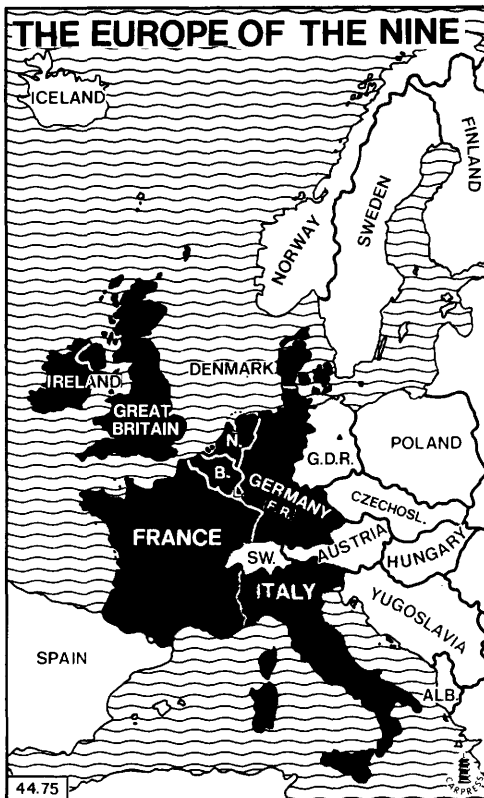
HEALTH

THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

BELGIUM
DENMARK
FRANCE
GERMANY
(Federal. Rep.)
IRELAND
ITALY
LUXEMBOURG
NETHERLANDS
UNITED KINGDOM

THE ACP STATES

BAHAMAS	GUINEA	RWANDA
BARBADOS	GUINEA-BISSAU	SENEGAL
BOTSWANA	GRENADA	SIERRA LEONE
BURUNDI	GUYANA	SOMALIA
CAMEROON	IVORY COAST	SUDAN
CENTRAL AFRICAN REP.	JAMAICA	SWAZILAND
CHAD	KENYA	TANZANIA
CONGO	LESOTHO	TOGO
DAHOMY	LIBERIA	TONGA
EQUATORIAL GUINEA	MADAGASCAR	TRINIDAD and TOBAGO
ETHIOPIA	MALAWI	UGANDA
FIJI	MALI	UPPER VOLTA
GABON	MAURITANIA	WESTERN SAMOA
GAMBIA	MAURITIUS	ZAIRE
GHANA	NIGER	ZAMBIA
	NIGERIA	

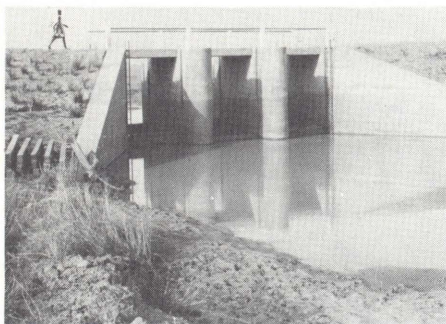
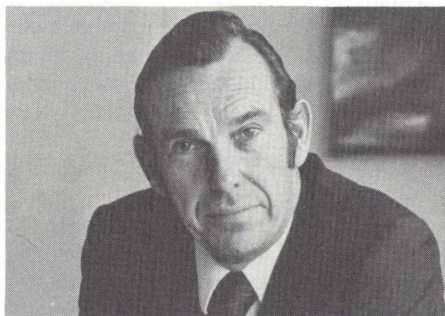


Todenhöfer — The socialist West German government (SPD) and the christian democrat opposition (CDU) are at loggerheads over their separate definitions of cooperation and development aid. The Christische Demokratische Union held a congress in Bonn on September 4-5 on the christian democrat policy of cooperation with the Third World. CDU cooperation spokesman Todenhöfer explains this "new policy" as moving in "two directions" within an "international social market economy". **Page 6**



Omar Giama — Somalia, at the easternmost point of the African continent, is in a position to play a role bridging Arab and African countries. Omar Giama, Somali ambassador in Brussels, describes the initiatives being taken in this direction, the internal campaign to settle the nomadic population after the recent drought and his country's perspectives in the Lomé framework. **Page 19**

Dr. Mahler — The overconsumption of medications in the industrial countries contrasts starkly with the low level of health care in the Third World. Dr. Halfdan Mahler, Director General of the World Health Organisation (WHO) in Geneva, insists on the need to remedy this situation in order to arrive at "health for all by the year 2000", not only by training doctors in large numbers but above all by attacking the causes rather than the symptoms of world illness. **Page 26**



EDF — The activities of the EDF in Mali, from the continuing tasks of economic and social infrastructure to the emergency aid provided during the drought, give a good cross-section of the Community's projects in cooperation with some of the world's poorest countries. In Dahomey, the fund has worked closely with the government on a priority scheme to improve the vital palm oil industry. **Page 63**

Cinema — This year's "Palme d'or" winner at the Cannes film festival (France) was the Algerian film "Chronique des années de Braise". Europe film critics suddenly took an interest in the African cinema. The history of African films is both old and new: the first full-length film by a director from black Africa was made by Sembéné Ousmane (photo) in 1968, but films were already being made in Africa much earlier. **Page 75**



THE COURIER

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY —
AFRICA - CARIBBEAN - PACIFIC

No. 34 — November-December 1975.

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The African cinema and its story
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Big public administrations are always full of surprises. A little more than two years ago one of these surprises came my way, when I was appointed to add to my other duties the task of publisher of the "Courier". Most people find a certain fascination in the press and the important part it plays in the modern world. From the outset I expected my new task to be interesting, but I soon saw it was going far beyond my expectations.

From the start it was clear that the signatories of the Yaoundé Convention had a real need for information and documentation, and that this called for a regular publication. The need was felt at every responsible level, in private and public life in the countries concerned. I was struck by the fact that they were anxious not only to receive information, but also to give voice to their own opinions and use the review for making proposals and suggestions.

Very soon after this a start was made on the negotiations for the new Lomé Convention. Our task then became more difficult and more important. We now had not only to explain the past and present for the sake of preparing the future, but to do it for the English-speaking countries of the Commonwealth as well as for the French-speaking countries already associated with us.

I will not venture even a guess as to how far the "Courier" was a useful adjunct to the negotiations, especially through its English edition which was launched at the beginning of 1973. I was, however, impressed by the fact that the representatives of many countries used the "Courier" during the negotiations to tell of their anxieties and their hopes. There is one particular case I remember, in which a leading personality used our review to describe the trend of opinion in his country about the future convention, explaining the disappearance of various doubts and reserves and the revival of interest in the project. Since the Lomé Convention was signed the "Courier" has given further promi-

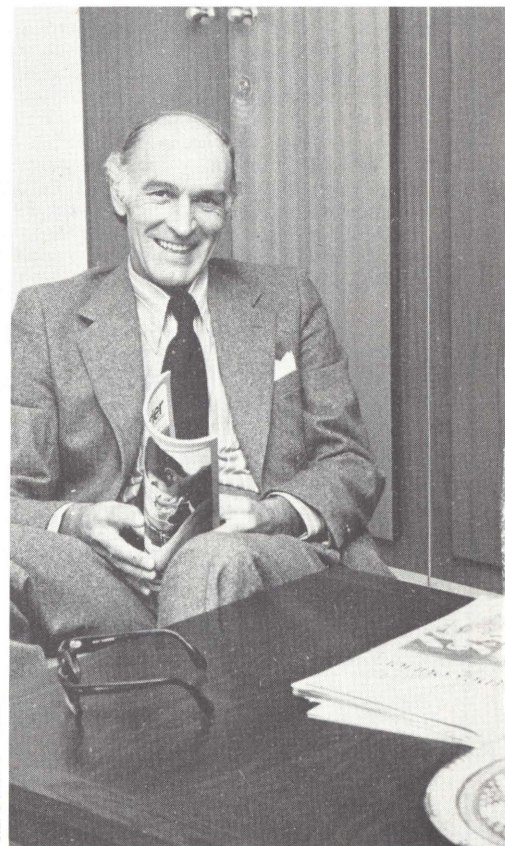
nence to it, and its predecessors, and also to the ACP countries themselves between which it is now a natural link. In parallel with this we have been aiming to follow and raise discussion about the big underlying concepts of development, largely through international meetings. Our readers, therefore, were not taken by surprise by the changes now finding their expression in talk of a new world economic order.

Securing progress for a new review and continued growth in its readership is a long-term task, calling for a big effort both of organisation and of imagination. During these two years I have watched our editorial staff compiling and creating successive issues, and it has often made me think of the work of a sculptor. He is faced at the outset with a shapeless mass of clay, or a rough piece of stone, which will gradually take shape and form under the hands of the artist who, in the end, will almost bring it to life. I think the birth and rebirth of a magazine is an event of the same sort.

There is one important difference. A magazine is a collective job, and this brings me to express my gratitude to everybody, inside and outside the Commission office, who has helped us in pushing the review ahead. Most of all I should like to say how deeply grateful I am to the little "Courier" team which has made it possible for us to make considerable improvements in the review, make it a publication which is now sure of its readership and justify the pride with which we look upon the editions in two different languages and the total circulation of 30 000 copies, which are distributed and read in more than 60 countries.

This is, however, a field in which nothing lasts forever. It is now for my friend and colleague Jean Durieux to shoulder the whole task of fulfilling our readers' expectations. Some ground has already been covered, but we all know that the longest section of road, and the largest part of the task, still lie ahead. ■

ERICH WIRSING



J.L. Debaize - EEC

Jean Durieux
Director of general development policy.

The "Courier" under **Jean takes Erich**



Erich Wirsing
Director of projects.

**new management;
Durieux
over from
Wirsing**

The recent reorganisation of the Commission's Directorate General for Development included my appointment to take over Erich Wirsing's job as publisher of the "Courier", and thus brought the team of people who produce it within my responsibility. Up to the present I have only been able to follow the growth of the "Courier" (or "Association News" as it was formerly called) from afar, but I was near enough at hand to be struck by the progress of the review and the growth in its readership, especially during the past two years. This coincided with Erich Wirsing's time as publisher, and our editor, Alain Lacroix, tells me this was no accident. This is the account he gives me:

"On January 1, 1973, "Association News", as it then was, was published for the first time in English as well as French, and the Dossier in that issue was devoted to the EDF. A few months later Herr Wirsing was appointed as our publisher and this marked another brisk step forward for the review. Our new publisher was firmly convinced that a regular publication, containing both news and background information, had a useful job to do in furthering the Yaoundé Convention and the new convention with the ACP for which the negotiations were just about to begin. Under his aegis the "Courier" was able to play its part through the 18 months of negotiation, recording the views and interpretations of the ACP leaders and those of the EEC countries. He clearly understood the sort of effort needed for producing a magazine of this kind, and

the corresponding need for at least a minimum of production resources without which it would very quickly have reached the stage of no further advance. A team was accordingly set up and engaged full-time on the work. It is first and foremost a collective effort and the team producing it is a group of friends.

The instructions Herr Wirsing laid down gave the paper ample scope for tackling the journalistic tasks involved, including care in the production and selection of material and conformity to strict deadlines.

This was only possible because all the staff wanted to repay the confidence Herr Wirsing was showing in them, and were very much aware of the personal note he brought to the administration."

I hope and intend to continue his work on the same basis. The increasing readership of the review, which serves both as a link between Europe and the developing world and between the ACP countries themselves, is adding to the work we have to do. With the Lomé Convention coming into force in 1976, one of our major objectives must be to raise the circulation of the English edition so that it catches up with the French, and I shall do everything I can to print news and views from the ACP countries as often as possible. Just at present I am deeply aware of the difficulty of taking over from Erich Wirsing, but I have high hopes that, with the help of the "Courier" team, I shall be able to follow on in the path he has marked out so successfully. ■

JEAN DURIEUX

Health and development

The world will need twice as many doctors by the year 2000.

This, according to the WHO (World Health Organisation), is the necessary target if the average man is still to have as good a chance of finding a doctor when he needs one as he has now.

The so-called "medical density" is the number of doctors per 10 000 inhabitants. The world average in 1970 was 7.91 and its continued rise has been one of the factors which made possible the health revolution of the last three decades. Unfortunately this rise is losing its momentum. The figure increased by almost twenty percent in the fifties, but by barely fifteen percent in the sixties, a period of booming population growth.

The medical density, of course, is only one factor in any assessment of the world health outlook, but it is a simple enough concept and an important one. Will the slackening in its growth be a long-term threat to the health revolution itself?

* *

In most developing countries the obstacles to adequate health care are far from easy to surmount. Many of the diseases are endemic, exhausting the vitality of populations, costly for the authorities to tackle. The potential patients are widely scattered, with 80% or more of them living in the bush; and this is a serious obstacle to the continuity of observation necessary both for diagnosis and for treatment. Bush medicine is less spectacular than hospital facilities and it is to the latter that the limited budget funds are apt to be channelled; and external aid is, for the most part, concentrated on setting up and improving stationary health units. Moreover, personnel costs often account for the better part of half the health credits provided, and this may leave less than

enough for regular supplies of drugs and dressings, new and up-to-date apparatus, maintenance of buildings, repair and renewal of vehicles.

Yet the ratio to the population of the number of doctors, chemists, nurses and medical auxiliaries is everywhere far below what is usual in developed countries. Figures of one doctor to every twenty, thirty or even fifty thousand inhabitants are by no means rare; and the discrepancy is worsened by the uneven distribution of facilities between town and country. In many developing countries half or even three quarters of the medical and paramedical personnel is concentrated in the capital, whether because of the better equipment, the wealthier patients, questions of language (for many were themselves town-bred), or it may have its roots in the comfort, ease and safety of town life. Moreover, the young people who go to study medicine in Europe or North America often prefer to remain there rather than come home to practice, either because they have married locally or for reasons similar to those above.

* *

These are some, but only some, of the difficulties encountered in developing countries. Health policy, though it must include the building of hospitals, dispensaries and maternity centres, should not concentrate on capital cities, but have an eye also to the facilities available in the bush and in the smaller townships. It must do all it can to swell the ranks of doctors and paramedical personnel in general, especially by bringing home those who have settled abroad; and the distribution of this personnel must be improved. It seems quite a general complaint that the ill-balanced distribution of money, material and doctors has told not only against the rural areas but also against the development of pre-

ventive medicine. The latter attacks the causes of illness and must be encouraged. Nowadays most specialists agree that mass medicine calls for the combination of the curative and the preventive, operating through rural health centres and mobile medical units.

There seems to be general consensus on two other points. The first is that the scale of a campaign should be adapted to the country concerned and its resources in money and manpower. Secondly, the most desirable health schemes are those using comparatively modest instruments for a major effect. Examples are mass vaccination, anti-malaria campaigns using insecticides, and clinical therapy.

Health education is also a necessary concomitant to curative and preventive medical action, and a condition of its effectiveness. This is a question of hygiene, mother and child welfare and dietary improvement. Moreover, the effectiveness of health schemes is often linked with measures taken in other areas, such as agricultural development, drainage and water schemes and in the educational field.

* *

Health policy thus stands out as a major factor in the search for development and needs to be coordinated with other aspects of general development planning, in which external aid has its part to play.

There is also a general need to overcome the insufficiently cooperative attitude of rural populations towards official health schemes. Only too often this is to be seen, in absences from collective localisation sessions and undue irregularity in attendance at treatment centres. Health propaganda at the popular level is normally required to stimulate cooperation; for, as the Mali proverb has it, "God is good, but he only helps those who help themselves". ■

FEDERAL GERMANY THRASHES OUT ITS COOPERATION PROGRAMME

A turning point in CDU policy

Bonn — Germany's Christian Democratic Union (CDU), the second biggest of the political parties, held a special congress in Bonn during September. It was wholly devoted to cooperation and solidarity with the Third World, and it was the first time the CDU had held so important a meeting on this subject since Federal Germany adopted a development cooperation policy in 1956.

It was also the first time the CDU had made a political programme out of development aid and cooperation with non-industrial countries. For some years it has been a matter for comment that most opponents of the German policy towards the underdeveloped world have been politically close to the CDU. This was a serious handicap for the party—which has been in opposition since 1969—at a time when the industrial underdevelopment of the Third World was becoming a point of primary international importance, and when the raw material producing countries were taking the offensive against the established economic order of which they felt themselves the victims.

The congress met at Adenauer House in Bonn, the headquarters of the CDU party. It was attended by delegates from 18 countries and leading international figures such as Raul Prebisch, the former Secretary General of UNCTAD (1) and Maurice J. Williams, chairman of the OECD Development Aid Committee (DAC). The aim was to discuss the underdevelopment problem in general and put forward solutions consistent with the christian democrat approach. The party chairman, Dr Helmuth

Kohl, who is a candidate for the Chancellorship, gave a programme speech on cooperation and solidarity with the Third World, and Dr Jürgen Todenhöfer, party spokesman on development matters in the Bundestag (lower house of the Federal Parliament), gave a long discourse on the CDU approach to the problem.

As a formal opening to the proceedings, Dr Kohl gave an outline of the new CDU aid and cooperation policy. Development aid, and development policy generally, said the party chairman, are now more necessary than ever, because it is not only the future of the underdeveloped countries which is at stake, nor is the issue primarily concerned with improving and stabilising international relations. "Today", he said, "it is also, indeed principally, our own future which is in the balance".

The ideas of Dr Kohl on cooperation form a curious counterpart to those from another political party, the SPD, put forward by ex-minister Erhard Eppler (2). They are a positive turning point in CDU policy. The major change taking place in relations between industrial and non-industrial countries was the fundamental reason prompting the CDU to sponsor a political project in line with the scale and importance of the problem.

It was in fact a question of adopting "new political principles of cooperation" for the party; and these were brought forward by Herr Todenhöfer, who made a spirited presentation of what proved an interesting document. He began by stating two fundamental facts. The first was that developing countries themselves put all the blame for their under-

development on the claim that they have been exploited. This, Herr Todenhöfer commented, makes it impossible for them to appreciate the complexity of the underdevelopment problem and the instruments for dealing with it. "These countries cannot escape some of the responsibility for the non-success of the many programmes which have sought to eliminate poverty", he added. Secondly, he continued, the mistakes made by the industrial countries have been fundamental. "During the '50s there was no clarity about what development aid policy was seeking, or why. There was no trade policy enabling underdeveloped countries to be genuine partners in international trade and there was no real structure for a development aid policy". The amounts to a confession of failure for some 25 years of development cooperation, and it is now the wish of the CDU to put forward a policy for bridging the gap which separates the rich and poor countries.

To this end the CDU puts forward a three-point plan:

- 1) A new concept for the international market economy;
- 2) A strategy on two planes—more trade with the countries of the Third World which have raw materials to sell, and through which they can make rapid economic progress; and increased aid in the conventional sense to the countries of the "Fourth World" (the 25 countries ranked as the poorest);
- 3) Policies of cooperation and development aid to be put on a European footing, with a view to equality of opportunity in a world in which all the opportunities have hitherto been on one side. **Ac-**

(2) See interview with Herr Eppler in The Courier No. 25 (May-June 1974).

(1) See interview with Dr Prebisch p. 11.

According to Herr Todenhöfer, the CDU interprets this as "aid in setting up conditions which will make the developing countries capable of securing their own economic and social progress, by their own efforts and in accordance with their own desires".

This economic and social development of the Third World is the foundation of that new international economic order to which the CDU is anxious to contribute. "In the industrial countries themselves, development has made more paupers than one might suppose and the flagrant social inequality is one of the causes of today's instability in political regimes", remarked Mr Calvani, the former Foreign Minister in Venezuela. The root of the problem is to decide how the world should be organised so that it "no longer engenders new injustices from day to day". The German Social Christians believe that such organisation "can and must be set on foot". In the industrial countries today the rich are having to pay more and more to support the poor, the victims of the economic systems of yesteryear. Why should not this approach become part of the international scheme of things?

The STABEX scheme in the Lomé Convention, seeking to prevent disastrous fluctuations in the export receipts of the ACP countries, is undoubtedly a step forward. The CDU, however, fears the system may "encourage monoculture" (undue reliance on a single crop or mineral product) among the ACP; and this certainly would not solve the problem of agriculture. The German Christian Democrats are therefore putting forward a complete policy. It will include finance aid which, they say, is still "insignificant" compared with the Marshall Plan for Europe's reconstruction after the Second World War. The United States contributed to this plan no less than 3% of their GNP; but at present the industrial countries are assigning to the underdeveloped world less than three quarters of one percent of their own GNP. The CDU ambition for developing countries is equality of opportunity. "This can and must become a reality in Germany's own interest, for the sake of solidarity both with developing countries and with the generations of tomorrow", Herr Todenhöfer concluded (3). ■

LUCIEN PAGNI

(3) See following interview with Dr Todenhöfer.

"Towards an international social market economy" TO END UNDER-DEVELOPMENT:

Dr Jürgen G. Todenhöfer (*)

The socialist Federal German government (SPD) and the christian democrat opposition (CDU) have for some time been battling over their different ideas of what a cooperation and development aid policy should be. The Christische-Demokratische Union held a congress in Bonn on September 4-5 on the christian democrat policy of cooperation with the Third World; CDU parliamentary spokesman Jürgen Todenhöfer outlines the party's proposals in this interview. They amount to a policy in "two directions" (for countries with export and development potential and others without, or almost without export possibilities), in the framework of an "international social market economy".

► On 4 and 5 September 1975 the CDU/CSU held its first-ever congress on development and cooperation policy vis-à-vis the developing countries. What are the basic features of this new development policy?

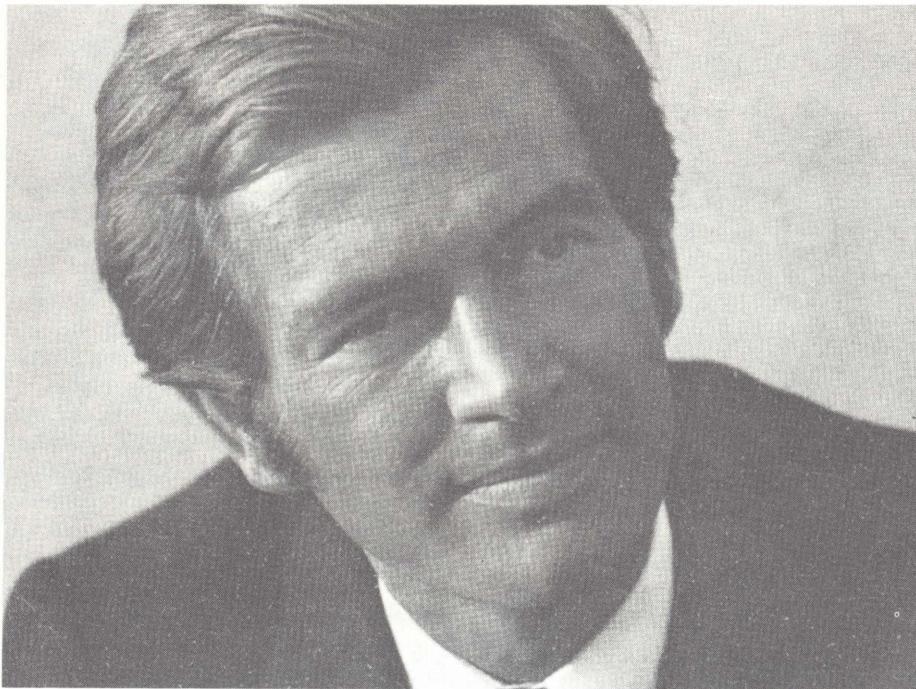
— I cannot outline our overall policy in a few sentences, but I would like to enumerate some of its salient aspects. The first point is that we have advocated that the new world economic order should take the form of an international social market economy. It is our view that the principles applied in Germany, namely free competition and rewards balanced by concern for the interests of the poorer sections of society, constitute moral and political principles which should also underlie the world economic order. In our opinion the world economic order should be not only liberal but also socially just. It is not our intention to transfer every aspect of our social mar-

ket economy to international relations, but we feel that some of the more important features could be so transferred. Here I should point out that in calling for an international social market economy we are naturally not insisting that individual countries, whether industrial or developing, should necessarily operate a system of the market economy type. Each country, whether industrial or developing, must of course retain the right to decide freely what form its economy is to adopt. Our proposal simply concerns the relationships between countries, not the economic system practised in those countries.

The second point I should like to make concerns our double-edged strategy, which is as follows:

1. As regards the seventy or more countries that have achieved some degree of development, making up what we call the Third World, trade should be largely substituted for aid in the accepted sense, and world trade should be extensively liberalised. In addition to liberalising trade we must help these countries with the problem of fluctuations in export earnings. They should be assisted by means of prof-

(*) Jürgen Gerhard Todenhöfer, 35, was first elected to the Bundestag as a member of parliament in 1972. He has been a member of the CDU since 1970. He studied at Fribourg University in Breisgau and is a Doctor of Law.



Jürgen Todenhöfer

"The importance of triangular cooperation will remain marginal"

erences and the like. Therefore, we feel that in future trade based on an international social market economy, which particularly requires the opening-up of our markets, will be widely substituted for traditional forms of aid. This is one side of our strategy. In addition, cooperation with these more developed countries should be channelled through the private sector to a greater degree. New forms of cooperation in the private sector must be devised. We must break new ground, and here we challenge industry, and indeed all branches of the economy of the industrialised countries, to cooperate more closely with these more developed Third World countries on a basis of genuine partnership.

2. The other side of our strategy is aimed at the countries making up what we call the Fourth World—namely those that are weak on the export side—and involves concentrating much of development aid on the thirty of so Fourth World countries which are not in a position to export at present. In future they should receive most of Germany's development aid. The Federal Government is currently saying much the same thing but is not yet putting its words into practice. Under the 1975 budget the twenty-six poorest countries are to receive only about 20% of the develop-

ment aid total, and actual payments to these countries will probably amount to even less.

To summarise, this double-edged strategy involves trade, liberalisation, cooperation with the Third World in the private sector, and traditional development aid for the Fourth World.

I should quickly like to mention a third point—namely the Europeanisation of development policy. In contrast to the Ministry for Development, we share the view of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs that Europeanising development policy, that is providing Europe with a common worldwide development policy, cannot be postponed until Europe has been integrated. We must make development policy much more "European" now, we must make it a common worldwide policy.

► *In recent years, and particularly during the term of office of the former Minister, Dr Eppler, the Federal Republic's development aid policy towards Third World countries has often been attacked, the main argument being that it was "a wasted investment". The congress you have just held endorses the "development strategy" recently adopted by your party. Would it be true to say that you now regard contributing to the econ-*

omic development of non-industrial countries as a necessity for both the recipients and the Federal Republic?

— My party has never regarded development aid as a wasted investment. We have always believed in the need for development aid. We have never argued about whether it was necessary, merely about how it was to be applied. We still believe that those who benefit should continue receiving aid and that Germany should continue giving it.

► *Professor Biedenkopf, the Secretary General of your party, has said that Europe must be in a position to mobilise resources for a foreign economic policy if it is to play its economic and spiritual role in the world. What significance will the new CDU/CSU development strategy accord to bilateral and multilateral policies?*

— I fully share the view that our world role depends on our development policy. Like the Federal Government, we decided the question of whether we should have a bilateral or a multilateral development policy by giving precedence to the former. We, however, are in favour of Europeanising this bilateral policy. When he drew attention to the fact that resources would have to be mobilised, Professor Biedenkopf, like myself, was referring not only to official State aid but also to private investment that fitted in with development policy. This is another of the many points on which our approach differs from that of the government. Much greater importance must be attached to private investment whenever and wherever it fits in with development policy. We feel that the government should do much more to encourage such private investment and that the German economy should be more prepared to take risks in developing countries.

► *Official bilateral aid provided by the Federal Republic has fallen steadily over the past few years and is unlikely to reach 0.7% of the gross national product by 1980. On the subject of multilateral aid, the government stated at a special cabinet meeting on development matters on 9 June that it would give precedence to Community policy. However, it was not prepared to provide more than 30% of the national cooperation budget for Community measures vis-à-vis*

the Third World. In your opinion, what effect will this have on future EEC policy towards the developing countries?

— Your question should be rephrased. The Federal Government never stated that it would give precedence to Community policy, that is to a European development policy. That was what the Ministry for Foreign Affairs advocated but the request was turned down by the Ministry of Development. However, giving way in part to pressure from the Opposition but above all in an attempt to create the impression that, while rejecting actual Europeanisation of development policy, it was in favour of such Europeanisation (this was even included in its former programme), the government did say that it would in future accord European aid greater importance within the framework of multilateral aid. But there is little or no room within the framework of multilateral aid for concerted European action since we already have a large number of international commitments in this field which we cannot annul.

This is a sort of card trick played to create the impression that in future Europeanisation will be the order of the day. Anybody with serious intentions to Europeanise must draw on bilateral development aid funds, not multilateral funds, most of which have already been tied. A very clever move has created a false public impression. And when a world-wide scheme by the European Community, involving a relative insignificant sum, was discussed a few weeks ago, the Federal Government refused to participate in the scheme. I am only mentioning this to show up the difference between words and deeds which is frequently evident in many countries, and occasionally in the Federal Republic too.

► *Dr Todenhöfer, you have said that the twenty-five points drafted by the Minister, Herr Egon Bahr, and adopted by the German Parliament on 9 June, 1975, failed to remove the contradictions in the government's development aid policy. What are these contradictions?*

— After we had introduced our development strategy to the public, Herr Bahr presented his twenty-five points, some of which bear great similarity to CDU thinking. Some ideas, such as that of differen-



Cartoon from
Deutsches Allgemeines Sonntagsblatt
no. 33 from 17 August 1975.

tiated interest rates for the loans we grant, have been taken over word for word. On some points he has adopted the CDU position. However, in doing so he has made them ambiguous so as to give him the opportunity to say when it comes to the point "but that was not what I meant". Although much has been taken over from us—as can easily be proved by comparing our approach and ideas with his points (which postdate ours)—one criticism of the twenty-five points is that the statements they contain are still open to too many interpretations. Another criticism is

that he has not removed the contradictions, and here we draw particular attention to the following one. On the one hand, Herr Bahr attempts to create the impression that he has devised a new development policy, a new strategy. This is directed at Germany's middle-class voters. On the other, with a glance in the direction of the voters of the Left and his own party, he says that Dr Eppler's doctrine is still valid, or at least that Dr Eppler's concept still applies. Both cannot be true. This contradiction, of Eppler's concept still applying and Bahr having a new one, has not been removed. We have repeatedly asked him what the differences are but have never received a specific answer. The answer we were finally given in reply to a question in parliament as to what precisely were the differences between Eppler and himself—since there must be differences if, as he says, he has a new strategy—was, "es gilt der Grundsatz der Kontinuität und Konzentration" (the guiding principle is continuity and concentration). So far I have not found anyone who can make anything of that sentence or who can show me on the strength of it what the difference between Eppler and Bahr is. The contradiction permanently embodied in Bahr's concept is that the Left is under the impression that Eppler is still valid, while the Centre is under the impression that Eppler is no longer valid.

► *What do you think of the triangular cooperation policy propounded by Egon Bahr in the twenty-five points of 9 June?*

— Of course it would be very nice if the oil-exporting countries were to finance German development projects and all we had to do in future was to make our know-how available. Of course it would be very pleasing if we could in future operate a system of development aid without needing the finance minister and if the famous recycling of oil money to the industrial countries could be achieved by the oil-exporting countries ploughing their vast resources into three-way projects. But there is no question of any of this happening. There will no doubt be cases of triangular cooperation on a small scale in the future, and we have no objections as long as the possibility of a boycott is eliminated and we do not have to participate in a boycott directed against Israel. We would even welcome it if the odd triangular pro-

ject was successful. However, one thing is already obvious—the importance of triangular cooperation will remain marginal. No oil-producing country is prepared to finance projects of the type Herr Bahr envisaged in the Sudan, for instance, where a land project involving between DM 10 000 and 12 000 million was planned. To give an example, the German envoys who tabled this proposal in Kuwait, and asked whether Kuwait wished to make a financial contribution to a project involving a sum of this order, merely received an uncomprehending shake of the head in reply. No large sums will be spent on triangular cooperation. That is the first point.

The second is that nearly all the oil-producing countries have so far indicated that they would possibly be prepared to cooperate on projects in which the Federal Republic was also financially involved. But this is old hat. It is called parallel or joint financing, in other words a system under which we would have to contribute extra backing and which therefore cannot be said to constitute “development aid without the intervention of the finance minister” or “recycling”. If we have to give Saudi Arabia one mark in order to get one mark out of Saudi Arabia, in other words if we have to participate in these projects to the tune of 50%, this can no longer be said to constitute “recycling”. I believe Herr Bahr has vastly overestimated the importance of triangular cooperation. We have no objection to it—other than the matter of boycott—but it does not solve any of our basic financing problems. On 16 September we debated the question of a 15% reduction in the development aid budget, amongst other things. I would be very happy for Herr Bahr if he could come up with one oil-producing country that was prepared to make the 15% we are now cutting available to us for financing development projects in the Third World.

► *What, then, are the basic differences between the guidelines laid down by your party and those of the SPD as regards co-operation and development aid?*

— This question covers similar ground to the first one.

1. The Social Democratic Government has no clear guiding principle underlying its policies on helping the developing countries in the fields of trade and devel-

opment. It simply approves or rejects a measure here and there—but there is no consistent guiding principle. We have produced one—the principle of an international social market economy. This will require many sacrifices on our part, but it does constitute the basis for a system. There is no comparable system.

2. The crucial difference lies in the fact that we want to concentrate German development aid of the traditional type on the poorest countries, of which there cannot be many more than 30. This clearly cannot be said of the SPD, with its plans for 20% of the aid going to the twenty-six poorest countries. There is also a great difference in our attitudes to private investment. The SPD is very reluctant to recognise the potential value of private investment, particularly for the Third World. We believe this potential to be very large. A large German company is in a position to invest thousands of millions of marks in a developing country whereas the best the Ministry of Development can do is provide sums in the region of 20, 40 or even 50 million, and often as little as 1 or 2 million.

And then, of course, there are a number of differences of detail as regards the technical assistance sector. For instance, we feel that the Ministry of Development should have at its disposal an entirely new arsenal of emergency aid whereby aid and experts could be sent instantly to the scene of a natural disaster, such as a famine. We feel there should be a kind of fire brigade in this ministry for high-speed operations. Nothing of the kind exists at present. Every time we have wanted to assist in dealing with the consequences of a disaster the Federal Republic has in practice been able to take action only after months of negotiations. And I could go on to enumerate many more differences. For instance, we also attach great importance to a bilateral population policy if this is what the developing country wants, whereas the government has so far undertaken this type of thing only on a multilateral basis. But these are details. I feel that principles are more important, and these are very clear if one is prepared to think in terms of overall organisation.

There is one last major difference to which I would like to draw attention. Whenever we demand that development aid should be concentrated on the Fourth World or make other demands, the government always replies “but that is part of our way of thinking too”. Unfortunately,

this sidesteps the issue. We judge the government by its actions, not by its concepts. Any government must accept that it will be judged by its deeds, not by its concepts, just as one day when the opposition returns to power it will have to accept that it will be judged on its deeds. And if we compare the actions of the present government with our concepts and programme, enormous differences emerge. However, there are many fields where our programmes adopt the same approach. That is making things rather too easy for the government, though. We cannot help the developing countries with words, and programmes will never alleviate famine in the Third and Fourth Worlds.

► *The view of the CDU/CSU is that world trade should be extensively liberalised. Many world markets are dominated by multinational companies which have a virtual monopoly and disturb the smooth functioning of a liberal economic order. Is it not the case that liberalising world trade would contribute to further deterioration in the developing countries' terms of trade and increase the poverty of those countries, widening the gap between them and the industrialised countries?*

— I do not think so, otherwise the developing countries would hardly be demanding the liberalisation of the markets, and the industrialised countries would not be objecting to the opening-up of their markets, with such vehemence on both sides. Developing countries benefit greatly from the liberalisation of markets. The countries of the Third World—particularly the more developed ones—would in many cases much prefer to be able to sell their products in Europe rather than receive development loans. As regards the question of multinational companies, there are certainly some aspects of international law on cartels that still need to be altered or improved so that the international companies which are in a position to make a significant contribution towards the developing countries are prevented from doing things that national companies—for example in Germany—cannot do under our Cartels Law.

► *The former minister, Dr Eppler, believed that a long-term development policy must be a policy for peace and should not be sub-*

ject to the short-term requirements of foreign policy. Egon Bahr emphasises the Federal Republic's own interests in the matter and gives development aid a very important role to play in the country's overall foreign policy. How do you see the relationship between the Federal Republic's development and foreign policies?

— During Eppler's term of office we noted that he created too much of a gap between development policy, including the work of his ministry, and all other aspects of policy towards the developing countries. Therefore, in our strategy, and before Herr Bahr presented his twenty-five points, we demanded greater coordination between development policy and foreign policy and that both be slotted into the overall policy towards the developing countries. "Slotting in" does not mean "being subordinated to" but that each aspect has its own independent status. However, both must be moving in step and in the same direction. We have the same problem in economic policy. There is no point in granting Argentina a development loan of DM 100 million only to put a ban on all beef imports, thereby doing serious economic harm to the country. This is a case of development aid working policy. When, at a press conference four or five days prior to publication of the twenty-five points, we expressly repeated our demand, Bahr finally replied by stating in his points (as I mentioned earlier) that development policy should be integrated in the overall policy. This is also our view. On this point, at least as far as the programme is concerned, our respective positions have come closer. Bahr has come into line with us. In the next few months we shall have to see whether he holds the same views as us in practice.

► *Do you feel that the Lomé Convention between the European Community and the ACP countries is one way through which Europe can play its "economic and spiritual role" vis-à-vis the Third World?*

— I am very happy with the Lomé Convention as a whole. However, there is one point we regard as not particularly useful and that is the method of stabilising export earnings adopted in the convention. There are much more efficient formulae which give greater benefit to the developing countries, and some were under discus-

sion at the seventh special session of the U.N. I appreciate the great significance of the convention, but at the same time I feel there is a small weakness in the formula chosen for the stabilisation of export earnings. I would like to emphasise that we are in favour of stabilising export earnings, but that we feel that the formula embodied in the Lomé Convention is not the best.

► *How effective do you think the operations of the European Development Fund are?*

— Very! But we feel that this type of fund, and particularly the European Development Fund, should be subject to stricter controls. This is a problem we will have to solve in the months and years to come. As we establish European development aid and policy institutions we must obviously also set up supervisory bodies to ensure that the funds are really put to effective use. Otherwise we shall never succeed in winning over the population of Germany, France or the United Kingdom to this policy.

► *The SPD view is that a significant rise in the prices of raw materials would aggravate the recession in Europe and the United States. Their argument is that this would simply do even more damage to the Third World countries. What do you think of this view, and what is your objection to the system of stabilisation of export earnings from which the producer countries are to benefit under the ACP-CEE Lomé Convention?*

— I believe that a significant rise in the prices of raw materials would aggravate the recession in the industrialised countries and that this could have repercussions on development policy. But I have no objection to a rise in raw material prices as long as this is the result of the functioning of the free market, that is of heavy demand and the ratio of supply to demand. Naturally, as supporters of a free social market economy we cannot object to this. I have already stated my position on the stabilisation of export earnings, and I also welcome efforts to stabilise earnings on raw materials. But we should try to find the best formula—and this should not be

RAUL PREBISCH

former UNCTAD Secretary General

"Don't blame the oil-producing countries"

Among those attending the September CDU Congress in Bonn on cooperation and development aid was the former Secretary General of UNCTAD (*). This gave us an opportunity to ask him what he thought of the present international economic crisis and, in the first instance, what would be the real consequences of the higher prices for oil for the producing countries themselves and for the Third World as a whole.

According to Dr Prebisch, the countries of the Third World, including the oil producers, were already in a "very serious" position before the rise in energy costs. It is therefore misleading to talk solely about the rise in these costs in appraising the consequences on the development of the Third World. The rise in the price of oil was no more than an aggravating factor in a state of things which already existed and cannot be regarded as the cause. In this connexion, Dr Prebisch emphasised the "necessity for setting up machinery for emergency financial aid to countries most affected by the present crisis", especially now that the UNO emergency plan has come to an end and there is no other to take its place.

The rise in prices for energy was followed by worsening inflation and economic recession. But would it have been possible in any case for the producing countries to avoid this sudden jump in prices, and what might have been the position of the industrial countries which are consumers?

(*) United Nations Conference on Trade and Development.

(See page 12)



UN General Assembly special session on raw materials in New York (l to r: Kurt Waldheim, UN Secretary General; Herr Genscher, Federal German Foreign Minister; Erik Suy, Belgian representative).

Dr Prebisch thinks the trade relations between the non-industrial and the industrial countries were bound to grow worse in any case because, he said, oil prices "has suffered for a full 20 years from the continued rise in the prices of manufactured goods from industrial countries". This meant that the terms of trade were growing unfavourable to raw material producers and the market mechanisms did not suffice to put things right. Had the crisis come 20 years ago, Dr Prebisch said, the industrial countries would have been better able to tolerate it and put it right. The main cause for the apparent crisis, he continued, is therefore "the absence of any policy in regard to basic products among the industrial countries". There is no point, therefore, in "levelling accusations against the oil-producing countries". The low prices of the last 20 years encouraged an "absurd technology" and it was quite wrong to rely on oil as the sole source of energy for all the economic and technological development. The countries producing oil, and those which hope to produce it in the future, will make the same discovery if they found their hopes of

technological and economic progress entirely on energy derived from oil.

The former UNCTAD Secretary General is still deeply concerned about the liberalisation of international trade between the underdeveloped and the industrial countries. He thinks, however, that satisfactory liberalisation cannot be achieved without "adjusting the present structure" of international relations. In this connexion he is thinking in terms of an international redistribution of tasks, such as Sweden has carried out for the textile industry, calculated to make the Third World countries exporters of the finished goods and not only of raw materials. He envisages a new international division of labour in which industrial countries will be able to concentrate on developing their technological exports instead of exporting all along the line.

