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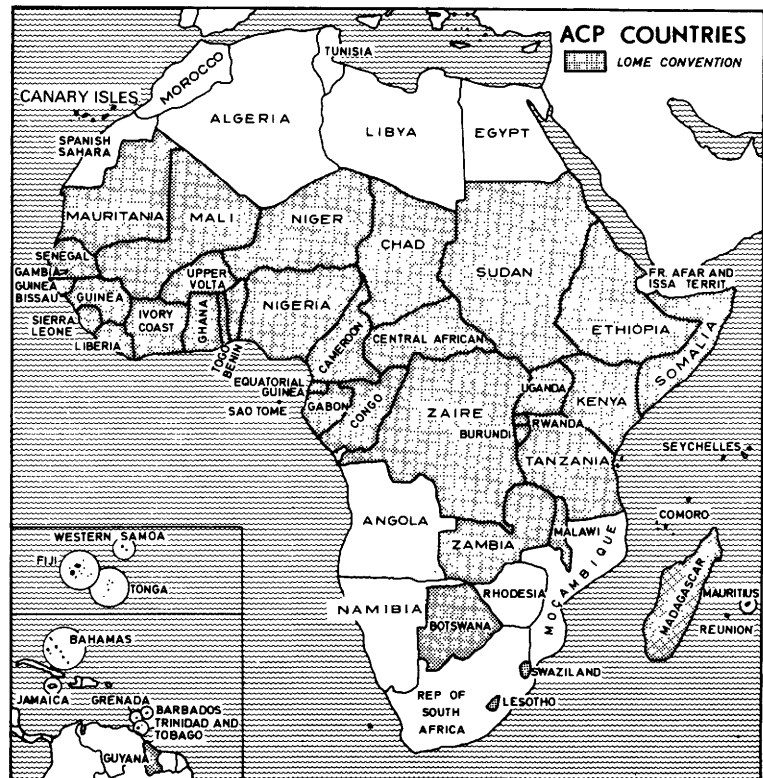
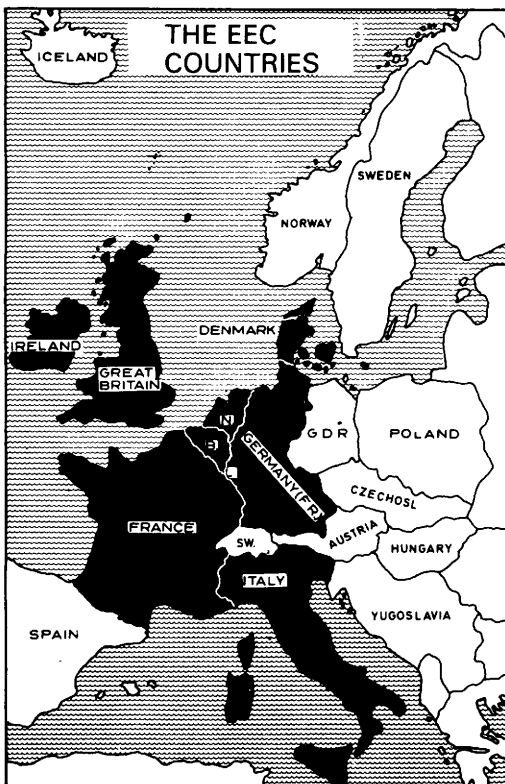
**TROPICAL
FORESTRY**

THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

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

THE ACP STATES

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



Madagascar — Like most African countries, Madagascar celebrated independence again this year, its 16th anniversary. Since this accession to international sovereignty, Madagascar has undergone a good deal of internal economic and political development. The Republic has been proclaimed and Didier Ratsiraka, the new head of state, and his government are now concentrating on economic development to meet the priority needs of the population before aiming at exports. **Page 3**



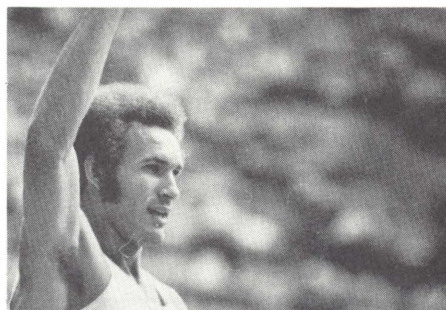
Mauritius — This is one of three independent island states in the Indian Ocean, the other two being Madagascar and the Comoros. They are all members of the OAU and the Mauritian Prime Minister, Sir Seewoosagur Ramgoolam, will head the organization until mid-1977. The country's economy, although dependent on sugar cane, is expanding regularly, thanks mainly to the tourist trade, which is making considerable strides. Mauritius signed the Yaoundé Convention and is now party to Lomé, which the Prime Minister considers will ensure progress. **Page 10**

Dossier — While the industrialised world is waging ecological war to save rural areas that are in danger of being wiped out by the advance of expanding industry, the developing countries are cutting down their immense forests, timber being, for some of them, one of the export products covered by the Stabex. The threat is a very real one. The "Courier" looks at how the situation is likely to develop and considers the future of the tropical forestry. **Page 32**



Developing country topics — Fiji, Samoa and Tonga are the most distant from the majority of the ACP states. These Pacific islands are not yet well known to their European and other ACP partners. But their charm is famous and it has given Fiji one of its main sources of income—the tourist trade. **Page 60**

Sport — After the excitement of the Olympic Games in Montreal, the future of this decreasingly universal sports meeting is in the balance. Money and politics have always entered into it, but now they are ruling the day. Will Moscow 1980 be the end of the Olympic Games as we know them? **Page 78**



THE COURIER

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY —
AFRICA - CARIBBEAN - PACIFIC

No. 40 — November-December 1976

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Tropical wood: present difficulties but a promising future

Forests cover one third of the land surface of the world. They are an immense and renewable natural resource which plays a vital part in our ecology. Developing countries have 55% of world forests yet, in 1973, they only produced something like 16% in value of world forestry exports. Why is this?

The exploitation of the forests has long revolved around the most profitable types of wood and development has been concentrated on the coasts and along the better transport routes. Generally speaking, too few types of wood are marketed and too little is known about those that are not. Research into forestry products therefore needs to be developed and, in particular, improvements need to be made to the productivity of tropical forests by assessing and preserving genetic resources. If full benefit is to be reaped from the tropical forests, methods of production must be improved to bring about more rational exploitation, better marketing techniques must be used and new markets must be opened up.

New markets should, theoretically, be relatively easy to find, since, in spite of the economic crisis, the demand for wood in the medium term is rising rapidly the world over. For instance, FAO estimates suggest that, if current trends continue, world consumption of wood pulp and paper will almost double over the next 10

years. In this case, the developing countries should already be feeling well placed to take advantage of the rising demand. But they are not and at best they still only have about 5% of world pulp and paper production capacity.

There are various reasons for this. The factors involved are often similar to those conditioning industrial investments in other sectors—the high capital outlay required and the poor level of technical skill and inadequate structures in the host country, which tend, moreover, to be a long way from the main consumer centres. But there is one reason specific to the timber industry itself—the techniques commonly used at the moment were evolved to produce pulp and paper from types of wood that usually grow in developed countries in the temperate zone. However, the situation is changing and new techniques mean that pulp and paper can be made from tropical woods. Furthermore, new-style factories are being discussed. They would be geared to the needs of the developing countries: they would be cheaper, smaller and integrated into development planning in the country in question with a view, for example, to helping with the decentralization of industry.

In the long and medium term, ACP countries in the tropical zone should not be badly placed. Eight ACP countries accounted for

88% of African exports in 1973. However, there are serious problems linked to the 1974/75 recession. The building sector, which consumes a large amount of timber, has been very much affected by the economic situation and the tropical wood market has gone through fairly frequent crises itself due, for example, to the accumulation of stocks when the building trade in certain countries has slowed down. The recent crisis has been particularly serious because of the general recession in the world economy. After the period of considerably expanded production which began in 1972, a problem of outlets arose in early 1974 and this led to a number of sites being closed down. Thus, various ACP exporters have qualified for compensation from the Stabex, one of the major innovations of the Lomé Convention. A large share of the first Stabex payments went to the ACP timber sector.

For some years now, the Community has been running cooperation schemes aimed at promoting lesser-known types of wood on the European market and boosting collaboration between African producers and European consumers. The ACP are well aware of the need for better cooperation since, in spite of an improving economic situation in 1976, the difficulties are still there. Although the tropical wood market seems to be picking up, it is not easy to adapt supply to increasing demand from buyers who will not readily agree to the rising prices of both African and Asian producers. This is why at the end of May 1975, 15 French-speaking and English-speaking countries of Africa set up the OAB (African organization of wood-producing countries) which might well start a Euro-African collaboration scheme in the first half of 1977. ■

MADAGASCAR

New state institutions and economic development

An interview with Captain Didier Ratsiraka, President of the Republic

Captain Didier Ratsiraka, President of the Democratic Malagasy Republic, tells the "Courier" at length about the new machinery of government and the means and ends of his country's economic and social development.

