

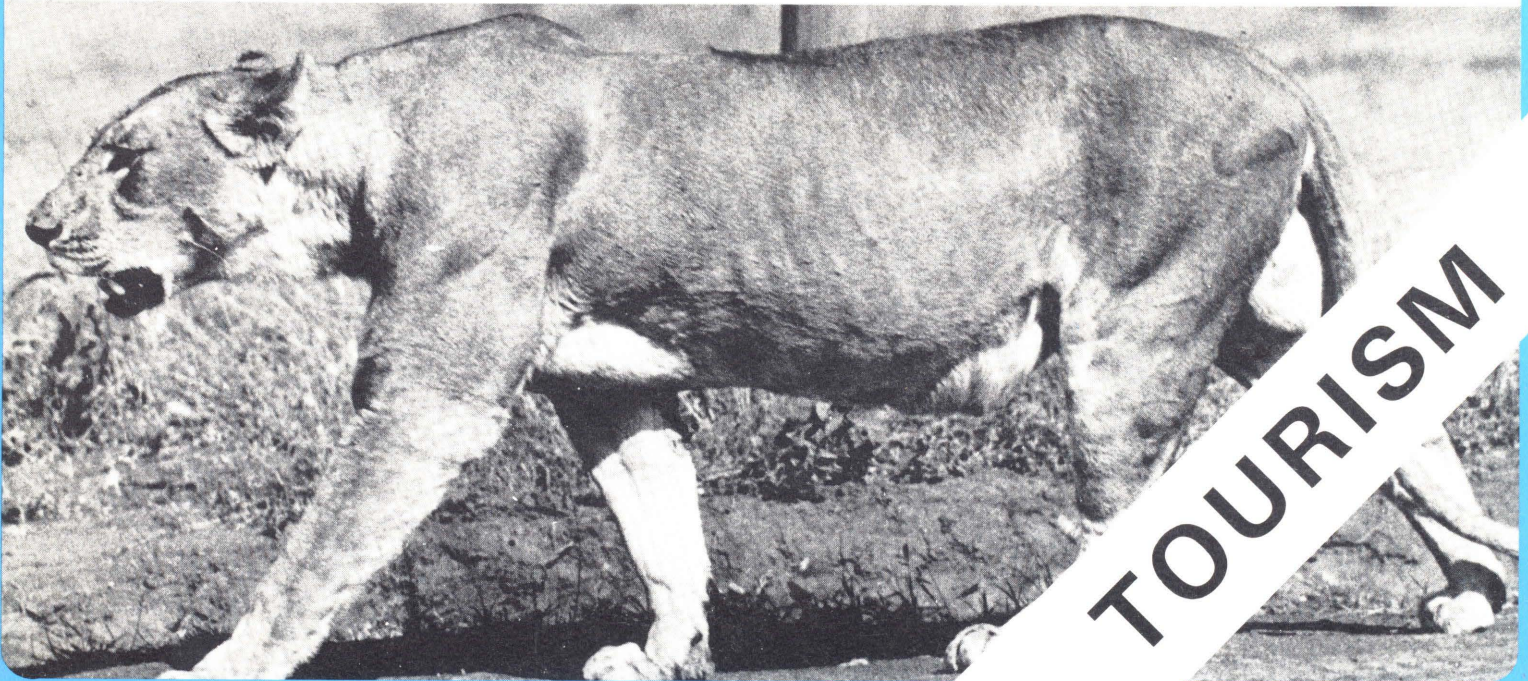
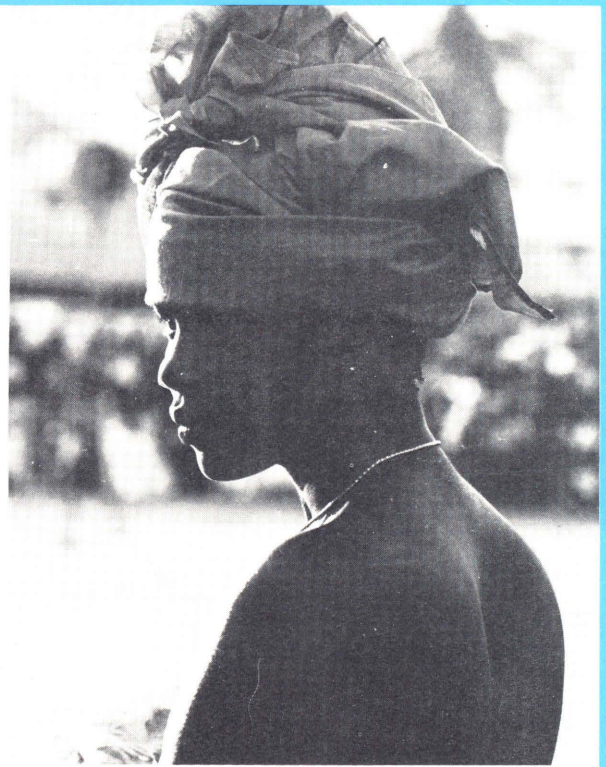


the courier

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY — AFRICA-CARIBBEAN-PACIFIC

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TOURISM

THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

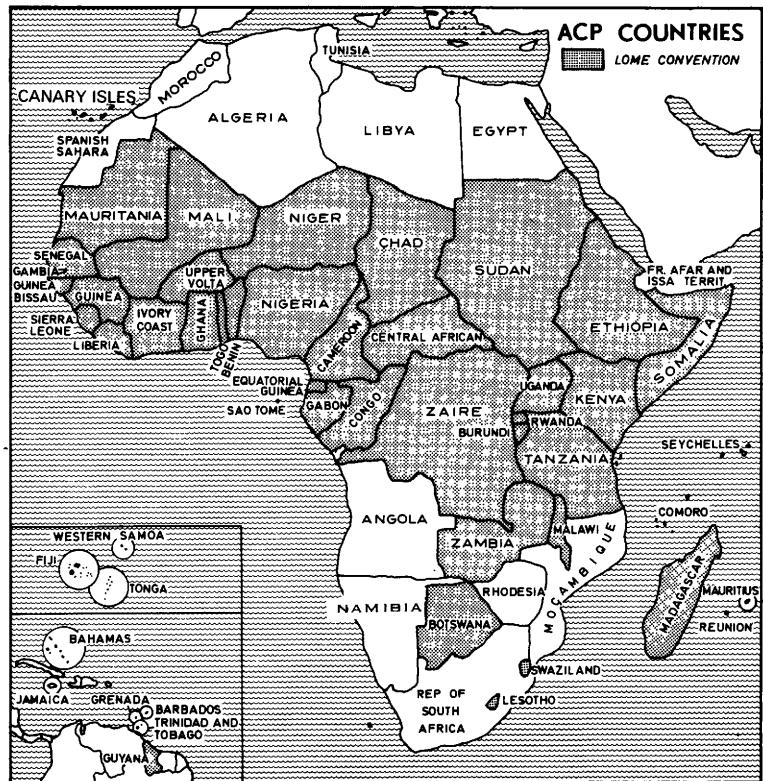
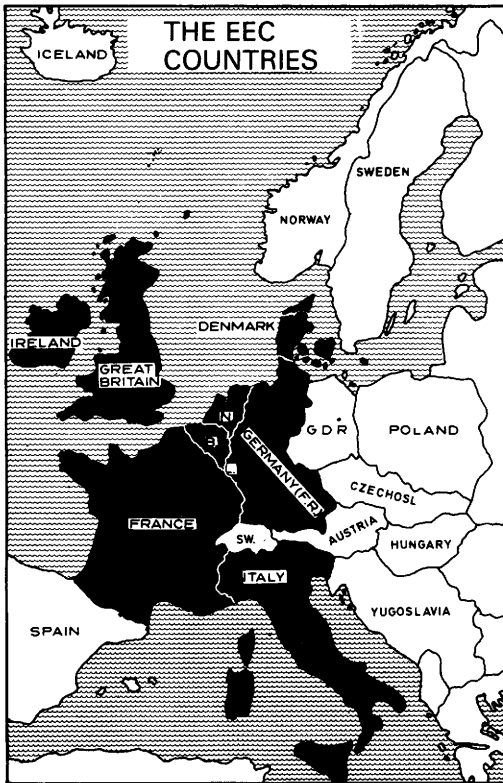
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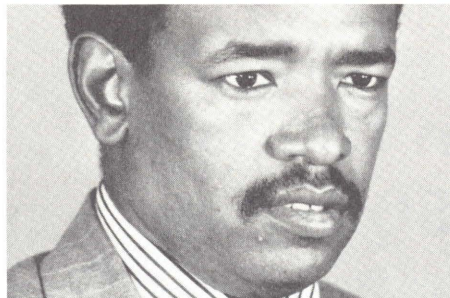
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Sudan — Africa's largest country has great economic potential but was, for many years, faced with problems of drought, inadequate transport facilities and an inefficient system of administration. Since the administrative reforms of 1972, the introduction of a large-scale development programme and the forging of links with West Europe via the Lomé Convention, the Sudan is optimistic about its future, says ambassador Ibrahim M. Hassan. **Page 3**



Tanzania — Tanzania's development is founded on progress in the agricultural sector, with the Ujamaa village cooperatives as the basic unit. Amon N'sekela, the High Commissioner from Dar-es-Salaam in London, explains his country's policy, which aims, at transforming Tanzania's society and its economy, at one and the same time. **Page 7**

UDEAC — The Central African Customs and Economic Union is an organization for sub-regional cooperation between the People's Republic of the Congo, the Central African Republic, Gabon and Cameroon. It was set up in 1964 and has achieved certain of its objectives, including the harmonization of its members' industrial policies. On a recent visit to Brussels, Pierre Tchanqué, UDEAC Secretary-General, gave the EEC the latest information about both the organization itself and those of its economic projects likely to interest the Community under the Lomé Convention. **Page 12**



Dossier — Will tourism really help the economic development of the Third World? Operators making a substantial profit from the tourist trade say it will. Those who see it as a cause of social and cultural degradation in countries like the ACP, where social structures are fragile, say it will not. This issue's Dossier gives a range of opinions on a giant industry which is of great importance to the developing countries. **Page 14**

Robert Escarpit — The role of the press in development and in developing countries was discussed recently at the French-speaking press congress in the Ivory Coast. Should developing countries have a different kind of press from that in industrialized countries? Robert Escarpit, well-known columnist for the Paris daily *Le Monde*, gives his opinion. **Page 55**



THE COURIER

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY —
AFRICA - CARIBBEAN - PACIFIC

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300 million tourists in 1980 ?

The first "world travel and organized tours" week at the International Centre in Paris in February, 1976, confirmed the claims put forward in the various reports published by the IUOTO—International Union of Official Travel Organizations (now the WTO—World Tourism Organization)—to the effect that the tourist industry had stood up to the oil crisis fairly well and that new developments were under way. OECD forecasts for the '80s suggest that there will be between 280 and 300 million registered arrivals.

The IUOTO/WTO reports 215 m tourists for 1975, as against 81.4 m for 1962. Overall earnings from the tourist trade rose to \$31.9 m as against \$7.8 m—i.e. the annual growth rate over the period in question was of the order of 13%. Tourism is a curious product in that it is sold abroad and consumed at home. Around it has grown up a whole industry, superimposed on the secondary and tertiary sectors, which is becoming one of the main economic activities of the developed countries.

Where do the developing countries stand in relation to this expanding industry? Statistics show that they are attracting more tourists. Recent figures for developing countries show that there were 29.4 m tourists in 1973 as against 5.8 m in 1962, and that earnings from the tourist trade were \$5 700 m, as against \$1 500 m in 1962. It would appear that there is a slightly larger increase in international tourism in the developing countries than in the world in general. This is probably due to the fact that the holiday trade on an economically significant scale is a more recent pheno-

menon in these countries which, therefore, have the greatest scope for development.

As far as Africa is concerned, Léonard Claude M'Pouma, Cameroon's Minister for Industrial and Trade Development, gave a good résumé in a speech made in Yaoundé on 3 March 1972 when the first international conference—which the EEC helped to finance and prepare—on the development of the African tourist industry was opened.

He said that the disappointing thing was the bipolarization currently developing in the world tourist trade. The latest IUOTO publications showed that 94% of tourists travelled between America and Europe. These two continents thus accounted for 169 m of the 181 m tourists recorded at frontiers in 1971 and \$18 000 m of the \$20 000 m they spent, whereas Africa only had 2.6 m tourists spending \$470 m. These figures speak for themselves. The conference showed that the African tourist trade was only in its infancy. In Mexico, for example, the tourist trade earned about \$900 m—twice the amount earned in Africa as a whole. In Africa, moreover, earnings from the tourist trade were concentrated in three areas—North Africa (more than 50%); East Africa and South Africa.

There have been one or two changes since then, although most of what the minister said still holds good. A recent IUOTO/WTO survey showed that, over a 10-year period (1962-72), the number of tourists went up by 250% in Africa and by more than 124% in the Caribbean—although earnings only went up by 224% and 48% respectively. The same survey showed that in 1971, expenditure per tourist was an average \$230.8 in the Caribbean and \$158.1 in Africa—as against a world average of \$115.1.

The economic advantages of the tourist trade need no advertizing. The immediate financial benefits are obvious, as are the indirect economic effects like the creation of secondary production and service activities, with a corresponding increase in the number of jobs, in local consumption etc. In a country like Kenya—which had 293 000 tourists in 1969 and 800 000 visitors spending 750 m shillings in 1974—the coffee harvest only brings in 495, the tea harvest 350 and the cotton harvest 24 m shillings. Earnings from the tourist trade in these less developed countries are, of course, way behind any in the developed countries, but their healthy effect on the balance of payments is much more apparent because of the ratio of tourist trade to other earnings and the very small amounts that nationals from the developing countries are able to spend on travel.

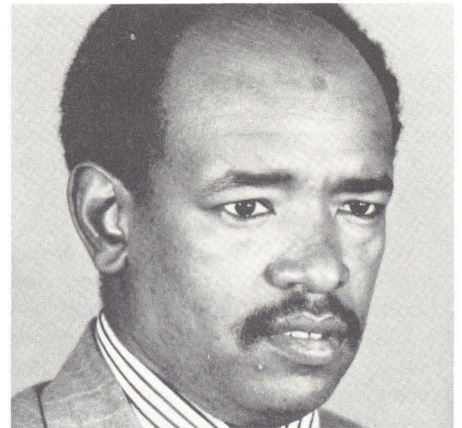
The ACP countries have a certain number of things in their favour now that air travel makes it easier to cope with long distances. Although long journeys are still expensive, costs are gradually coming down on regular routes and special arrangements like charter flights mean that more people can afford to travel. One of the ACP countries' main advantages is that their climate complements the climate of Europe. Generally speaking, the most pleasant season (the dry season) in eastern and central Africa corresponds to winter in the northern hemisphere—the period of the year when, for instance, older people take their holidays in the sun. Winter holidays are very much the thing in North America and Scandinavia and are becoming increasingly popular in the nine countries of the Community as well. Other good points are the warm seas, the uncrowded and unpolluted beaches, though the surf and the mangrove swamps can be a problem—and what tourists see as unusual and what is often very beautiful scenery. Above all, there are the wild life reserves, the natural vegetation and the opportunities for hunting. By no means all the reserves are, as yet, being fully exploited for tourist purposes—although in East Africa, photographic safaris, in particular, are organized at much cheaper rates than the hunting trips proper. Finally, we

must not forget the customs, the way of life, the dances, the traditional artefacts—which can attract the tourist with no ethnological interests whatever—and the work of artists and craftsmen, both handed down from the past and linked to living tradition. Nor should we forget the ever-increasing illustrations of negritude which have had their effect on the rich countries at large since Europe first “discovered” black art soon after the First World War. Cubism and surrealism in their search for abstractions, the subconscious and new forms of expression, Picasso, Matisse and the German expressionists all found in African art the symbols they were seeking. In the statuettes, in particular, they found justification for the deformation they themselves used to illuminate the human form.

However, a tourist trade involving countries with different civilizations and standards of living also has its negative side. A large number of hotels in the developing countries are run by foreign individuals or companies and some of the staff are foreign as well. This means that a certain percentage of the turnover goes abroad. Moreover, an influx of tourists may boost inflation in a less developed economy. The tourist trade can cause pollution and the deterioration of the environment and socio-cultural structures in the host country. An independent tourist can, if he wishes, mix with the local population, whereas organized parties usually stay in regulation hotels and keep very much on the fringe of the country they are visiting. If the visitor is on a guided tour, his behaviour and ignorance may shock the local population. An ideal way of coping with these negative aspects would be to train competent staff and, most important, to educate the tourists themselves by trying to awaken their awareness of the “otherness” of other people. A solution such as this, however, demands a human warmth and an intellectual curiosity which are hard enough to convey in any circumstances. ■

Interview with Ibrahim Mamoun Hassan Sudanese Ambassador in Brussels

Mr Hassan describes the unity of the Sudan, his country's social and economic development through socialism and its new relations with the European Community under the Lomé Convention.



Ibrahim Mamoun Hassan

► *The Sudan is the biggest country in Africa, two-thirds larger than the whole area covered by the EEC. What are the advantages and the disadvantages of its sheer size?*

— There are two kinds of advantages. In such a large country you expect to find many natural resources, and the Sudan abounds in them; then there is the question of unity, which we are looking for in Africa, in the Middle East, in the Arab world especially, and for a big country like the Sudan political boundaries have never been ethnic or geographic—they cut through many ethnic groups and cultures—and a big union like this is an example of unity. It is often said that the Sudan is a microcosm of Africa, with all its religious, racial and geographical diversity; in Sudan you find the Arab and African cultures, Islam, paganism, Christianity, and a topography ranging from the desert to the jungle. The unity of such a country is, to my mind, a good example of the unity of Africa.

Then there are the disadvantages. The administration of such a country poses a problem. There are always parochial feelings. And providing the infrastructure and services is difficult.

► *This unity is fairly recent, in that that the present structure was established in 1972 when the south was given its own autonomy, except in certain fields: foreign policy, defence, trade, currency and communications. How has this arrangement worked out?*

— The unity of the country is now based on a very solid foundation. Local autonomy has been given to the people of the south and they are satisfied, as are we in the north. The civil war which raged for 17 years in the Sudan has ended

and the populations displaced by that strife have been resettled. All the civil life disrupted during the civil war has been restored, and the administration in the southern Sudan is doing well. There is a very confident understanding between the President and the Vice-president, who is the head of the regional government. The regional assembly is doing its job and there is a party which is national, the Sudan Socialist Party, which is taking root both in the north and the south to give unity to the political life of the entire country. I can say that without boasting or trying to be nationalistic or defend the government. Unity really has been put on a firm foundation.

► *One of the problems in so large a country is communications. Over such long distances roads don't seem to offer so much value for money as railways, yet the railways have made considerable losses recently despite considerable investments, and the government has given new priority to road-building. What is the general situation regarding communications?*

— We only have 200 miles of tarmac roads in the Sudan and the railways are important for bulk goods transport, especially agricultural produce. But we need to diversify our transportation, and we felt from experience that we should have some economically strategic roads to take the burden off the railways. The problem is that the railways were built at the beginning of the century and are not oriented towards the increase in our foreign trade. We have expanded our production vertically and horizontally, especially in agriculture, and our imports and exports have increased considerably, causing bottlenecks. It is very costly to replace railway equipment, although the government has done a lot and international organisations, especially the IBRD, have helped us to develop the railways. But we would still have to invest a lot to catch up with the country's requirements, and roads provide rapid transport and help cement the unity of the country — the Port Sudan-Khartoum road, for instance, is extremely important strategically, because the railway is sometimes flooded by rain and this cuts off our only port. And then we hope to expand produce, such as poultry, which needs quick, small-scale transport.

► *In this context the oil pipeline between Port Sudan and Khartoum is very important. How is this getting on?*

— The pipeline has been completed. It is vital to be able to distribute oil quickly and surely, and more cheaply than by rail, not just for energy—for instance to make fertilisers in Khartoum. The pipeline will relieve the railway of nearly 40% of its load. It is practically finished.

► *Would you sketch the main lines of the five-year plan that was due to end last year? How far was it successful and what comes next?*

— The plan was revised in 1972 under a phased programme of action which was meant to provide the practical steps for implementing the plan. The priorities were revised and clarified.

In agriculture, the objectives were to increase production, to introduce new products and to meet domestic requirements. We wanted to be self-sufficient, for instance in wheat, rice, coffee, tea, fruit, etc. We have achieved a lot up to now. We are nearly self-sufficient in wheat and should be so this year. We used to import all our rice and now we produce two-thirds of our requirements. New products like beans, tea and coffee will be produced in the south and we are well advanced with our studies on this.

In livestock, we have immense potential as probably the biggest cattle country in Africa. It needs a lot of research to modernise this sector and this is where we are directing our efforts. There are some 140 livestock development projects currently going ahead.

In industry, the main thing is to develop agro-industry and be self-sufficient in those products which we can produce ourselves. Firstly we directed our efforts to sugar and textiles. We have completed two new textile factories and are building eight more, and with the new sugar factories we should even be able to export this product, which we have had to import until now.

These are the main lines of the plan, but I have not described what is being done in energy, irrigation, etc.

► *What other resources might be developed in future?*

— Mining is promising. We have only been mining small quantities of chrome and mica up to now, but we are now prospecting for oil in the Red Sea. We have already discovered gas and are very hopeful that it is in commercial quantities. We are building a big cement factory, which will not only cover our needs but enable us to export. And we have discovered that there are very rich deposits of gold in the Red Sea, which we are taking steps to mine. We are in the process of surveying what mineral resources we have.

► *Is there a problem of the general economic balance of development in the Sudan? In the Blue Nile province, for instance, agriculture is more developed than elsewhere.*

— Yes, we are trying hard to achieve a geographical balance and development is going on all over the Sudan. The textile industries, for instance, are in different parts of the country, and we are developing new areas. I must mention the question of mechanised farming. We have large plains without much water—the main source is, of course, the Nile—where we are carrying out large-scale mechanisation for millet, oil-seeds and cotton, for example. This is going on in different parts of the country and includes a major effort to clear land and provide the production infrastructure.

► *These areas depend on rainfall, but there is another big source of water, the Sudd swamp. Apart from admiring it as one of the world's most impressive natural wildernesses, can anything be done with it?*

— The Sudd is important for many reasons. The word means "block", and it hinders navigation, it blocks water which is lost in huge quantities by evaporation, and it is a breeding ground for diseases. It covers a large area which could be turned into fertile land.

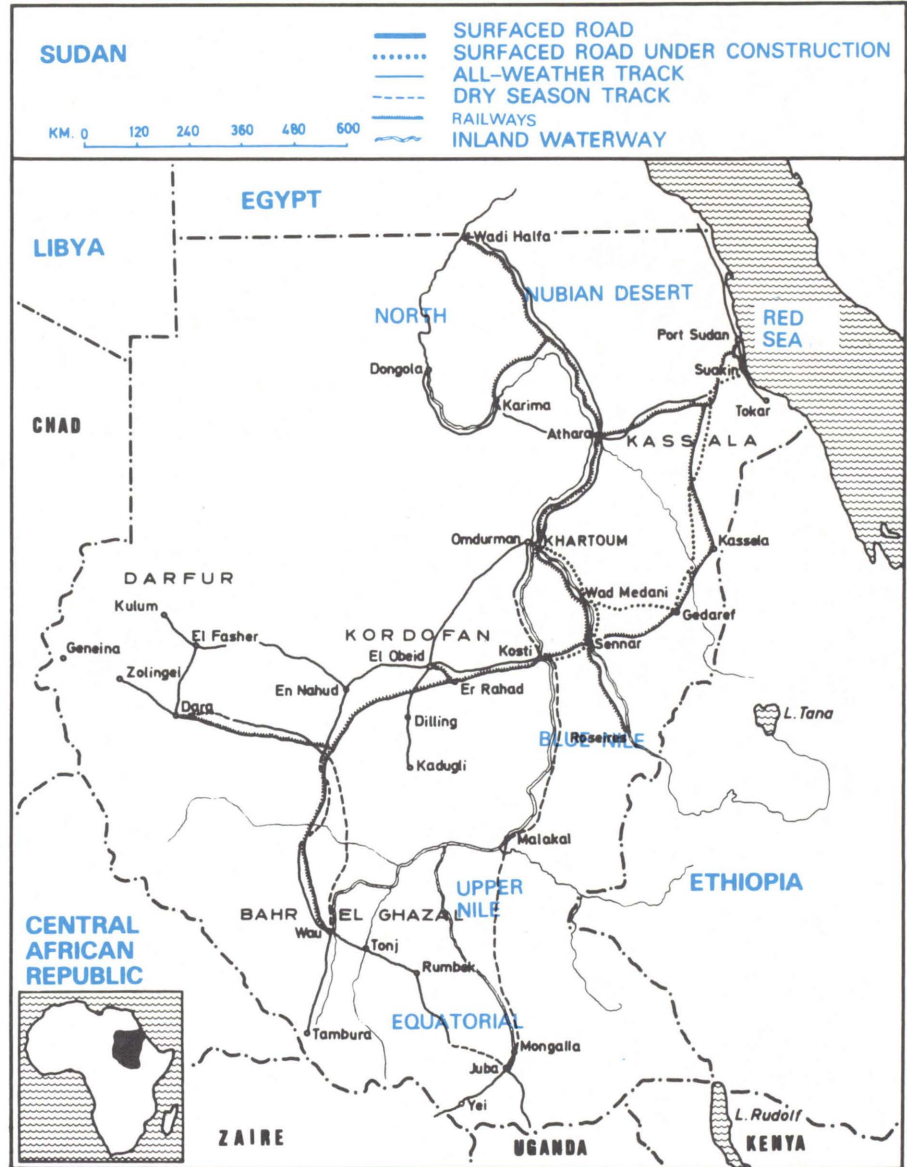
► *To clear it would be an enormous operation. Are you seriously thinking of undertaking it?* →

THE SUDAN

The Sudan covers 2.5 m km² and is the biggest country in Africa. It is in eastern Africa, in the region of the Upper Nile, bounded to the north by Egypt, to the north-east by Libya, to the west by Chad and the Central African Republic, to the south by Zaire, Uganda and Kenya and by Ethiopia and the Red Sea to the east.

It is generally flat, with desert in the north and vast plains in the south. The most notable geographical features are the Blue Nile and the White Nile, which meet at Khartoum, the capital. The climate in the north is arid and varies in the centre and the south of the country from semi-arid continental to tropical. The Red Sea coast is less influenced by the air currents from the north and south and has more regular rainfall than the other parts of the country.

Because more than a third of the country is either arid or semi-arid, almost half the total population of 16.5 m are concentrated in the Blue Nile area and in other parts of the central savannah zone between Nyala in the west and Kassala in the east. Annual population growth rate is almost 2.8%. Only 12% live in the towns and more than half of this urban population is concentrated in the Khartoum area with its industrial zone to the north and the old suburban town of Omdurman. More than 25% of the Sudanese live in the three provinces of what has been, since 1972, the semi-autonomous Southern Sudan, with Juba as the main town. Culturally speaking, the population is mixed, mainly of Arab and black African origin.



There are two major stumbling blocks to development in the Sudan.

They are poor exports—in spite of the vast agricultural potential—and an inadequate transport and communications network due to the vast distances involved and the difficult geographical conditions (desert in the north and swamps in the Blue Nile area).

Agriculture is the mainstay of the economy, employing more than 80% of the population and accounting for some 40% of GDP. More than 90% of export earnings come from agricul-

ture, and cotton alone accounts for something like 70%. Other exports are sesame, groundnuts and hides and skins. Stockfarming is the main activity of the population, cotton-production being concentrated on modern plantations. Agricultural potential is great, thanks to the manpower and cultivable land available.

Sudan depends largely on external help to cover its balance of payments deficit, mainly from friendly Arab countries and certain European banks. The national currency is the Sudanese pound - LSd (±2.3 u.a.).



As with so many children of the ACP, responsibility begins early for this young Sudanese country boy

— Yes. There is a joint venture between the Sudan and Egypt to dig a canal and drain the Sudd, which should save something like 20 000 million tons of water lost by evaporation. The canal will cost Sudanese £70 million, which will be shared with Egypt.

▶ *The Sudan has to some extent been reorientating her trade from East to West Europe. What possibilities do the trade concessions in the Lomé Convention open up for your exports to the EEC?*

— We are sure that the Lomé Convention will boost our trade with West Europe. The freer access to the market is important, as is the Stabex stabilisation scheme, which is a great encouragement to us. Then we might in future have access to the EEC for finished and semi-finished goods, which would benefit our agro-industrial production. We expect to be exporting textiles, for instance. Then the sugar agreement could be very useful as we hope to be exporting this. The convention will institutionalise our relations with the EEC and put them on a firm basis.

▶ *Like the other English-speaking ACP countries, the Sudan has no previous experience of EEC aid conventions. What, briefly, do you hope for from Lomé?*

— As part and parcel of the developing countries, we have always asked for many things—trade concessions, financial assistance, the transfer of technology and the rest—and we think the Lomé Convention is an innovation and a pilot scheme to institutionalise the relationship between a group of developing countries and the developed countries. Whether or not the convention is enough, time will tell. We expect a lot from it; it be evaluated and developed later. We think the future of the convention is bright and we hope that other groups of developed countries will do the same for the developing countries. ■

Interview by
BARNEY TRENCH

TANZANIA: Socialism, self-reliance and extended cooperation



Growing pineapples in a young peoples' cooperative

Our policy of "self-help" goes in parallel with our socialist policy (Julius Nyerere)

Amon Nsekela, Tanzanian High Commissioner in London, outlines the basis of Tanzanian socialism and describes his government's policy of wider international cooperation. For a statistical sketch of Tanzania see the article on President Nyerere's visit to the Commission of the European Communities in the "The Courier" no. 35, January-February 1976.

► *The Tanzanian economy is based on agricultural development, and this in turn seems to owe something to the Chinese experience. In fact how Chinese is the model*

of development your country has adopted?

— I would start by pointing out that 95% of the people of Tanzania live in rural areas, i.e. off the land. For development to have any meaning it must be the development of the people, therefore in the Tanzanian context we have decided that it must be agriculture-oriented for it to be able to raise the standard of living of the mass of the people by providing the basic necessities, like food and shelter, as well as the surplus from which social services can be provided. Tanzania's policy has evolved purely from the nature of our economy and resources and therefore the latter part of the question seems slightly out of place. We are of course willing to learn from the experience of any people, including

the Chinese, and we have been learning from all sources.

► *What is the Ujamaa programme?*

— The Ujamaa programme seeks to achieve the transformation of both society and the economy; it is therefore economic and social. Economically, it aims to rationalise the productive sector by setting up more efficient units, managed and owned by the peasant farmers themselves. Through the "villageisation" programme, Ujamaa aims at consolidating villages and thereby making it possible for farmers to obtain agricultural advice and inputs in a more rational way, to increase their efficiency and production. →

It is social in the sense that with this consolidation, basic social services like clean water, health services and education—both formal and informal—can be provided to a greater number of people, and eventually to the whole population.

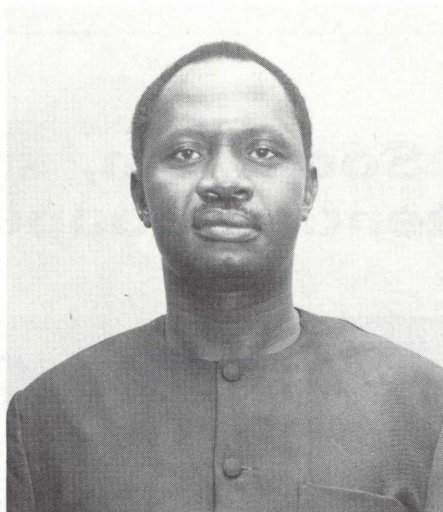
In short, Ujamaa is the all-encompassing philosophy and action programme for rural development.

► *There seems to have been some disappointment in the rural development programme, in that average growth in agricultural production from 1968-73 was less than half the projected 5.1%, and in 1974 it actually fell. Was this only due to bad weather and the oil crisis, or were the plans too ambitious?*

— It is true that agricultural production did not achieve the planned targets during this period. The weather was a primary cause, but we had also underestimated the price of the inputs necessary to reach this target. The world-wide inflation of the late '60s and early '70s put the price of fertilisers, insecticides and equipment out of the reach of small peasant farmers. We believe confidently that had the weather been good and had the prices of the inputs remained stable, we would have achieved the planned targets. Some people have tried to attribute a negative effect on production to the villageisation programme, but I believe it has had a positive effect, if anything, and I think this will be borne out in future.

► *After the Arusha Declaration, which emphasised socialism and self-reliance in the Tanzanian development strategy, a five-year plan (1969-74) was established. How far was it successful, and what comes next?*

— In laying the foundation for socialism and self-reliance in rural development and in the continued expansion of the manufacturing sector, to reduce imports and satisfy the growing demand for basic consumer goods, the second five-year plan could be said to have succeeded. However, the plan also coincided with a period of rapid expansion



Amon Nsekela

"I personally do not place much hope, as some people have done, on the ability of the Lomé Convention to spur real development in the ACP"

of demand, brought about as better infrastructure and social services raised the standard of living of the people. This put great strains on the country's ability to satisfy basic needs and there were occasional bottlenecks and shortages. Where the plan succeeded was in helping us modify certain of our attitudes to planning when drawing up the third five-year plan, especially in our industrial planning strategy, where we are moving away from import substitution to the development of basic industries. This new five-year plan comes into force this month (July) and will, I hope, emphasise self-reliance by putting more emphasis on rural integration projects, food projects and small-scale industries geared to the requirements of the mass of our people, so as to use our local resources to the maximum. This does not, of course, rule out the possibility of developing some of our larger-scale industries, where we have the raw materials for them.

► *Decentralisation seems an important part of Tanzania's policy of self-help. Dodoma is to become the capital instead of Dar-es-Salaam, for instance. Nonetheless, a certain amount of local government has been abolished and public administration is being increasingly integrated with the*

TANU party. What is the reality of decentralisation, and how important is it considered to iron out disparities in regional development?

— Decentralisation aims at giving the people the right and the opportunity to participate in the formulation and execution of the socio-economic projects that affect their livelihood and well-being. In many fields decision-making has been taken away from the ministerial headquarters, which are remote from the people, to the regional and district authorities who are closer to them. Through the TANU party and its representatives, the people have been given opportunities for establishing priorities for development projects and in devising ways of carrying them out. In other words, the planning and control of development at the local level has been given to the people themselves. In this way we have reduced red tape and created a system that makes maximum use of our scarce resources for the benefit of the populace as a whole. By giving local people control and some resources to carry out the projects they have devised, we hope to stimulate development country-wide, and thereby reduce regional disparities.

► *In the regional context, what effect is the Tanzam railway going to have now that it is completed?*

— The Tanzam railway will open up the very rich agricultural area of the south-west to development. It will make it possible to exploit the considerable mineral resources that are known to exist in the area, too—these include coal and iron ore. And it will act as a nucleus for the provision of social services to the people of the area. Further, it will attract related industries in all the regions through which the railway passes and become a focal point for economic development all along the line.

► *The EEC provides about a quarter of Tanzania's development aid and takes about a third of her exports. In December, Tanzania received an EEC programming mission. What kinds of project are likely to come in*

for EEC aid in the near future, now that the Lomé Convention is in force?

— During the visit of the programming mission a number of projects were considered and detailed plans for their financing are now being prepared. These projects are:

- The expansion of cotton textile manufacturing capacity to increase the local processing of our raw cotton;
- A canvas cloth factory at Morogoro near Dar-es-Salaam;
- A bitumen processing factory—at the moment, the raw material from our oil refinery is being exported, and we hope to use that;
- Infrastructure development for the pulp and paper project in the southern highlands;
- Building the 230 km Mwanza-Musoma link in the Lake Victoria circuit road, which connects Tanzania with Uganda and Kenya;
- A coffee improvement programme;
- An integrated rural development programme in Iringa to improve food production and food security and to raise the quality of food for 150 000 farming families;
- In training there are projects to expand the technical teacher college programme as well as to increase general training;
- Development of a Zanzibar-Pemba port project;
- And finally there was discussion on loans to local investment institutions such as the Tanzanian Investment Bank for local industrial projects.