Dr Prebisch considers the Lomé Convention to be "a substantial step forward" and that parts of it, such as the stabilisation of ACP export receipts, "might well be applied to other countries of the Third World". Such a convention between nine countries of Europe and 46 countries of the ACP is, Dr Prebisch added "a contribu-

tion to the new world economic order". Combining it with the proposals of US Secretary of State Kissinger at the UN development conference, it should be possible to arrive at a satisfactory trading system within a few years. Among the Kissinger proposals were the formation of at least six new international organisations for aid or economic cooperation. They would include machinery for security guarantees in development under IMF auspices; an international investment fund administered by the International Finance Corporation; an international energy institute; an international institute for industrialisation; exchange of technological information; and an international fund for agricultural development (to which the US would contribute \$200 million).

Dr Prebisch also spoke of the future of UNCTAD, the meetings of which have so far been at best only partly successful. He thinks, he says, the organisation has inherent merits, for ideas it has been sponsoring for some years are now accepted by everybody and comprise the main features in the Kissinger proposals for a new international economic order. ■ L.P.

Interview: Todenhöfer

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one that consolidates outmoded single-product economies, but one that will promote diversification of the economy of individual developing countries. For the rest, I would like to draw attention to a point that has so far been largely left out of account. It is now often advocated that only the poorest of the Fourth World countries should benefit from the stabilisation of export earnings. That sounds very appealing, but what it really means is that the industrialised countries would not have to provide any funds since most of the Fourth World countries have just about nothing to export and therefore cannot suffer from fluctuations in export earnings. Here the developing countries must not allow themselves to be taken for a ride by the industrialised countries.

► *Dr Todenhöfer, observers of the German political scene forecast a great future*

for you. If the CDU/CSU return to power, what should be the Federal Republic's attitude to the new world economic order called for not only by the Third World but also by some leading Europeans such as Claude Cheysson of the European Commission?

— I have had talks with several leading politicians of the developing countries, including ministers for internal affairs and development, and have told them this: like you, I feel that social and economic underdevelopment is one of the worst insults to human dignity on this earth and that we must recognise that rapid social and economic progress in developing countries must be our aim. In other words, I have told the politicians of the developing countries that I fully accept their aims. The second thing I have told them is that if we are agreed on this aim, and if we both want to strive towards it, we must get down to discussing ways and means now. I think you will agree that there is always more than one way of reaching a goal and that there are also wrong ways of achieving

one's aims. I regard liberalising world trade, opening up the markets of the industrialised countries and helping the developing countries to become integrated in the world economy through such devices as preferences and the stabilisation of export earnings as better than the partly rather "dirigistic" solutions of the new world economic order. Herr Genscher, the Minister for Foreign Affairs, adopted a similar position at the UN and it is one which I welcome on the whole. I have noticed that if one recognises their aims and convinces them of one's sincerity in doing so, most of the leading politicians of the developing countries are prepared to discuss ways and means. The alternative to a dirigistic world economic order is one which is truly liberal (the system we have at present is not yet liberal since the markets are largely closed to the developing countries) and also socially just. I believe this is the better way in the long run. ■

Interview by
LUCIEN PAGNI

After the United Nations special session on development

The special session of the UN General Assembly on development and economic cooperation, held in New York in September 1975, reiterated the undertaking of industrial countries to make 0.7% of their GNP the target amount of the public contribution of the wealthy nations to the progress of the poorer ones during the second development decade.

According to Herr Roser, regional C.D.U. spokesman in the Bundestag on development questions, this decision is full of potential consequences for the German Federal Republic. It means,

he said, that Germany must undertake to give effective public aid of 0.7% of her GNP, whereas the Federal budget for 1975 provides only DM 3 000 million for this year, or 0.31% of the GNP. Herr Roser was present as an observer at the New York meeting and he pointed out that the Federal Finance Act for 1976 budgets for a decrease of DM 500 million compared with 1975. In the medium term, he said, public aid from West Germany will only be 0.25% of GNP when the development decade comes to an end in 1980. ■



Federal German Foreign Minister
Genscher in New York

The German position was in line with the resolutions adopted by the UN special session.

The Community's end-of-term report on development aid

The Commission has now drawn up the 1975 version of its annual memorandum on development aid and aid policy, for submission to the Development Aid Committee of the OECD. The introduction, reprinted below, is

a summary of Community policy developments in 1974 and the first half of 1975. It was a period of much initiative, many new ideas and positive achievement.

There were important developments in Community cooperation policy during 1974 and the first half of 1975. As usual, the sources of the aid were the European Development Fund, the Community budget and the European Investment Bank. Record amounts were promised and distributed, and new concepts and tendencies began to take shape.

1. Outside the normal forms of cooperation, there were in 1974 two exceptional commitments. One of these was for financial aid from the Community budget for the seven drought-hit Sahel countries, including Ethiopia, which was not then an EEC Associate. The other followed a Community appeal on behalf of the countries most affected by the rise in international prices, and which was incorporated into the United Nations emergency scheme. The Community has put up a first instalment of this, and at the end of 1974 the whole of it was committed, though it had only been possible to pay out less than two-thirds of it. These two actions, combined with the Community's usual aid activities, led to an increase by about a half in the dollar value of the commitments and disbursements.

2. In more general terms, 1974 brought a new drive to the Community policy of

cooperation with developing countries, both Associates and others, and both on a regionalised and on a world basis.

Under the regionalised heading, negotiations had begun in Brussels in July 1973 between the EEC on the one hand and the ACP countries (Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific) on the other. These reached their culmination on February 28, 1975 in the signature at Lomé of the document now referred to as the Lomé Convention—EEC/ACP. It establishes a group of 55 countries, their total population of about 500 million almost equally divided between the European Community and the ACP. It is valuable as an example of a new way of solving the problems of underdevelopment. At a time of gathering international tension and the risk of disagreement and conflict, the Lomé Convention is standing evidence that the path of negotiation is still open, provided political determination, perseverance and imagination are not lacking.

3. The convention improves the decision-making processes and assigns more responsibility for the aid to those who are to have the benefit. The special features worth emphasis include the encouragement for regional cooperation schemes between ACP countries, the development of small and medium-sized firms, the exe-

cution of "micro-projects" in rural areas and the special treatment provided for the poorer countries in the allocation of financial and technical aid. But the special points distinguishing the Lomé Convention from its predecessors are the completely new provisions for the stabilisation of export receipts for basic products, and those relating to industrial cooperation. Another novelty is the non-reciprocity of the trade advantages granted by the Community to the ACP countries.

4. The Community has, at the same time, been carrying on with its global approach to the Mediterranean countries and continuing negotiations begun in 1972 and 1973 with the three Maghreb countries, Israel and Spain. Though considerable progress was made in all four negotiations, only those with Israel have yet been brought to a successful conclusion. The new EEC-Israel agreement was signed on May 11 and came into force on July 1, 1975. It provides for the reduction or elimination of customs duties on industrial goods and agricultural produce, and contains a number of other clauses aimed at facilitating commercial transactions and technological transfers and encouraging private investment. The agreement, how-

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Tunis: international symposium on relations between the EEC and the Maghreb and Machrek countries

Negotiations with Maghreb are test of new approach to development problems, says M. Cheysson.

The international conference in Tunis on relations between the EEC and the Maghreb and Machrek countries was not an occasion for negotiation. This was made quite clear, both in Brussels and in Tunis, where it was emphasised that the negotiations must necessarily follow their normal course. The conference was, however, given a sharper point through the presence of Claude Cheysson, the EEC Commissioner primarily in charge of these negotiations. They are already in process with Morocco, Tunisia and Algeria and they are envisaged in the early future with Egypt, Lebanon, Syria and Jordan.

The conference was organised by the Tunisian Socialist Party and the German Friedrich Ebert Foundation. It gained added significance from the fact that the chairman was Tunisian Premier Hedi Nouira and the conference was attended by a number of other important political personalities from the Arab world. The relations between the EEC and these two groups of countries, M. Cheysson said, must be viewed in the general context of the "new international economic order" and the new policy for developing the Third World. The Mediterranean area, in his view, will be a specially fertile nursery

for this new order. Geographically it lies between the industrial countries and the developing countries; between it and continental Europe there are a great number of links of history, culture and human endeavour; the economies are closely interdependent. The European countries are "irreplaceable partners" for the Arab countries and the others on the southern side of the Mediterranean; but they must accept the structural changes and the internal sacrifices needed to consolidate their economic relations with their southern neighbours. Europe possesses a market and a fund of technology well able to satisfy the needs of the Arab world.

In several cases and in several forms, M. Cheysson said, dialogue is already open with a view to setting up and developing the new relationships. Results can be seen in the Lomé Convention, which has Arab countries among its participants, in association agreements or trade agreements between the EEC and Mediterranean countries, in the Euro-Arab discussions, in the bilateral relations between European and Mediterranean countries. The political motivation of the links already established, and those to be set up in the future, has been recognised and confirmed on a number of occasions by both sides.

The success of the negotiation between the EEC and the Maghreb countries will be the fundamental test for the establishment of the new relations. In M. Cheysson's view, the aim has got to be an integration

of the economies, and this will make it indispensable to set up a new division of labour. The move towards this is noted with satisfaction by the Commission; but, seen from inside Europe, its impact on existing structures will be considerable. The fact has got to be faced courageously that a number of European productions will have to be stopped or reduced just as they are booming. Any attempt to ignore this will set up just such strains as we lately had to face through the competition between agricultural produce from the southern Mediterranean and the corresponding produce in Community countries. A quick glance at the agricultural production potential in the Mediterranean area, M. Cheysson claims, shows remarkable possibilities for developing lines of production which will replace imports from outside the Euro-Arab world.

Courage and resolution are needed, the development Commissioner said. The problems must be considered well in advance so that there can be proper planning at both ends.

Both political bodies and trade unions will have an important job to do, he went on. Every sector will be under new pressures but at the same time will find new opportunities in the changed relations with the Third World. It is imperative that every representative element among the peoples should be associated in working out the policies and in their implementation. On the political side, the parliaments and parties in Europe and the Arab countries will have to discuss these matters with one another. The business community plays so vital a part in Europe's economic life that its members must talk things over with both public and private counterparts in the countries associated with the Community. The trade unions will have to play their part in the changes which are now occurring, lest the benefit accrue exclusively to a few big firms and the workers are left to foot the bill. ■

Two Moroccan political leaders share their anxieties

Rabat, summer 1975 • The negotiations between the EEC and the Maghreb countries have had some difficult passages. "The Courier" asked Belgian journalist and film writer Thierry Laurent for the views of two political leaders in Morocco: Maître Boucetta, Chairman of the Istiqlal (National Independence Party founded in 1934), and Maître Bouabid, Chairman of the USFP (the Socialist Union of the Popular Forces). These interviews took place as the negotiations were going through a singularly difficult phase.

First question: the overall position of the Maghreb countries on future relations with the EEC.

Maître Boucetta Chairman of the Istiqlal

— The Maghreb's attitude to Europe is becoming gradually clearer, and in my opinion it ought to be made much clearer. The first basic fact is that until very recently the Maghreb was under European domination. The second is that Europe is our nearest neighbour. Our relations must therefore exclude any thought of political domination. We have got to talk on an equal footing.

► *This autumn, in principle, the EEC is to resume its negotiations with Morocco and the other two Maghreb countries. These have run through a number of difficult phases. What were the reasons for disagreement and what is to be hoped from the negotiations?*

— There have been several critical phases. I cannot give the technical details that have stood in the way of these agreements, but I want to stress that a number of fundamental choices have got to be made and there has got to be real cooperation. By this I mean there must be a willingness to respect the interests of the other party and not to concentrate upon one's own. For example, when the Moroccan farmers have bumper crops of, say, olives or citrus fruit in a year when some of the European countries have a surplus of the same produce, the Europeans are apt to forget the relations they are trying to build up with Morocco and the Maghreb countries. They do this just at the time when these relations should be remembered, for they ought to realise that we can't be expected to throw our produce into the sea simply because Italy, or some other Community country, happens to be able to cover all Europe's requirements. It is specifically in these years of abundance that one should think of one's partners and what is to be done to find an outlet for their crops.

This is the general way people are thinking here. If this kind of attitude is to be found in the present negotiations, it means that each side will appreciate the interests of the other and the negotiations may be successful.

► *Do you think the recent agreement between the EEC and Israel will have made the EEC-Maghreb negotiation more difficult?*

— The underlying ideas in the recent agreement tend to strengthen Israel in some of her attitudes. This is not the way to seek solutions which shall be just to the countries of the Middle East.

I am not clear about the immediate impact of the agreement, but since you ask I would say it will not ease or strengthen relations between the Arab countries and Europe.

► This autumn the EEC is to resume its negotiations with Morocco and the other two Maghreb countries. These negotiations have been through some difficult patches...

Maître Bouabid Chairman of the USFP

— There are certainly lots of problems between Morocco and the EEC. The Community has problems of its own, too. We are well aware of this, but we have never really believed in a lasting association between the Maghreb and the EEC in the present form. This is because there are various interests which are not in harmony, especially in matters of agriculture. The Treaty of Rome makes it clear that the EEC is planned for self-sufficiency in farm produce, and outside countries—including the Associates—are simply to fill up the gaps. You cannot make an association treaty when the market you are offered may be fully or partly cut off by very strict, and very protectionist, measures which affect our fisheries products and our processed farm produce. We cannot sell our fruit juices, we cannot sell our canned fruit and vegetables. This means we cannot process our own raw materials. Some other formula has got to be found. There must be a better balance in whatever formula we find. I hope the new round of negotiations can produce a compromise, but it does not seem likely to last long. The EEC must first decide what is its own real policy. We ourselves must also make up our minds what kind of lasting relationship we can have with the EEC, more especially for farm produce and industrial goods, especially the processed or treated produce, the trade in which is absolutely essential for us.

► *Do you think the recent agreement between the EEC and Israel will make the EEC-Maghreb negotiations more difficult?*

— I don't think the EEC can make the same concessions to the Maghreb that it has made to Israel, because Israel is a competitor with the Maghreb exports. Behind this, of course, there are political

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International Women's Year, what for?



Pamela Johnson - World Bank — Reproduced from "Le Courrier de l'UNESCO"

It was a bright idea of the United Nations that 1975 should be International Women's Year. It was their opportunity of showing their interest in the liberation not only of peoples, but of people. Yet what good purpose was served by this women's year?

A fortnight was set aside for the International Women's Year World Conference, from June 19 to July 2 in Mexico. Unfortunately it attracted little attention in the press, though surely the European press and TV could have focussed much public interest upon so clearly important an event. Moreover, there was much about it that was rather unusual, for it was attended by seven or eight thousand women, including nearly 3 000 representatives of the 133 countries which had been invited.

When the United Nations launched the Women's Year project, it chose three "feminist" themes for the discussions—equality, the integration of women in economic development and the promotion of peace. All of these were to be discussed in Mexico. The UN Secretary General, Mr Kurt Waldheim, opened the conference with a renewed condemnation of sex discrimination. "If we are to tackle the formidable economic and social problems which lie before us", he said, "we cannot afford to throw aside the talent, experience and wisdom of half the inhabitants of our planet".

Unhappily the results of the Mexico meeting fell some way below expectations. The developing countries found it necessary to link the promotion of womanhood, as they had every right to do, with the establishment of a new world economic order and the adoption of resolutions against race discrimination, apartheid, colonialism, neo-colonialism and the rest. The wealthy countries confronted one another from behind the social and political barriers which separate east and west. Marie-Pierre Herzog (*) recounts the sorrowful paradox that the warriors were the women themselves,

(*) Director of the Peace and Rights of Man division at UNESCO; "Le Nouvel Observateur", July 21, 1975.

eloquently cutting off their own noses to spite their faces. With all this, she asked, how can one be a feminist these days?

Her question is a pointed one, for the liberation of women is not summarised in any slogan or in any series of resolutions duly adopted at international conferences and not yet implemented by State governments.

Helvi Sipilä, Secretary General for the United Nations of the International Women's Year, has no illusions about this. In an address to one of the warring groups of the Mexico battlefield, she said: "It is for you to take action with your own political pressure groups, your municipalities, your trade unions. The United Nations cannot change your laws or your education systems nor your planning policies". The UN can do no more than be a stimulus to action and support action taken on national solutions of specific problems. These affect all women in one way or another, but they have a way of differing greatly between different types of civilisation at different degrees of industrial development.

In Africa the problem of equality of status, or the integration of women into economic development, are not really the key problems of womanhood. According to Thelma Awori, the Liberian sociologist, "this equality of rights so loudly insisted upon would not bring solutions to all the problems facing African womanhood. And it has still to be proved that equality of rights has ever been the real solution for any group of oppressed people anywhere in the world. It would be more worthwhile to see what are indeed the problems facing the women of Africa. Only when we have done this can anybody put forward a real solution" (1). In theory, equality is not enough, Thelma Awori continues, "for the first thing is to find a fresh definition of the role of man in our changing societies".

Supposing the role of man needs a fresh definition; as well as this, and most important of all, we have to set a new value on the function of motherhood and the economic part which women play and which seems nowadays more of a handicap than a stimulus to liberation and equal rights. For, when all is said, the problem of liberation for women in non-industrial African society depends primarily on the importance assigned to the social role they play as mothers and as those in charge of the household. ■

L.P.

"We want true economic and social liberation"

Rachel Lubondo Mavakala (Zaire)



R. Heiderscheid

The fight for women's liberation is being fought on a number of fronts. There are especially so many women who do not want to be rebels or angry protest marchers, but whose daily life is beset with difficulties simply because they are women. We asked an African in Brussels to give us her impressions of International Women's Year. She is Madame Mavakala from Zaire, married with children aged 10 and 8 and working as a secretary.

— I thought International Women's Year was a most interesting initiative by the United Nations. I feel the UNO wanted to let people see how interested it is in the emancipation of women.

► *The UN laid down three discussion themes—equality, the integration of women in economic development and the promotion of peace. For the women of Africa, do these themes embody the essentials of their claims for liberation?*

— In theory, yes, in practice, no. Equality cannot be the result of liberation, but it is the condition without which liberation cannot exist. Unless and until people see it this way, equality is and will remain out of reach. We have an example in the Universal Declaration of the Rights of Man, which specifically makes out that everybody is free and equal. Yet you know as well as I do that there are millions of men and women who are neither equal nor free because of the colour of their skin or their standing in society. I don't know what you mean by integrating women into economic development. The women of Africa are already well and truly part of the type of development which is going on there. I need hardly remind you that this is essentially agricultural, and women contribute a very large share—practically the whole—of some of the agricultural work, which is the rock on which any sound industrial development must have its foundations. This is additional to the duties of motherhood and child-rearing, for which they are demanding improved social security. I do not think the women of Africa would wish to be drawn into an indiscriminate process of development; but I think they would like to play an active part in giving it a new meaning, restating its purpose and its ultimate aim. You could hardly say women would be securing their liberation by simply making themselves part of an economic growth process, the very nature of which tends to keep women out rather than to bring them in. This is what really matters. It is the condition, too, for promoting an enduring peace, which will follow as a matter of course.

► *So how can African women be feminists nowadays?*

— Easily enough, though in reality it is pretty difficult. To begin with, it's a ques-

(1) *Courrier de l'UNESCO*, March 1975.

tion of politics, or rather of social and economic organisation. Teaching and education for girls and boys has got to be developed without discrimination, and we should put an end to the separate boy's schools and girl's schools, with only a very few exceptions. We should encourage girls from childhood to look forward to careers and professions which have until now been kept for men. Teaching and administration should be decentralised and we should thus promote the occupational training of women and their trade union loyalties. This would enable girls, who are usually less well provided with money than the boys, to find training courses nearby instead of having to go into the towns, where they are so much more likely than the boys to run into difficulties. There should be better information from which they can develop their personality and pick up a sense of responsibility. All this should be easy enough, because society in Africa is flexible, changing and still malleable. This is a vital point if we could use it to think out a new form of civilisation, more human and more humane.

► *There are quite a number of African women today who have risen to become ministers and to hold other responsible positions. Do you think their example may be an inducement to women to go on fighting for their liberation?*

— This is not easy to answer. Personally I am not a great believer in a spirit of emulation, which consists of wanting to become a minister or the director of some official organisation. In the first place these are political jobs and appointment to them often depends on influence and favour. Secondly, even if you were to reserve many more ministerial jobs for women, I do not think many African women would feel they had been liberated as a result. Women's liberation is not a single stroke of the pen or a brief moment's occupation for the top officers of State. When President Echeverria spoke at the opening of the International Women's Year world conference in Mexico, he was at pains to warn women against "continued approaches to the feminist movement by influences which would keep the benefit for women in the more favoured categories".

► *One further question. Do you think women's liberation is a reality or a piece of humbug?*



R. Heiderscheid

Women cannot be liberated "by simply making themselves part of an economic growth process".

— I am sincerely convinced that it is a reality. All over the world women are waking up and insisting more and more upon this freedom, though the way they demand it may or may not be to our taste. The awakening, or the greater awareness among the women, is very much more important than the methods. The problems of women's lib differ radically in different civilisations and at different degrees of industrial development. We, the women of Africa, must make our freedom more consistent with the fulfilment of our feminine personality. We must seek, in the far-reaching changes in our social systems, a true liberation in our social, economic and political status, but one which does not destroy the basic values of our civilisation. Unlike some of the women's lib movements in Europe and America we shall still have to fulfill the role nature and society require, as wives, mothers and equal partners with men in the exercise of effective rights in economic and political life. Otherwise we shall fall victims to that false equality found in industrial social systems, in which women think they are free but, like their sisters in the United States and elsewhere, always find they've got the thin end of the wedge and have no way of taking effective action. ■

Interview by L.P.

International Women's Year 1975

A number of major meetings and conferences on the effective integration of women into economic development were scheduled for this year.

In Paris, on the first three days of March, international discussion days were held under the auspices of the French Secretary of State for Womens' Affairs. This brought together "women from European countries, French-speaking countries and from all other countries, who have governmental responsibilities or responsible jobs in political, economic, social or cultural life".

In Mexico the United Nations held their World Conference (June 19-July 2) which was intended to lay down the main lines of action for the benefit of women during the years ahead.

At Lomé (Togo) the World Federation of Twinned Towns and United Cities organised a world inter-municipal conference on July 27-31 to discuss "the promotion of women in municipal employment".

In East Berlin the Federation of Democratic Women organised a meeting on October 20-24 of all religious and charitable women's organisations.

Throughout the world October 24 was Women's Day.

In Madagascar a congress will be held in November of the Womens' Associations of the Indian Ocean, bringing together those from Réunion, the Comores, the Seychelles and Mauritius.

TWO MOROCCAN POLITICAL LEADERS

(from page 15)

considerations and these are very serious. The members of the Community have got to decide for themselves whether economic considerations condition the political ones or the reverse.

In any case there can be no doubt whatever about the goodwill of the Maghreb countries. We have a flow of trade which is traditional and much more important than what Israel has just set up with the EEC. It remains to be seen whether the European Community intends to turn its back on what has for generations been a traditional trade. If it should do so, we would be forced to draw our own conclusions. We have got to sell what we produce, so that we may buy our equipment and continue the struggle against underdevelopment. ■

Interview by
T. LAURENT

Somalia, crossroads of Africa and the Arab world

Interview: Omar Giama, Ambassador of Somalia

► *Mr Giama, Somalia has a conspicuous position, further east than most of the Arab countries on the Indian Ocean coast. Do you see your country as playing a role linking Arab and black African countries?*

— Yes, I would say that Somalia is in a special position to play this role. Somalia belongs both to the OAU and the Arab League and we have already started to play such a role in suggesting there must be a summit of the Heads of State and Government of both sides to discuss our mutual problems and sort out what sort of cooperation we could establish. This suggestion was accepted by the recent OAU summit meeting in Kampala, and it was proposed that the two Secretary Generals of the organisations should get together to establish a programme to prepare and convene such a meeting between the OAU and the Arab League. This is as far as we have gone up to now, but it is our determined wish that the two sides should get closer and establish very fruitful cooperation and greater understanding. We believe a lot could be done with the Arab financial resources in view of the development possibilities in Africa,

► *Somalia is a socialist republic with long traditions in Islamic law and culture. Have you found any fundamental difficulties in combining the new socialism with the old traditions?*

— Let me say first what we consider socialism to be. It is a science which can be developed according to the realities and requirements of each country. It is not something which you can copy and transplant into a different country. The socialist system has to have its own →

Omar Giama and Claude Cheysson

The occasion is a grant of emergency aid from the EDF to the Democratic Somali Republic.



EEC

application in accordance with the traditions in each country that adopts it. Because of this, we introduced for the first time in socialism the policy that there should be no contradiction between religion and socialism. What hinders the application of socialism in many countries, I think, is that it faces obstacles rooted in the people, so that it cannot get through. We say there must be reconciliation between the two: a man can be a socialist and also a believer in a religion. I think we have been successful, and it may be a lesson in the future to those countries and people who might decide to introduce socialism in the belief that it can go side by side with their religion.

► *On the constitutional side, I think Somalia is the only black African country where a civilian government has been voted out of office.*

— Of course, yes.

► *Somalia was very badly hit by the recent drought. In the 1971-73 development programme, as you told the "Courier" two years ago, the government allocated 12% of the budget to developing water resources. What is the situation now?*

— The development plan probably allocated more than that to water resources. Increased efforts have been made in this area, because when the drought devastated the country we came to the conclusion that in certain areas, where there was still some possibility of grazing, water development was essential both for the people and for the cattle. Additional efforts have also been made to develop water resources for agriculture and livestock raising. So the total percentage of the budget devoted to developing water resources is now much greater than was stated in the development plan.

► *More than half the Somali population is nomadic. This might make administration more difficult, although you do have the advantage of an ethnically homogeneous population. Is there a programme to resettle the nomadic population and to diversify the stock-raising on which they and the country depend so much?*

— Yes, for quite some time the Somali

government has been embarking on a resettlement programme for the nomads. We have found it a bit difficult to come to the help of the nomads on the move; their search for water and grazing kept them away from the advantages of modern technology and development, and there has been a growing gap between the rural population, particularly the nomads, and the people in the cities. We started to deal with this problem by first embarking on a literacy campaign, which has been successful. We closed the schools for a year and sent out the students, teachers and veterinary staffs to the bush to help these people to learn to read and write the Somali language, which was introduced in 1972. This programme was on when the drought disaster broke, and with the help of these people who were already in the field we have successfully coped with the drought problems. We established relief camps, organised assistance and thanks to these people, I think Somalia has been more successful than any other country in coping with this disaster. We devoted all our resources to it and the most important thing was to have helpers out there teaching and instructing the population how to deal with their own problems.

In view of the scale of this disaster the government decided to take advantage of it to start a resettlement programme, which is still going on. For the first time in the history of resettlement problems, we in Somalia decided to resettle more than 200 000 people, in agricultural areas and in fishery areas along the coast. This programme is going perfectly. The idea is to convert these people into farmers and cattle-raisers, but sedentary, not moving any more from place to place in search of water and pasture.

► *Do you not see any danger in changing so rapidly a way of life that has been traditional for centuries?*

— I would not call it a question of danger but of difficulty. It is especially a psychological problem. It is not easy to make nomads adapt themselves to this sort of life. There must be some sort of persuasion — campaigning, pragmatic teaching and so on. We hope, with this system, that we may find the problem is easier than it looks.

► *Is there a programme to diversify agricultural production? You mentioned fisheries, for instance.*

— Yes. Somalia has realised that its future, with its presently known resources, will depend on the development of agriculture, the fisheries and livestock. These are our known resources for the time being. Every emphasis has been put on the development of these three sectors. Of course, this will require a lot of investment, manpower and know-how. But with our own tremendous efforts and with the help of friends we hope we will be able to achieve rapid development to cope with the essential daily problems of the people and the country.

► *Do you think the Lomé Convention can help you to do this?*

— It can help to solve some of the problems, but not all. There is considerable political will on the side of the Community to help us and we expect a lot from the convention.

► *A programming mission from the EEC Commission was recently in Somalia. What do you expect will be the first results of this contact?*

— The discussions between this mission and the Somali authorities were satisfactory but did fall short of our expectations as far as the global aid from the Community was concerned. Both sides know this.

► *In the long run, trade is perhaps the most important means to development. Up to now most of your exports have gone to Saudi Arabia. Do you think your trade pattern will change under the Lomé Convention?*

— No, I don't think there will be a radical change. Saudi Arabia has always been our traditional partner in trade, particularly as regards bananas, where the market has been developing very rapidly; we intend to develop the Saudi Arabian market further, but we also intend to keep and develop our share in the Community markets, particularly in Italy. So we don't see any contradiction in developing our trade relations with other developing countries, particularly in the Afri-

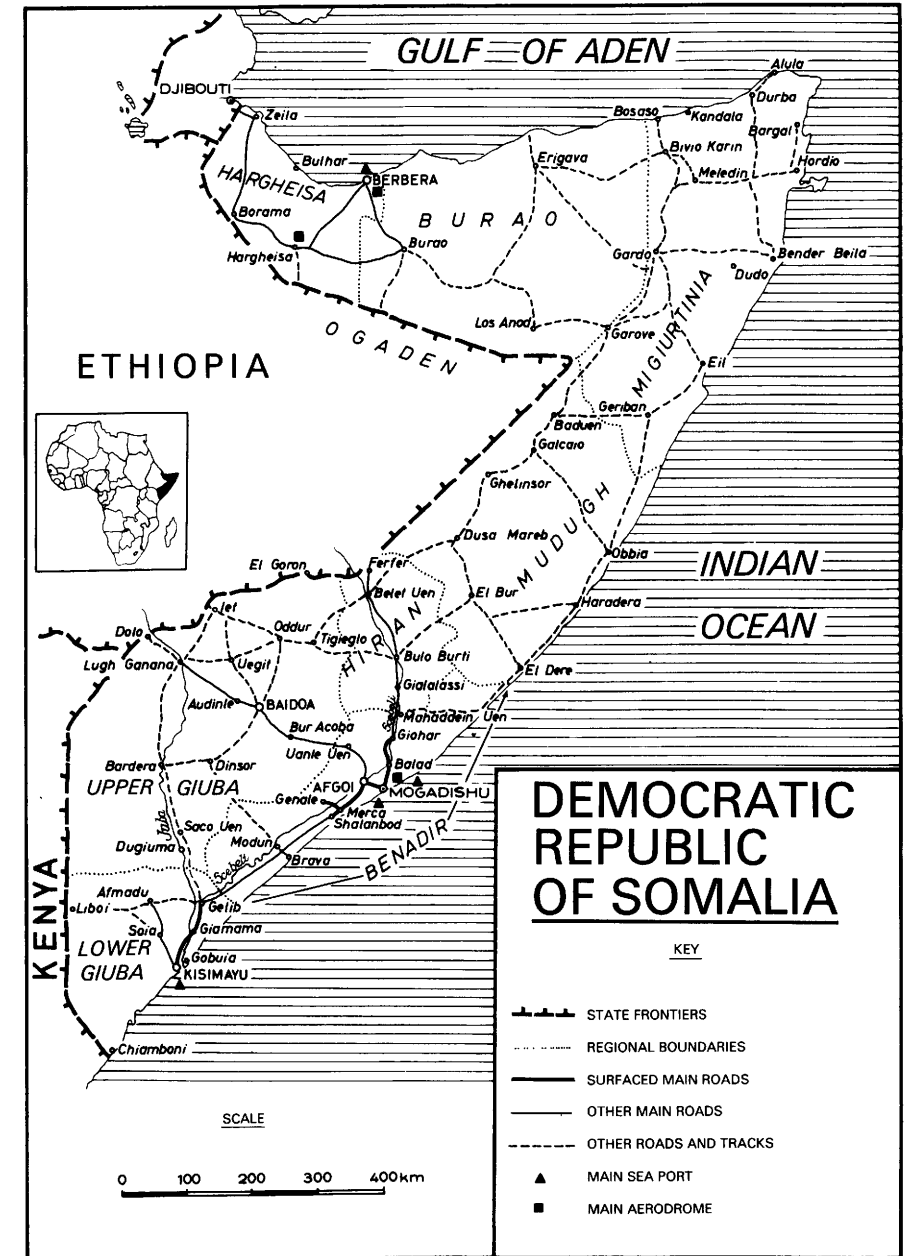
SOMALIA

The Somali Democratic Republic, commonly known as Somalia, lies on the easternmost tip of the African continent. It consists of a coastal plain stretching south-east from the Ethiopian highlands, and a chain of mountains which are the "horn of Africa". It covers an area of 637 657 sq. km and has 2 800 km of coastline, on the Gulf of Aden in the north and on the Indian Ocean in the south. Its land frontiers are with the Territory of the Afars and Issas in the north-west (about 70 km), Ethiopia in the west (about 1 500 km) and Kenya (about 600 km) in the south-west.

In these tropical latitudes the monsoon makes the country arid, or at best semi-arid, and the rainfall is irregular, small and differs much from region to region. Only with irrigation can the land be farmed, so that the population is mainly pastoral. It was estimated by the UN in 1973 at about 3 million and is remarkable for its homogeneity. All the people are of the Somali race with one language, one culture and one religion (Islam). The chief source of livelihood is nomadic stock-raising, in which about 60% of the population is engaged. The fact that they are nomadic means that the population figures can be no more than approximate. Only 19.8% of the population are town-dwellers and Mogadiscio, the capital, is the only town with a population of over 100 000.

Somalia became independent on July 1, 1960 and is now a unified State, the two parts of which—the former British Somaliland Protectorate in the north and the Italian ex-colony of Somaliland in the south—were formerly quite distinct. According to UN estimates the gross internal product in 1970 was 1 270 million somali shillings (*). The principal national

(*) 1 so. sh. = 0.133016 units of account as of January 1, 1974.



income is from livestock raising which accounted for 60% of exports in 1972-73, but suffered severely from the drought in 1974. The other main activity is subsistence agriculture. The external trade, which is mostly (over 50%) with Saudi Arabia, consists primarily of live-

stock products, followed by the export of fresh bananas which accounted (1973) for 25% of total exports.

Somalia is a member of ONU, the OAU and BAD, an Associate of the EEC and a member of the Arab League. ■



Northern Somalia landscape.

can and Arab world to which we belong, at the same time as developing our relations with the Community.

▶ *Your traditional banana market in Europe was in Italy. When the Suez Canal was closed in 1967 this made things difficult, but it is now opening again. Will this help you?*

— We hope so. We don't yet know what advantages there will be in the reduction of freight costs, but it is common sense that if the distance is halved, the freight charges will be lower, although in actual fact we don't know anything at the moment.

▶ *It has been suggested that perhaps the most important aspect of the Lomé Convention in the long term is not so much the development of relations between the ACP and the EEC but closer coordination among the ACP themselves. Do you agree with this?*

— Yes, certainly. Our ACP Council of Ministers met in Georgetown in June,

firstly to institutionalise the ACP as an international reality, but also to develop the relationship between the ACP themselves. One of the main objects of the Georgetown Agreement, which is now being ratified, is to develop relations among the ACP. Of course, the implementation of the Lomé Convention is one of the objectives, but the main objective is to strengthen the relationship between the member States of the group, to develop trade and economic relations between them and with other developing countries and particularly to enable them to play their own role in international forums in order to contribute to the idea of the new international economic order.

▶ *You are currently chairman of the ACP Committee of Ambassadors. Is this cooperation one of your preoccupations? And what do you think will come up at the ACP-EEC meeting in Fiji in the spring?*

— By then I shall no longer be chairman of the ACP ambassadors, but it is of course the preoccupation of every ACP

ambassador who is concerned with the implementation of the Lomé Convention. With regard to what we expect from the joint EEC-ACP ministerial meeting in Fiji, well, it's not much, because the Council is going to formalise what has happened in the past, particularly measures to implement the Lomé Convention, and rectify whatever mistakes may have been made. The joint Council of Ministers is expected to adopt certain measures, such as the financial regulations of the EDF, and to see to it that all the provisions in the convention have been correctly implemented by all parties concerned.

▶ *Do you think the convention will be fully off the ground by next spring?*

— As far as the ACP are concerned, I'm sure two-thirds of them will have signed by the end of the year; but I don't know if the EEC countries will have ratified by then. So it depends on the Europeans. ■

Interview by
BARNEY TRENCH

To our readers

This is to introduce a new feature. More than that, it is an invitation to write, not only to us but for us—to write from your own ideas, your own experience, your own interests, and to write for publication. The invitation is open to all our readers, especially those in Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific, but not excluding those in Europe, the United States, Latin America and elsewhere.

In our issue of June-July 1975 (No. 32) we asked readers what they thought of the review. Reply cards in French and English were sent out in the 30 000 copies of the two editions of the "Courier". We should like to say at the outset how gratified we have been to learn of so many readers' interest in our growth.

Now that we have digested these answers there are three points we have specially noted.

First, the "Courier" has built up a firm position for itself in the French-speaking ACP countries, is expanding fast in the English-speaking countries and definitely, though less rapidly, in the USA; and, since the Lomé Convention was signed last February, in Latin America.

Secondly, our readers are as diverse in their jobs, their age-groups and their general interest and background as they are in their physical distribution around the world.

Thirdly, our magazine has an important part to play, and is in fact playing it, in providing economic and social information and acting as a link between the ACP and the European Economic Community.

We had expected most of our readers to be town-dwellers, with their closeness to what is going on and their easier access to outside information. We are delighted to note that in many of the ACP the paper is finding its way up-country and is read among the rural population.

The reply cards, and our mailbag in general, also tell us of a very wide range of readership, from the school boy to the government minister, including high officials, university professors and their students, research workers, development institutes, all manner of organisations for promoting trade and other contacts between the ACP and the EEC, private firms and individuals, libraries, chambers of commerce and many others.

Our readers seem to agree in their appreciation of what we are doing as a source of information. This is shown in their answers to our question 4, asking their views on the contents of the magazine and its presentation. We shall, in this connexion, be redoubling our efforts to make the more technical subjects we cover (especially in the Dossier) more easily intelligible.

Most of the comment came in answer to question 5, in which we asked for suggestions. They fall into two groups.

The first group asks us to print more "outlines" of ACP countries (with maps), to include regular sport, leisure and cultural sections, and to publish the magazine every month instead of every two months. In actual fact these various sections of the paper already exist and we shall do our best to publish them on the lines our readers wish. Publication as a monthly magazine is a splendid idea, but it would cost too much. It would at least double all the administrative and editorial costs, as well as the printing and other operational outgoings. For the time being, we fear, we shall have to lay this suggestion aside.

The second group of readers asks for specific types of article. The subjects requested include popular science; stock-raising problems (breeding strains, diseases and sicknesses etc) in the ACP countries; coverage of the economic and monetary crisis and its impact on developing countries; aid distribution; exports from developing countries; general economic and business problems in the ACP. All these are suggestions of real interest to us and we shall be doing our best to act on them.

Among them is one which recurs in many of the reply cards, asking for a readers' forum, or "mailbag" feature. This has been in our minds for a long time. We have in fact published some of our reader's letters, but they did not criticise us much and there seemed little else to justify continuation. Now the suggestion comes from readers themselves, and this article is a positive response. It is only a partial one, however. As of now the feature is open. It is up to you, our readers—whoever and wherever you may be—to fill it.

We want to hear from any or all of our friends, the ones we know and the ones we don't (yet), if they have a criticism to make, an idea, an opinion which seems worth discussing—perhaps developed from something they read in the "Courier", or from current events—or a point of view on something relevant to development or to relations between the ACP and the EEC.

Please make your article short—two or three pages of typescript, in double spacing please. Send it to the Editor of the Courier (address as below), accompanied by a note of who you are and what you do, for a few lines in which we shall introduce you to your readers. A photo (small format for choice) is always welcome (write your name on the back, in capitals please). ■

Health

We scarcely need the reports of the World Health Organisation to tell us how sharp has been the fall in mortality rates in developing countries in recent years. The major epidemics (typhus, plague, yellow fever and cholera) have been pretty well brought under control, though recurrence is a possibility in some cases, particularly of cholera. On the other hand, the ease of present-day communications and the fact that inter-continental travel is within the reach of so many people has made quite a number of diseases very easy to export. An example of this is smallpox, with its very long incubation period, which despite the progress of recent years is still endemic in the Indian sub-continent, La-

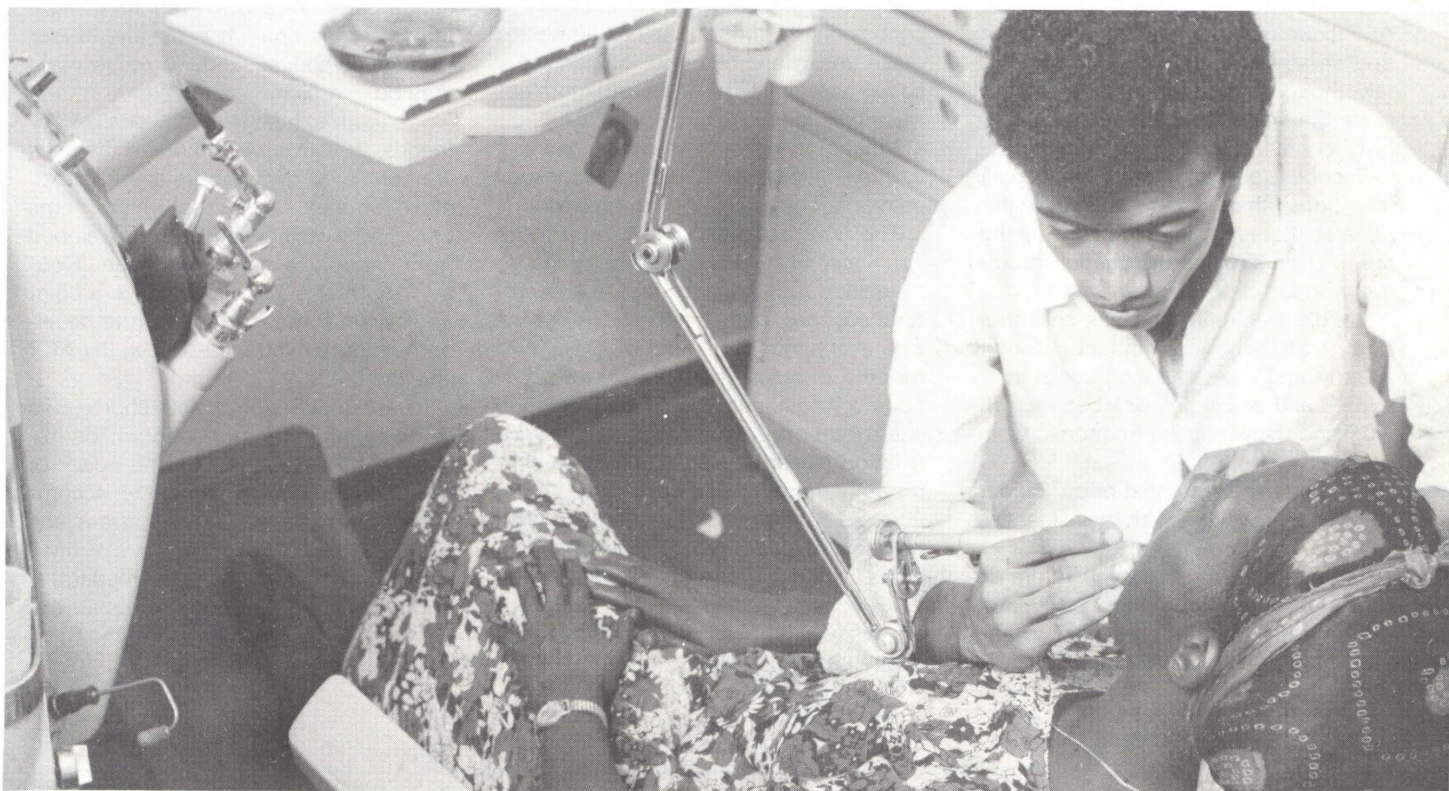
tin America and some of the African countries.