► *Over the last few years, your country has been looking for its cultural, social and economic identity in new fields. How far does the charter of the socialist revolution adopted at the referendum on 21 December 1975 provide the principles for this sort of action?*

— This is not an easy question. I would just like to say that our charter lays down independence for Madagascar in all sectors. This partly answers your question. And our people, the nation as a whole, 94/95% of it, adopted the charter. This is also an answer. Political independence—plus, of course, economic and cultural independence—is the by-word of our red book, the charter of Madagascar's socialist revolution. Our little red book lays down the principles for action in all sectors.



Didier Ratsiraka

► *You have been chief of state and head of both the Supreme Revolutionary Council and the government since 15 June 1975. The referendum of 21 December 1975 also made you President of the Republic and approved the Constitution and its three main institutions: the People's National Assembly, the Supreme Revolutionary Council and the Malagasy Government. How has the state machinery run since then?*

— First and foremost, the State has been run without the help of the People's National Assembly, for the reason that the Constitution says we have a period of 18 months in which to set it up. Since the end of 1975, the Supreme Revolutionary Council, a body which devises, guides and supervises government action, has been in existence. It gives directives and the government has to implement them. That is to say, it has to translate them into operational terms whatever directives the Council decides to give all or some of the government departments. In the old government—of which I was part—there was no special body to devise policy and, in practice, each minister thought up the policy in his particular field. This was a very bad thing. We must have coordination and even if things aren't yet working to our complete satisfaction, they are nevertheless very much better now that there are people with the time to think beyond immediate and everyday problems. Now there are people who can think about the overall policy of the country, whereas, in the old days, I was one of the only ones to take an overall view, because I had to travel between Tananarive and Paris and Paris and New York and I had the time to think about all this while other people had to get on with coping with the immediate problems. I had a bit of time and it occurred to me that we really did need some sort of body that

would be outside the day-to-day discussion of immediate problems and in a position to work out some sort of comprehensive strategy. The idea is by no means perfect, but it does help a lot. Then again, when problems crop up here and there, we don't always have to send a minister—who has plenty of other things on his plate—and we can quite well detail a member of the Supreme Council, acting on a political basis, to deal with everyday problems in the various government departments.

The Fokonolona and the Ujamaa

► *Madagascar's new Constitution and social revolutionary charter mention the Fokonolona, the traditional Malagasy community. We talk about this abroad without knowing much about it. Can you tell us briefly what it is and just how it contributes to the development of your country?*

— Yes. The Fokonolona is a traditional village community whose function is changing radically at the moment. Once upon a time it was a village community which provided mutual help in times of disaster, misfortune and bereavement. People helped each other. There was nothing formal about it, but people helped each other much as they do in a family. Rather like the Ujamaa in Tanzania, if you see what I mean. We think this is a very good thing, although we still need to broaden its scope. The Fokonolona should not confine itself to social aid. We think it should be the unit on which Madagascar's social revolution is based—which means it must be given specific duties, a part to play and a more comprehensive function in security, the economy, cultural affairs, public health and local agricultural micro-projects. This has very little to do with the old Fokonolona.

Class rather than race rivalry

► *The foreign press seems to suggest that Madagascar's difficulties are due to rivalry between the different populations in the various parts of the island. Is this still true today?*



Planting out rice...

and harvesting it



— Far too much has been made of this rivalry. In France, for example, there are the Bretons and the Auvergnats and the Alsacians and the Basques, but their struggles have not been politicised. This is why we look at the problem in terms of class and not race. As far as I'm concerned, it's a class problem which has been crystallized into a race problem. It is a class problem because the people of Madagascar have always risen against domination from all sources, whether it has been one region dominating another or a foreign power dominating the country as a whole or, by force of circumstance, one racial group dominating another. There is a relationship here. This is how we see it. Our people can only be united if social justice is widespread. Take a family where the eldest child has a higher degree and the youngest only a primary school certificate. How can you expect there to be any unity of ideas or conception or even any understanding between them, even though they do belong to the same family? You can't say they come from two different races. They are from different classes. They can't even talk together for more than half an hour. The colonialists developed some regions more than others—for very obvious reasons. For example, the Tananarive-Tabatave road was not a good economic proposition, but, strategically speaking, it was useful to get to Reunion. It is obvious that colonialisation developed some regions more than others and this has exacerbated the ethnic—or racial—problem, although, as far as I'm concerned, the problem is a class problem. If we can apply the principles of the red book, we will be able to reduce and maybe cut out social and regional inequality altogether. We should no longer be talking about ethnic rivalry.

Educational reform

► *The general aim of this reform was to democratise the education system and tailor it to specifically Malagasy needs. How is this being done?*

— It is being done comprehensively and within the national and international framework which we have here in Mad-

agascar. The reform has to be comprehensive and international because you know how turbulent our part of the world is and this has implications even for teaching. At purely national level, all sectors are equal—with the exception of agriculture, which is a priority sector—although we are aiming to get the maximum number of children at school in the minimum amount of time.

We are doing our best with what we ourselves have available and we use foreign means whenever the opportunity arises. Our basic plan, for example, is to provide schooling for one million children. This is no small matter. When you think—48% of the population is under 20. We lack management staff, we lack teachers and we lack classrooms. But we are doing our best with what we have available. That is why we have generalised national service, for example, and enrolled youngsters who have left school or not yet gone on to specialised studies. I don't say the system is perfect as yet, but we are only just beginning and I hope we will eventually succeed. So, we are introducing national staff—either by giving jobs to nationals who have trained abroad or at home or via national service. As far as democratisation is concerned, we are trying to ensure that all children in Madagascar, regardless of who, where or what they may be, can go to school.

Our only enemies are Africa's enemies

► *Madagascar's foreign policy is an open one based on peaceful co-existence and non-alignment. What are the main results of this policy so far?*

— The EDF, for example. When I came to power in June 1975, people were never tired of saying that I was a rabid nationalist and an extremist who hated foreigners. They said no-one would want to invest, the rich countries would turn their backs on us and so on. We have tried to prove the opposite. Since then, I think we have, nonetheless, managed to attract a certain amount of capital—particularly international capital—from the ADB, ABEDIA, the EDF,

FAC, the IBRD, the UNDP and so on. And we even have one or two bilateral cooperation schemes going with some of the Arab countries.

If you are asking about politics pure, I don't think I am the judge of Madagascar's influence on the outside world. You are better placed to say. All we are saying is that we are militant non-aligners within the OAU and that we are making ourselves heard at the United Nations. We have tried out diplomatic relations with various countries in the East, West, North and South. All I can tell you is that we have practically no enemies—except Africa's enemies. So, as far as I am concerned, this open policy is a good thing and one of the success stories of our national policy.

Economic problems and nationalisation

► *Can we move on to economic matters—what sort of role does private enter-*

Market scene in Madagascar



Air Madagascar

prise, under both national and foreign firms, play in the country's economy?

— If you don't mind my saying so, it plays a subversive role. Although perhaps I needn't go quite so far as that. You know, we have nationalised various sectors, but it was an essential move and by no means nationalisation for nationalisation's sake. We couldn't have states within the State. There used to be one or two big firms with turnovers almost half the size of our national budget. We couldn't have that in an independent country. Secondly, when you are in a position of strength, you are always tempted to use it. When you have enormous means at your disposal, you are always tempted to use them and, of course, you use them to further your own ends. So, imagine foreign and national private firms with a turnover of up to twenty or thirty million. The slightest attack on their interests will make them turn round and turn things to their own advantage—and we know what that would involve. That is why we had to nationalise certain transnational and multinational companies. As regards private enterprise in Madagascar, the red book makes it quite clear that we accept it—only outside the key sectors of the economy. This ties up with what I said earlier. Of course the State can't do everything private enterprise does. It can't run corner shops and hairdressers and small businesses. Private firms exist, they will always exist and there is nothing we can do about it.

► *Your population has doubled in 30 years and the figures put the growth rate as somewhere between 2.5 and 3%. Isn't this a little fast, bearing in mind the country's possibilities, and are you planning a population control programme of the sort they have in other countries in the Indian Ocean?*

— Not for the moment. As far as current possibilities are concerned, perhaps we should do, although when you look at our potential, things are very different. Our country is bigger than France, Belgium and the Netherlands put together and it can very well support 60 million people instead of the 10 million we have

at present, because of the enormous potential offered by its natural resources. However, we do need population control in the immediate future. This is no small matter and things cannot be changed overnight—look at the problems India is having at the moment. A better solution would be to push up our production and productivity. This would be helping our own people and perhaps, if we push up exports, it will help other countries as well.

yield and, for example, double the present output of 1.8 to 2 t per ha and make it 4 t perhaps, the possibilities are clearly considerable.