We hope the Community will give clearance to all these projects, which will cost a total of about Shs. 1000 million.

► *Some 10% of the next European Development Fund is to be allocated to regional cooperation. In the East African Community this is something of a thorny subject at the*



East African Mission - Brussels

Tanzanian President Julius Nyerere down on the farm

moment, but it was suggested recently that Tanzania might set up a permanent commission of cooperation with Mozambique which might then become the nucleus of a regional grouping including Malawi, Zambia and maybe Botswana and Angola. What are the prospects for this, and how might the EDF help in the regional field?

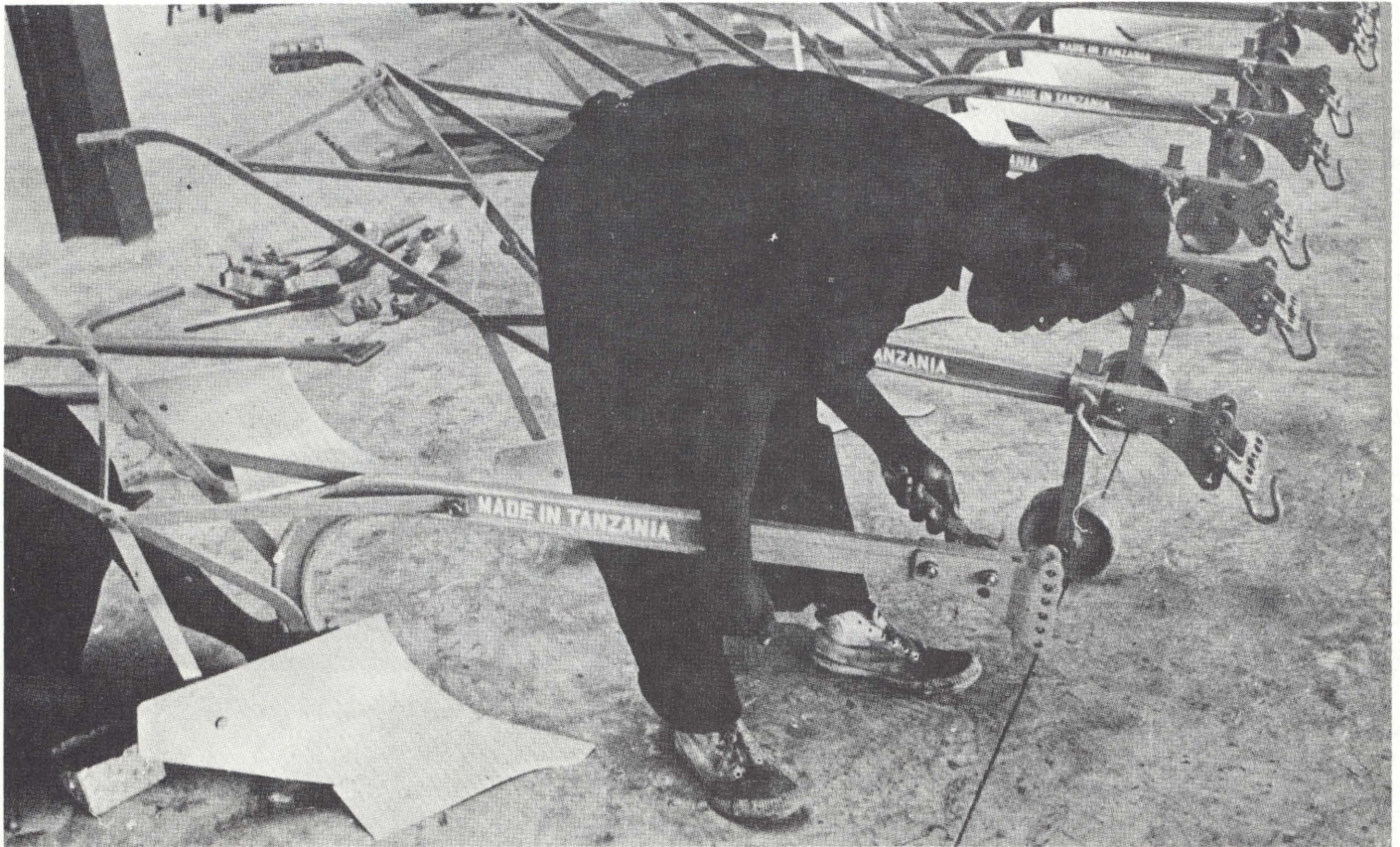
— As far as Tanzania is concerned, the East African Community is alive and well, and what we are now trying to do is to strengthen it, if anything. It has survived various tests in the few years it has been in existence and there are naturally problems in any endeavour of cooperation between independent countries. We want to sort them out and get on with the job of cooperation. The East African Community has already mapped out what assistance its member countries would expect in their joint efforts at cooperation.

There are other schemes for cooperation between the countries in the area, like that now being examined by Tanzania and Mozambique, which would greatly increase regional cooperation. But this is not to replace the East Afri-

can Community. If anything, it is to extend the area of regional cooperation. I would like to repeat that Tanzania values the East African Community and hopes that it will continue, but that of course does not mean that it must be limited to only three countries. We hope it will go beyond that. The Community treaty, which is now being revised, provides for the extension of the East African Community.

► *Tanzania is among the world's poorest countries, and her development effort is the more respected because of it. This effort is based on agriculture, but only a small percentage of the country is considered arable land. What other economic resources might be developed, for instance in the mineral or energy sectors?*

— Our country is also rich in mineral resources. We probably have more minerals than we know—we have hardly scratched the surface. We have good rivers and valleys that could be harnessed to generate enormous quantities of hydro-electricity, enough to meet the needs of the country for a long time to



Agricultural machinery production in Tanzania

come. Our coal and iron are largely untapped, and we have natural soda ash and limestone on which industrial development could be based in the future. The development of the energy and mineral sectors requires a great deal of money, and as you say, we are one of the poorest countries in the world. But the potential is there, and in a big way.

► *The Lomé Convention has been seen as a pilot scheme in relations between rich and poor countries. How far do you think that in itself it opens real prospects for development, in Tanzania, in the ACP and between the ACP and the EEC countries?*

— The Lomé Convention is certainly an advance in the relations between rich and poor countries. It offers the ACP improved access to the markets of the developed countries. It provides some limited measures of compensatory finan-

cing through Stabex for the shortfalls in export proceeds of some of the major commodities produced by the ACP countries, although on a very small scale as yet. It has an element of guaranteed access for some ACP commodities like cane sugar, although the ACP have been greatly disappointed recently by the price the EEC is offering for this commodity in the current year. However, I personally do not place much hope, as some people have done, on the ability of the Lomé Convention to spur real development in the ACP. I think some of the provisions in it are laudatory, and only time will tell what action results from them. But the aid provided for by the convention has yet to flow, and the conditions for its disbursement as well as for the investment assistance through the EDF will have to be considerably modified and liberalised for most of the ACP countries, and particularly the least developed, to be able to avail themselves of these offers.

The developing countries are calling for a new international economic order which will price the products of all parts of the world fairly. The change we seek is in the traditional trade system and the terms of trade that result from it. We also seek increased assistance in our social, agricultural and industrial development. A major UN conference recently set a target for the developing countries to provide 25% of the world's industrial output by the year 2000, vis-à-vis the present 7%, and if this is to be achieved the EEC will have to undertake considerably more than the current provisions of Lomé. Let me underscore this point: Lomé is certainly a step in the right direction, but there is a need for greater political will to see it work. Otherwise it is purely rhetoric. ■

Interview by
B.T.

GABON: M. Ondo, Director of Foreign Trade, outlines the trends in Gabon's external commerce

"*Courier*" editor Alain Lacroix met M. Ondo in Gabon recently and discussed the country's economy, with particular reference to the importance of oil in the balance of payments.

M. Ondo said the balance of trade was positive in 1975 and exports rose to CFAF 202 000 m. Oil accounted for a large part of this. Gabon has been producing oil for something like 10 years. Production in 1965 was 1.2 m tonnes but, in 1972, it already accounted for 42% of the value of all Gabonese exports. Oil has enabled the country to step up its development schemes by supplying a considerable amount of currency through taxation. It is a catalyst as far as the Gabonese economy is concerned and the government feels it should maintain this situation—without, of course, neglecting other sources of revenue, such as manganese and wood. For wood the world economic crisis posed a number of problems last year, but Gabon was not the only country affected by it.

► *Wood has been very much affected by the world crisis over the last two or three years. You naturally exploited the areas nearest the coast and around the ports first and are now going further afield for those types of wood which have become scarce in the areas initially exploited. Are you facing a forestry problem, linked to the wider issue of the world economic crisis?*

— These two questions, the international crisis and the rational use of Gabon's

forests, are linked and this is why the President recently closed the National Wood Office and replaced it by the National Wood Society, which will have a monopoly of the marketing of all the types of wood produced in Gabon, as well as taking steps to boost the forestry industry. Gabon is the first wood that comes to mind in connection with Gabon, but osigo is almost as important since under the old system, the National Wood Office had a monopoly on both.

This year, however, the government felt that all wood marketed in Gabon should be covered by Gabon's National Wood Society—which will then be in a position to develop the forestry industry along new lines.

► *So there should be a drive to make more rational use of the forest?*

— Of course we are going to do our best to ensure that the forest is more rationally exploited. This is, in fact, the exclusive task of the Ministry of Waterways and Forests.

► *Something in the region of 2 m tonnes of manganese is being produced at the moment and it is all taken by an overhead transport system to the Congo-Océan railway and by train to the port at Pointe Noire. This cable transport system is apparently being used to capacity. Does Gabon hope to increase production further and will the removal of the manganese be facilitated by the vast Trans-Gabonese railway project that has been started?*

— This is perfectly true. We could push production up to more than 2 m tonnes, but this would lead to problems with the

cable transport system and at Pointe Noire as well. This is why, when the President decided to build the Trans-Gabonese railway, the plans included a line between Franceville and Boué so that the manganese could be removed that way now that the other system has reached saturation point.

At least there is no danger of the mines being exhausted at the moment. Only part of the Moanda mine is being worked at present and there are other, very large, deposits at the other side of the airport.

► *What is the current policy on tourism in Gabon?*

— The government, of course, realizes that the State should not restrict its resources to or derive its only financial income from, exports such as ores, but must also deal in what we might call the invisibles. This is why a number of hotels are being built in Libreville. We already have the Hôtel du Dialogue, the International and the Gmaba, but they are not enough. Look at Libreville now and you will see a lot of building going on—I think there are three international class hotels going up at the moment. The Regional Planning Committee is now contacting the various provinces to find out what the needs are and this has led to a number of international hotels being built in the Haut Oboyé and the Ogooué Maritime province.

► *You were a member of the Gabonese delegation at the negotiations leading to the Lomé Convention. What do the Gabonese authorities hope for from the new Convention?*

— The Lomé Convention contains a notable innovation in the new system of stabilization of export earnings—the Stabex scheme—which should certainly help set up a new world economic order. We very much welcomed its introduction, and wood, one of our main resources, is covered by it. I should also mention that, as Director of Foreign Trade, I have been appointed EEC correspondent to provide the Community with statistical information every month. We are particularly interested in one other thing and that is the European Investment Bank, which, as you know, is going to finance certain of the ACP countries' projects. To sum up, then, the most useful aspects of the Lomé Convention as far as we are concerned are the introduction of the Stabex scheme and the new EIB policy. ■

Interview by
A.L.

M. Ondo with the Swedish Minister for Trade, Mr Godeberg



UDEAC Secretary-General Pierre Tchanqué visits Brussels

UDEAC (Central African Customs and Economic Union) is a general economic organization which was set up in 1964 by the Heads of State of Cameroon, the Central African Republic, the People's Republic of the Congo, Gabon and Chad. Chad, in fact, left the organization a few years back, although it still uses some of the technical and financial services and is expected to re-join in the near future.

The Secretary-General, Pierre Tchanqué, with some of his colleagues from the Secretariat-General, visited Brussels for a week in April. During his stay in the Belgian and EEC capital, he held some important talks with both the Belgian authorities and members of the European Commission.

At the end of the week, a press conference in the presence of Commandant Raoul, Congo's Ambassador to Belgium and the EEC, was held in the Brussels Embassy of the People's Republic of the Congo, this country currently holding the chairmanship of UDEAC.

M. Tchanqué, who has been head of UDEAC since it was first set up, told journalists of the importance both of the organization itself and its economic aims.

He said that UDEAC was the first African organization of this type to have succeeded in creating an integrated economic policy acceptable to all members. Over the last 10 years, it had concentrated on defining and harmonizing its policies in certain key sectors—customs, taxation, trade and industry. Since 1974, UDEAC had done its best to embark upon the active phase of this policy by research into and financing of economic projects which are either carried out by the member States jointly or are of common interest to them. Cooperation



Pierre Tchanqué

The Central African Customs and Economic Union is aiming at a full-scale common market in this region of Africa

with other organizations or investors was one of the points that M. Tchanqué wished to discuss with the Commission and he has submitted project which the EEC could finance under the Lomé Convention.

M. Tchanqué also said that UDEAC wanted to create a genuine economic community combining all the peoples of Central Africa and had, therefore, introduced a form of monetary cooperation by setting up a sub-regional development bank in which foreign countries could also participate. This bank included a fund to provide interest subsidies for loan to landlocked member States.

As far as the social sector was concerned, the Secretary-General went on, now that workers and their families could move about as they liked, the UDEAC countries were carrying out studies—with ILO help—with a view to harmonizing their social security systems and labour laws.

Before leaving Brussels, Pierre Tchanqué again stressed his confidence in UDEAC: there had been no major conflicts between members and, thanks to the governing UDEAC body, the Council of Heads of State, their differences had always been settled amicably. ■

LUCIEN PAGNI

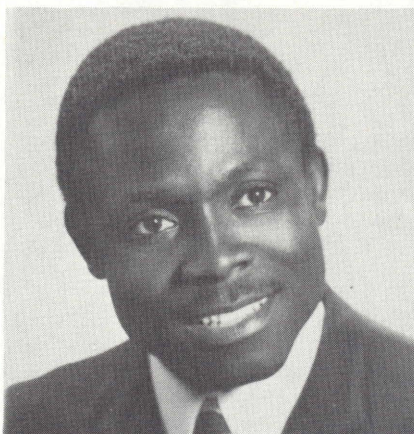
Micro-projects

For better or for worse, industrialization is increasingly thought to be synonymous with development. The transforming of primary products into manufactures is a process that creates wealth by adding to the value of the raw materials. The economic history of the industrialized countries shows that industrialization was a slow process that went through many stages from cottage industry to highly technical, national, multinational and transnational industries.

Developments in the Third World will inevitably be different. Industrialization of the economy may well proceed at a faster pace but it could prove to be built on flimsy foundations if it is concentrated round one or two poles—or metropolises—of attraction and if it is exclusively export-oriented. We know that an industry geared to exports is only viable if it also satisfies the internal demands of the country and fits into and stimulates the real economic structures—i.e. if it is not merely a superstructure unrelated to the economic and social reality of the country.

The Lomé Convention has realized the need to found the industrialization of the ACP countries on their deep-rooted socio-economic realities. This is why chapter 7 of protocol 2 provides the possibility of financing small-scale schemes—called micro-projects”.

Micro-projects are essentially projects of local interest which are important as far as the economic and day-to-day life of restricted areas are concerned but



CARABIN

By **LUCIEN PAGNI**

which, in view of their small scale and limited scope, cannot be included in a national programme as part of a general economic development policy.

According to the Convention, these schemes are primarily rural in nature and include dams, wells and water supplies, silos and storage facilities for food and crops, rural service tracks and bridges, animal vaccination pens and corridors, primary schools, dispensaries, maternity homes, social assistance centres, warehouses, facilities to encourage commercial and industrial activities and so on. They are obviously practical schemes and geared to the needs of small and medium-sized local communities in the ACP countries.

The Community is providing 20 m u.a. (about CFAF 5 000 m) for this purpose and a ceiling of 75 000 u.a. (about CFAF 19 m) has been fixed for each micro-project.

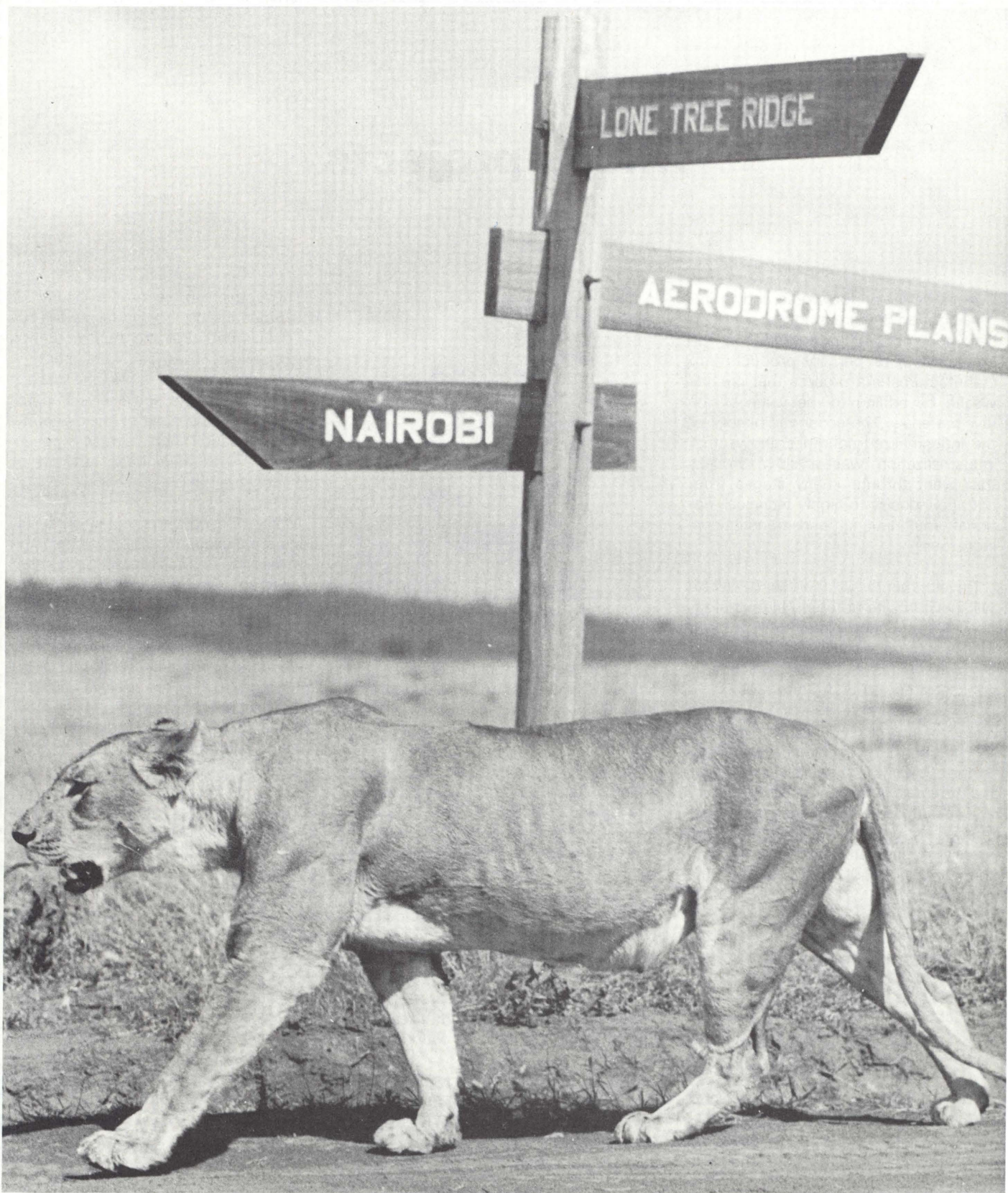
These micro-projects are clearly of enormous importance as far as the rural development of the ACP countries is concerned. They can help create a more solid industrial basis and have a far from negligible social effect in regions which—because of their geographical location or simple poverty—could well have been left out of the industrialization process.

Many non-governmental organizations are anxious to cooperate with the Commission in implementing a number of medium-sized development projects, and the micro-projects are an ideal field for this. They are also a means of helping rural communities reach a better understanding of their economic problems so that they themselves can propose structured solutions and the governments have only to provide the financing and management staff to carry them out.

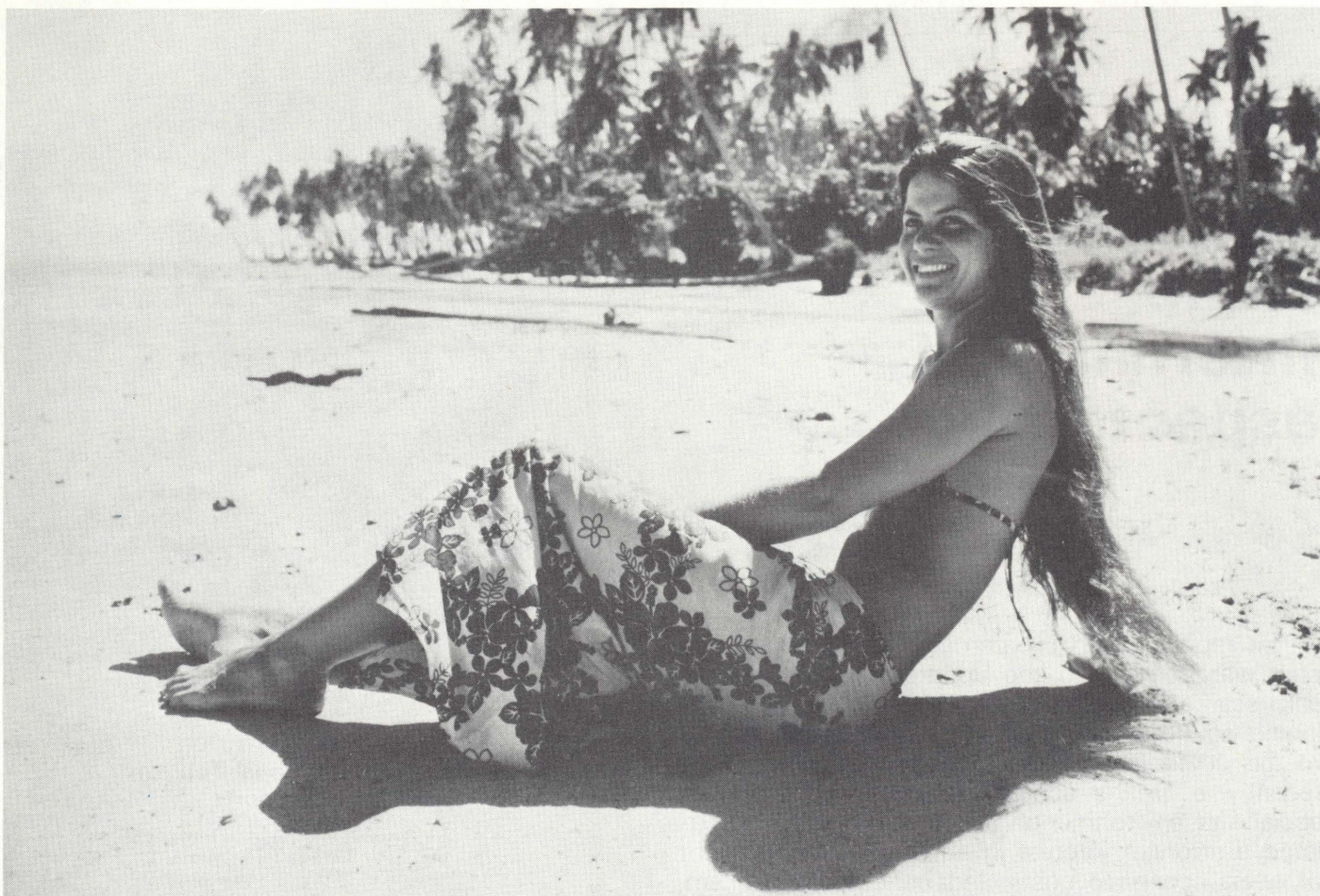
This is particularly important in view of the fact that the profitability/investment ratio and the maintenance costs of micro-projects are often well above those of certain of the large-scale industries which are affected by the trends of external markets.

The micro-projects appear to be an excellent stabilizing mechanism to help achieve a balance between the major industrial centres and the regional economies, particularly as regards domestic trade, subcontracting and the modernization of rural areas.

L.P.



Picou - Afrique photo



Opposite: a Kenyan lioness follows the tourist route into town from the airport. Above: sun-worshiper in the Caribbean

Tourism in the ACP

The tourist trade looks like one industry capable of solving the problems of under-development and the chronic balance of payments deficit in some Third World countries. It also seems to be a factor contributing to ecological and social upheaval in developing countries, including all the ACP, with fragile social structures. Its advantages and disadvantages on balance remain an open question. In this Dossier, the "Courier" looks at the phenomenon of tourism, one of the fastest-growing industries in the world despite its sometimes undesirable effects.

FIRST RECORD OF THE WORD "TOURIST"

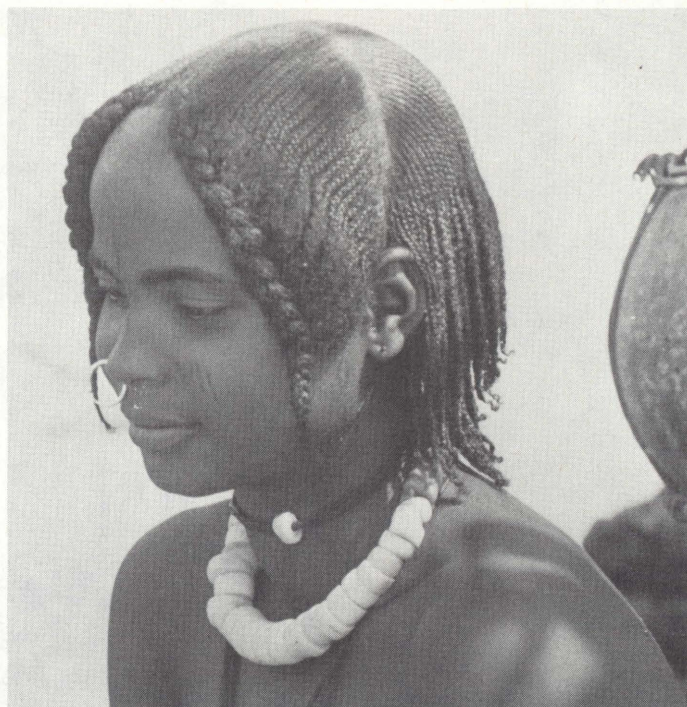
In 1814, Nichols Son and Bentley, a London publishing house, brought out "Anecdotes of the English Language" by one Samuel Pegge. on page 313 we learn that "a traveller is nowadays called a Tourist". (From "World Tourism", the WTO magazine).

Tourism: some international aspects⁽¹⁾

The rapid growth in international tourism in the post-war period and the apparent opportunity to earn scarce foreign exchange have led many developing countries to attach considerable importance to this sector in their development planning. More recently, a greater consciousness of costs and of social and environmental aspects have also stimulated a stronger interest in an over-all assessment of socio-economic costs and benefits of tourism. The main purpose of this note is to focus on some international aspects with a view to pointing out possible areas of international policy to develop tourism, and to increase its benefit, for developing countries.

International tourism is now one of the major items in international trade, with tourism receipts (not including fare payments) estimated at \$27.6 billion, equal to nearly 5 percent of world exports (merchandise) in 1973. However, it should be noted, that, while the growth of tourism receipts up to 1968 was significantly higher than that of world exports (merchandise), the trend has been reversed in the more recent period, because both of an accelerated growth of world trade (even after excluding oil) and a slower growth in tourism (Table 1). There is also some evidence that tourism has been more severely affected than merchandise exports by oil price rises and the economic recession since 1974. It seemed likely, even before the recent fuel-related increases in air fares and in the cost of road transport, that the growth of international tourism in the later half of the 1970's would be considerably slower than that experienced in the previous decade. →

(1) From a report on tourism by the London-based commonwealth Secretariat.



Young woman in Chad

Table 1 (a)
Growth of International Tourism
and World Exports

	Tourism arrivals (millions)	Tourism receipts (\$ billion)	World (merchandise) exports (\$ billion)	Tourism receipts as percentage of world merchandise exports
1958	55.3	5.4	108.6	5.0
1963	93.0	8.3	154.6	5.4
1968	139.7	13.8	239.7	5.8
1970	168.4	17.9	313.4	5.7
1971	181.5	20.9	350.5	6.0
1972	198.0	24.2	417.1	5.8
1973	215.0	27.6	574.2	4.8
1974	209.0	29.0	—	—

Table 1 (b)
Growth of International Tourism
and World Exports:
Average Annual Growth Rates (Percentages)

	Tourism arrivals	Tourism receipts	World exports (merchandise)
1958-1963	11.0	8.9	7.3
1963-1968	8.5	10.7	9.2
1968-1973	9.0	14.9	19.1
1958-1973	9.5	11.5	11.8

Source: WTO/IUOTO — UN Statistical Yearbook, 1974.



Picou - Afrique photo

A young safari tourist meets a local resident in Kenya

Table 2
**International Tourism and World Exports
 Share of Developing Countries (Percentages)**

	1968	1972	1973	1974	Annual Increase	
					1960-1968	1968-1973
Tourist arrivals	8.0	11.0	13.9	15.1	10.4	21.6
Tourist receipts	20.0	22.7	23.9	—	11.1	18.7
Exports (1)	17.7	17.5	18.3	—	7.6	19.9

(1) Excluding petroleum products from the Middle East countries. Source: WTO/IUOTO; UN Statistical Yearbook, 1974.

The main determinants of the over-all growth of international travel are fairly well known and are largely beyond the control of tourist receiving countries, though the particular attractions and promotion policies of individual countries do affect

the geographical pattern of tourism flows. Foremost among the factors which influence the total volume of traffic would appear to be the socio-economic growth in developed countries and the relatively high income elasticity of travel expenditure. Changes in the availability and costs of transport—air as well as road—affect both the volume and the geographical pattern of foreign travel.

Developing countries' share

The significance of tourism and the rates of its growth vary considerably from country to country and from region to region. International tourism is largely confined to movement of people between the developed countries themselves. Intra-OECD visits (tourists from the OECD countries going to other OECD countries) account for about two-thirds of all international tourists. While the OECD countries are the main tourism



Targui musician (Niger)

Music is an international means of communication

generating countries, they themselves received nearly 40 per cent of the total in 1974. In terms of tourism receipts, the share of the OECD countries was even higher at 90 per cent of the world total (1).

Other estimates, based on data published by the IUOTO/WTO put the developing countries' share of tourism receipts at somewhat higher levels than those implied by the OECD figures: 23 per cent of the world total in 1972-1973. While the data on outward flows are extremely sketchy and unreliable, it is likely that the developing countries as a group are substantial net recipients.

Moreover, it is noticeable that the share of developing countries in international tourism compares favourably (on the basis of the WTO statistics) with their share in total world exports (excluding petroleum). In recent years, the growth rate of international tourism in developing countries as a group has also been somewhat higher than that of international tourism as a whole.

(1) OECD, *Tourism Policy and International Tourism in OECD Member Countries*, 1975.

At the same time, international tourism in developing countries is concentrated on relatively few countries. For example, four countries (Mexico, Morocco, Thailand and the Bahamas) accounted for over 22 per cent of tourists going to developing countries in 1973; these countries also received 41 per cent of total tourism receipts of developing countries. However, a number of developing countries which earlier had virtually no tourist industry (e.g. Kenya and Tunisia) have achieved a very rapid expansion in tourist arrivals in relatively few years. The improvement in air transport, as well as determined efforts by the governments of these countries in the field of planning and promotion, have been largely responsible for this development.

Air transport

A distinct feature of international tourism in developing countries is its greater reliance on long-distance air transport than is the case for tourist arrivals in developed countries. In 1973, only 9 per cent of arrivals in North America and 11 per cent in Europe came from other regions as compared with 60-70 per cent of inter-regional tourists in developing regions (with the exception of the Middle East). While these figures (1) do not necessarily reflect the relative dependence of tourists on air transport or the relative distances of air journeys by tourists going to different regions, it is probably right to assume that the bulk of the inter-regional tourism traffic in Europe and North America is carried by road or involves relatively short-distance air journeys. On the other hand, most of the inter-regional traffic, which constitutes a far greater proportion of tourist arrivals in developing countries than in developed countries, depends on the long and medium-distance air transport.

For longer distances, the process of civil aviation, with the reduction in travel time and the greater number and frequency of direct flights, as well as the development of promotional fares, inclusive tours and charter carriers, have been the major influences on travel. The cost of air transport is of crucial importance for the expansion of tourism to developing countries as a greater proportion of tourists to most of these countries travel longer distances than those going to other countries. The relative proximity of some developing countries to the main tourism generating countries of North America, Western Europe and Japan seems to have given them a greater opportunity than the more distant developing countries to attract tourists, though they might still be at a disadvantage in this respect in comparison with the competing destinations in the developed countries (2).

(1) The regions are those delineated by WTO/IUOTO. They are based on administrative and politico-geographic considerations and are not related to distances travelled or to the mode of transport used.

(2) Changes in consumer preferences and the relative levels of costs and the rates of domestic inflation for the other elements of a holiday package (e.g. hotel accommodation, food etc.), could mitigate the problem of longer-distance interregional travel in some cases.



AAA photo

The travel trade

Apart from the competition from destinations in the developed countries, travel to developing countries (as well as to other countries) is influenced very largely by the operations of travel agents and other intermediaries, such as tour operators, who also reside in the countries of visitors. An UNCTAD study points out that there are two aspects to be considered in this connection. "First... these intermediaries operate on a large and growing scale, and have stronger international connexions. By reason of their position, they are able to secure favourable terms from hotels, transport and other tourist enterprises in the host countries. Second, by offering very attractive (especially all-in) rates for travel to and vacations in particular countries, they have an important influence on the individual tourist's choice of destination." While it is not possible, without further research, to assess the precise effect of these intermediaries on international tourism in developing countries, it is obvious that any international policy aimed at increasing tourist flows and improving the net benefit of tourism to these countries must take into account the role of the intermediaries, which are not at present subject to governmental influence or regulation in either visitors' countries or in host countries.

Another related factor affecting the net benefit which the developing countries may derive from international tourism concerns the supply of hotel accommodation, probably the largest single element in the facilities provided in host countries. Although no comprehensive figures on hotel ownership are available, it seems certain that in most developing countries a preponderant number of foreign tourists, particularly those travelling on an "inclusive" basis, stay in foreign-owned/operated hotels. A number of surveys indicate that a large proportion of tourism receipts are lost in the form of profits repatriated to foreign owners of hotels and as salaries for expatriation personnel. For example, these items together with direct payments to non-resident owners of other factors of production and direct imports associated with tourism resulted, according to one study (1), in a loss of 22 per cent of Kenya's foreign exchange earnings from tourism. In the Caribbean region, a number of different studies show that the "leakage" of tourism receipts ranged between 20 per cent and 40 per cent.

Some policy consideration

The above characteristics of the tourism industry, with particular relevance to developing countries, point out certain areas in which international action or co-ordination may be possible for the benefit of developing countries, though in some cases the scope of governmental involvement may be more limited than in others. In addition to the provision of financial and technical assistance, which may be required for other sectors too, the possibilities of international co-operation in the field of tourism could involve specific action aimed at:

(1) The leakage is defined here as the extent to which receipts from tourism is lost in the first round of expenditure by the tourists.

Tamouré dancer
Tahiti, land of love—and of tourism



G. Boutin - AAA photo

Fiji: the enchantment of "the far-distant isles"

- a) rationalization of the air fare structures;
- b) minimising the "leakage"; and
- c) maximising the use of physical facilities (in host countries).