The mortality figures, however, are only one of the quantity measures and cover only part of the field. The morbidity—the likelihood of dying—is still very high, because of the persistence of the so-called mass sicknesses. It is said that there are 300 million people suffering from malaria, which is the biggest cause of infantile mortality in the tropics. To this must be added bilharziosis, yaws, hook-worm, sleeping sickness, trachoma, syphilis, the infectious forms of hepatitis and, most important of all, the gastro-intestinal sicknesses. The last of these—worms or intestinal parasites—is little publicised, but it is a ser-

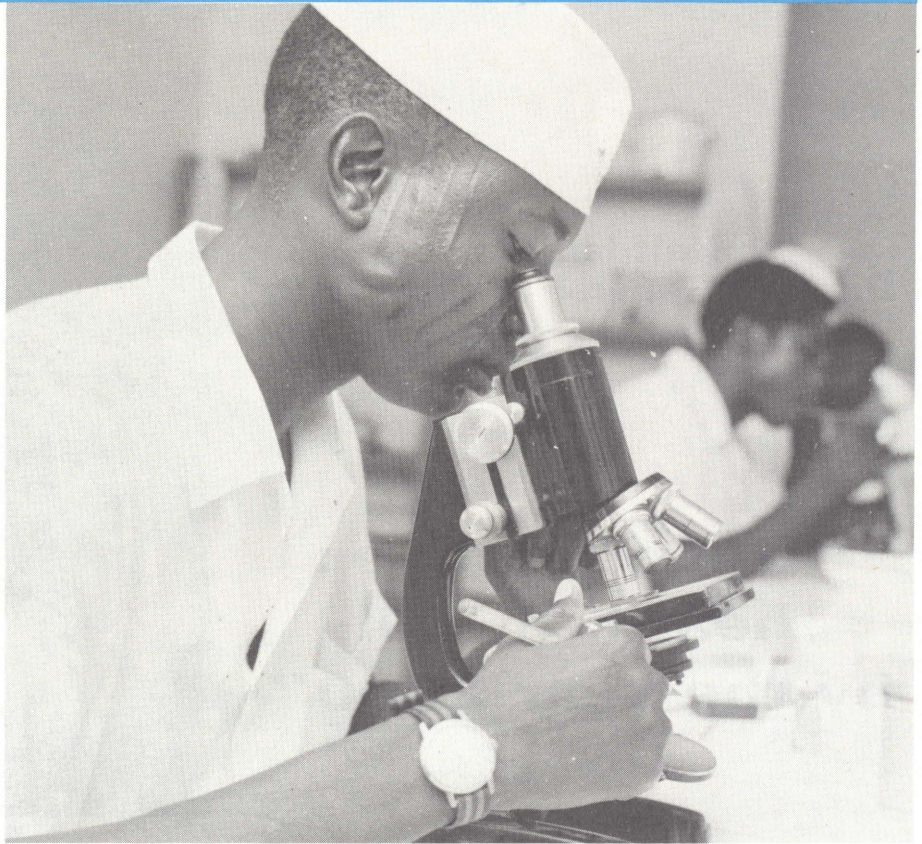
ious illness. Intestinal worms absorb some 25 or 30% of the host's food intake, which is itself apt to be ill-balanced. This causes a serious fall in the worker's capacity to work and the weakening effect of under-nourishment lays him open to all manner of sickness, more especially to diseases most found in the poorer urban areas, such as pulmonary tuberculosis.

It thus seems that despite the great progress which has been made against the major epidemics, there are still many diseases subsisting on a large scale, and there are others which have a tendency to develop. Health conditions a man's working capacity and his chances of physical and intellectual development;

Dental care at Mogadiscio hospital (Somalia)



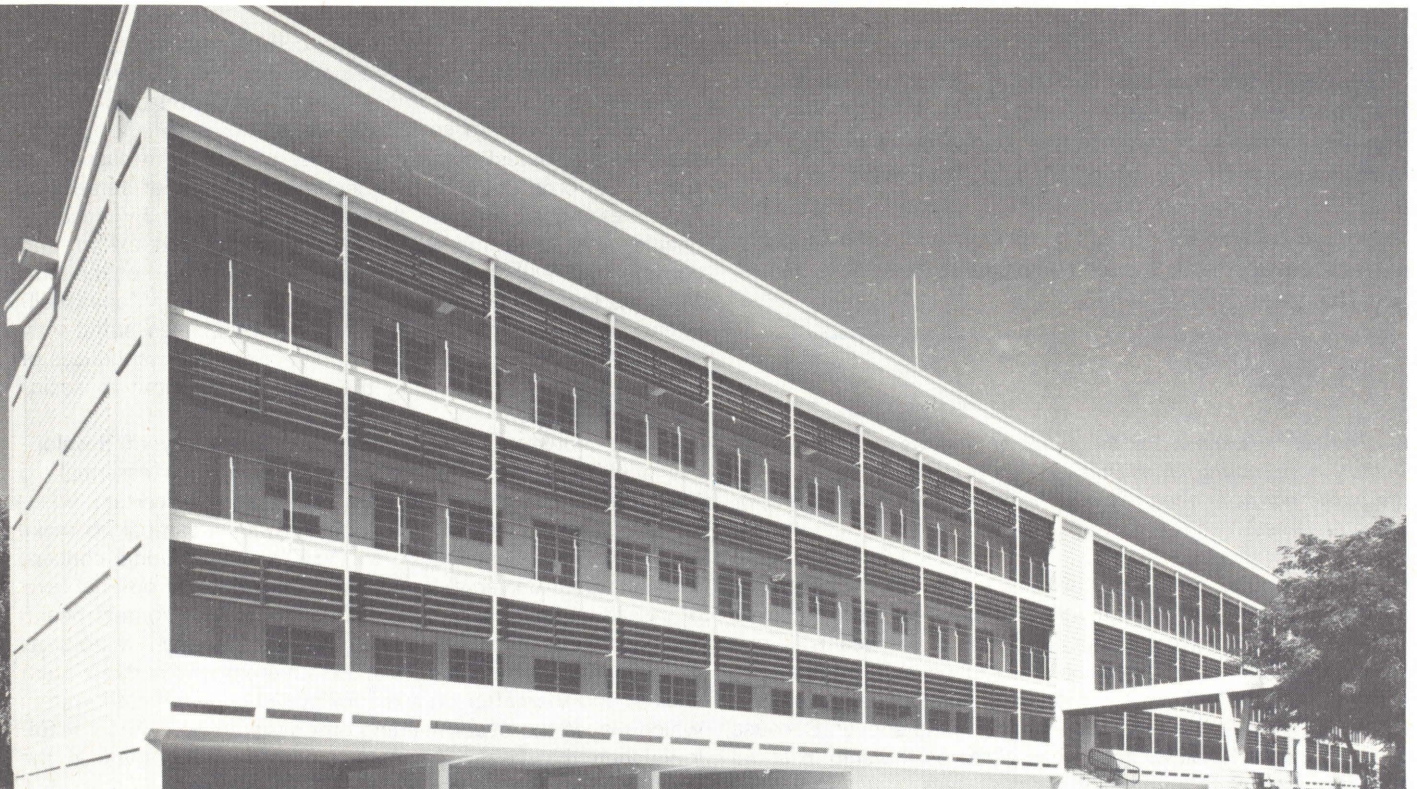
the bad health conditions resulting from underdevelopment may also be a cause of it. Between health and development there is a very obvious link, which leads us to raise the question of health conditions in developing countries on a new basis. The target is an effective health policy adapted both to the needs and to the resources of each country or group of countries. This policy has to be regarded as one of the major factors in any overall policy of economic and social development. ■



EDF - Afrique Photo

(opposite) Hospital laboratory at N'Djamèna (Chad).

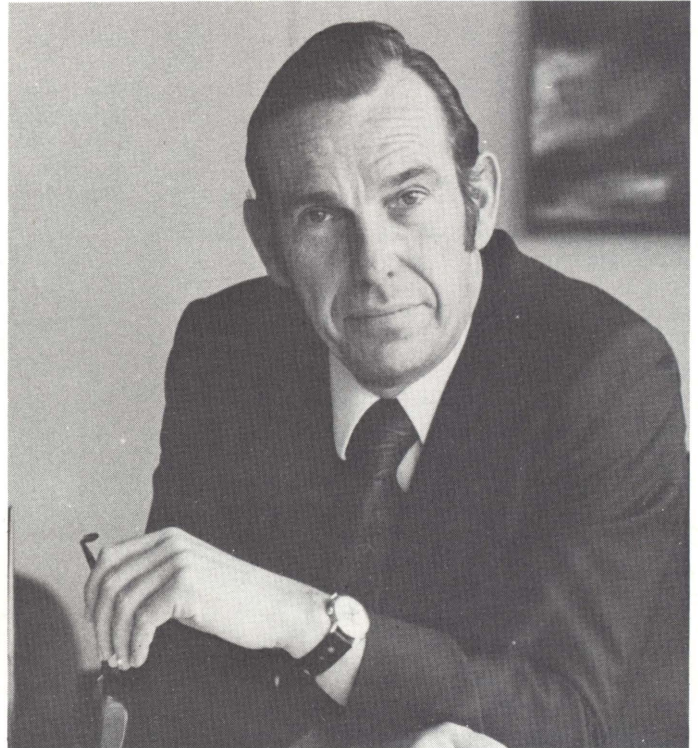
(below) One of the hospital buildings at Majunga (Madagascar).



**Dr Halfdan Mahler,
Director General of the WHO:**

**“Our objective :
health for all
by the year 2000”**

T. Farkas - WHO



Dr Halfdan Mahler

Despite the confusion that is commonly made between medicine and health, the World Health Organisation is active in the social and economic development of the Third World. Its Director General, Dr H. Mahler, told the "Courier" that the objective of the WHO is to combine health closely with development, so as to make it available to all "by the year 2000".

► *The WHO is known by the public at large as an international institution promoting "medicine". Is this perhaps the reason why the public normally does not see the WHO involved in development at large?*

— You are quite right that there is a widespread confusion created through the identification of conventional medicine with health. WHO's constitutional definition of health is one dealing with the highest possible level of physical, mental and social well-being and what is more that such a health status is a human right without any discrimination whatsoever. Because of this concept I believe health can claim partnership in social and economic development in various ways.

First and foremost it can claim such partnership as a contributor, and this in view of the increasingly obvious validity of the equation that development equals motivation plus knowledge. We know from social science studies that even people living at the lowest subsistence level are ready to sacrifice a substantial proportion of their income in search of somebody or something to alleviate their suffering caused by negative health. Also, it seems to be a fairly undisputed axiom that communities with high levels of ill-health just do not mobilize their potential for developmental participation. Many well-intentioned economic planners have not yet been sufficiently sensitized to **social** poverty and to the related consequences of overlooking man's energy as the most critical input to socio-economic development.

Health, however, is also the great beneficiary of development. It is, of course, quite possible, and often essential, to launch isolated specialized campaigns against certain widespread diseases, but over the long term such campaigns make only a marginal contribution to WHO's constitutional concept of health as a universal human right to a socially optimal level of individual physical and mental health. In that context health promotion depends first and foremost on such factors as nutritive food, safe water, a clean environment and a decent shelter, and thereafter on a readily available health care system which places the overwhelming emphasis on prevention. It follows then that health **must** be intimately interwoven in the total developmental process. →

Yet another reason why health can claim partnership in development is the remarkably low cost benefit investment ratio stemming both from the almost insignificant per capita cost if health is treated as an integral part of overall socio-economic development and from the immediate impact of health improvement on the level of well-being as manifested in the high social preference demand for health in most developing countries.

Health improvement is a goal desired by all, and therefore less subject to political controversy than other social goals. Let us use it then as a lever for social development. To do so, we must realize that it will be necessary to relinquish many of our preconceived notions about the best ways of attaining health and to adopt approaches that are fundamentally different from those existing at present in most countries.

► *In the prevailing climate of a new development order, what do you see as the concrete contributions of the health sector?*

— Let me state it in one short exclamation: "Health for **all** by the year 2000"!

The most important criteria for appropriate ways of attaining health are their relevance to social progress and their economic feasibility. The first principle in this new approach is that the distribution of health resources is as important as their quality and quantity. Resources are only too often allocated to central institutions, become proportionately scantier in direct ratio to the distance from the main cities, and are non-existent or almost non-existent in rural areas. This maldistribution is not only spatial but also technical. The specialized curative services of the developed countries are only too often copied in the developing countries, leaving a scanty residue of resources for the promotion of environmental health and for primary health care. The time is now long overdue for a reduction of the growing disparity in the distribution of health resources not only between countries but also within countries. This redistribution must take account of population growth, which is often most rapid among the socially poor.

The second principle, namely that of social penetration, follows from the first. It is necessary to start by allocating resources to the social periphery and by a determined effort to ensure that socially peripheral populations participate fully in identifying their own health and other social problems and in seeking solutions for them. In their search they will no doubt encounter problems that require solutions beyond their ken. These are the problems that should concern the more central tiers of the health and other social systems as well as the political, administrative and environmental authorities. This may sound like social planning in reverse. It is not. Social penetration has to be planned carefully from the centre.

Rural populations in developing countries are particularly underprivileged with respect to health care and social development in general, and even if they are not always aware of the possibility of making overall social and economic progress they are usually interested in improving their health. This interest should be fully mobilized; communities should be encouraged to take the initiative in developing simple health measures of their own, such as finding local solutions for drinking-water supplies and wastes disposal, the protection of houses against insects and rodents, and the provision of elementary health

care. It should be possible to train locally recruited health agents, including, wherever appropriate, traditional healers and midwives, to participate under suitable supervision in providing a minimal standard of care during the antepartum, intrapartum and postpartum periods; in family planning; in infant and early childhood care; in nutritional guidance; in immunization against the major infectious diseases; in elementary curative care of all age groups for disease and injury; in basic sanitation with safe water; and in unsophisticated health education with respect to the prevailing health problems and methods of preventing and controlling them. The conditions for success are community enthusiasm and determination, a continuing process of motivating and training local health agents, and the full technical and moral support of the next tier up in the health service structure.

This reawakening of interest in health promotion could surely be harnessed to other aspects of social development. Discussions on nutrition could promote interest in local measures →



E. Schwab - WHO

Consultation in a rural health centre.



Dr H. MAHLER

Dr Halfdan T. Mahler, Director-General of the World Health Organization, was born at Vivild, Denmark, on 21 April 1923. He obtained his medical degree at the University of Copenhagen in 1948, and holds a postgraduate degree in public health.

Shortly after graduation and specialized training in tuberculosis, Dr Mahler entered international public health work. From 1950-51 he acted as Planning Officer for a mass tuberculosis campaign in Ecuador. He joined the World Health Organization in 1951 and spent almost ten years in India, as senior WHO officer attached to the National Tuberculosis Programme. From 1962 to 1969 he was chief of the tuberculosis unit at WHO Headquarters in Geneva and secretary to the WHO Expert Advisory Panel on Tuberculosis. In 1969 he was appointed Director, Project Systems Analysis.

In September 1970, he was made Assistant Director-General

responsible for the Division of Strengthening of Health Services and the Division of Family Health, while retaining the direction of Project Systems Analysis. In May 1973, while occupying that position, he was appointed Director-General of the World Health Organization by the twenty-sixth World Health Assembly. He took up his duties as the Organization's third Director-General in July 1973.

Dr Mahler is the author of publications relating to the epidemiology and control of tuberculosis, including "Essais d'application de la recherche opérationnelle dans la lutte antituberculeuse" and "The Development of Models for Tuberculosis Control". His more recent publications deal with the application of systems analysis to health care problems.

He is married to Dr Ebba Fischer Simonsen and they have two sons.

to increase food production. The protection of homes against disease vectors and the improvement of local wastes disposal measures could bring about a general improvement in the standard of cleanliness in the home and its surroundings. Education in health matters, such as basic sanitation, infant and child rearing, family planning and nutrition, could give an impetus to individual and community self-learning in general. There is ample evidence from a number of countries that the vicious circle of social poverty can be broken. Naturally, local patterns

of community life would determine the manner of community participation, but the genuine participation of individuals, families, and community leaders covering the whole range of social and technical endeavour in the community cannot fail to lead to mass action for change.

► *Considering the cost and complexity of applying conventional medical wisdom do you really think there is much hope for the target "Health for all by the year 2000" to be accomplished?*

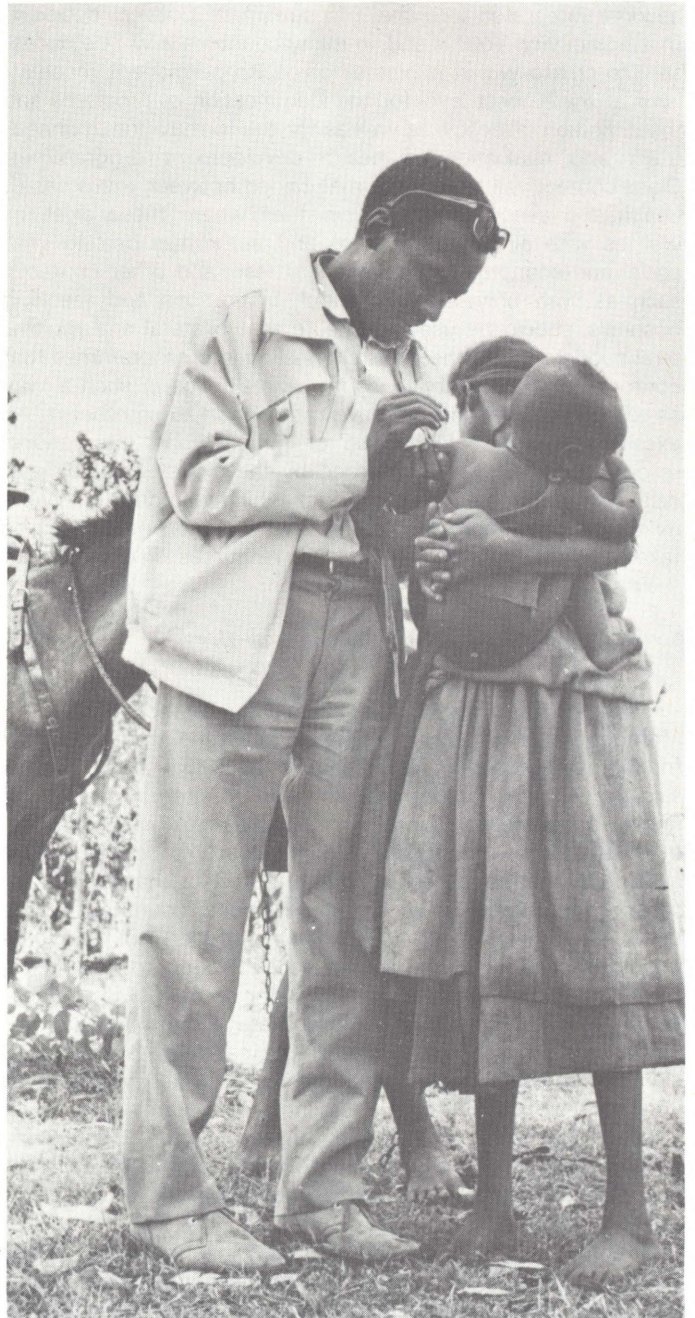
— Yes, provided certain traditional attitudes are changed.

I have referred to the need for peripheral health action to be supported by the next link up in the health system chain. This implies the adoption of a new role by more centrally placed health services in response to the needs of peripheral communities. Since the problems arising will be on a wider scale than the clinical problems of the seriously ill, the range of services provided will have to be correspondingly wider. They will include the continuing training and supervision of local health agents; the provision of guidance on simple sanitary measures; the dissemination of information on locally suitable disease control methods; logistical support for pesticides, medicines and sanitary and medical equipment; and, of course, increased specialized clinical outpatient and inpatient care. They will also involve liaison and intervention with other sectors involved in social and economic development at the level concerned.

I have heard fears expressed that such arrangements would deprive the medical and nursing professions of their traditional functions. This is not the case. What is being suggested is that these professions broaden their functions and apply their knowledge and skills to the most pressing social needs. The employment of less sophisticated health personnel in no way constitutes a threat to the medical and nursing professions. On the contrary, by having problems filtered before they are brought to them, the members of these professions will be freed for more useful applications of their expert knowledge. But at the same time they will have to acquire new skills to permit them to fulfil new functions of leadership, guidance and support. Surely this is no threat, but rather an exciting challenge. If it is seen to constitute a threat, this can only be because of the degree of social irrelevance that has crept into the way these two classical professions are being exercised today.

The functions of ministries of health will also have to be reviewed. A primary function of an invigorated ministry of health as I envisage it is that of leadership in introducing **new** ideas and policies—and not that of passive acceptance of conventional wisdom. I know that in many countries ministries of health do not have the formal power they require to ensure that adequate attention is paid to health development, but I am confident that if they dare to exhibit greater leadership in ideas this will lead to a strengthening of their influence on the establishment of social policies at the political level. Such leadership is required first and foremost to promote the confidence of the masses of the people. If political persuasiveness is to be applied to the attainment of social development it has to be fully backed by carefully defined policy and by soundly formulated plans and programmes. These are highly important functions, much more important than the routine administration of medical institutions that absorbs so much of the energy of ministries of health in so many countries. Their energy would be much more usefully spent on identifying major health problems and on determining national health policies of the type I have tried to outline. Policies such as these are based on an interlinked process—local needs giving rise to central responses and social needs giving rise to technical responses. It may sound paradoxical, but the implementation of such policies, which are based on peripheral social pressures and participation, requires careful central planning and support. It is necessary to set in motion and maintain the continuing

process of planning, implementing, monitoring, controlling, evaluation and replanning. Strategic planning is required to select priority programmes from among alternatives and operational planning to formulate the programmes it has been decided to implement. Such a national health planning process has become known as country health programming, which, →



P. Alimasy - WHO

Health survey teams in Ethiopia travel by camel, mule or on horseback. They cover up to 50 km a day, looking for cases of smallpox and vaccinating the rural communities they encounter on the way.

like all other components in health planning, must be a continuing process. Its methodology has been kept as simple as possible, and its ultimate aim is to develop your capacity **within** countries to clarify for **yourselves** the reason for **your** health underdevelopment and, by **yourselves** through a process that is both rational and consonant with **your** culture, to decide on the most appropriate policies and programmes for developing the health of **all** your people.

To be effective, planning by ministries of health must therefore transcend the limitations of medical technocracy and become integrated into the mainstream of political decision-making activity. To this end, in many countries it will be necessary to create within ministries of health permanent mechanisms at the highest level for the identification of problems and the definition of policy, as well as for the formulation, management and evaluation of health development programmes. Close contact will have to be maintained between ministries of health and central planning ministries where these exist, as well as with all other ministries and authorities dealing with social and economic development. These, and other contacts, such as with universities, research institutions and teaching hospitals, should be used to ensure that bilateral and multilateral cooperation for health is channelled into programmes that conform to the country's priority health needs in such a way as to promote national initiative rather than to smother it. An excellent example of the use of national and international resources in this way is afforded by the global smallpox eradication programme, the success of which was due to its ability to identify simply yet precisely what action needed to be taken and to mobilize all available resources, irrespective of their source, in pursuit of that action.

E. Rice - WHO



Trinidad General

► *What is the role of the WHO in all this?*

— It is the Organization's duty to bring to the attention of Member States what appears to me to be an urgent indication for the need to depart from conventional ways. These proposals are the result of genuine reflection on alternative ways of finding adequate solutions for the depressing health situation of most of the world's citizens. I am deeply concerned about allegations that have been made to the effect that what I am proposing is inferior solutions for developing countries. To my mind, these proposals are in no way inferior, nor need the principles on which they are based be limited to developing countries. It is not health technology *per se* that is being questioned. WHO will continue to collaborate in the transfer of so-called modern technology wherever it seems reasonable and significantly useful, but it would be failing in its obligations to you, its Member States, if it did not collaborate with you in adapting that technology and, in conjunction with you, in establishing new methods and technologies for health development that are appropriate to **your** political, social and economic climate.

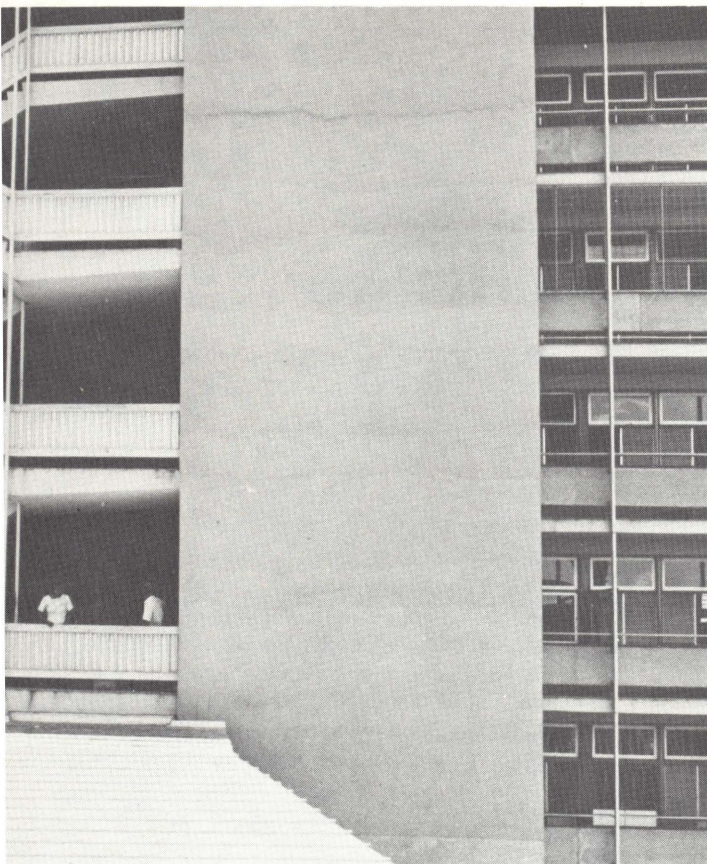
I emphasize the word "collaboration" because that is the essence of the Organization's new relationship with its Member States. The provision of external experts to solve specific national problems is rapidly becoming outmoded. Indeed, it is often counter-productive. Genuine collaboration implies joint review of problems with countries, and WHO can bring to this review information on the scientific knowledge and practical

experience of countries all over the world and thus open out horizons with respect to possible solutions. It can also be active in coordinating the flow of external funds into health programmes that are of real importance to countries. This it will do at the request of countries wherever this approach is likely to be successful, as an international coordinating body functioning at all organizational levels. In no circumstances will it trespass on national authority, here or elsewhere.

In the field of technical cooperation with countries WHO would like to emphasize those functions that could be the key to health development. These include national health planning and programming aimed at creating the kind of integrated health and social development system I have outlined today.

Such emphasis will naturally not exclude other forms of technical cooperation such as, to mention only a few, collaboration in providing methodological support to surveys of problems, social reforms for the application of health policies, the implementation and evaluation of health programmes, the training of health personnel, and the development of a research infrastructure, as well as straight operational assistance.

For the successful introduction of these newer ideas able and dedicated nationals are essential. A much greater search for and use of such national personnel within their own countries in relation to WHO's technical cooperation is long over-



pital.

due. Some of them might benefit from international experience by being recruited as WHO staff members for a limited period. Others could acquire practical experience in WHO-sponsored regional and interregional research and development projects, following which they would return to their countries to promote and implement the newer ideas. I shall not inflict further examples on you, my purpose being simply to emphasize the importance of adopting a highly flexible approach in order to make the best use of national personnel, each case being considered on an individual basis. No doubt appropriate financial, technical, and moral incentives would have to be devised to sustain this "international" use of national health personnel in their own countries, but while this aspect may create delicate problems I am sure we shall be able to surmount them if we try hard enough.

Let me finally return to the goal of "Health for all by the year 2000". If each individual Member State of WHO has the political courage both to reorient its own internal health priorities according to their social relevance for the total national population and simultaneously to espouse the cause of international solidarity for global health promotion, then I have not the slightest doubt that we shall reach this goal **before** the year 2000. ■

Interview by
ALAIN LACROIX

CAMEROUN

Yaoundé University confers
its first Doctorates of Medicine

Top honours for J. Youmbissi-Tchetani

September 16, 1975 was the eve of the 25th meeting of the WHO Regional Committee held in Yaoundé, the capital of Cameroon. It was also the date chosen by the University of Yaoundé to confer the first degrees of Doctor of Medicine upon candidates who have had the whole of their training in Cameroon.

Out of the 33 candidates who put forward their theses, the University Centre for Health Services (CUSS) recommended the degree be conferred on twenty-nine. Their admission to this degree is a good example of training specially adapted to African conditions. With the advance of medical knowledge and technology, it will clearly be necessary in due course to increase the equipment available to the Yaoundé faculty, but it possesses at this stage all the essentials of what is needed for medical teaching and training, and the new doctors are trained not only for dealing with sickness in general, but more especially for the problems arising in tropical life.

The top honours of the year were given to Joseph Youmbissi-Tchetani, whose thesis was on "the study of blood pressures in a population at Béti, near Yaoundé (conditions for an approach to problems of excess blood pressure in Cameroon)". It brought him, with his degree, the award of a very honourable mention. The other prizewinners in order of merit, were: Marthe Eyong; Nelson-Joseph Fomulu; Amadou Alim; Ashu Enom-Ayuk; Abba Liman-Adjimi; Alexandre Kouda-Zeh; Robert Befidi-Mengué and Maurice Kam.

In the next bracket came Ghogomu Bongho Amida; Alexandre Fowda-Onana; Georges Ntoko; Pius Kamga Toguen; Martin Jounda; Gustav-Stephen Tabeson; Gerhard-Timothy Tangyie; Samuel Epée Yebkal; Abdou Ahmadou; Joseph Foumbi; Esther Mayou-Kang; Paul Achu Ngang; Moïse Menoubé; Jean-Rodolphe Minyem; Christopher Chukoyo-Batupe; and Daniel-Emile Belek, all of whom were given an honourable mention.

Then came Christian Wankah; Simon-Pierre Tébéré; Daniel Koué-goua and Pierre Nkopchieu-Kopsi.

It is 15 years since the independence of Cameroon, and eight years since the medical faculty was set up at Yaoundé. It is now possible to regard Cameroon, together with Senegal, as one of the first African countries to possess the full spectrum of educational facilities for the training of the professional workers indispensable to the nation. Great credit for this must go to the Cameroon government, which has put in a big effort for the purpose, and has also opened nursing schools, both for men and for women, in various regions. The hope now is that the doctors of Cameroon, and the entire medical corpus, will be truly at the service of the population, so as to set up a policy of equality in health which, with the policy of equal chances for all, must needs be set on foot very quickly if we are to hope for its success. ■ LUCIEN PAGNI

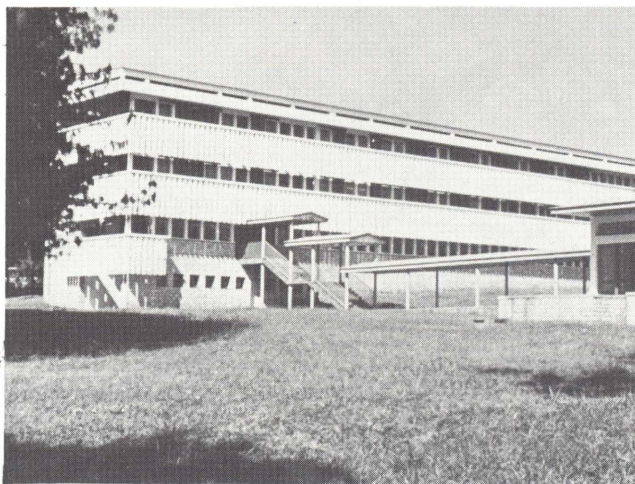


Photo - H. Philipp

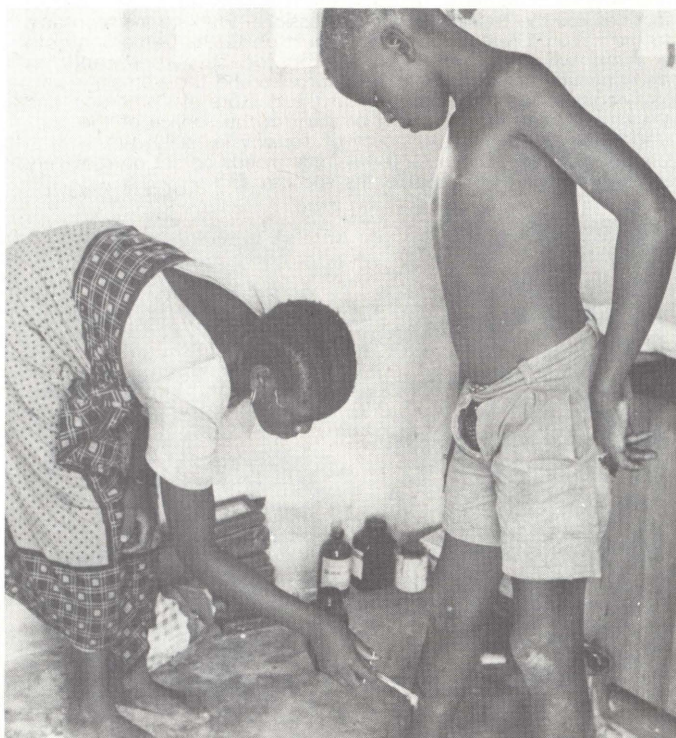
Nursing school at Bamenda, Cameroon

Tropical medicine and the Pasteur Institute

by Dr L. CHAMBON^(*)

For a long time the health of tropical populations was conditioned by their remote habitat, adverse environment and exposure to infectious diseases apt to occur in deadly epidemic form. They were living in the same state of precarious equilibrium which used to prevail in temperate countries before they reached a level of development which closed the door to famine and epidemic.

A village medical helper providing first aid in the Kidomele ujamaa village. Village medical helpers are selected by their fellow villagers.



WHO. D. Henrioud

The opening of tropical countries to western influence resulted in social and economic changes which have far reaching effects on health standards. The discoveries of Louis Pasteur on the origin and modes of transmission of infectious diseases led to radical changes in the methods of getting rid of them, and the inhabitants of tropical countries derived considerable benefit from this.

The Institut Pasteur⁽¹⁾

Pasteur always hoped his teachings would be followed in countries outside France, especially in countries which were subject to certain specific sicknesses, among which he mentioned yellow fever and bubonic plague. In 1882, he went to Pauillac, where yellow fever cases had been identified after the arrival of a ship from Senegal; and the following year Roux went to Alexandria to study cholera. The Institut Pasteur was founded in January, 1891 and, less than three years later, it was on the advice of Pasteur that A. Calmette set up in Saigon the first overseas laboratory associated with the institute.

Since then more than 20 offshoot laboratories have been set up successively in all parts of the world. The latest is at Abidjan, inaugurated in 1972 as a joint effort by the European Development Fund and the French Ministry for Cooperation.

Meantime there had been political changes in many of the countries where these laboratories were located. In some cases the laboratories still retain the name Institut Pasteur and are continuing close scientific cooperation. In others the scientific and technical cooperation has taken other forms.

There are at present 15 Instituts Pasteur, located in Europe (Greece), the Middle East (Iran), Africa (Algeria, Tunisia, Morocco, Senegal, the Ivory Coast and the Central African Republic), the Antilles (Martinique and Guadeloupe), on the American continent (Guyana), in Asia (Cambodia and Vietnam) and in Oceania (New Caledonia). The institute also has seven scientific and technical cooperation agreements with scientific institutes in Tahiti and six other countries (Afghanistan, Bolivia, Brazil, Cameroon, Guinea

(*) Deputy Director of the Institut Pasteur (Paris).

(1) Editor's sub-titles.

The north-south dialogue on international economic cooperation

Interview: E.P. Wellenstein, Director General of External Relations at the EEC Commission

On December 16, 1975, ministers from eight industrial and 19 developing countries are to meet in Paris for the north-south conference. This was set up by a preparatory session in mid-October, at which the Community delegation was led by Mr Guazzaroni, representing the Italian chairmanship of the EEC Council of Ministers, and Mr Wellenstein, representing the EEC Commission, where he is Director General of External Relations. Edmund Wellenstein outlines some of the aspects of the "dialogue" in this interview.

► *The north-south dialogue, as the press calls the conference on international economic relations, is characterised by being a closed meeting. Do you think it will bring an important change to the conduct of international affairs and may be a new trend in the system of foreign affairs set up since the creation of the UN?*

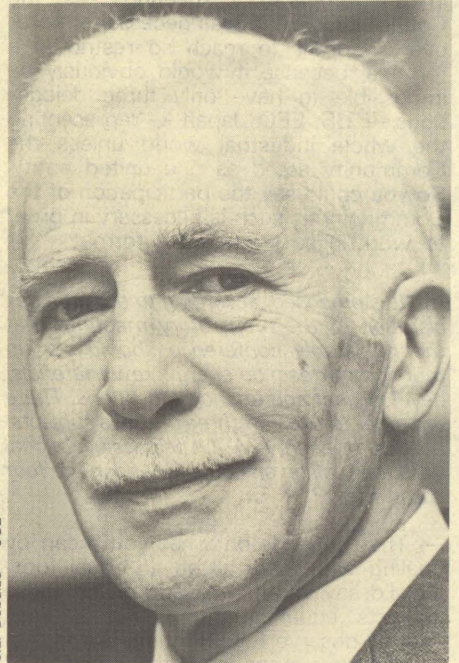
— There is some truth in this. It is an innovation, the meetings will be restricted; but I will add that they will be representative, because great care has been taken throughout the discussions to emphasise that working with a restricted number of participants does not amount to wanting to keep certain interests or certain categories of countries out of it. Quite the opposite: the idea is to have a restricted but representative group. And the way to arrive at this is to ask both the developing and the industrial countries to make a selection from within their own groups.

The meetings so far have only been preparatory, so it was not the group of 27 countries but a smaller group that met to prepare for Paris in December. There were three industrial and seven developing countries represented in the

preparatory group, which will turn to the two bigger groups and, in the case of the developing countries, bring up the list from seven to 19 countries. These representatives will therefore have to agree with their colleagues from the other developing countries on the additional 12 places. The industrial countries were so far only the Community, the United States and Japan; they will bring in five more members to make their group up to eight. So you will have a group of seven built up to 19 and a group of three built up to eight, making 27 in all. That is the agreed number for the ministerial conference in Paris in December.

► *In view of the worrying world economic situation, is this not basically a healthy reaction, aimed at getting past the ideological debates in order to deal in a more effective and concrete way with the problems?*

— That's what we hope. And as you see, there is no contradiction—at least we hope not—and I think most people do not want any conflict between this restricted dialogue and the work of the United Nations in its world-wide framework. For instance, the same political figures have often been conspicuous in this dialogue and in the United Nations, at the special session in April 1974 and in September of this year. So there is no contradiction. By using this more restricted formation the aim should be to pick out certain priority questions from the vast number that might be discussed. These questions should lead to concrete results and then later we will try to put over these priorities in the world debate, backed by the weight of the participants in the dialogue, in order to try to avoid the endless discussions which sometimes happen when there is a very large number of participants and some of them have not been very thoroughly into the subjects under discussion.



J.L. Debaize - CCE

Edmund Wellenstein

► *There still seems to be some uncertainty, at least among the general public, as to how the participants will be designated. You have partly explained this; will they be given mandates by their respective groups? And will the EEC participate as such at the conference?*

— They will not be given mandates, but I think they will be designated with the common agreement of each group, so they will go into the dialogue with the moral authority of these designations by common agreement. Obviously they will not be given mandates in the legal sense of the term in order to make such-and-such a proposal or sort out such-and-such a problem. And the dialogue will not end with drawing up a treaty; we hope it will end with the identification of a certain number of concrete answers to a certain number of concrete questions. These will then be brought into the discussions in organisations where agreements and the necessary instruments can be worked out. Evidently that is where all sides concerned must take part; legal instruments cannot be created with only a small number of participants. So, no mandate in the legal sense, but moral authority in that they will be the most highly authorised members of these groups.

► *Will the EEC participate at the conference as such?*

— Yes. The EEC as such has taken part in the preparatory meetings, as the Council decided. It was necessary, moreover, in order to reach so restricted a formula, because it would obviously be impossible to have only three delegations — US, EEC, Japan — representing the whole industrial world unless the Community acted as one united entity. So you could say the participation of the Community as such is necessary in order to work in so restricted a format.

► *It is proposed, according to the final declaration of the preparatory meeting, that the ministerial conference should set up four committees: on energy, raw materials, development and financial questions. There are other forums for three of these subjects, but not for energy. Will it be possible to deal with them all on an equal footing in the four committees?*

— That depends on what you mean by dealing with them all on an equal footing. I'd say yes if it means giving these subjects equal attention and interest, they all deserve full attention. But in fact I think you mean something else. Energy, in so far as it is a world economic problem, is not dealt with by a specialised organisation because there isn't one — nor is it dealt with in more general bodies. So far this subject has not been dealt with fundamentally on the international scale. So for energy the "dialogue" will be the only conference in the world capable of really getting down to the issues. For commodities and development policy, the financial and monetary aspects of all these questions are being dealt with and have been for a long time. There is, therefore, a difference in that respect. If you want to express it by saying the committees are not on an equal footing, I think one must be careful, because that gives the impression that the attention given to some questions is different or less important than for others. It's not so.