► *Rice is the staple food of Madagascar, which consumes something like 130-140 million kg per year. Your newspapers recently mentioned the "battle" for rice. I know you have made an enormous effort to develop rice production and cut out imports in the near future. Are you already covering*

problems next year. We should no longer need to import rice. Of course, this does depend on there being no natural disasters. These are an unknown quantity.

So we produce about two million tonnes from our one million hectares and we market an average of 150 000 tonnes every year. The low figure is mainly due to communication difficulties and the problem of collecting the rice.

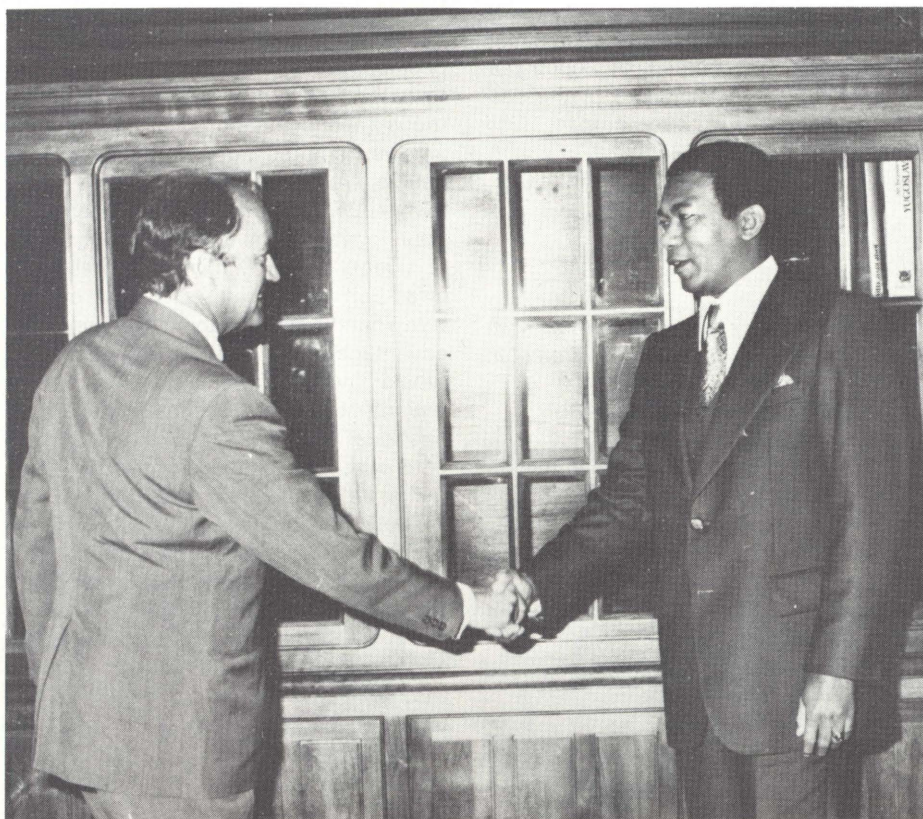
► *Now a question about stock-raising. Madagascar has a considerable number of livestock, although stock-farming only represents a small percentage of the national income. What plans do you have for pushing this up?*

— We will improve on this percentage by ranching, setting up state farms, industrial slaughterhouses and, perhaps, by producing preserved meat. I think we already have a couple of canning plants that handle tinned meat—I believe it's called "monkey" in the army. We are trying to improve on this. We used to sell mainly live animals, but this isn't very profitable or very economical. In fact it was a mistake. We also think we can use the skin, bones, blood and everything else, in the shoe industry or to make animal feed. This is how we shall develop this sector.

► *And what about mining? You have chromite, marble, graphite, mica and gold and research has revealed deposits of bauxite, nickel, chromium and so on. Are you planning to exploit these in the near future?*

— What do you mean by near future? That depends on the EDF, the IBRD and other international bodies, and they are being a bit reticent for the moment. But only for the moment. That is because our bauxite deposit is a fairly unusual one and needs to be sluiced out first. It's not like bauxite from Boké or Fria(1) which is almost pure and always easy to extract. The cost of our bauxite is going to be a bit high for the time being. But we are hopeful. I am sure that in the long run the extraction process will be improved or we shall see the costs of production and exploitation go up elsewhere. A question of priority arises with the other mineral deposits. We are back-

(1) In Guinea.



Claude Cheysson was received by President Ratsiraka during his official visit to Madagascar in September 1976

Agriculture and other natural resources

► *Overpopulation is relative. It is the population / subsistence ratio that counts. If one matches the other, then there is no problem.*

— Yes, of course. When you think that at the moment, we have one out of a potential three million hectares of rice under cultivation. If we can improve our

your own needs? Don't poor communications interfere with the marketing of rice and other products in general?

— They probably don't affect marketing, but they certainly do affect rice collection. You ask whether we can supply our own needs. Of course we can't. The rice battle slogan was only launched a few months ago, and it takes four or five months of cultivation to get real results. I don't expect us to have any

ing agriculture as the basis of our development and we shall be coupling light industry, and perhaps heavy industry later on, to agriculture. So if deposits are of non-ferrous metals, for example, and not directly linked to agricultural production or productivity, they aren't our number one priority for the time being. And nickel has nothing to do with agriculture—or if it does, the link isn't obvious—whereas iron does. We are going to develop along these lines.

► *How is the oil prospecting going?*

— I am expecting the latest results any minute. We get periodic reports on what is going on. We had one last year. You know, the transnationals that do the research are pretty discrete, so we have set up a state organization to do a bit of supervision. I am waiting for the report now. What I do know, though, is that, according to what they told me last year, we've got two deposits of heavy oil to the south-west of Madagascar.

Photo Opticam



Marshland transformed into paddy fields near Laniera

Flood wall on the river Ikopa



Photo CEF

They did tell me that they would be operational in 1980. I don't know if that's still the case. As for oil shale—fortunately, or unfortunately, the price of oil hasn't gone up enough for us to be able to make the most of it, but it's still a potential resource.

▶ *You have made it clear that priority has been given to agriculture, but what do you think should be the ideas behind industrial development?*

— I answered this question when I said we were trying to create "industrialising" industries around agriculture. We want a snowball effect. We develop agriculture and agriculture needs machinery, so we develop industry. If you mechanise and modernise agriculture, you push up agricultural production, you accumulate capital and you gradually build up heavy industry as well.

▶ *They support each other.*

— That's it.

The Lomé Convention respects national sovereignty

▶ *Mr Krohn led an EEC programming mission out to Madagascar in May and, more recently, you had a visit from Mr Cheysson. Can you tell us briefly what you expect the Lomé Convention to do for your country?*

— We hope it will give aid to enable us to do without aid. The Lomé Convention provides substantial aid, I agree, and it is particularly valuable in that it leaves our national sovereignty and our national susceptibilities alone. This is most important. You know we can get aid from elsewhere but the political terms are such that we prefer to do without it. I can't give you details—but it has happened. Multilateral aid, like we get from the EDF, is exactly what we want at the present time. Of course, we'd like more of it—but the most beautiful girl in the world can only give you what she's got. For the moment we are satisfied with the programming mission and we are going to move fast now that we have only four and not five years as in the past. ■

Interview by
ALAIN LACROIX

Cheysson in Antananarivo

Claude Cheysson gave a new definition of the EEC policy to help the economic development of the ACP countries under the Lomé Convention in September.

The EEC commissioner was speaking in Antananarivo (Madagascar) and the following is an extract from the report carried on 2 September by the national daily "Madagascar-Matin":

'Mr Cheysson said: "We in West Europe have approached a group of countries, consisting of all the OAU countries south of the Sahara and others in the Caribbean and the Pacific, and we are negotiating with the Middle East. These countries have different political systems. Development is the choice of a people. It is not up to European experts to cobble it together from various bits and pieces. We want to help you to increase trade between the developing countries, as you decided at Colombo."

After this summary sketch, "Madagascar-Matin" reported, Mr

Cheysson spoke more specifically about Madagascar. 'He said an indicative programme of projects to be financed by the EDF in Madagascar had been drawn up in Tananarive in May 1976 and the Community was to provide 19 000 million Malagasy francs, as a grant over four years.

Of this sum, 47% would go to rural development, in accordance with the wishes of the Madagascar government, while the rest would go to infrastructure and social projects, and study and training grants.'