With regard to **air fares**, the present financial difficulties of the scheduled airlines, arising from the fuel price rises and the general inflation of costs, should be seen in the context of the overcapacity which exists on most routes, particularly on the North Atlantic route, and the development of low-price charter operations. As most of the major airlines carry passengers to both the developed and developing countries, it seems probable that the average fare levels on some routes have been fixed at levels higher than they might otherwise be, in order to compensate for the lower yields on the North Atlantic route. A co-ordinated international aviation policy could therefore aim at closer harmonization of demand and capacity in order to produce lower fares by improving load factors, and at restructuring fares on the various routes so that the traffic to developing countries does not have to bear a disproportionately higher proportion of airlines' costs.

It is, perhaps, worth noting that the governmental involvement in most developed countries with establishing air fares and with the development of their air transport capacities goes further than in most other branches of the tourism industry, and that IATA has been complaining for some years about the unilateral and uncoordinated nature of policies followed by individual governments. While the interests of IATA members may not necessarily coincide with those of the governments concerned, it seems likely that closer inter-governmental coordination could facilitate a more rational and desirable development of the total air transport market, including the scheduled and charter sectors on all routes, particularly those serving the developing country destinations.

As to the "leakages" through the operations of foreign hotel companies, the international policy need not be, in principle, any different from that which may evolve in relation to all other foreign companies. This would generally involve providing assistance to developing countries for strengthening their national capabilities for dealing with multinational companies and the development of international codes and guidelines. One particular aspect could, however, be that external finance from governments and multilateral institutions could play a larger role than in the past in financing tourism investments so that private finance, which has been and will probably continue to be important in this sector, is discouraged from abusing its dominant position.

The regulation of intermediaries or "organizers" would require a greater involvement by the governments of developed countries than hitherto. The 28th AGM of IATA recommended that governments should "define clearly and regulate the participation of organisers in the field of tourism, in order to ensure orderly development and protection of the public interest. Qualified individuals or organizations should be licensed according to determined standards of eligibility, and there should be bonding requirements coupled with a contractual arrangement with the transport carrier, and control of the organizers' mark up". In the context of international tourism cooperation, these objectives could be extended to include reaching a balance between the interest of consumers in developed countries and suppliers of services in developing countries, which need not necessarily be in conflict with each other. At the very least, an internationally agreed code of conduct or guidelines for tourist operators could be worth exploring.

While the optimum utilization of **physical facilities** may largely depend on promotion and planning policies of the tourist receiving countries, international cooperation could help in two ways. As the tourism industry in most countries suffers from a high degree of seasonality, governments, industry and educational authorities in the tourism generating countries could attempt to promote a wider spread of holiday periods over a year so as to permit a higher level of average utilization of tourist infrastructure and the air transport equipment. This would benefit the tourist industry in both the developed and developing countries. The developing countries could also coordinate their policies among themselves, perhaps on a regional basis, so as to prevent the competitive development of excess capacity and to encourage multi-stop holidays. ■

LOME CONVENTION

First meeting of the ACP/EEC Consultative Assembly

Luxembourg. The Consultative Assembly set up by article 80 of the Lomé Convention held its first meeting here on 1-3 June 1976.

The assembly was set up on the basis of parity and has 184 members (92 members from the European Parliament and 92 ACP representatives). Very few ACP countries failed to attend and a large number of the European representatives were present, at the beginning of the session at least. The assembly is assisted in its work by a joint committee consisting of 46 members from each side, i.e. 92 in all. In spite of their size, both assembly and committee were able to get through a considerable amount of business thanks to the excellent organization of the meetings.

Many of the ACP States were represented by members of their diplomatic corps. Two of the countries (Ethiopia



The opening of the first meeting of the Consultative Assembly. Front, G.A. King (Guyana) acting chairman of the ACP Council of Ministers. Behind (left to right): Mlle. Flesch (mayor of Luxembourg, member of parliament and chairman of the European Parliament development and cooperation committee); M. Vouël (acting chairman of the EEC Council); Messrs. Yacé and Spénale (co-chairmen of the Consultative Assembly); Mr. Van den Bulcke (chairman of the Commons, Luxembourg)

and Kenya) made it clear that they would be represented by members of parliament at the next meeting. The first

session was a successful one and older members and newcomers got on well together—although, of course, most of the delegates have known each other since the negotiations.

There had been no meeting of the Council of Ministers and the assembly did not, therefore, have to discuss its report, which is usually the main item on the agenda (article 80(4) of the Convention). Discussion therefore centred on speeches by Philippe Yacé and Georges Spénale, the chairmen and, most important, by G.A. King (chairman of the ACP) and Claude Cheysson. Gaston Thorn, President of the Council, was unable to attend and could not, therefore, speak as planned.

The assembly adopted a resolution on activities under the Lomé Convention during the interim period and since entry into effect (annex I).



General view of the opening

Organization – procedural decisions

The assembly adopted its rules of procedure without discussion and then elected its officers. Georges Spénale and Philippe Yacé were elected chairmen and the vice-chairmen are, for the Community, Signor Bersani (Christian Democrat, Italy), Herr Krall (Liberal, Germany), M. de la Malène (European Progressive Democrat, France), Lord Reay (Conservative, United Kingdom) and Signor Sandri (Communist, Italy) and, for the ACP, Mr Muna (Cameroon), Mr Lock (Botswana), Mr Adriko (Uganda), Mr Lewis (Trinidad and Tobago) plus one representative from the Pacific States still to be elected.

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On the agenda

Speeches by Messrs. Yacé, Spénale, King and Cheysson

Yacé. The main theme was the contrast between Lomé—already off to a good start and looking promising—and the other attempts at organizing relations between rich and poor countries.

Spénale. Emphasis was on the work that the assembly can and must do in its role as a permanent body set up by the Convention.

King. (Chairman of the ACP Council of Ministers). Congratulated the assembly on keeping its word. Lomé might not be perfect, but it was a concrete starting point and a pragmatic and adaptable achievement. Aid should not be a compensation to replace a fair profit on commodity exports. Mr King expressed his disappointment at the outcome of UNCTAD IV, which did nothing more than postpone discussion. Finally, he said, it was vital to consolidate the institutions of the Convention—the assembly clearly had an important job to do in this respect. He stressed the need to keep the public interested and informed.

Cheysson. Summed up the ways in which the Convention could be used. He put particular emphasis on the original, even revolutionary, features such as the Stabex and the sugar arrangements.

One of the best points of the Convention was that it set an example for agreements signed with other countries (such as the Maghreb). It was a “contract of civilization”, to use the Prime Minister of Tunisia’s expression. M. Cheysson ended by emphasizing the need to bring the economic and social sectors—starting with the workers—into the everyday life of the Convention. The struggle of “the proletarian nations” should also be their struggle, the EEC Commissioner said.

Adoption of the resolution

The main discussion of the draft resolution took place within the Joint Committee and one or two important points were added, including:

— the hope that Stabex could be extended to cover more products;

— regret that no conclusions had so far been reached in the negotiations on guaranteed sugar prices;

— support for schemes to help the less developed countries and for regional and inter-regional cooperation projects;

— an invitation to the Council to accept the application from Surinam, the Comoros and Papua-New Guinea to join the Convention;

— a request for the Joint Committee to implement article 80(5) of the Convention as regards consulting economic and social circles. It was hoped that the ACP/EEC Council would do the same, for its part, on the basis of article 74(6). Speeches by M. Cheysson and M. Glinne (Socialist, Belgium) were decisive on this point.

The draft resolution was adopted—with no votes against and only two abstentions—by both the Joint Committee and the Consultative Assembly.

Next meeting of the Joint Committee

— Lord Reay (Conservative, United Kingdom) was appointed to draw up the ACP/EEC Interim Committee’s report.

— The representative of Togo suggested Lomé as the venue for the next session of the ACP/EEC Committee on 29 November to 3 December 1976. This proposal was adopted enthusiastically.

SUGAR

1976 prices finally fixed

ACP/EEC negotiations were held in May and June to decide on sugar prices (1976/77 season) for Community quotas. This was in conformity with the Lomé Convention’s protocol No 3 and its annex on ACP sugar. The price of ACP sugar on the Community market is negotiated annually, within the range of prices obtaining in the Community and in the light of all major economic factors.

The range of Community prices in 1975 meant that prices for raw sugar could be fixed at 25.53 u.a. per 100 kg and for white sugar at 31.72 u.a. per quintal.

In view of the various economic events in the Member States since the Convention was signed, the ACP countries feel that the price offered for their sugar should be somewhere between 28.15 u.a. and 33.28 u.a.—the two figures currently payable for raw and refined Community sugar—rather than the 25.53 u.a. and the 31.72 u.a. mentioned above. The ACP, therefore, consider that the price for their sugar this year should be 27.57 u.a.

The Community was prepared to offer 26 u.a. and 28.24 u.a. respectively for raw and white sugar from the ACP countries. However, the ACP claim that these prices are below the range of Community prices, which have gone up by 8%.

The ACP countries consider that accepting the 26 u.a. and the 28.24 u.a. would be tantamount to supporting most of the increased costs of refining and the tax on storage in the Community, whose own sugar production (from beet) has been high this year. The ACP are claiming that this conforms neither to the letter nor to the spirit of the Convention. Such prices would, for example, mean that Mauritius would be losing 9 037 276 u.a.

When Commissioner Cheysson was asked about sugar at his June press conference, all he said was that the costs of refining sugar in Europe were nothing to do with the Community. L.P.

After nearly fifteen hours of discussion, the Commission and the representatives of the ACP sugar producers did manage, in mid-June, to reach agreement on guaranteed sugar prices for 1976/77. This agreement will have to go to the Council of Ministers of the EEC and to the authorities of the ACP countries concerned for approval. It involves:

1. **A guaranteed fixed price of 26.70 u.a. per 100 kg for raw cane sugar and 31.14 u.a. per 100 kg for white sugar.**
2. **Maintenance of this price over the period 1 April 1976 to 30 June 1977**—whereas the EEC fixes the beginning of the agricultural year at 1 July.
3. **Provisionally, no charges for storage of ACP sugar will be made.**
4. **The inclusion in the guaranteed price of a premium of 0.48 u.a. per 100 kg,** which the EEC can recover under certain circumstances.

The agreement represents a compromise between the positions defended by the two parties when talks broke down on 30 April.

At the outset, the EEC stuck to the 26 u.a. for raw sugar and the increase of 0.70 u.a. per 100 kg was made possible mainly by temporarily dispensing the ACP countries from contributing to the strategic stock that the EEC has to build up. This contribution can, however, be recovered in part if there is a slump on the sugar market. It was agreed that it would include a "premium" of 0.48 u.a. for white sugar (and 0.44 u.a. for raw sugar) to be reimbursed by exporting countries if their sugar had to be bought in and sold later at a price below the guaranteed price for raw sugar.

It will be remembered that the Lomé Convention specifies that in just under four years—by 1 March 1980—a total of 3 390 million u.a. will be provided for the ACP:
2 100 million u.a. in the form of grants;
430 million u.a. in the form of loans on special terms;
95 million u.a. in the form of risk capital;
375 million u.a. for the stabilisation of export earnings;
plus a further 390 million u.a. in loans from the resources of the European Investment Bank.

To avoid similar problems next year, the ACP and the Commission have agreed to hold exploratory talks in November to discuss the conditions under which the next series of negotiations will be held. One of the main things agreed upon was that these negotiations should start immediately after the Council has fixed sugar prices for Community producers.

The figures for the quantities covered by the guarantee are still to be studied.

They will be fixed in the light of deliveries made by the ACP countries during the current sugar year. The principle of the Lomé Convention means that the producing countries lose their guarantee for quantities agreed upon in 1975 but not delivered (except in cases of unavoidable circumstances). It would appear that some 150 000 t of the 1.4 million t agreed upon in 1975 have not been delivered. The protocol to the Lomé Convention lays down the following quantities (tonnes): Barbados 49 300, Fiji 163 600, Guyana 157 700, Jamaica 118 300, Kenya 5 000, Madagascar 10 000, Malawi 20 000, Mauritius 487 200, People's Republic of the Congo 10 000, Swaziland 116 400, Tanzania 10 000, Trinidad and Tobago 69 000 and Uganda 5 000. The following quantities of OCT sugar are covered by similar guarantees: Belize 39 400 t, Saint Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla: 14 800 t. India, although not a signatory of the Lomé Convention, has a similar guarantee for some 25 000 t. ■

EDF

First financing decisions in favour of the ACP countries

Only a few weeks after the entry into effect of the Lomé Convention, the Commission has taken its first financing decisions on the resources of the European Development Fund. The decisions involve a total **56.89 million u.a. in grants and 3.84 million u.a. in loans on special terms.**

The first 10 decisions already show the scope of EDF aid. There are decisions to grant aid for projects and decisions on special aid, particularly for the countries of southern Africa whose economic situation has been seriously affected by events in Angola and by the closing of the frontier between Rhodesia and Mozambique. Another noteworthy point is that one of these decisions involves help with the financing of a project—the Congo-Océan railway—as part of a joint operation to which Arab funds (the Saudi Arabia Development Fund and the Kuwaiti Fund for Arab Economic Development) are also contributing.

Three countries—Zambia, Malawi and Botswana—of the seven concerned in these schemes are among the Community's new partners.

Special aid to the ACP countries of southern Africa

Following the guidelines laid down by the Ministers for Foreign Affairs of the Community in Luxembourg on 6 April, exceptional aid for a total amount of 25 million ua (\$30 million) was granted for the countries of southern Africa belonging to the Lomé Convention:

— Zaire:	u.a. 15 m (\$18 m)
— Zambia:	u.a. 7.5 m (\$9 m)
— Malawi:	u.a. 1.5 m (\$1.8 m)
— Botswana:	u.a. 1.0 m (\$1.2 m)

The EDF credits will help finance the imports of essential goods—like equipment for public works and transport, spare parts, medicines etc.—that are indispensable if the economy of these countries is to continue to function properly.

Special aid to Somalia and Niger

Two other grants of exceptional aid have gone to Somalia and Niger. Somalia has been given 3 426 000 u.a. to help with its social construction programme, particularly schools, with a view to encouraging nomadic populations hit by drought to settle. The 9 614 000 u.a. to Niger will finance the purchase abroad of 10 000 t of selected groundnut seed and pay for transport to

the users who are completely without seed at the moment following a massive attack by greenfly in 1975.

Aid for technical cooperation projects

Finally, financing decisions have been taken for the following projects:

— People's Republic of the Congo — improvements to the Congo-Océan railway: 7 692 000 u.a. (including 50% grants and 50% loans on special terms).

— People's Republic of the Congo — extensions to the Port of Brazzaville: grant of 769 000 u.a.

— Republic of Niger — continuation of improvements to the Niamey-Zinder highway: grant of 4 736 000 u.a.

— All ACP-OCT — global commitment authorization for 9 500 000 u.a. for 4th EDF grants for technical cooperation schemes linked to investments, general technical cooperation, regional cooperation and aids to marketing.

* * *

The following decisions have been taken for projects to be financed from amounts still available from previous EDFs:

— The United Republic of Cameroon — improvements to the Bafoussam-Bamenda highway: 5 441 000 u.a. including 290 000 u.a. from the 2nd EDF and 5 151 000 u.a. from the 3rd EDF.

— Republic of Niger — adaptation of irrigation techniques in the Sahel region: 260 000 u.a.

— People's Republic of the Congo — construction of the Sibiti-Bihoua highway (part of the project to construct the Sibiti-Jacob highway already financed from the 2nd EDF to the sum of 3 646 000 u.a.).

The EDF gave a favourable opinion on four projects at its 106th meeting and the Commission authorized financing in the form of grants for:

1. People's Republic of Benin: Development of cattle farming in the Sud-Borgou region: 1.929 million u.a. — some CFAF 500 million (3rd EDF).

The aim here is to improve the population's meat supply, particularly in the urban centres and in the southern provinces. At the same time, it will supply

Benin's farmers with oxen to draw their ploughs and cattle for fattening on pasture. The project will benefit both populations living by traditional methods of cattle-farming and arable farmers and should thus help cut down Benin's shortfall in this area.

2. Surinam: Completion of the Paramaribo Institute of Technology: Sur. f. 1.882 million, equal to approximately 941 000 u.a. (2nd EDF) plus Sur f. 542 000, equal to approximately 271 000 u.a. (3rd EDF).

This is an additional grant to complete the project for which financing was originally authorized in 1971.

On June 8 1976, the Commission authorized the financing of two of the projects approved by the EDF Committee at its 106th meeting of 18 May 1976. These projects are:

3. Republic of Niger: Modernization of the Niamey-Zinder highway: 22.054 million u.a. (4th EDF), equal to approximately CFAF 5 690 million.

The project involves improving and surfacing the Tchadoua-Takieta section of the highway (141 km) and widening and strengthening 129 km of the Niamey-Dosso section. Since 1965, when Community aid was first provided, 48.1 million u.a. have been given for studies and for work to complete the modernization of this highway, which crosses the country from west to east over a distance of 900 km.

The current project brings the total Community aid for Niger's main highway to over 70 million u.a.

4. Republic of Upper Volta: Development of market gardening: 346 000 u.a. equal to about CFAF 90 million (3rd EDF).

The aim here is to promote the development of market gardening by rationalizing production. Plans have, therefore, been made to set up a 30 ha seed station to produce seed for the market gardening programme and to carry out improvements to irrigation over a 30 ha area, with a view to extending and improving existing market gardening facilities. The project will provide enough seed for the venture and the country will be independent of imports. The project also involves setting up 80 pilot horticultural

demonstration units to show how such enterprises might be developed in the future.

This brings total 3rd EDF commitments up to 866 520 000 u.a. for 331 financing decisions (since January 1971) and 4th EDF commitments up to 82 791 000 u.a. for 10 decisions (since April 1 1976).

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Loans on special terms: rebuilding a road in New Caledonia and laying a water supply system in Ivory Coast

1. The Commission and the European Investment Bank—as EEC agent responsible for managing the loan—have signed a contract with New Caledonia, the French overseas territory, on the granting of a loan on special terms for an amount of 2.4 million u.a. (some FF 12.6 m).

The loan is for partial financing of the first stage of work on the reconstruction of the Moindou-Bourail section (26 km) of territorial highway No 1, the island's main trunk road. Improvements to this section of the road—mainly bridges, etc.—are a matter of urgency in view of the fact that the old road, over very mountainous terrain, has almost reached saturation point.

The loan on special terms is being granted to New Caledonia from the resources of the 3rd EDF over a 25-year period. The first repayments are due in five years time and the rate of interest will be 3% p.a. Execution of the project will be covered by additional financing from the Caisse des Dépôts et Consignations and from New Caledonia's own resources.

2. The Commission and the EIB—as EEC agent responsible for management of the loan—have concluded a contract with the Republic of the Ivory Coast on the granting of a loan on special terms, for an amount of 1 032 327 u.a. (some CFAF 269.4 million).

This loan will help finance extensions to the water supply system to Korhogo, →

1 u.a. (European unit of account) = US \$1.11645.

the main town in the north of the Ivory Coast. The project is estimated at CFAF 440 million and is part of the National Hydraulic Equipment Programme. It will mean that the whole of the urban area will have an adequate supply of drinking water until 1990.

The loan is for 40 years at 1% p.a. and is granted to the Ivory Coast from the remainder of the 2nd EDF (Yaoundé I). There is a five-year grace period before repayments begin. The Ivory Coast is also contributing to the financing of the project. ■

— **one third as compensation for damage due to natural disasters** (typhoons in Fiji, grasshoppers in Niger, cocoa blight etc.).

Half the Stabex funds will go to the **least favoured countries** (grants) and half to countries in a somewhat better position, which are exporting considerable quantities of their goods to the EEC (interest-free loans).

M. Cheysson pointed out that this breakdown of compensation clearly illustrated the aims and philosophy of the Stabex system. ■

sons resettlement programme (1 400 000 mouths to feed in 1976) and that UNICEF can feed 250 000 children in North Vietnam.

Bolivia

The Commission proposes to grant the request by the International Committee of the Red Cross for 240 t of skimmed milk powder for the Bolivian Red Cross. This amount will enable two free milk distribution programmes to be carried out over 10 and 12 months, from which some 16 900 children will benefit. The milk powder will be delivered to the port of unloading. It is worth approximately 158 000 u.a.

STABEX

FOOD AID

Claude Cheysson, Commissioner for Development, sums up the first year of the Stabex

The EEC has agreed to backdate Stabex, which means that the compensation that the system provides for ACP commodity exporters is being granted this year on the basis of exports in 1975. Mr Cheysson first emphasized the vital importance of the mechanism, which introduces a right to compensation for the ACP countries if the Community cuts down on imports. He then stressed that the dossiers had been very well drawn up and that the customs services in all the ACP exporting countries had been able to supply all the information required. The Commission has discussed this information with the 20 ACP countries in question, with a view to determining their rights under the Stabex system.

An **annual 75 million ua** has been earmarked for the Stabex and compensation based on 1975 figures will be apportioned as follows:

— **two thirds to compensate for any reduction in Community purchases** of certain ACP products due to the recession (the products involved are **woods, hides, skins and cotton**);

Food aid for Vietnam, Zaire and Bolivia

The Commission of the European Communities has just asked the Council of Ministers to approve food aid for Vietnam, Zaire and Bolivia, for a total amount of 15 000 t of cereals, 2 745 t of skimmed milk powder and 1 200 t of butteroil. This food aid from the Community represents a financial contribution of some 6.17 million u.a.

Vietnam

The proposal covers the following deliveries:

1. 10 000 t of cereals and 500 t of skimmed milk powder to the International Committee of the Red Cross.
2. 5 000 t of cereals, 300 t of skimmed milk powder and 600 t of butteroil for the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR).
3. 1 700 t of milk powder and 600 t of butteroil for UNICEF.

These quantities are to be delivered to the port of unloading. They are worth something in the region of 6 million u.a. (similar to last year's contribution) and will mean that the Red Cross and the UNHCR can help the Vietnamese authorities carry out their displaced per-

Zaire

The Commission proposal here is to grant the Zaire government's request for emergency aid of 6 t of milk powder for victims of malnutrition—particularly severe in the case of children—in the Lake Kivu area. The Commission has proposed that this quantity be sent as quickly as possible by air to the unloading point. The cost of this operation is some 11 000 u.a.

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International Grains Arrangement

As the result of a hard-won compromise, the Council of Ministers of the EEC agreed, at the beginning of June, to the Community approving the extension of the International Grains Arrangement for a further two years. The most important aspect of this, in fact, is the Food Aid Convention (the Community undertakes to give a total of 1 248 000 t of cereals). Community support was vital if the Convention was to be extended and this is why the agreement was of such importance.

The Council has approved the 1976 food aid programme (milk powder), which involved 55 000 t. ■ →

UNCTAD IV

UNCTAD IV, held in Nairobi, finished at the beginning of June. The session lasted two days longer than expected, but this made it possible to avoid a breakdown in the cooperation that had gradually been built up between developed and developing countries.

At a June press conference, Claude Cheysson, Commissioner for Development, explained what had been learned from the conference, particularly as far as the Commission was concerned.

The importance of the Nairobi conference lies in the fact that it enabled the problems to be clearly defined. It forced the various parties to make a stand, often taking harder lines than they intended, and forced them to define certain procedures which would be decisive for the future.

Its importance lay less in the tangible results—M. Cheysson said what was achieved on the subject of the ACP debt was insignificant—than in the fact that it is a starting point for what are now mandatory negotiations, particularly as far as raw materials are concerned. Failure is out of the question—it would mean a breakdown in the dialogue that would lead to confrontation.

A negotiation conference will be convened before March 1977 to discuss the "common fund" in the raw materials sector, and this will be preceded by preparatory meetings when objectives, structures, financial needs and sources of finance will be defined.

As regards the role of the various parties concerned, M. Cheysson emphasized the importance of the Commission proposals (even when completely recast) for the work of the conference. It was clear that the Community was an essential participant, even if, on this occasion, its attitude had been disappointing. It had to be hoped, M. Cheysson said, that the Community would be able to put an end to the paradoxical situation whereby it speaks with one voice in the North-South dialogue and with nine separate voices at UNCTAD.

Another determining factor was the firm unity of the Group of 77 in spite of divergences of opinion and a certain

amount of tension, due to the fact that the poorest countries got nothing. M. Cheysson called this unity a fact of major political importance.

He went on to analyze the role of the east bloc countries, pointing out that they had taken practically no part in the discussions, although they would have to be brought in at some stage, since certain questions—commodities in particular—could not be properly dealt with in their absence.

Discussions will continue and the Community must prepare for them. M. Cheysson was pleased that the Council had decided to start work in readiness for the reopening of the North-South dialogue.

UNCTAD item by item

Raw materials and the question of the Third World debt were at the forefront at the 4th United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, although there were many other points on the agenda which were discussed with various degrees of success.

Commodities

An integrated programme was adopted, involving a study and then negotiation, by the end of 1978, of individual commodity agreements. There would also be a study and then negotiation, starting in March 1977, of a common fund to coordinate the financing of regulating stocks.

This agreement is an important step forward in relations between industrial and developing countries and is a move towards a new economic order and a fairer distribution of wealth.

Practically speaking, then, there will be a conference to negotiate the common fund before March 1977 and this will be preceded by meetings, open to all UNCTAD members, to decide on the aims, structures, financial needs, sources and methods of financing.

Parallel to this, preparatory meetings with a view to individual commodity agreements will be held between September 1976 and February 1978—which is the latest date for the opening of negotiations leading up to

product agreements by the end of 1978.

The products covered by this integrated programme are, to date: bananas, bauxite, cocoa, coffee, copper, iron ore, jute and jute products, manganese, meat, phosphates, rubber, sugar, tea, tropical woods, tin and vegetable oils, including olive oil and oil seeds. Other products may also be included.

The following measures are planned: — the introduction of an international commodity storage system;

— the harmonization of storage policies and the constitution of coordinated national stocks;

— the introduction of price arrangements—and negotiated price margins in particular—which would be reviewed periodically in the light of variations in the price of imported manufactures, production costs, exchange rates and world inflation. The volume of both production and consumption would also be taken into account. Some sort of index is obviously required here.

Measures in favour of least developed countries

The conference recommended that developed countries with free market economies both step official aid up to or beyond the target figure of 0.7% of GNP and pay into a special fund for the less developed countries. Socialist countries are asked to give a greater percentage of their aid to them.

The conference also recommended a whole series of special measures for countries that are islands or that have no coastline. Finally, it recommends that the Comoros be included in the category of least-developed, newly-independent island countries.

Debt

Before the end of this year, the situation of the least developed countries will be discussed—probably within the framework of the North-South dialogue—and an attempt will be made to define a policy for the future so that individual cases can be treated as flexibly as possible. The Trade and Development Board (at its ministerial session in 1977)

will look at its methods of operation in the light of the results of the above discussion.

Transfer of technology

The conference asked for the Paris Convention on Industrial Property to be revised in such a way as to meet the needs of the Third World and avoid abusive use being made of the rights attached to patents. It asked a group of experts to draw up a code of conduct for the transfer of technology. Research and development centres should be set up across the Third World.

Multilateral trade negotiations

The conference called for immediate practical application of the measures granting more favourable treatment for developing countries—in conformity with the Tokyo declaration, which said there should be a special system for the least developed countries.

Trade relations between countries with different systems

The conference invited the socialist countries of Europe to step up the amount of aid they provide, to extend their generalized preferences schemes to products of vital importance to the developing countries and to increase their imports from these countries.

Manufactures

The conference recommended that the GSP schemes for developing countries be improved without any reciprocal concessions and without discrimination. Industrialized countries should also take steps to cut out restrictive trade practices. It also recommends that steps be taken to reorientate the activities of transnationals towards producing finished products in developing countries.

Monetary matters

As no agreement was reached here, the conference referred the texts submitted to the UNCTAD Development Board. ■

TRADE FAIRS AND EXHIBITIONS

The ACP countries at the Brussels Fair

Trade promotion gets more sophisticated every year. But the age-old formula of the trade fair is still very much a paying proposition and 10 of Europe's partners, associated by the Lomé Convention, agreed to take part, under the aegis of the EEC, in the 49th International Trade Fair in Brussels.

Community aid this year went outside the circle of the 46 ACP States and three Asian countries—Sri Lanka, Bangladesh and Indonesia—and two Latin-American countries—Haiti and Paraguay—also took part.

The fair had a deliberately popular appeal—exhibitors retailed their wares and individual members of the public came

to taste their foods. This type of contact can be as important as contact with the trade. Professionals might well hesitate to import something, like mangoes for example, if the general public had not already been sounded out. Look what happened to Upper Volta and Mali—their campaign was so successful that they ran out of mangoes in three days! And, similarly, the Belgian and German predilection for South American coffee will only be countered if the consumer has a chance to taste African coffee—and this was what Rwanda and Burundi set out to prove, regardless of one or two last-minute hitches in obtaining large-capacity coffee machines.

The public was also able to buy textiles, jewellery, local artefacts and even furniture on the Benin stand. All these products, and particularly the printed cloth displayed by Upper Volta, Burundi, Mali, the Congo and Senegal, seem likely to get a firm hold on the European market, in spite of the competition from Asian countries like Sri Lanka and Bangladesh, which sometimes offer exactly the same range of products, particularly printed cotton shirts.

But contact with the general public is, of course, only one aspect of the question. These States—who had the financial backing of the European Community at the fair, one of the most important ones in Europe—were also seeking clients from the industry. This was why

Ghana took part in the Brussels Fair for the first time under the Lomé Convention



Ghana and the Congo concentrated on the tropical woods that form the basis of their exports. Somalia made an even more radical choice of display. Its only exhibit was corned beef—pyramids of multicoloured tins stamped with the names of two Belgian supermarkets, a clear sign of commercial success that served to heighten the impact of the display. Senegal, for its part, concentrated on out-of-season vegetables and preserved foods.

The Congo had a slightly curious idea—it launched a new brand of mineral water on the European market. Quality is said to be good and three importers are interested.

However, having things to sell is only part of the story. Goods have to be properly presented, and this was where the European Community fell down. It was responsible for the stands and it failed to live up to the high standards it had set in the past. Although a considerable area was reserved for the associated countries, the stands were less well set out than in previous years. But nevertheless, most countries were satisfied. Indeed, two—Mauritius and Paraguay—were extremely satisfied, having done a good deal more business than they had hoped. Only one other display was bigger than the ACP stands—Communist China had reserved a complete hall and covered a greater area than all the other national displays put together. This was, doubtless, all part of Peking's "European" policy and indicative of its desire to bring about closer ties with the Community. But this has little enough to do with trade. ■

LOUIS C.D.JOOS

THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

The Commission answers questions

The Commission has given the following answers to questions from the Parliament:

1. Setting up an ACP building in Brussels — Within the framework of the

Lomé Convention, the Council decided to provide help with the construction of a building for the administrative and trade departments of the associated States, and has granted 2 million u.a. for this purpose. For various reasons, the ACP States had to envisage buying a block that was under construction (estimated cost Bfrs 205 million) and asked the Community for additional financial aid. On 29 January 1976, the Council agreed to push up the EEC contribution from 2 million u.a. to 3.65 million u.a.—something like Bfrs 180 million. At the same time, it decided that the building would also house the future Centre for Industrial Development mentioned in the Convention. (Answer to M. Cousté's question.)

2. Centre for Industrial Development (Lomé Convention)

The various Council groups are currently discussing the statutes of the Centre for Industrial Development, on the basis of a Commission proposal and with the agreement of the EIB. The statutes will then be discussed by a bilateral sub-committee, with a view to drafting a project to be submitted to the ACP/EEC Council of Ministers. The current draft provides for a council comprising representatives from industry and finance in both public and private sectors. The CID will have simple structures. Its job will be to encourage and coordinate, and most of the concrete work—information, contacts and technical cooperation—will be entrusted to outside experts and consultants. Its budget will cover running costs etc. and it will be funded by grants from the EDF, plus, if necessary, income from the sales of publications, payment for specific services and so on. It is practically impossible to estimate its budget at this stage, although it is clear that only a very small proportion of the total volume of EDF aid will be involved. (Answer to M. Cousté's question.)

3. Cooperation agreements

At Herr Jahn's request, the Commission supplied a list of countries with which it has concluded such agreements, the scope of which varies enormously from one to another. The countries in question are: 46 States of Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific (ACP); Israel, Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia, Lebanon, Malta, In-

dia, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh and Mexico. Negotiations are also under way with Portugal, Canada, Pakistan, Egypt, Syria and Jordan.

4. The effects of association agreements with the Maghreb and the Machrak on agriculture in the Member States

The Commission confirmed that the agricultural concessions granted in the agreements (negotiated by the Commission in consultation with the representatives of the Member States) were fully compatible with the common agricultural policy and designed in such a way as to promote the complementary aspects of Mediterranean and Community agriculture. (Answer to M. Lemoine's question.)

5. Agreements between the Maghreb and the Community — the non-discrimination clause

The cooperation agreements that the Community has signed with the countries of the Maghreb include a clause to the effect that the system applied in these countries may not discriminate between the Member States, their nationals or their companies. When they agreed to this clause, the Maghreb countries wrote to the Community, as did Egypt in 1972, reserving the right, when applying the clause, to check that such a commitment was compatible with the essential interests of their security. The Community answered this letter by confirming its attachment to the principle of non-discrimination and pointing out that, as far as it was concerned, the principle should be fully applied so that the agreements could be properly and smoothly implemented.

The Commission feels that this is a reasonable response to the Maghreb declaration and that their letter, therefore, in no way reduces the legal commitment in respect of the non-discrimination clause that these countries made in the agreements—as M. Cheysson told the European Parliament. The Commission also points out that Article XXI of GATT recognizes reservations for reasons of security and that both the EEC Treaty and treaties between the Commission and other third countries contain similar exceptions. The same legal interpretation should, therefore, be put on all cases of exceptions. →

The Commission therefore feels that commitments on non-discrimination made by Maghreb countries in cooperation agreements are in line with the European Parliament's resolution to which the Honorable Member refers. (Answer to M. Hougardy's question.) ■

INTERNATIONAL FUND FOR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

A UN conference was held in Rome in June 1976 to adopt and open for signature a set of draft statutes establishing a new UN institution—the International Fund for Agricultural Development.

Kurt Waldheim, UN Secretary-General, opened the conference, thereby giving concrete form to one of the main recommendations of the World Food Conference in Rome in November 1974. There was unanimous agreement as to the need for a fund to boost the aid provided to help developing countries step up their food production.

The conference at which the fund was set up—which ended in compromise—pointed to the vast gap between rich and poor countries. The session had been planned to last two days, but discussion in fact took four and ended with the 80 delegates initialling the statutes—which will not be finally adopted until total contributions have reached \$1 000 million. Total commitments so far amount to \$950 million—\$530 million from the industrialized countries, \$400 m from the OPEC countries and \$20 m from the developing countries themselves. If the full amount has not been raised by September, a further conference will be held in January 1977. However, it seems likely that the fund will be able to start operating fairly quickly.

Once it does start, it should provide the crucial stimulation needed to push up the food production that is increasing so slowly in so many developing countries. If the trends of the early part of the decade are allowed to persist, the developing countries will be facing a cereal shortfall of 100 million tonnes in 1985. The initial figure of 1 000 million u.a. proposed for the fund is more than

all the aid available every year for current agricultural and food production. The fund will, therefore, have a dynamic role to play in enabling the level of food production to be pushed up in the countries where the need is greatest. ■

NORTH-SOUTH DIALOGUE

The 19 developing countries want the discussions to continue.

The group of 19 developing countries at the Conference on International Economic Cooperation (CIEC) felt that the discussions begun in Paris should be continued, a recent communiqué said.

The group published a declaration last April, suggesting that the future of the Paris conference would be compromised by the failure of UNCTAD IV (in Nairobi) to lead to any concrete results. Reactions in Paris make it clear that the UNCTAD results are far from meeting the desires of the Group of 77 countries, represented in Paris by the 19.

The group goes on to say that there were certain important sectors where no decisions had been taken in Nairobi. Furthermore, the 19 suggest that the interpretation that one or two industrialized countries put on the few important resolutions adopted make it unlikely that they will actually be put into effect. But the dialogue, within the framework of the CIEC, gives the industrialized countries yet another chance to show their political goodwill by drawing up adequate, concrete solutions to the economic problems of the developing countries.