But from the institutional point of view, the various ways and means of covering energy will clearly be different, and until further notice the "dialogue" will be the only meeting where these things will be discussed at fundamental level.

► *This leads us to the question whether the forthcoming north-south dialogue should be considered as a permanent forum, allowing an exchange of views in a restricted framework in order to improve the negotiating atmosphere in the UN, UNCTAD or the IMF; or as an area of concrete negotiations which will submit its decisions to the responsible bodies for ratification.*

— This covers not one but a whole series of questions. First, should the dialogue be seen as permanent? I would say no, probably not, certainly not in its present form. But if it proves useful to have a "preparatory" body giving impetus to more general bodies already in existence, I would not exclude the possibility of using such a formula on other occasions. But that's another matter. If you are asking whether this dialogue is meant to go on for ever until the world comes to an end, I don't think this is altogether the intention. But I would not rule out the possibility of applying the dialogue formula in future for other urgent questions in the huge field of international economic relations. So much for the permanence of this conference.

The other question was whether this meeting should communicate its findings to existing bodies: well, I think this would be very desirable. The "dialogue" as such is very restricted and will not be able to complete its work by drawing up agreements and legal instruments; for that all the partners concerned are needed and in the "dialogue" you will only have some of them, without legal mandates, and they will not be able to round off their work in this way. But they can make a very good start and get quite far, all the same.

► *So it comes down to dealing with the problems in a concrete way and making proposals which will be considered in other organisations?*

— Yes, that's it, though I hope it will amount to more than just making proposals. I mentioned "indicating possible solutions", which other bodies could put into shape. I hope we get a bit further than simply saying, "I have a proposal to make", which seems rather feeble to me.

► *The European Economic Community played a positive role at the seventh special session of the United Nations General Assembly by speaking with one voice. Do you think the EEC will be able to play an equally constructive role in the north-south dialogue?*

— I see no reason why not. First of all, most of the subjects dealt with at the seventh special session will come up in the "dialogue"—basically they cover all the aspects of world economic relations in the rich countries/poor countries framework. So it's the same range of questions. If we were able to work as a Community entity in New York, why not in the dialogue, since it covers the same subjects? Clearly there's no reason why not. In New York we were at the stage of making resolutions and statements of a general character; now, as you say, we



J.L. Debaize - CCE

Edmund Wellenstein in front of the EEC Commission building in Brussels.

must move on to concrete solutions. It is more difficult, without the slightest doubt. But I see no fundamental reasons why it can't be done. And if we don't manage it, the consequence will be that it won't be possible to have a restricted dialogue within a world-wide framework to give impetus. If the Community does not manage it, the Member States will presumably all speak for themselves, which brings us back to the United Nations, since in this case the number of participants will inevitably increase until we have dozens of countries involved, maybe even a hundred. So the restricted character of the meeting would be lost and we would not have invented anything new.

► *Does this north-south dialogue seem to you an important stage on the way to the new world economic order, which is talked about so much but not very well defined?*

— Yes. Personally I've always very much liked the expressions we ourselves chose in the Lomé Convention to describe this new order— fairer, more equal. And these are also the terms we used in the latest meetings in Paris in the opening speeches and in the speeches in the name of the Community. I think we should make this the definitive description of what we are doing, for these words are well chosen and they convey very well what it's all about. It's better, I think, than simply calling for something "new", because what is new is not necessarily better and in this we are looking for something better. ■

Interview by A.L.

LOMÉ CONVENTION

Ratifications so far and
new applications
for accession

At the time of going to press, 30 ACP countries have ratified the Lomé Convention, including Cameroon, the Central African Republic, Congo, Fiji, the Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Ivory Coast, Jamaica, Malawi, Mauritius, Nigeria, Senegal, Somalia, Sudan, Togo, Trinidad and Tobago, Zaire, Mali, Tanzania, Sierra Leone, Dahomey, Rwanda, Burundi and Niger. Other countries, though they have completed the internal ratification procedures, have not yet deposited the instruments of ratification at the seat of the EEC Council of Ministers, at 170 rue de la Loi, 1048 Brussels.

Among the EEC member countries Denmark is the only one which has yet ratified; but the other eight have let it be known that their ratification should be completed by December 31, 1975.

Other ACP countries which are or are becoming independent have indicated their wish to join the EEC-ACP Lomé Convention.

Among these are Sao Tomé and Príncipe, the Cape Verde Islands, probably Mozambique, Papua New Guinea, Angola and Surinam and the Seychelles when they become independent.

The Democratic Republic of Sao Tomé and Príncipe. These are two islands of about 1 000 sq. km, lying nearly 250 km off-shore from Cameroon and Gabon. They recently became independent and the first government of the new sovereign State was formed on July 13, 1975. The head of it is Mr Miguel Trovoada, who is also Minister for

CLAUDE CHEYSSON Grand Officer of the Cameroon Order of Merit



M. Cheysson is decorated as Grand Officer of the Cameroon Order of Merit by President Ahidjo.

M. Ahmadou Ahidjo, President of the United Republic of Cameroon, has honoured M. Claude Cheysson, Member of the EEC Commission responsible for development, with the rank of Grand Officer of the Cameroon Order of Merit.

The conferment took place in July this year, when Commissioner Cheysson paid a three-day official visit to Cameroon on the invitation of the President. It was understood the discussions between the Head of State and M. Cheysson were to deal with the relations between Cameroon and the EEC, now that the former has signed the Lomé Convention, and on the general strengthening of the ties between Yaoundé and the European Community. It will be recalled that the capital of Cameroon was where the first two conventions between the EEC and the AASM (Associated African States and Madagascar) were signed. These have now been followed by the EEC-ACP Lomé Convention, which Cameroon was one of the first signatories to ratify. ■

National Defence and for Foreign Affairs.

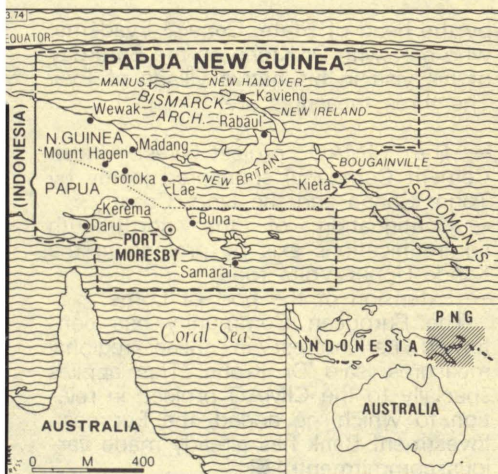
The capital of the country is Sao Tomé and the total population of the new republic is around 80 000. The chief crops are cocoa, copra, bananas, coconuts and coffee. The unit of currency is the Escudo (100 Esc. = 19 FF).

The Republic of the Cape Verde Islands. The Cape Verde Islands became independent as of July 5, 1975 (see Courier No. 33 - cream pages). They are located some 500 km from Guinea-Bissau, of which they were a part before both were made independent. The Cape Verde Islands are led by Dr Aristide Pereira, President of the Republic and an eminent member of the P.A.I.G.C. (African Party for the Independence of Guinea-Bissau and the

Cape Verde Islands). The same party is in power in the sister Republic of Guinea-Bissau.

The population of the Cape Verde Islands is about 300 000, of whom nearly 30 000 live in Praia, the capital city. Agriculture (maize, beans, bananas and coffee) and fishing are the chief economic activities. The monetary unit is the Escudo.

Papua New Guinea has just become independent. At the ACP ministerial meeting at Georgetown (Guyana) on June 5-6, 1975, Papua New Guinea let it be known it would wish to come within the Lomé Convention and the ACP group, officially constituted at the Georgetown meeting, agreed to support the candidature. The new candidate has invited Commissioner Claude



Cheysson to pay the country an official visit, tentatively fixed for mid-October 1975.

There are two other countries which are understood to be potential candidates for membership of the Lomé Convention as soon as their independence is an accomplished fact. These are **Surinam** and the **Seychelles** which are still bound by their special relationships with the Netherlands and Great Britain respectively. It is unofficially said that the Seychelles Islands, scheduled for independence in March, 1976, have already let it be known that they will be candidates for membership.

Other possible adherents include Mozambique, which has been independent since June 25 of this year (see Courier No. 32 for June-July - cream pages) and Angola, the independence of which is scheduled for November 11.

All these countries are economically and politically eligible for membership of the Lomé Convention. If all of them were to become members, the number of ACP countries would rise from 46 to 53 and the convention would be between 62 different countries. ■

PROGRAMMING MISSIONS

● EEC programming missions have been sweeping around ACP countries since July to discuss cooperation under the Lomé Convention.

Director General of Development Hans-Broder Krohn and Deputy Directors General Jacques Ferrandi and Maurice Foley have had a crowded timetable. Mr Krohn led a mission to Kenya and Somalia in July while Mr Ferrandi took a team to Senegal, the Gambia and Guinea-Bissau.

Mr Foley led a mission to the six Caribbean members of the ACP group (Bahamas, Barbados, Grenada, Guyana, Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago) from September 16 to October 7, while Mr Krohn prepared to go to Ghana and Togo and Mr Ferrandi to Liberia.

The top three EEC development directors are also due to cover Tanzania, Burundi and Rwanda (Maurice Foley), the Congo (Jacques Ferrandi), Sudan (H.-B. Krohn) and Malawi and Zambia (Ferrandi) before the end of November.

Dr. Krohn leads Togo mission

Lomé, October — Allocations to Togo from the 4th EDF will be bigger than



Chedly Ayari, President of the Arab Bank for African Economic Development (BADEA), visits Commission

Mr Chedly Ayari, President of the Arab Bank for African Economic Development, made an official visit to the EEC Commission in Brussels during the latter part of September, 1975. He is seen in the picture (above left) with Dr H.B. Krohn, Commission Director General of Development. He also met with M. Henri Simonet, Commission Vice-President responsible for energy questions, and Commissioner Claude Cheysson, who is in charge of development.

The aim of Mr Ayari's visit was to outline and explain the objectives of the BADEA, which is intended to "rationalise Arab-African cooperation by the creation of a financial intermediary between the two groups of countries". In addition,

the aims of Mr Ayari's visit included an attempt to persuade other organisations operating on a world or a regional scale (such as the EDF and the EIB) to subscribe capital to the BADEA. Its present capital of \$US 231m is considered less than enough for so important a task as Arab-African cooperation.

At the end of his visit, Mr Chedly Ayari held a press conference in which he dwelt on the need for "triangular" cooperation in the present international context. He went on to emphasise the political as well as the technical character of the BADEA, which will not be granting aid to African countries hostile to the Arab world.

The capital of BADEA is held as fol-

those made from the 3rd, amounting to some F-CFA 7 500 million, Dr Hans-Broder Krohn, Commission Director General of Development, stated in a press conference. Dr Krohn had spent three days discussing the main lines of the Togo aid programmes for the next five years under the Lomé Convention. He added that EDF 4 will be following logically in the footsteps of its predecessor and the main emphasis will thus be on Togo's agricultural development (e.g. cotton-growing and stock-raising).

Dr Krohn also said that, because of the geographical position of Togo, the national authorities had insisted that three specific measures of regional cooperation should be carried out by Togo and its neighbours. This was confirmed

by the head of State, General Eyadéma, who met with Dr Krohn on the Saturday of his visit in his native village of Pya. The three measures are:

- The "CIMA0" project (West African Cement Company) sponsored jointly by Togo, Ghana and the Ivory Coast;
- Continuation of the north-south communications axis by prolonging the Kande-Upper Volta road;
- Extension of the port of Lomé.

The European Community has confirmed its interest in these regional measures, said Dr Krohn. This applies specially to the CIMA0 project, in relation to which, he added, the European Investment Bank has already made various commitments. ■

lows: Saudi Arabia \$50 m; Kuwait \$50 m; Iraq \$30 m; Algeria \$20 m; Union of Arab Emirates \$20 m; Morocco \$10 m; six other countries \$51 million.

Priority consideration in the granting of finance by the BADEA will be given according to the rating of projects in the beneficiary countries' development plans, their general coherence and their profitability.

The Arab Bank for African Economic Development at a glance

Objective:

To contribute to the economic development of Africa by:

- Total or partial financing of industrial, agricultural or other development projects;
- Promotion and encouragement of Arab private investment in Africa;
- Supply of technical assistance to Africa.

Contributing countries:

All countries which are members of the Arab League.

Beneficiary countries:

All African countries not members of the Arab League. These are 35 in number, including 18 which are French-speaking.

Date of formation:

The Arab Summit at Algiers, July 1973.

Capital subscribed:

\$US 231 million to be fully paid up by the end of 1976. An increase to \$US 500 million is envisaged.

Board of directors:

To consist of 11 members representing:

- Saudi Arabia
- Kuwait
- Libya



Commission Vice-President
Henri Simonet (energy)
with Mr. Chedly Ayari.

- Algeria
- Morocco
- Qatar
- Palestine
- Iraq
- The Arab Emirates
- Egypt
- Syria

Registered office: At Khartoum (Sudan). A further office in Paris is contemplated. ■

SENEGAL

How to take advantage of the Dakar free industrial area

A Senegal government delegation visited Brussels during the first half of September, 1975. It was led by Louis Alexandrenne, Minister for Industrial Development and the Environment and among its members was Abdourahmane Dia, chief administrator of SAPROZI (the company formed to manage and promote the free industrial area in Dakar).

The object of the mission was to show Belgian industry, and other Europeans in Belgium, the economic potential of Senegal and the advantages to be had by investing there, especially in the industrial freeport area at Dakar.

M. Alexandrenne held a press conference at the Senegalese embassy, in which he gave an outline of the part the Dakar freeport area is scheduled to play during the next 10 years in the Senegal development and industrialisation policy. This big area of 700 hectares, the minister explained, is laid out for industry and has a good infrastructure of service connexions in a specially suitable location in Senegal. It is 20 km from Dakar international airport, he said, and its exceptionally good location is "a trump card" of which Senegal intends

to "make maximum use", and so to make it "the motive force in the development" of Senegal through the next 10 years.

For the industrialist looking to set up in Senegal, the terms offered by the government and the many fiscal and financial inducements are fully as advantageous as he will find elsewhere, the minister said.

The sites in the Dakar industrial freeport area will be made available to investors for a period of 99 years in the form of successive renewals after optional termination dates, the first of which is at the end of 25 years. The ground rent is F-CFA 200 francs (about BF 40) per sq.m. per annum. The advantages include total tax exemption, exemption from all duties and taxes payable on import or export (except into Senegal) in respect of any merchandise, equipment goods or raw materials; and the withdrawal of taxes in respect of goods or services from the Senegalese customs area. Still more important are the guaranteed remittance facilities covering the outward transfer of invested capital and income of whatever description accruing from it; freedom to recruit staff in Senegal or abroad and for wage and salary transfers by foreign members of the staff.

The Senegalese minister also touched on the problem of the political risk (nationalisation) and the fears often expressed by industrialists seeking establishment in Africa. So far as Senegal is concerned, he said, this risk does not arise, since the intention is to develop a system conforming alike to liberal and to socialist standards. Nevertheless, he said, investors wishing to provide against such risks can have recourse to the World Bank. Moreover, countries such as France, Federal Germany, Belgium and others provide guarantees in respect of capital from their countries invested in Africa. In conformity with Common Market arrangements, and those specified in the Lomé Convention, legislation has been or will be introduced to deal with disputes of this kind.

Since 1960, the Government of Senegal has spent "about F-CFA 30 000 million on vocational training" for young people (18-25 age-group) who account for nearly "60 % of the population". Investors will therefore find a sufficiency of skilled manpower available, he added.

Arrangements have also been made for manufacturing firms to buy power at preferential rates. Another point made by M. Alexandrenne was that in Senegal the SMIG (guaranteed minimum wage) is now F-CFA 20 000 (BF 4 000). This is very low by European standards; in Belgium the SMIG is about BF 20 000 (F-CFA 100 000).

In addition the government provides financial facilities for industrial firms who do not wish to put up large amounts of capital at the outset, and are enabled to use the leasehold credit or "leasing" formula. In return for the advantages provided, industrialists setting up in the Dakar industrial

freeport area will be required to make an initial investment of at least F-CFA 200 million (BF 40 m or FF 4 m), to create at least 150 jobs for Senegalese citizens (all categories) and to get the undertaking into operation within two years.

The Lomé Convention, M. Alexandre said, is a step towards a new world economic order. He considered, however, that it is only a "framework" and it is now up to all concerned to make a reality of its content. It is primarily the poor countries which are affected by the inflation, and by the deterioration in the terms of trade. "International cooperation, based on specific projects for the transfer of industrial activities to underdeveloped countries would be one of the methods for redressing the balance between the rich countries and the poor and would be in the interests of both and of social justice between them". ■

L.P.

COUNCIL

● Luxembourg, October—The EEC ministers responsible for development cooperation ended their meeting in Luxembourg on October 14 with no firm decisions on finance aid to non-associated countries, on food aid, on coordination of national aid policies or on cooperation with non-governmental organisations. An agreement was foreshadowed on making UA 3.5 million available for the promotion of exports from non-associated countries. It was also settled that towards the end of October, the Nine should attempt to settle a common attitude towards their participation in the International Fund for Agricultural Development (FIDA), the arrangements for which are likely to be determined in Rome very shortly.

● EEC agriculture ministers, for their part, agreed to a Commission proposal to negotiate a farm supplies pact with Egypt. This would be based on the farm products of which there is usually a surplus in the Community (cereals, sugar, milk powder, beef and veal), and would indicate a price range, which would be revised annually, to guide dealers during deliveries.

Market organisation for sugar

The Council of Ministers reached agreement on the lines to be followed in addition to the basic regulation affecting sugar from overseas departments and the ACP on the special measures for 1975-1976 sugar.

The essential items are as follows:
— in order to ensure equality of competitive conditions, a system of levies is set up for ACP sugar and of subsidy for sugar from the overseas departments;

— over the period from March 1 through June 30, 1975, a subsidy of UA 1.07 per 100 kg of white sugar is granted in respect of sugar from French overseas departments refined by a firm located in one of the member countries of the Community;

— over the period from July 1, 1975 through June 30, 1976, the levy, known as the differential contribution—to be paid by mixed refineries processing sugar eligible for preference (i.e. from the ACP and India)—is fixed at UA 1.20 per 100 kg of sugar;

— over the same period the subsidy—known as the differential amount—for sugar from the French overseas departments is fixed at UA 1.20 per 100 kg, subject to the same conditions as above;

— during the 1975-1976 season the Commission will investigate comparative costs for the different types of refinery, with a view to ensuring fair competitive conditions between the pure refineries and the sugar-making refineries in the Community.

These arrangements are to be put in the form of draft regulations in such a way that they can be finalised at the next agricultural meeting.

For the period after July 1, 1976, the Council laid down the following general principles and asked the Commission to put forward in good time suitable proposals to apply as from the 1976-1977 sugar season:

— the various factors influencing the fixing of refiners' margins for Community cane sugar are to be taken into account in such a way as to avoid distortions of competition between refineries, whatever the origin of their supplies of raw cane sugar;

— determination of the differential contribution applicable in 1976-1977 and subsequently, based essentially on the results of the Commission's investigation mentioned above;

— fixing of general conditions for marketing the raw cane sugar from French overseas departments in such a way as to guarantee that this sugar can be effectively marketed within the Community—and without discrimination between Community firms—in full respect for the principle of Community preference.

FOOD AID

● The Council has given the Community's assent to projects submitted by the

International Committee of the Red Cross regarding the supply for free distribution to certain categories of needy populations in India of:

— 1 000 tons of powdered skim milk and

— 3 534 tons of cereals.

In order to enable Pakistan to face urgent food requirements, the Council decided on emergency action, allotting to Pakistan a supply of 4 000 tons of cereals from existing reserves. This is additional to the 20 000 tons already set aside under the 1974-1975 execution plan.

In regard to sugar supplies under the three-year convention with UNRWA (United Nations Relief and Welfare Agency) the Council decided to repay UNRWA the cost of 2 000 tons of sugar, which the Community was not able to supply in due time, because of the state of the market then prevailing and of which UNRWA stood in urgent need.

● Increased EEC aid to Guinea-Bissau and the Cape Verde Islands

The EEC Council of Ministers decided on August 14 to grant further food aid to Guinea-Bissau and the Cape Verde Republic. The decision refers to the supply of 2 500 tons of cereals and 250 tons of powdered milk to Guinea-Bissau and the delivery of 1 500 tons of cereals and 150 tons of powdered milk to the Cape Verde Islands.

The Council had already adopted, on March 27 last, a proposal for emergency aid to these countries, allocating to Guinea-Bissau 3 000 tons of cereals, 250 tons of powdered milk and 350 tons of butter oil, and to Cape Verde Islands 2 500 tons of cereals, 150 tons of powdered milk and 100 tons of butter oil.

It should be emphasised that the "Nine" are, up to the present, the only countries which have given food aid to the Cape Verde Islands to help them overcome the serious consequences of eight years of drought. ■

EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

● Brussels, October—The Committee on Development and Cooperation met in Brussels on September 29-30 to examine a number of reports due to be presented at the October session of the European Parliament in Strasbourg. They are:

— The Flesch report on the Lomé Con-

vention. Speakers in the discussion on this again emphasised the innovations of Lomé compared with the Yaoundé agreements. The question of cooperation between trades unions on bringing the Lomé Convention into operation was raised in the presence of development commissioner Cheysson.

— The Dondelinger report on generalised preferences for 1976. The rapporteur and committee members consider these preferences are rather modest, in view of the current rate of inflation, and should be stepped up. They called for assurances that the countries benefitting from preferences really are under-developed.

— The Deschamps report on relations between the Community and the associated overseas countries and territories.

— The Krall report on the United Nations seventh special session.

* * *

● ... European Parliament and food aid

1 643 500 tons of cereals, 80 000 tons of dairy produce, 10 000 tons of sugar and 20 million units of account.

The above is what was proposed by the EEC Commission; the above is what the Council of Ministers wishes to reduce; the above is what the competent committee of the European Parliament demands should be reconstituted, so that the EEC World Food Aid Programme may not fall too far below the hopes and expectations it had raised.

This results from the debate in the **Committee on Development and Cooperation** on the report drawn up by M. Ernest Glinne (soc., Belgium) and under the direction of Signore Renato Sandri (comm., Italy). In this document the parliamentarians were unanimous in demanding the continuation and amplification of the aid which the EEC found it possible to promise at the time of the Rome World Food Conference in November, 1974, alike for increasing agricultural production in developing countries, for taking part in a famine-alert system and information on the world position, and for the coordination of stock-piles (Boerman plan). The parliamentarians also appointed Lord Hugh Reay (con., Great Britain) to report to them on those parts of the 1976 budget within the competence of the committee. ■

U N O

UN seventh special session

Blue sky among the storm clouds

The United Nations seventh special session, on development and international economic cooperation, finished a fortnight's marathon in September with a sigh of relief and a good deal to its credit.

The consensus text finally agreed on the night of September 15 was proba-

GASTON THORN President of the UN General Assembly

New York (United Nations) — The 30th ordinary session of the United Nations General Assembly opened in September with the election of its new President who, on this occasion, is to be M. Gaston Thorn. The word election is a broad expression, for in the United Nations the honours and offices are distributed geographically. The year 1975 is a "western group year". The president had, therefore, been chosen a long time in advance by the countries in this group, which is not confined to Western Europe (including Greece and Turkey) but also embraces Canada, Australia and New Zealand.

M. Thorn is well known as a statesman who has excellent relations with the Third World. He was one of the European leaders most attentively listened to in the negotiations between the EEC and the AAMS for the Yaoundé conventions, and in those between the EEC and the ACP for the Lomé Convention, signed on February 28, 1975.

M. Gaston Thorn is head of Government and Foreign Minister in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, which has a population of some 300 000, of whom 120 000 work. He took over his new duties in the UN on September 15 and will be in the chair at meetings of the General Assembly through 1975-1976.

In January 1976, he will also begin a six months period of office as President of the EEC Council of Ministers. ■

bly less important than the atmosphere at the conference. For the first time since the tough-talking sixth special session in April, 1974 the moderates among the Group of 77 took the lead, preferring to stay out of such areas of political confrontation as producer cartels, nationalisation, apartheid, compensation for occupied territories and multinational companies in order to reach more pragmatic ground.

The initial positions of the industrial and developing countries still remained far apart, but the special session made solid, if unspectacular, progress:

Commodities. The resolution lined up a series of instruments that should provide the basis for substantial agreements in future. Essentially, the conference defined various general concepts and identified the UN institutions (UNCTAD, IMF, IBRD, UNIDO etc.) that will take up the more specific action called for by the developing countries. It was accepted that the fourth UNCTAD (in Nairobi in May) will discuss market structures.

Aid. The industrial countries generally accepted the aid target of 0.7 % of GNP by 1980. The texts called not only on the industrial countries but on those "which are in a position to do so" to increase aid. There was general agreement to reinforce the means of action of international organisations in the aid field.

Industry. The special session confirmed at the political level the resolutions taken at the UNIDO industrial conference in Lima, while emphasising such points as the creation of a mechanism of consultation to allow periodic exchanges of view between developed and developing countries on industrial orientations.

Agriculture. The one billion (*) SDR or \$1.2 billion international fund for agricultural development proposed by the recent World Food Conference should come into being by the end of 1975. An American proposal to create a 30 million ton world grain stock and a 500 000 ton emergency grain reserve is included in the resolution.

The spirit of cooperation on the developing countries' side was matched by the industrial countries. The United States began with an extensive and concrete list of proposals; but they also made it clear that their basic position on trade still stands. In a statement after the special session, US representative Jacob Myerson said: "The United States cannot and does not accept any implications that the world is now embarked on something called 'the new international

(*) American billion.

economic order'... The commitments we have made are to assist developing countries' exports within the market, rather than supplanting market mechanisms."

The European Community maintained a joint position throughout the conference and was represented for the first time at the UN by a single spokesman. This was largely made possible by the careful preparation before the special session of the Nine's position and it gave the Community considerable weight, especially in its role as moderator.

The consensus resolution should be seen as a starting point rather than as an end in itself. The spirit of cooperation that has been re-established in the UN remains fragile and the work of the coming months in different international milieux will be vital. The position of the Group of 77 as such before the session contained many points difficult for the industrial countries to accept, such as the application of an "integrated programme" for commodities, improved terms of trade, import/export indexing, export subsidies, a conference on developing countries' debts (now around \$120 billion), a legal code for technology transfers and approval of the Declaration and Programme of Action on a New International Economic Order. But the storm clouds cleared at New York and the first blue sky for a long time showed through. ■

B.T.

F. A. O.

Rome — World exports of agricultural products of primary necessity rose in 1974 by 19%, reaching the record figure of \$106 500 m. The physical value of the trade was, however, down by about 4%, according to the annual report on these products published in Rome by the FAO (UN Food and Agriculture Organisation).

For the first time in recent years the developing countries secured the greater part of the increase in produce exports, which amounted to \$10 000 million (excluding fishery and forestry products). They earned about \$5 400 m more than in the previous year, some \$3 000 m of the increase being accounted for by sugar alone.

Of the total increase in export receipts under all the headings (including fishery and forestry products) the report points out, the amount accruing to developed countries was of the order of \$8 950 m and to developing countries \$6 140 m. ■

EEC — SOUTH AMERICA

Sir Christopher Soames in South America — towards co- operation and a new economic relationship

Sir Christopher Soames, Commission Vice-President responsible for the external relations of the European Community, has made an official visit to several countries in Latin America. He had talks with the foreign ministers of the countries belonging to the Central American Common Market and then went to the headquarters of the Junta of the Cartagena Agreement and afterwards to Brazil.

This series of visits is an indication of the Community interest in the economic integration in progress in the Central American and Andean regions, and of its desire to set up a system of continuous contact with the countries of Latin America.

Sir Christopher's first visit (in mid-September) was to Guatemala, where he was received by the President of the Republic and had talks with several members of the government. He also met the economic affairs ministers of the five countries of the Central American Common Market (Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua) and the Secretary General of this organisation (SIECA).

The ministers and Sir Christopher made a joint declaration of their interest in the development of close relations between the Community and the countries of Central America and their institutions, as a means to increase and coordinate their attempts at economic integration, and to fruitful and increased cooperation between the European Communities and the Central American Common Market.

In the export trade of the countries of the Central American Common Market to the European Community, 85% consists of agricultural produce, of which coffee accounts for 46.9% and bananas 28.5%.

Sir Christopher's next visit was to Venezuela (September 23-27) where he met with the President of the Republic and had talks with the Minister of Mines and Hydrocarbons and the Minister for International Economic Relations.

He also had talks with the members of the Andean Group (Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and Venezuela) and the technical office of the Cartagena

Agreement. The talks turned largely on joint programmes for the industrial development of the Andean Group and on methods for promoting European participation in the industrial programme. For 1976 the measures will be primarily concerned with petrochemicals, for which approval has been given by the Commission of the Cartagena Agreement.

The talks also included an analysis of the present state of trade between Europe and South America and possible measures of increasing it.

Among the exports of the Andean Group to the European Community, 4.5% consist of energy products and raw materials, the most important of which are oil (19.2%), aluminium and zinc.

Manufactured goods are also important, accounting for 34% of the exports, of which 27.6% are copper goods. ■

TRADE FAIRS AND EXHIBITIONS IN 1975

by Louis JOOS

The month of September was one of intense activity in trade promotion by Europe's partners in group shows at international fairs and exhibitions. This was in spite of the fact that we are now not far from the bottom of the EDF kitty which finances these events and which will very soon be empty.

At the beginning of the month was the Algiers fair (August 22 - Sept. 7), followed by Paris (Sept. 6-9), "ANUGA" at Cologne (Sept. 13-18), the Göteborg fair (Sept. 13-21), Marseilles (Sept. 19-29) and finally the Abidjan Textiles fair (Sept. 20-24).

I was able to see most of these shows. They were extremely varied in atmosphere, in style and also in their results.

My first comment is that the group stands or pavilions of the AASM are usually very well designed and presented, comparing favourably with most competitors, apart from a few luxurious national exhibits. On the other hand it is a pity that there are still last-minute cancellations, or a lack of exhibits because for one reason or another goods cannot be dispatched in time or there are customs difficulties at the very end of the



Sampling coffee at the Cameroon stand in the Cologne Food Fair (ANUGA 1975). Right, Dr. O.W. Kollatz, Secretary at the Federal Ministry of Cooperation.

procedure. Such incidents must be ruled out. Europe's partners must build up their image as competent and efficient exhibitors.

Secondly, the AASM sign has been replaced by ACP. This was running a little too fast, for the EDF funds currently available may only finance exhibits by the former Yaoundé associates. This led to some confusion, especially at Berlin, where a number of ACP countries were exhibiting in the "Partners for Progress" exhibition on an individual basis and quite outside the AASM pavilions.

On the question of staffing and stand arrangements, the quality of the exhibitions has improved each year, but in some years more markedly than in others. The "spectacular" element is important, and the presence of stand personnel in local costume is a real attraction. In all cases the problem of interpreters has been pretty well solved and many of the African countries now have stand managers, or assistant managers, who understand the language of the countries in which the fairs take place. A surprising example was at Göteborg, where the Senegalese stand had an interpreter who was himself Senegalese. It seems in fact that there is a small colony of Senegalese in this great Swedish port, which forms a closely knit community with a similar Gambian colony. The explanation, too, is quite surprising, for it seems that quite a number of Swedish people spend their holidays at Banjul in the Gambia, where there are two hotels in which practically all the guests are Swedish. This has resulted in a mini-emigration of Gambians and Senegalese to Sweden and some of them have set up at Göteborg. Another noteworthy fact was that the interpreter on the

Gabon stand was the Gabonese wife of a German doctor. The old bilateralism of metropolitan country and its colony seems thus to be breaking up. Not only are horizons growing wider, but there are also immediate advantages on the commercial plane.

At some of the fairs visited it was rather a surprise to find the African representation tinged with bureaucracy. However keen on his job a stand manager may be, and however great his competence, if he is only a civil servant or a representative of a public body, the best attitude he can present is that of an impartial intermediary. There can be advantages in this kind of approach and the efficiency of the Ivory Coast Foreign Trade Centre is a shining example. There are, however, other ways of tackling the job and the example of Mauritius was particularly striking. The minister had asked all firms anxious to take part in the Berlin fair to make personal contact. From them he chose 13 firms which seemed specially interesting and who represented various industrial branches. In half these cases delegates from the firms concerned came personally to Berlin and took the chance to promote their business and their products with all the enthusiasm which stems from immediate interest in the financial success of the undertaking.

The above considerations are food for thought, both in Africa and in Europe. A more detailed analysis of the September fairs raises the memory of Algiers as seeming to be still afflicted with teething troubles. It was a prestige exhibition for the AAMS on Africa's own soil, and its local organisation ought to have been perfect, not only in the shipment and handling of the goods and the allocation

and equipment of the stands, but also in its facilities for the staff manning the stands. A day's work at the fair has a way of being arduous, and a good organisation could, at least, relieve participants of the wearisome and solitary trudge to find hotel rooms or the appropriate customs house.

ANUGA was probably the most professional of these fairs, in the same way as the Paris leather week. Eight countries were exhibiting, perhaps at rather close quarters, but the exhibition was, on the whole, well attended. Once again it became apparent that over and above the principal exports such as coffee and tea, the marketing of tropical fruit—which might become a far from negligible export—runs up against the obstacle that the average European is insufficiently informed. A propaganda fortnight for these products was recently launched by Coleama (the liaison committee of producers and exporters of tropical fruit and early vegetables) in some 70 stores in the six countries of the original EEC; but no emphasis could be too great for the fact that the buyer himself must discover and learn to appreciate such delicacies as mango, passion fruit, pawpaw and others, whether fresh or canned. On this occasion a film, prepared by the Commission, was available (14 copies with commentary in French and six in German) and this may give continued support to the education of the European palate to the new tastes; but the countries concerned



Senegal's stand at the Berlin "Partners for Progress" fair.

**Claude CHEYSSON
at the Marseilles Fair**

EEC - Third World relations were dealt with by European Commissioner Claude Cheysson in September 1975, in a speech at the opening of the 51st International Marseilles Fair.

He mentioned the Lomé Convention, signed earlier this year, which provides links the European Community and 46 countries are in Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific. M. Cheysson also gave a further sketch of the Community's Mediterranean policy and its objectives.

"Our ambition", he said, "is to work on the same lines with every one of the countries facing us across the Mediterranean, not excluding Israel and not excluding the Arab countries.

"Shall we succeed? Here at Marseilles I should like to repeat the statement I made a few days ago at Tunis, of the determination of the nine countries of the European Community to make a success of this grand design, and in doing so to set up a running dialogue between Europe and the Arab countries.

One can hardly fail to dream great things, especially in such a place as Marseilles, in imagining the scope of this joint economic adventure, involving the interests of no less than 350 million people and giving each country in the region a better guarantee of its independence, better protection against interference from outside and better assurances of continued peace".

The socialist deputy mayor of Marseilles, M. Gaston Deferre, also insisted on the need for seeking "to define a new policy for relations between Europe and the countries of the Third World, in which field Marseilles has a great part to play". ■



West German State Secretary for the Economy D. Rohwedder congratulates the young Senegalese hostesses in Berlin.



An important visitor to the Ivory Coast stand in Berlin: J.-J. Wischniewski, State Secretary for Foreign Affairs.

must watch this point carefully in future fairs.

Göteborg. Only three African countries exhibited this year and among these Gabon took the biggest exhibiting space available. The results differed from one country to another. In the Senegalese camp satisfaction ran high, particularly since the language barrier had been overcome. Among the Camerounians, however, the attitude was rather reserved. From Gabon came the minister Kasa-Mapsi, who said exhibiting at Göteborg is not only a commercial affair but a political one. "It demon-

strates how open the Community is to non-member countries such as Sweden", he said. "It gives the lie to anybody who may still think the Community and its partners are no more than a protectionist club". A reception was given at which M. Kasa-Mapsi was introduced to the governor of Göteborg-Bohuslän and a number of other Swedish regional authorities and also members of the Swedish press, radio and TV.

Marseilles. Interest in the Marseilles exhibit by the partners of the Community was enhanced by the fact that M. Cheysson attended the fair. Apart from

the purely commercial side of the exhibition, an opportunity was made for a responsible member of the Commission to tell the European public about the Community's development policy, mentioning a number of its successes (including the Lomé Convention) and adding that there are still problems ahead.

Berlin. The European Commission, very much in spite of itself, was caught up in a political storm. Word had gone round Germany's former capital that the British were preparing a fair for the Third World, to be held in London in

1976 and to be run on the Berlin pattern. The German Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, Herr Rohwedder, used rather forthright language in denouncing this "copy" of "partners for progress", and asked that the Commission should abstain from giving its support to this "experiment".

The Commission has in fact a standard commitment to help in financing any participation by the partner countries in Africa (and shortly in the Caribbean or the Pacific also) provided not less than three of these countries express the wish to take part in any particular fair or exhibition. What justification could there be for depriving the Commission's friends of a London visit, if they are convinced they could do business there? The whole upset may be no more than a storm in a teacup, for Berlin's reputation will certainly not suffer. Moreover, there does not seem at present to be any reason for thinking the fair in London, if it really happens, will be an annual event.

Also to be mentioned is the textile and clothing exhibition at Abidjan. It is mainly concerned with made-up textiles, for last year there was only one experimental exhibit at the earlier stages. It was a success in itself to attract 60 exhibitors from 17 countries to an African city. Perfect organisation was another attraction and another success. The business done was far in excess of expectations, despite the present state of world trade.

This success serves to stress the results secured in European fairs. There will now be a growing place in the market for African textiles, particularly since the EEC has entered into self-limitation agreements with Hong Kong, Pakistan and India and is likely to extend the list before long. The African prices are competitive and the styles seem to please European buyers, subject to a few adjustments.

Apart from the textiles, the leather and hides sector is important. There has been a considerable recession, but there still seems to be reasonable hope of progress so long as the right qualities can be offered at the right prices, as they are at present.

Surprising as it may appear, the European public, which is becoming more and more travel conscious, is visibly attracted by the work of the African artisan, however much contempt may be poured upon him locally. It would be a good plan to take this production outside the gift trade and develop goods of specific utility, using traditional African materials coupled with the craftsman's skill.

Perhaps the arts and crafts show to be held at Dakar in December will provide an impulse for this. ■

L.J.

COCOA

● New International Cocoa Agreement

Geneva, October — The United Nations Cocoa Conference today settled the text of the new International Cocoa Agreement, which will come into force on October 1, 1976.

The main provisions of this new agreement are as follows:

- the average price is fixed at 47 cents;
- quotas will be suspended in a "neutral zone" between 47 and 53 cents;
- between 53 and 55 cents the regulatory stock will step in for up to 7% of the quotas;
- above 55 cents, the regulatory stock will come on unlimited sale.

Similar platforms have been established in the other direction: between 47 and 42 cents, quotas are limited to 97%, and between 42 and 39 cents, the regulatory stock buys up to 4% of the quotas. Below 39 cents the stock buys without limits.

The quotas will be fixed according to exports over the last five years. They will be comparable to the quotas currently in force.

The new agreement is for three years and could be extended by a further two years. The United States have already said they will not sign it and the Ivory Coast has made very strong reservations, although indicating its desire "not to do anything to harm international cooperation". ■

EEC - ACP

Interim Committee

The ACP-EEC Interim Committee, set up by an exchange of letters which took place on 28 February 1975 when the Lomé Convention was signed, held its third meeting in Brussels on 22 October 1975 under the joint chairmanship of Somali ambassador Omar Giama, Chairman of the Committee of Ambassadors of the ACP States and Italian ambassador Bombassei, Chairman of the Committee of Permanent Representatives of the Council of the European Communities.

The examination of various items on the agenda enabled a frank and constructive discussion to be held on the main problems arising after the early and unilateral implementation by the Com-

munity and the ACP States on 1 July 1975 of certain provisions of the Lomé Convention and as regards the entry into force of this convention.

The Interim Committee was thus able to establish, on the basis of the reports submitted by the co-chairman of the ACP/EEC committees responsible for customs cooperation, trade cooperation, the stabilization of export earnings, sugar and industrial cooperation, that satisfactory progress was being made in the various sectors covered by the Lomé Convention.

The exchange of views on the work of the sub-committee on customs cooperation enabled possible solutions to be found with regard to certain trade difficulties which had arisen from the customs point of view.

As regards trade cooperation, the committee discussed, among other things, the Community's generalized preferences scheme for 1976, the request made by the ACP States concerning rum imported from the Bahamas, the presentation and defence of the Lomé Convention before the GATT, the implementation of the Interim Agreement by both parties and the constitution of a Joint Permanent Group on Bananas as provided for in Protocol No. 6 to the Lomé Convention whose first meeting is to be held within the next few days.

As regards the export of commodities, the Committee discussed certain questions in relation to the stabilization of export earnings and sugar.

In a more general manner, the committee discussed information and consultation procedure. In this respect, the ACP States submitted comments regarding the Internal Agreement on financing and the management of Community aid.

The Community also made a statement concerning the application by Sao Tomé and Príncipe for accession to the Lomé Convention.

Finally, before drawing up a programme of work and finally adopting its rules of procedure, the Committee took stock of the ratification procedures of the Lomé Convention. These procedures, which have already been completed in 26 ACP States and in one member State of the Community and will follow the normal course in the other member States, give reason to hope that the convention will enter into force within the next few months.

With this in mind, the committee welcomed the spirit of mutual trust which has unfailingly guided those taking part in the discussions in progress and which will ensure an effective implementation of the Lomé Convention as soon as it enters into force.

Finally, the committee agreed to hold its next meeting on 17 November 1975. ■



President Felix Houphouët-Boigny arrives at the PDCI conference.

IVORY COAST

The Ivory Coast Democratic Party (PDCI) held its sixth conference in Abidjan from October 14-17, 1975, on the theme "Development and Solidarity". President Felix Houphouët-Boigny, the honorary chairman of the party, and many foreign delegations were present.