Mr Cheysson with Mr Rakotovoao-Razakaboana, Minister of Finance and the National Plan, after signing a financing agreement. Seated (l. to r.): Messrs Nicora, Scheiber (Commission delegate to Madagascar) and Adrianarahinjaka (minister-counsellor to the Presidency)



MADAGASCAR

The Malagasy Republic, often called the big island—it is the fifth largest in the world—faces south-east Africa across the Mozambique Channel. It covers a total area of 590 000 km², is 1580 km long, 600 km wide and is orientated south—north-east. Estimated population in 1975 was eight to nine million and annual population growth rate at least 2.5%. The population is very unevenly spread and concentrated, at a density of anything up to 100 people per km², on the plateaux and along the coast. It is very low, at less than 10 people per km², in the other rural areas. The urban population represents about 12% of the total and more than 40% live in the capital Antananarivo (ex-Tananarive), which has 450 000 inhabitants. Three-quarters of the active population work in agriculture.

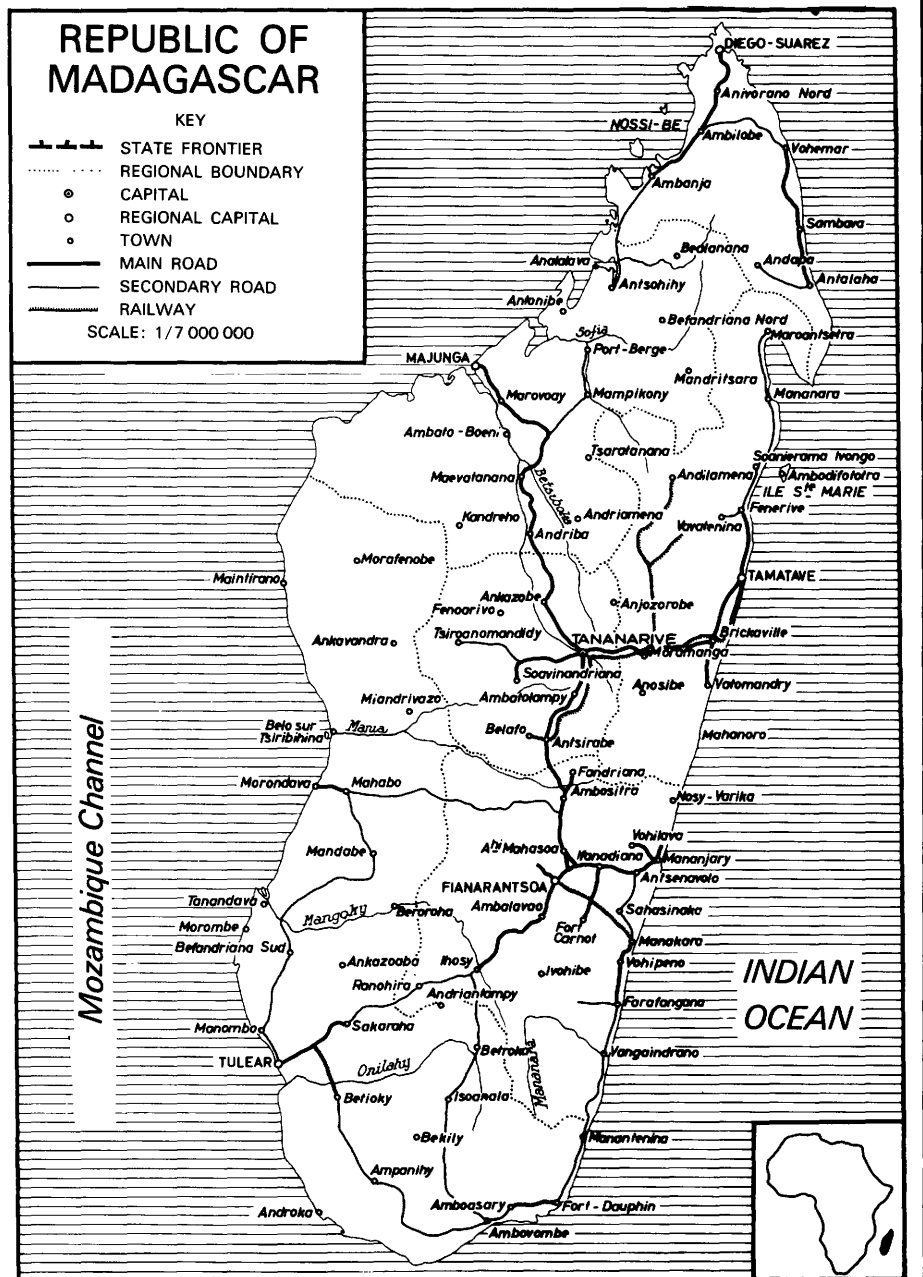
The country is fairly hilly and the high plateaux in the centre mean that average altitude, at 1300 m, is high. The island has a diversified tropical climate, receives the trade winds and has frequent hurricanes during the monsoon. Average rainfall varies—the plateaux have a season of heavy rain lasting from April to October, the east coast is very wet and the west coast is hot and dry.

Agriculture is varied because of the variety of climate and natural relief. Rice is grown over something like 1 million ha and estimated paddy rice production was 1 800 000 t in 1973. Manioc, grown over some 200 000 ha with an estimated production of 1.1 million t in 1973, is the other main crop. More than 50% of agricultural production is for subsistence. The main plantations produce coffee, cloves, vanilla (Madagascar is the world's largest producer), sugar, sisal and pepper.

Export earnings are highly diversified (14 products accounted for 70–78% of exports in 1969/72). Mineral resources are extremely varied, although the deposits tend to be either too small or too difficult to reach and profitable exploitation is out of the question for the moment. The main

minerals currently being exploited are chromite, graphite and mica. Most industrial firms are small or medium-sized.

The GDP, at market prices, was FMG 273 100 million in 1972, divided as follows: agriculture 30%, industry 18% and services 52%. ■



(1) 1 FMG=0,0037 EUA (as of 1.8.1976).



Sir S. Ramgoolam



Harvesting sugar cane

MAURITIUS 1976

Interview: Sir Seewoosagur Ramgoolam, Prime Minister of Mauritius

Mauritius is a volcanic island group in the Indian Ocean some 800 km east of Madagascar, near the Tropic of Capricorn. The main island covers 1 850 km² and Rodriguez 100 km².

Relations with all members of the United Nations are good. Great Britain has a representative, in the person of the governor-general, in Port-Louis and Mauritius is, like India—where 60% of Mauritians originate—a member of the Commonwealth. The country's French heritage is very much in evidence and cooperation with France is constantly increasing. On 23 February 1976, the 40th anniversary of the Mauritian Labour Party, Sir Seewoosagur Ramgoolam declared that Mauritius had become an integral part of Africa over the previous 40 years

and, in June 1976, the OAU conference of Heads of State was held in Port Louis.

Mauritius does a good deal of trade with Europe and the rest of the world. It occupies a strategic position in the Indian Ocean and, being a cultural crossroads as well, is a meeting place for Western, African and Asian cultures.

All this means that Mauritius is well-placed and able to exert a good deal of influence. It was party to Yaoundé II, as it is now to the Lomé Convention. The editor of the "Courier" asked the Prime Minister, Sir Seewoosagur Ramgoolam, current chairman of the OAU, what he thought about Mauritius' place in the world, its economic and social development and the Lomé Convention.

► *Prime Minister, after eight years of independence, how does Mauritius seem to be shaping up on balance?*

— Well, you are here and you can see that Mauritius is shaping up quite well. The economy is good. We have created a large number of jobs for the unemployed. And we are hoping to have even better relations with all the other countries of the world, although we have always had very good foreign relations, with the EEC among the rest. Africa is shaping up well and the news that Mr Ian Smith is likely to accept Dr Kissinger's proposals is very heartening (1). As chairman of the OAU, I hope peace talks will resume and we will face the problems of Africa squarely and honestly so that peace will come to southern Africa. I do not think Namibia is a problem and peace can be assured there too.

In February this year we celebrated the 40th anniversary of the Mauritius Labour Party and we were

very much encouraged by what took place. We feel an integral part of Africa—as you know, the OAU meeting took place here recently. So all seems to be integrated quite well for Mauritius. On balance, things look good and the prospects are even brighter.