* * *

As planned, the four committees at the North-South dialogue began a further series of meetings on 8 June. Here are the main points under discussion:

- **energy** – indexing oil prices;
- **commodities** – problem of export earnings and international cooperation on production, investments and technology;
- **development** – foreign investments in the developing countries, multinationals, the least favoured countries, international arbitration;
- **finance** – the developing countries' debt, external assets of OPEC countries,

countries hardest hit by certain price rises, access to capital markets, direct investments. ■

EURO-ARAB DIALOGUE

The Euro-Arab dialogue is one aspect of the cooperation that exists between European and Arab countries in various sectors, under contractual agreements and in very different areas of the globe. There is the Lomé Convention—signed on 28 February 1975—to which three Arab countries (Somalia, Sudan and Mauritania), along with almost all the countries of Africa, belong. There are the agreements that the Community has signed with the Maghreb countries and is now negotiating with the Machrak (Egypt, Lebanon, Jordan and Syria). The Euro-Arab dialogue gives an extra dimension to existing relations between the Community and the Arab world. It also gives added depth to the bilateral relations between the Member States and various Arab countries.

The general committee of the Euro-Arab dialogue held its first session, at ambassadorial level, in Luxembourg on 18-20 May 1976 and the final communiqué was drafted at six in the morning on 21 May. Here are the essential points.

The communiqué was in two parts—the first comprised political statements and the second listed items discussed at the conference.

Both parties expressed their serious concern at the dangerous situation in the Middle East and the threat it presented to world peace and security.

Both parties also expressed their view on Palestine and the Middle East. They agreed that a solution to the problem of Palestine based on recognition of the legitimate rights of the Palestinians would be a crucial factor in bringing about just and lasting peace. The Arabs share the European opinion that strength and a **fait accompli** are not suitable foundations for stable international relations. They agree that just and lasting peace in the Middle East cannot be brought about unless:

- Israel withdraws from occupied territories;
- the national rights of the Palestinians are recognized;

— the PLO, which represents the Palestinians, takes part in all international attempts to negotiate peace.

Both parties said they hoped there could be a ministerial-level meeting of the Euro-Arab dialogue at the right moment and they agreed to discuss what practical steps would need to be taken to prepare for it.

The second part of the communiqué dealt with provisions adopted during the dialogue proper and stressed the importance of formally adopting an operational structure with a view to achieving the aims of the dialogue.

A more thorough analysis has yet to be made. For the moment, however, it appears that the general committee has agreed to a certain number of practical provisions being taken in respect of investments and contracts and, particularly, of agreements on guarantees and arbitration. Furthermore, both parties agreed to the principle of making an appropriate financial contribution to any cooperation projects adopted by joint agreement, as defined during the dialogue. ■

WORLD EMPLOYMENT CONFERENCE

Geneve. The international tripartite conference on employment that opened here in June will attempt to define strategies for both developing and developed countries, market and State economies with a view to meeting the essential needs of all the peoples of the world within the next generation.

Patrick Hillery, Vice President of the EEC Commission, stressed that the various countries of the world were economically dependent on each other. He described the type of cooperation that existed between the Community and the Third World and the problems involved for the Member States. The Community was seeking a solution to the problem of the division of labour in discussion where direct confrontation was avoided the Commissioner said. Migration, as things stood, was not a real solution, but meanwhile the Community was attempting to provide migrants from third countries with the same conditions as are provided for migrants from within

the Community. Community development policy—based on the sort of financial and technological aid that will create employment in third countries—was more important, Helping developing countries boost their trade helped create jobs. Mr Hillery went on to list the various types of aid—generalized preferences, special arrangements with the Maghreb countries and the Lomé Convention (importance of the protocol on sugar and the Stabex mechanism). Technical and financial assistance also helped create jobs. For information: 35 % of the EDF budget goes to projects to help develop the various sectors of production, 36 % goes to infrastructure and 20 % to social development. Job creation is an important aspect of any aid.

The increased industrialization of the developing countries means that the **industrial countries are faced with the problem of adaptation**—particularly in areas where developing countries can export competitive products. The Commission, therefore, agreed (with Mr Berg) that it would not be profitable to transfer whole branches of industry to the developing countries, although it is clear that some adjustment is called for. The Commission itself has various instruments—the European Social Fund and the European Development Fund—geared to providing aid for adaptation. ■

MAGHREB AGREEMENTS

All the obstacles have been overcome and the trade arrangements in the EEC/Algeria, EEC/Morocco and EEC/Tunisia agreements came into effect on 1 July 1976. None of the agreements will be implemented until they have been ratified by the national parliaments (largely because of the financial provisions) but the parties concerned approved partial agreements so that all the provisions on trade could be implemented before this. When this was being arranged, a number of difficulties (connected with the non-discrimination clause which the Maghreb countries had signed in respect of Community firms) did, in fact, arise, but they have now been overcome. The partial agreements

were published in the EEC Official Journal at the end of May in order to be applicable as from the beginning of July (the first day of the second month after publication).

The trade arrangements in question provide **non-reciprocal duty-free entry to the Community for industrial products from the Maghreb and important concessions in the agricultural sector.** ■

LIBERIA

Brussels. The Commission, with a delegation from Liberia, will be signing an agreement for an ECSC loan to help with financing iron ore production equipment in Liberia. Liberia, with Sweden and Brazil, is one of the Community's most important suppliers of iron ore.

This is the second ECSC loan to a third country. In 1975, the ECSC gave the first loan of its financial career to an investment in an overseas country, the aim being to help supply the Community with raw materials, iron ore in particular. ■

EEC-ISRAEL

Commissioner Cheysson went to Israel in June to be co-chairman—with Yigal Allon, Israeli Minister for Foreign Affairs—of the EEC-Israel Committee. During his stay he dealt with a number of Israel's requests. A joint communiqué, issued after the meeting, explained that a committee had been set up to examine Israel's request for customs concessions and set out measures that would help cut down the deficit on Israel's trade balance with the EEC.

In Tel Aviv, M. Cheysson said that the EEC's Mediterranean policy would involve equal treatment for Israel and the Arab countries.

He said he hoped that the economic relations that both Israel and the Arab countries had with the Common Market would be the European Community's contribution to solving the Arab-Israel conflict. ■

EEC-EGYPT

François-Xavier Ortoli, President of the European Commission, visited Egypt as head of an EEC delegation recently.

M. Ortoli and the Egyptian leaders held talks on a projected cooperation agreement between Egypt and the EEC, which would be fairly similar to the existing EEC/Maghreb agreements. It would cover commercial, technical and industrial cooperation and the opening of European markets to Egyptian products.

Special discussions on this agreement were begun in Brussels last January. ■

TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

Trinidad and Tobago becomes a Republic

Trinidad and Tobago, a former British colony, became independent in 1962 but kept up its close ties with the United Kingdom. It was an independent country, a member of the Commonwealth and it had Queen Elizabeth II as head of State and Dr Williams, the Prime Minister, as head of the executive. It was, therefore, a dependency of the British Crown.

On 17 June 1976, the government in Port of Spain decided to establish the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago. A President of the Republic will be elected, but the parliamentary system, with a prime minister as head of government, will stay. ■

ACP EMBASSIES

The European Economic Community has approved the appointment of Gabriel Oyaletor Ijewere, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary, by the government of the Federal Republic of Nigeria as head of that country's mission to the European Economic Community.

Mr Ijewere, as Head of the Mission of the Federal Republic of Nigeria to the

EEC, will present his credentials to the President of the Council and the President of the Commission of the European Communities.

CORRECTIONS

There were two printing errors in Robert Grégoire's article on animal-drawn tillage in the Sahel on page 34 of No 37 of the "Courier". A study by Professors Hubu and Dumon was mentioned. This should have been Professor Huhn and Professor Dumas—to whom the Courier offers its apologies.



Malawi Embassy — The Embassy of Mali in Addis Ababa (Ethiopia) has kindly pointed out an error in our March-April edition. On page VII (News Round-up) Mr Timon Mangwazu is described as Ambassador of Mali; he is Ambassador of Malawi. The Courier presents its apologies to the Malawi Embassy.

GENERAL ITEMS

World coffee harvest drops

Washington. The American Department of Agriculture predicts that the world coffee harvest will be down by some 60.5 million bags during the 1976/77 year—a drop of over 15.7% on the previous year (71.8 million).

This is the first time that the department has published estimates for the forthcoming world coffee harvest, which will be the lowest on record in the sector since 1970/71 (58.3 million bags) if the predictions are right. The 1976/77 year begins on 1 July.

The frost that partly destroyed Brazil's harvest is the main reason for the drop and American experts forecast that Brazil's harvest in 1976/77 will be as low as 9.5 million bags, as against 23 million in 1975/76—a drop of 60%.

Some 42.7 million bags from the 1976/77 should be available for export—as against 52.9 million the previous year, representing a drop of almost 20%.

The harvest this year (1975/76), which is almost over, will show a 10% drop against last year's figures.

It is worth mentioning that, until recently, the trade was counting on a Brazilian harvest of only 7-8 million bags—an even less optimistic forecast than the one put out by the Department of Agriculture. ■

FRANCE

Round table on the new world economic order organized by the National "Perspectives et Réalités" Club Federation.

This federation, under the chairmanship of Jean-Pierre Fourcade, Minister of Finance, recently held a round table on the new world economic order. During the discussion, Jean de Lipowski, Minister of Cooperation, said how important it was for the developing countries to have a "green plan", the aim being to develop agricultural production as a matter of priority. According to the minister, too many States concentrate on developing industry to the detriment of agriculture; and this only one of the aspects of the "drama". He gave figures to show that 61 countries out of 97 only just get enough calories to survive. He said these countries will need to import \$20 000 m worth of cereals, but they don't have \$20 000 m, and therefore some sort of anti-hunger strategy is called for. Jean de Lipowski is pleading for a green plan to head off a catastrophic world food shortage.

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International Union of French-Speaking Journalists (UIJPLF)

On 5 April the UIJPLF, under the chairmanship of Jean de Lipowski, French Minister of Cooperation, and Dakoulodo Dan Dicko, Secretary-General of the Cultural and Technical Cooperation Agency, and attended by Laurent Dona Fologo, Ivory Coast's Minister for Information and UIJPLF chairman, held a dinner-debate in honour of the stu-

dents of the African Schools of Journalism (CESTI, Dakar and ESIJY, Yaoundé).

M. de Lipowski said that, at a time when the press all over the world was facing increasing difficulties, for economic, financial and social reasons, an organization that united journalists from different backgrounds but with similar interests filled a real need. It came at a time when the French language was losing out in certain areas of the globe but gaining considerable ground in Africa. He felt that today, more than ever, the French language was a unifying factor among French-speaking writers and journalists.

He then drew particular attention to the work of the Ministry of Cooperation in training journalists from Africa. Such training, he said, could be provided for as long as the African countries wished to benefit from it. ■

ZAIRE

Austerity in Kinshasa: for Zaire, crisis is the beginning of wisdom

Africa is one of the world's main sources of raw materials and the fabulously wealthy Zaire provides many of them. However, teething troubles and the world crisis mean that its economy is only just turning the corner.

Until 1974, the situation was euphoric "red gold" (copper), they said, was as good as black. It went up to £1 600 per tonne and the trade balance was showing a considerable surplus (\$248 million in 1974). Zaire had dreams of offering the world the colossal energy of its river, the Congo, and of processing its own raw materials, building up its own industry and fulfilling its own potential. The country was politically stable and little attention was paid to prudent budgeting. And, as nature in the tropics is generous, agriculture could be neglected.

Then, in the summer of 1974, disaster: copper dropped to £520 per tonne and they were losing \$500 million a year (and oil imports alone were costing them \$200 million instead of 50). The war in Angola had its effect on Zaire—whose coastline is only 45 km long. Domestic

prices shot up by 40-50% in two years.

But we can all learn by our mistakes. The crisis is proving beneficial for the country in that the trouble has been diagnosed and treatment prescribed—as Mr Bisengiman, State Commissioner for planning and Director of the Presidential Office has said. President Mobutu set up a Stabilization Committee in November 1975 and this is in charge of dealing with the situation.

Zaire is the first country of Africa to go back on nationalization (decided in 1974) and both large companies and small foreign-owned (Greek, Belgian and Pakistani) firms have been denationalized. The Zairization problem has been buried—as the Minister for Foreign Affairs has said. Agriculture, communications and transport are being relaunched, there is now a strict policy on expenditure and a number of projects not deemed absolutely vital have been dropped. Imports and prices are controlled and an austerity budget—below the 1975 level—has been drafted. All this has impressed the IMF, which has granted a loan of \$150 million. The measures will enable Zaire to obtain a general moratorium on external debts (2.5 million dollars).

Zaire could well be back to normal in two years—particularly since Providence seems anxious to reward it for its wisdom. Copper prices are rising again and the Gulf Oil wells of Moanda have produced their first barrels—by the end of the year, Zaire could well be exporting oil. ■

From "L'Expansion", June 1976

Arab institutions for cooperation with Africa: a «who's who»

● **The Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa (ABEDIA)**

The idea of ABEDIA was put forward at the historic sixth Arab summit in Algiers on 26-28 November 1973. The text actually setting up the organization, however, only dates from January 1975, when the first Board of Directors met in Cairo.

ABEDIA has capital of \$231 million, from the countries of the Arab League, and has to provide help for the development of African countries that do not belong to the league—i.e. some 40 countries in all. It is unusual first because it is the only Arab/African multilateral cooperation organization, and second, because all its resources are of Arab origin and can only be used to help non-Arab countries of Africa.

● **The Islamic Development Bank**

This body was set up in Riyadh in July 1976. It has a working capital of 2 million Islamic dinars (ID 1 = SDR 1) provided by both Arab and non-Arab Islamic countries. The bank will be operational shortly and will help development mainly in Arab and non-Arab Islamic countries.

● **Special Fund for Arab aid to African countries**

This fund was set up by the OAU oil committee and the 10 countries of OAPEC in January, 1974, in Cairo. Capital is \$200 million and aid is for African countries hit by persistent price rises since the oil crisis. Its funds are intended to be used—by non-Arab countries of Africa only—to buy oil, and are provided entirely by the OAPEC countries. Aid from this fund is provided, in the form of long-term loans, at 1% interest and there is a three-year grace period before repayments begin.

The Arab League manages the fund, with the exception of a slice of \$20 million directly placed with the African Development Bank. Resources are now almost exhausted.

● **Arab/African technical cooperation fund**

This was set up within the Arab League and provided with resources of some \$25 million. The aim is to supply technical cooperation for African countries. As far as we know, it is not yet operational. ■

"Le Moniteur Africain", no. 744, May 1976

Developing countries and the World Tourism Organisation

Tourism is constantly growing in importance on the world scale, with implications for many different economic and social sectors. The World Tourism Organization (WTO) is a specialised organisation set up as a successor to the IUOTO (International Union of Official Travel Organizations) which has been in official existence since 1 November 1974, although in practice, it has only been established in Madrid since the beginning of the year, after an agreement on 2 February 1976 between its 88 member States plus 40 or so affiliated members such as airlines and tour organizers. Many other future member countries are joining and it is clear that the WTO is a highly representative body. Article 3 of its statute sets out its aims — to promote and develop tourism with a view to contributing to economic expansion, to international understanding, to peace and prosperity, to universal respect for and observance of fundamental human rights and liberties without distinction of race, sex, language or religion.

Robert C. Lonati, the WTO's Secretary-General, described the organisation's view of tourism in the developing countries.



Robert Lonati

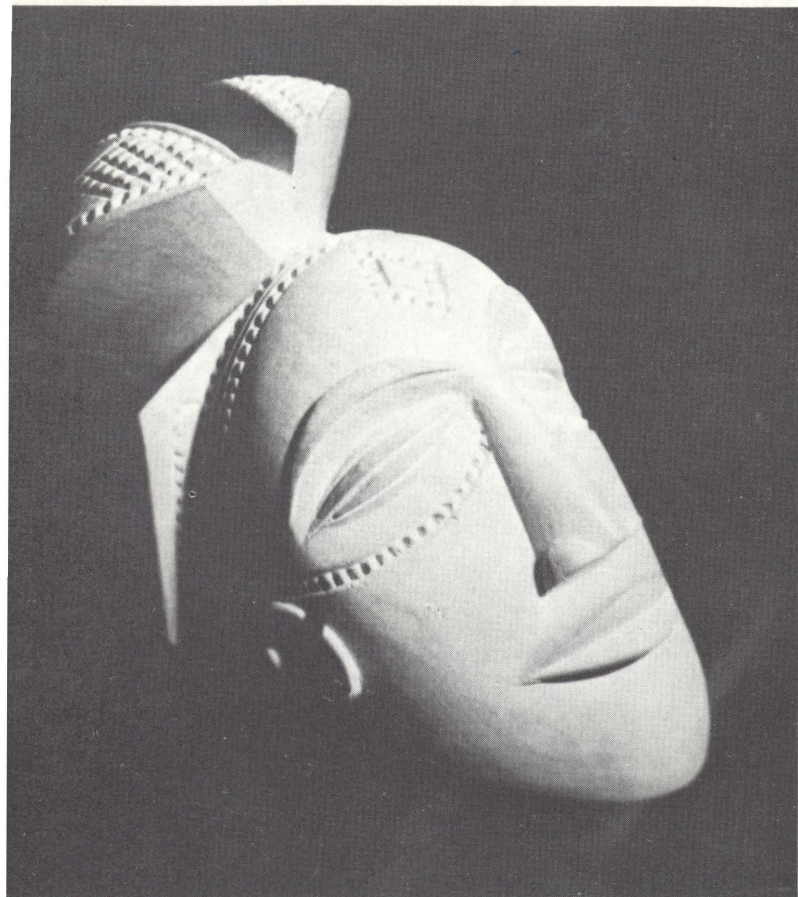
► *The institution of which you are Secretary-General moved its headquarters from Geneva to Madrid at the beginning of this year, and changed its name from the IUOTO to the WTO. Can you give us a brief idea of the purpose of the new organization?*

— The World Tourism Organization has emerged from the transformation of the IUOTO, a private Swiss organization, into an international governmental body, covered by a kind of public agreement concluded by the IUOTO general meeting in Mexico. The essential aim of the organization is to enable the States to deal with any questions concerning travel, which today are of great importance. We cannot turn the clock back as far as tourism is concerned, since it improves the quality of life and enables man to relax, to satisfy his curiosity, to learn about the world and to discover others. Tourism, of course, is many-faceted and we do realize that some of the questions involved are the responsibility of other national bodies or other international organizations. However, the WTO intends acting as coordinator, so that the whole question of tourist travel can be dealt with comprehensively rather than piecemeal which, alas, was the fate of tourism for a number of years. There were overlaps and redundancies, decisions were taken in the void by various organizations and administrations, none of which knew what the other was doing.

► *What specific contributions can tourism make to the economic progress of the developing countries?*

— It can help in two ways. First of all, tourism is not a purely economic phenomenon, although it affects the economic set-up in the host countries. For the countries sending the tourists, it is primarily a manifestation of social measures whereby paid holidays were provided for the nation—that is to say that the States in question made time and money available to their people. Time for leisure activities and money to retain their buying-power during that time. Tourism as far as countries providing tourists, industrialized countries in particular, are concerned, is the result of the State providing social benefits.

For the host countries, tourism is mainly an economic phenomenon in that it involves currency movements and brings economic activity via the movement of people and the sale of services, which are the *sine qua non* of tourism. Thus, for the developing countries, tourism should be seen as an aid to economic development. But just as important is the fact that the tourist trade enables many countries to discover themselves and to take stock of their advantages and make more realistic comparisons with others. It must also be considered as a factor of the quality of life. We must not forget that, over and above the 200 million registered international arrivals in 1975, there was domestic tourism as well—i.e. travel within national boundaries—which, in fact, involved four times as many people, although not four times as much money, as international travel. This means that, if there were 200 million international arrivals, there must easily have been 800 million domestic tourists, giving 1 000 million tourists in all. In some cases, the



Works of art and tourist souvenirs
Stone mask from the M'Bigou region of Gabon

same person may be counted three or four times in the same year. If we calculate that the world average length of holiday is 4 ½ days, we get a total of 4 500 million non-working days taken up with travel and a stay away from home. This is a considerable figure.

▶ *A study of the repercussions of international tourism on the economic development of the developing countries appeared in 1975. How are the ACP States placed in relation to international travel, bearing in mind the regional variations?*

— The countries of Africa, the Pacific, the Caribbean and America in general—and the countries of Asia—depend upon each other. First of all, you have the question of long-distance travel, which is on the increase, in spite of the fuel crisis. Far-away places no longer seem as far away as they used to. That is why we think that there is an enormous tourist potential in the ACP regions, especially since the traditional holiday areas, and western Europe in particular, are reaching saturation point. And that is why I think that the developing countries, because they have something new and attractive to offer, really do have a promising future in this respect and, in years to come, increasing population, greater buying-power and new legislation for the working man will mean that the tourist trade will boom.

▶ *The tourist trade, particularly in some countries—Spain, for example—is beginning to look more like an industry. Do you think that we shall be able to talk about a competitive tourist industry in the ACP countries in the near future? I don't mean the Caribbean, of course, where there is already a considerable holiday trade.*

— There is no doubt at all that all these places will be competitive, although, naturally, it will take time and the countries concerned have to decide how best to appeal to the tourist. What they must do is decide what their criteria and standards are to be before creating their tourist facilities. They have to size up the market and the clientele and then decide what to offer the tourist, what products he wants. I think these countries will be very competitive—not just from the quality point of view, but price-wise as well—providing, of course, that the travel merchants have enough prudence, imagination and integrity in providing all the things that go to make up a holiday and their prices compare favourably with other people's.

▶ *The figures in the annual economic study of world tourism suggest that the most rapid developments in the world tourist trade over the last 10 years have been, after Asia and Australia, in Africa. Why is this?*

— First of all, there is the tendency of the tourist himself to want to go further afield. Long-distance holidays are becoming increasingly popular. Of course, there has to be cooperation between the public authorities, between the State and the private sector at home and abroad, if you like, to put the producers of the tourist product in touch with the consumers. By producers I mean the tour operators, the people taking the tourist from his country to another country. They must be in contact with the authorities in the country visited and the government of that country must be careful to have regulations and laws that safeguard its population, its firms and the whole territory in general from commercial exploitation of a sort that would destroy their tourist capital. And then there is the question of promoting the tours, which must be done with the joint agreement of both the country being visited and the tour operators.

▶ *Is this a continuing trend or has the recent economic crisis had any adverse effect?*

— There has been some stagnation, there has been some recession, but I think you can say that tourism, of all consumer products and of all services, is the one that has been least affected by the crisis. It is the product that has stood up best to the difficulties, and, although there has been a certain amount of stagnation, things are picking up nicely—except, of course, in places where there are political problems and fighting, which aren't, naturally enough, great tourist attractions, in view of the uncertainties involved.

▶ *The lack of thorough studies, the inadequacy of statistical data on the developing countries and the fact that tourism can be affected by the economic situation all mean that the future is often hard to predict. But shouldn't we be looking beyond figures and pushing*

the "human contact" aspect of travel, particularly in the developing countries?

— We do, of course, have an increasing amount of statistical data because the developing countries are sending us more. As regards the contact you mentioned—we are very much against the "conquistador" attitudes that some tourists adopt, just as we are very much against the hostile attitude that local people sometimes adopt towards tourists.

► *The developing countries' tourist trade is in its infancy and they are in the lucky position of being able to learn from other people's experience when deciding on their long-term plans. One of the choices they have to make is between so-called "luxury" holidays and the mass tourist trade. Is any clear tendency emerging in Africa, the Caribbean or the Pacific?*

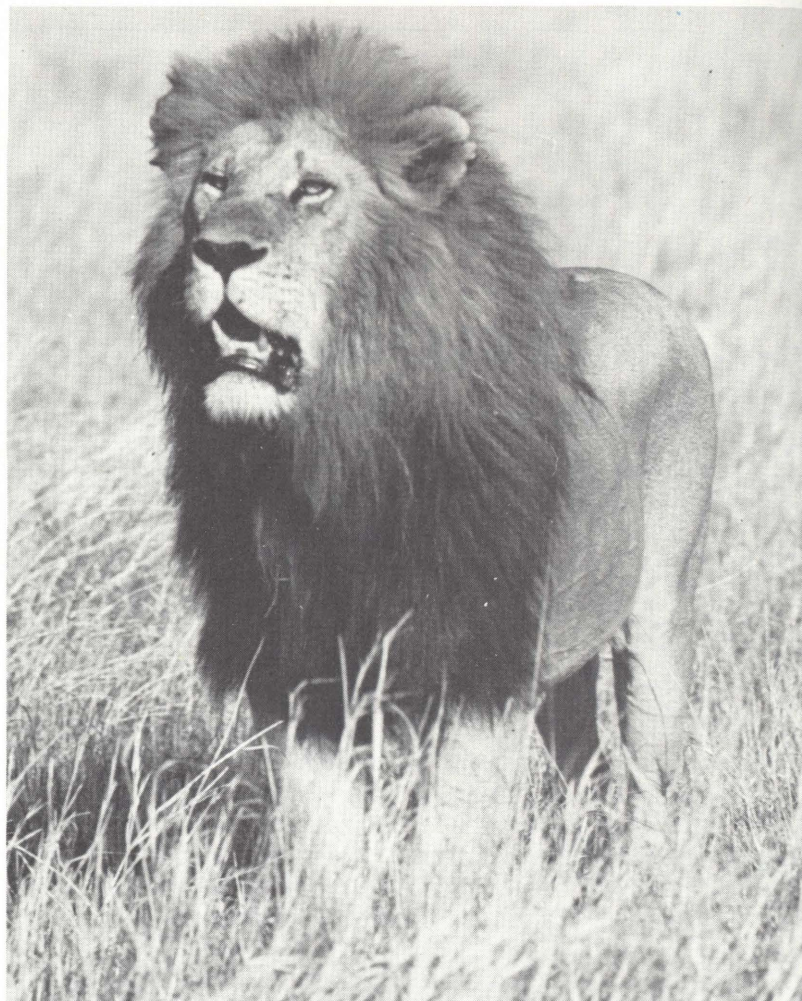
— First of all, I do not like this distinction between luxury holidays and the mass tourist trade. A holiday is a holiday after all—there is a journey and a desire to go somewhere different. You can do it cheaply or you can pay more. Whatever the country, it must look at what it has to offer, at whatever prices are competitive and reasonable and where its advantages lie. There's no magic formula for success. There is the flexibility that enables one to go on adapting to a specific long-term objective that has to be continually modified to meet the changing demands of the market. Of course, in some cases, it might be better to start out with charters—a large number of tourists and low profit per head—whereas, in other cases, it might be better to go for quality and offer fewer, perhaps only two or three possibilities, but with a higher profit per head.

► *We often hear about the culture shock in connection with tourists in developing countries. What are your views on this?*

— It does exist and I am glad it does, although perhaps "shock" is a bit strong. I think we should see it as a meeting of two cultures rather than a clash. It is one of the great things about travel, that you can meet other people and get to know other people and it's not a mere abstraction. The meeting, of course, isn't always a success and you might get a feeling of humiliation or irritation. But we have to learn to be tolerant of each other.

► *What do you think about tourism as a factor of peace and mutual understanding in the world—in view of the short period of time that most tourists actually spend in the developing countries and the limited contacts they have with them?*

— You know that Van Loo—he was a Dutch geographer I think—gave a definition of eternity. You take a pyramid of granite a kilometre high. Every thousand years a dove flies by and brushes it with its wing. When the pyramid has completely worn away, one second of eternity will have passed. I'm not interested in measuring eternity, but I am interested in the dove that manages to wear away the pyramid by brushing it with its wing every thousand years. I think that repeated personal contact will put paid to misunderstanding and we should not be disappointed if things don't go quite right the first time.



The king of beasts in the savannah

► *To sum up, then, the exotic aspects of the developing countries generally have the most tourist appeal. But the better you know a country, the less exotic it becomes. If a country appears less exotic as it becomes more familiar, is a tourist infrastructure going to be a really worthwhile investment in the long term?*

— Certainly it is. First, I would say that exoticism is in the mind. Second, you say that things get less exotic as they become more familiar. But who for? For just one generation. You must not forget that generations go in waves, and what I thought was exotic 10 years ago perhaps isn't any more as far as I'm concerned. But it is for my children. And in 10 or 20 years it will be for my grandchildren. The exotic will always be exotic unless everyone in the world decides to conform to the same image. Exoticism is everlasting—things stay the same, but there are always new tourists. This is why investment in tourist infrastructure is a good thing. The investments are prompted by a desire for contact and for peace. They are also relatively cheaper than investments in other sectors of the economy. ■

Interview by
ROGER DE BACKER

The WTO looks at tourism in Africa and the Caribbean

The WTO has fairly comprehensive figures on tourist movements in Africa and the Caribbean, with the exception of those Pacific States that have not yet joined the organization. Peter Shackleford, deputy director of the research service, and Enzo Paci, WTO statistics chief, look at tourism in Africa and the Caribbean from the economic angle.

More tourists for Africa

► *Some African States have not joined the WTO yet. Why not?*

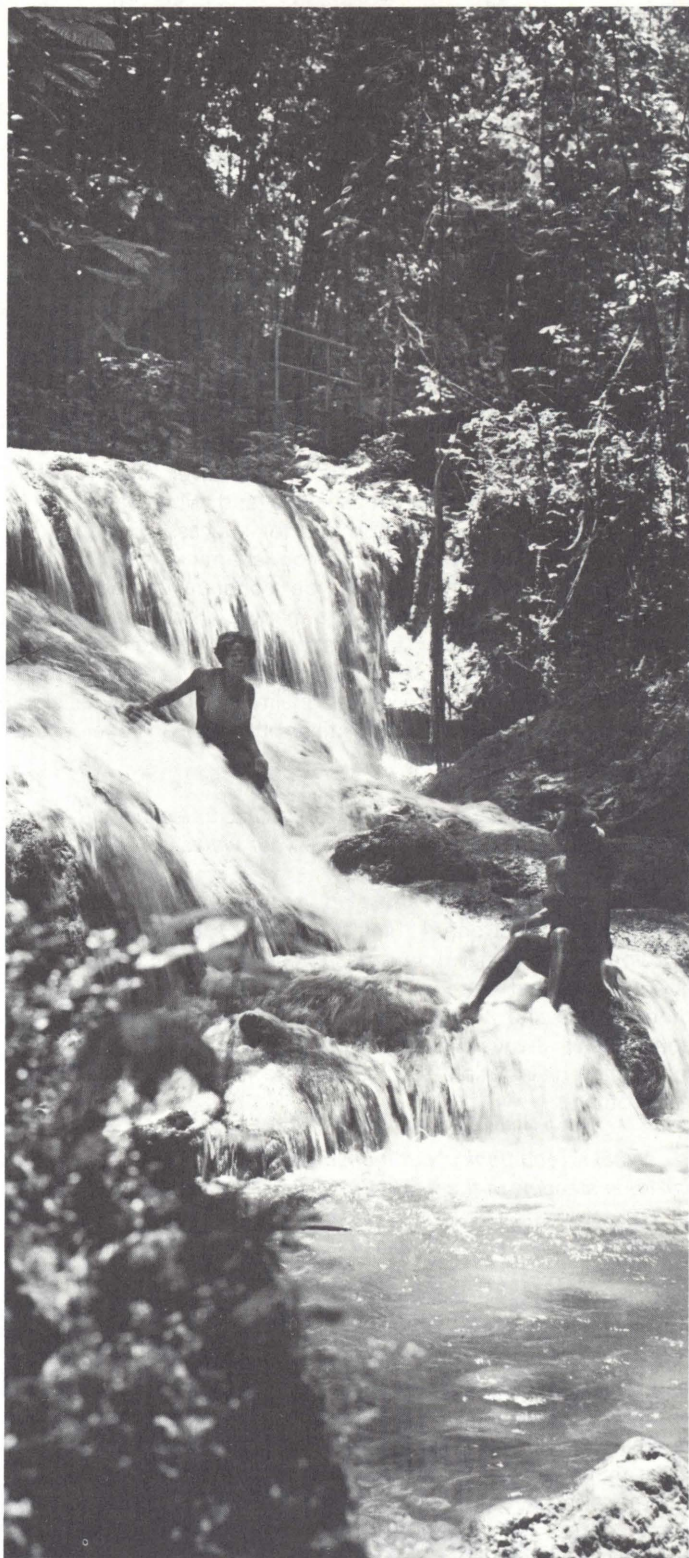
— The organization is a young one and there are some States that have not yet joined. The administrative procedures involved are long and so it would be difficult for all countries to join at once. Do not forget that, as far as population and GNP are concerned, current membership represents a major part of the African economy as a whole.

► *How does Africa stand in relation to the world tourist market and what are its main advantages?*

— We have calculated African tourist arrivals at 1.4% of the total for 1974 and this probably rose to 1.6% in 1975, For-

Somerset Falls

Jamaica, one of the world's most beautiful countries and major tourist destinations



Cecilia Allen — Jamaican Tourist Board

exchange brought in by tourists visiting Africa in 1974 was 8.6% as compared to the rest of the world, rising, according to our estimates, to 9.4% in 1975. I feel some comment is called for here. First, 1975 saw a fairly clear improvement over 1974. This confirms the trend recorded for several years now. It also emerges that earnings far outstrip arrivals. This is because a journey to Africa is a considerable undertaking, the stay therefore a relatively long one and the spending fairly high. Our figures suggest 3.5 million arrivals in Africa in 1975, nearly all of them from far afield.

► *Why are some African countries popular with tourists and others, with much the same attractions, less popular?*

— This is largely because certain countries of Africa have gone in for serious tourist promotion to encourage visitors and their efforts have paid off. I do think that, generally speaking, the African States want to develop the tourist sector quite extensively—but according to their own economic and political priorities and by doing their best to integrate the tourist trade into the development of their economy as a whole. As for Africa's advantages, the important thing, as an IUOTO sociological survey 10 years ago showed, is that the average tourist wants to get away from it all, but not that far away. He wants to be somewhere relatively familiar and, in any case, somewhere not completely new. For many tourists, Africa combines familiarity with a certain exoticism and it should, therefore, be increasingly popular in years to come.

► *Africa seems to have concentrated on the luxury trade so far. Is this a deliberate choice intended to protect the environment, or are there other reasons?*

— My first answer is that the tourist trade must always respect the environment, whether it be at the luxury or the economy end of the scale, mainly because it cannot continue if the environment is not respected. If the environment is neglected, the tourist will come once but he will not come twice. My second answer is that, for many tourists, Africa is a very long way away and air travel is still fairly costly. And then, of course, the hotels were originally built for businessmen and they are rather luxurious and quite expensive. This means that what is on offer at the moment is, in fact, in the luxury class, but that situation is changing. I don't think that the countries of Africa, generally speaking, are anxious to appeal to the luxury trade alone.

► *Could tours covering several States help with regional cooperation and might not the vast differences between coastal and landlocked States be an advantage as far as arranging varied inter-State tours is concerned?*

— There is no doubt at all about the inter-State tours being an extremely useful means of promoting tourism and this type of regional cooperation has already been discussed by the Af-



Fievet - Afrique photo

Music and dancing may attract tourists, but what does tourism offer in return to this woman in Niger?

rican section of the IUOTO, the organization that preceded the WTO. Both IUOTO research programmes and special studies of regional cooperation have mentioned the possibility of introducing these integrated tours and have highly recommended them. Why? Because this cooperation results in added tourist attractions. The same tour can be arranged to include water sports, visits to national parks or visits to the peoples of the Sahara, for instance.