The Ivory Coast President praised the virtues of cooperation and emphasized the difficulties of bringing greater justice into international relations. In his very well-received speech (see extracts below), he also spoke of the new character of the EEC-ACP Lomé Convention and of the duty of Europe.

The party conference again nominated M. Houphouët-Boigny as candidate for the next presidential election and confirmed the appointment as PDCI Secretary General of M. Philippe Yacé, chairman of the national parliament.

Cooperation

"... If, indeed, a wind of change is blowing through relationships which have been too often dominated up to now by invective and monologue, we want to be sure that the poor countries have at last become more than the

pawns in the gigantic game of chess confronting our planet, or the areas privileged to stage the most tragic conflicts.

We want to be certain that these spectacular summit meetings and rendez-vous turn out to be more than well-managed shuffling in a pack of alliances—for example, that they deal the Third World a fairer share of the riches of the universe.

But so many events and reactions give us cause to feel that grievous and persistent realities are hidden by appearances.

How can one not despair of justice and human common sense when the world gives 30 times more to military expenditure than to the Third World; when one third of the world's population owns more than 80 per cent of its gross product while the other two-thirds must be content with what is left over, and the tragic lot of our brothers is malnutrition, hunger, wretchedness and illiteracy?

It is still a depressingly clear reality that the terms of trade are worsening, even if a few glimmers of hope can be raised by the innovations of the convention recently signed at Lomé by the ACP and European Economic Community.

Despite the reassurances of certain spokesmen for the rich countries, we have seen no beneficial change in the terms of trade since the UNCTAD meeting in Santiago and throughout the succeeding conferences. Quite the contrary: the gap between rich and poor countries widens all the time.

The duty of Europe

Naturally, our European partners alone cannot alter the present world economic order which is crushing us, but they could nonetheless give proof of their good will by agreeing to pay as they should for the raw materials they import from our countries.

Europe, our partner, owes it to herself to practise a trade policy more in line with her own primary interests, her own priority interests. Europe cannot live and survive as a great industrial power except by turning resolutely to the Third World, and especially to Africa, that great reservoir of raw materials.

Europe's situation is quite different from that of some industrial countries, especially the United States and the USSR, which already have in their own territory all, or most, of the raw materials which are vital to their industries. The most essential of them is oil.

As well as having considerable agricultural resources, such as cotton, the United States contains a large and wealthy internal market. This would allow them to survive a really serious crisis to a large extent, as they would export as lit-

tle as possible. This is a luxury neither Europe nor Japan can afford.

So Europe's duty seems clearly defined: to cooperate closely and openly with Africa.

In 25 or 50 years from now there could be a market of more than 400 million consumers between Europe and Africa, whose potential riches are incalculable. For Europe the only policy that will really pay off in the long run is to help Africa, and more than she does at present. The human and material resources of these two continents could not be more complementary.

Far from competing with the United States, by far the leading industrial power at present, Europe will help this great country, so vital for the maintenance of peace, to understand that it is by paying a fair price for the poor countries' raw materials and by helping them financially that a powerful contribution can be made towards their well-being, which is the only effective weapon against disorder and political adventuring.

Whatever efforts our dearest friends may have made and are still making, too often it is the "no" of the privileged countries which carries the day in the planetary confrontation between North and South which has today become the single greatest problem of our time. And, as if it were needed, this "no" has been strengthened by certain divisions. Ideology, geography and history, besides diverging interests and inequalities of development, often manage to weaken the united front established among States. Solidarity is difficult and thankless, while egoism knows no frontiers.

And yet—what else can be expected from most of the powers of this world than fine words and hypocritical resolutions, unless the weakest develop habits of thinking, believing and constructing together, unless there is an increasingly definite and deliberate sense of the imperatives of joint action, opportunely chosen, thoroughly concerted and rigorously carried out?

In this fundamental quest for a new world economic order, Africa expects us to bring her out of her under-development; and we can only satisfy this expectation by making demands and acting together, in increasing concertation, leaving behind the anachronisms of our little quarrels and our wounded self-esteem.

Political isolation is damaging, but economic isolation is even more so. There will only be real unity and lasting peace in Africa and the world in a form of development that is beneficial to all countries, and to all people in those countries, a development capable of leading all our peoples, in the same spirit of solidarity, towards progress and well-being. ■



Institut Pasteur in Tananarive (Madagascar).

and Vietnam). Further conventions are currently under consideration with other countries in Africa and the Middle East. The Institut Pasteur, despite its limited resources, is doing its best to satisfy these requests.

It would take too long to include here a detailed account of the activities of these institutes under these arrangements for co-operation. The Pasteur teams working overseas are engaged, like their Paris colleagues, in bio-medical and epidemiological research, essentially of an applied nature, but this is not allowed to interfere with the medical analyses and the preparation of biological products ordered by public health authorities. Another aspect of the work of the Pasteur teams, both in France and overseas, is the scientific and technical training of local assistants and their contribution to higher education in the medical and pharmaceutical faculties. It is worth remembering, too, that it was A. Yersin who went to Hanoi in 1902 to set up the School of Medicine there and run it for the next two years; and his example was later followed in many other countries.

The Pasteur method

It is scarcely possible to assess the impact of the Pasteur methods in fighting infectious diseases and parasites in the tropics.

Two of these advances earned their authors a Nobel Prize—Laveran's discovery of the malaria agent in Algeria and the description by Charles Nicolle of the exanthematic typhus transmission cycle in Tunisia. These are two of the landmarks in the rapid advance of our knowledge of the causes and propagation

of tropical maladies. Other undisputed successes of great benefit to the African and Malagasy populations were the development of a yellow fever vaccine at Dakar and another against plague in Madagascar, and the prophylactic use of both.

All these are particularly striking examples, but there have been many others. An outstanding one has been the campaign against sleeping sickness in Africa under the leadership of Jamot.

Special mention must also be given to the work done by the universities. They were of more recent creation, but they have made an important contribution to the protection of public health, and indirectly to the work of research laboratories and veterinary departments.

Tribute should also be paid to the medical staff in the hospitals and the bush units, whose daily toil contained nothing spectacular but who nevertheless brought to it a spirit of devotion which, in some cases, led even to the sacrifice of their lives.

The Pasteur Institutes and the universities are no more than examples of the advance in research institutes and training facilities. In parallel with this a medical infrastructure has come into being. It includes hospitals, dispensaries and health and hygiene institutes, many of which have departments specialising in the campaigns against malaria, tuberculosis and venereal disease. Other factors are facilities for care and protection of mother and child, school hygiene, and mobile units engaged in the fight against the main endemic diseases aided, in some cases, by regional organisations.

The list is long and must in any case be incomplete. To it must be added the international organisations (i.e. WHO, FAO and UNICEF) which are in a position to intervene in support of a great variety of projects if asked to do so by the governments concerned.

A better state of health...

The medical work which has been achieved in developing tropical countries has called for much effort and great devotion, not only from the nationals of these countries but also from those directly or indirectly providing cooperation. With the considerable investments already made in developing the health infrastructure, with the special emphasis which has been put on training medical personnel at every level, and with all that has been done for the health education of the populations concerned, it might be supposed that the medical services in these countries would by now be able to satisfy the main requirements of their populations and that health conditions should be comparatively satisfactory.

Such an opinion might be supported by the fact that the populations are growing fast and continuously; that in many cases epidemics have been wiped out; that the personnel and equipment of the hospitals in the big towns is such as to provide medical treatment and surgical intervention at advanced technical levels.

... but still less than enough

These facts are positive enough, but there are serious shortcomings. It is a disquieting fact that **hardly 15% of the rural and up-country populations** have access to a health service.



It is no part of my present intention to analyse the causes. It raises complex problems on the social and economic, as well as the medical side and their solution does not lie wholly within the compass of the health authorities, or of the medical faculty and still less of the medical research staff.

It is perfectly obvious that in any country the national public health service has got to be an integral part of the development plan. It is equally obvious it must not put all its resources into curative medicine and neglect the preventive, nor put everything into town hospitals and neglect the rural health centres. The work has got to be decentralised in such a way that the medical personnel in the front line are recruited, trained, supervised and able to get on with their work in such a way as to gain the confidence of the population, give it the elementary care it needs and act as a permanent link between populations and hospitals.

These general principles imply changes to which there are many obstacles. Some countries, such as China, have overcome them by political decisions which have changed the whole picture. Another approach has been that of Venezuela, where the national resources were distributed on new lines, so as to promote simplified medical programmes under a system designed for village communities, with the development of dispensaries and the training of medical auxiliaries to give first aid and primary medical care.

The World Health Organisation is the publisher of a work by K.W. Newell under the title "Participation and Health", describing the new methods used in nine different countries to make medical care more easily available, especially for rural populations. These approaches repay consideration and should be a fertile source of ideas on how to cope with health problems without offence to local political and cultural traditions.

A joint effort

A common effort is indispensable if the new methods are to be adopted and the new structures set up. Whatever solutions be adopted, everybody concerned in the problems, on the spot or at a distance, directly or indirectly, must play his or her part in this

Pasteur Institute in Dakar (Senegal).



effort. One of the corner stones is the system of public health laboratories, without which it is impossible to deal effectively with the medical and health requirements.

Since the first laboratories were set up in tropical countries, with the help of the Institut Pasteur, and at the request of its founder, their numbers have increased and multiplied in hospitals, health institutes and elsewhere. Some have specialised in the diagnosis and treatment of various social sicknesses such as tuberculosis and venereal disease. Others have been set up to support the mobile units engaged in the battle against the major endemic maladies. Others have concentrated on research, playing their part in listing the tropical diseases, studying their causes, their agents, their carriers and the systems of their propagation, seeking to develop the best techniques for diagnosis, prevention and treatment.

All this has played a part in public health protection which has been in many ways decisive. Experience, however, has disclosed deficiencies in the laboratory network as it now exists. Their activities are too little coordinated; hospital laboratories have expanded unduly at the expense of public health laboratories; and laboratories in the towns and cities have grown much more than those in the rural areas.

A plan for a national service of public health laboratories is put forward by the WHO in the fifth report of its committee of public health laboratory experts (1). A service on these lines would remedy some, at least, of the existing deficiencies. It would have the great advantage that the functions of the centralised laboratories would be precisely defined, which would enable provision to be made for intermediate and local establishments on an adequate scale to deal with the real requirements of the population.

In the activity of laboratories in tropical countries special attention needs to be given to the position accorded to bio-medical research. The predominant health problems are still infectious diseases and malnutrition; both these call for medical and epidemiological research in their own ecological context. Priority must also be given to development research falling in with these requirements.

Need for basic research

It is now becoming evident that we have reached a stage in the fight against some of the tropical diseases from which we can make no substantial further progress without basic research. This applies, for example, to malaria, leprosy and viral hepatitis, the fight against which has already absorbed manpower and money on a considerable scale without really satisfactory results.

In the medium term, basic research may point the way to solutions to tropical health problems which will probably cost less and certainly be more rational than continuation with means and methods which long experience has shown to be only partly effective.

It is with this in view that the Institut Pasteur is continuing the scientific work in tropical countries in which it has been so long engaged. It is glad to be numbered among those who have recognised how serious is the state of health in the countries concerned, and who have done all they could to promote new ideas for the development of the local health services. ■

L. CHAMBON

(1) WHO, Technical Reports, 1972 No. 491.



WHO

The fight for health in Africa

After the Yaoundé meeting of the WHO Regional Committee for Africa, an interview with Dr Quenum

The WHO Regional Committee held its 25th meeting in Yaoundé in September 1975, when Alfred Quenum, WHO Regional Director for Africa, submitted the annual report on African health conditions. The agenda was to include discussion of the annual report on WHO activities in Africa in 1974-75 and of the 6th general working programme for the period 1978-1983. In addition to our interview with Dr Mahler, we were fortunate enough to obtain from Dr Quenum answers to a number of questions of special African interest.

▶ *The medical density, or the number of doctors per 10 000 people, is a simple figure but a significant index. Recent WHO estimates suggest that the number of doctors in the world will have to double before the year 2000 if we are to avoid a dilution of the medical density. Africa, with 1.36 doctors per 10 000 inhabitants, has a smaller proportionate share than any other continent. Why do you think this is?*

— There are two main causes. Out of the 29 medical training schools, 15 are less than 10 years old and the average graduations are 40 a year. This position should improve considerably before long. The other factor is the unduly large drain of medical trainees to countries offering better material and professional conditions. The same reasons explain why doctors who have taken their training abroad sometimes do not return to their own countries.

Apart from this, one of the big obstacles to health progress in Africa is that African health workers have been inadequately trained in foreign countries and often tend to misunderstand the

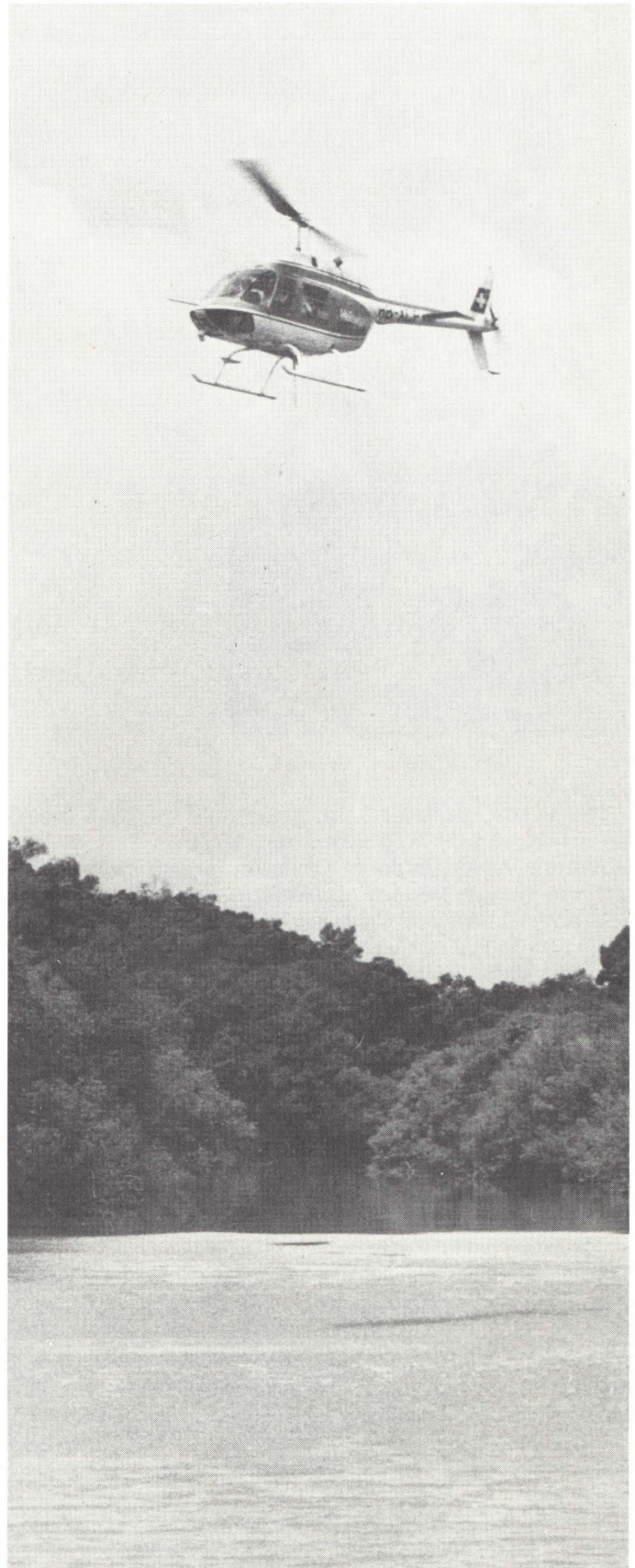
local realities. Most of the African students trained in this way were cut off for a time from the cultural, social, political and professional life of their own countries and in some cases the break proved permanent. It is therefore encouraging to note that a growing number of students are now finding places in the regional training establishments. Systematic training has been put in hand in regional centres at Kampala (English-speaking) and Yaoundé (French-speaking) and priority in the bursary awards has been given to future teaching personnel. With help from the WHO, many countries in the region are studying the possibility of setting up further establishments, some of which will cover several disciplines.

▶ *Your annual report to the 25th meeting of the Regional Committee tells us that though the campaigns are going well against a number of diseases, malaria is still one of the chief causes of sickness and death in Africa. What special measures can be taken about this?*

— The anti-malaria campaign has continued as part of the health service development projects. Several countries have given it a place in long-term health programmes and general planning operations, and the WHO is offering help to governments in preparing realistic programmes which give effect to WHO strategy as well as to national priorities. With this help the countries are preparing their national health teams for anti-malarial work, including identification, chemical prophylaxy and treatment. These tasks are now handled by many health workers up-country. In several places primary school children are given anti-malarial doses every week. Though the campaign against the



EDF



EDF

WHO

The different lines of attack against onchocercosis: information; insecticide spraying by helicopter; destruction of the larvae of the fly which carries the disease (in the falls at Banfora, Upper Volta).



specific mosquito usually consists of larva destruction in the urban areas, barrage spray attacks around these areas are also recommended. The results have so far been disappointing because the operations are almost always in the hands of inadequately equipped local authorities. Attempts are in hand to make the wider public aware of its own opportunities for taking part in the anti-malarial campaign. Village health committees are being set up under the aegis of influential local people.

Malaria should be given its proper place among the health priorities. There should be further rationalisation of the way existing resources are used. This would involve coordination between the different sectors and the integration of anti-malarial action into the general health campaigns and plans for collective action. The training of national health personnel should be intensified and



This blind victim of onchocercosis is not yet 40 years old.

more antidotes should be used to protect population groups which are specially vulnerable, such as nursing and young infants, pregnant women and nursing mothers, and also for the treatment of acute cases. Both in urban areas and in areas of economic development the campaign for extermination of the carrier mosquito should also be intensified and further progress made with the operational research.

▶ According to the same report there are some illnesses which specially threaten African children. These include diphtheria, measles, whooping cough, polyomyelitis, tetanus, tuberculosis and smallpox. Modern science is already well armed against these forms of illness. What are the obstacles to the fight against them?

— The chief obstacles are the lack of technical resources, men, money and material, and more especially the means of communication for getting to the patient. The insufficiency of the basic health measures makes us aware of the importance of health education and the availability of information in village and other communities. This is a field in which modern science is well equipped, but there is not enough confidence in the existing instruments. In this, as elsewhere, it should be possible in case of need to bring existing local resources effectively into play and to make sure that the communities take part. ■

Interview by
ALAIN LACROIX

YAOUNDÉ Meeting of WHO Regional Committee

The twenty-fifth meeting of the World Health Organisation Regional Committee was held this year in Yaoundé (Cameroon) ending on September 23 after five days' work. Taking part in the meeting were delegations from 37 African countries and also from liberation movements and inter-government organisations. It was opened on September 17 by Dr Mahler, WHO Director General. Those present included the Regional Director, Dr Quenum, and the Cameroon Prime Minister, Mr Paul Bya. It was under the chairmanship of the Cameroon Health Minister, Mr Paul Fokam Kamga.

At the opening meeting Dr Quenum called the Yaoundé meeting a "session of hope". Dr Mahler gave an outline of the future programme, stressing the magnitude of the tasks to be tackled in the next 25 years. It would, he said, "take a full generation to provide an acceptable health standard for the peoples of Africa". To this end he proposed a number of reforms which would make WHO an organ of international cooperation and no longer a "pillar of conservatism or a distributor of aid". He called on health ministers to "stop soft pedalling the national responsibilities" and give their time to working out programmes and getting action and remedies going.

Another point raised was the importance of forming regional dental training centres and appointing regional dental administration officers to coordinate this work.

Among the many decisions taken by the committee was that the 26th meeting should be held in Kampala (Uganda) in September next year, and the 27th at Brazzaville, the WHO regional headquarters, in September 1977. The 28th meeting in 1978 will probably be at Kigali.

WHO

Health revolution and population growth



Malnutrition still continues, but infant mortality is diminishing.

Though economic progress in developing countries has not always been easy to secure, there has been one outstanding gain. In the last 20 or 30 years there has been a "health revolution" and the improvement has been great. It is certainly one of the factors responsible for the population growth.

In 1971 five people were born for every two who died. UN annual population figures put the world population that year at about 3 800 million. Unless something is done to stem the growth, the number of the world's inhabitants will have doubled within 30 years. The year 2000 should see a world total population of around 7 500 million.

The position and prospects differ from country to country and from region to region. A growth in population is not a matter for anxiety unless and until it runs ahead of the growth in food supplies and other resources. In general the ACP countries are not among those where the threat is greatest, but it is worth recalling some of the facts brought out in the African Population Conference in 1971. This conference, which met in Accra, was held under the joint auspices of the Economic Commission for Africa, the population division of the UN and the technical cooperation bureau, and it was followed by a conference of African population experts.

At that time the population growth-rate for the whole of Africa (about 2.8 per thousand) was the same as that of southern Asia and of Latin America. On the normal assumptions Africa should soon have a higher growth-rate than any other region. This is expected to continue from 1980 until the end of the 21st century and perhaps longer. The average of the different projections suggests that Africa's population of 344 million (1970) will grow by 64% by 1985 to reach 530 million, while the population at the end of the century may be 818 million, or 137% more than in 1970.

This population burst is occurring in most developing countries and is partly the result of the health revolution. It will obviously be a heavy burden on economic growth and raise a great number of problems, especially in regard to schooling, vocational training, employment and housing. Some of the prophets go so far as to suggest that recent history—especially the last two decades when the main wars have been fought in Asia, where population is growing faster than food supplies—gives warning of a volcanic turmoil in which under-nourishment, under-development and unemployment engender poverty and want, providing a background stimulus to aggressive behaviour. Gaston Bouthoul, a leading student of the science of war, has made a systematic summary of these arguments in a work entitled "Child murder deferred" (*L'infanticide différée*). No one can for a moment countenance a return to this form of natural selection to control population growth. But the health revolution in itself casts the shadow of a threat: that in the short term, population growth will outstrip available resources in some areas. ■

WHO

THE HEALTH WAR

Women in the front line

Every year there are a few women among the delegates to the World Health Assembly. Below are some simple and direct accounts indicative of the tenacity and devotion required of them in their responsible positions. Interviews by Réhane Répond. (1)



Dr Marcella Davies

Head of the health service, Sierra Leone

I did my medical studies in Dublin and became a specialist at the School of Tropical Medicine and the Public Health Department in Liverpool University. As a practising doctor I began by concentrating on gynaecology and obstetrics, for in Africa the need for women doctors in this field is enormous. I was lucky enough to have very sympathetic parents who made big sacrifices for my education and gave me such good support that I began my medical studies very young. This is most important for a woman who hopes to marry and have children. I made a definite choice in favour of public health, because self-enrichment was never one of the aims for which I looked to the medical profession. It seems to me unthinkable for medicine to be used for this purpose, especially in Africa, where the population is really poor. Maybe I am by nature an idealist, and it was this which led me into public health work, which is a career in which you meet many people who are truly unselfish.

In my capacity as chief administrator I am also the manager of the country's medical services, for 80% of the people are cared for in the health centres set up by the government. I am also responsible for the medical missions and an advisor to the government on all public health matters. In my work the big handicap is the lack of personnel capable of giving me any help. I have too much to do and there is nobody to whom some of my functions

could be delegated. To occupy a position of this importance is a major responsibility, in which I do my best, partly in the light of my own conscience but also with the knowledge that I am preparing the way for others. I was not the first woman doctor in Sierra Leone. There were others before me and I think there are now about a dozen of us.

The first nursing school was formed in 1964, and the nurses it produces are very well qualified. In the villages, too, intelligent women are recruited for training in the nearest provincial centre, after which they are sent back to their own neighbourhood. Auxiliaries play a very big part in the Sierra Leone health service, especially in maternity and baby care. I am very keen on improving the quality of the medical service given throughout the country and for this purpose the main requirement is the training and re-training of personnel. If there is no re-training, people tend to lose their enthusiasm and their initial zeal. It often happens that they have nobody to talk to and feel very isolated. Nowadays the roads are better than they were, but there are still many areas which are difficult to reach, especially in the mountains and the marshes. Health teams in these places are extremely isolated.

There is a single well-established priority—to bring a basic health service within reach of all the population wherever they may be. A new school for health workers is shortly to be opened at Bo, which is 200 miles from the capital city of Freetown. Plans are being prepared for Sierra Leone's first school of medicine. At present all our doctors have to take their training abroad. The school envisaged will also serve as a refresher school for our doctors already in practice.

Dr Julie Sulianti Saroso

Director General of the campaign against infectious diseases, Ministry of Health, Indonesia

When I had to choose a career, the University of Djakarta still had only three faculties—law, medicine and civil engineering. In choosing medicine I was following the example of my father and many other members of my family. When I had got through my schooling I went into a big hospital; but I found this work disappointing, for I was in the children's ward and the children brought to us were usually dying and there was nothing to do to save them. I decided that I was not going to continue waiting passively

(1) From "The World's Health", WHO June 1975.



Dr Julie Sulianti Saroso

for a chance of looking after children on the point of death, but that the job to be done was to stop them from getting into that state, to fight the sicknesses and improve public health.

This led to my focussing on nutrition and health education before I was made first director responsible for mother-and-child protection in the Health Ministry. Meantime I had continued my studies in the University of London and in the Child Health Institute. I had been to Scandinavia and other countries, especially in South-East Asia, to collect information on the organisation of hygiene services for mothers and young children. Later I was anxious to put my work on a broader basis, and went in for epidemiology, which rounded off my studies. This does not mean that I had ceased to be interested in children, but the knowledge I had newly acquired made it possible for me to tackle the problems in a more useful way. In the United States I began additional studies, obtaining a master's degree in public health, and later a doctorate.

I must confess it wasn't easy to go back to the schoolroom, but it had to be done. My family life did not suffer. I have three children and I have always made it an iron rule to take a year off for the birth of each of my babies, so as to bring each one over the first stages myself and give them a good start in life.

I get great satisfaction out of my present job. Under the five-year development plan I am able to intensify the campaign against the major diseases which are still so widespread. With the help of the WHO we've made a good job of getting rid of smallpox and—you would hardly believe it—there has not been a single case in Indonesia since January, 1972. The fighting has now switched to the malaria front on which we had an initial success, but a setback followed when Java, which we had completely cleared of the disease, was reinfected from Sumatra.

There are two other programmes among my closest preoccupations. One is against the diarrhoeal maladies, which are unfortunately so frequent and responsible for such high mortality in childhood. We are fighting on two fronts, setting up health centres for the rehydration and care of the children, and improving drainage and sanitation, especially in the rural areas. The other major programme is immunisation against infantile sicknesses. The anti-smallpox campaign has left us with assistants well trained in vaccination. We have started work with anti-tuberculosis vaccination, using BCG, and we are considering broadening the campaign to include vaccination against tetanus.

It is my hope to see in the future a network of health services which will cover the whole population. I am working very hard to convince the other ministerial departments of the important part they can play in the struggle against diseases caused by thread-worm and other parasites.

Dr Luz Uribe Naranjo

In charge of health planning, Colombia

My parents were peasants. Very early in life I had a vocation for medicine and social service, and I had to make great efforts to carry my study of medicine through to its conclusion. My parents did much to help and encourage me. At the medical school I was the only girl in a class of 125 students, but my colleagues were always very kind and helpful. My early days in the hospital, however, were not without difficulty, for the patients refused to be treated by a woman and demanded a "real doctor". After long explanations I managed to get myself accepted and the time even came when I was asked for in preference to other doctors. The beginnings, however, were extremely hard, but my very strong vocation was backed by self-confidence and helped me overcome the obstacles.

I became a child specialist, but the work was very discouraging because of the malnutrition and the infections which were killing off the child population; they would have a relapse as soon as they got home because of insufficient food. For this reason I decided to continue my studies at the Institute of Nutrition of Central America and Panama (INCAP) in Guatemala. It was here that I discovered my real field of activity was going to be in public health, which gives you scope for preventive action on a big scale.

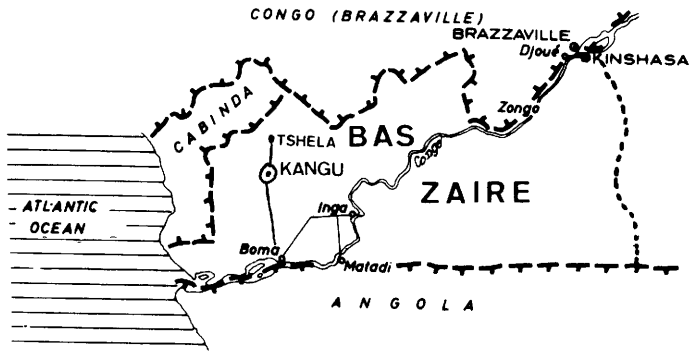
I went into the Health Ministry and I am now head of the Health Planning Office. This is a job with great responsibility affecting a population of no less than 24 million people. I have no difficulty here with my colleagues or my superiors on the grounds of sex—indeed they even suggest that I should recruit other women doctors for responsible jobs. This amounts to a vote of confidence, and I am doing all I can to deserve it. In the past 10 years there have been enormous changes in the position of women in my country, and nowadays there are girl students a-plenty. In the university between 50 and 60% of the students are girls, working in a great variety of disciplines. This increased awareness of women, who themselves are proud of their independence and the part they play, will have a big influence on Colombia's future.

At the present moment our legislation is being recast to provide for a health system and individual medical care to be accessible to the entire population. This is calling for a huge effort from us, but we are very keen on it, for there can be no doubt that the health of the whole population depends upon it. The population in Colombia is growing fast, and the proportion of young children is extremely high, with nearly half the population below 15 years of age. The organisation of health services for all therefore ranks as an absolute priority. ■

Dr Luz Uribe Naranjo



Changing health and social conditions in Mayombé (Lower Zaïre)



Zaïre is an immense territory in the heart of the African continent. It keeps its door wide open to the modern world, but insists on "authenticity" at home.

M. Camille Manise was a member of the Belgian technical aid team in Zaïre for five years. In this interview he gives us an eye-witness account of the improvement in health and social conditions among the Basundi in the Mayombé country.

► *After your five years in Africa, what is your impression of the improvement in health and social conditions in everyday village life?*

— The Mayombé, where I was, is in Lower Zaïre. It is a huge forest-covered territory, very damp and therefore with all the parasite life you might expect. It is just north of Tshela on the frontier of the Angola enclave of Cabinda north of the Congo estuary. The population are Basundi, though they were not the original tribe, but quite late settlers who intermixed with the aboriginals. They have remained in separate groups, mostly in what are known as villages, at Nganda Tzundi and Mbata Mabenge. The word village may be misleading, for it really means a whole collection of what we should call villages lying in the same region and covering an area comparable with the whole of Belgium. One of these villages may have 100 or 120 sub-villages. There are two languages commonly spoken, but though they have the same origin, they are phonetically very different. I found this quite a problem, especially while I was new to the region.

► *Were you able to live among the native people?*

— Indeed, yes. Through the whole of these years I went around the villages eating and sleeping in the same way as the

Basundi and living their life. For the most part I was engaged in a health campaign. It had been organised by Dr Courtejoie of Kangu, not so much as a curative mission, but as a way of helping and teaching the natives. My job was to make them understand about parasites, about the way they could ravage the human body and the dreadful effects this would have; then, by describing the why and wherefore of their action, I could teach the natives about the simple methods ready to their hand for keeping these parasites at bay. I used to travel with my "picture boxes" made by Dr Courtejoie, and thus I could show the natives picture by picture how the parasites would grow and the kind of damage they could cause. The first of my campaigns was mainly against malaria, and since this is familiar to everybody I do not need to enter into details. Soon after this I began to tackle the problem in its entirety, which is very wide indeed. The local population is threatened by a whole host of other insects. One of these is the nsuani, a fly which brings phylariosis—a plague of tiny worms which get into the blood and breed there. As a matter of fact I was myself one of their victims, and I still haven't quite got rid of them.

There are also whole armies of intestinal parasites—the amoeba, the tricocephales and the hookworm, to mention only a few. These parasites do not themselves bring fatal illness, but they undermine the constitution of their human host and his body becomes an easy prey to all the other forms of sickness. Children are of course the most vulnerable, and infestation by parasites is the real origin of the very high child mortality. Many children die young and it is only those who are born tough who can put up resistance enough to survive. I have known women who have born 10 or a dozen children and only been able to keep two or three of them alive through their childhood.

► *Did this campaign have good results?*

— I am sorry to say the effect was very slight. We must, alas, have no illusions about this. A new and enduring way of life cannot be inculcated in a village by simply passing through it occasionally, however impressive the campaign you bring. You would have to spend six months in one village, keeping your eyes wide open and explaining again and again what has to be done. My trouble was that I had 100 or more villages to tackle and had to start afresh each time round. In the light of experience I now think I should have done better to keep it down to a few villages and do the work in depth.

► *What is the position of women among the Basundi?*

— The Basundi have a matriarchal society, which means that the children belong to the mother and come back into the mother's clan. Within the family it is the mother who, as we should say, "wears the trousers" and to whom all due respect is paid. Since it is she who owns the children, the father's position is secondary and he has little authority over them. The male responsible for the children's education is usually their maternal uncle who, by tribal custom, sees that the education is properly carried out and supervises the welfare of his

nephews and nieces. The coming of the Europeans, however, and especially the influence of the missionary, have set changes in motion. I cannot say whether they are for better or for worse, but it is certain that the old balance has been upset. The missionaries have had a predominant influence in this region, and it was they who insisted upon the value of marriage and the married couple, and thus of the part to be played by the father. It is now clear that the father is gradually replacing the maternal uncle in importance and authority. It becomes quite clear in the ceremonies of marriage and the payment of the dowry, where the father, who played little part in the ceremonies of old, now takes precedence over the uncle. It is not for me to say whether all these changes in customs are changes in the right direction; but to me it seems dangerous to upset an order of life which has stood through the centuries, and to change one element in a standing structure or seek to make their structure the mirror image of our own. There is a great risk that tinkering with a structure may lead to its collapse. Time alone can tell.

► *What are the specific tasks falling to the mother of the family? Apart from the bearing and rearing of children, does she play any part in the economic and social life of the village?*

— Since the society we are discussing is matriarchal, the woman has a very big part to play in it. Economically it is on her that the survival of the clan is based. The procedure is that the husband clears a patch of land in the forest. The job takes him two or three weeks; and that is the beginning and end of his task. It is the woman who sows, plants, waters and generally maintains the family plantation. From it she will grow food enough for the whole family right through the year—manioc, groundnuts, maize and bananas. It is she, too, who looks after the exchange or barter business, which is an economic job of the first order.

On the social side it must be emphasised that the elected village chieftain is always a man. Nevertheless the influence of the woman is very important, more especially older women. I should like to tell you a story to illustrate this. I was in one of the villages with Tata Toma, the pfumu dikanda, or head of the clan, and I was invited to a meeting of the headmen. We were sitting around chatting and drinking the palm wine of the region, when Tata Toma's mother came and sat down among the chieftains. The attitude of the men and their respect for her made it obvious that they regarded her as an object of veneration. She commanded that they fetch more supplies of wine to honour their visitor. It is easy to see that, though it is a man who is at the head, the wife and mother has very considerable influence.

In one of the villages I visited, the social structure was slightly off centre. There were eight families, and seven of them had elected men as their chieftain while their mothers played an important part in managing the family's affairs. The eighth family had a dominant authority over all the others and settled all the community disputes. This was the "top drawer clan" and its elected head was a woman. Thus privileged she could not be subjected to a male, and therefore must never marry. This, however, did not interfere with her activities as a mother.

► *How do the parents or the community prepare the young girl for marriage?*

— That is not an easy question to answer. The region is close to the estuary of the river Zaïre, so that the coming of the Europeans dates back quite some way and a good number of the ancient customs have perished. In the old days there were certainly dances and ceremonies of initiation. Aged folk have told me how there used to be special huts reserved for the nubile young ladies, who would go into isolation there for a specified period. Such further information as I was able to get contained a number of contradictions and I therefore prefer to say little about these ancient customs. Nowadays the preparation of the young girl for marriage amounts to very little and is handled simply on a mother-and-daughter basis.

► *What schooling is there for the children of the community?*

— This is a thorny subject. An enormous amount of work has been done, but the results are far from proportionate. In the diocese of Mboma, taken as a whole, more than 2 000 youngsters complete their primary schooling satisfactorily. But the secondary schooling available can take only 500 of them, so every year there are about 1500 young people who cannot continue their education and who have nothing to do but go back home. These juveniles will have completely pulled up their local roots, learned to read and write and count, and had no thought of coming back to the simple tedium of village life. Moreover their families made a big financial effort to enable them to study, expecting them to carry on with the work and bring something back to the clan. They offer no smiling welcome when they come home as shamefaced failures. Naturally these young people do all they can to find a school which can take them, but most of them draw blank because there are not enough places. Undeterred they set off for the towns, because here at least, they think, they will be able to find jobs. The great majority of them find nothing, and in and around the towns they become a marginal crust of misfits. They will be joined, too, by many of those who successfully took their secondary schooling, but even with this to aid them could find no outlet.

The truth in the last resort is that the schooling system, as it now exists, is too often ill adapted to the local potential, and the teaching it gives has certainly not produced the results which might have been hoped for. Who is to blame? To begin with, there was a real desire among the Africans to get themselves educated, and what they asked of the whites was to open them schools such as we have in Europe, so that they also might study. The European came on the scene with the blithe, spontaneous wish to produce just the same teaching as he himself had had. There were certainly some among them who thought things over and wanted to do something different, something which would fit in with Africa's own structure and adapted to the African way of life. Thinking on these lines, they set up agricultural schools based on the regional crops and cultures, but even these schools did not get many pupils. They were not supported by the Africans, whose theory was that one did not go to school simply for the sake of going back on the land. One goes to school for the sake of "becoming somebody", the argument was, for the sake of a brilliant career in the rebirth of Africa.

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Today all this is changing. The African is waking up, discovering that this culture has a value of its own, that Africa itself is a reality, different from the white man's land, but at least as valid and as valuable. Many of them want to be and remain "African". They are realising that Africa has its customs and a whole panoply of tradition to preserve, and that the African has no need to become anything but what he is—or was. I think this is the real sign of Africa's maturity. If we accept this new attitude it is easy for us to condemn the early schools where the syllabus was so ill-suited to the African, but in my belief this would be going too far. The task ahead is the adequate re-modelling of the teaching system on lines specially designed for Africa, and aimed at fitting local children for local jobs.

► *Still on the subject of the women's role, at what age do girls marry, and what are the customs about this? Is a girl free to choose her spouse, or does the family decide for her?*

— The marrying age varies a good deal and has to reckon with the age of school attendance. As a general rule the girls marry between the ages of 14 and 16. In choosing the husband the wishes both of the bride and of her family are important. If there is a conflict of views victory goes to the strongest party—and this does not necessarily mean that it goes to the family.

When the family is against the choice of the children, the latter often take things into their own hands, making sure the elopement takes them too far away for the girl to be caught up by her mother. By the time the girl has got one or two children of her own, she often comes back to her family and the accomplished fact of her marriage is accepted.

► *How do the women take to constant motherhood?*

— Motherhood is always regarded as a gift, and a woman who has no children is accursed and hangs her head in shame. As a general rule a woman will have a baby every two years and even when her husband dies she will continue bringing children into the world. I asked a widow why she was always having children when she would be all alone in bringing them up. She answered "Bongo zi vumu kياما zi fueite bola e?", which means, "must I leave the fruit to rot which is here in my belly?"

► *Is there any chance of these women having their babies in hospital?*

— Certainly. There is a maternity clinic run by African nuns. Many of the women do all they can to have their confinement in hospital, some of them going 20 miles or more on foot for the purpose. I suppose about 20% of the women have hospital confinements. The care they get is obviously much better than they could expect at home. The infantile mortality at birth is very low, both in the maternity clinic and in the village.

It is a fact that as long as the child is carried on his mother's back, he is plump and chubby, wonderfully fit and positively exuding health. Everything goes well with him till he is a year or 18 months old, and is still in his "nzemba", a sort of nappy round his mother's neck. It is when he begins crawling around on the ground, and walking about, that the parasites get him and you may see him wasting away. Between the ages of 2 and 7 so many fall ill and die.

► *Is there any medical supervision in these regions?*

— The nuns organise what is locally known as "the kilo", a sort of pre-natal consultation. There are also a few dispensaries—both State dispensaries and others run by various companies. The dispensaries are run by male nurses who are principally concerned with the war against parasites.

► *Divorce is distinctively a word from the white man's vocabulary. Does it exist in this region?*

— By the old custom a man could put away his wife and the symbol of this was the delivery of a letter, even if both parties were illiterate. In this letter, known as the "kanda", the husband would state the reasons for his decision, and he would also hand his wife a "meya", which is a piece of money. These tokens the women would take and lay before her uncles; and after this the marriage was officially at an end. The custom still exists today. The man need not, however, go the whole hog. He can send away his wife for a specified time, telling her to go back to her "dicanda" (family). At this point her uncles intervene, entering into a palaver with the husband to decide whether or not the marriage should be ended.

The woman, too, has the right to run away if she is discontented with her husband. When this happens the husband will go into his wife's clan, taking with him a little beer or wine, known as the "kinzika" and on which custom insists. In doing this he is giving a sign of his respect for the clan who are the owners of his wife, and after this he will engage in a palaver in the hope of patching things up. As you see, the Europeans were not really the inventors of the habit of talking things over.

All the young children go with their mother, because they belong to her and her clan. It sometimes happens, however, that the bigger children, especially the boys, stay with their father.

► *What about the aged, and especially the older women?*

— Theoretically the aged are looked after by their families, though there are certainly cases in which they are more or less abandoned. There is a distinction. The wife and mother is in general better treated and held in higher esteem than the old man. She carries the badge, she is "the belly" which has brought new life, and the respect for her continues as long as she lives.

► *Have you noticed among the women any wish to change their way of life?*

— The woman's task is a heavy one. They must be up early, fetch water from the river, do the washing up, spend long hours working in the fields, bring back their load of provisions at nightfall, prepare the meal, look after the children—including another one in the womb—with practically no respite at all.