► *Isn't this rather good going on the political and diplomatic front?*

— Yes, of course it is. We have a very good geographical position here in the middle of the Indian Ocean; in Mauritius we have people who originally came from Africa, from Asia and from Europe, and this is a place which could serve as a bridge between those three continents. Only recently, at this year's meeting of the OAU, I laid the foundations of the African, Mauritian and Oriental Studies building, where we will be bringing together all the cultures which have contributed to the social, economic and political development of Mauritius. We have been able to establish peace, harmony

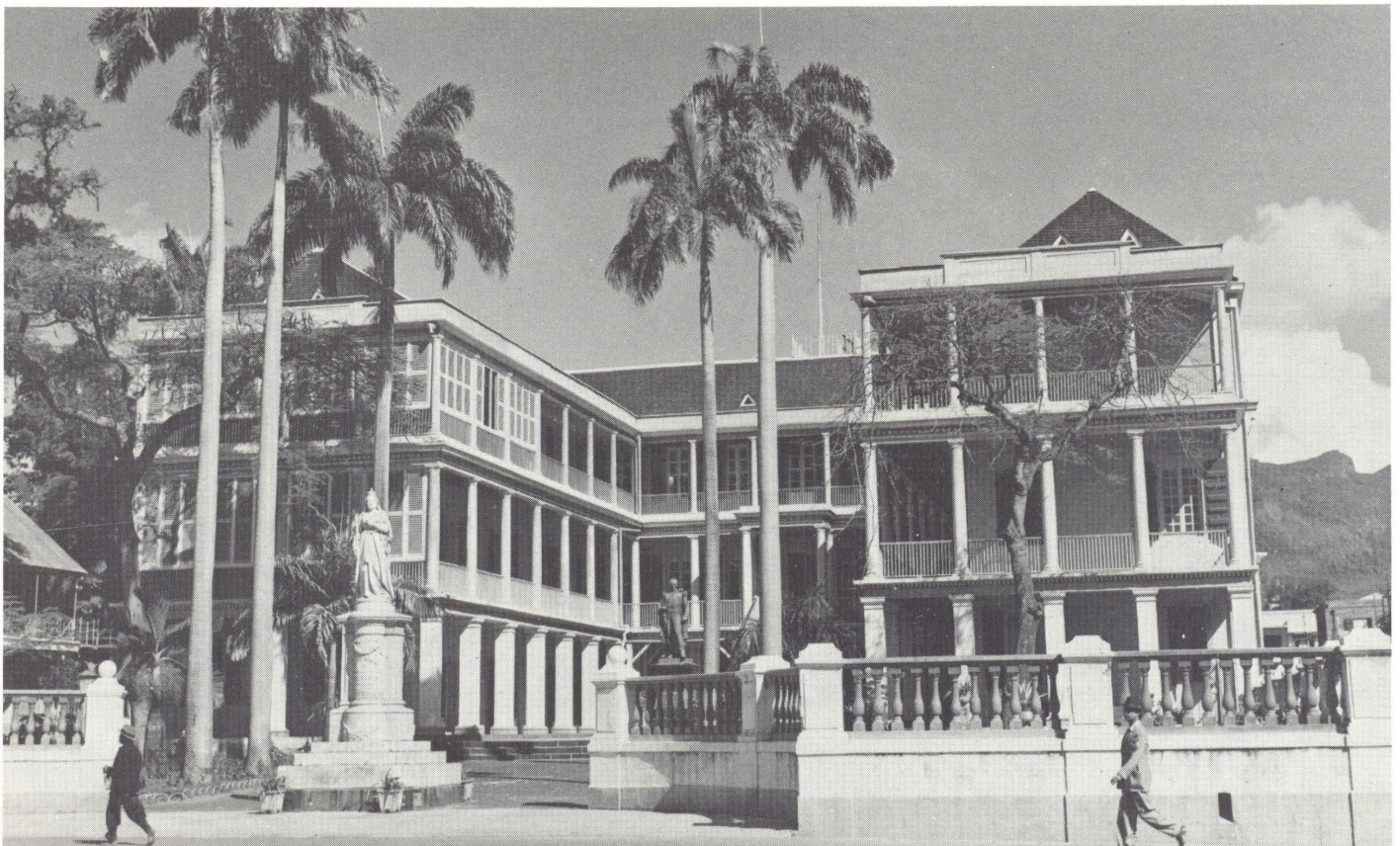
and stability in our country for many years. We hope to strengthen this so that we may reap more benefits, not only for us but also for the people of Africa, Asia and Europe.

► *The government's economic strategy stresses the need to diversify what is largely a sugar economy and to reduce unemployment. Sugar takes up nearly half of the island and 94% of the agricultural land; it provides around 30% of national income and between 70 and 90% of export earnings. There were negotiations in Brussels recently on the price of sugar, and in the light of these what are the prospects for the Mauritian sugar industry?*

— We have always wanted long-term management of world commodity prices and now I think there is every prospect of sugar prices being established at a norm which is dictated by the Lomé Convention. I think the prospects are of a steadier price than before, and now that beet sugar and cane sugar are on a par I think there are even better prospects of obtaining a long-term fixed price

(1) Interview held on 20 September 1976.

The government building in Port-Louis



for sugar, although this will be subject to annual fixing in Brussels.

The price is not as good this year as last year, but it is based on the expenditure we have to make and costs are rising. Although we have tried, successfully, to keep inflation down, I think a small rise will probably take place. On the whole I think the economy is moving and we have escaped recession, because while Europe was in recession we were at a peak of prosperity, and the recession in Europe is almost over before our prosperity has been affected in any way whatsoever. So I am hopeful that the recession will not touch Mauritius at all.

Sugar constitutes the backbone of our economy, but we are diversifying very rapidly: we have manufacturing industries and smaller ones; we are going for the diversification

of agriculture by planting a lot of other things like groundnuts and vegetables; and we also have tea. Tea is one commodity that has not increased in price for many years and I hope it will go up after the negotiations this month (November).

▶ *A rural development programme was launched in March 1974. What are the village centres and craft workshops it aimed to set up?*

— We have set these up in all parts of the country. They are arts and crafts industries with teachers. We now have a well-founded artisanat and we manufacture many goods which are bought by tourists, and which have given us a good name.

▶ *About 80 000 new jobs are going to have to be created, mainly in manufacturing industry, if full employment is*

to be reached by 1980. Does this seem realistic to you?

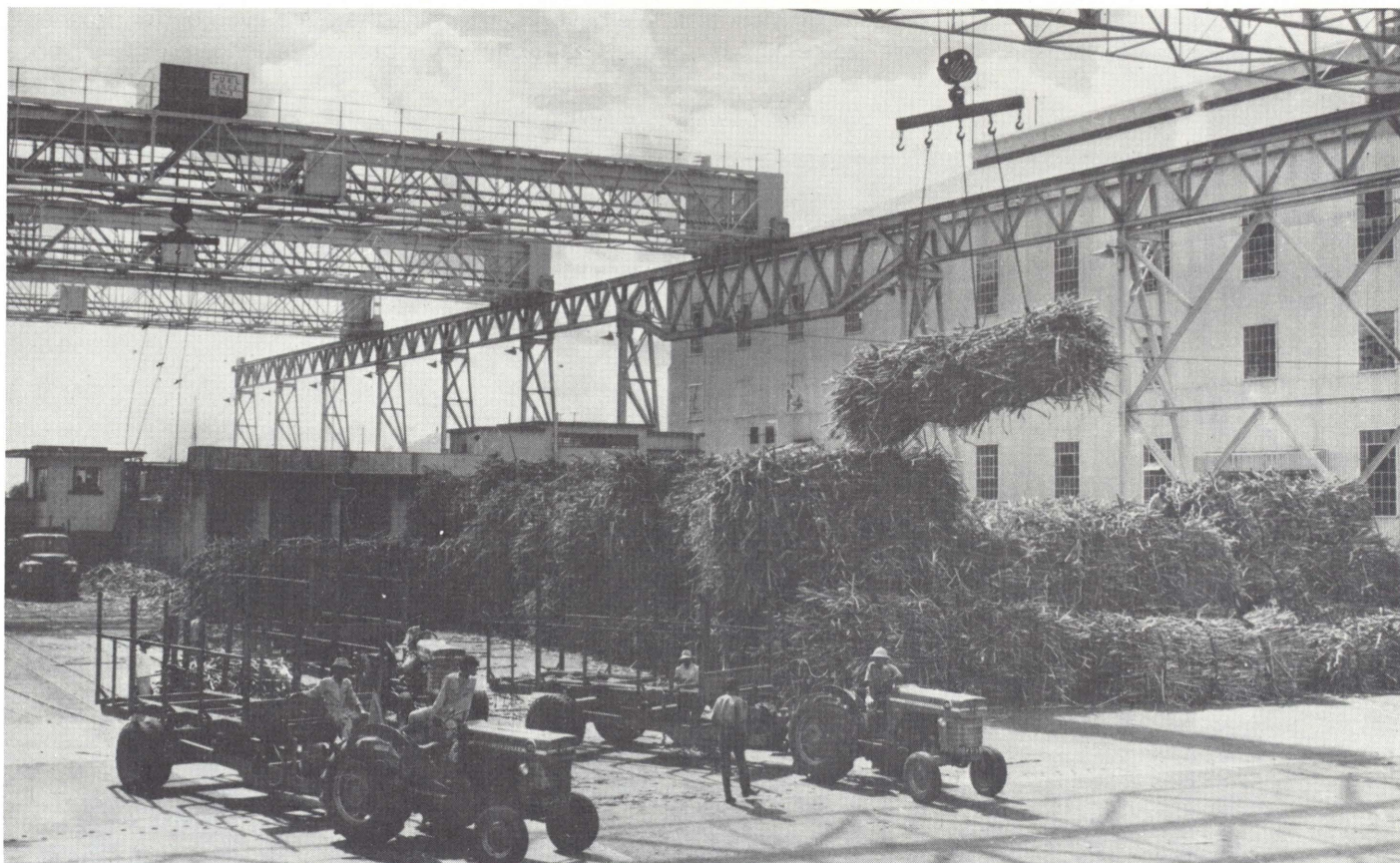
— Yes, because we are creating a great number of jobs. We evolved a policy of "travail pour tous"—work for everybody—and we will be creating at least 8000 jobs this year. We should be able to reach the target of 80 000 jobs.