► *Has the WTO taken any practical steps in this direction?*

— The IUOTO carried out some studies—tentative ones, at its members' request, to provide the guidelines for arranging tours and cooperation between the various States. As to the WTO—it is clear that it can only act if the States ask it to do so. For example, if the members requested it, the WTO could well carry out studies to supply information of a methodological, practical and operational nature. The combined tourist product of two countries is greater than the sum of the tourist products of each of them in isolation—there is an advantage to be gained here, a quite considerable one, and the States are beginning to realize the fact.

The Caribbean — recovery after a flat period

► *There are many delightful islands in the Caribbean—are they all competing for the same tourists?*

— There is a great variety of natural scenery, of peoples and customs, and this is where the Caribbean's wealth lies. But there is also a common denominator—the beaches, which are the main attraction of this part of the world. There may be some competition, of the sort where one island tries to outdo its neighbour. It involves highly effective modern methods of marketing and promotion, monitoring of sales methods, maintaining standards and accurate forecasting of tourist demand and tastes. But it is the type of healthy competition which stimulates all the countries concerned.

► *What do you feel is the economic and social contribution of tourism to the development of the Caribbean?*

— The contribution of the tourist industry is extremely positive. The economy of an island will often depend on one or two raw materials which can vary wildly in price according to trends on the world market. It must, therefore, have something to compensate for this dependence, and this the tourist trade can provide. Although some things have to be imported, the profit margin is appreciable and I think analyses have shown that there are extremely favourable effects on employment, and on infrastructure in general, in these countries. Some of the islands, of course, are only just beginning to develop their tourist trade, which means they must import more. However, as soon as the basic tourist infrastructure has been set up, the profits will certainly be even greater than they are now.

► *An IUOTO report suggested that a very high proportion of hotels and other tourist establishments in the Caribbean, particularly on the smaller islands, are owned by foreigners: not only tourist organizations like airlines and travel agencies, but other physical or legal persons from the developed countries who look upon these activities as solid financial investments. Is this a problem?*

— An examination of investments in places like the Caribbean would obviously reveal that a very high percentage is foreign. But we should also bear in mind that the States in question sought to attract these investments from abroad, since this was, in fact, their only possibility. It has to be realized that this was a deliberate move and, during the first phase, essential if the tourist trade was to get off the ground. These countries had no private sector capable of financing tourist investments. Moreover, it is not simply a question of foreign investments. There is also State control via legislation concerning how the investments can be used in the country.

► *The Caribbean has enjoyed an unprecedented tourist boom, mainly due to North American visitors who do not have too far to*



Godinot - Afrique photo

A smiling welcome to Martinique

travel. Some people would suggest that there has been a slight decline in recent years. Is this so?

— I think not. On the contrary, tourism in the Caribbean has expanded since the oil crisis because North Americans have tended to stay nearer home. The domestic tourist trade has benefited, but favourable effects have been felt in Central America, in Mexico especially, and in the Caribbean. So it would be wrong to say that the boom is over. I think the statistics show, in fact, that the number of tourists in the Caribbean in 1974 had increased considerably. There was a slight upward trend in 1975, although it was not very clearly defined, and the outlook for 1976 seems quite good. There are other good points, among them the economic recovery of the United States and Europe, and some stabilization of fuel prices. There is no reason why Europe should not also send large numbers of tourists to the Caribbean one day, although it is clear that, for the moment, most of them will come from North America; and figures are expected to go up slightly in 1976 and early 1977. ■

R.D.B.

THE CARIBBEAN

Too many rooms to let

Timothy Prime, director of research and statistics at the Caribbean Tourism Research Centre (Barbados), foresees a freeze in hotel-building in the Caribbean ⁽¹⁾.

Tourism as a major economic activity has become an attractive investment to many Caribbean countries. It has emerged as potentially the major foreign earnings generator, particularly in the Bahamas where its contribution to the GNP is estimated to be over 70% and its contribution to total revenue is approximately 60%.

In the recent 10th Commonwealth Caribbean Summit held in Basseterre, St. Kitts, it was projected that the area's economies would face a financial crisis in the range of EC \$1,000 million in 1976. It was projected that the combined current account deficit of the non-oil producing countries of the MDC group (More Development Countries), namely Jamaica, Barbados and Guyana, would be EC \$750 million and that the Less Developed Countries, namely Grenada, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, St. Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla, Montserrat and Dominica, would face a deficit in current account of EC \$250 billion. Trinidad and Tobago is the only Caribbean island to remain unscathed and this is due to its oil reserves. It is estimated that it will earn a current account surplus of EC \$2.5 billion in 1976 ⁽²⁾. All the Commonwealth Caribbean countries are small, and consequently face a basic physical constraint on economic growth and development. Such limitation extends to resources in terms of population and cultivable land, and the distribution of mineral wealth. It was in this context that countries of the Caribbean endowed with natural physical tourist attractions resorted to tourism as a means of alleviating unemployment and providing badly needed foreign exchange.

Tourism consists of an inter-dependent system of activities. Benefits and costs occur through the input created by the interaction of tourism with the household, production and government sectors of the economy. Such interaction affects the level and distribution of income, government revenue, balance of payments and the diversification of economic activity. Even though tourism, because of its interaction with other sectors of the economy, has the potential to provide balanced growth, actual growth has been anything but balanced because of the structural conditions of these economies.

Spiralling inflation, international monetary instability and the fuel crisis have combined to effect a slowing down in the rate



of growth of world tourism. In 1974 there was an approximate 3% drop in international tourist traffic. The increase in airfares, resulting mainly from the four-fold increase in aviation fuel and increased cost of labour, has reduced the propensity to travel on long haul routes.

The Commonwealth Caribbean has shown itself extremely sensitive to these world trends. During this period the chronic dependence of the Commonwealth Caribbean (and in particular the less developed countries) on the economic performance and policies of the metropolitan powers has been again highlighted.

Recent trends

Over the period 1969-1974 the Caricom countries of the Commonwealth Caribbean generated a total of 5 153 056 tourist. Of this total, Jamaica's share was 42.8 percent while, at the other extreme, Montserrat's share of the total volume amounted to a mere 1%. Jamaica, Barbados, Trinidad and Tobago, i.e. the more developed countries, together accounted for 80 percent of the tourist traffic to the region over the period 1969-1974. The share of the market by the less developed countries fluctuated between a range of 24.1 percent to 20 percent. In general their share of 20 percent has been steadily decreasing. In 1974 their share of 20 percent of the tourist market of the Caricom countries was the lowest registered for the period. The overall growth rate was slightly less than 8 percent. Taken by themselves, the LDCs average an annual growth rate of a little over 5 percent while the MDCs average an annual rate of over 9 percent. Between the period 1969 to 1972, the group performance of Caricom countries was commendable, achieving an average annual growth rate during these years of 12.67 percent. Because of the general world economic conditions, inflation and increase in fuel prices, there was a drop in traffic from the United States of America. The rate of increase of tourist arrivals slowed down considerably in the years 1972-74.

(1) Extracted from "Profits and Performance" published January 1976 by Caribbean Tourism Research Centre—Timothy S.S. Prime.

(2) 10th Commonwealth Summit Conference on Finance. Week of December 9th, St. Kitts.



Strolling in a public garden in Jamaica

Hotels

There is a high percentage of under-utilized capacity in the hotels in the Commonwealth Caribbean. This is particularly acute in Jamaica, St. Lucia, Antigua and St. Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla.

There is a Caribbean-wide concern for the plight of the small hoteliers who have found themselves in a web of financial illiquidity due to the structure of their debt obligations, interest charges and decreasing earnings or increasing losses. There is presently under review the question of rescheduling the financial obligations of the small hoteliers by replacing either short or medium-term debt by a longer run or more flexible financial obligations. The obvious lack of financial institutions in the Commonwealth Caribbean to support the need for long-term financing of critical industries is demonstrated in this case. However it must be understood that such changes in capital structure do not change the earning capacity of the small hoteliers which is the test of viability.

Employment and future construction

The level of direct employment in relation to hotel rooms is in the range of a one-to-one ratio. It is also estimated that there is a one-to-one correspondence between those directly employed in tourism and those indirectly employed. There is basically a very high positive correlation between hotel rooms constructed, the level of direct employment and the level of indirect employment.

Due to the excess capacity in all of the Caricom islands, except Montserrat, hotel building should be placed under stringent scrutiny and control especially in Jamaica, Barbados, St. Lucia, St. Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla, Antigua and to some extent St. Vincent. The high compound growth rate required to achieve adequate occupancy makes it inconceivable that the industry will show significant, if any, profitability within five years or more, even if one assumes no further hotel construction.

Hotel building on the basis of present growth rates except in the cases of Dominica and Montserrat would appear to be unjustified by present excess capacity.

The following table shows the level of demand for accommodation needed to be generated to achieve various levels of occupancy. This could be interpreted as the number of tourists needed to be attracted to a particular island to achieve various

levels of occupancy, assuming that all tourists demand accommodation. If it is conventional that 80% of the tourists effectively demand accommodation then the number of additional tourists demanding accommodation will have to increase by over 20% if that particular level of occupancy is to be achieved.

The aim of achieving a high level of occupancy nationally has merit; it is more important, however, to ensure that national occupancy levels do not reflect an average more-or-less determined by the high occupancy levels of the foreign-owned hotels. This may cloud the fact that nationals may not be enjoying the levels of earnings required for a viable operation.

If sound policy and planning is assumed, there would be little or no completed hotel construction in any of the Caribbean countries within the next five years⁽¹⁾, except where there is a high probability of achieving the high annual compound growth rates required to fill the excess capacity, or an occupancy significantly higher than the break-even point. These rates are in the range of 45% for St. Lucia, 32½% for St. Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla, 30% for Antigua, 20% for St. Vincent, 18% for both Jamaica and Barbados. All the other islands have to achieve more than 12% compound annual growth rates in the next five years to fill excess capacity, except Montserrat, whose figure is estimated to 1.5%. If hotel building is still pursued in these countries there is likely to be a dilution of earnings caused by the creation of further excess capacity. The short run increase in employment in the construction and hotel industries and ancillary services could eventually give way to the chronic disequilibrium in the demand and supply conditions in the tourism industry, leading in the long run to further earnings dilution in the hotel sector, unemployment and in general a fall in effective demand for goods and services. Hence in the foreseeable future there will be an insignificant contribution to fixed capital investment and to capital formation from hotel development. Likewise, since direct employment is dependent on hotel rooms constructed, in the range of a 1:1 ratio, then in the Caribbean countries where further construction is not advisable, if more construction does not in fact take place, the contribution to additional employment by the tourism sector before 1980 will be insignificant. ■

T. PRIME

(1) Except in Montserrat and Dominica.

A tourist policy and a tourist image for the ACP countries

It is understandable that the ACP States should now be launching their tourist trade with determination and looking upon it, as upon industrialization, as one of the means of bringing about their general economic development. Tourism has become a very important sector in the development process—as it is, if exceptionally, in Spain—and is a source of foreign exchange and a positive influence on the balance of payments. In these countries, tourism plays a crucial part in the economy and is one of the main elements in their national accounts.

The advantages of tourism in the ACP countries

Theoretically, there is no doubt that the tourist trade contributes to raising GNP. An increase in liquidities from tourist spending in the host countries can mean that there is more money in circulation, and trade and worker mobility are boosted by the creation of new jobs. Over and above these advantages, tourist activities can have a healthy effect on other sectors of the economy.

Thus, motivated by the needs of the tourist trade, the ACP countries may be led to speed up the construction of their communications infrastructure (roads, railways, sea and air transport) and to adopt a more vigorous approach to the problems of public hygiene and the modernization of living accommodation and, generally speaking, to improve natural surroundings so that visitors can appreciate the charm and beauty of all the different regions so that they will all reap equal economic benefit from the tourist trade. Similarly, tourist developments can, if they are properly managed, prevent the drift to the towns in the ACP countries. Tourism, therefore, appears as a source of economic progress.

Some definite drawbacks

However, as the economic development of the ACP States stands, the tourist trade has some definite drawbacks. It is an activity in the tertiary sector, which is of relatively recent development and is quite new in some of the countries in question. In the industrialized countries, it is the increase in the standard of living that has brought about the development of the tertiary sector. In the ACP countries, the services sector is

very much behind agriculture—itself often at subsistence level—and industry, which is in the making. In comparison, it would appear, from a purely economic point of view, that development structures as a whole do not allow that ACP countries to benefit from tourism, since they have little or no real control over the organization of the tourist trade. This economic aspect, which is more negative than articles or speeches usually manage to convey, was spelled out in an OECD Development Centre study. Furthermore, a Commonwealth Secretariat report revealed that, in 1973, four developing countries accounted for 40% of total income from the tourist trade in the whole of the Third World. Only one of those four—the Bahamas—was an ACP State. And, generally speaking, comprehensive surveys in the developing countries where the services sector is embryonic and agriculture is by far the most important activity reveal that the net effect of the tourist trade on national revenue and per capita income is negative—except in one or two countries, like Kenya and the Bahamas, where the tourist contribution to GNP can be a substantial, but not decisive, factor in pushing up earnings.

The second drawback of the tourist trade at the moment, and certainly the greatest drawback as far as the ACP countries are concerned, is in the social and cultural sector. It is usually tour organizers operating in the ACP countries that “suggest” how those countries should react to the tourist question and who dictate their conditions, since the demand for tourism and the tourists themselves come from the developed countries.

This leads the host countries to create oases of modernity cut off from the rest of the population, thereby creating social and cultural problems, such as an increase in delinquency: an article called “Tiny Gambia pays a high price for tourism”, that appeared in the International Herald Tribune of 12 January 1976, described the grave deterioration of the Gambians’ social, economic and cultural relations due to the influx of tourists from Europe and North America. The Chief Inspector of the Gambian police force said that tourists had absolutely no morals and their behaviour was at the root of most of the Gambia’s social problems.

It would appear, as Robert Erbes of OECD says, that tourism as it is conceived in the industrialized countries amounts to grafting an increasingly doubtful theory, coined in an advanced society, onto the reality of the developing countries, where it is unsuitable and destructive; in the last analysis, it will make econ-

omic development impossible. In developing countries that have chosen to put their money on the tourist trade, expanding tourism results in an unnecessary consolidation of the inegalitarian economic and social status quo left by the colonial era. Thus, Robert Erbes goes on to say, the effects of tourism should not just be analyzed in terms of extra personal consumption. They should be analyzed in terms of means and obstacles to the type of economic, social and cultural development that the developing country in question has opted for.

A tourist image of the ACP countries

The first conclusion of a thorough analysis of the effects of the tourist trade in these countries is that tourism cannot provide a reasonable basis for development in a non-industrialized country. The tourist phenomenon is one of the products of industrial progress and the tourist movement towards the ACP or other countries of the Third World is still prompted by a desire for the exotic and concerns limited socio-economic brackets (the young and the well-off).

It has not really reached the vast mass of average European and American tourists. The effect of exoticism, like any visual stimulus, is a passing one which can jade without exciting intellectual curiosity. If they are to develop a tourist trade which will last and have a significant effect on their economy, the ACP countries should promote the kind of tourism that is geared to their own image, as distinct from the image of the industrialized countries. They must offer tourist products that are in keeping with each individual ACP country and avoid trying to satisfy the passing demands of visitors, who, when they are on holiday, are encouraged to go ever further in search of novelty. The original ACP approach to tourism would mainly consist of promoting society, culture and town-planning as they already exist in the life of each country, and not just as tourists would like to see them, as is the case today in countries where the tourist trade is growing. It is well known that some countries, Spain for example, have put their money on tourism and invested in buildings and infrastructure which rapidly outlive their usefulness once the tourist trade wanes.

All surveys into tourist motivation have shown that visitors always look for the unusual in the economic, social and cultural life of the countries they visit, whether in the USSR, China, the countries of Asia, the USA, Yugoslavia, Poland, Scandinavia or West Europe. As far as the tourist trade is concerned, the ACP countries should concentrate on developing their own economic, social and cultural image, to provide a true picture of the way of life of each. ■ L.P.



How far does tourism constitute an invasion of privacy? Young woman in Senegal

"The Golden Hordes"

Tourism is a bigger single item in world trade than even the commodities on which the developing countries base their hopes for a "new international economic order". In 1974 it represented nearly 6% of total international trade and it has been growing at an average rate of over 10% p.a. since 1960. Yet "tourism is very far from being the easy industry that people think it is. If anything, it is the hardest industry that the Third World countries could choose... The economic benefits from much of tourism may well be totally illusory. All that planning and construction could be for nothing. There are too many countries planning to expand into the industry too fast. There are too many powerful airlines and tour companies waiting to prey on the weaker tourist destinations... it is no longer possible to believe that it is an easy or a cheap industry—or a profitable one."

The quotation is from "The Golden Hordes", a recent investigation of tourism by Louis Turner and John Ash (1) which should be compulsory reading for everyone involved in this huge industry. "The Golden Hordes" relentlessly destroys the illusions of the travel agency brochures and argues that, in the final count, tourism is "a malign force".

The book traces the history of tourism from Roman pleasure resorts to the present, via the European Grand Tour of the 16th to 18th centuries. Modern mass tourism began with Thomas Cook's excursions in mid-19th century Britain. Far from considering it a "malign force", Cook saw mass tourism as "appertaining to the great class of agencies for the advancement of human progress" and believed fervently in "world peace through world travel".

(1) "The Golden Hordes—international tourism and the pleasure periphery", 319 pp., £5, from Constable and Co. Ltd., 10, Orange Street, London WC2H 7EG (Great Britain).

"The Golden Hordes" pours cold water on this idea first. "Tourism has proved remarkably ineffective as a promotor of equality and as an ally of the oppressed". Although "no one actually knows what goes on in tourists' minds... most tourists... are paying money in order to be waited upon; the vast majority do not really want to get to know their hosts, and when they do, they are hampered by the genuine problem that there is a limit to how much one can discover in a fortnight about someone speaking a different language. This perception of local realities will therefore be superficial and prejudiced, just as the locals in return will view the tourist with suspicion. Psychologically, the easiest way out for both sides is to give up the attempt to understand each other, accepting the standard industry roles of 'tourist', 'local barman', etc."

Turner and Ash conclude: "at its worst, tourism is a severely corrosive force... Many Third World countries are still struggling to overcome the class and racial problems left them by previous generations of imperialists... Tourism will exacerbate this damage by adding yet another ethnic (and privileged) layer to these deeply divided societies. Whatever the immediate economic benefits, future generations will curse us soundly for this. Tourism may seem to be an innocent activity, but its impact is divisive, far-reaching and long-term."

What about tourism at its best? "On the surface one can certainly make a good economic case for tourism. It brings in valuable foreign exchange, helps countries' balances of payments and creates employment both directly and indirectly... The Third World countries see that they are actually increasing their share of world tourism. They think of their abundance of sun, sea and beaches. Surely these poverty-stricken states merely have to build some hotels and an airport for the tourists and that precious foreign exchange to come rolling in? What easier or more

profitable industry could there be? It all looks too good to be true—and it is."

Firstly, because about half that foreign exchange "leaks" back into the hands of the foreign companies owning the airlines and hotels and providing the management and imported goods mass tourism requires. The tourist industry is so subsidised that governments gain little in tax and even pay the subsidies themselves. Providing the infrastructure is expensive—"there are few cases where tourists are paying enough to cover the cost of the public investments they have made necessary".

Then, the jobs created are mostly seasonal and of a low order. Tourism creates a disincentive to invest in or to work in productive industry, and "in general, tourism kills agriculture stone dead. It does this by luring away the labour force and by turning farmers into property speculators." The financial stakes are now very high and yet "tourism depends on resorts which are built for the benefit of foreigners and are of no intrinsic value to local inhabitants... for the sake of this industry they can lose their land, their jobs and their way of life—for what? A life of helping to satisfy the whims of rich foreigners?"

Culturally, tourism "destroys uncomprehendingly and unwittingly", and "The Golden Hordes" looks with some ironic nostalgia at the refinement of the Grand Tourist compared with the mass holiday-buyer of today. Like a fresco opened to the air, an original culture loses its brightness as soon as the tourists rush in, and once the brightness has gone the "pleasure periphery" must spread further afield. In a work with many insights (e.g. that the war left airfields in remote places and thereby helped mass tourism to take off), this chapter on the rampant commercialisation of the exotic is the more sobering for the familiarity of its examples.

"The Golden Hordes" looks at the psychology and the politics of tourism—perhaps not without tendentiousness ("the general repression of individuality" is not only to be found under "Western Capitalism")—covers the alternative tourism of the hippy trail, and foresees the end of a boom that is already out of control only when "the pursuit of the exotic and the diverse ends in uniformity". ■

B.T.

The ACP countries at the Internationale Tourismus Börse in Berlin

A number of ACP States (Benin, Rwanda, Cameroon, the Central African Republic, Togo, Ghana and the Bahamas), with EEC help, attended the 10th Internationale Tourismus Börse (International Tourism Exchange) in Berlin (GFR) from 28 February to 7 March 1976.

At this tourism market, the ACP States represented sought to sell their tourist attractions to a European clientele, mainly through tour organizers. They were all selling the same products—scenery, sunshine and sea, folklore, safaris and so on. However, as at past holiday fairs where the ACP countries have had stands, it emerged that these countries, with the exception of Cameroon and the Caribbean, had failed to provide adequate general information or to present imaginatively the wide variety of tourist attractions they had to offer.

This was one of the subjects dealt with in the discussion at a colloquium on the problems of the tourist trade in the ACP countries.

At two of the meetings—one on tourism in the French-speaking countries of Africa and the other on tourism in the English-speaking countries—representatives of the countries, the tour organizers and the transport companies explained what, in their experience, were the organizational problems facing host countries, travel agents and tourists.

In view of the current enthusiasm for boosting the ACP tourist trade, the representatives of the different States in Berlin were anxious to describe and provide reassurance about their tourist capacity and the quality of their hotels, to paint a very positive, sometimes even idyllic, picture of tourism or tourist potential in their countries via forecasts and projections of their various five-year plans. This attempt at convincing by seductive rather than persuasive arguments was particularly evident in the case of the French-speaking African delegates. Naturally, potential tourists to the ACP countries have to be told about the possibilities now and in the future.

But the desire to attract tourists led to the real problems, that both host countries and tourists have to face, being ignored.

So it was left to the Europeans to bring up the problem of organization in Europe and in Africa itself. Tourists do not get enough details about the various aspects of Africa before they leave Europe. It appeared that organizers sometimes had to cancel tours to certain African States because they lacked adequate information on the realities of the countries that the tourists would experience. As one German delegate said, when

you consider their potential, the African States have either done too much or too little from the tourist point of view and they have provided themselves with infrastructures which do not correspond to the quality, quantity or desires of European tourists. He went on to say that it was not enough to create the infrastructures—you also had to create a general framework into which the tourist structures proper would fit. Various examples were given. In Togo, they had built stopover hotels instead of a comprehensive holiday infrastructure. There were 2500 German tourists to Cameroon in 1967 and only 1000 in 1975. The reason was obvious, as the representative of the travel agency that had organized the tours said—the south (coastal areas) and the west of Cameroon had no counter-attractions to the multi-centre touring facilities offered to most tourists in the north, and hotels were sometimes too small.

One other aspect of the African tourist trade was much discussed—border-crossing difficulties between African countries and the ban against taking photographs of certain places when the tour covers several countries. Here again, information has to be provided if disappointments are to be avoided. However, as the Togolese delegate said, European tourists should understand the present situation between the African countries, particularly since the same sort of climate existed in Europe before integration and, even now, there are some sites and monuments in Paris and Rome, for example, that tourists are not allowed to photograph.

The Ghanaian delegate and economist Dr Barwuah asked the key question on the economic profitability of tourism in Africa. He said that as the tourist trade currently stood in Africa, it was the host countries who were losing out. He explained that, at best, only 20% of tourist income remained in the African countries. This is because the organization (sale of tickets, transport and so on) is done in Europe and neither this nor the reception of tourists when they arrive can be consistently supervised by the African countries, since they do not own the structures involved. Dr Barwuah suggested, therefore, that the ACP States should have a majority stake in the organization of tours by setting up travel organizations that could deal directly with any tourists wanting to go to Africa, as they do in Europe and as they are tending to do in some African States (such as Cameroon with Camtour). M. Louis Wansek, head of Cameroon's Economic Mission in Bonn, called for greater efforts in this direction.

A number of conclusions emerged from the discussions:

1. The tourist trade in Africa is not geared to discovery and culture as it is elsewhere, but to "exoticism"—which is a considerable handicap.
2. Existing organization and infrastructure are not adapted to a continually changing mass tourist trade.
3. The lack of information handicaps the tourist deciding which country to visit. It was suggested that African States should join forces to open tourist offices—initially in the major cities of Europe—step up their publicity and cut down on the red tape between countries likely to cooperate in offering inter-State tours.
4. They should develop a tourist trade specific to Africa and beneficial to the countries both individually and collectively. ■

L.P.

Tourism as "a factor of global development"

The following is taken from an interview with Gilbert Trigano, chairman of the Club Méditerranée, that appeared in **Actuel Développement**, a magazine brought out by the French Ministry for Cooperation.

The Club Méditerranée is one of the most flourishing and go-ahead tourist enterprises in the sector.

One or two comments are called for. First, 70 years ago, the "old dowagers" tended to be the object of general admiration and envy. Wealth was a sign of success in a society where most people went short.

Second, the rich English—and other—ladies had no effect at all on French culture.

Third, there is a profound cultural and social distinction between industrial society and ACP society and tourism nowadays is going counter to the preservation of the culture and society of the countries of the Third World, in that it does not allow them to develop free from outside influence.

M. Trigano sees tourism as a "factor of global development". The questions were put by Yves Catalans from **Actuel Développement**.

► *Gilbert Trigano—you are a specialist in individual and mass tourism. How can this field help the development of the Third World?*

— I should like to answer by giving you an example. Seventy years ago, say, the countries we thought of as modern, like Switzerland, France and Italy, were more or less the first to welcome tourists. What happened? The first tourists in Switzerland were a handful of eccentric millionaires—mostly English as they were the wealthy ones at that time—and they built the first palaces in mountain resorts like St-Moritz. Whatever did the locals think when they saw these masters come to conquer their mountains? Not a lot was made of it since only a few people were involved—but the shock was nevertheless tremendous and books have been written about the disruption caused by the contrast between the sometimes insolent luxury of the tourists and the standard of living of the Swiss peasants. A few years later, some wealthy old English ladies dis-

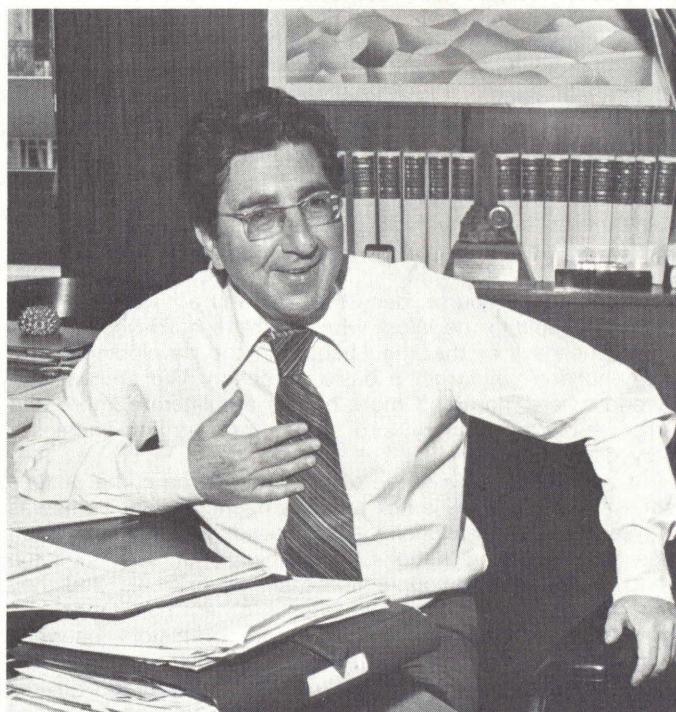


Photo Club Méditerranée

Gilbert Trigano
Boss of the Club Méditerranée

covered the Côte d'Azur and tiny villages like St-Tropez suddenly became the high spots of a tourist trade only accessible to a tiny minority. On the one hand you had the fisherman earning a hard living and on the other, nine or ten enormous properties with servants everywhere and one aged English dowager in a bath-chair... this was the birth of tourism.

Things have changed. The English dowager and the wealthy industrialist of 50 years ago have become you and me. And what was good for them is good for us. Of course St-Tropez is marvellous. Of course St-Moritz is fantastic. Of course the world is fabulous. So? Why the fuss all of a sudden? No-one bothered when a monstrously wealthy and arrogant minority came and upset people with a completely different standard of living. Today things are more democratic and you and I and lots of others can go abroad and admire the scenery and visit people all over the world. And that's supposed to be scandalous. Who are they kidding?

Why is it all right if you're a Niarkos or an Onassis or a Rockefeller and all wrong—maybe downright criminal—if you're called Smith, Dupont, Fritz or Alfonso? I agree there is a problem of adaptation and understanding. I agree that we must show imagination if we are to have access to world travel. But to reject the whole idea is anti-social, backward-looking, conservative and criminal!

► *The difference is, surely, that, whereas there used to be only one or two old ladies plus a few other wealthy people retiring to*

these resorts, you now have thousands of Mr Smiths and thousands of M. Duponts. Where you had one person before you now have a hundred or a thousand...

— Of course. But 14 Rolls Royces in St.-Tropez, where the richest man before only owned a bicycle, is infinitely worse than two thousand 2CVs going somewhere where everyone owns a 2CV. What is tourism? It's the contrast between the relative poverty of the people who live there and the amazing wealth of the visitors. In my view, numbers are important—but the difference in standards is at least as important. Twenty chalets in Gstaad at five million Swiss francs a time is just as bad as a holiday village in Agadir, Marrakech, Djerba or anywhere else with 300 ordinary rooms which altogether cost less than the 20 chalets. We can't all expect to own a Rolls Royce and a luxury chalet, but almost all 20-year olds today, even if they can't expect to own a holiday house, can stay in a holiday village.

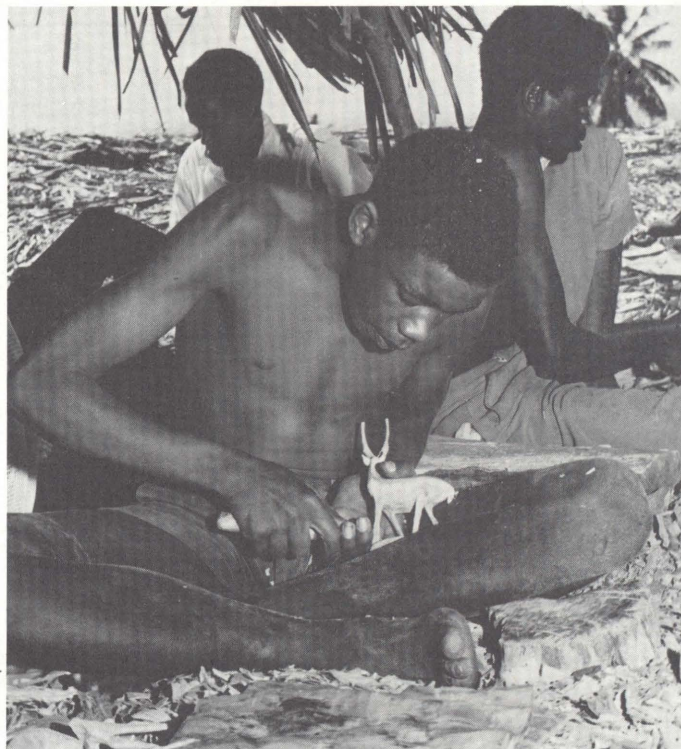
We cannot, of course, deny that there is a huge difference between people in the West who can have holidays, and reasonable holidays at that, and people in the developing countries who don't even get a basic education. We are living in a world where more and more people are illiterate, more and more people go hungry and where malnutrition increases every day.

But we must keep a sense of proportion. The crime of tourism—if it is a crime—is not nearly so serious now as it was 50 years ago. It has been democratized and this has given hope to developing nations. When you put your average French tourist with a young Moroccan, for example, and they are lucky enough to get to talk to each other, the young Moroccan realizes that there are 25 years of history between them. Now that development has been speeded up, he can expect—I mean he can fight to get—the same standard of living. This is the positive side of the democratization of tourism. I think it's about time people stopped their attacks on the tourist trade and learned to live with the times. It's good for tourists to be able to travel—provided they leave their superiority complexes at home. We must show that we from the developed countries, who are lucky enough to get to go to Agadir or Djerba or the Ivory Coast or Senegal, are only two generations away from the man in the developing countries. It is up to us to provide him with the means of doing in one generation what we did in two. It's a problem of educating the tourist. It's also a political problem, since tourism is a means of education and, therefore, a means of political training.

Tourist concentrations and their dangers

► *In absolute terms, then, tourism can speed up the development process. Do you think that tourism, in fact, is already doing so? Is it doing it well? Or not well enough? What can we do to make it more effective?*

— It is helping, but not enough. It is helping. Take the example of Italy. Only 25 years ago, Italy was on the receiving end of the tourist trade—1% of the population went on holiday and 30% worked for people who came on holiday. Today, 30% of the population take holidays and only 15% cater for holiday-makers. A lot of ground has been covered in 25 years—which is quite a short time. And how are we going to help countries at a much earlier stage of development cover as much ground? We are witnessing a profound change in our scale of values. Developing countries often supplied raw materials in their original state and they didn't really make a vast



Photothèque CCE

Craftsmanship is succumbing increasingly to the demands of the tourist market

profit on them. But it isn't a pipe-dream to imagine that nothing will leave these countries in their original state in 25 years time. No-one will get untreated phosphates from Morocco. They will have been processed and the value added by competent workmen will be considerable. This added value is a source of profit for the nation and the Moroccans' income will probably be 10 times what it is now and, with that amount of money to play with, they will obviously be able to go in for the sort of tourism that we in the more developed countries have.

Tourism cannot be separated from the economy in general. The great mistake that even governments make sometimes is to look upon tourism as a panacea, as an end in itself. A country that is interested in its future development should not be aiming for a tourist trade that brings in 40 or 50% of the national product. It was tourism that got Spain off the ground, but don't forget that Spain is now changing into an industrial country—although it is keeping its tourist trade. Look at France. France is an industrial country—but it does realize that there is profit to be made from the tourist trade. Take the example—I was going to say the classic example—of America, which is founded on trade and industry. Well, three years ago, they opened their eyes to the fact that tourism could be one of the sources of their national income in the future. They are following the same course as the others, but in reverse.

We are convinced that the right figure for the tourist trade is 15 or 20% of total activity—both as regards employment and as regards the balance of foreign trade, culture and influence. Once the right people realize this, tourism will be recognized as the most noble of industries. The best for the country, because it enables its cultural influence to be felt, and the



The N'gor Hotel (Dakar)

most modern and most intelligent form of export. Is it a good thing to move heaven and earth to sell Moroccan tomatoes abroad at ludicrously low prices? Wouldn't it be better to have some of them eaten in Morocco itself at reasonable market prices?

As far as tourism is concerned, I don't think you can separate developed and developing countries. It's the fundamental industry of tomorrow, it's on a human scale, it appeals to people who are responsible for what they do and you know that means something to the working man. In 10 years' time, no-one will want to go and work for Volkswagen or Renault if they still have to work on the assembly line and 50 000 people have to clock on at the same time. Tourism is the antithesis of this alienated way of living. In the world that's just beginning, we will see a tourist policy emerge which will be a driving force behind cultural, economic and social development in countries of the Third World and in the developed countries.

We shall arrive at the paradoxical situation in 15 years' time, where many of what are now developing countries will be rich countries. There are two main reasons for this. Rational use of their raw materials by processing them before export and intelligent exploitation of their tourist potential. This will contribute enormously to the economy. Moroccan statistics prove it—and it is not just true for one country. One tourist brings

in upwards of US\$25 per day and the number of tourist days evened out over the population as a whole gives a very considerable increase in gross income per capita—which in something that ought to be taken more into consideration.