These heavy duties, nonetheless, have their compensation in the respect in which the women are held. Most of them, despite the load on their shoulders, are well content with their lot. ■

Interview by
Nico BECQUART

Health service management in developing countries

by Dr Przemyslaw GORECKI(*)

Wherever a country seeks economic development, special importance attaches to the health of its people and the institutions—health centres, hospitals and social bodies—set up to protect it. These institutions are in many respects very different from their equivalent in the industrial countries.

These institutions are very different from those familiar to us in industrial countries, where health is part of the every-day concern of the individual. In developing countries health is something ill-defined and out of reach, a kind of miracle or a witchcraft product. Those who come as men of medicine are engaged not only in the customary care of the sick, but in a gigantic task of social, perhaps even economic, catalysis.

Any approach to a smooth development of the medical world must make allowances for this, and needs a good deal of preparation. In what follows we are dealing primarily with the functional planning and professional pre-adjustment; we propose describing a few instances before getting down to the health and hospital management which is our main theme.

A few of the principal features serve to define the scope and limits of the problem:

- In developing countries the epidemiology is likely to include both temperate zone sicknesses and others specifically tropical, the two inter-acting strongly on one another.
- Over enormous areas the population is very sparse, the climate very variable and communications very precarious. All this has its influence on the distribution and functioning of health care facilities.
- A special approach is needed to the whole problem of preparation for medical practice and the training of medical, para-medical and administrative personnel. The language problem often comes into it and there are questions of adaptation and preliminary training.
- The rapid progress of research, study and technique in the modern world creates a gap between it and the countries where ancestral concepts are still entrenched, human contact is prime-

val and contact with advancing medical science has scarcely yet been established. The progress has got to be well proportioned and well planned, in its cost and in its location and functioning, if it is to deal with the main necessities consistently with the potential available.

A considerable number of the doctors and paramedical personnel have their training on the spot, though it is sometimes rounded off in metropolitan countries. In some cases, though fortunately not in all of them, the programmes are simply the same ones transposed to the new background. The fundamental need for preparing the programmes and encouraging the right outlook calls for the training of managers—people whose knowledge includes the techniques of leadership—and institutions in line with local needs.

Hospital management

The personnel problem is not the only one in the medical world, but it is one of the most important and the one for which preparation is most often lacking. If the results are to be satisfactory, proficiency is needed in staff handling, administration and control and the vehicular language.

Many people talk of management as though it were magic, but it is really only a simple word for the systematic use of our knowledge in a conscious technique of administration and guidance. It is important to realise that management has its function at every level, and not only at the top. In the teaching institutions under our control we give the health professionals instruction in the essentials for running an institution properly. The fundamental rules are:

- learn the same language as the people around you;
- identify and use the new tools which will make the work easier;
- think out and apply methods of integrating all the specialised functions into a collective whole;
- learn to acknowledge many abilities and attributes.

These add up to the ultimate aim—to produce a new working spirit, dynamic and growth-conscious, in which the team can work smoothly and efficiently, fully conscious of the task before it.

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Necessary adjustments

Though this approach does well enough for normal institutions and normal personnel, it has to be adjusted for a developing country. A series of questions has to be asked and decision guided by the answers. These questions are:

- what is really wrong with the population concerned and what does it want?
 - what has got to be done to improve its living conditions?
 - how can it be effectively helped to secure that:
- local improvement becomes possible without undue amounts of external aid,
 - the cost is ascertainable and not unduly high,
 - the aid should be easy and uncomplicated in execution,
- with whom should contact be made to solve these problems?
 - what is the simplest approach?
 - how should solutions be put forward to secure acceptance?

There are two advantages in this approach. In the first place it is a new departure for institutions and personnel in the countries concerned, avoiding the mere imitation or transfer of programmes from industrial countries where they are used for a different public. Secondly, it brings a final preparation for those who will be giving their fellow countrymen all the treatment and health protection which is necessary and desirable.

This is why training and preparation should, so far as possible, be given locally under mixed committees of international experts and the responsible authorities in the countries concerned. If the training for very responsible posts has to be given abroad, it should be specific and keep in view the same ultimate objectives. This is not isolationism or separatism, but a way of making integration easier.

The cost of health services is going up everywhere. One remedy, probably the only one, is to total out the separate items with their incidentals, beginning with the biggest, which are usually the most costly. In practice the main headings are buildings, equipment and staff. In what follows we shall be considering the approach to staff problems.

Working together

A hospital consists of a number of vocational groups. They are trained in different skills and their levels of training and education are far from being the same. They fall under four headings:

- the medical group—medical and paramedical personnel and technical specialists;
- the administrative group—managers, accountants, secretarial, filing and records, admissions section, social security;
- the operational group—kitchen, cleaning and day-to-day maintenance, linen, transport, library;
- the technical group—maintenance of buildings and equipment, gas and medical fluids, safety, general services.

There is a great variety of occupations and the technical jargon is just as varied. The staff in each category work in their appointed field and almost always among the same sets of people. It is mutual ignorance of each other's jobs which so often sets up useless disputes.

In this hospital background inefficiency in any department will clog the whole machine. Everything depends on everybody working together and on the skill and tact of those in charge at every level. In my long career in an African country I had a chance of putting this into practice, and it proved satisfactory both for the staff and for the patients.

Making a collective whole

The end product of a hospital is health. It is enormously important and it requires a number of specialised skills. Those who contribute them have got to be integrated into a collective unit. This should be the task of the administrative departments, who are the only people in hospital who have the time needed for the purpose. →

School for male nurses in Libreville (Gabon).



In ordinary hospital life the medical and paramedical staff are nearly always working at stretch and coping with an overload. If the whole staff and structure of the hospital can be properly welded together it will add both to the efficiency of the medical side and to the comfort of patients, speeding up the time needed for a cure. Not only will the doctors and patients benefit, but the whole staff of the hospital.

Research in this field shows that improved communications between the occupational groups have reduced the average cure-time in hospitals by between 50 and 65% within 10 years. Staff efficiency, and general satisfaction at a good job well done, show corresponding improvement.

In getting such results, as I have already said, the part played by the hospital administration is most important. On the other hand every occupational group is concerned at every level, and must be made ready for the integration drive and the acquisition of a common language. Each person is confronted in his own particular field with problems of staff management, work organisation, communications and integration of the work. The differences between one and another lie in the extent and depth of the training and the equivalent degree of responsibility.

General programme

The aims of the general programme are partly technical and partly cultural. Under the former heading it must seek the acquisition of specific technical knowledge, including the preparation of the "tools" and some idea about how to use them; and under the latter the opening of the mind to the world around and changes in peoples' ideas.

The path to this lies through the following:

1. Basic knowledge of the running of health institutions, management and social-economic aspects of the health question.
2. Basic knowledge of the setting up of health institutions.
3. Full knowledge of the operation and structure of health institutions, communications and relations between them.
4. Full knowledge of financial administration.
5. Full knowledge of the departments and sections of health institutions.

The academic side must be materially reduced. It must make room for preparing the actual tools for the work.

Moreover the specific instruction I have described needs to be rounded off with a cultural background, including:

- personal efficiency,
- training and information,
- knowledge of the world around us, and
- functional planning.

The aim is to enable the trainee to understand the whole field in which he will be operating.

Technique and method

The content of this teaching is more practical than academic, and it should lead to case study and the construction of models as close as possible to reality, producing knowledge for direct application. To begin with, the rule is to ascertain what are the real needs of the country concerned and to identify its existing problems. The trainees learn to work in groups, to use the group dynamic and all the other ways of absorbing additional knowledge including, of course, television and audio-visual methods in general.

The experts who provide this teaching must be well versed in two general aspects of the work—health and hospital management and the problems of developing countries.

The programme in practice

The course should allow for training on three levels:

— training the trainers. The people chosen should show a real aptitude for the work, which involves dispensing a progressive training on broad but thorough lines in their own countries. This training is arduous, covering both the content of the programme and training in teaching methods.

— training for responsible jobs at the first and second levels—practical training given by people of some years experience who would teach both practical and theoretical knowledge, acquired by experience in the field concerned, and would thus help in the promotion of institutions.

— general training in two stages:

- one by seminars for people in responsible posts at all practical levels in health institutions;
- one aimed at broadening the basic studies, so as to acquire an additional skill.

Conclusion

Functional planning in the infrastructure layout and for preparing staff for efficient operation of institutions is a general problem all over the world. Most developing countries hope to find their place in the family of nations in a new spirit untrammelled by some of our own occasional prejudices on health questions. They have a chance of setting up institutions in their own way and of being able to face the present and the future on the best possible terms.

Here is a service men can render one another and for one another's benefit. If this programme is to have all the chances of success it deserves, it must be carried out in cooperation with the countries concerned and with the help of men of experience from those countries themselves. ■

Dr P. GORECKI

The main EDF health projects

The aid review by the Commission's services in 1974 was concentrated on completed health projects regarded as typical of the various kinds of intervention in those countries where the EDF has been particularly active on the health side.

A total of 24 completed operations was brought into the review, including 16 full-scale projects involving hospitals, dispensaries and kindred establishments and health training schemes, and eight temporary schemes for operational aid, providing technical assistance and contributions to the operational cost (1). The review covers action taken in Cameroon, Dahomey, Upper Volta, Madagascar, Mauritania, Niger and Somalia, to a total cost of UA 30 million. This represents 30% of the UA 101 million commitments incurred for health projects, by the three successive European Development Funds.

The essential material for the review was:

- evaluation missions conducted in 1974;
- evaluation reports drawn up by EDF controllers in agreement with the governments of the countries concerned (Cameroon, Dahomey, Madagascar and Mauritania).

The detailed analyses suggest that the EDF investments in the health sector seem, for the most part, to have been fully justified. In greater or less degree they all contributed to building up the infrastructure of health facilities, either through local projects (Dahomey and Madagascar) or in more general projects which became part of the national health development plans (Upper Volta, Niger). In most cases the technical plans can be considered consistent with the requirements of the countries concerned. The effects of the projects thus seem to have been broadly beneficial, but the use which has been

Finance decisions and expenditure (million UA, up to 12.31.74)

	EDF 1	EDF 2	EDF 3	Total
Decisions (total commitments)	581	713 (3)	817	2 111
of which: health (2) (commitments)	50	28 (3)	23	101
health projects reviewed in this report (expenditure)	16	12	2	30

made of the big hospitals is more marked than has been the case with intermediate health units or the bush dispensaries.

In some cases the effectiveness of health units enjoying EDF finance was checked by lack of sufficient operational funds, but the staff usually grew less acute as the years went by. On the question of equipment maintenance the Community had designed and financed training programmes for specialists, and this has proved an effective practical contribution. On the other hand there is still a crucial problem in the shortage of adequate funds for running the health establishments. The fact is also brought out that things such as education policy and water resources development are closely connected with health, and their neglect could affect the usefulness of health investments and the extent to which they are used. ■

(1) These were successive arrangements connected with a single hospital construction project in Somalia.

(2) Including health campaigns and technical cooperation.

(3) Position as at 31.12.1971.

Mogadiscio Hospital (Somalia).



THE PROJECTS

The aims, the design and the general results

① Madagascar

Three health projects in Madagascar were given finance from EDF I. Their common purpose was to replace existing hospital facilities which had grown obsolescent and insufficient. They covered the construction of an in-patients wing in the hospital at Majunga, a new hospital at Manakara and the first section of a hospital at Fort Dauphin. The use made of these three facilities was the subject of a review in 1974.

(a) **In-patients wing at Majunga.** The decision to build and equip an in-patients wing at Majunga (1) was reached in 1961. The aim was to replace part of the hospital (100 beds) which was old and no longer practicable, and at the same time to extend the hospital by a further 100 beds. The capacity was thus raised to 550 beds, or about what is needed for a general hospital such as this at the head of a provincial health organisation.

The new building was brought into operation in 1965. The architectural **design**, on two floors, has proved very successful. The building is in a good state of repair and practically all the equipment is well cared for and actively in use. The credits made available for upkeep have so far enabled the necessary works to be done.

The **activities** of the hospital make it clear that it answers a real need. The number of in-patients and the days of hospitalisation show a steady increase. The occupancy rate in 1968 was 77% and this had risen by 1973 to 91%. There was, however, a fall in the number of consultations, owing to the opening and improvement of dispensaries (2) in the town of Majunga. The hospital staff numbers 170, including 11 doctors and 52 nurses and health assistants, with several doctors and nursing sisters provided by French technical assistance. The paramedical and auxiliary staff is considered insufficient in number.

The hospital's **operational budget** (excluding staff salaries) seems to be just sufficient. It works out (3) at FMG 105 000 per bed per annum and FMG 260 per day of hospitalisation.

These figures are roughly equivalent to those shown by hospitals of similar capacity at Ouagadougou and Bobo-Dioulasso (116 000/125 000 F-CFA and 390/350 F-CFA) and well below those of Mogadiscio in Somalia (185 00 and 565 F-CFA) and Zinder in Niger (157 000 and 450 F-CFA). The hospital receipts from the 20% of paying cases among the in-patients are required to be paid over to the Treasury.

There can be no doubting the usefulness of the EDF investment in this case and the attitude of the population is comparatively good. The only obstacle to the use of the investment is a general shortage of medical supplies.

(b) **The Manakara hospital.** The Manakara project was to build and equip a new hospital with 100 beds and a potential extension to 150 beds. This was to replace and slightly increase the facility provided by the older hospital installed in 1930 in buildings which were already old and lay some 3 km from the urban area, to which a more up-to-date wing had been added in 1952. The plan (4) settled in 1961 was to transfer the hospital facility into town and preference was accordingly given to new construction in the town itself instead of modernisation at the older hospital.

The new buildings came into operation in 1967 and the present attractive aspect of the hospital bears witness to its satisfactory maintenance. Care for the medical equipment, however, raises various problems because there are not enough qualified workers and there are no local repair facilities.

The activity of the hospital was quite satisfactory in the past, but its local reputation seems to have fallen during the last year or so. The occupancy rate of 73% in 1972 had fallen to 41% in 1974, though this had been accompanied by an increase of 50% in the number of admissions.

The staff is entirely Malagasy, consisting of 55 people, including five doctors. This seems to be adequate for this hospital of 150 beds. The operational budget (excluding staff) is below the original estimates and is in fact less than enough, so that there have to be a number of economies, including lighting restrictions and limitations on the use of vehicles.

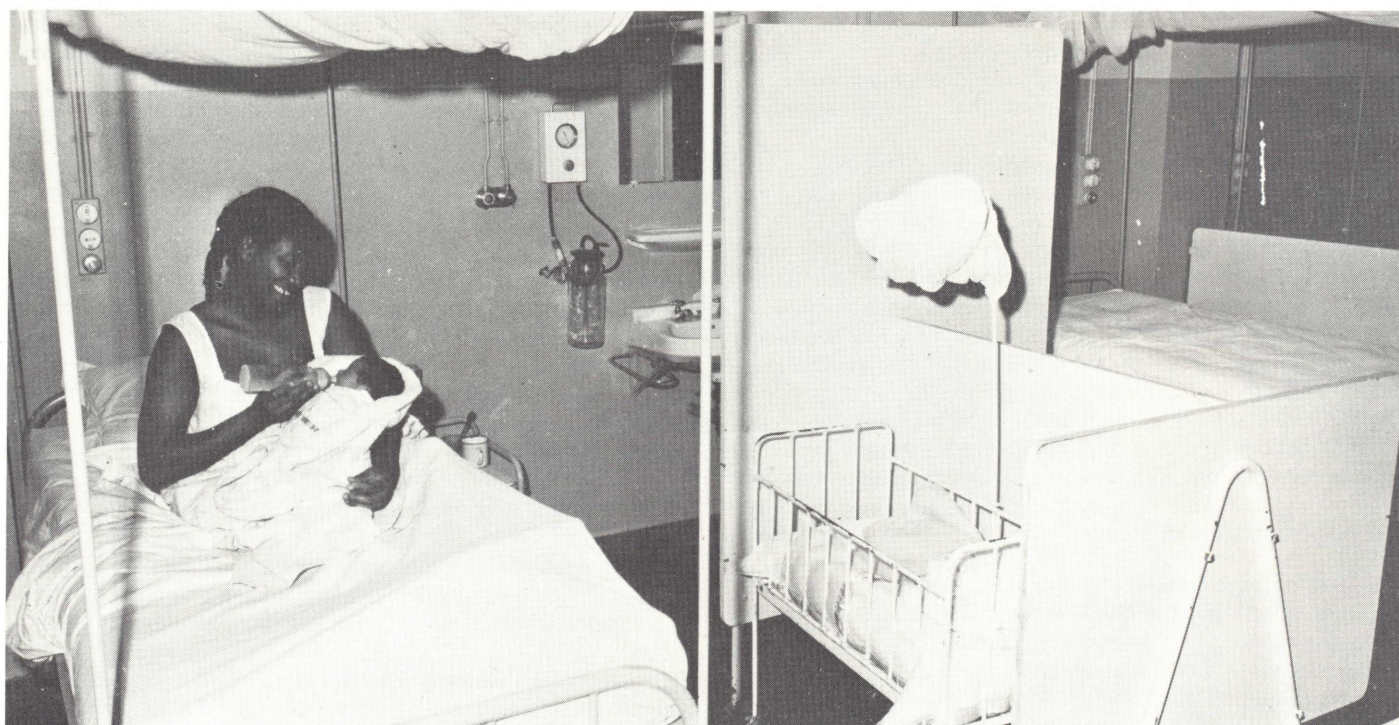
In general the hospital is carrying on quite satisfactorily despite its cash shortage, and the investment can be regarded as

(1) Expenditure: UA 382 000.

(2) Mission-type dispensaries under para-state or private sponsorship.

(3) All figures based on 1973 except Zinder (1975).

(4) Expenditure UA 437 000.



Maternity ward in the hospital at Majunga (Madagascar).

having attained its objective. The black mark is that the old hospital has not been completely closed. The old wing, despite its sordid installations and pitiable disrepair, is still being used for contagious and chronic cases and provides 50 beds. Administratively it is attached to the new hospital and served by the same staff, but it is a long way away and is outside the normal supervision of the head doctor.

(c) **Hospital at Fort Dauphin.** In building and equipping the first section of a new 96-bed hospital with a surgical wing at Fort Dauphin, the aim was to replace another which had been damaged past repair by a tornado. The decision on the project (5) dates from 1961, providing for subsequent extension to 150 beds. The older hospital had been located in the European residential district, and the site chosen for its replacement was close to the district inhabited by the Malagasy population.

The hospital came into operation in 1967, but there has been an almost total lack of upkeep so that it is now in an advanced state of dilapidation with broken windows, rusty window frames and cracks opening between door jambs and the partition walls. Owing to the lack of skilled personnel and inadequate finance, the condition of the fixed equipment and the upkeep of the medical equipment have become major problems. All but one of the 13 air-conditioning units have been out of action for a long time, and so have the lift in this one-storey building, the refrigeration equipment, the emergency power plant and part of the medical equipment.

(5) Expenditure: UA 483 000.

The poor state of the hospital itself was made the worse by a general lack of cleanliness and hygiene. There are therefore limitations on the number of patients who can be admitted and on the quality and complexity of the treatment which can be dispensed. All this is necessarily reflected in the activity figures which show occupancy of 21% in 1973 and 39% in 1974, with an average hospitalisation between 5 and 7 days.

The staff consists of 46 people, including four doctors, which is adequate for the capacity of 120 beds. By comparison the secondary hospital at Gaoua in Upper Volta has a staff of 50, including three doctors. The Fort Dauphin staff seems abundantly adequate for its activity, which comprises less than 100 consultations, internal and external, per day.

Such figures as are available on the operational budget (excluding staff) are by no means conclusive. The credits provided in 1973-74 were comparatively large because they had to provide for writing off the losses of previous years. Nevertheless it is rather surprising that the expenditure budget at Fort Dauphin, amounting in 1974 to FMG 17.5 million, is almost as big as that of the much bigger and more active hospital at Manakara (F-CFA 15.0 m in 1974).

② Health establishments in Dahomey

In Dahomey Community aid financed the conversion of Parakou into a secondary hospital, the extension of a small health unit at Savalou and the construction of a maternity hospital at Athiémé. The relevant decisions were made in 1960 and the total cost of the three schemes, which were completed between 1964 and 1966 was UA 643 000. Finance was provided from EDF I.

(a) **Secondary hospital at Parakou.** The conversion of Parakou into a secondary hospital was intended:
— to mitigate the serious lack of operational equipment in the only hospital in the northern part of the country capable of providing specialised medical care;
— to deal with the health requirements of the region and reduce the number of serious cases sent to hospitals in the south where facilities were no longer sufficient.

The project (6) raised the capacity from 130 to 190 beds. It included the building of a new surgical block and the extension and equipment of the maternity ward.

In practice the hospital has been the main pillar of the health campaign in the northern part of Dahomey, which has a population of more half a million. Though the occupancy rate is only 63%, the activity at the hospital is on a satisfactory scale, including 50 operations and 25 confinements weekly, and 300 consultations per day. Shortcomings in the maintenance work have left a good deal to be desired in the appearance of the buildings from outside.

(b) **The cottage hospital at Savalou.** The extension of the medico-surgical unit at Savalou was intended to improve working conditions in a unit which possessed medical and surgical equipment, but had insufficient facilities for hospitalisation and maternity cases.

The project (7) included construction of a 30-bed maternity ward and a child and mother care centre. The capacity was thus raised to 126 beds, which covers the needs of the 65 000 people living in this administrative area. The total staff is 40, under the administration of a doctor, and in this form the hospital is running satisfactorily. The buildings, though modest in appearance, are strong, practical and well maintained, so that the impression given is good.

(c) **Maternity hospital at Lokossa.** The maternity hospital had at first been scheduled for building at Athiémé, but was in the end put at Lokossa. The existing facility was obsolescent and the aim was to bring it up to date.

The project (8) provided for building a modern maternity ward of 36 beds and rearranging the existing maternity facility as a general ward. The building work was completed in 1961, but the buildings were only fully occupied in 1966, when the locality had been connected up with the water distribution system.

The buildings have been well maintained and the maternity ward is functioning well.

③ Mauritania: The National Hospital in Nouakchott

In Mauritania, Community aid has already financed the building of the National Hospital and the nursing school. In 1973 consent was given to two further projects — a polyclinic at Nouakchott and technical assistance in organising a maintenance service; and in 1974 plans were accepted for extend-

ing the National Hospital. When Mauritania became independent and the two Nouakchott projects were under consideration, the dominant factors were:

— uncertainty about the future of Nouakchott, the new capital, in which the biggest population expected was 15-20 000;
— almost total lack of paramedical personnel;
— lack of any real health infrastructure on the national scale. There were indeed three hospital units in the interior (9) but their technical resources were small and the few scattered medical centres were even less important. Two-thirds of the serious cases had to be taken into neighbouring countries, mostly Senegal for treatment at St. Louis or Dakar, or into Mali (Kayes).

The project (10), decided in 1961, therefore provided for:
— a first section of 135 beds for a bigger hospital with an ultimate capacity up to 250 beds;
— opening of a nursing school, partly under the administration of the hospital and designed to provide a quick training for middle grade health personnel;
— initial work on a future national hospital to operate as a clearing station and diagnosis centre for the entire country and as a local hospital centre for the capital and the surrounding region.

The technical planning was to allow for future extensions without interrupting the conduct of the hospital. In consequence the hospital was initially rather over-equipped in proportion to the number of beds, but it was able from the start to deal with existing national requirements.

Architecturally the hospital is an undoubted success. It is a big modern building on three levels overlooking the town of Nouakchott, but there were inevitably problems in running it and some of the technical equipment proved unduly complex for a country such as Mauritania. It proved exceptionally difficult to arrange for the general maintenance of the hospital because of the total absence of skilled personnel and the transport problem for spare parts and components.

The hospital became available for patients in 1966 and for the most part it has done its job well and has been intensely active. The number of admissions doubled between 1967 and 1972 and the number of surgical operations between 1969 and 1972. The occupancy rate has reached, and for a time surpassed, 100%. Out-patient consultations have expanded on a scale which tends to hinder the running of the internal services.

It was quickly seen that the hospital was insufficient. There were two special reasons for this:

— the growth of Nouakchott town exceeded the wildest expectations. It now has between 50 and 70 000 inhabitants;
— the improvement in communications in the interior has facilitated the influx of patients to the National Hospital. In order to remedy this state of things the following steps have been taken in the hospital itself;
— the effective capacity has been raised gradually from 135 to 230 beds (11) by setting up additional beds, even at the sacrifice of the space per patient;

(6) Expenditure: UA 518 000.

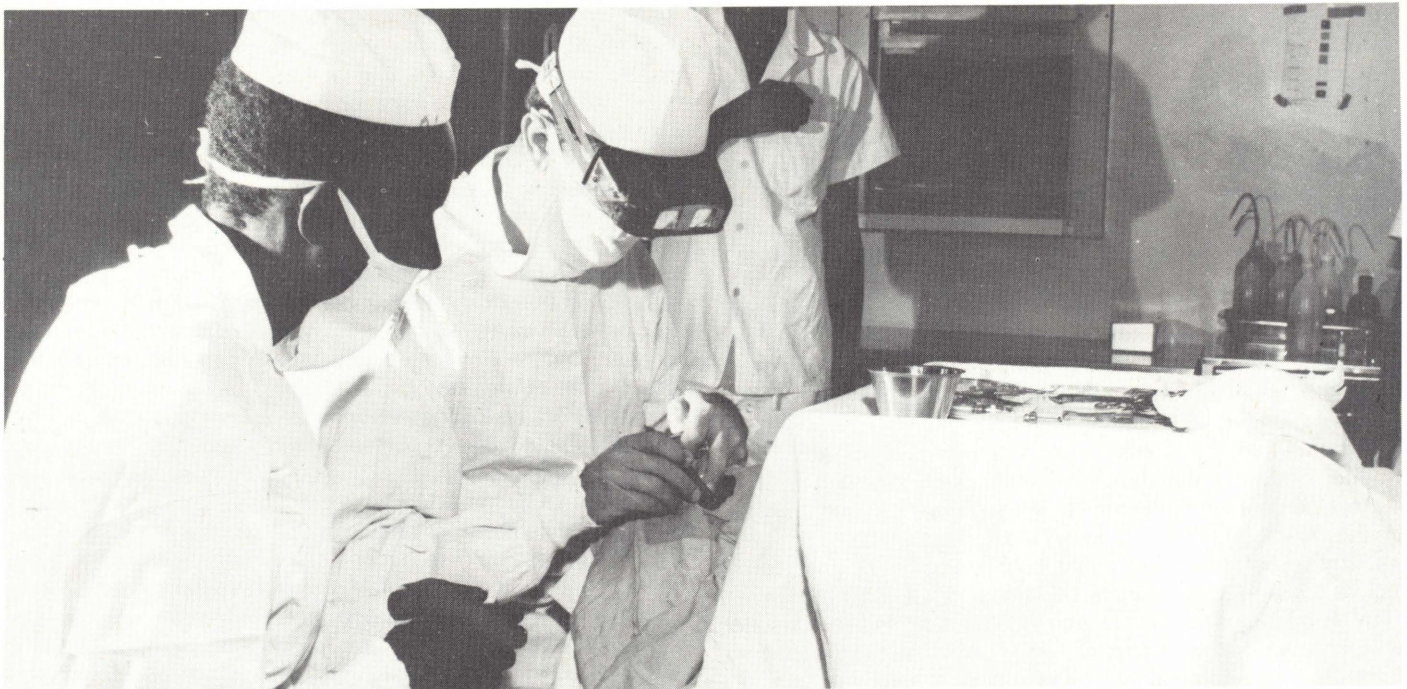
(7) Expenditure: UA 85 000.

(8) Expenditure: UA 40 000.

(9) Atar, Aioun, Kaedi.

(10) Total cost: UA 2.5 million.

(11) 250 beds in 1974.



Nursing school in Nouakchott (Mauritania).

- the average duration of treatment in hospital has been so shortened that it sometimes approaches the safety limit;
- very severe selection is applied to applications for admission.

The government has adopted an expansion policy under which treatment facilities will be gradually developed on two levels. The following priorities have been laid down:

- partial increase in capacity of the hospital by relieving it of the simpler cases, which will be handled at a new urban polyclinic in Nouakchott;
- further increase in the capacity of the hospital;
- maintenance and improvement of all the existing medical equipment.

These aims are reflected in EEC decisions in 1973 and 1974. These will provide finance for:

- construction and equipment for a consultation, first aid and selection centre in the town of Nouakchott. This will be the first operational section of a future polyclinic;
- two-year contract by way of technical assistance, for a training officer with expert qualifications to organise a maintenance service and train the staff;
- extension of the hospital to its ultimate capacity of 450 beds, adding specialities not yet available and enlarging the scope of others so as to cover the full requirements of a national hospital;
- new lecture rooms for enlargement of the nursing school.

The hospital at present has a staff of about 200, including 11 doctors. With the intense activity the staff has all the appearance of being overloaded, which must necessarily affect the standards of care and treatment. By comparison with other hospitals handling a similar amount of work, a staff of 250-300 would appear to be indicated.

The operational budget (excluding staff) available to the hospital has not shown the same growth as the rate of activity, increasing by only 10% in 1967-1972. The actual amount of the funds (F-CFA 75.5 m in 1972) is much the same as is provided for the appreciably larger hospitals at Zinder (Niger) and Bobo-Dioulasso (Upper Volta)(12). The operational cost per bed works out (13) at F-CFA 330 000 and the cost per day's hospitalisation at F-CFA 940. These provisions are extremely good by comparison with other national hospitals for which figures are available(14), which prompts the conclusion that the credits provided for Nouakchott hospital are amply sufficient. It must be remembered that the heavy specialised medical equipment at Nouakchott and the two operating theatres, radiology block, laboratories, pharmacy and other connected installations were put there as a first instalment for a future hospital which will be on a bigger scale, and therefore have an abnormally severe impact on current costs.

The use being made of the EDF investment at Nouakchott shows the original targets have been fully reached. Community aid has contributed the chief item in the country's health infrastructure, and this encouraging success has led to further contributions on the health side.

(12) Nouakchott 230 beds (250 in 1974). Zinder 450 beds, Bobo-Dioulasso 700 beds.

(13) 1972 budget.

(14) Mogadiscio F-CFA 185 000/F-CFA 565 (1973).

Ouagadougou F-CFA 116 000/F-CFA 390 (1973).

Niamey F-CFA 225 000/F-CFA 670 (1975).

4 Somalia: the general hospital at Mogadiscio

The initial project to build and equip a new general hospital at Mogadiscio was followed by a succession of technical assistance projects to provide temporary aid in its operation.

Assent to the initial project (15) was given in 1959. The aim was to build and equip a general hospital of 600 beds at Mogadiscio for the purpose of:

- replacing the existing hospital at Di Martino, considered past repair;
- modernising and improving the Somali hospital services, especially at Mogadiscio where the need was increasingly felt.

The plans were made before Somalia became independent. They contained three central features:

- formal undertaking by Italy as the trustee power (16) to obtain external aid in the form of medical personnel until 1970 or later;
- replacement of the older Di Martino hospital and transfer to the new hospital of its staff and credits;
- provision of additional credits for running the hospital to be included in the public health budget.

By 1962 Somalia had become independent and the hospital was finished and partly equipped. At this point it appeared that the Somali government was not in a position:

- to obtain external aid in medical personnel, Italy having gradually reduced her technical assistance;
- to finance from its own budget the payment of doctors and the necessary paramedical personnel. The doctors would of course have to be foreigners since in 1963 there were only two Somali nationals qualified;
- to pay the cost of running the hospital from its own budget.

Moreover, the older hospital at Di Martino was not closed.

The result was that in 1964, two years after the hospital was completed, it was still not ready to take patients. In answer to an appeal from the Somali government the Community arranged for exceptional funds over a limited period so that the hospital could function. This succession of temporary technical assistance operations (17) coordinated the direct Community aid with bilateral contributions from the individual EEC countries. It was set on foot in 1964 and was partly depressive. It included:

- recruitment of 31 doctors (1964-1970);
- recruitment of 70 paramedical workers at administrative and technical levels (1965-1970);
- provision of funds to defray the operating costs (1966-1972).

In practice the whole of the hospital was not in normal activity till the beginning of 1966.

Once the hospital was open and the running costs taken over by the EDF, all sorts of management and organisational problems arose.

Though the hospital ran into a lot of difficulties which had nothing to do with the Community it has now very largely achieved its targets. It has made its contribution to covering

the increasing health requirements of the country and it has been found to be generally within the capacity of Somalia to provide professional staff and operational credits.

The current activity indications of the hospital are indisputable evidence of its efficiency and usefulness. The occupancy rate for its 600 beds rose from 79% in 1967 to 89% in 1973. There is an average of 35 surgical operations and 85 confinements each week, and the out-patients department has had a positive boom since 1967, reaching an average of 500 consultations per working day.

The operation of the hospital is now handled in the ordinary way by the Health Ministry. There is staff of 420 which is adequate though not abundant. The professional takeover has already gone some way and 25 of the 31 doctors are Somalis. The senior grades of the paramedical administrative and technical staff have been fully "somalised" since 1970.

The operational budget (excluding staff) is comparable with other national hospitals and is regarded as adequate for maintaining a moderate level of operations. On the other hand it is not up to the level reached by the Community in the transitional period when it had taken over the whole running cost.

The building is a modern one on five floors. It was built in 1960-1962 and is still in good condition, partly because it was well designed for a climate which is hot and moist and partly because the current maintenance has been suitably handled. Part of the fixed equipment however is dilapidated and can no longer be used. The medical equipment has been partially replaced and brought up-to-date and its condition is satisfactory, or at least sufficient. The hospital's problem is not so much a shortage of funds as the inability to get trained maintenance staff. A training scheme for this staff is currently under consideration by the EDF.

5 Health facilities in Upper Volta

The health investments in Upper-Volta (18) and finance from EDF I under 1961 decisions included:

- construction and equipment of two secondary hospitals at Gaoua (126 beds) and Fada N'Gourma (19) (130 beds);
- 10 medical centres of type A (21 beds) and type B (35 beds);
- setting up 14 service units for major endemic sicknesses;
- modernisation of the ophthalmic dispensary at Ouagadougou.

The investments are part of a general long-term plan for hospitals in Upper Volta and fit in with the good distribution of the existing infrastructure, so as to:

- initiate, modernise and complete a system for coordinating hospital treatment at suitable levels, making all the treatment centres part of a well organised whole (20);
- improve working conditions for the campaigns against the major endemics, especially leprosy and sleeping sickness.

(15) Total cost: UA 2.8 million.

(16) Specified in the finance convention which was signed in 1959 before Somalia's independence.

(17) Total cost of the eight projects: UA 4.9 million, financed from EDF.

(18) Total cost UA 4.4 million.

(19) The site initially proposed was at Kouadougou, the change was made in 1966.

(20) The summit of the "hospital pyramid" comprising the two general hospitals at Ouagadougou and Bobo-Dioulasso and the only secondary hospital then existing (Ouahigouya) had already been enlarged and brought up to date in 1961-1962 with bilateral aid from France.

The general approach to the project was rather cautious, covering only a single initial section of the master plan, so as to avoid outrunning the country's capacity in men and money in the years immediately ahead. It accordingly covered only two of the six secondary hospitals and 10 of the 18 rural hospitals mentioned in the plan and was limited to:

— setting up the two secondary hospitals on a 130-bed basis, against the 230 beds ultimately scheduled for Gaoua and the 400 for Fada N'Gourma;

— initiating the rural hospitals as "health centres" of two different types:

- type A (basically 21 beds) to be run by one male nurse;
- type B (35 beds) to be run by a doctor;

— replacement of old buildings and equipment, using provisional material provided for the units tackling the major endemics replacing old premises set up with non-permanent material.

The buildings are to be largely standardised, partly by using prefabricated elements (except in the case of the campaign units against the major endemics) and partly by putting up buildings as separate units, so that future expansion can be carried out without alterations to existing buildings or interfering with the running of the hospitals. The prefab buildings are found to be fully functional and well adapted to health service requirements. Except in the two secondary hospitals there has

been no regular maintenance but the buildings are in excellent condition.

Current activities in the new units seem in general to be satisfactory. While the hospitalisation capacity does not in all cases seem to be fully used, the out-patient activity is considerable. The occupancy rate in the two secondary hospitals is between 50 and 60%, but the out-patient consultations are running around 400 per working day. In the health centres the average occupancy is around 50% and consultations run at an average of 130 per day.

The campaign units against the major endemics, which are designed for isolation of lepers and sufferers from sleeping sickness, are not fully utilised in all cases. There is now an effective remedy for leprosy which reduces the contagious phase by several months and has made the old-fashioned practice of isolation no longer necessary. Moreover, the incidence of sleeping sickness is on the decline.

The staff for the health units financed by EDF is adequate for the work involved. The two secondary hospitals suffered some delay in getting into their stride because of the shortage of doctors, but they have now been given foreign doctors (21).

(21) Financed by bilateral German aid in the case of Gaoua and non-official French for Fada N'Gourma.

A group of leper women wait for flour and powdered milk outside the pavilion for major endemic maladies in Ouagadougou (Upper Volta).



The type A health centres are run by a male nurse who is a Volta national and the type B centres by a doctor who is usually a foreigner.

Only a very small part of the funds needed for running these health organisations are found by the country itself either in the Ministry of Health budget or from municipal sources. The adequate running of the units is only made possible by the additional aid in money and material from other sources, including bilateral and multilateral aid and aid from private philanthropic or religious sources. The budgets for the two secondary hospitals are very largely covered by German aid and by the French organisation "Frères des Hommes". The funds provided are fully sufficient and the operational costs (excluding staff) per bed and per day of hospitalisation are higher than in the general hospitals at Ouagadougou and Bobo-Dioulasso. For the health centres, however, the budgets are less than enough. The credits sporadically made available by the Health Ministry and the municipality cover only part of the financial requirements. A reasonable rate of operation is only made possible by the additional help received.

The health organisations financed by Community aid have pretty well attained their original objective and can be staffed locally, but they are by no means within the country's financial capacity. The operational budget (excluding personnel) in the Health Ministry vote amounts to no more than 14% of the total health vote and would not even cover the running of the two general hospitals at Ouagadougou and Bobo-Dioulasso. The fundamental imbalance is only made good by continuous external aid on a massive scale. Even this de facto equilibrium is precarious. If one or more of the external aids were to be suspended, the effect on the country's health services would be catastrophic.

⑥ Health care facilities in Niger

The investments in Niger (22) financed from EDF I and EDF II were the following:

- modernisation and extension of the hospital at Niamey,
- extension of the hospital at Zinder,
- repair and modernisation of five departmental hospital centres (Maradi, Dosso, Tahoua, Agades and Diffa),
- setting up of six hygiene and mobile medical centres (Zinder, Maradi, Dosso, Tahoua, Agades and Diffa),
- repair of three district hospital dispensaries,
- construction of 16 rural dispensaries,
- construction of a warehouse for pharmacy supplies.

In 1962 the Niger government had submitted a first project for building a new hospital at Niamey. A study of the problems involved, however, suggested the need was rather for a series of extensions and modernisations. The investments were based on a long-term plan (23) and called especially for:
— remedies for the poor quality of existing hospital facilities, especially in rural centres;

(22) Total cost UA 5.7 million.

(23) 10-year plan for health service development 1965-1974 drawn up by the Niger government.

— improvements in the general facilities for health care, which were well adapted to the requirements and special features of different parts of the country.

The project fitted smoothly into the general development plan for public health services and conformed to the policy guidelines of not building anything new until qualified staff was available, and of giving priority to rural areas, to increasing service productivity without undue additions to the current cost, and to putting old buildings into good repair.

As was the case in Upper Volta, the additions were standardised both in structure and in type. Though this technique is more suitable for new buildings, such as dispensaries, hygiene centres and mobile medical units, the extensions were found to conform satisfactorily with the special features of existing buildings. The new units brought into service in 1973 proved extremely functional. All the buildings and equipment are in good condition.

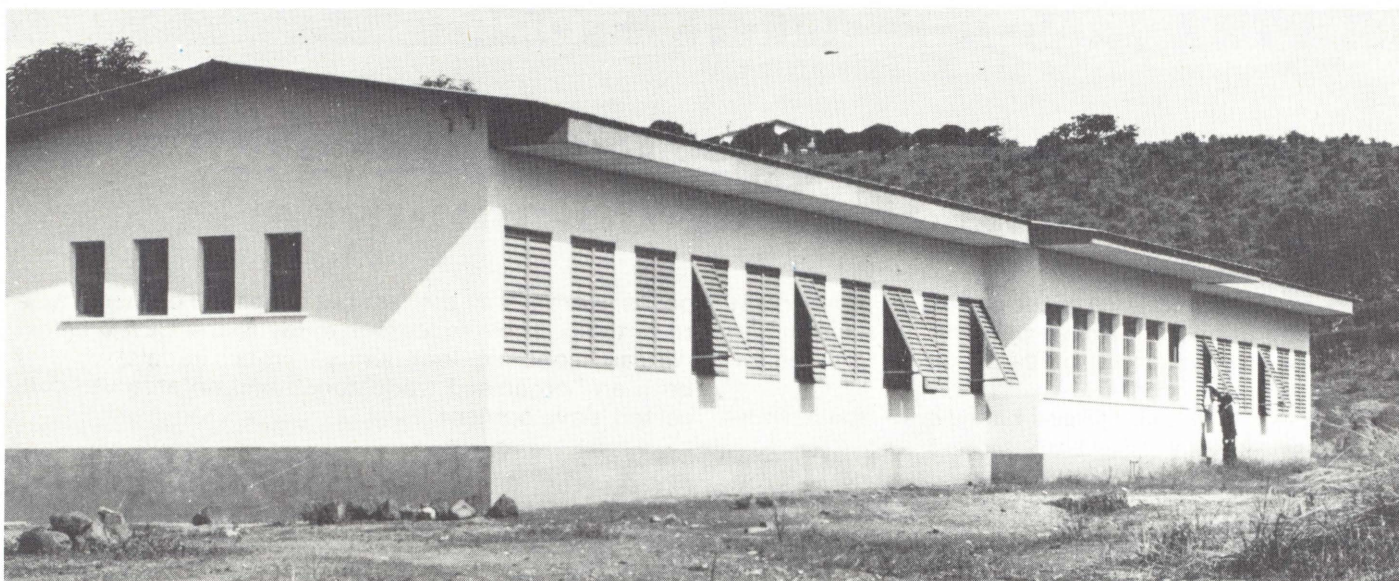
Very satisfactory rates of activity were noted in the units which had been modernised, improved and enlarged. The national hospitals at Niamey and Zinder are fully used, with occupancy at or nearing 100%. The utilisation of departmental centres is also good and is likely to increase still further at the expense of the health centres as a result of the government's decision in 1974 to resettle all the doctors in the departmental capitals. Nevertheless both the health centres and the dispensaries record an adequate level of activity. The buildings of the hygiene and mobile medical teams are in general well frequented. Their operation depends essentially on the measures taken by the doctor in charge.