▶ *This industry will be export-oriented since the home market is so small. Are the tariff and fiscal concessions and the free trade area enough to attract the right investment into it?*

— They should be able to do it, although I must say we have been a bit unlucky with our exports-oriented industries because there is some delay in France in admitting our goods. But we are taking this up

Sugar refinery

"Sugar constitutes the backbone of our economy"



with the French government. I do think our businessmen should diversify their exports to other countries, such as Germany.

► *Employment comes up against the problem of overpopulation: Mauritius is mainly agricultural, but it has one of the highest population densities in the world, with 455 inhabitants to the square kilometer, over half of whom are under 20 years old. Family planning campaigns have been running for 15 years or more—have they had satisfactory results?*

— I think we have been pretty successful in our policies here. We have been able to bring down the birth rate from 4.6% to between 1.4 and 1.6%, which I think is a great achievement. Although the young people make up over half the population of Mauritius, family planning should now make it possible to strike a balance between the old and the young, and perhaps to bring it to the same base as in Europe. We have now eradicated malaria in this country and there is no serious endemic disease; as an island we are free from diseases brought in from the world outside and we are in a much healthier state than we used to be. We have many people over 100 years old.

► *Tourism is already very important and it is developing rapidly. Last year Mauritius had 74 000 tourists. Is it going to go on like this?*

— We have all the infrastructure necessary for an increase in tourism. We do not want to go too fast, because we would like this tourism to be integrated with the population. Tourism is increasing, although the state of affairs in South Africa has reduced tourism from there. But it is picking up again.

EEC President Ortolini visits Mauritius

Special aid after cyclone

Mr Ortolini, President of the European Commission, spent two days on an official visit to Mauritius in October. The details of the visit were arranged by the Mauritius Government and the Commission's delegate in Mauritius, and although the timetable was crowded the President of the Commission was able, through a series of discussions and visits, to appreciate the historic links and present cooperation between Mauritius and the European Community. Cooperation between the two sides covers the opening of the European market to ACP products, the stabilising effect of the sugar protocol, financial and technical cooperation and food aid.

Before he left, President Ortolini and

Sir Seewoosagur Ramgoolam, the Prime Minister of Mauritius, signed a financial convention on special aid of some three million units of account for the rehousing of the victims most badly affected by cyclone Gervaise. Before the signing of this convention the Mauritian Prime Minister and the President of the Commission had a private exchange of views. The official statements during the visit referred to the climate of understanding and warm friendship that characterised the relations between Mauritius and Europe.

At the end of his visit, Mr Ortolini and his chef de cabinet, Mr Gautier-Sauvagnac left Mauritius for Brussels while Mr Maurice Foley, deputy Director General in the Commission, who also accompanied the President, left for a mission in Lesotho. ■

► *Mauritius was in the Yaoundé Convention and is now of the ACP countries under the Lomé Convention. What aspects of Lomé are of particular interest to Mauritius?*

— The Lomé Convention has brought a greater part of the world together. Commercial, economic and political policies will be integrated; UNCTAD IV has also laid the foundations for that. I think the prospects for the Lomé Convention are good and that it is a very significant treaty—it embraces almost the whole world, including some non-aligned countries, and therefore we are very confident of the future. We have gone from OCAM to Yaoundé to Lomé and I think this is the way the world is going.

We are not quite satisfied with the way commodity prices are being treated. I think the only way to keep the world together will be to create better conditions so that the question of commodity prices is resolved to the satisfaction of the countries producing the primary products. Then, and then only, will all the countries be working together.

► *What do you think of the North-South dialogue?*

— I think this is giving good results, which we are very glad of, and it should give even better ones. ■

Interview by
A.L.

MAURITIUS

Interview: Satcam Boolell, Minister of Agriculture and Natural Resources

► *Sugar is Mauritius's major problem. Cane sugar takes up 94% of all cultivated land in the island. Sugar prices were discussed at recent negotiations in Brussels. Can you tell us briefly what you think about the situation and how Mauritius' production and export prospects look at the moment?*

— We were fairly satisfied with the price we got in May, I think, although there were one or two points we disagreed with. First of all, we did not like the way the protocol was interpreted. We take certain clauses one way and the Commission takes them another—which means that we are holding ministerial meetings every year to discuss prices without being really clear as to the bases on which the discussion is supposed to be taking place. This wastes a lot of time and, at the beginning, we never know where we stand. This is why the question was brought up at the Joint Committee of the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers. It was set aside this time but I hope it will be

Mr Boolell starts the sugar harvest—a vital moment in the country's economic life



solved at ministerial level during the year, which will make things easier when we negotiate again next year. We are interested in the price, since it is the most important thing after all and not covered by the Stabex. We do have one or two formulae for fixing the prices but, generally speaking, we are not satisfied with the results. There are, of course, two sides to any negotiations and you always have to look for a compromise. For example, last year, at the last negotiations, the offer we were made at the outset was unacceptable and we had to refuse it categorically. The Commission did then back down a bit. But some of the decisions were taken unilaterally—on storage costs, for example. There were two or three decisions like that which were taken unilaterally or where our ACP officers and ambassadors were simply presented with a **fait accompli**. They sometimes don't get the chance to say what they think or consult their individual governments and have discussions.

► *This problem was brought up at the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers in Brussels. The ACP chairman gave his views on it in our last issue.*

— Yes, indeed.

► *World sugar prices are falling. The European Community will be taking something like 500 000 tonnes at above the average world price, but how is Mauritius going to make the best of the rest of her production, as world market conditions stand?*

— It's a bit too early to say just what the world market is going to do. It depends on so many things, particularly the results of the drought. But only a tiny quantity of sugar goes onto the international market and fluctuations in supply and demand can bring about enormous differences in prices. Our sugar is sold via bilateral agreements with the Common Market and the United States. We also have markets in Canada and at home and small quantities go to the Seychelles and the Middle East. So it isn't that much of a problem. This year our production is estimated at 700 000 t.

► *So you will be getting back to the level of production you used to have?*

— That is the case, after the hurricanes last year. The Common Market takes 500 000 t and a further 30-40 000 t go to the local markets. That's a good start. And what are we left with? Something like 160 000 t. Of course, we have a market in the United States and we will also be supplying our neighbours, the Seychelles, and maybe Sri Lanka. So that doesn't leave much to sell on the world market—and the prices there don't really affect us to such a very

problem of the diversification of agriculture. Can you tell us about the prospects here?

— They are limited because, first of all, we have a land problem. Only limited areas are available and some of them are difficult to irrigate. However, in spite of this, we are doing our utmost to diversify agriculture as much as we can. For example, we have tea plantations which employ a large number of people and which now have an important effect on the economy. And then we have food crops, the vegetables which play such a vital role in the country's econ-