Tourism—a facet of the quality of life

► *From your active experience with the Club Méditerranée, what can you tell us about foreign trade balance; balance of payments and influx of foreign currency; labour; new jobs and vocational training; and regional improvements?*

— Tourism is a recent industry and some criminal mistakes have been made. Tourist complexes have been built where overcrowding is as bad as in the towns—as if in a pastiche of Emile Allais, we have transported the town to the country. The worst example of all is New York—every December, the whole of New York goes off to Miami and carries on just as if it were still in New York, except there's more sun. And the Americans aren't the only ones at fault. The Spanish do it to, and France, with the Languedoc scheme, is no better. The mistake is to look upon tourism as an entity in itself and not as an integral part of the life of a people and a nation... ■

AIRLINES AND TOURIST TRAVEL

One handicap: prices

Air travel is clearly of crucial importance to the tourist trade in the ACP countries. Most tourists to the ACP countries come from far afield, mainly from Europe and the United States. The nearest countries are Senegal and Mauritania—which are 5000 km from Paris—and the furthest are the Pacific islands of Fiji, Samoa and Tonga. Air travel is, therefore, the key factor in the development of the ACP tourist trade.

European and American airlines have been interested in the ACP tourist trade for some years now and a series of organizational and reception structures—including travel agencies and hotel chains owned by airlines such as UTA—have been established for tourists in Africa and the Caribbean.

On becoming independent over the last 16 years or so, the African and Caribbean States immediately realized the importance of and the need for air and sea transport services for their economic and social development at home and their economic and political development at international level. This led to the creation of the first inter-State airline in Africa—Air Afrique—the countries involved being mainly French-speaking States. It has made considerable progress in 15 years. Air Afrique has developed and extended its African and international network and now serves Europe and the United States as well.

As both promoter and beneficiary, Air Afrique has not neglected the very important tourist side of its activities and it has a direct hand in a considerable number of tourist companies. It holds:

- 37.8% of the shares in Tchad Tourisme;
- 37.5% of the shares in Bangui Tourisme;
- 22.70% in SNPT (National Company of Senegal);
- 15% in the Sorentente;
- 50.38% in the Société Mauritanienne de Tourisme et d'Hôtellerie;
- 20% in the Société Hôtelière et Immobilière du Congo;
- 5% in Sénégal Tours;
- 8.33% in the Société Hôtelière du Nord Cameroon.

Like other major airlines, Air Afrique runs its own hotel chain—Hotafric (a company for the development of the hotel and tourist industry in West Africa)—which it started up in 1970. It holds 52.33% of the shares. It has also helped set up hunting camps in Senegal and Mauritania.



One of Air Afrique's long-haul fleet

Those national African airlines which are not part of Air Afrique are also taking an active part in tourist activities.

Cameroon Airlines, which left Air Afrique, has opened its own tourist promotion service, Camtour. Similarly, Air Zaïre and Nigerian Airways also have their own tourist departments which collaborate closely with the various national tourist offices. East African Airways, the international company combining three East African countries (Tanzania, Uganda and Kenya), also has a fairly large tourist department—for example, they provide financial backing for a subsidiary charter company, which uses the company's medium-range aircraft. Tourists can make reservations for EAA flights through a large number of travel agencies throughout Africa, Europe and Asia.

The same goes for Jamaican Airlines, which provides many tourist services, mainly from London.

The Pacific States also have a considerable tourist promotion service called the Pacific Areas Travel Association, which works in close collaboration with the various airlines.

The airways are of vital importance in today's discovery-oriented tourism, particularly now that the problem of distance has been conquered—although time remains a problem, even with supersonic flights. However, one main problem is still outstanding. Travel is expensive.

But the airlines and the ACP States can reduce tourist prices by emphasizing the off-season nature of holidays in their countries. The best period for seeing the ACP countries is usually from October to mid-May, during the period when the prices of tourist tickets can be considerably reduced. Furthermore, in order to allow ACP nationals resident abroad to benefit from the pleasures of tourism, they could be offered the reduced rates throughout the year. El Al, the Israeli airline, has been successful in bringing this system into general use throughout the high tourist season in Israel.

If the ACP countries were to adopt a proposal of this kind, they would considerably step up the number of tourists to their countries and this would avoid planes having to fly 3/4 empty, as they often do at the moment. ■ L.P.

1976: Jamaican Tourism Year

by Doreen Brown

"COME TO JAMAICA, IT'S NO PLACE LIKE HOME", is one of the slogans used by the Jamaica Tourist Board to lure visitors to an island to which the tourist industry means a lot.

Tourism in Jamaica is an economic activity which aims to bring in as much foreign exchange as possible to help the country's balance of payments and is therefore crucial to its economic well-being. It is Jamaica's second largest earner of foreign exchange and the country's fourth largest industry. In 1975 553 258 tourists visited Jamaica, bringing in about US\$116.8 million.

Since tourism is such a large earner of foreign exchange, a lot of time and effort has gone into the promotion of the industry over the years to keep it humming and to keep the dollars flowing in. More hotels are built each year, programmes and projects designed to attract and entertain the visitor are planned and a total effort is made to make the visitor feel happy and at ease, though he may be far away from home.

Because of competition—Jamaica being one of many islands with similar attractions in the Caribbean—more has to be done to sell Jamaica and to attract all types of visitors from all parts of the world.

The chief promoter of tourism in Jamaica is the Jamaica Tourist Board, a government-supported organization with a reputation for excellent promotional work. Up to last year, the board had a very wide range of functions which included not only overseas promotion but also responsibility for the "product", which included ensuring and maintaining high standards in hotels and villas, attending to complaints, providing a visitors' service bureau, and training staff both in technical terms and in terms of attitude to the visitor. The board was recently re-organized and one major change was the formation of a company, the Tourist Product Development Company, which, as the name implies, has prime responsibility for maintaining high standards expected in this important industry. The board is therefore now free to concentrate on the area of promotion, and many new ideas have been produced to ensure success in this area.

The Director of Tourism, Adrian Robinson, sees this as a big step forward, making it possible for him to execute many of the exciting plans he has for revitalizing the industry. He is of the opinion that tourism should benefit not only the visitor but also the host country, in very personal as well as in economic terms. As he sees it: "tourism should not be isolated from the country and its people". To achieve this, "tourist facilities and the people who come to visit our country must not operate in isolation. They must integrate, must become a part of the Jamaican society, the Jamaican way of life."



Doreen Brown

The first thing Mr Robinson and his board have done therefore is to take positive steps to counteract the isolation which made the Jamaican feel that tourism was outside his area of interest. One way in which this has been done is to provide attractive opportunities for Jamaicans to holiday in Jamaica rather than overseas, using all the facilities formerly used almost exclusively by visitors. One of the distinct benefits this has is that the visitor from abroad will now be able to meet more Jamaicans in his hotel in a casual and relaxed atmosphere, and therefore have an opportunity to develop a complete picture of Jamaica and its people.

As part of its new thrust, Jamaica is now turning to many more world markets to sell its product-tourism. 1976 has been designated Tourism Year and a year-long programme of interesting activities has been planned. But what type of person is the industry seeking to attract? The Director of Tourism said: "essentially, we want people who like people—people who can come to Jamaica without any racial hang-ups of any sort. The fact is that Jamaica is a country where ninety



Messing about on the river...

...and driving under the bamboos in Jamaica



percent of our people are black and we would like people to know this before they come here. There will always be those persons who want to come to Jamaica simply to lie on the beach and enjoy the sea and the sun, because that is a kind of holiday which we do provide. We are happy if they just want to relax, since the pace is not as hectic here as where they come from. But we would also like to attract a lot of younger-minded people, whether young in age or just young at heart. We want people who are prepared to share in the Jaction with the Jamaican, a situation which is enriching both for them and for us. We are the most hospitable people in the Caribbean and we have the sort of spirit in Jamaica which is unique. We want people who can enjoy that, who can share what we have to offer." And what do the country and its people have to offer? "We offer a much slower pace of life, we offer a beautiful country, we offer beautiful scenery, we offer beautiful beaches and, more than anything else, we offer very beautiful and interesting people."

Traditionally, "the product" has been offered primarily to North Americans, but as the tourist industry expands it is turning towards the European market. The problem there is cost,

Tourism in Kenya: from humble beginnings to a giant industry

During the past 12 years tourism in Kenya has been transformed from a small but potentially viable enterprise into a major industry with consequential impact on the economic development of the country. Up until 1966, however, Kenya was virtually unknown as a tourist destination and development was negligible. However, as a result of Kenya's political and social stability under the leadership of President Kenyatta, combined with unparalleled beautiful natural heritage, both local and foreign investors stepped in with funds to boost the bed capacity which until then could not meet the demand. For example, there were less than 3 000 beds in Nairobi in 1965. Today, there are 7 000. The development of our beach hotels was even more rapid. From less than 1 000 beds in 1965, the capacity at the coast has now passed the mark of 5 500 beds.

The development in Kenya's game areas, which form a major tourist attraction, is governed by particular factors since it is the government's desire to adhere to strict rules aiming at protection of ecology and environment. The government has also to cope with infrastructural problems, in particular with access into districts that offer utterly unspoiled nature. Yet it was possible to increase the bed capacity from about 300 beds in lodges in 1965 to 1 500 at the end of 1974. With the projected completion of several town, vacation and lodge facilities Kenya will by the end of next year be able to offer adequate accommodation for the estimated increase of visitors to Kenya at least for the rest of the current development plan 1974/78. In Kenya today, people are becoming increasingly aware of the social, economic and financial benefits to be derived from the tourist industry. They also recognise that such advantages can best be optimised through systematic efforts. The optimum development of tourism demands certain basics among which are thorough knowledge of the country's attractions, scientific marketing of the attractions, and provision of adequate facilities, amenities and services to ensure maximum satisfaction of the tourists.

To attain these ideals and objectives as they are spelled out in the development plan, the government has been planning and promoting tourism more effectively in the face of such adverse factors as increasing air fares, global inflation and the worsening energy situation. Kenya's international tourism promotional efforts have been given a boost by the opening of three more tourist offices in Los Angeles, Paris and Zurich, bringing the number of offices being operated abroad by the ministry to seven. The other offices are in London, New York, Stockholm and Frankfurt. More offices are being planned for Tokyo, Chicago, Toronto and in the Middle East. Promotional and public relations campaigns have been mounted in the Arab world, Europe and Japan to get more tourists to change their traditional holiday venues in favour of Kenya, while successful tourism seminars have been held in many major capitals, from Europe to North and South America and from Africa to the Far East. More are planned for other tourist generating capitals.



Adrian Robinson

The man who brings half a million tourists a year to Jamaica, and 250 million Jamaican dollars with them

though a holiday in Jamaica is not as expensive as most Europeans seem to think. In its promotional drive, the Jamaica Tourist Board is doing all it can to encourage the European trade. For example, out of Frankfurt in Germany, there are promotional fares which make the total cost of a two-week holiday in Jamaica something in the region of DM1900 per person.

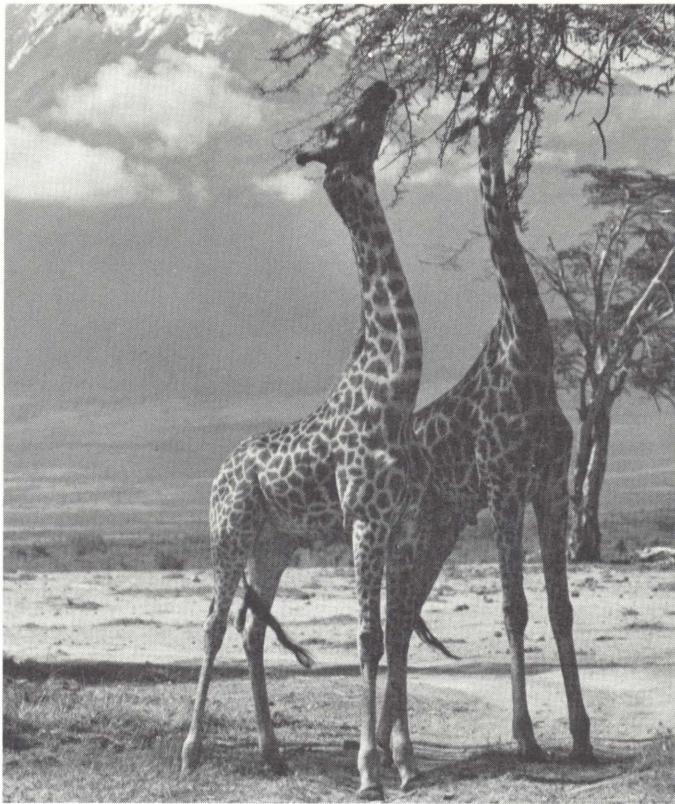
Package tours out of Europe are now being made very attractive, and someone in France for example who wants to visit Jamaica could quite easily hop to London and then pick up the special fare from there.

There are many important things which the board is examining in moving towards the European market. For example, ensuring that there are enough people in the service sector of the industry who can communicate effectively with visitors, so that they can feel more at home.

If the many ideas and plans which the new board has for the industry materialise, then no doubt the part tourism plays in Jamaica will become even more important.

Director Robinson is quite confident that it will. Although he has only served seven months out of a three-year appointment to the post, he has already succeeded in giving the industry a new image. His objectives, he said, are to ensure that Jamaicans give their approval for the success of tourism. "I am hoping that Jamaicans will be a lot prouder of their country, and that they will become more aware of the fact that we have a lot more to offer our friends from abroad than sun, sea and sand. I hope at least to create the basic outline of the vision of what Jamaica's tourism of the future will be." ■

D. BROWN



Giraffes in a park in Amboseli (Kenya)

AAA photo

During the past year an important strategic shift is made to get tourists interested not only in the wildlife, which is still the greatest tourist attraction, but also in the people and their cultures. Several tour agencies have cooperated in implementing this new strategy. This was done because it was felt that Kenyans have a strong cultural heritage which, to a large extent, has not been fully realised by the outside world. It was also felt that it is the people who have created a conducive atmosphere for the survival of the animals. Without dedicated people the very existence of the animals may be in jeopardy. However, this is done only on a complementary basis to the traditional wildlife attractions. Tourist figures during the period January to September 1975 show a 5 per cent increase in the number of bed-nights over the same period in 1974. Visitors to Kenya spent 2 340 000 bed-nights during that period as compared to 2 221 000 last year. While there was a drop of one per cent in the number of visitors in Nairobi hotels, the beach recorded an encouraging 17 per cent increase from 693 000 bed-nights for the first eight months of 1974 to 808 000 this year. This reflects the growing popularity of the coast as an internationally popular holiday resort. The popularity is likely to gain momentum with the opening of direct flights to Mombasa from Europe.

The Game Department plays an important role of game protection and control in the areas outside the national parks covering over 90% of wildlife. As poaching continues to pose a threat to the existence of wildlife, this department deploys considerable numbers of game wardens and scouts all over

the country to fight against this menace. In addition, a specialized anti-poaching unit has been set up to combat organised poaching in some areas where wildlife is abundant. The unit is highly mobile with spotter planes to help track poachers. The full effects of the anti-poaching unit have not been fully felt but large-scale poaching is on the decline in the notorious areas under surveillance by the unit. During the current development plan £240 000 will be spent to fight illegal killing of animals. More anti-poaching units are being planned to cover the whole country.

The ministry continues to lay emphasis on the need for research activities in wildlife so that the best ways and means of wildlife conservation can be determined. A total of £231 303 has been provided during 1975/76 to enable this section to broaden its activities. So far, various research stations have been set up all over the country.

The Kenya National Parks, which is a statutory body set up for the purpose of game conservation, has responsibility for all national parks and game reserves. During the 1975/76 financial year, £220 960 has been given to this body as a grant by the government to enable it to carry out various development projects. In addition, the government has allocated £53 010 as grants to county councils for use in maintenance and development of the game reserves.

Plans are already underway to establish a Wildlife Management Institute at Naivasha where personnel for the wildlife management and fisheries departments will be trained, and to strengthen wildlife conservation in the country. Since its inception the Hotels and Restaurants Authority has been doing a very good job in ensuring that hotel standards are maintained at acceptable level. Today, hotels in Kenya can compare favourably to any international establishments anywhere in the world, government intends to keep these standards at the highest possible level.

The Kenya Tourist Development Corporation (KTDC) in conjunction with the private sector or alone, has already participated financially in many projects. As at 30th June 1975, KTDC's investments in various projects amounted to Kshs. 37 503 160 in equity and Kshs. 47 654 100 in loans making a total of Kshs. 85 157 260. The bulk of this investment is in hotels and lodges. Five major projects including the 50-bed Marsabit Lodge in the Marsabit National Game Reserve, were completed in 1974. Three more are under construction including the projected 100-bed Sunset Hotel in Kisumu which is being built in conjunction with the Kisumu Municipal Council.

As Kenyanisation remains one of the government's most important objectives, it is the desire of the government that citizens should not only obtain employment but should own and manage tourist enterprises to the greatest extent possible and the benefits accruing from the industry should be distributed as widely as possible among Kenyans. However, there are not many Kenyans with the resources and expertise to go into the business. Kenyanisation, therefore, requires a large degree of Government support.

KTDC which has the responsibility of kenyanising the tourist industry, distributed a total of Kshs. 9 162 560 during the 1974/75 for small hotel development or modernisation, small tourist businesses such as curio shops, tour operations and cultural firms. KTDC also issues commercial loans for modernisation and extension of existing tourist facilities, especially



Nairobi

The Kenyatta Conference Centre

lodges/hotels and restaurants, and Kshs. 22 885 340 has been given out for this purpose.

In an effort to open up and diversify our tourist attractions, KTDC plans to put up lodges and hotels in different parts of the country, where some of the tourist attractions will include cultural, scenic and other novel aspects of Kenya's heritage.

Both the Marsabit and Meru Lodges on the northern tourist circuit have been built with this idea in mind. The Kisumu Lodge and the one now under construction in Mount Elgon will give a tremendous boost to the southern and western circuits.

In 1973 a need arose for the establishment of a company, the KTDC Hotel Management Company Ltd—with the objective of assisting *wananchi* who do not have the necessary hotel management skills in managing their properties efficiently. During the past one year this company has taken over the management of several hotels and has also offered advisory assistance on management to several others.

The Kenya Utalii College, which opened its doors in May this year, is already showing its viability. About 320 students are now undergoing courses in such fields as housekeeping, kitchen, reception and management. When fully operational the college will have facilities and the capacity to absorb up to 500 students. Furthermore it is our humble pride to mention here that Utalii College has gained recognition by the International Hotel Association, which held its conference in Nairobi last October. This patronage is only granted to training institutions which measure up to international standards and provide a high level of professional training.

A challenging addition to this complex is the 100-bed Utalii Hotel which was opened two months ago. Apart from offering the students a place for practical training, the hotel will also help to provide the much-needed high-class hotel accommodation in Nairobi. Among the first-class facilities offered by this hotel is an Olympic-size swimming pool.

Internationally, this ministry participates actively in various international bodies including the World Tourism Organisation and the African Travel Commission. This is in addition to the numerous international seminars, shows and tours the ministry, by virtue of its function has to participate in. So, we are on the move to keep Kenya going forward. ■

Tourist opportunities in Zaire

The Zaire National Tourist Office has just brought out a booklet on tourist opportunities in Zaire and the main point are reported by the Agence Zaire Presse. There is no doubt that Zaire is privileged among the countries of Africa because of the scenery, wildlife and vegetation it offers to visitors from all over the world.



The legendary mosque of Timbuktu

Mysterious Timbuktu

Timbuktu, town of dream and mystery. How many are the explorers and adventurers who have been irresistibly drawn to Timbuktu? How many died, their only crime that of looking with wondering eyes at this fabled town?

Time and wind-blown sand have gradually eroded it. There now remain only vestiges of its former glory—the old Djinguirai mosque, for example—but Timbuktu, with its maze of narrow alleyways, has kept its aura of mystery.

There is mystery to be felt throughout the days and nights spent strolling between the little dry earth houses or among the nomads' tents that encircle the town. The strange atmosphere is heightened by its extraordinary diversity of races which, over the centuries, have all kept up their own traditions. There are the farming Sonrhais and Bellas, the nomadic Moors and Tuaregs and all are citizens of Timbuktu without distinction of race. Here, alone in the world, religion is the indestructible chain that binds the people together.

Since its founding by the Almoraides in the 11th century, Timbuktu has been the most prestigious religious centre in the whole of western Africa. It was the intellectual capital

of the Mali empire in the 13th and 14th centuries, of the Sonrhai empire in the 15th and 16th centuries and of the Moroccan kingdom of Pacha Djouder in the 16th century. In the 17th century, the town was pillaged by the Peuls and the Tuaregs and the arrival of the French in 1893 put an end to nearly three hundred years of raids and fighting.

Today it is Islam, rather than any form of civil administration, that rules the life of the people of Timbuktu.

It is no doubt this air of mysticism that makes the town appear mysterious. The fascination it has always had has spread beyond the seas.

The USA has a Timbuktu Club—to join you have to have a Timbuktu police stamp in your passport with dates of arrival and departure.

That is why you sometimes see a small planeload of tourists touch down and a group of them dash off into town to get the famous stamp. They hastily see the sights and often leave again the same evening. A shame, for the town is worth more than a stamp... But perhaps not so bad after all—let the tourist trade develop for those who have the time to understand, to feel, to stop and appreciate the hospitality.

Salam aleikum... Aleikum salam...

And if you decide to stay longer, perhaps you, too, will be touched by the mystery of Timbuktu. ■

Michel V. DRACHOUSSOFF

But something still needs to be done about transport and hotel facilities—and the miles of red tape—if the most demanding of tourists are to be satisfied. The Zaire authorities have, therefore, been concentrating on this sector over the last 15 years and numbers of visitors have risen from 38 000 in 1970 to 94 000 in 1974. The target for 1980 is 350 000. Better publicity and the activities of the Tourist Office have meant that the figure for nights spent in hotels has risen by 8.5%, indicating that an average 70% of available accommodation was used.

International class and "local"—but very comfortable—hotels have gone up in the main tourist centres, bringing the number of available beds up to 5 000. This should be raised to 15 000 over the 1975-1980 period.

A large number of hotels have been or are being built with the collaboration of the big international hotel chains—UTH, Sheraton, Inter-Continental and so on. The Karibu, the first waterside hotel (200 beds) on the shores of Lake Kivu, will be opening in July.

The vast 2 345 500 km² territory falls into four major tourist

areas, each with its own special charm and special features—Kinshasa and Lower Zaire, Upper Zaire, the Shaba and the Kivu areas.

As well as the tourist attractions particular to each region, Zaire also has many national parks—in its Lake district (the Kahuzi-Biega and the Maiko parks), in Upper Zaire (the Garumba park), in Shaba (Upemba park) and in Equateur (Salonga park). There are all types of vegetation and climates and hundreds of varieties of plants, including some very rare ones. There are animals which are unknown elsewhere. Zaire has almost unlimited potential which it is determined to develop to the full in the coming years. (Marchés Tropicaux: 16 April 1976). ■

THE IVORY COAST

The Ivory Coast, a pole of tourist attraction in western Africa and a serious rival to Senegal, has been boosting its already familiar image abroad. Below is an article that Ibrahim Kone, the Ivory Coast Minister for Development, contributed to "Le Monde" on 30 April 1976.

"Our distinctive image—borne out by studies and forecasts by various institutes and organizations abroad—is one of the most important aspects of our tourist development policy. This policy is centred on eight regions, each one corresponding to a particular geographical or climatic zone with features that offer tourist attractions:

Zone I: The north of the country, with its typical villages, traditional craftsmen and very individual folklore.

Zone II: The main attraction is the Comoë national park, the villages in the Bouna and the Bondoukou regions and the traditional way of life of the Lobi hunters.

Zone III: The mysterious mountain region of the west, with its rich and varied folklore.

Zone IV: This is the area round the towns of Bouaké, Daloa, Yamoussoukro and Bouaflé, including the Marahoué reserve and Lake Kossou.

Zone V: The Atlantic shore and the south-west, with its fabulous beaches and the vast Taï park.

Zone VI: This area is near Abidjan, around Grand-Lahou. It is ideal for tourist purposes in view of the unusual folk heritage of the Divo, Lakota and Gagnoa regions.

Zone VII: This is Abidjan itself, the capital, a modern expanding town with exceptional hotel facilities. It is a base for excursions to the lagoon villages nearby and to the other tourist areas.

Zone VIII: Assinie, site of the first waterside complex with its holiday villages at Assinie and the Palétuviers at Assouindé.

The State has paved the way for investments by opening hotels and holiday villages. The government is also providing training for cadres in the tourist industry and financing promotion campaigns abroad.



Ivory Coast balafon player

One hundred thousand visitors—and more

Tourism in our country is on the increase. —it is open to the outside world, it respects our traditions and our originality... There were 108 192 tourists to the Ivory Coast in 1975, as against 44 826 in 1970.

The Ministry for Tourism, with some help from the private sector, has been active—but not hasty—in continuing the job of turning the Ivory Coast into a tourist attraction.

We are well-placed to achieve this ambition. The Ivory Coast has a name in various other fields and has solid advantages which will contribute to economic growth and social progress". ■

Community aid to tourist development

EDF help in the tourist sector falls into two categories—tourist projects proper and general infrastructure projects with side-effects on tourism. It should also be noted that some of the study grants and part of the Community trade promotion programme were for the tourist sector (see below).

The first thing to emerge from a brief examination of EDF aid in this sector is the relatively small amounts requested by the associated States' governments, as compared to EDF commitments in other sectors.

Record of EDF commitments in the tourist sector as of 31 December 1973

Tourist projects proper and studies (1)

Country	Project	Period	Amounts
Benin	— study of finalization of tourist development projects	3rd EDF	11 000 uc
Chad	— facilities in national parks and wildlife reserves	3rd EDF	417 000 uc
Gabon	— interest subsidy on EIB loan for construction of Hôtel du Dialogue	3rd FED	238 000 uc
Mali	— study of tourist policy	2nd EDF	24 000 uc
Mauritius	— analyse of possibilities of developing cottage industries geared to tourist sales	3rd EDF	25 000 uc
Mauritania	— Nouakchott beach tourist complex service infrastructure	3rd EDF	983 000 uc
Senegal	— interest subsidy on EIB loan for construction of Hôtel Teranga	3rd EDF	287 000 uc
	— study of the development of tourism	3rd EDF	36 000 uc
all countries	— international colloquium on tourist development in Africa in Yaoundé on 13-18 March 1972	3rd EDF	42 000 uc
		Total :	2 063 000 uc

General infrastructure projects with an effect on tourism

Country	Project	Period	Amount
(a) AASM			
Mali	— study for preliminary project, construction and additional financing for Bamako airport	3rd EDF	8 746 000 uc
		3rd EDF	3 547 000 uc
(b) OCT			
Netherlands Antilles	— construction of Bonaire tourist road (Kralendijk-Sorobon)	1st EDF	762 000 uc
	— construction of Aruba air terminal	1st EDF	3 364 000 uc
	— Curaçao airport – studies, improvements & extensions plus loan on special terms	2nd EDF	666 000 uc
			380 000 uc
	plus loan on special terms	3rd EDF	1 115 000 uc
	— Bonaire air terminal	3rd EDF	4 000 000 uc
	— study and improvements to the landing strip at Bonaire airport	3rd EDF	2 469 000 uc
	— supply of desalinated water to hotels in St Martin	3rd EDF	3 470 000 uc
	— study for Curaçao school of catering	2nd EDF	1 896 000 uc
	— architectural study & programming study for Aruba school of catering	3rd EDF	60 000 uc
	— construction of 5 bridges on the east coast	3rd EDF	102 000 uc
New Caledonia	— construction of 5 bridges on the east coast	2nd EDF	2 125 000 uc
	— construction of berthing facilities at Nouméa port plus loan on special terms	2nd EDF	596 000 uc
			1 000 000 uc
		Total :	34 298 000 uc



Bamako airport (Mali)

As far as the methods of financing these projects are concerned, it should be noted that funds for the tourist projects proper and the studies were in the form of grants. Only part—amounting to 5.38 m u.a.—of the general projects with an effect on tourism were financed with EDF loans on special terms.

The tourist projects proper and the studies revealed the African tourist trade to be in its early stages and EDF aid was mainly geared, numerically at least, to establishing guidelines, via studies and colloquia, for the development of tourism in the various countries and in the AASM/OCT as a whole.

The general infrastructure projects with side-effects on tourism were mainly geared to improving basic airline transport infrastructure (airports and terminals) in Mali (Bamako) and, particularly, in the Netherlands Antilles (Aruba, Bonaire and Curaçao). The concentration on the Netherlands Antilles is due to the fact that, in spite of intensive efforts at diversifying the economy, particularly in the primary and secondary sectors, the authorities did not, as things stand, want to pass up the very real opportunity of developing the tourist trade.

Two examples

Mauritania—the Nouakchott fishermen's beach tourist complex: service infrastructure—1973

The primary aim here was to build a tourist complex comprising a hotel, restaurant, and bathing facilities on the sea shore 5 km west of Nouakchott. By financing the service infrastructure for the complex, the EDF was contributing to both filling a gap in the facilities of the capital and helping Mauritania take its first step in tourist development.

The infrastructure works, for an amount of 983 000 u.a., included:

- technical studies;
- laying and surfacing a 6.5 km access road plus two slip roads of 0.3 km and 0.5 km linking the fishing area with the hotel itself;
- supplying and laying some 7.3 km of pipe to supply drinking water;

→

- supplying and laying some 7 km of underground medium-tension cable for the electricity supply;
- supplying and laying 5 km of three-line telephone cable.

This financing was requested by the Mauritanian government and EDF aid helped diversify the country's economy by making access easier for tourists and by meeting the urgent need for hotel rooms for businessmen and technical assistance officers.

Chad—facilities in national parks and wildlife reserves—1974.

Mechanical and technical equipment was supplied for use in national parks and wildlife reserves. The EDF hoped in this way to provide the Chad government with the means of protecting, preserving and making the most of the animal species threatened by poaching and disease.

The geography of the country has enabled a zoological heritage of great value to be built up and the project was not just

set up for short-term economic ends (exploiting a tourist attraction). The intention was also to preserve a natural milieu, as part of the heritage of the countries of Africa.

Total authorized commitments of 417 000 u.a. were intended to cover:

- the supply of transport and earth-moving equipment, including the infrastructure to house it;
- a contribution to the costs of operating the above equipment for two years;
- the supply of technical equipment for protection and assistance for animal life.

The operation was intended, initially at least, to cover the Zakouma (300 000 ha) and Manda (114 000 ha) national parks and the Mandelia reserve (138 000 ha), since these were considered the most worthwhile at the time.

This project enabled the EDF to help preserve the ecology and increase the tourist attractions of these parts of Chad. →

1971-1976 : annual number of EDF study grants in tourism and catering

Schoolyear	Sector	Benin	Burundi	Cameroun	C.A.R.	Congo	Ivory Coast	Gabon	Upper Volta	Madagascar	Mali	Mauritius	Mauritania	Niger	Rwanda	Senegal	Somalia	Chad	Togo	Zaire	OCT	TOTAL	
1971-1972	— tourism — catering		1		1		1		1		1 2			1					3 1			3	9 6 15
1972-1973	pluriannual programme — tourism — catering			4	2 1		3 2	1 1	5 1		1		1	1		15		2 5	16 1				51 16 67
1973-1974	— tourism — catering	1		3	2 1		3 2	1 1	6 3		1					14 3		2 5	14 5		1	47 22 69	
1974-1975	— tourism — catering	3 3		3	2 1		3 2		2 3				4			12 3		2 5	13 4		1	41 26 67	
1975-1976	— tourism — catering	2 3	1		1		2 1	1	2 2				3			12 3		2 4	8 3			29 21 50(*)	

(*) Funds were limited in 1975-1976 as this was a transition year before a new pluriannual programme could be started under the Lomé Convention.



Electronic equipment in Bamako airport

Projects financed by the EIB in the tourist sectors

Ordinary loans from EIB resources to the tourist sector proper in the AASM and the OTC under Yaoundé I and II amounted altogether to 2635 m.u.a. end 1975—i.e. 2% of total EIB commitments to the AASM/OTC as a whole. It should also be noted that the EIB managed the EDF loans, on special terms, that went to the general infrastructure projects affecting tourism. These special loans amounted to 5.38 m.u.a. at end 1975.

The tourist projects proper for which the EIB provided financing were the construction of the Hôtel de l'Union in Senegal in 1971 and the Hôtel du Dialogue in Gabon in 1973.

The luxury 250-room Hôtel Teranga in Dakar was partially financed—to an amount of 1.44 m.u.a.—by the EIB and an interest subsidy of 287 000 u.a. was provided from EDF resources. Total construction costs were in the region of 7.9 m.u.a.

The EIB financial contribution of 1.195 m.u.a. to the Hôtel du Dialogue (total cost 5 m.u.a.) in Libreville, plus other internal and external financial aid (e.g. the EDF 238 000 u.a. interest subsidy) meant that Gabon's capital city now has 132 international-class hotel rooms available.

The two loans were for 15 years, the first at 5.5% and the second at 4.75% p.a. (including the 3% interest rate subsidy granted from EDF resources).

EDF grants for studies and training courses in tourism

A pluriannual study-grant programme was started in 1972 and requests for training in tourism have increased considerably since then. Previously, the EDF had done little more in this field than pay for the training of 18 receptionists, as requested in 1968 by the African Inter-State Tourism Office. Tourism was a very minor item among the study-grants overall.

The level of these studies in tourism varies from an engineering diploma to certificates for technicians and receptionists of middle grade, including a higher technical training in tourism. In catering, the higher diplomas go to advanced catering technicians and the middle grade includes ordinary technicians and maîtres d'hôtel.

Most of this training so far has been carried out in Europe, due to lack of opportunity in Africa. The new training programme under the Lomé Convention shows how interested the ACP are in tourism.

One example of European training in tourism for ACP nationals is the course offered in the Netherlands by the Netherlands Wetenschappelijk Instituut voor Toerisme en Recreatie (see article by Th. G. Bodewes on page 48). ■

The ACP tourist trade: training in Europe and some socio-cultural problems

The ACP countries need trained managers in the tourist trade as in other sectors, and here again they have turned to Europe for help.

But training tourist managers can raise the question of the compatibility of a European training and the socio-cultural aspects of the trade in the developing countries. The Dutch Scientific Institute for Tourism and Recreation (NWIT) has considerable experience of the difficulties this training can involve; in this article Mr. Th. G. Bodewes, director of the NWIT, suggests that tourist managers should begin their training in their home countries before finishing it in Europe with ACP-EEC cooperation.

The other day one of our Togolese students handed in his draft dissertation to me. In French, as I had requested, because this dissertation would later have to serve as his visiting card in Lomé. To my amazement I came across a number of typical Dutch expressions in the French: a few k's where no French-speaker would ever have put them and even a few typical Dutch words such as "fooi" where "pourboire" should have been used. There was no doubt here: he and his friends were beginning to put down roots in the low countries bordering on the North Sea.

The ACP States show a great deal of interest in tourism studies in Europe. That in itself comes as no surprise, for any school of tourism which is at all well-known is over-subscribed with applications in its own country too. The male applicants are attracted by the chance to learn and use languages, to have contact with people, to get a job full of variety, the female applicants by the chance to be able to travel, etc. The students from the ACP States are also attracted by the chance to study in Europe, to travel, to make friends. Interest is even increasing every year in our ordinary three-year course in Dutch—without any deliberate effort on our part. In the next batch of first-years there will be students from Sudan, Ghana, Sierra Leone and Surinam.

This interest in our course is, however, not entirely something to rejoice about. Tourism is apparently not regarded as a real discipline and therefore as far as the quality of the students is concerned there is a great deal of chaff to be found among the wheat. And this applies to European applicants too. At the same time it has to be said that tourism in the developing countries is, economically and socially, a controversial matter. So who is going to study the subject? The establishment for the benefit of the establishment? Which will soon be importing whisky on-the-rocks instead of seed potatoes? We shall come back to this problem later.



The Dutch Scientific Institute for Tourism and Recreation (Breda)

How do students from West Africa adjust to life in Breda?