The staff assigned to the different health care facilities seems, for the most part, to be sufficient in number and adequate in qualification. The exception is the mobile medical system, which is insufficiently staffed.

The health units are financed with comparative regularity. The departmental budget, and the portion of it set aside for the functioning of the health service, are enough to cover a reasonably high level of health care at the upper levels (i.e. national hospitals and departmental hospital centres) while the running costs of the rural dispensaries and local health centres are covered by credits from the municipalities. The only exception is that medicines are not bought by the departmental health services, but distributed to them in kind. The running of most of the health care units is thus paid for from the country's own budgetary resources, whereas the work of the mobile medical units (prevention and identification) is very largely covered by external aid in money and material. The country's own budgetary resources are not enough to cover both the normal medicine and the mass campaigns. Priority is accordingly given to financing the stationary facilities and the mass action is left mainly to external aid.

There can be no disputing the usefulness and efficiency of the investments which have been carried out in Niger.

An especially pleasing feature is the way they have been dovetailed into the existing infrastructure. The adaptation of the quantity and quality of the service to specific requirements and local conditions has called only for additional running costs and staff requirements, easily found from the country's own resources. The project is thus a success from every standpoint.



Rural hospital in Meiganga (Cameroon).

7 Health facilities in Cameroon

The four projects in Cameroon financed from EDF I and EDF II covered the construction and equipment of:

- eight hospitals,
- 13 hospital extensions (including three in-patient buildings),
- 21 bush dispensaries,
- a nursing school at Bamenda,
- a central pharmacy supply base at Victoria,
- residences for 19 doctors.

The various units came into service between 1962 and 1971—most of those in northern Cameroon in 1967-1969, while those further to the south in eastern and western Cameroon followed in 1969-1971. The total cost of these investments was about UA 8 million, or some 20% of the aid granted to Cameroon from the first two development funds.

The aim of the investments was to help bring the economic and social development of northern Cameroon nearer to the level of the southern area and create a better balance between north and south. They made it possible to increase the hospital capacity of the country by 1 360 beds out of the 15 750 now available under the public health system. In general the new units fitted in naturally as part of a health infrastructure which already existed and was the basis for a system on appropriate levels, coordinating all the health care establishments. Apart from the dispensaries the works were limited to the extension, repair and replacement of existing installations, thus curbing as far as possible the increase in the running costs.

All the units are being used as intended and they have obviously contributed decisively to the improvement, both in the quantity and in the quality of the health care, especially in rural areas. The activity figures, however, indicate that the various establishments do not always reach the best level of efficiency, their utilisation being hampered by various factors, especially the shortage of medical staff and funds for current expenditure.

As recently as 1971 there was a marked shortage of doctors and paramedical personnel, but conditions now seem to be less serious and such density figures as are available show favourable ratios of one doctor for every 26 500 inhabitants and one nurse for every 3 100.

For the various health units in Cameroon financed by the EDF, the credits given seem to have been noticeably less than those made available for comparable establishments elsewhere. The total health budget (F-CFA 3 952 million in 1973-4) is on the high side, and though 74% of it is absorbed in personnel costs, the remaining F-CFA 1 046 million available for the operational costs is well above the provisions in the other national budgets examined. The figures for operating costs per head are also quite favourable, but they are spread over a bigger and more costly hospital system than in the other countries examined, the total number of beds being 15 750, or one for every 390 people. It thus seems that the cost of the health service is more than the country can afford. The shortage of funds for current expenditure in the different establishments seems to be a direct consequence of the unduly large expansion in hospital capacity.

Most of the EDF investments suffered from a lack of maintenance work during the early years of their operation. The EDF took steps to remedy the inadequate training of the maintenance personnel, by financing a training scheme for hospital maintenance men, covering a 4-year period beginning in 1972. Its aims were:

- provide repairs and maintenance for medical equipment in the various hospitals in the country;
- to provide training on-the-job for repair technicians to work in mobile breakdown and maintenance gangs;
- to train workers with a number of qualifications for work in the hospital centres.

The first of the breakdowngangs is already at work, going round from one hospital to another and doing an excellent job. ■

The West African Economic Community **A development community (*)**

Since the disappearance of the one-time French West Africa Federation, there have been many attempts to set up a new group, so as to "de-balkanise" the region, if only in a limited degree.

Various kinds of union, broad-based or for special pur-

poses, were put to the test but almost all of them came to nothing. Their successor today is the CEAO (West African Economic Community—French initials) which is both an "organised trade zone" and an area of "concerted development".

The first oddity about the CEAO is that it sprang from the breakdown of less elaborate unions, which should have been easier to set on foot than one which goes so far to postulate joint development planning. The CEAO in fact came next after UDEAO (the West African Customs Union), set up in 1959, revised in 1966 but unanimously admitted by the Heads of State (in the preamble to the Treaty of Abidjan) to have been a failure. The main point of interest, therefore, does not lie in the motives for joint organisation, but rather in the progress in the targets envisaged, as indicated by a comparison of the institutions and machinery of the Community and the customs union respectively. This should indicate how far the inadequacies of the dead union may be avoided by the new-born Community, and the forces of cohesion be strengthened over both the short-term and the long.

The West African Economic Community dates from a protocol of May 1970 and its confirmation on April 17, 1973 by the Treaty of Abidjan. Its structure is more detailed and elaborate than had been provided for the UDEAO.

From the customs union's institutional weakness...

The customs union did not have so much as a name until 1966, which is often attributed to the lack of any clear-cut purpose. It has been in existence two years before it set up its General Secretariat, without which no organisation can have any executive life. The constitutive document was a convention

of 1959, which was remarkable for the scantiness of its content and the omission of essential rules as to how the new institution should work.

For example, it was provided there should be a Council of Ministers, known as the Customs Union Committee, but there was no indication of its function in initiating policies or in the administration of the union. In parallel with it, and probably under its direction, there were—or were to be—expert committees to carry out analyses, and joint committees whose job was to have been the channelling of import duty receipts from the countries collecting them (usually the coastal countries) to the countries effectively importing the goods (usually those in the interior).

Thus, the first customs union convention, apart from reasonably adequate indications about the function and membership of the joint committees, was a model of imprecision on institutional matters. The second convention filled in many of the gaps, but even in its revised form the union had neither the force nor the flexibility of the Abidjan document.

... to the fully-fashioned Economic Community

The treaty is arranged under six titles and contains 22 chapters divided into 51 articles. Supplementing and interpreting the text with the same legal authority are 10 protocols, containing 106 articles, and an appendix of definitions. The apparatus is thus much more impressive.

Not only is the structure defined in much greater detail, but the distribution of responsibility is much clearer than had formerly been the case. The question of

institutions is dealt with in title IV of the convention, which contains nine articles defining powers and responsibilities:

1) The supreme organ is the Conference of Heads of State, the "Acts" of which require a unanimous vote. These acts are concerned with the appointment of the top officials (Secretary General, Chief Accountant, three members of the Finance Control Committee, the Chairman and members of the Court of Arbitration), approval of the budget and, more generally, any question of importance or under dispute.

2) Subordinate to the conference is the Council of Ministers, the composition of which varies according to the subject under discussion. It consists of two ministers from each member State, and its decisions are taken by unanimous vote. It should be noted that the finance and planning ministers are always required to attend council meetings whatever their agenda.

3) The Secretary General's office is responsible for preparing the decisions of the higher organs and carrying them into execution. It consists of a number of organs and ad hoc study groups and two important components are the Community Bureau for Industrial Development (BCDI) and the Community Trade Promotion Office (OCPE) and their subordinate offices:

- an inter-State statistical service;
- a Community bureau for agricultural development;
- a Community cattle and meat office;
- a committee of experts for transport and communications cooperation;
- a committee of experts for customs cooperation;
- a Community bureau for fisheries products.

(*) From «L'Exportateur Africain» (the African Exporter) No. 02 July, 1975.

4) Disputes on the interpretation of the treaty come before the Community Court of Arbitration.

The remarkable feature is the abundant provision for dialogue inside the Secretariat, which is an indication of the scale of the objectives. The institutional pattern is the same as that of UDEAO, but it is clear the CEAO will have the more effective contact. By organisation on these lines it is hoped to ensure the smooth running of the machinery, which sets up a development community. According to the minister reporting to the Abidjan Conference of Heads of State, there are three primary objectives around which the new institutions are set:

- the expansion of trade, especially in agricultural and industrial goods, by setting up a "zone of organised trade" between the member countries;
- operating an active regional cooperation policy, especially for the development of agriculture, stock-raising, fisheries, industry and transport and communications;
- formation of, and contributions to, a fund for financing Community action.

The machinery under the first heading is intended for integration on liberal lines and under the other two in a more dirigist form. In every case CEAO marks definite progress compared with UDEAO.

Non-compensated fiscal receipts under UDEAO

The customs union was limited to maintaining the free circulation of goods inside the area of the signatory countries and subject to a customs duty collected on goods coming into the union from outside. There was no satisfactory definition of goods produced or harvested in the member countries. No distinction was laid down in the tariff treatment (for example) of goods manufactured from local raw materials and those produced by assembly of imported components. The tariff applicable to union products was half the lowest import duty—i.e. 50% (in a few cases 70%) of the EEC tariff.

The idea was to smooth out the loss of tax receipts arising from the import duties being collected in a country which is not the country of ultimate destination. The instrument for this was a

system of cross-frontier compensation worked out by the joint committees. In practice it was only between Mauritania and Senegal that the compensation system ever operated. No compensation was provided for losses of tax revenue when agricultural or industrial goods were imported from other member countries.

It is worth recalling the circumstances which led to this. The individual countries were in fact operating their own independent customs policies with frequent infractions of the convention. In 1961, Mali entered into an economic agreement with two non-member countries, Guinea and Ghana, flouting the whole letter and spirit of UDEAO. She did this without consulting her partners in the union, which gave rise at a later stage to article 50 of the CEAO Treaty. The same year Upper Volta unilaterally eliminated all the customs barriers between herself and Ghana; and a few months earlier the Ivory Coast had reenacted her customs barriers against the non-coastal countries and extended this in 1962 to Senegal.

The 1966 reform did not solve the problems. Instead of the agreed institutional solutions, there were systems of double compensation with (or without) repayment, leading to more and more transit trade, smuggling or black-listing, none of which suited the countries in the interior.

Community importing countries subsidised by exporting countries

The makers of the CEAO, though they envisaged specific progress after 12 years, were careful to be less ambitious than their predecessors and did not even provide for a complete free trade area. The only goods which may circulate freely, without liability to any taxes or duties, are raw produce which is unprocessed, unworked and entirely local. Industrial products originating from the member countries are subject to duty, but at a preferential rate. The effect is that the product once accepted is given favourable fiscal treatment which strengthens its competitive position. This is done through the regional cooperation tax (TCR), a single tax collected once only and calculated case by case in such

a way as to provide maximum tax revenue but maintain a preferential status. It is collected by the tax authorities of the consuming country.

This preferential system, and the free passage of raw produce, inevitably leads to a loss of revenue. About two-thirds of this is compensated from a Community development fund constituted by a levy on customs receipts from imports payable in each country in proportion to its exports of specific industrial goods. Each year the percentage for each country is fixed by the conference of Heads of States.

The countries which export scheduled industrial products thus suffer a levy on their customs receipts, which is used to subsidise consumers in the importing countries and provide favourable treatment for their exporting firms in order to increase their market. All the details regarding time and method of payment, rebates and the supply of customs information are laid down in the Convention. Disputed cases or conflicts of interest can be discussed between experts, ministers or heads of State. Moreover, the CEAO Council of Ministers, again seeking to avoid the mistakes of the past, recently made restrictive amendments to the rules of origin. The new rule is that CEAO industrial products, if they are to be eligible for "Community" treatment, must either contain at least 40% of local raw materials or assimilated products, or incorporate a locally added value of not less than 35%.

Rules of origin are necessary for any commercial cooperation, and in this case they are clearly defined. The fact that the Council of Ministers took this decision before any other is a good augury for the future.

UDEAO confined its aspirations to harmonising internal tax rates, but even the customs franchise gave rise to suspicion among the non-industrial countries as a possible obstacle to the development of local industries in the poorer countries.

The desire to organise concerted progress

It is the CEAO itself which organises the cooperation, through its many facilities in the Secretary General's office, designed to keep watch over actual and potential fields of cooperation. These or-

organisations will be in a position to sponsor development programmes with finance from the Community Development Fund (CDF). In more precise terms the development project concerned will be financed by the fund to the extent of one third of the shortfall in tax revenue to be compensated. This rule applies to projects for the benefit of a single State. The fund will also be able to consider joint projects by several of the States, in addition to, or instead of, the national projects.

This means that, though the fund is made up from levies on import duty receipts for the sake of covering expected revenue shortfalls, it will be possible for the amount of the fund to exceed these deficiencies. The fund will also include any other resources made over to it by the Community, and the product of any loan which the Community may issue or contract.

In principle, the measures described and the number and multinational membership of the various bodies and institutions, are grounds for hoping conflicts will be smoothed out. This will of course depend on the maintenance of the political will for development, and with it the spirit of compromise and common purpose without which any cooperation would be a dead letter.

Promising results

By comparison with UDEAO, therefore, the institutional progress is manifest. The tax receipts are made good almost in their entirety, and economic solidarity with the land-locked countries of the interior is much more effectively fostered.

The regional cooperation tax system is better fitted to promote industrial production than the present customs system under UDEAO. It is probable the importing countries will have advantages under three heads:

- 1) fall in prices to the consumer, which will, it is hoped, promote trade expansion;
- 2) rise in tax receipts if the system for calculating entitlement to compensatory rebates from the fund is indeed the EEC system. Other things being equal the increase in tax receipts in respect of imports and rebates should amount to 66%; and if Niger should increase its imports of scheduled Community prod-

ucts by 15%, the additional tax revenue should rise to 100% over the present UDEAO system. The changes relate, of course, to receipts in respect of scheduled industrial products and the result would not be a revenue shortfall; 3) profit accruing through national development schemes amounting to half the additional tax revenue as defined above, or multinational schemes.

It seems that the ingenious solidarity system thus brought into operation is appreciably more attractive than the older one provided by the Central African Customs and Economic Union (UDEAC).

In our case the tax refunds cover only part of the import duties applicable to goods scheduled as eligible for preferential treatment and circulating inside the Community; but in Central Africa the duties applicable to all goods are paid through a single customs department. The CEAO system, of a single tax resulting in Community preference for scheduled classes of local industrial goods, is very much easier to administer than is the case with UDEAC. The regional cooperation tax falls on the finished article, and is collected by the consuming country. In the UDEAC system the single tax falls on the raw material, and its product is divided among the different countries pro rata of the number of consumers of the finished article.

Difficulties to be overcome

The CEAO is a young and growing enterprise and it has got to get past the difficulties, both external and internal, which lie between it and its ultimate success.

The external risks may well be negligible. It is indeed true that Mauritania is not only a member, but is also open to the African countries of the Mediterranean seaboard. This, however, reflects only one aspect of the country's policy, the outlines of the CEAO are still imperfectly defined, and the worst effect would merely amount to premature enlargement. Compromise is more difficult among 15 partners than among six, and the attitude of the CEAO countries is one of quite legitimate caution, so long as the new Community is in its teething period.

It is more likely the main problems in the continuation and development of the CEAO will be those arising internally.

The unanimity requirement at every institutional level was found to be a formidable difficulty when the mere dissent of a single delegation forced a suspension of the first meeting in Niamey. A whole series of difficulties may stem from the differences of political regime between one country and another, and added to this is the probable isolation of Mauritania, which is the only CEAO country not a member of the French franc area. This anomaly explains the difficulty of trading with Mauritania, which is such a paradox in an area of organised trade.

It is clear that Senegal and the Ivory Coast are economically the most important members of the Community. They have more industries than the other countries, and at Niamey they put forward the essential facts about the eligibility schedules. They will thus be the countries making the biggest contributions to the Community Development Fund. They are also the countries with the largest volume of trade. In normal circumstances this would give them the right to the biggest rebates, which might well have unfortunate psychological effects.

Between Senegal and the Ivory Coast, however, there is a trade agreement which makes it possible to avoid this snag. A number of the "originating" goods of both countries, which may well be scheduled for the regional cooperation tax, pass between the two countries free of customs duty. This means that this trade sets up no customs revenue, so that CEAO cannot reduce it, and no rebates will therefore be required. In the same way, of course, the trade in these goods will not increase the accruals to the Community development fund, which would be entitled to a third of the fiscal shortfall if there were one.

None of these points are very serious, and it seems most likely such problems can be settled by negotiation. On the other hand the Community has no desire to continue indefinitely as nothing more than an area of organised trade, but aspires to become an alliance for development. The customs union, rather shyly projected for 12 years hence, will require a harmonisation of internal policies if it is to be a success. This will only be possible if the fundamental systems and policies of the Community countries are found to be compatible with one another. ■

MAMADOU BATHILY

The Community's end-of-term report on development aid

(from page 13)

ever, does not contain any provision for financial and technical assistance.

The negotiations with the three Maghreb countries—Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia—have reached their final phase. They are aimed to result in a general cooperation agreement, mainly relating to trade, technical and financial cooperation and labour. In the final stage there have been various complications under the commercial heading, especially the terms on which various items of agricultural produce may enter the Community. A further step towards the global Mediterranean approach was taken by the Commission at the end of 1974 when it drafted proposals for the opening of negotiations with Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon and Syria. These proposals envisage agreements on similar lines to those under negotiation with the Maghreb countries.

6. A year ago the Council adopted a set of resolutions which marked the first stage

in Community development cooperation policy on the world scale. Further work has since been done under the different headings, but the Community organisations concerned have had to give priority to preparing for a number of major international gatherings, and there has thus been some slight delay in implementing the resolutions.

At the end of 1974 the Commission, on its own initiative, put before the Council of Ministers a document known as "the fresco", intended as a starting point for talks about future Community development cooperation. Its principal aim was to outline the consequences of recent changes in the world's economic condition and relationships and to suggest how the instruments of cooperation could be adapted to the new situations in developing countries.

The first major action taken by the Community for the benefit mainly of non-associated developing countries was its contri-

bution to the UN emergency fund. This was non-recurrent, and the Commission has now put before Council proposals for an initial five-year programme of financial and technical aid to countries in this group. The Council has also been advised of the Commission's views about the coordination of the cooperation policies of the individual member countries.

Both these communications have been discussed by the Community organs concerned. Their consideration by the Council was expected to come after the holiday period.

Further work has also been done to improve the use made of existing instruments of cooperation. This has been specially concerned with the generalised preferences system and the distribution of food aid. The work on the latter is an extension of the discussion on the Commission's communication to the Council compiled last year in preparation for the World Food Conference. ■

Finance sources for Community aid (million units of account)

Source	Commitments					Disbursements				
	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974
— Community budget	91.7	18.6	54.0	173.1	389.2 (1)	40.3	65.4	84.2	120.7	290.6 (1)
of which: — food aid	90.7	18.6	53.9	173.0	227.9	39.3	65.4	84.1	120.6	217.2
— finance aid for Sahel	—	—	—	—	35.6	—	—	—	—	24.3
— UN emergency operation	—	—	—	—	125.7	—	—	—	—	49.1
— European Development Fund (EDF)	27.1	245.0	213.2	206.5	156.2 (2)	145.1	153.2	132.4	161.7	176.0 (2)
— Oil-bearing crops — special aid	—	—	—	—	—	—	14	—	—	—
— European Investment Bank (EIB)	2.3	32.5	12.8	87.3	132.5 (2)	36.9	30.6	26.0	38.0	36.8 (2)
Total	121.1	296.1	280.0	466.9	(677.9)	222.3	263.2	242.6	320.4	(503.4)

(1) U.A. 1 = \$US 1.20004.

(2) U.A. 1 = \$US 1.24484.

EDUCATION

Tele-teaching the Third World

The Third World is racing against time to find adequate means of teaching and instruction, says Claus Jacobi, editor of "Die Welt", Hamburg. Television is one such means capable of solving the problem of mass instruction, as the book did in the past(1).

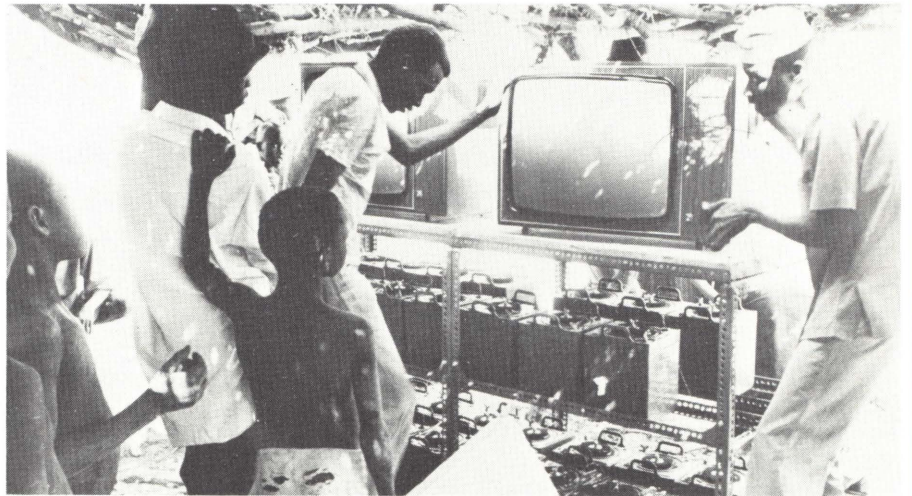
The first time I met Albert Schweizer at Lambaréné, I found him crouching before what looked like an enormous basin busily preparing cement for a building in which local people were to be lodged. While he did this he was explaining to two of his African fellow workers how to fix the roof frame. "Where did you learn all this?", I asked the renowned theologian-musician-doctor. "I just learned", he answered.

Schweizer was more sagacious than his wide-eyed admirers, or his unduly intellectual critics. He was well aware that the real value of education depends on its adaptation to the environment where it will have to serve. Many governments are unaware of this, or act as though they are. In the education systems of all developing countries, there is one central point which is common to every case. This is the fact that the system does not meet the needs of the society it is supposed to be serving. Yet ill-conceived instruction is an error with more dangerous consequences than any which these young States could possibly commit.

Towards a second revolution in education

These developing countries are spending considerable sums on their

(1) Reproduced from "Vision", June 1975.



Audio-visual teaching in Niger.

various education systems. Taken together their annual expenditure under this head runs to about \$12 000 million, which is 4% of their total gross product, and runs in Africa to about 6%. Yet the population explosion condemns them to inevitable failure. They have not the space, the material or the teachers to deal with the swarms of children saturating their schools. The lack of teachers is the most serious problem of all, for within 10 years they will need over 2 million new teachers in Latin America, over 3 million in Africa and 16 million in Asia.

These figures and these requirements call for another real revolution in education. It is sheer vanity to suppose we shall be able to train 20 million or more schoolmasters. We need a different solution, and in fact we have it at hand. It is television, an instrument capable, within the context of our times, of bringing about as great a revolution in the techniques of imparting knowledge, and as vital an ensuing renaissance, as did the Gutenberg bible and the printing presses of five centuries ago.

Since the MacLuhan studies it has been fashionable to think of television as the enemy of the book. Yet both are vehicles by which information can be transported, and television has three qualities which make it the best possible medium for mass education. These are:

- It attracts the interest of the pupil better than any teacher or any book;

- It brings direct to the pupil documents and other material which may be a very long way away, and teachers of much higher quality than would otherwise be available to him;
- The task of the schoolmaster on the spot will consist of supervision, correcting the pupils' work and coaxing the backward ones. The qualifications required will be very much less.

A vital investment for survival

It is certainly true that the cost will be high. For teaching a child by television in Samoa, for example, the annual cost may be four times heavier than for an ordinary school-child in the United States. On the other hand these costs come tumbling down if the programme is no longer scheduled for a mere 8 000, but for 800 000 or even 80 million. Setting up a televised teaching system in India—battery-operated, since 90% of the villages have no electricity—could perhaps cost some \$2 000 million altogether.

This sounds like a lot of money—but it is only a month's income for the oil sheiks. It is not really so enormous when you compare it with the cost to humanity of the population explosion. I doubt if humanity could buy its survival any cheaper and get away with it. "The story of humanity", wrote H.G. Wells, in a spirit of prophecy, "will be more and more the story of a race between educational progress and disaster". ■

ETHIOPIA

EEC financial and food aid

Following the signature of the Lomé Convention on February 28, 1975, Ethiopia has become an associate member of the European Economic Community. Towards the end of this year, after ratification of the Lomé Convention by all concerned parties, Ethiopia will benefit from substantial financial aid which will be in part a grant from the European Development Fund and in part a loan from the European Investment Bank. Ethiopia's exports could then be sold to the European Common Market without any customs duties and if there were a drop in world market prices which could endanger Ethiopia's economy, the European Stabilisation Fund (Stabex) would allow for a support until the market conditions for the affected exports would have returned to normal. These are just some features of this international agreement.

In the past, although not associated to the EEC, Ethiopia has received aid from the European Community. This was because of the catastrophic situation caused by the continuous drought in the Sahelian zone of Africa. In the beginning of 1974 the EEC committed E\$6 600 000 to help the Ethiopian government in its efforts to bring relief to the affected population in the drought-stricken areas of Wollo and Hararghe. Thanks to the intensive cooperation with the Relief and Rehabilitation Commission (RRC) and the Extension and Project Implementation

Department (E.P.I.D.) of the Ministry of Agriculture, this programme has been implemented in due time. Making up the

balance about one year after the agreement has been signed, the status of operational progress is as follow:

Supplies

	E\$	E\$
Transportation		
5 trucks+trailers - total loading cap. 110 tons	285 386	
13 trucks 4 wheel drive - total loading cap. 65 tons	462 109	
10 trucks 4 wheel drive - total loading cap. 40 tons	264 541	
28 units - total loading cap. 215 tons		1 012 036
20 all-purpose vehicles	289 274	
4 vehicles	22 542	
24 vehicles		311 816
Camping equipment		
26 units		53 641
Construction		
39 stores with a total storage capacity of 14,700 metric tons		1 150 000
Husbandry		
12 121 loans for purchase of oxen	2 054 390	
7 300 loans for tractor ploughing	220 650	
4 105 tons of seed for distribution to the farmers	1 325 477	3 600 477
Total amount or 92.85 % of the commitment		6 127 970

ETHIOPIA

As a follow-up to this relief programme, the EEC agreed in December 1974 to finance part of E.P.I.D's medium-term rehabilitation programme for settled agriculture in drought-stricken provinces of Ethiopia. The total amount allocated to this programme is E\$ 1 600 000. This amount will cover the expenses during one year for various soil and water conservation works in two catchment areas, Fedis and Awale, in Hararge province, such as construction of dams for water supply, check-dams to reduce run-off in gullies, terracing, contour-ploughing and strip-cropping for land erosion control, forestry, improvement of existing roads and construction of new rural roads, promotion of peasant associations, extension services to improve agricultural production and living conditions, all of them to be carried out under the "food for work" procedure. The activities started in the beginning of 1975 and are going ahead very well.

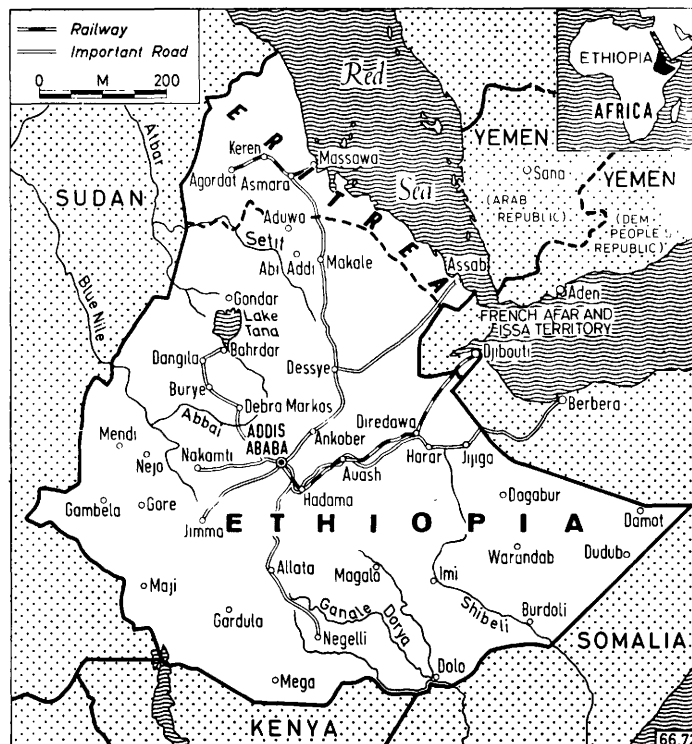
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Beside this financial aid, the EEC has contributed to the food requirements for relief to the drought-affected population in the eastern, south eastern and southern provinces of Ethiopia. During the year 1974, the following quantities were shipped and distributed to the people in these areas:

25 000 metric tons of grain
 2 500 metric tons of milk powder
 1 300 metric tons of butteroil

28 800 metric tons of food
 thus making the EEC number two in the list of food suppliers from abroad through donor agencies. The EEC's donation represents 21 of the total of imported food. The food aid amounts to E\$ 16 500 000 and brings the total aid from the EEC in 1974 up to E\$ 25 000 000. ■

(Press information provided by the Commission delegate in Rwanda)



Ethiopia is an East African country, bounded in the north by the Red Sea, in the west by the Sudan, in the south by Kenya and in the east and south-east by the territory of the Afars and Issas and Somalia. It has access to the sea by the Erytrean ports of Massawa and Assab. It covers an area of 1 221 900 sq. km. It is extremely rugged with two mountain ranges rising to peaks of 4 000 m. or over; a depression runs from south-west to north-east between Lake Rudolph and the Red Sea, and there is a wide highland plateau.

According to UNO estimates in 1974 the population is about 27.24 million, divided into 14 administrative provinces with the central government in Addis Ababa, the capital. The country and its population have been subject to a great diversity of cultural influences through a history which, according to the latest research, dates back four million years B.C. One indication of the cultural diversity is the number of languages spoken, the official ones being Amharic and English. There are two main factors which account for the multiplicity of languages. Ethiopia is the cross-roads between south-east Asia and Africa, and between the valley of the Nile (leading to the Mediterranean) and the

rest of Africa, so that there have been a number of population shifts originating from various causes. Secondly, the mountainous country results in a very scattered population living in highly localised and mutually inaccessible groups.

The climate is very varied and the average altitude is high (between 1800 and 2500 m) making it possible to grow a great variety of produce. The chief ones are millet, sorghum, oats, wheat, coffee and maize. The chief exports are coffee (38% of the total), leather and hides (13%), and vegetables (9%), while the imports consist of manufactured goods, especially machinery and textiles. The uplands are very fertile and encourage the hope that if cultivation were to be rationalised, Ethiopia might one day become a "granary of the nations".

Access and transport difficulties have so far prevented any large-scale development of the mining potential. Industry (textiles, leather and the food industry) is centralised around Addis Ababa and Asmara (Erytreia). According to the World Bank the GNP at market prices in 1972-1973 was \$2 264.8 m, and the average growth-rate at fixed prices, over the period 1970-1974, was 3.4%. ■

MALI

**EDF operations in figures
(up-dated to summer 1975)**

Throughout the period covered by the first three European Development Funds, there was no change in the definition of the European unit of account, but its rate of exchange against the Mali franc showed many fluctuations amounting to as much as 50%. There are thus difficulties in saying what the EEC finance really represents, especially now that the unit of account has been given another definition under the Lomé Convention. In order to make the figures more intelligible, therefore, the values have been converted from their European version into Mali francs, at the rates quoted before a number of European currencies were allowed to float. This rate was:

1 unit of account = 555.419 Mali francs.

The Mali franc was reasonably well maintained around this level up to the recent return of the franc currency area to the Community "snake".

All EEC financing for the Republic of Mali was provided by the European Development Fund under the non-repayable aid procedure. None of the operations was by way of loan or involved the intervention of the European Investment Bank. The details, classified under economic and social headings, are given below: the values shown are in million Mali francs. Projects still in course of execution are underlined.

— Construction and equipment of Rural Economy Institute at Bamako (1964-1966)		264 m.
— <u>Seed treatment and crop conservation (in progress)</u>		615.3 m.
● Preliminary survey (1972)	33.3	
● <u>Infrastructure and starting costs</u>	582	
— <u>Family centres for rural information officers at Tominian and Koni (1973-1975)</u>		124 m.



Developing industrial-scale tobacco growing.



EDF - Afrique Photo

INCREASING PRODUCTION

General — 2 087 million FM

— Niger Office		1 011.8 m.
● Economic and finance surveys (1963)	19	
● Infrastructure improvements (1963)	990	
● Markala dam survey (1968)	2.8	
— Development survey for Bourem phosphates (1968)		50 m.
— Survey on expanding market garden and fruit cultivation (1971)		21.7 m.

The material used under this heading is taken principally from the reports of E.D.F. delegates in the A.A.S.M.

Structural improvements for agricultural production — 2 311 m FM

In the 1964-1970 period the EDF financed five instalments of production aid and an interim programme. This is a special financial aid to enable some of the crops to be gradually adapted to market requirements and to sell at competitive prices in world markets.

Crops coming under this aid were groundnuts, cotton and rice. For the most part it consisted of:

- part of the fertilizer and insecticide expenditure (finance for 16 500 tons fertilizer and 1 800 tons of insecticide);
- construction of sheds, store-houses and various support points;
- supply of vehicles, including trucks (54), tractors (17), machinery and apparatus (96), ploughs (5000) and pulverisers (6000);
- air-photo survey (for more than 5 000 sq. km.);
- finance for staff recruitment.

The total cost of this aid over the six-year period was FM 2 311 million.

Agricultural diversification — 3 922 million FM

— Karity (1962-1968)

● Supply and erection of 18 Karity presses in the Kayes, Bamako, Silasso and Ségou regions

76 m.

— Essence of orange oil (1967-1969)

● Infrastructure and starting-up

41 m.

— Dah (1969-1975)

1 310 m.

● Infrastructure and starting-up

280

● *Continuation* (in progress)

1 040

— Tobacco (1969-1975)

664.8 m.

● Conditioning survey

3.3

● Infrastructure and starting-up

298

● *Continuation* (in progress)

363.5

— Cotton (1973-1975)

● Infrastructure, research and production equipment

1 820 m.

Rice cultivation — 11 688 million FM

— Study of potential in lake Télé and lake Faguibine (1962)

96 m.

— Rice-field report (1964)

8 m.

— Layout of three rice areas (1962-1965)

1 059 m.

at Mopti South 4 500 hectares

at Sarantomosiné 6 800 hectares

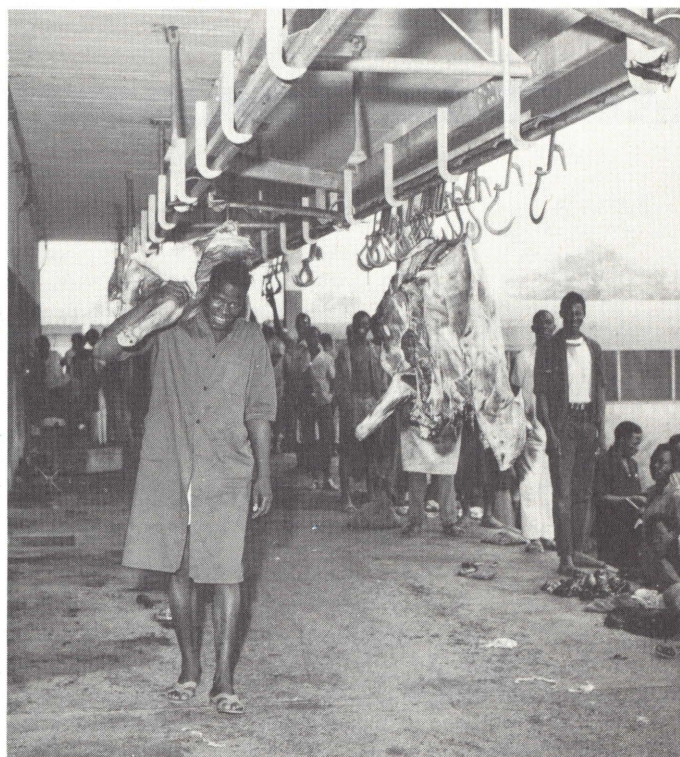
at Koboro 2 000 hectares

— Land improvement in flat areas (1970-1973)

2 171 m.

at Dioro-Babougou 4 000 hectares

at Farako 4 200 hectares



EDF - Afrique Photo

Slaughterhouse and cold storage in Bamako (Mali).

— Infrastructure equipment and staffing of operation rice (Ségou) and new land improvements (in progress)

6 600 m.

at Tamani 10 500 hectares

at Macina 2 800 hectares

at Nakry (Sossé, Sibila)

4 800 hectares

at Tien 2 200 hectares

at Konosso Penesso 3 700 hectares

at Kouniana Sourbasso

1 400 hectares

— Irrigation of the San-Ouest plain (in progress)

p.m.

Financing charged to the EEC Commission budget as part of the emergency aid for drought areas (Sahel 1974) — 1 500 m FM

— Operation Rice Sikasso (1971-1975)

1 754 m.

● Surveys

10

● Approach phase

38

● Experimental phase

290

● Infrastructure, equipment, staffing and improvement work (in progress)

1 416

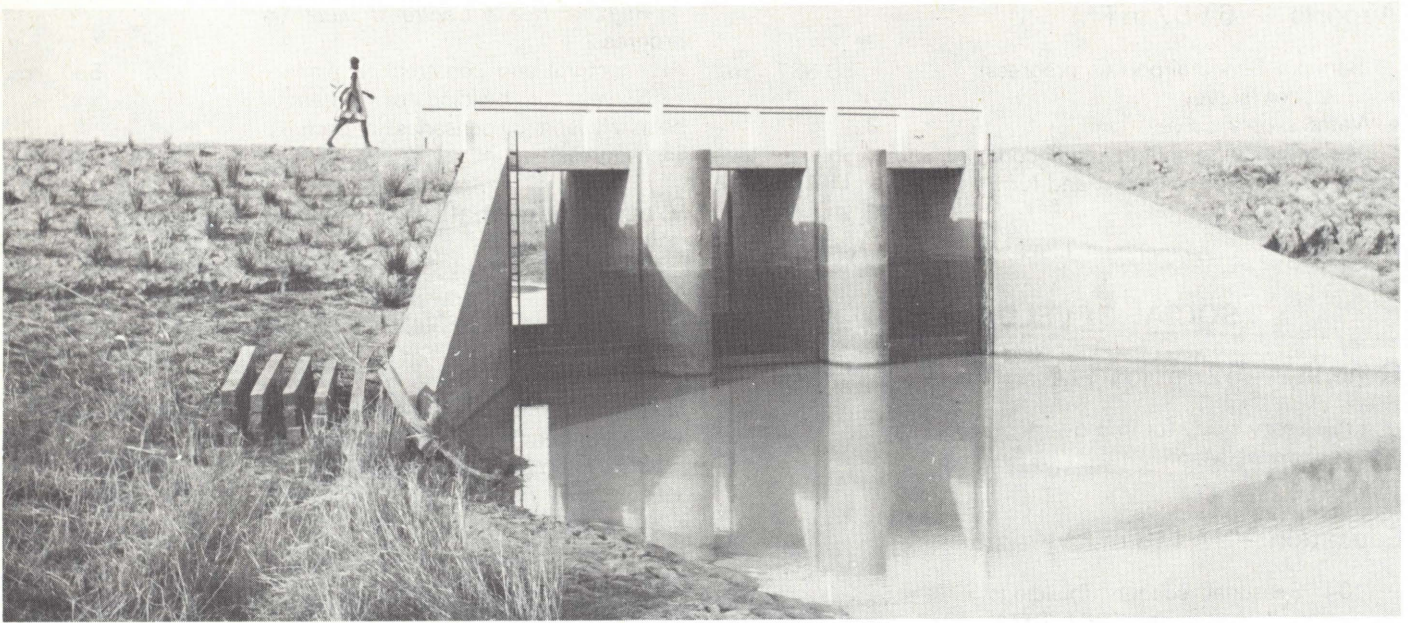
Stock-raising and fisheries — 5 960 m FM

— Measures against cattle pest (1964-1968)

634.5 m.

● Technical assistance

0.5



Dykes for rice-field improvements.

● 1st campaign	516	
● 2nd campaign	213	
— Pastoral waterworks (1962-1965)		861 m.
● Improvement of 16 marshes near Macina	75	
● Provision of 47 water points or wells in the areas of Nara, Niafunké, Bourem, Gao, Ansongo and Menaka	786	
— Slaughterhouse and cold storage at Bamako		1 596 m.
● Construction and equipment (1963-1966)	1 506	
● Technical assistance (1971-1974)	90	
— Stock-fattening (1970-1972)		115.5 m.
● Surveys	5.5	
● Experiments at Niono ranch	110	
— Survey on cattle raising in sedentary population areas (1973)		108 m.
— Survey of cattle raising situation in Sahel (1974)		5.5 m.
— <i>Setting up foundation stud for the N'Dama strain</i> (in progress)		
infrastructure, equipment and staffing of a station and popularisation area	1 373	m.
Stock raising total	4 694	m.
— Infrastructure for study of fisheries problems (laboratory at Mopti and popularisation centre at Diré (1962-1964)		85 m.
— Development of river fishing infrastructure, equipment and staffing for operation Fisheries (1972-1975)	1 181	m.
Fisheries total	FM 1 266	m.