The "Trois Mamelles" and the Rampart hills from the Black River

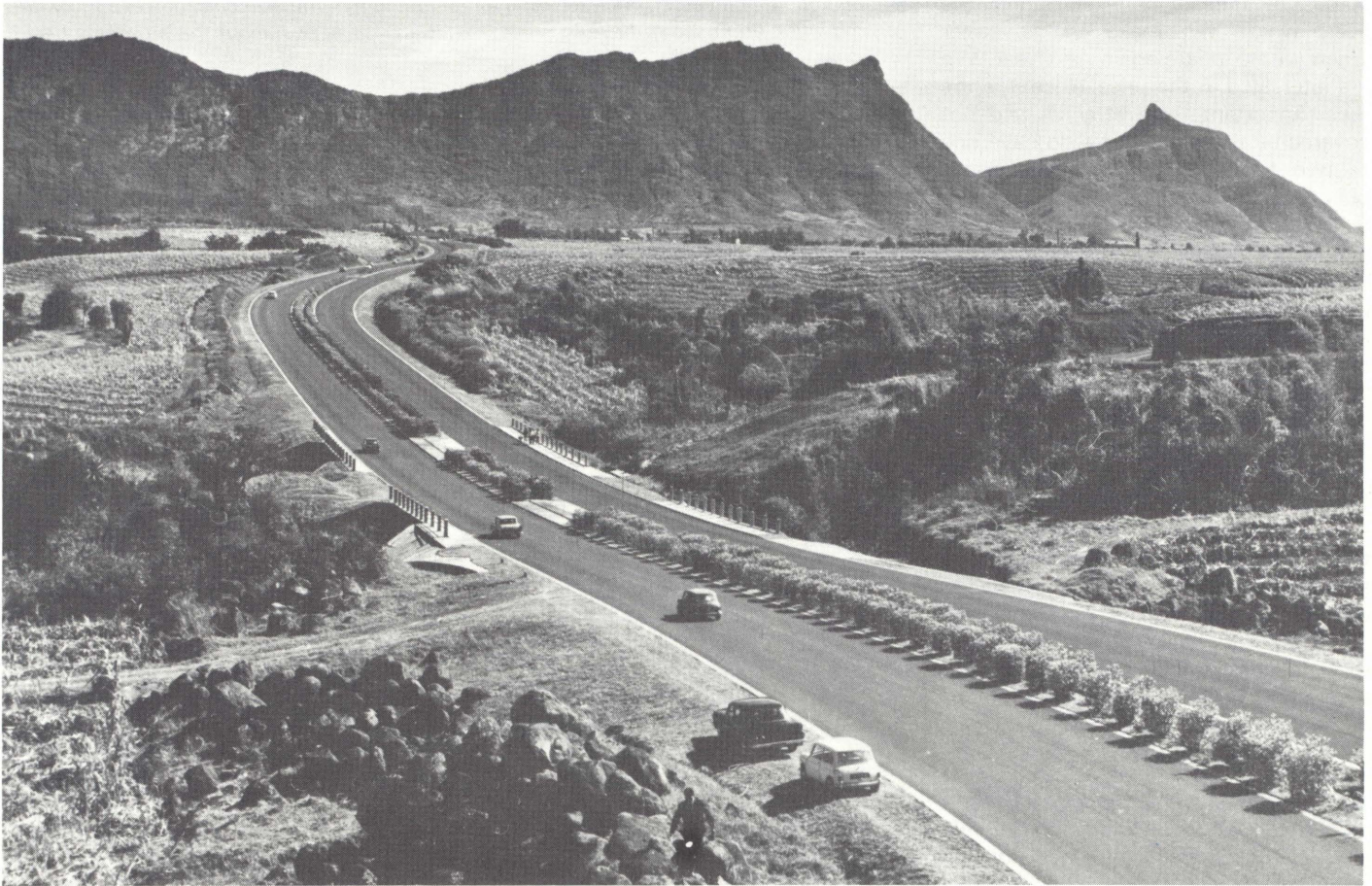
great extent. This is taken into account in bilateral and multilateral price negotiations. But, of course, we can't ignore what's happening on the world market. This is why I think it might well be time to try and agree on some sort of arrangement or quota system, which would amount to an international sugar agreement.

► *The importance of sugar for your economy means that there is the additional*

omic and social life, because they supply local markets, provide jobs and help cut down on imports.

► *And aren't you developing maize growing at the moment?*

— Yes, we are making an enormous effort here. We have even fixed a price



The highway between Port-Louis and Cure-Pipe

that is higher than the imported price. Maize is grown in various parts of the country, especially on the west coast, and the government buys it all, regardless of quality. This is a properly thought-out marketing system and prices are guaranteed. We also grow potatoes, beans and garlic. We have now imported some dairy cows from New Zealand and we are trying to use all our local products to make animal feed.

And we have launched a sericulture project—cocoon production is produced by individual breeders who sell them to the government.

▶ *What about rice production?*

— Rice is a problem and you are right to bring it up. We have tried all sorts of systems. We have a Chinese team here at the moment, the Indians have already

been and we are carrying out our own tests at the Ministry of Agriculture. You can grow rice if you've got water. But at the moment rice production is not profitable. People are much too used to growing cane sugar. There is much more protection and, in any case, rice prices are beginning to go down. The only way to make rice a paying proposition is to use traditional growing methods on small patches of irrigated land. But we are still trying. Some regions grow rice and we are hoping to push up production. We also hope that the irrigation project on the west coast will be successful.

▶ *So you are continuing with your policy of diversifying agriculture. You have just described one or two particularly limiting factors and more generally, you are limited by the amount of land available. Do you also have the same problem of training people in agriculture that you have in industry?*

— Yes. We train managers as we need them. There is clearly no point in training people to grow rice when the prospects are so poor. So we train cadres for the sugar industry and other existing industries that have proved profitable, although we have more cadres than we need in this sector and not enough elsewhere. So we are retraining, converting and transferring. We have no really serious problems in agriculture, although things are not so good in the economic sector.

▶ *The European Community has started taking part in certain schemes with non-governmental organizations. For instance, Mauritius has received money to buy tractors and irrigation equipment from a German non-governmental organization and the Community. I should like to know what you think about this particular project and this kind of approach, involving NGO aid for small projects, to rural development.*

— It is very useful. The Common Market has made a very useful contribution here by providing technical assistance and equipment and, as you know, our youth movement has also made an important contribution to agricultural production. Important for two reasons. First, many young people are going back to the land and enjoying working in agriculture. And they are working much more scientifically than their elders did, because they are much more aware of what modern methods can achieve. Then again, there are large numbers of school leavers without jobs or cash and this gives them the opportunity to do

something profitable. Socially and economically speaking, the movement is a very useful one and I am delighted that organizations like the Common Market are encouraging it. The small pieces of equipment for irrigation and tillage are very useful, cheap to buy and easy to maintain and repair.

► *What is the situation as regards stock-farming in Mauritius?*

— This is still a problem for a number of reasons. We cannot raise stock as you do in Europe. We don't put our animals out to pasture since our farming

system is very different from yours. It is theoretically possible to raise animals in the forests, but they contain "stomoksis", which are very dangerous flies which suck the animal's blood and weaken it to the extent where it can no longer gain weight. So stock-farming is not a good bet. We are carrying out studies to wipe out these flies, but it will take time, although we are on the right road. If we can wipe out stomoksis, we will be able to raise cattle on the high plateaux. We fatten a few animals for meat on the coast, but not many. Of course, some of the sugar planters raise cattle along the coast where the fly

The central market in Port-Louis



problem doesn't arise and both meat and milk are produced on an individual basis in this way. This means that milk production is too low and we are now trying to introduce high-yield dairy cows. We give them cheaper, government-made feed and farmers are paid a subsidy. In addition, we follow up by visiting the cattle farmers and we give advice and provide artificial insemination services throughout the country. We also have periods of drought when no grass is available and we have to use cane-sugar by-products and molasses to feed the animals.

▶ *You have to import a lot of meat at the moment.*

— Quite a lot. But I must stress that we raise enough chickens to provide for all our needs and we have to import neither eggs nor poultry. ■

LOMÉ CONVENTION

Indicative programme for the 4th EDF

In May 1976, a programming mission led by Hans-Broder Krohn, the EEC's development director-general, went out to Mauritius to work with the local authorities on listing the projects and schemes to be covered by the 4th EDF.

The trip ended with an indicative programme being drawn up and signed by both parties.

The main headings of this programme are listed below.

I. Housing – construction and improvements

A sum of 3 million EUA was earmarked to cope with the effects of hurricane Gervaise in February 1975 and to speed up the rebuilding of the houses that were completely destroyed. This special aid to combat natural disaster



Sir Seewoosagur with Hans-Broder Krohn
The director-general of development personally led the EEC Commission's aid programming mission to Mauritius

was approved by the EDF Committee on 22 September 1976.

The government also committed considerable amounts to meet the demand for housing that followed the huge increase in population in the '50s and '60s. It is vital to continue building at this stage in the social and demographic development of Mauritius and it has therefore been proposed that 3 200 000 EUA be allotted to the housing sector.

II. Road infrastructure

The sugar industry is the key to Mauritius' economy. Profound changes are currently being made which affect all the stages of production and marketing and a considerable amount of capital is being mobilised to push up profitability

in the sector. As far as infrastructure is concerned, the greatest step forward was the construction of high-capacity silos so that sugar could be handled loose rather than in sacks.

However, transport between the production centres, which are mainly in the north and the port, where the finished product is loaded, faces a bottleneck problem. The government, therefore, plans to build a modern highway linking the north with Port Louis. A call for tender is being issued for the first section (Port Louis—Terre Rouge) and the project will be financed by the ADB.