In the 1972-73 academic year an effort was made to find places for a number of French-speaking students from the ACP States on a course in tourism studies. For one reason or another they were not able to get in on courses in France or in other French-speaking areas in Europe. Or for that matter in any other country with a "major" language. Then feelers were put out to our institute. We had already had experience with a special course for Indonesian managers and had been toying for some time with the idea of starting up a regular course in English for students from the new States, possibly in cooperation with the two hotel management schools in our country. Of course we had our doubts. One obstacle, we realized from the beginning, was that in this case the whole of the course would have to be in Dutch since the group had no experience of tourism and its members had just passed their university entrance examinations. A second obstacle was that our

particular course in Breda contained a good deal of theory and did little to teach the tourist trade. Lastly, our experience was still very limited.

On the other hand there were likely to be big advantages: for the Dutch tourist managers of the future and their counterparts in the young States a knowledge of one another's tourist problems is rather necessary and will be an imperative in the future. Besides, a typically European—indeed a Dutch—course could also offer great advantages to a small group from the point of view of giving them a proper theoretical basis which will not rapidly become out of date but will serve as a basis to build upon in practical terms. And then to compensate for our lack of experience we had the enthusiasm of a young team. So we accepted the request and the 13 young West Africans, who were meanwhile waiting nervously in their countries for a place on a course in Europe.

Their names were: Symphorien Bakobrihan, Alexia Konlani, Martinet Lawson, Victorine Lassey, Lucien Panou, Foster Segbor and Stella Doh, all from Togo, Paul Kouame Laquachenn and Victorine Sonounamelo, both from Ivory Coast, Bechir Alkhalil and Joseph Tasa, both from Chad, Rigobert Mouange from Cameroon and André Nzapayéké from the Central African Republic.

A huge problem: learning Dutch!

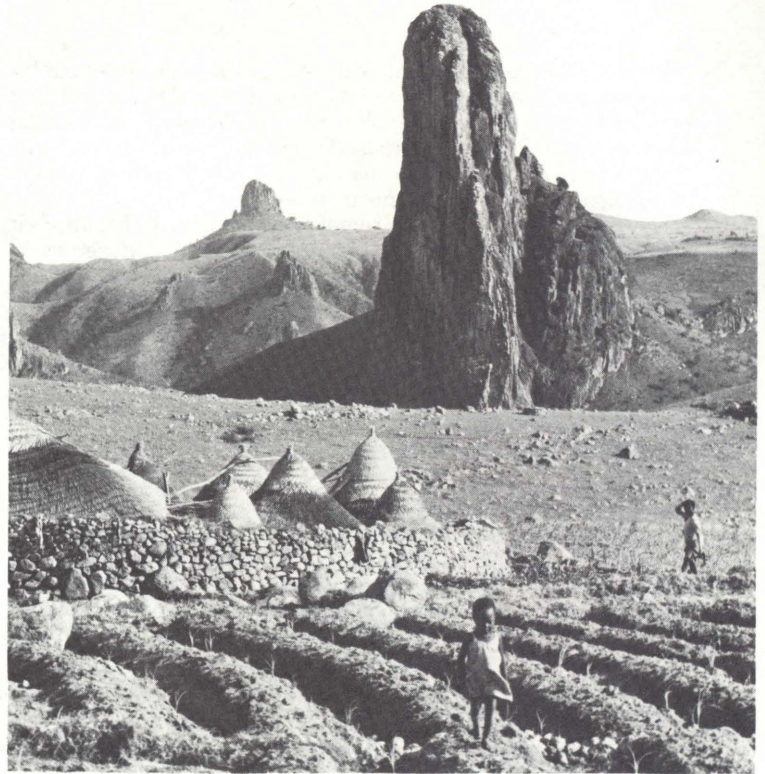
Of course the prospective students were pleased to get a place. Especially as they had been under the impression, as a result of a misunderstanding, that the course would be in English, a world language! When they found out that Dutch would be the language of instruction they felt as though they were having to cross the "tourist" ocean in a "Dutch" rowing boat. In fact Europe has 20 million Dutch-speakers travelling all over the place compared with 60 million French-speakers who are somewhat more attached to their homeland but, looked at from Africa, Dutch is just a minor language, a dialect somewhere between English and German that has been preserved for historical reasons. There was talk of insufficient motivation to learn Dutch. Moreover, the circumstances for doing so were not ideal: from February to May 1973 the students followed a Dutch course with many others in the central part of our country during which time they were accommodated together in a former mission "Kontakt der Kontinenten". They found that the course did not last long enough and complained in their almost total isolation that there was "no contact". In any case their knowledge of our language was still decidedly inadequate when the course came to an end.

We decided to let two of the students who had made the best progress in the course straight through into the first year of study, to put 10 students on a special preparatory course and to fail one student because it was impossible to get through to her at all and she was clearly not able to deal with the problems that would arise, where the ability to make contact would be essential.

In summer 1973 the two pioneers went to do practical stints with tourist firms in the Netherlands, while the others went off together to a Dutch centre near their beloved Paris.

Learning to live with other standards and values

Scarcely do you begin to understand something of a language than you fall into the dangerous quicksands of other customs and standards. After half a year the African student started to become irritated when interest in him remained con-



Photothèque CCE

"Get away from it all": tourism opens up strange landscapes such as this area of north Cameroon

finied to questions about his country of origin and how he felt after leaving his "primeval forest" for "civilized" Europe.

In the 1973-74 academic year a special programme was developed for nine ACP scholarship-holders consisting of intensive courses in Dutch, English, business and general economics and tourism, alternating with in-service training in the tourist industry, while the two pioneers started on a normal first-year course.

This was the most difficult year for everyone, for the administrative and teaching staff, the personal tutors and the contacts in Brussels and in Amsterdam (Koninklijk Instituut van de Tropen—Royal Tropical Institute). Many wondered whether it had been a good idea to start out on this venture. Contact with the Dutch students was disappointing.

How much is a Dutch diploma worth in Africa?

One of the questions which worried us most in the first year-and-a-half of their stay was: how much is a Dutch diploma worth in the Central African Republic or Togo? While our students' compatriots and friends in Nice, Brussels or Paris were doing their tourist studies in two years unimpeded by language problems, they had to take four-and-a-half years in the Netherlands (one-and-a-half years' preparation and three years' actual study), which begged the question of whether the Dutch course should be regarded as equivalent, or even superior. Many feared that when they returned home their former classmates would already have been promoted and occupying the positions which they themselves thought that they were entitled to.

Now that they have been with us for just over three years the students have lost this fear, or suppressed it for the time being. In my view people are beginning to fully appreciate the advantages of a more thorough training and of increased con-

confidence, which pay off when you are back in your own country and have the chance to show what you are worth. I found that an additional one-and-a-half months' English course in Bournemouth (England) increased their self-confidence no end. Apart from Dutch we now also have a reasonable command of English, and not everyone can say that.

Nevertheless the question remains of whether in future their Dutch diploma will gain the recognition which it deserves in their view and ours. Only time will tell. For this reason it is a good idea to give the readers of the "Courier" an outline of the course at our institute.

Tourism and recreation—the Dutch formula: the human element is all-important

Het Nederlands Wetenschappelijk Instituut voor Toerisme en Rekreatie in Breda (NWIT) provides a three-year course of study within the higher vocational training framework. The course is recognized by the State and is fully subsidized. The NWIT trains managers and executives for the private and public sector in the fields of recreation and tourism. The institute has approximately 400 students and the same number of graduates. The structure of the course is as follows:

Recreation and tourism, geography	1st year Economics and law	Sociology, advertising and media studies	2 languages
2nd and 3rd year Tourism, economics, 2 languages	Recreation, economics, 1 language	Tourism, sociology, 2 languages	Recreation, sociology, 1 language

The aim of the first year is to eradicate excessive differences in previous education (courses in French, German, geography, book-keeping and mathematics for those who have not reached university-entrance standard in those subjects). The admission requirements are in fact the same as for university courses. The first year also lays the basis for a choice between tourism or recreational studies, for a more economic or a more sociological approach.

In the Dutch view, the major part of what is meant by "tourism" comes under the wider concept of leisure activities. In practice then tourism means recreation with travel, while the term "recreation" itself is often reserved for those leisure activities where a change of location does not play a central role.

In the Dutch view, tourism and recreation should not be approached merely or even predominantly from the economic and commercial angle. The tourist and the person engaged in recreation are just as important starting points as the tourist business. In this respect the NWIT deviates fundamentally from the foreign sister schools with which it cooperates closely within the HOST (Hogere Officiële Scholen voor Toerisme—Higher Official Schools for Tourism), a cooperative association grouping together the Dutch-speaking, German, British and Norwegian schools.

The snag about the NWIT course is not so much the separate subjects as the fact that fairly unrelated disciplines must be studied at the same time. Even the final sociology option contains a considerable economics component and *vice versa*.

The most popular final options are "the economics of tourism" and "the sociology of recreation". The graduate who has done the first option will in particular be looking for a job with tour operators, travel agencies, transport companies and tourist offices, while the student who has done the latter option will be looking for a job with recreational boards, public

authorities and planning offices, etc. The "economics of recreation" option prepares students for managerial functions in (major) recreational centres. The "sociology of tourism" option provides training for careers in public tourist establishments and for jobs dealing with people in commercial tourist outfits. However, the dividing line between these four options and the corresponding functions is fairly blurred.

The ACP scholarship-holders still studying in Breda have chosen the following options: "economics of tourism" (2), "sociology of tourism" (4) and "sociology of recreation" (2).

Adjustments to the programme

As already stated, right from the beginning we were fully aware that our programme was heavily geared to Dutch conditions and career openings in the Netherlands or at least in the West. With the Indonesian managers we had found that it was very difficult, that most of our lecturers had not got the slightest idea of the possibilities and limitations of tourism in Indonesia with the result that visiting lecturers (with other shortcomings!) had to be called in to fill the gap. For the special six-month course for tourist managers which we want to set up we had also planned a number of subjects which seemed vital for those in the developing countries. The changes which we introduced for the West African group can now be summarized as follows:

1. Dutch language course spring 1973; summer in Dutch centre near Paris; training periods in tourist industry for two selected students.
2. Preparatory course in Breda, 1973-74 academic year, with Dutch, English, tourism and economics, alternating with two training periods in the tourist industry or with recreational establishments.
3. Summer 1974: holiday in home country but with assignment to study tourism there.
4. 1974-75 academic year: first year of study of normal NWIT course with following modifications: separate classes for international law, English, Dutch and tourist geography of developing countries.
5. Summer 1975: intensive English and tourism course in Bournemouth.
6. 1975-76 academic year: second year of NWIT course without any modifications.
7. 1976-77 academic year: third year of NWIT course with six months' private study in home country (for some) for a final dissertation on tourism or recreation;
8. The sociology of tourism students, including four West Africans, will be occupied during the six months of the third year of study which are spent at college with studying the conditions under which tourism contributes to the social well-being of a developing country.

It should be noted that in the beginning it was the African students who were not enthusiastic about "adjustments". They wanted the same programme as the European students and not a remedial class for underdeveloped students. In time, however, they came to praise the modified curriculum and the lecturers involved in it.

Meanwhile with regard to the success of the course it should be noted that the two guinea-pigs who were admitted directly on to the normal course were not able to stand the pace and even left the institute prematurely. However, with the exception of the two students from Chad—whose previous education was lacking—the students on the preparatory course were able to continue their studies reasonably or very successfully.



Stop-over in Tahiti

G. Boutin - AAA photo

There is some contact between the institutions in England (Bournemouth), Germany (Munich), France (la Baule), Italy (ILO-Turin), which organize courses for tourist managers from developing countries along more or less the same lines as those followed in Breda. This does not mean, however, that we have all come to the same conclusions.

Advantages of cooperation between EEC and ACP countries on courses in tourism

With regard to the second and fifth conclusions I would like to underline once again that to my way of thinking it is wrong that the highest level course in tourism should take place exclusively in the student's home country. Of course the basic tourist courses for counter staff, couriers and hostesses can take place in the student's own country, either in special courses or as part of secondary education. However, for advanced courses in tourism it is different: the number of graduates needed is in most cases too small to warrant a special tourist school for each new State and relations with neighbouring countries often make it impossible for there to be cooperation in this field. Moreover—and in my view this is the most important factor—an advanced course in tourism is inconceivable unless the student is free to gain a detailed knowledge of his future "market", the organizations existing there, the way in which they work and their philosophy. This is not true only for the young States: students from all higher institutions for tourism travel a lot and often spend periods abroad. It would be ridiculous to withhold this part of training from the student of tourism who comes from a developing country. Apart from which there are hundreds of European students of tourism who would like nothing better than to spend time in the young countries, either from their sense of social commitment or to get to know this "market" from their point of view. Cooperation here must be possible.

An advantage of cooperation along the lines of the above-mentioned Bournemouth-Breda model is that the students from the Third World who are involved can at least profit from the specialities of two European schools.

Once again: tourism in the developing countries is a controversial matter

In our country and in the Federal Republic, where at present the governments are of a predominantly socialist character, tourism in developing countries does not have high priority. Our Ministry for Development Cooperation states quite frankly that it definitely does not regard the traditional forms of tourism as favourable to development, particularly from a socio-cultural point of view. We cannot therefore expect initiatives from our ministry to promote courses for tourist managers from the Third World. If a young State is very keen to have such a course the possibility could well be discussed. This critical attitude does not mean that it is not realized in The Hague that good courses in tourism might help cure the ills of "traditional tourism". It does, however, mean that even "good tourism" is still not regarded as a priority of short-term development cooperation. All the more reason for courses in tourism in Europe and for those responsible for tourism in the young States to work out soon forms of cooperation which will change one-sided independence into interdependence, which is now becoming so important for tourism between independent States. ■ Th. G. BODEWES

Ideas for a cooperative model for tourism studies

We have continually been thinking of ways in which tourism studies in our part of the world can contribute to that in other parts of the world and have reached a number of conclusions:

1. A course which is as long and specialized as the three-year NWIT one is only desirable in exceptional cases for prospective managers from other parts of the world.
2. Tourism studies are designed for the lower—and intermediate—level staff in one's own country or group of countries.
3. Close cooperation in extending tourism studies between European and developing countries is in the interests of both parties.
4. Minimum requirements for this sort of course laid down in conjunction with the World Tourist Organisation, UFTAA, AIT and other world tourist organizations would be a great help.
5. A Community plan for an advanced course after the basic tourism course would well be organized in Europe, e.g. in the form of a six-month course in English, half the time being spent in Bournemouth and half in Breda. This advanced course would have to cater for students who—after receiving a proper education in their own country and preferably also having done a basic course in tourism and in any case with at least one year's practical experience of tourism in their own country—wish to deepen their knowledge at management level.
6. A course in tourist management which is specifically for students from the developing countries and deals only sketchily with the socio-cultural aspects of tourism is a threat to the expansion of tourism in the Third World because of its one-sided nature.

Promoting the tourist trade

For several years now, the EEC Commission has responded to requests from ACP States and various specialist organizations to help carry out a number of schemes to promote tourism in Africa.

Various States have attended a number of events in Europe, in order to boost their tourist trade, as part of the Community trade promotion programme.

Record of EDF-aided ACP participation at tourist promotion events

Name and place	Year	AASM represented
Salon Européen du Tourisme Africain as part of the Salon des Vacances, Tourisme and Loisirs held in Brussels	1974	Cameroon, Gabon, Ivory Coast, Mali, Niger
	1975	Cameroon, Chad, Gabon, Ivory Coast, Mali, Rwanda, Senegal, Somalia, Togo
	1976	Benin, Burundi, Cameroon, Gabon, Gambia, Mali, Rwanda, Senegal
Internationale Tourismus Börse held in Berlin (GFR)	1974	Cameroon, Mali, Niger, Senegal, Togo
	1976	Barbados, Benin, Burundi, Cameroon, Ghana, Rwanda, Togo.

For information, the underlying principles of participation at these events are:

- the Community programme lays down that the site of the fair shall be offered by the Member State where the event is being held;
- construction, equipment, printed matter and public relations are paid for by the EDF;
- ACP States taking part pay the costs of transporting their goods, plus any expenditure relating to staff travel, accommodation etc.

Nevertheless, in view of the high costs of transport and travel, reimbursement up to an amount of 1000 u.a. will be made per event and per ACP State in 1976 for this purpose.

Participation in events of this kind is part of the overall Community programme drawn up at an annual meeting—usually in October—attended by trade promoters for the ACP countries and representatives of the Commission. In addition to these annual meetings, the Commission also organizes meetings between ACP representatives and professional people from the trade, either during the regular trade fair or at other times.



R. Heiderscheid

Fashion parade at the Brussels Tourist Fair

The following discussions have been held:

1. 1972: Yaoundé. A colloquium on the development of tourism in Africa. For various reasons the conclusions led to no practical measures being taken.
2. 1974: Paris. A meeting of national tourism organizers in the associated States and representatives of the European trade concerned concluded that the AASM Coordinating Committee should invite a group of experts to look into the conditions for the coordinated promotion of African tourism on the international markets, the aim being to arrange inter-State tours of a kind that would make the most of the tourist potential of the least-favoured States.
3. 1974: Brussels. Two meetings, during the **Salon Européen du Tourisme Africain**, of the group of experts on tourism set up in Paris in collaboration with the AASM Coordinating Committee. The results were published in a document addressed to the governments of the associated States on 23 December 1974.
4. 1975: Brussels. A meeting of the associated States' national tourist organizers and representatives of the groups of

experts, when the creation of a Liaison Committee to promote tourism in the associated States was mooted.

5. 1976: Brussels. An informal meeting of organizers from the ACP countries represented at the **Salon des Vacances**. The aim was to explain certain aspects of the recommendations made in 1975.

The promotion of tourism in the ACP countries is an integral part of the trade promotion programme laid down in the Lomé Convention (Title I, Chapter 2, Articles 12-15), which says that a larger "supply" from the ACP countries might well be greeted with a greater "demand" on the part of the Europeans. The Commission will continue as mediator by acting both at meetings in trade circles and via direct contact with the European public.

The ACP States at the 18th Brussels Salon des Vacances, Tourisme et Loisirs

This ran from March 13-21 1976. "The Courier" talked to organizers from the ACP States who outlined their current tourist policy and explained how important they felt their presence at such events to be. We met a representative from the Gambia, who was attending for the first time, another from land-locked Burundi, who had already been in 1975, and one from Senegal, who had already attended twice before.

The Gambia—first participation a success

For the Gambia, these events mainly provided the opportunity to attract tourists from a greater variety of sources for, as Doudou Njie, Banjul Minister for Information and Tourism said, their visitors had mostly come from Scandinavia so far. The government is attempting to diversify and step up numbers of tourists and also establish contact with members of the trade—who have been provided with certain facilities, such as a "holiday tax-free system".

The Gambia is emphasizing both its culture and its own particular products, but it is, nonetheless, aware that the other ACP States represented are not just rivals. They are all acting together to promote an African tourist product. For example, the Gambia has already benefited from the integrated geographical situation it shares with Senegal and is very much in favour of tourism of a regional type. The Gambia has opted for the so-called luxury trade and is hoping to see tourism become one of the main sources of foreign exchange, Mr. Njie said.

The Gambia was the only English-speaking ACP State at the fair. Although there were a number of practical, mainly linguistic problems, and despite a still relatively hesitant attitude on the part of the trade, this first participation was considered to be very successful.

Burundi—tourism in the regions

The Burundi National Tourist Office was opened two years ago under the slogan "Discover Burundi", and a campaign was launched to publicize the country's tourist attractions. Jeanne

Bigayimpunsi, who ran the stand at the Brussels Salon, said Burundi was not attempting to push mass tourism, but preferred to maintain human contact by opting for "quality" tourism.

Burundi is a small, land-locked country in the heart of Africa, one which is aware of the need to collaborate on regional tourist affairs with neighbouring countries and to emphasize the way these various regions complement each other. For example, the Kagen park in Rwanda, various tourist parks in Zaire and Lake Tanganyika in Burundi are tourist attractions that can very well be included in one tour. Burundi thus wants to join existing tours involving Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Zaire and Rwanda. The Heads of State of Rwanda, Zaire and Burundi have already held tripartite conferences on the subject dealing with, in particular, the question of a single visa for their three countries so as to cut down on red tape on inter-State tours. Burundi also feels that it is easier to sell a tour covering several countries than one country alone.

Burundi feels that contact with the trade is not entirely satisfactory, although it is quite sure that events of this kind are a useful contribution. Finally, Burundi is not just looking for European tourists. It is also anxious to see Africans in general and its own people in particular discover first their own continent and their own country, a desire which shows that Burundi, in spite of being a young country, is well aware that tourism is far more than just an economic factor—it is also a question of people.

Senegal—the confidence of experience

Senegal has opted for the luxury end of the tourist trade. It is, nevertheless, convinced that its undeniable tourist attractions and its geographical situation at the crossroads of international relations mean that the tourist sector can become a service industry which will contribute to economic, social and cultural development. This is a new industry, and, as Mbem Gue, head of tourist promotion at the Delegation-General for Tourism points out, it is the subject of continuous and deep discussion, both as far as hotel infrastructure is concerned

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R. Heiderscheid

Doudou Njie with Roger De Backer

THE MAGHREB AGREEMENTS

Claude Cheysson on the outlook in the Mediterranean

When the cooperation agreements were signed between the European Communities and Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco, Claude Cheysson, EEC Commissioner for Development, talked about the prospects the Community's Mediterranean policy had opened up. Among the main points M. Cheysson dealt with were—a "civilization contract", regional cooperation and triangular cooperation.

A Mediterranean civilization contract

"It is not surprising—and it is indeed a very good thing—that a development contract, or civilization contract as Prime Minister Nouria has called it, has been concluded for the Mediterranean. This is the part of the world which gave us the three great monotheistic religions, which gave us history, culture and civilization as we know it, and we should form a ring of solidarity around it, to protect it and keep it, in all its diversity, free and master of its own destiny.

For Europe, the Mediterranean poses particular problems. The south of the Community is going through a difficult period of upheaval. It has problems of development and the less developed regions are unstable and have uncertain political futures. Greece and Spain are striving to emulate our form of democracy. In the eastern Mediterranean, in the Maghreb itself, tension and suffering are on the increase.

In the face of these dramatic events, we must strengthen our common will and push forward with our policy of independence and progress. This is the

aim of the Europe/Arab dialogue. This is the aim of the special agreements with the Maghreb today and the Machrak tomorrow. The links between us must be made ever closer. We must go beyond the clashes and threats, the passion and intransigence of today and follow the path of progress together.

This is the view the President of Tunisia has continually put forward throughout a life inseparable from the life of your republic. I cannot but mention the period when I was associated with Tunisia, 22 years ago, at the time when you were fighting the sacred fight for independence and freedom. The Supreme Commander led the fight with such ardour and vigour, yet, even then, saw beyond the inevitable break and took care to ensure that cooperation could be reestablished once independence had been won.

Here, today, another turning point in the history of that cooperation has been reached.

Regional cooperation

Difficulties here are such that, if we want to make progress, we must show realism and imagination. We must always move forward, always progress—otherwise we will meet discouragement and anger.

We must show realism by first calling on those countries most interested in progress. Among them are the countries of Europe—their state of dependence makes them irreplaceable partners in the forging of new relations between the Third World and the industrialized countries.

We must show realism by seizing every opportunity for experiment and demonstration. When Europe sets up a system to stabilize export earnings with 46 countries of the Third World, it does not solve the problem of raw materials.

But it does take a step along the right path. When Europe guarantees what amounts to an indexation of prices at which it will buy its partners' sugar, it does not solve the problem of raw materials. But it is taking another step along the right path.

Lastly, we must show realism and imagination in the means we use to get the active cooperation of the people—since transforming the economic and political order is not just a question of resolutions and motions. It is also a question of men, and men must play their part. Regional development has and will have a key role in the new economic order. For neighbours are linked through history, geography and culture and by a joint desire for independence and refusal of outside interference; since, also, it was within such a framework that our interests developed over the centuries. We must not waver in our pursuit of these common interests. We must build together, as neighbours in the same world, and we are proud that, through the Lomé Convention, we have helped the countries of black Africa to form a united front. We are also working on a long-term project in Europe to build a real union. We must build together as neighbours linked by economic interests and by a mutual interdependence that must be constantly developed. This is the meaning of the Lomé Convention. This is the meaning of our agreement today. This is the meaning of the vision that President Boumediene conveyed several months ago during my visit here, to Algiers...

We hope, in this way, to contribute to solving the problems that you yourselves have defined: the improvement of your balance of payments, whose deficit vis-à-vis the Community is cause for concern; better training for your workers, preferably in your countries, and, above all, the development of the gigantic industrialization programme which you are undertaking and to which our technology can contribute; and, finally, the contribution that same technology can make in the field of agriculture.

Triangular Cooperation

Europe is thus joining you and your neighbours in the Maghreb today, and will join with your brothers of the Machrak tomorrow, in a dialogue, in a form of

integrated cooperation. Europe is doing the same with the whole of black Africa via the Lomé Convention—which President Houphouët Boigny has called the symbol and the starting point of a new era... and one of the noblest adventures of the end of this century.

At the same time, Europe itself is developing—in spite of what people say. And current historical trends are giving increasing importance to Mediterranean Europe. Greece, whose past has linked it so closely to the Near East, will soon be one of us. Spain—that you Moroccans have marked with your culture and sometimes your blood—is hoping for closer ties with the Community. We hope that progress towards democracy will soon make this possible.

For your part, your desire to bring about Arab unity has been proclaimed. It will involve the greatest and noblest of sacrifices. You have reversed the effects of the colonial period and, in a spirit of brotherhood, are joining forces again with the peoples of black Africa. The Arab-African Conference in Dakar was a brilliant demonstration of this. It was preceded, and will be followed, by concrete decisions. Once more, Morocco, by its position and its historical tradition, has a special part to play and it is determined to play that part.

If we step back to get a clearer view, a most interesting picture emerges, where three great groups of nations—Africa, the Arab world and Europe—are determined to develop their cohesion and proclaim their desire for independence and their refusal of outside interference in spite of the vicissitudes and conflicts, the tensions and threats, and where all three groups of nations are resolutely and proudly determined to pursue their development in mutual solidarity.

Once again, the stage of statements and intentions is behind us. Triangular cooperation is a reality. Mention must be made here of the Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa, led by our remarkable friend Chedly Ayari. We, for our part, have, with the generous help of Arab funds, been able to help finance projects in the People's Republic of the Congo, in Somalia and other countries. These were projects that the authorities of the countries concerned were anxious to carry out, which were an integral part of their development plans but which would have had to be postponed without help from the Arab world and from Europe.

In the world of tomorrow, triangular cooperation has a great future, within a resolutely liberal framework." ■

The role of the press in developing countries

Is the journalist's job, like that of the doctor, the same everywhere? Or is there one press for the developing and another for the developed countries? The debate over control of information, freedom of expression, even the definition of news, soon gets heated. What emerges from it is that while the journalist's first duty everywhere is to tell the truth, the role of the press may legitimately be influenced by the state of the nation. A great national undertaking, such as development, may require the means of the press to serve particular ends.

Information is perhaps the single most important generator of development—information not only in the form of instruction or example, but factual, objective information about the changing world as it is. The importance of the press, radio and television in developing countries is fundamental, but the role of journalism is subject to different interpretations. Is the journalist's job, like that of the doctor, the same everywhere? Or is there one press for the developing and another for the developed countries?

At the conference held in Abidjan (Ivory Coast) last November by the international union of the French-speaking press (UIJPLF), journalists from some 20 countries at different stages of development examined the role of the press in developing countries. Should the press serve the national interest or the public interest? In other words (those of Laurent Dona-Fologo, Ivory Coast Minister of Information), is the journalist's first priority to help his government to "create the nation"? Or is it to provide his readers with an accurate picture of their country, and others, to enable them to make their own judgements on matters of public interest?

Proponents of the first opinion argued that as developing countries were different from developed countries, so the

role of the press was different. Where the first national priority was development, the press had not only a vital role but a duty to cement national unity and mobilise resources towards a common end. To quote President Houphouët-Boigny:

"In our African countries, if, during the struggle for political independence, the role of the press and information was to waken the conscience of the people under the admirable slogan of freedom, equality and brotherhood, it has now become the support of visible realities, concrete problems, reasonable hopes: that is to say, the press and information are now indispensable and necessary means in the peaceful battle for development... it is a matter of making the nation participate in this struggle at all social levels and in stability... of providing a clear understanding of the options and the actions of the party and the government."

Journalists who held that their job was the same in developing as in developed countries had no quarrel with "awakening the conscience of the people" and "providing a clear understanding of the options and actions" of authority, nor with the importance of the press in development. But they found it difficult to accept the implications of the

press changing its role from "awakening the conscience" to "supporting visible realities", and felt the journalist's first job was rather to reveal invisible realities—to find out the facts that matter.

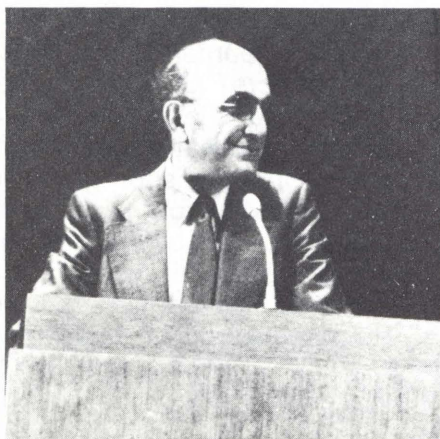
The UIJPLF journalists were nonetheless unanimous in attacking the irresponsibility of sensationalism and agreed that conflict between national, i.e. governmental, and public interest was often exaggerated by the press beyond the bounds of objectivity. Perhaps the overall consensus was that while a journalist may use the same means and hold the same professional principles anywhere in the world, there is such a thing as development journalism, and a journalist in a developing country can most usefully apply his professional means and principles to national development so as not only to allow the public to form their own opinion on what is being done in their name, but also to provide the government with the feedback of public debate.

Development journalism has been defined in both developed and developing countries; it is interesting to have the opinions of two directors of training centres for journalists, Gilbert Biwolé, of the International School of Journalism in Yaoundé (Cameroon), and John Cardownie, of the Thomson Foundation Editorial Study Centre in Cardiff (Britain). For Mr Biwolé, "the African journalist must satisfy two requirements if he is to fulfil his role as an agent of development: he must have a complete knowledge of his society, of its strengths and of its weaknesses; and he must be in complete command of his professional craft as a journalist, as well as a creator and innovator." For Mr Cardownie, "development journalism certainly involves asking the important questions—for instance, questioning the real value of a big development project. But it also involves marshalling the interest of the people themselves and encouraging them to play their own individual role towards the national goal."

For an experienced view of a complex subject, the "Courier" interviewed one of France's best-known journalists, Robert Escarpit, commentator with "Le Monde" and a director of the Bordeaux journalism centre where many journalists from developing countries have launched their careers.

Interview: Robert Escarpit

"Le monde" commentator and professor of journalism at the University of Bordeaux



Robert Escarpit at the last international conference of the french-speaking press in Abidjan

"What sort of attitude should a non-African journalist adopt to the countries of Africa? I have too much respect for African independence to give them any special treatment and I think they have the right to be criticized just like everyone else"

▶ *M. Escarpit, you are well-known as a columnist with "Le Monde" in Europe—what is your interest in African affairs?*

— It is not really the newspaper columnist who is in Africa at the moment, it's more the President of the University of Bordeaux III. As a correspondent I have covered Africa and I did sometimes ruffle the feathers of certain African politicians—and certain American and European politicians as well; that is what a columnist's work is all about and I hope they haven't taken offence—however, that's not why I'm in Africa. I'm here because for many years now I have been a university specialist on the problems of information.

▶ *During the congress you have maintained that a journalist should criticize, i.e. evaluate, the performance of his country's government. There was some quite lively opposition to this point of view, particularly from certain African ministers for information who stressed that there was a differ-*

ence between a "positive" press and a "negative" one. How do you define this difference?

— There is negative press and there is a positive press. There is the negative press of which I strongly disapprove—one or two papers whose systematic criticism borders on blackmail and calumny. This apart, I think their idea was more to talk about another sort of positive and negative, whereby journalists should primarily write about the achievements of a regime and the efforts and encouragement still needed, and refrain from mentioning any failures or mistakes. I am no judge of this. What I mean is that any political regime in an independent State can choose whatever policy it likes and, consequently, if our African friends currently in power in some of these countries think that they need that sort of press, it is not up to me to contradict them or to encourage their journalists to object. This is clearly not called for.

But this is a world-wide congress of French-speaking journalists and it is the world press that has been accused, so of

course I disagree. And very strongly too. A journalist has both the right and the duty to interfere in the affairs of another country, to say what he thinks, to disclose all that needs to be disclosed. This is something I think we all do spiritedly and honestly. We do it in our own countries—witness Watergate in the USA—and we do it to other countries—the Western press is unyielding in its criticism of the socialist block and vice versa. So what sort of attitude should a non-African journalist adopt to the countries of Africa? I have too much respect for African independence to give them any special treatment and I think they have the right to be criticized just like everyone else.

► *You also emphasized the difference between "being given information" and "being informed".*

— The difference is vital. Being given information means receiving information which forces you to adopt a certain pattern of thought. You can, of course, give information to someone by telling him things that gradually shape his way of thinking. Being informed is being able to criticize any information received and to interpret it freely and honestly. I know quite well that I will be told that in a young country, just taking shape, etc., the citizen is not sufficiently, let us say mature to cope with information in the way I have just described. This may be true, but I'm not sure that it is.

I think the absolute top priority of any government wanting to ensure the development of its country—and I am not trying to tell anyone anything here, simply stating an opinion that applies equally well to my own and to other countries—is to show the people in the first place how to interpret information, before giving them facts that the State will necessarily have vetted.

► *Do you agree that one of the aims of the press can be to form "good citizens"?*

— Yes—in the sense that, at a given moment, a country must be galvanized into a particular action. After all, French people of my generation lived through the war and we were galvanized by Radio London

and General de Gaulle. In cases like this it is obviously useful. It is useful when some great national design is to be undertaken. But none of this means that if you are committed to a specific course of action you cannot criticize any of the aspects of the situation.

► *You are intending to hold a colloquium with the ministers of information in Africa. What will you be discussing?*

— I have met a large number of African ministers of information and I must say their attitudes vary, because the regimes vary. This, as I have said, is nothing to do with me. I have nothing to say and I do not intend to interfere. Regimes differ, so attitudes are going to be different. But I must say there is one subject on which these ministers are very open and very well-informed and that is the need to produce good journalists with a proper grasp of the techniques of journalism. This is vital, whether they train them with African means in Africa or European means in Europe or even in America, I don't mind. But I do insist that when you train a journalist, you teach him the practical side of things, of course, but you also teach him to be a fundamentalist as far as the information itself is concerned—which is not intended to imply that you are supposed to turn him into a systematically angry young man. I say you should make a thinking man of him, someone who uses his grey cells. And if you ask what the African information ministers I have met think, I should answer that the vast majority have much greater confidence in software than hardware. And in everything I said at the congress I intended to stress that, although hardware is obviously important and should not be disparaged, we still have to realize that the real problem is in the assessment of the software, i.e. in the brain, in the intellect and in the ability to put information across rather than just pass it on.

► *As professor at the University of Bordeaux you have students of journalism, including some Africans. What basic principles do you teach them?*

— The same as we teach the French. They lead the same lives and do the same practical work.

► *And what sort of journalism would you like to see in Africa?*

— It is not for me to say. As I have already mentioned, it is not for me to lay down definitions.

► *But you do train young African journalists...*

— A country's press depends very largely in its political options and it is not for me to define the political options of the African countries. That is their affair and their's alone.

► *What about the technical angle then?*

— Technically speaking, the formula I would like to see adopted in all the countries of Africa is the one already used in the Ivory Coast, Senegal and one or two other places, involving a national paper in the language of communication—usually French or English in this area—plus national radio and television channels. This seems to me to be necessary.