MODERNISATION OF ECONOMIC INFRASTRUCTURE

General — 177 million FM

— Sélingué dam		164 m.
● Survey for dam and retention reservoir on Sankarani (1966)	39	
● Participation in execution of plans for Sélinguédam (in progress)	125	
— Tourist policy survey (1972)		13 m.

Roads and bridges — 15 508 m FM

— Road surveys (1960-1968)		215 m.
— Study for crossing of Bandiagara barrier from Sévaré to Bankass (1973-1974)		93 m.
— San-Mopti road 168 km (1962-1965)		1 882 m.
— Bougouni-Sikasso-Zégoua road		6 325 m.
● Roadway 308 km (1963-1966)	5 635	
● 2 bridges of Bagoé and Bafing (1974-1975)	690	
— Ségou-Bla-San road (1965-1969)		4 250 m.
● Roadway 186 km	3 540	
● Bridge over Bani at Douna	710	
— Cross-frontier road (1967-1971)		2 098 m.
Koutiala-Kouri/Kimparana-Faramana 191 km		
— Ségou-Markala road 35 km (1970-1971)		645 m.

Airports — 6 657 m FM

— Bamako-Sénou airport (in progress)	6 657	m.
● Air station survey	30	
● Water supply survey	4	
● Infrastructure, technical and commercial buildings, equipment and furniture	6 623	

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

General — 62 million FM

— Preliminary study for improvements in the town of Mopti	62	m.
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Education — 7 118 m FM

— 104 Seasonal schools (buildings, equipment and material) 1961-1974	2 948	m.
20 in the Kayes region		
23 in the Bamako region		
20 in the Kikasso region		
21 in the Ségou region		
11 in the Mopti region		
9 in the Gao region		
— Secondary school at Bamako	3 977	m.
● Survey (1961-1962)	17	
● Building and equipment (1964-1968)	3 960	
— Plans for extension of secondary school at Timbuktu (1973)	4	m.
— Plans for extension of secondary school at Markala (1974-1975)	20	m.
— Rural polytechnic at Katibougou	130	m.
● Irrigation	41	
● Extension survey and execution plans (1973-1975)	89	
— Girls' secondary school at Ségou		
Survey and execution plans (in progress)	39	m.

Health — 1 444 m FM

— Construction of Health Centre at Nioro du Sahel (1961-1962)	79	m.
— Construction of Maternity Hospital at Goundam (1961-1962)	20	m.
— Anti-tuberculosis campaign	185	m.
● Construction of Sikasso Centre (1961-1962)	17	
● 21 mobile radiography units (1962-1963)	168	
— Participation in campaign against onchocercosis (1965-1970)	123	m.
— Institute of Human Biology, Construction and equipment (1968-1972)	425	m.

— <i>Regional Health Centre at Mopti</i> (in progress)		
Architectural and construction plans	597	m.
— <i>Survey</i> for building of maternity hospitals and dispensaries in Bamako (in progress)	15	m.

Water (municipal) — 5 864 m FM

— Water conduit at Sikasso (1965-1970)	285	m.
— Water conduit at Timbuktu (1967-1970)	214	m.
● Survey	19	
Execution	195	
— Strengthening of water supply system at Bamako (1970-1975)	2 370	m.
● Survey	116	
● 1st section (production and treatment)	1 324	
● 2nd section (storage)	530	
● 3rd section (2nd treatment plant)	400	
— <i>Water conduit at Mopti</i> (in progress)	1 928	m.
● Survey	28	
● Execution	1 900	
— Survey for water supply to Ségou (1973)	28	m.
— <i>Water supply to Nara</i> (in progress)	p.m.	
(see finance aid Sahel 1974 — 179 million)		
— <i>Housing estate for young executives at Badalabougou</i> (in progress)	1 039	m.
● Survey	39	
● Roadways and service connexions	1 000	

Miscellaneous

— 2 temporary technical assistance missions	32	m.
— Plan for a mecanography Centre (1966)	2.2	m.
— Compilation of a Guide to Investors (1973)	6	m.
— Taxation survey (1974)	6	m.
— Technical assistance on development plan (in progress)	307	m.
Total	353.2	m.

Education

— Training bursaries — EDF 1	273	m.
— Training bursaries — EDF 2	334	m.
— Training bursaries — EDF 3	871	m.
Total	1 478	m.

EMERGENCY AID

— Campaign against plague of locusts (1969)	41 m.
— Anti-cholera campaign	
Supply and erection of chemical factory (1972-1974)	228 m.
— Measures against Sahel drought (1973)	3 958 m.
● Seed programme, including sowing bonus of 1 212	1 746
● Paid into Treasury to offset fiscal exemption given to stock-raisers	1 278
● Help to herds:	350
+ food supplement	150
+ health protection	200
● Water:	240
+ urban centres	120
+ villages	120
● Participation in cost of transport of food aid	344
Total emergency aid	4 227 m.

AID FROM THE COMMISSION

Finance aid from the budget of the EEC Commission by way of relief in Sahel drought 1974.	
— Paid into Treasury to offset non payment of taxes in affected areas	1 140 m.
— Relaying of airport runways at Timbuktu, Goundam and Niore du Sahel, used for urgent transport of food aid	500 m.
— Seed programme	750 m.
— Participation in water programme (of which 179 m. for water supplies to Nara)	220 m.
— Irrigation of the San-Ouest plain (see under rice-growing)	1 500 m.
— Food aid (1969 to summer 1975)	13 133 m.
● 106 665 tons of cereals	9 375 m.
● 7 400 tons of powdered milk	3 381 m.
● 450 tons of butter-oil	373 m.
Total	17 243 m.

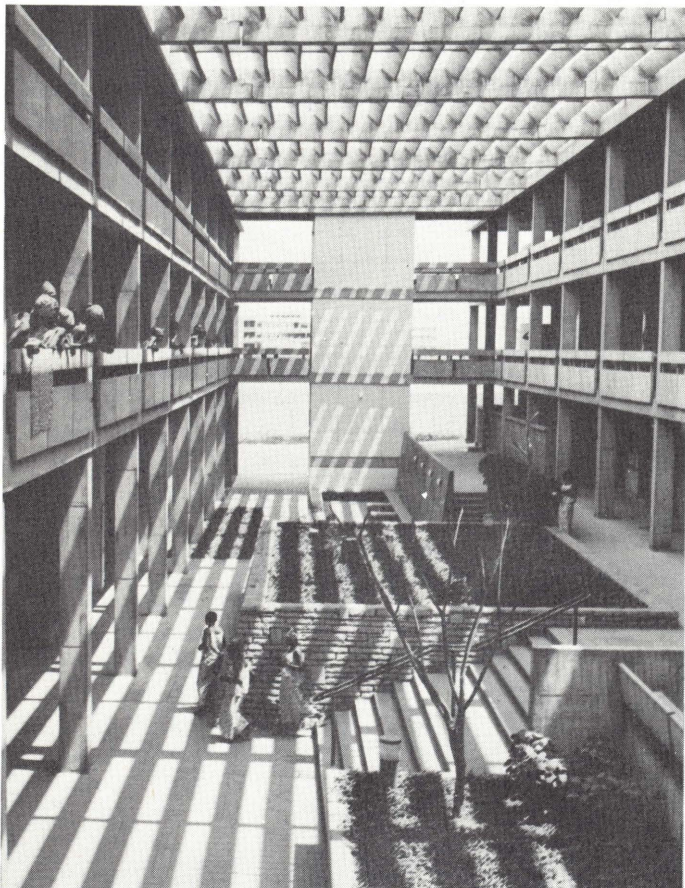
SUMMARY

European Development Fund

— Increase in production:	25 968 m.
● General	2 087 m.
● Agriculture (structural)	2 311 m.
● Agriculture (diversification)	3 922 m.
● Rice growing	11 688 m.
● Stock-raising and fisheries	5 960 m.
	25 968 m.
— Economic infrastructure:	22 342 m.
● General	177 m.
● Roads and bridges	15 508 m.
● Airport	6 657 m.
	22 342 m.
— Social development:	14 488 m.
● General	62 m.
● Education	7 118 m.
● Health	1 444 m.
● Water and municipal	5 864 m.
	14 488 m.
— Miscellaneous	353 m.
— Education and training	1 478 m.
— Emergency aid	4 227 m.
Total EDF	68 856 m.
Aid from the Commission	17 243 m.
Total aid	86 099 m.

Conversion rate 1 UA = 555.419 FM: 86 099 million Mali francs. ■

Secondary school in Bamako (Mali).



EDF - Afrique Photo

DAHOMEY

SONADER and the Oil Palm Plan

PALM-GROWING IN DAHOMEY

The oil-palm is an African native, botanically related to the coconut. Its probable origin is along the coast of the Gulf of Guinea and its Latin name is *Elaeis guineensis*. It is also to be found in the northern part of South America (Amazonia and the Guyanas) where it occurs naturally and was probably introduced during the 16th century or later by slaves imported from West Africa.

Selection

The many forms and varieties in the natural stands of this tree gave rise to a good deal of classification difficulty. One system, based on the characteristics of the shell, was the origin of a very successful research programme on selection methods. The results made it possible to secure a 10-fold increase in palm oil production. From wildpalm the normal yield is around 400 kg per hectare per annum, but in the right ecological conditions plantations of selected palm yield 4 000 kg.

Growing oil palm has long been encouraged, because of the many uses for its products and by-products. In Dahomey, as early as the 17th century, the kings of Abomey were using their prisoners of war to clear forest areas for palm plantation.

There are quite a number of local outlets for the oil palm and its derivatives. These include:

— natural palm oil which, unlike the industrial oil, contains all the carotene (vitamin A). It is much used in African cookery, and in southern Dahomey it is the main source of fatty substances;



Hoeing out a palm plantation.

- palm kernel oil, used most of all in the care of new-born babies;
- palm timber and foliage are still much used as building material in rural areas;
- the palm-heart is a popular vegetable; and
- palm wine is also much appreciated.

The importance of the palm in everyday life in Africa is illustrated by one of the Dahomey customs. This is that whenever a child is born its umbilical cord should be buried and a young palm tree planted above it. The custom is an old one and aptly symbolises the dependence of the human being on his environment.

The oil palm in Africa was growing in its own natural surroundings and did not call for much trouble in cultivation. It developed very rapidly, and by 1850

production was running well ahead of local consumption needs. It became an export industry, initially for palm kernels, which are the easiest product to keep in store, and afterwards for palm oil.

Dahomey palm product exports (metric tons)

	Palm kernels	Palm oil	Palm kernel oil
1910	33 224	15 016	—
1920	29 342	11 417	—
1930	50 800	19 000	—
1940	35 300	9 900	—
1950	46 100	11 800	—
1960	61 274	16 014	—
1965 (*)	16 743	12 287	14 457
1970	10 400	16 966	22 155

(*) First operation of crushing plant. →

The rapid population growth, it should be noted, results in a steep increase in local palm oil consumption. This is reflected in the sluggish trend in exports, which is a sign that production is not far from its ceiling. Indeed, the exports as long ago as 1910 were higher than those of 1965 and almost equal to those of 1970.

Introduction of selected palm

Between 1950 and 1960 the food growing programme was associated with the introduction of selected palm. The reasons for this were:

- the population growth in southern Dahomey, the region where the oil palm is grown;
- increasing consumption in industrial countries;
- new types of palm available, producing more fruit with a higher oil content.

From 1954 onwards the Palm Promotion Office (known as S.R.P.) began setting up estates of between 500 and 1000 hectares for agricultural development, the farmers in which would be required to join the local cooperatives. The experiment soon brought out the incompatibility of food crops and palm

growing. It also showed that by comparison with the harvesting of wild palm, the selected palm plantations required careful cultivation with soil nourishment, and was less able to tolerate long dry periods. In the outcome the selected palm and the wild palm became two crops which are virtually distinct.

Unfortunately the planters in Dahomey had not been adequately prepared for this new form of palm cultivation. For this reason the S.R.P. campaign did not enjoy the expected success, either in its initial form, angled on village plantations, or when it sought to promote bigger units. Industrial plantations of the SODEPALM type (Ivory Coast) were not practicable because of the population density and the ownership of the land throughout southern Dahomey.

Despite the setback, the planning committee set up in August, 1959, to work out the main lines of the 10-year plan assigned a high priority to the south Dahomey plantations of selected palm. This included the Mono region, which had bad communications and been rather a backward area up to then.

The problem was to find an operational system which would not be entirely village-based nor purely industrial. It would have to enable densely populated

regions, in which all the land was in settled ownership, to earmark a sufficient area for palm plantation to justify proper management and rational operation.

The solution found was the compulsory cooperative system, in which the landowners received class "A" shares for the land they contributed and class "B" shares and an advance of money for the work they contributed during the investment period. After Dahomey became independent, this structure became a permanent part of the setup and was one of the two key factors in the development of selected palm plantations. The other key factor was the formation of SONADER, which replaced S.R.P. but had very much wider responsibilities.

COMMUNITY AID FOR THE PALM PROGRAMME

The total aid for SONADER projects provided by the three successive European Development Funds (1961-1975) amounts to a total of F-CFA 5 740 million. Of this:

- F-CFA 4 830 m was in the form of non-repayable grants; and
- F-CFA 910 m was in the form of a loan on special terms from the European Investment Bank.

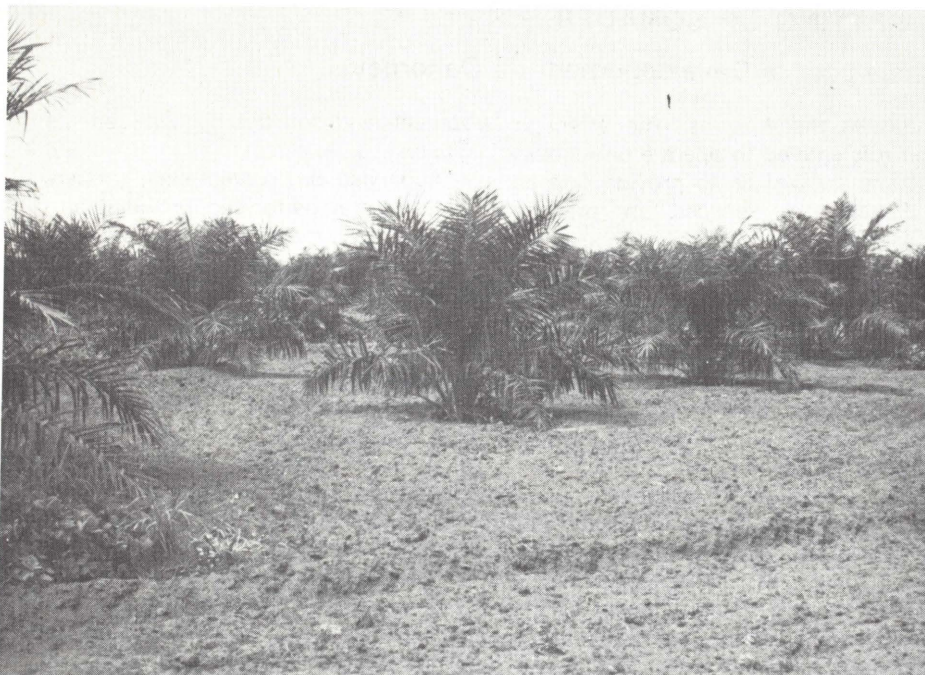
This aid covers 12 different projects, and includes the experts' reports, surveys, execution projects and technical assistance contracts in the industrial field.

THE MAIN OPERATIONS

Laying out and maintenance of selected palm plantations for five years

The palm plantations laid out cover 14 000 ha and 9 000 ha were already in production as of April 1, 1975. The plantations were laid out in excellent conditions and the trees have been very well maintained, but climatic conditions in Dahomey have resulted in production falling below expectations. The annual rainfall varies in different regions be-

Palm plantation in its third year.



THE LEGISLATION

The fundamental legislation dates from August 10, 1961. It lays down:

1) The method of operating rural agricultural improvement areas:

(Law 61-26 and Orders No. 60 and 69-36). This law enabled the government to specify suitable areas as rural development areas, which would then be given public utility status. Owners of land in these areas were required to give up their individual farming rights to specified groups.

2) Form and status of agricultural cooperatives:

(Law 61-27 and Orders No. 61,69-37,71-19). Two types of agricultural cooperative were distinguished:

— **the ordinary agricultural cooperative** formed by its members of their own freewill. This type of association is to be found in the village groups. These were often free cooperatives, sometimes known as "groups for co-operation".

— **the rural improvement cooperative**, the object of which is to develop and farm collectively the land included in a rural improvement area declared to be of public utility. The manager of the

cooperative is appointed by the Minister for Rural Development. It is to be noted that the compulsory cooperative goes through an initial stage as a pre-cooperative lasting between 1 and 3 years.

The rural improvement areas of SONADER are run by cooperatives with the land owners and non-owners as members. The advantages to individuals of this collective system are as follows:

a) Non-working owner — "A" shares

For the most part these are people who are not directly interested in the cooperative and have resources outside the scheduled area:

- rent for the land as from the first year of planting. One "A" share represents a hectare of useful land and is assigned a token value of F-CFA 30 000 per ha (50 F-CFA=1 FF). The owners of "A" shares are entitled to a dividend of 3% p.a.
- a portion of 1.50 ha for annual cultivation.

(This provision had not yet been enacted when the first cooperative at Mono was formed).

b) Working owner — "A" shares and "B" shares

- Rent for land as from the first year.
- A portion of 1.50 ha for annual cultivation.
- F-CFA 125 per day for each completed task in the palm plantation during the investment period. A minimum of 200 days' work is needed to obtain one "B" share.
- A share of the palm plantation earnings whenever its operations show a surplus. The share is proportionate to the number of days' work contributed.
- Interest on the "B" shares when the plantation shows a surplus.

c) Non-owning worker

- F-CFA 125 per day per completed task in the palm plantation.
- A portion of 1.50 ha for annual cultivation (a minimum of 200 days' work is required).
- Share of the net profit of the plantation proportionate to the number of days' work.
- Interest on "B" shares when the accounts show a surplus. ■

SETTING UP SONADER

(Société Nationale pour le Développement du Dahomey)

The formation of SONADER was authorised by a presidential decree of July 8, 1961. Its articles of association are dated 6/3/1964. They specify that:

- SONADER is a "mixed" (i.e. partly State owned) company with an initial capital of F-CFA 50 million (raised in 1967 to F-CFA 150 million). The capital was subscribed partly in cash and partly in kind, and is credited as fully paid up;
- the object of SONADER is to act as an instrument of the government in development operations calculated to increase agricultural production and modernise the rural economy;
- SONADER is entitled to operate anywhere in Dahomey.

The powers of SONADER are wide

and take many forms. The effect is that it is entitled to operate on its own account as well as to provide finance and technical services. In practice SONADER:

- formulates projects,
- helps in their preparation,
- handles negotiations with sources of finance,
- fixes the technical programme for their execution and,
- supervises the execution of the agreements reached.

The main tasks of SONADER are:

- reconstitution and modernisation of the Dahomey palm plantations, by the use of high-productivity material as advised by the Pobé station of IRHO;
- bring into action and administer cooperatives, both for oil palm devel-

opment and for dealing with annual crops;

- supervise and protect such cooperatives as may be formed, providing and training their management personnel;
- provide, for account of the cooperatives, management services for production of an industrial type (e.g. oil expressing plant).

The work of SONADER is complex and lies in many fields, from the laying out of plantations to the effective management of oil production. Its staff, nevertheless, consists entirely of Dahomey nationals.

As of 30/6/1974 SONADER had formed, and had under its supervision, 39 cooperatives covering 28 283 ha of palm plantations and 17 000 of annual crop area. ■

tween 1000 and 1400 mm which is good enough for wild palm, but only marginal to inadequate for the more productive, and more demanding, selected oil palm.

In 1974 the rainfall deficiency varied between 600 and 1020 mm in the different rural improvement areas.

Annual crop areas (ZOCA)

There was provision for 5000 ha for annual cultivation and 4000 ha of this has already been laid out. The aim of the ZOCA is to promote up-to-date farming through co-operatives, with very active measures of stimulation and supervision. In greater detail the aims are:

— rational soil utilisation by a carefully prepared shift and rotation system enabling cooperators to specialise in cash crops without neglecting the subsistence crops;

— use of selected seed and fertilizers;

— conformity to correct sowing dates;

— intensive sowing followed by planting out;

— introduction of animal traction.

Up to the present, conditions have not been right for the full success of this operation. The continued rise in the prices of fertilizers which are indispensable to modern agriculture, has resulted in co-operators feeling doubtful about these new forms of cultivation.

Construction of two palm oil plants

● An oil plant with side buildings has been built at Mono. Its capacity is 10 TR per hour. It can process both wild palm and selected palm;

● A plant has very recently been erected in the Agonvy neighbourhood. Its capacity is 30 TR per hour.

● A third plant, financed with credits from the World Bank, has just started operations at Grand Hinvi.

These plants are all State property and are managed by SONADER for account of the cooperatives. If and when the oil palms show a profit for the year, a share of it is paid to the cooperators and to the various development organisations concerned in the palm projects.

Miscellaneous infrastructure

Constructions up-to-date have included the following:

- 33 houses at management level
- 47 houses at staff level
- 15 cooperative office buildings
- 2 dispensaries
- 1 maternity hospital
- 4 infirmaries
- 15 warehouses
- 3 schools
- 22 wells and two waterpoints
- 2 storage silos for maize to hold 3 500 tons

- Electricity and water distribution
- Telephone lines
- About 200 km of roads and tracks.

CONCLUSION

— SONADER has had an undoubted success in its campaign, initiated in 1962-63, to promote rural development founded on up-to-date intensified and multi-crop farming.

— SONADER has now been working for 12 years with much patience, conviction and skill, and is well aware that its work is only just beginning.

— The first page has now been turned. It showed:

● creation of the necessary administrative structures;

● a solid beginning has been made in stimulating and increasing the awareness of the peasantry in the rural agricultural improvement areas;

● combined agro-industrial undertakings have been set up.

— The tasks ahead in the second phase will include:

● consolidation and improvement of what has already been done;

● attainment of a level of progress when the cooperatives will be able to pass on to the peasant populations not yet brought into the scheme the technical knowledge on which modern farming is based. ■

Stock-breeding in the palm plantation at Agonvy (Dahomey).



GUADELOUPE

Supplying drinking water

This is a project affecting both the living amenities and the economic conditions of an area known as Grands Fonds, involving the construction of a drinking water supply system designed to work in conjunction with the existing system in the Grande Terre area.

The population affected is about 10 000. During the dry season (January-June) there is practically no water and this is the main cause of a number of health problems, which drinking water supplies would do much to mitigate.

Community aid from the 1st EDF has

already financed the provision of water supplies in five urban areas. The projects concerned were:

DRINKING WATER FOR POINTE-A-PITRE, GOSIER AND ST.-FRANÇOIS

This covered the enlargement of the drinking water system at Pointe-a-Pitre, with its extension into the commune of Gosier, and setting up a drinking water system to serve the commune of St.-François.

The EDF finance provided was UA 673 000, or about FF 3.3 m., in the form of non-repayable aid.

Execution of the project was completed in April 1967.

DRINKING WATER FOR PORT LOUIS AND PETIT BOURG

Provision of drinking water for the communes of Port Louis (Grande Terre) and Petit Bourg (Basse Terre) involving a supply conduit and a distribution system.

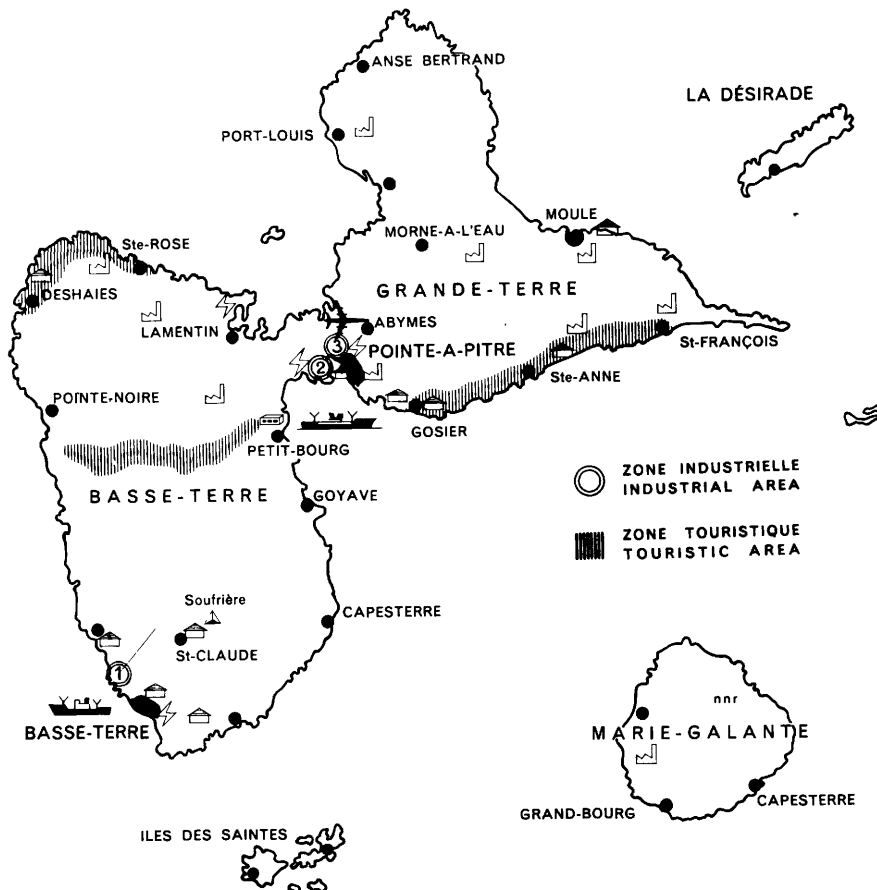
The work called for the construction of 10 fully equipped reservoirs and the supply and laying of 68 200 ml of conduit in diameters between 60 mn and 250 mn.

The EDF finance, also in the form of non-repayable aid, was UA 931 728.60, or FF 5 174 997.00.

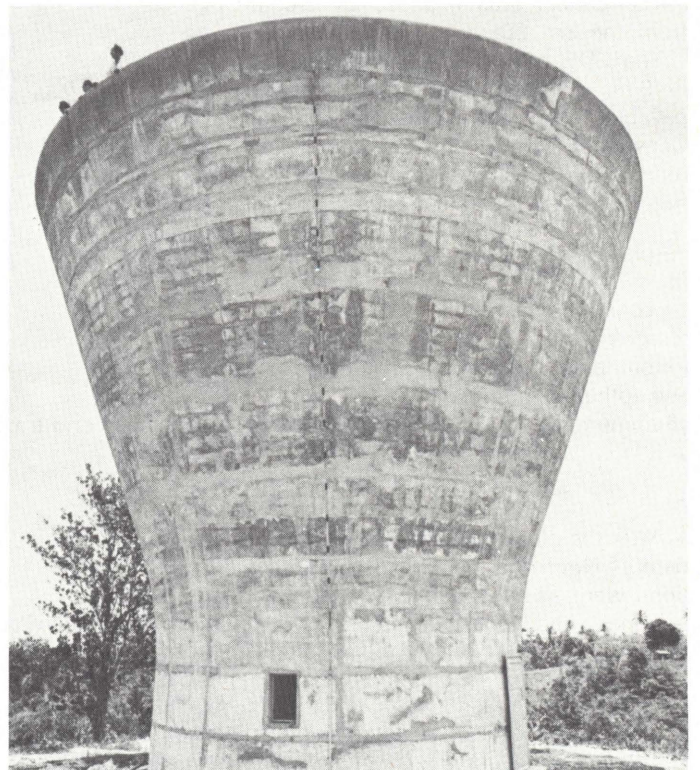
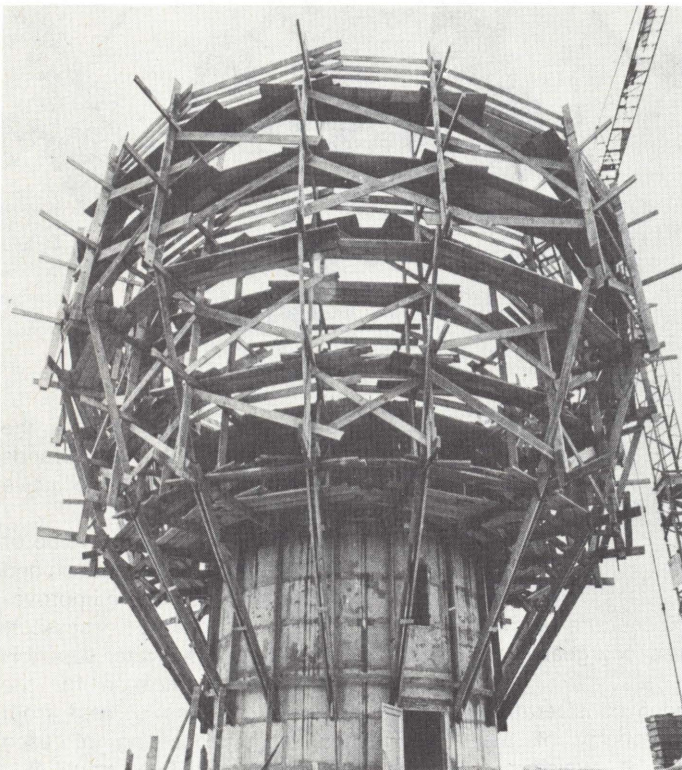
The works were brought to completion in April 1975.

At the same time living conditions for the Grands Fonds population have been improved through French aid, by the laying out for settlement of land parcels rendered tenable by drainage units.

GUADELOUPE



Building a water storage tank



These are still subject to the drinking water supply system.

This operation is part of the 6th Development Plan.

The Grands Fonds area lies east of the Pointe-à-Pitre urban area, running parallel to the Grande Terre coastline. It is the hinterland of the communes of Morne-à-l'Eau, des Abymes, the Pointe-à-Pitre urban area and the communes of Gosier and Sainte Anne in the south and Moule in the east.

The requirements in valves, taps, outlets and other conduit protection apparatus consisted of:

- 120 stop-cocks,
- 25 fire points,
- 55 air chambers,
- 10 pressure moderators,
- 2 clapper valves.

The surveys were carried out by the Ministry for Agriculture.

Supervision of the work was provided by the Departmental Directorate for Agriculture in the French administration.

After an international call for tenders, based on reviewable unit price lists, the works and supply contracts were awarded to the firm SOCEA.

The responsible contracting authority is the French administration.

The project was financed by credits from the 3rd EDF.

The EDF commitment was fixed at FF 9 m., or about UA 1.62 m. (non-repayable). This was provided in Finance Convention No. 1113/GD, dated February 10, 1973, which estimates the sub-totals as follows:

— pipes and conduits	7 350 000.00 FF
— construction of reservoirs	1 230 000.00 FF
— pumping stations and other hydraulic equipment	420 000.00 FF
	9 000 000.00 FF

After the placing of the contract under date of November 27, 1973 the allocations were as follows:

— pipes and conduits	7 412 166.90 FF
— constructions of reservoirs and pumping stations	1 565 024.00 FF
— medium-pressure	



Drilling for water and pipe-laying in Guadeloupe.

connexion and transformers	170 300.00 FF
	9 147 490.90 FF

The considerable expenditure arising from price reviews was chargeable to the Department.

The investments under consideration were to remain the property of the Department of Guadeloupe, which put

the management into the hands of the Syndicat Intercommunal des Grands Fonds de la Grande Terre, a collective organisation of local groups.

There can be no denying the value of this project, both from the economic and from the social standpoint. The improvement in living conditions necessarily resulting from a drinking water supply is in itself abundant justification for the investment. The benefits derived from the offtake and processing of used water, will come at a later stage. ■

The African cinema and its story

by Lucien PAGNI

At the 1975 Cannes Film Festival an Algerian film, "Chronique des années de Braise", received the highest award. It immediately set the critics talking about the African cinema, because the highly respectable and convention-minded international film market had set its seal upon an African work. Until now it has been rare indeed for the African cinema to have a good press in Europe or, for that matter, in the United States, where the Hollywood influence is rampant. The success of this work by Mohamed Lakhadar-Hamina was one of these few occasions and I am taking advantage of it for a look at the history of this art and this industry in Africa, and especially its social and cultural impact among the French-speaking countries. In a future issue we shall attempt a survey of the film market in the Africa of today, and the future of film-making south of the Sahara(*).

According to Jean Rouch, in a speech in Dakar in 1963, the first "motion pictures" made in Africa were shot with a hand-operated camera in 1905, which is longer ago than most people would have thought. It was not till 1963 that the first film emerged which was really and truly African—a short commercial on 35 mm film made by Blaise Senghor, a graduate of IDHEC, the French Institute for Cinematographic Studies. In Venice in 1968 the first full-length film made by a Black African director was shown. This was "Le Mandat" by Sembéné Ousmane.

Before the period of real African achievement, however, there had been

two distinct phases in the development of the African cinema. In the early days of the 20th century there were films of "African inspiration", or films with an African slant; and then came the period which, according to Jean Rouch, saw the real birth of authentically African cinema. This began in or about 1953 with the first film by Paulin Vieyra. It was called "Afrique sur Seine", but unfortunately it was never shown commercially. The essential point about the "African slant" films was that they were made in Africa, about Africa, but directed by non-Africans. An example is Georges Méliés who, in the period between the two world wars, was making documentaries in the "exotic" style then fashionable, such as "Dakar Market" and "Cakewalk by New Circus Blacks". The makers of these films were out to "make Black Africa look like a kindergarten", as was shown in film titles such as "Among the man-eaters" and "Prisoner of the Cannibals". "It was from such trumpery stuff," said Jean Rouch in his Dakar speech, "that Trader Horn, Bozambo, Tarzan and the rest were to emerge, fixing a lasting image of the negro as a good-natured old buffer, a devotee of paternalism, the scorn of the white man".

During the fifties, with the gathering colonial crisis and the movement towards independence, the colonialist type of film was taking a back seat. The exotic was yielding place to the ethnographic, and this new cinematic form became increasingly important, though it raised a good deal of disapproval among the Africans themselves. From this conflict there emerged what Rouch calls the cinema of adolescent Africa, a key point in which is its opposition to films which showed the African inspiration of non-



Universal Photo

Sembéné Ousmane
film director

African directors—"subjective films dominated by the personality and attitude of the director, utterly external to African reality". Such films nevertheless were still made, but there was a difference. "If Africa is to be a worthy figure in the concert of nations", writes Pierre Pommier, "partisans of the exotic and the ethnographic cinema will insist it must forget, or even renounce, its culture and tradition. In films made on these lines the culture of Africa is turned to derision for the sake of the spectacular". Here again the film-makers missed the bus. What was long regarded as the African cinema was no more than a picture-book version of an old-time vision of Africa based on the criteria of civilisations which are not comparable.

(* I shall be borrowing freely from the work of Pierre Pommier, in his book "Cinéma et développement en Afrique Noire francophone". Editions A. Pédone, 13 rue Soufflot, Paris 1975.

Since then there has slowly come to the surface a black African cinema, influenced by today's growing political and cultural awareness. It is not yet really African within Georges Sadoul's definition, since the films are still not being made "by Africans, for Africans and with African money". Nevertheless the early fumbblings and the period of artisan discovery seem to have passed by, and the short features and full-length films of such masters as Sembéné Ousmane, Jean-Paul Ngassa and Mohamed Lakhdar-Hamina, hold out the hope that a cinema which is truly African, young though it may be, is fast becoming a reality.

* * *

If we would assess the impact of the cinema in Africa, we must first analyse the reaction to the two films which summarise the public representation of the African cinema: "Le Mandat" by Sembéné Ousmane (1968) and "Chronique des Années de Braise" by Mohamed Lakhdar-Hamina (1975).

"Le Mandat" was Africa's first full-length film and it enjoyed a brief success. It was presented to the African public as the first African success in a field which had hitherto been "reserved"; but, after quite a short time, the curiosity of the African public began to wane. Cinemagoers no longer seemed to take a great interest in it, except perhaps in France, where the African nationals went to see it because they were home-sick, and the Europeans either because it was "exotic" or because they regarded it as a "discovery". Among the expatriate Africans it had a real success, but in Africa itself the public soon grew tired. The reasons are not far to seek. In my view Sembéné Ousmane was not using Senegalese life as the basis for a critical satire on African society, but was perpetrating a lampoon of the ethics of African society as such. He was attacking the failings of our society from below rather than from above. Knowing full well that these failings are the fault of a snobbish form of social organisation—concentration in the towns, incomprehension and corruption in public office, a police force more repressive than protective and the wheedling of customers into the shops and the photogra-

phers' hands. In "Le Mandat" nineteen out of every twenty Senegalese, or other Africans, can see their own experience, but every one of them can answer "it's not our fault", or "that's the way it is—you've got to be smart if you want to live". As a result the film does not attract the public for which it was made. Nobody is going to spend his money to see you poking fun at him.

The impact of "Le Mandat" was weak because it was a light film on a serious subject. Sembéné Ousmane might have made it a comic film. This would have brought him closer to his aim, which was the conflict between the traditional and the modern. These two discordant worlds were represented as poles apart, thinks Pierre Pommier. There is no indication how you can pass from one to the other. If "Le Mandat" were to have a message for more people, and thus a bigger impact, the element of conflict should not have been there, at any rate not in the film. In fact, the traditional and the modern are at each others' throats the whole time.

It is a case of a disappointing socio-cultural impact, resulting from a faulty approach to the problems with which the film sought to deal. One may, of course, ask whether this may not have been due to the education and training of the man who made the film and the economic and political conditions which African film directors must take so seriously into account. This may explain the social and commercial failure of "Le Mandat" which, it must be remembered, is the first full-length black African film.

It is still too early to assess the impact of Mohamed Lakhdar-Hamina's film, "Chronique des Années de Braise". It can be taken for granted the film will have a big success, because of the tremendous publicity it got from the Cannes award and because of its subject matter. It is a fighting film, putting forward a point of view on colonial problems widely held in Africa at present. Moreover it is a big film which cost FF 10 million to make. It seems certain that the popular success of "Chronique des Années de Braise" will have its origins in the importance of the subject and the way it has been dealt with.

From these two examples, representative though they be, it is difficult to say whether the African cinema is booked for a commercially successful future.



Scene from the film "Le Mandat", by Sembéné Ousmane, the first full-length film made in black Africa.

This depends of course on the quality of the films, but it also depends on the tastes of the public. The African cinemagoer is still under the strong influence of imported films. I shall hope to be able to discuss in a future article the characteristics of the cinema market and the future of the African cinema. ■

L. P.

BOOKS

Le nouveau dossier Afrique (The New Africa Dossier). — Preface by Amadou Mahtar M'Bow, Director General of UNESCO — Marabout University, 1975 — 200 pages, BF. 130.

In the year 2000 about 80% of the world's population will be living in what we now call developing countries. Africa, by itself, will have 450 million inhabitants. It will be a continent of astonishing youthfulness, with 42% of its population less than 14 years of age and barely 4% over 65.

The future of Africa raises a host of problems which are studied in this book by specialists from Africa, America and Europe. Their analyses are very abundantly and very precisely documented, often from unpublished sources, especially when it comes to statistics. This new Africa Dossier tackles the essential features of present-day Africa—the cultural, social and political scene, the resources in men and material, the problems and prospects for general economic development, the possibilities of industrialisation and a good deal else. It is an essential source of information for all those concerned about the destiny of the Third World.

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Francis AYLWARD and Mogens JUL. — **Protein and Nutrition Policy in Low-Income countries**. Charles Knight and Co. Ltd, London and Tonbridge, 1975, 150 pages.

This book was written in the light of the national and international measures needed to overcome the food crisis in most of the low-income countries. The authors based it on a report they had prepared for the Consultative Group on Proteins, which coordinates the work of FAO, WHO and UNICEF and a number of UN agencies in matters of nutritional improvement.

The authors have worked in the FAO and been officers or advisors in other UN groups. During the past 15 years they have made a close study of nutrition problems in a number of countries. Francis Aylward is professor of food sciences in the University of Reading

(UK) and Mogens Jul is one of the leaders of the Danish food industries.

The authors give us a rundown of the medical and social aspects of malnutrition, emphasising the need to increase food production, both in agriculture and in the fisheries. Nor do they overlook the need, so often forgotten, for "after harvest management" of food stocks, such as storage, preservation anti-weevil treatment and distribution.

An influence specially felt in developing countries is the obvious damage done—especially in cerebral development—to young children by the lack of proteins in the diet. This is an extremely clear analysis of the policy to be followed regarding proteins and nutrition in general and is valid for non-specialists dealing with the same food problems in all developing countries. The booklet can be used as a guide containing the whole range of possible approaches and solutions advanced by different international institutions seeking to deal with the world food crisis.

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West Africa (Ivory Coast — Dahomey — Mali — Mauritania — Niger — Senegal — Togo — Upper Volta): Marcus pocket travel series, Editions Marcus — Paris 1974.

It is clearly impossible to cover everything in 65 pages on eight countries as interesting and varied as these, but this very concise little travel guide manages to give a lot of useful information all the

same. On the practical side it is particularly valuable on the various aspects of actually getting about in West Africa (means of transport, detailed itineraries, etc.). The Marcus pocket travel series—"Poche Voyage Marcus"—is already comprehensive and this new addition will certainly be of service to anyone who literally does take it in his pocket to use on the spot.

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Mylène REMY. — **Le Sénégal aujourd'hui** (Senegal Today). — Editions Jeune Afrique — Paris 1974.

If it was the writer's intention to show us Senegal in terms which would induce us to pay it a visit, that end is most certainly attained. Mylène Remy shows us Senegal as a country where life is good, whether for a reasonable period or just as a tourist. We get a knowledge of the symbols of its internal balance in a text which is well set out and easy to read. The image it gives of contemporary Senegal is not larded with statistical or technical details in the exaggerated way so common in guides of this type. Yet the detail, so important in many ways, is certainly not lacking. Far from it, for this work persuades, suggests, invites; but it is careful not to lay down a formula for appreciating the country. Moreover, true though it is that a good frame does not make a good picture, the choice of the magnificent photos and other illustrations, and the warm colours they portray, make this guide the more worth reading for those who are to have the good fortune to make the acquaintance of this "well balanced and well attuned" Senegal.

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