► *Now you are talking about hardware.*

— Yes, but software comes into it. I think this structure should be accompanied by information sheets, written back-up material, however simple, plus small-scale communication systems, perhaps making prudent use of projectors or tape recorders—in any case, communication to small groups at village level or in firms and some sort of link between these various centres and the capital.

This network would mean that information could be conveyed in the native language—i.e. in the African languages, which are often too numerous for any one of them to become a widespread language of communication—although I do feel that one or two of them would well become so. I don't think that is out of the question at all. It is at local level that the native language has a part to play. ■

B.T.

Agricultural research in developing countries

by Professor D.T. EDWARDS ⁽¹⁾

Historically, one of the earliest fields of organized scientific research in the developing as well as in the developed countries, was agricultural research. Agricultural research was primarily concerned with solving technical problems of production. This orientation to production has persisted.

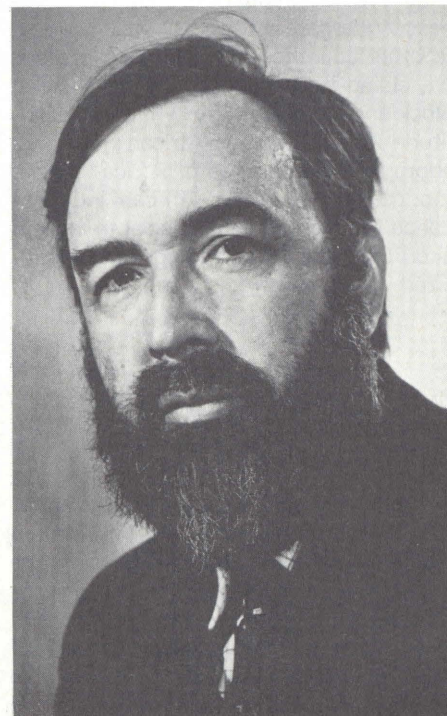
The various biological and physical sciences were applied, often in isolation, to particular problems, such as: producing a plant with improved genetic capacity or determining a crop's response to fertilizers under different ecological and climatic conditions. This preoccupation has been a weakness and the difficult problem of incorporating a single improved practice into the chain of practices making up a complete farming system has too often been left to the farmer.

The basic question—what is the purpose of agricultural research?—has been answered in different ways at different times. In the past, the answers might

have been: to solve the technical problems in growing crops and livestock, or to increase agricultural production. In recent years it has been increasingly accepted that the purpose of using public resources in agricultural research is to improve the well-being of the population, particularly that of the rural sector, through the development of agriculture. The modern conception of the role of agricultural research transfers the consideration of research priorities from the technical questions to the process of development. Research is seen as the means of producing information for decision-making, and of producing new technologies, which can help change agriculture in ways which will bring about certain intended benefits to the people and the country.

The determination of research priorities

The exercise of preparing a national agricultural research programme may well start with a much longer list of research projects than can be undertaken within a period of several years by the available resources, so that the process of identifying high priority projects will, in practice, usually involve eliminating many projects to produce a shorter list.



David Edwards

Some projects may be eliminated on the following grounds:

- the problems involved are not, in fact, researchable;
- the prospects for the success of the research projects are too low;
- there is no real possibility of the results of the research being applied, whether the causes lie at the national policy or individual farm level;
- the projects fall outside the nation's development purposes;
- although scientifically valid, and consistent with long-term development purposes, work on the projects would be premature.

Although the original lists of agricultural research projects would, in many cases, be prepared by agricultural scientists, the national planners can themselves take the initiative in setting out the rural and agricultural development objectives, and identifying constraints to development on which research might be undertaken. With the help of the agricultural scientists, research topics and

(1) David Edwards was recently appointed director of the Project Planning Centre for Developing Countries at Bradford University (Britain). He was previously Professor of Agricultural Economics and Farm Management at the University of the West Indies.

At the World Food Conference follow-up meeting of Commonwealth ministers in London last year, Professor Edwards outlined the importance of agricultural research and said it had made "disappointingly little contribution to agricultural development in general and to food production in particular in developing countries".

projects could be defined. By this means also a selective list of projects, geared to national development, could be produced.

Whichever approach is adopted, a further evaluation of the research projects on the lists is necessary. As advocated in a document at the World Food Conference, a research programme must provide for sufficient concentration on key projects, rather than only superficial attention to the projects in a far larger programme. The research project proposals remaining after the elimination of projects on "commonsense" grounds, have to be subject to evaluation on their comparative merit for development.

The determination of research priorities is not, of course, a "once and for all" exercise, but part of a continuing process. The estimates for the selected projects can be incorporated in a management system which monitors the performance in the various projects. Regular reviews, involving planners, administrators, and agricultural scientists and technologists, will allow for the revision and discontinuation of projects, and the introduction of new projects.

The level of investment in research

The FAO Secretariat, in one of the basic documents prepared for the World Food Conference in 1974, drew attention to the relatively low investment in agricultural research by all the developing countries, in comparison with the developed countries: only US\$236 million as against US\$1324 million in 1970. In relation to agricultural output (GDP), the developing countries spent, on average, only 0.25 per cent, while the average in the developed countries was, at almost 1.0 per cent, about four times as high. The document went on to propose that developing countries should increase their rate of expenditure to an average of 0.5 per cent of agricultural output, involving a projected total expenditure by the developing countries of US\$115 million in 1970, to \$200 or \$250 million (also in 1970 prices) by 1975.

It would be convenient for a developing country to know that it should spend

at the rate of at least 0.5 per cent of the value of agricultural output (GDP), on agricultural research. In practice, a sound decision on the level of expenditure on agricultural research in a country can best be taken when the planning and management of the research programme is carried out within the framework of the national plan, and the administration allows an appraisal of the prospective contributions of the proposed elements in the national programme.

Unless a country has an adequate understanding of how its needs can best be met through agricultural research, it is not well equipped to take sound decisions on offers of technical assistance for research to be conducted within its own country or whether its interests are being well served by international programmes, any more than it can properly determine its own domestic programme of research.

National regional and international research programmes

There are potential benefits from participation in regional research programmes. Amongst the most obvious are economy, by avoiding overlapping several national efforts, and the possibility of larger collaborative projects than could be justified by an individual government. At the same time, there are equally obvious problems arising from cooperation. However, the attractiveness of making better use of resources for research, or the commitment to supporting a co-ordinated regional economic policy embracing the agricultural sector, encourage the solution of these problems in fields where the prospective benefits are high.

It was argued at the World Food Conference and elsewhere that given the reality of international programmes with their enormous capacity—their huge resources, great scale of operations, and high skill—employed in the interests of the developing countries, these countries should concentrate their own, limited, research efforts on adaptive research, not only because many of the products (such as technology for high-yielding varieties) are location-specific, but also

because a considerable body of other location-specific research is required, which will be undertaken in national programmes if at all. It was also argued that national programmes have to be strong because the new technology generated outside a developing country can reach the individual farmer only through the national programme.

In examining the most serious gaps in agricultural knowledge at the World Food Conference, a distinction was made between that which would have immediate application in developing countries (including the extension of work on important food crops such as rice, and on food crops which have hitherto been neglected), and knowledge of a more fundamental character, which would be relevant globally. It was proposed that the basic research, on subjects such as genetic engineering and photosynthesis, requiring sophisticated techniques, and being long-term and costly, should be undertaken in the developed countries.

While it is accepted that developing countries are well advised to concentrate on adaptive research, their development in the long run will be prejudiced unless they build up a scientific and technological capacity which can undertake basic research that will open the way to the development and use of technologies particularly appropriate to a country's situation. The importance of the agricultural sector, the many linkages of the sector with other sectors, and the numerous connexions between agricultural and other fields of research, provide cogent reasons for undertaking agricultural research which can play its full part in contributing to the establishment of a self-reliant and innovative national scientific and technological capacity.

To conclude, the establishment of a national agricultural research programme oriented to the development of the rural sector must be a high priority in countries where no such programme exists. It provides a sense of purpose based on a stronger sense of direction for the research staff, and allows better planning and management of resources. The existence of the programme serves to identify a nation's interest in regional and international programmes, as well as providing for its needs domestically. ■

D.E.

Energy and development in Rwanda

by Gérard SAUNIER (*)

The 400% increase in oil prices in 1973 was a tremendous economic blow which affected every country in the world. The economies of the industrialized countries have been undermined and those of some of the Third World countries—the ones with oil—are flooded with petrodollars, while others—the ones without oil—are forced to look to their national resources of energy or face imminent and brutal economic strangulation.

This swing towards producing energy at home is not just a possibility in Rwanda. As I shall try to demonstrate, it is also extremely necessary and urgent. Even if the continuous outflow of currency to pay for vast quantities of petroleum products is not reason enough to opt for what amounts to energy independence, the balanced development of Rwanda would seem to demand an original energy policy combining national production along classical lines using medium or high-power units (one megawatt plus) with thousands of very small units (10–100 kW). This approach would take account of one of Rwanda's notable features—the fact that its urban population is tiny and represents only 4 or 5% of the population as a whole.

In these conditions it is possible, in spite of present delays in electrification

projects, to provide Kigali and one or two other urban centres such as Gitarama, Butare, Kibungo, Byumba, Rwamagana and Gikongoro with proper supplies in the near future, but we cannot hope to provide electricity to all the country areas and give them a new lease of life by supplying their workshops, dispensaries, schools, crop storage centres, cooperatives and irrigation networks, since the cost of such a project, both now and in the medium-term, would be far too high.

To overcome this problem we need low-power sources of energy geared to local requirements. But before developing this idea, it is interesting to see that this desire for a large number of low-power sources is not simply due to the need to be different, but an absolute necessity as far as Rwanda itself is concerned. A brief survey of the country's possibilities of producing its own high-power energy is enough to show that they would soon become inadequate.

I. Geographical survey of energy sources in Rwanda

If Rwanda wishes to avoid the over-dependence on other countries that the installation of thermal generating stations or nuclear reactors would involve, it must derive its high-power energy from hydroelectricity, methane from Lake Kivu and perhaps from geothermal sources.

Five sources of hydroelectricity are being exploited at present and they can supply some 50 m kWh per year. The 40 m kWh from Lukungwa will soon be available as well. There is a 70 kV line between Kigali and the Ntaruka dam and a 110 kV line now being completed will connect this with the Mururu line in the south, supplying Kibuye, Gitarama, Butare, Nyabisindu, Gikongoro and the Gatumba mine on the way. Demand will probably exceed 1100 kWh per year around 1980, although only 4 or 5% of the population will, in fact, be served by electricity. So this leaves seven sites with a potential capacity of 500 m kWh per year. In the year 2010, the population will be 2.8 times as big as in 1975—which means that, even if there is only a slight improvement in the standard of living, still only 10–15% of the population can hope to be supplied with electricity in 35 years time.

Although there is enough methane dissolved in Lake Kivu to provide the same amount of energy as 36 m tonnes of heavy oil, and even if the problems between Zaire and Rwanda are settled, this will never be a miracle source of energy for the rural areas. The gas is, in fact, not liquefiable at normal temperatures, since its critical point is -36°C . Furthermore, the state of the road network makes it difficult to imagine the gas being carried in refrigerated tankers and the topography of the country means that gas pipelines are out of the question. However, heavy industries—such as cement or glassworks, or chemical factories—could well be set up around Lake Kivu itself. A study of the feasibility of polymerizing light hydrocarbons from methane might open up new possibilities.

One point to mention is that if the methane is produced by the bacteriological decomposition of organic wastes discharged into the lake—i.e. if the methane is a renewable resource—then pollution from any factories round the

(*) Director of the CEAER (Centre d'Etudes et d'Applications de l'Energie du Rwanda—Centre for the study and use of energy in Rwanda).

lake would be likely to kill the goose that lays the golden egg. A slightly more expensive industrial complex on the eastern slopes of the Crête Congo-Nil would provide proper protection for Lake Kivu.

Finally, although geothermal energy is available beneath all the earth's crust, the great depths involved usually make it difficult to tap. However, there are volcanoes on the north-west frontier of the country which suggests that there might be a large and fairly easily exploitable source of such energy. To my knowledge, no studies have yet been carried out on the feasibility of producing geothermal energy in Rwanda but, even if it should prove possible, it could only be used to boost the power of the electrical supply system and would be no more useful than methane as far as supplying the rural areas is concerned.

This cursory review of the situation suggests that, if the country is to supply more or less all its own energy, the process of urbanization, which many people advocate, should not involve more than 10-15% of the population, unless vast amounts of energy are imported. It also suggests that local sources of energy to supply the rural areas must be actively sought.

II. Intermediate technology and development of groups of localities

In view of the very low national income and the very poor state of technical development over most of the country, I feel that the only short-term solution to energy production, which is the basis for any rural development, is the use of local sources of power.

There would be no need to transport the energy over long distances, always an expensive business, since the sources could be used to supply machinery for groups of localities covering one or two hills and provide energy to complement the traditional human labour.

Another advantage of spreading energy production in this way is that the machinery can be adapted to the needs and/or financial possibilities of the immediate social environment and savings can be made by removing the need to transform the energy into electricity.

But what are these local sources of energy? Generally speaking, this means solar energy, wind-driven generators, the burning of wood, and, in some cases, the production of gas from dung.

Exploitation of the three last-mentioned sources poses problems in Rwanda. Wood, the traditional fuel, has been over-exploited and is now disappearing. This has led to considerable soil erosion. The production of gas from dung is not really feasible since, traditionally, stock-farming is spread over wide areas, the animals are not usually stabled and the

collection of dung would be impossible. Wind energy is little used since, one or two areas apart (Crête Congo-Nil and micro-climates such as the Rusumo basin), there are not enough reliable sources, the northerly and southerly trades being almost non-existent near the equator.

However, to the west of the Butare-Kigali-Gabiro line, the country is very mountainous and there are many rivers with rapids and waterfalls. The country also has a large number of peat bogs (3000 m³ so far known to exist). Although the west of Rwanda, with all its rivers, gets relatively little sunshine because of the cloud cover, the east has, on average, more than 50% of the theoretical maximum amount of sunshine per year, enough to make the exploitation of solar energy a possibility.

Rwanda thus has three main sources of energy which could be used for small-scale local production units.

Still bearing in mind the very low general level of technical development and the difficulty of training large numbers of technicians in a short time, some form of intermediate technology must be envisaged if many small local units are to be set up. This approach also has the advantage of reducing the flow of currency out of the country by enabling many of the components of the equipment involved to be made and fitted on the spot.

I carried out this analysis when I first arrived in Rwanda and decided, as a result of it, to suggest to the appropriate Rwandese authorities the setting-up of the CEAER. They agreed to the idea on June 1974. The centre has three main purposes.

1. To design and construct machines that will both work on local energy and meet the needs of the country.
2. To encourage the production and installation of such machines by constructing a limited series, including one or two prototypes which will have been tested for reliability and suitability.
3. To help train students.

The five main areas of research are, in order of priority:



Drying pyrethrum flowers with peat



Weeding young tea plants in Rwanda

- solar energy;
- low-power (10-100 kW) turbines;
- peat;
- methane from Lake Kivu;
- geothermal energy.

Solar energy and small turbines have been given top priority because we are the only body in Rwanda currently studying them.

Peat and methane are already being investigated and there are two experimental production stations. One of these, in the Ruhengeri area, uses peat to dry pyrethrum flowers and the other, in Gisenyi, supplies methane to the Bralirwa brewery. Our centre is hoping to take part in limited research projects on these two sources of energy.

Geothermal energy can only be a long-term aim, since it requires specialists and financial means beyond the CEAER's present possibilities. We are only intending to carry out a preliminary assessment of possibilities in this field for the moment.

Since it was founded, the CEAER has investigated:

- solar water-heaters—including a prototype to produce 1 200 litres of hot

(40°-60°) water daily, which is already in use in the Gabiro Hotel in the national park, where it supplies six rooms. Before this, wood was always used to heat the water. If the use of heaters of this type spreads, and I have every reason to think it will, it will also help cut down wood consumption and, indirectly, prevent soil erosion. It would also have a more direct effect on the improvement of the standard of living in rural areas, if the necessary funds could be found to fit them in the many dispensaries, since hot water would make for more efficient prophylaxy. Finally, these water-heaters could provide energy for the Masson-Girardier type solar pumps that we are planning to adapt to the Rwandese climate with a view to improving the water supplies in rural areas in the east;

- a solar distiller supplying the university chemistry laboratories with distilled water. We are studying the possibility of supplying distilled water to garages to top up batteries;

- a large-capacity solar refrigerator (absorption) with a cold room of 4-6 m³. Technical difficulties, particularly the poor performance of the cylindro-parabolic receiver (18 m²), have held up completion of this apparatus. The refrigerator is designed for use in agricultural cooperatives (potato-seed preservation,

vegetable storage, etc.) where there are no qualified technicians. We have, therefore, as far as possible, ruled out the use of moving parts that are likely to wear out or break down;

- data on sunshine gathered by ISAR stations over the last 10 years. A statistical study of these data is being carried out with the help of a mathematician, two students of programming and the computer available at Bujumbura.

We are also asking agricultural specialists to see whether they think a study of sun dryers might lead to improved conditions of preservation and storage of some agricultural products.

Finally, we are hoping to join forces with a team of specialists working on the culture of algae—since this use of solar energy, via photosynthesis, is of particular interest to Rwanda. When methane is extracted from Lake Kivu the gas mixture is, on average, 75% CO₂ and 25% methane. At the moment, the CO₂ is simply released, whereas it could be used to help in the intensive growing of algae of a type that contains up to 65% protein. Some 50-60 tonnes of algae per hectare per year could be supplied.

The study of the introduction of low-power turbines began in May 1975. A group of civil engineering students studied a waterfall near the university. The installation of a very simple 20 hp turbine is planned. It will work a sorghum mill, but its main function will be as a testing ground for future installations. The main advantages of such turbines are:

- they are simple and local labour can, therefore, help install them. This cuts costs (between 5 000 and 15 000 dollars) and stimulates local interest in this source of energy;

- They can be used to power a series of different machines, using a single transmission shaft (sorghum mill, wood saw, etc.). This would help create jobs demanding few qualifications, thereby cutting down the vast unemployment among young people who own no land. A chain of small workshops could also be set up to supply nuts and bolts, etc., mass-produced on small lathes, to the towns.



Inside the Shagasha tea preparation factory, Rwanda

In conclusion, if Rwanda wants to work towards development based on its own resources and to share the benefits of this development fairly between town and country:

(1) not more than 10 or 15% of the population must live in the towns, otherwise electricity from domestic sources

will run short before the year 2010;

(2) methane from Lake Kivu and peat must be exploited as soon as possible;

(3) finally, a variety of equipment run on solar energy or low-power hydroelectricity must be studied and installed to help:

- save wood;
- improve hygiene (solar water-heater);
- supply water (solar pump);
- preserve agricultural products (solar refrigerator and dryer);
- increase production and create employment in rural areas (10-100 hp turbines). ■

Promoting the tourist trade

(from page 53)

(concentration or regionalization) and as regards the creation of employment and vocational training.

Senegal's tourist potential is increasing fast and there will be 10 000 hotel beds on the Petite Côte around 1985. Since the country does not wish to restrict itself to the so-called off-season trade—"it is always summer in Senegal"—there should be no problems attached to integrating tourism into the society as a whole. "Domestic" tourism has not been forgotten and every week the Senegalese press advertizes excursions for locals and foreign residents.

National tourism, based on the special features of the country, does not prevent Senegal being in favour of inter-State tours in collaboration with countries with which it has geo-political, historical, climatic and cultural links. The preparatory phase of concertation and discussion is over and now the sub-

region—in terms of the tourist trade— must come up with some concrete proposals and launch some joint projects that will emphasize the complementary nature of the various tourist attractions, of the countries concerned.

Senegal is happy with the contacts it has had with the trade—whose interest is seen explicitly in the offers on the European market—and wishes to continue to exploit the markets, particularly the Belgian and German markets it reaches at these fairs. It intends organizing "Senegalese weeks" later on.

Its tourist development policy seems to be successfully keeping on course and the Senegalese organizers are aware of the dangers of untrammelled growth in this sector, where the "concrete barriers" that are some hotels are too often nothing more than tourist ghettos. "Senegal has patience and will continue reflecting on, checking and adapting its tourist trade", said M. Gue. ■

R.D.B.

How projects are shortlisted

The ACP countries have many development needs which have to be shortlisted if one or two projects are to be chosen. Dieter Smith, Commission delegate in Port Louis (Mauritius), describes one method of preselection.

When a project is shortlisted for possible financing, three main questions are put:

1. What are the aims and priorities in the State's development policy that are met by this project?

2. How does it fit in with the various possibilities provided by the Lomé Convention?

3. How far does the project meet the aims of the Convention?

In order to illustrate how these criteria are applied in practice, a draft standard form is provided in annex. Let us take a project—"X"—of which this is a simplified description: "Creation of an irrigated area for tomato growing, plus setting up a small tomato concentrate production unit for local consumption and for export. Part of the capital for the factory may be sought from foreign investors."

What are the State aims and priorities met by the project? The answers reflect the economic and social priorities of each country. They often are:

- the creation of employment;
- the diversification of agriculture;
- industrialisation;

— increasing exports to bring in more foreign exchange, etc.

The next question is how the project fits in with the possibilities offered by the Convention.

— Participation in building the factory comes under the heading of rural investments.

— The water engineering for agriculture would come under structural improvements to agriculture.

— Technical studies could be financed as part of preparatory technical assistance.

— Supervision of work would come under technical cooperation linked to the particular project.

— The project could be got under way by an expert on mission.

— The necessary foreign capital could be sought via an information and industrial promotion campaign.

— Exports of the finished product could be facilitated by a trade scheme.

And the third question, on how far the project meets the aims of the Convention, might be as follows:

Title I of the Convention

The product sold on the European market would benefit from the access arrangements provided by the Convention.

The project would improve structures and working methods. It would meet the desire for improved cooperation between the EEC/ACP economic operators.

Title II

Not applicable.

Title III

The scheme would meet the desire for: the promotion of industrialization, the promotion of links between EEC and ACP industries, the increasing of links between industry and agriculture and other local industries (manufacture of packaging for example), industrial training (management staff, etc.), trade promotion, ACP nationals to be encouraged to contribute to the development of industry (e.g. local participation in the factory capital).

Title IV

The project would meet the aims of stepping up national income, creating better balanced economic relations, a greater participation in world trade and the diversification of the economic structures, etc.

Thus, starting from the criterion of compatibility with a country's development policy and by using a chart of the technical possibilities provided by the Convention, it is possible to see how useful a project is as far as the aims of the Convention are concerned. At the same time, the economic characteristics of the projects give an idea as to which methods of financing would be suitable.

Standard form for preselection of a provisional programme of projects to be financed by the EEC under the Lomé Convention

Aims of the Convention				Aims and priorities of the ACP country's development policy				Anticipated methods of financing				
Title I	Title II	Title III	Title IV	I. STARTING POINT				Estimated costs	Grant	Loan on special terms	EIB loan	Risk capital
Details												
4. CROSS CHECK				I. STARTING POINT								
Sectors to which aid may be given												
				List of projects								
				Investment in the sector of								
				agriculture								
				industry								
				energy								
				tourism								
				economic + social infrastructure								
				Improvements to agricultural structure								
				Technical cooperation								
				linked								
				general								
				Industrial information and promotion								
				Marketing and sales promotion								
				Small and medium-sized firms								
				Microprojects								
				Regional projects								

2. COURSE

TOGO

EDF day at the Tové School of Agriculture

A one-day study session on the Lomé Convention and the schemes financed by the European Development Fund was run for the pupils of the Tové School of Agriculture at the beginning of this year. The idea came from Saada Kankarti, Head of the Tové Agricultural Professional Training Centre and René Teissonnière, EEC delegate to the Togolese Republic.

The event was planned by the students themselves and their economics instructor, Germain Bertrand, EDF technical assistant.

Students from the second year (when the accent is on economics) examined the agricultural schemes financed by the EDF in Togo—a poultry farm in Baguida, a peasant settlement scheme in the Kadjalla region in the north of the country, an animal-drawn tillage operation and the National Oil Palm Association (SO-



The Tové National School of Agriculture

NAPH). They also looked at financing and the various stages a project goes through from the original idea to actual implementation.

René Teissonnière explained the Lomé Convention in detail (non-reciprocal trade advantages; stabilization of export earnings; financial, industrial and technical cooperation) and this was followed by a broad discussion of the practical means of implementing the Convention.

The participants were particularly interested in the motivation and the whole conception of the Convention, in the cost of technical assistance and in how the agreements would be implemented

in Togo in the future. The answer to this was that the Convention would be what the EEC and the ACP countries made of it and, in Togo, it would be what Togolese cadres—like those being trained at Tové—made of it.

There was also a display of documents (photographs and press-cuttings) on the Lomé Convention. The whole session gave the participants an idea of the main points of the Convention which will, to a large extent, determine Togo's relations with the industrialized countries and be a key factor in its development. ■

N.Y. BÉTHÉDÉ

Diplomat and poet

We have received the second issue of *L'Etoile et la Clef*, the poetry/literature review founded by Raymond Chasle and a group of other writers.

Poetry, the highest literary expression of emotional and intellectual sensitivity, is impenetrable enough to most people. Raymond Chasle's poetry is "new" as the *nouveau roman* is "new". If he is to understand and enjoy it, the reader must be poetically illiterate—that is to say he must rid himself of all classical notions of poetry. Only thus can he derive real pleasure from a poem such

as *Transversal le regard*, which bears no apparent relation to the inherited forms of French poetry.

Like Ferdinand Oyono, novelist and one-time Cameroonian Ambassador to Brussels, or Pablo Neruda, Raymond Chasle, poet, minister-plenipotentiary and chief of Mauritius' Brussels Mission, is one of that rare company of great diplomats who has found literary fame.

L'Etoile et la Clef also includes poems by Francis Che-not, Jean-Claude d'Avoine, Werner Tsang and other writers, among them Jean-Paul Nyunai, the as yet little known Cameroonian poet whose *Les Caravelles de juillet*—in a rough translation by B.T.—is reproduced below. L.P.

JEAN-PAUL NYUNAI

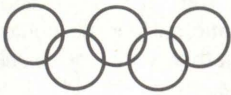
The Caravels of July

I shall never be free of you, my proud caravels of July
 HOE! HOE! Fernao do Poo, Hoe!
 Like the fingers of this mango root
 Groping obstinately in the nourishing soil
 Like the watch-tower's eye above its steel neck
 Stabbing the night with its beak of light
 Like the sorcerer's scalpel
 Sliding back with a caress on the fainting wound
 Here always in this corner of the planet EARTH
 Always the same
 The memory is driven in up to the hilt
 Always deeper
 Always the memory, centuries old already,
 I remember the caravels of July
 As gentle as sea-perch under the conquistador's ferule.
 Ha!
 The sea was palm oil and the gulf was wide
 As a throat open to the heart of the country
 Like a foretaste of the colours of the capstan
 Teased by the east wind in shades of indigo
 On tiptoe among the mangroves
 Jumping like the pink prawns
 Camaroes! Camaroes!
 Always it returns, the memory of the caravels of July
 And it was a collision between worlds
 And it was the betrothal of the dawn and the sunset
 And we have hoisted our hearts to the summit of the stars
 And our fingers have touched a thousand suns
 A thousand moons
 A thousand firmaments
 And we have crossed a thousand oceans
 And we have followed the triumphant wake of the caravels
 To cram our mouths
 This garland of gold and this lace of counters
 Skin-bloom of the surf of cargoes
 Congo, Sao Tomé
 And further off, Angola, Bab el Mandeb

And out there, Calcutta and the Galapagos
 And the Sargasso Sea rich in all the sugar-canes
 Ah, captain!
 What a MAN you show me
 With your bandolier of thunder to charm the gentle folk
 And your laughter that hurled the anchor beyond the seas
 And your forehead as huge as Kilimanjaro
 In sooth, the caravan driver's steel fingers
 White beneath the blue of this djellaba
 Defy the desert
 For they are as the crossbowman's eager quarrels
 When the night is come the rock itself
 Snaps its teeth—you didn't know?—
 Even if the musketeer sometimes imposes silence on us
 With shots like husks—I accept—
 I already accepted!
 For the scent of saffron rose to us then
 From the thousand and one kebabs where the rubies ripened
 The rubies of all the oases
 Of all the paradises
 Yours
 Mine
 Already ours
 Yes without doubt
 My sweetheart, I will be there on time at the trysting place
 I want to say to you AMEN
 With all my soul
 With all my mind
 For I feel that I, in turn, I love you O ADVENTURE.

Douala, July 26 1975.

In July 1472 the Portuguese captain Fernao de Poo discovered Cameroon. And it was the beginning of a prodigious adventure.



MONTREAL 1976

A strong ACP turn-out for the Olympics

Mike Boit (Kenya)

The 1972 Munich 800 m gold medalist will be one of the favourites for this event in Montreal

Despite the various difficulties and hitches in preparation, the 1976 Olympic Games will be held as planned in Montreal (Canada) in July and August. The organisers and the Canadian National Olympic Committee have been working flat out to make sure that everything is ready for opening day, July 17.

The ACP countries will be represented in greater force in Montreal than at either of the two previous Olympiads in Munich and Mexico. There have been no complications over the conditions of accepting ACP teams in Canada since the Munich events, and in the opinion of Jean-Claude Ganga, Secretary-General of the CSSA (Higher African Sports Council): "the new chairman of the International Olympic Committee has not so far given any occasion to suspect him of the same failings" as his predecessor, Avery Brundage. So it looks as though the athletes from Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific will be taking part in the true Olympic spirit and atmosphere.

They have been making good preparations for the Games. Since sports facilities are not as well developed in the ACP as in the industrial countries, many ACP competitors, especially the Afri-



cans, have been rounding off their build-up by training and competing in pre-Olympic meetings in Europe. African athletes have been taking part in a number of competitions in France and West Germany.

In Berlin, world 800 m record-holder Mike Boit of Kenya and John Akii-Bua of Uganda, gold medalist in the 400 m hurdles at Munich, distinguished themselves in a recent match against the Germans. Senegalese athletes were also at the meeting. In Stuttgart, Annum and Afriyie of Ghana won the women's 100 m in 11.5" and 11.6", while Oshikoya of Nigeria cleared 5.98 m to win the women's long-jump, followed by Mensah of Ghana (5.91 m).

As we indicated in our last issue, athletics is the best hope for the ACP in Montreal. Among the front runners are still Filbert Bayi of Tanzania, Mike Boit of Kenya and John Akii-Bua of Uganda, while the 25-year old Jamaican Don Quarrie, already world 200 m record-holder at 19.81" (manual and electronic timing), has joined eight other current 100 m world record-holders at 9.9" (manual). Quarrie burst through the 10.0" barrier for the first time recently to match the time recorded by Hines, Green, R.R. Smith (1968), Hart, Robinson ('72), S. Williams ('74), Leonard and



John Akii-Bua (Uganda), gold medalist in the 400 m. hurdles in Munich in 1972: one of the big African hopes for Montreal

From the Munich net to the Montreal balloon

Aerial view of the Montreal Olympic stadium which cost a lot more than the original estimate but will be ready on opening day July 17

Glance ('76)—“the fastest men in the world”.

Quarrie's run was on a cinder track; on a synthetic surface he could be even faster. Together with the black Americans, these men should electrify the sprints and middledistance events at least as much as they did in Munich.

It is noticeable that most of the best ACP athletes are from English-speaking countries. Do these countries have a more efficient approach to sport? The question is worth asking and maybe something useful could be learned from the answer. ■

L.P.

SHADOWS...

News from Nairobi (Kenya) has nonetheless thrown something of a shadow over the organisation of the Games. Following the recent meeting there of the executive committee of the CSSA (Higher African Sports Council), CSSA chairman Abraham Ordia is reported to have threatened to boycott the Montreal Olympics if the New Zealand rugby team, the All Blacks, tour South Africa.

The CSSA, according to its charter and the Olympic charter, opposes racist practices such as South African sport involves, notably by boycotting all events including South Africa or other countries maintaining sporting or cultural relations with South Africa (see "Courier" n° 37, May-June 1976).



BOOKS

Marceau RIVIÈRE. — **"Les chefs-d'œuvre africains des collections privées françaises"** (African masterpieces from the private French collections) — Editions Philbi, 23, rue St.-Croix-de-la-Bretonnerie, 75004 Paris, 1975 — One volume 21x28 cm, 173 pages.

Whether they be speculators or snobs, interested in ethnography or in love with aesthetic expression in general or African art in particular, the collectors of the masks, figures and other objects in this work can consider themselves fortunate indeed to own such masterpieces of black art. Marceau Rivière, an Africa fanatic concerned with archaeological investigations in Africa and himself a collector of traditional art, has used his personal contacts to borrow the various pieces which he presents to us in the book.

The illustrations, in colour and in black-and-white, are of high quality and the captions provide a short description in English, French and German, including the geographical origin and the size of the piece.

Although the presentation and the mere fact of having brought out such a work have been acclaimed by both connoisseurs and the wider public interested in finding out about African art, the author's interpretation of his material has not been accepted by everyone. Is this an art form which is closely linked "to both spiritual and everyday life in Africa", as Rivière suggests, or, as M'Bow claims, does it show "the creative spirit through which man expresses his sensitivity and his artistic sensibility"? Both at once, no doubt.

It is clear that interpretation of these masks and fetiches will depend upon whether they are seen in their natural surroundings—the African village—or in a museum or private collection where they are simply on display. It is important to remember that the author has seen and discovered such objects on the spot as an archaeologist and ethnographer and has reached the conclusion that the black artist is concerned with the functional nature of his work. A work of art may have a ceremonial or ritual function but is never a purely aesthetic object. A.M.M. Bow, Director-General of UNESCO, suggests, in his preface, that the pieces are more examples of African art "with a classical respect for form, a profound sense of

rhythm and an extra dimension created by the patina of time and the constant caress of the hands of believers on religious objects".

Where does utility end and art begin?

ooo

Yves BERTHELOT and Giulio FOSSI. — **"Pour une nouvelle coopération"** — (Towards a new form of cooperation). IEDES, Collection Tiers Monde, Presses Universitaires de France, 90, Bd Saint-Germain, 75005 Paris, 1975 — pp. 152, FF40.

There has been some serious thinking recently about cooperation, a topic generally considered to be part of the international relations field. More and more international meetings are being held and cooperation policies are being reviewed—the British White Paper, the Germans' 25 points and the report on French development policy, for example.

The authors are aware of the need to revise relations between developed and developing countries, and they examine facts and trends in aid policies adopted by one or two of the major sources of aid in recent years. Both have considerable experience as experts with cooperation organizations and they are convinced that cooperation between countries is an essential and a good thing. They assess the policy and the form of aid granted so far and stress how different things could be if there were better conditions for cooperation.

They are clearly optimistic, but they are no believers in overnight changes. They want the people involved to realize what is at stake and to arrive at the stage where they have the political will

to cope with the problems. The trade sector is the one most directly involved if a fairer distribution of wealth is to be brought about. "Trade not aid" is still their byword and they consider trade to be the motive force of development.

A discussion of the key factors of development such as agriculture and industry, which are closely linked, infrastructure and education, is not intended to outline a theory for development but to provide a basis for concrete proposals in the field by indicating the possible usefulness and potential of external aid.

Migration, which the authors divide into three main categories—migrant workers, the brain drain and technical assistance—is of real value as far as cooperation is concerned, but should be thought of and used more positively, they say. If, in fact, it were considered as an exchange, it would be of mutual benefit to both developing and developed countries.

Public opinion, which partly shapes government policy, should have access to accurate and straight forward information on the present state of the developing countries so as to be able to press for the necessary changes in cooperation policy.

The authors conclude by taking an analysis of the changing situation as a basis for proposals—of which a large number are included in the Abelin report, Yves Berthelot having been one of the original team that produced it. He and Giulio Fossi invite us to reflect on cooperation between various categories of countries from the ultra-rich to the ultra-poor. Their aim is in no way to cast doubt on the need for such cooperation, but, rather, to express their belief in the need to bring about far-reaching improvements, which will be for the future good of everyone.

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