It is proposed that the EDF provide a loan on special terms to cover the second section from Terre Rouge to Mapou, a distance of 10.5 km, at an estimated cost of 5.7 million EUA. This will be a four-lane highway. The BCEOM office has produced a project dossier

which has just been submitted to the client.

III. Irrigation of the west coast

A feasibility study dealing the whole of the west coast (some 6 000 ha) has been carried out with aid from the 3rd EDF. It is now proposed to finance a study of implementation and to cover the costs of work on irrigation of a pilot area of roughly 1 500 ha. The area in question, **La Ferme**, is very near Port Louis and mainly worked by small farmers.

Irrigation of this land, where agricultural potential is good, should help boost market gardening and push up the income of the workers in this sector. EDF

financing of 5 million EUA will cover the total cost of the whole project.

IV. Aid for training programmes

A programme of aid for training programmes has been outlined. This involves the usual studies plus a series of schemes ranging from vocational courses abroad to practical training at home.

In the very near future, the Mauritian authorities should be drawing up a comprehensive multiannual programme based on the amount of aid anticipated from the EDF (700 000 EUA).

In the meantime, transitional measures have enabled two state officials to

obtain study grants abroad for 1976/77.

V. Trade promotion and aid for craftsmen

The aid provided for craftsmen is a continuation of schemes which were begun during the 3rd EDF and which continue along lines the government is due to define later on. However, aid for marketing is a new departure due to the Lomé Convention.

There will be two main types of aid, intended to:

i. cover the cost of the services of a specialised industrial prospection and trade promotion bureau. Aid of this sort

A Mauritian landscape



will be a prolongation of similar French-financed schemes which the Mauritian government has found fully satisfactory. The bureau's work so far has resulted in new industries—and therefore a certain number of new jobs—being set up in the free zone;

ii. finance Mauritius' participation in the main European exhibitions and trade fairs, so as to enable Mauritian industrialists and products to become known, and this should also improve outlets in Europe.

EUROPEAN INVESTMENT BANK

In addition to the schemes to be covered by the 4th EDF, the programming mission looked at the possibility of EIB aid. The projects in question include:

1. Extensions to the Fort Victoria power station.

The aim here is to finance the purchase of two generators. The Central Electricity Board already had a similar loan from the EIB of 1 750 EUA in July 1975.

Estimated cost is 2.7 million EUA.

2. A paper pulp factory.

Financially, this project is an extremely ambitious one. It should enable bagasse to be used profitably after the sugar cane has been processed. The industry is being introduced in line with the Mauritian policy of making full use of sugar cane products and derivatives.

The project is a multi-stage one. Ultimately, production will be an annual 119 000 t of paper pulp and 573 new jobs will be created.

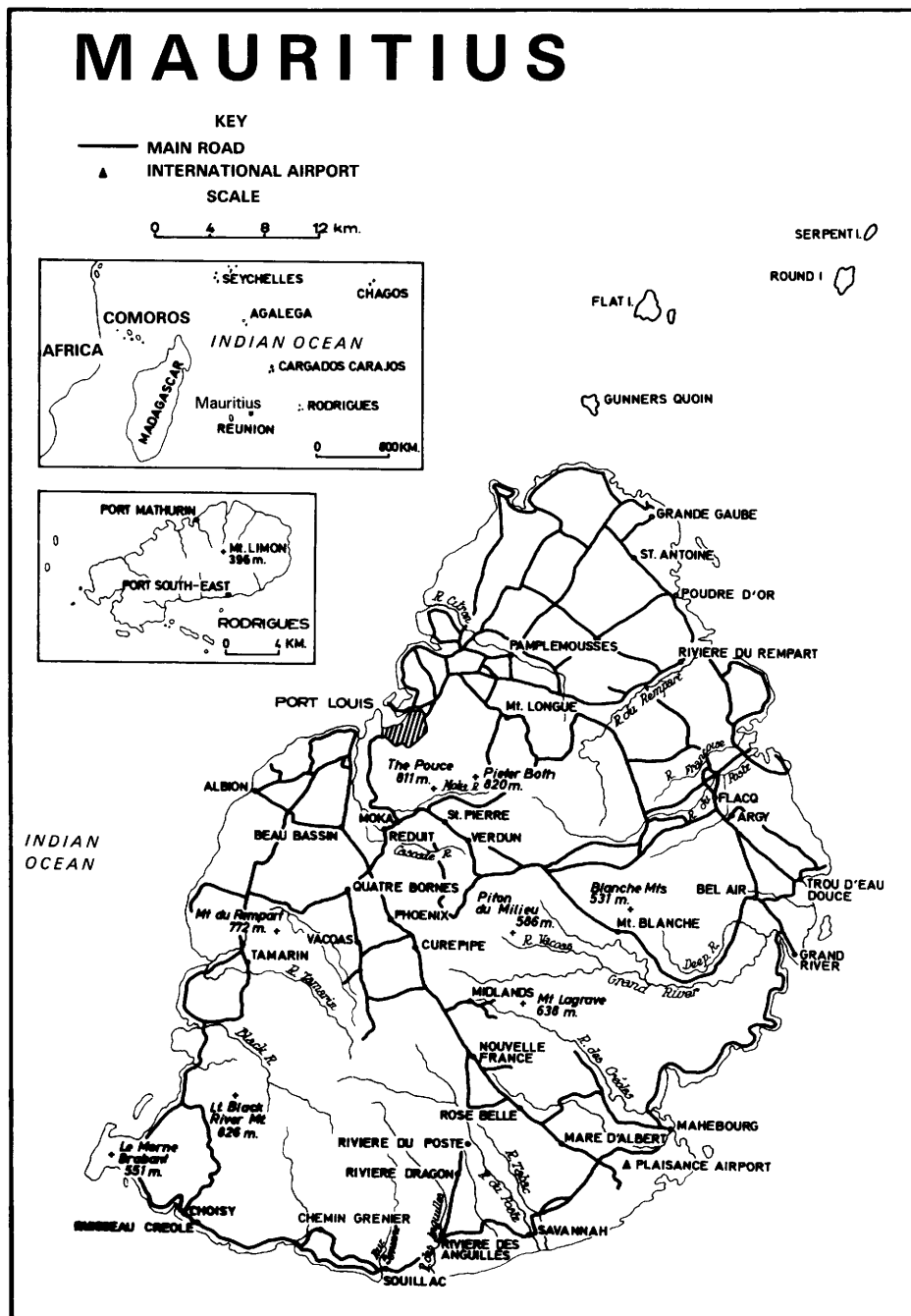
The EIB is being asked for a loan of 18.4 million EUA, i.e. for 15% of the total cost of the investment.

3. A shipyard.

This project has not yet been planned in detail, although an initial feasibility study by a specialised consultancy has been requested and a first report submitted to the semi-public company responsible for the operation.

The loan would be for 4 million EUA.

At the end of the programming mission it was agreed that the amount that the EIB could provide Mauritius for any projects that got past the assessment stage would not go beyond 10 million EUA.



TRADE COOPERATION

Mauritius exhibited at the following international trade events as part of the ACP participation programme.

1974

- Milan international fair 14.4-25.4
- Paris international fair 27.4-12.5

- Berlin international fair 23.8-2.9
- Dakar international fair 28.11-15.12

1975

- African tourist salon in Brussels 11.3-12.3
- Berlin international fair 25.9-29.9

1976

- Brussels international fair
24.5-9.5
- Berlin international fair
26.8-30.8
- Yamoussokro (Ivory Coast) seminar
on marketing and international trade
28.5-1.6
- Marseilles fair
24.9-29.9
- Paris exhibition of ready-to-wear
clothing for women.
23.10-27.10

Although firms taking part in these events have not said what results they obtained from contacts established in trade, industry and travel, it is worth mentioning the following articles, which were particularly attractive to European buyers who put in a number of orders:

- jeans and jackets
- flowers (anthurium)
- gloves
- woollens

The importance of trade cooperation has emerged very clearly over the last few years through Mauritius' participation in trade fairs and local products are becoming known on the Community market.

In addition to the fairs programme, the Mauritian government has obtained a constant flow of information on Community schemes throughout the sector via reports and documents on projects where local operators are not needed as yet but which are of considerable interest for the future (COLEAMA agreement, the leather sector and so on).

FOOD AID

In addition to supplies provided under EDF food schemes, the EEC Commission has allocated the following quantities to Mauritius:

I. Common wheat flour

year 1972/73	7 947 t
year 1973/74	6 624 t
year 1974/75	5 000 t.

i.e. 19 571 t in all delivered to date. The quantity allocated for 1976/77 (3 300 t) should be delivered shortly.

Flour supplies are free fob to the European port and transport, insurance



EEC food aid for Mauritius



and marketing costs are deducted from returns on sales made on the Mauritian market.

Any profits from the operation are paid into a special fund which goes towards a Mauritian project to improve housing for the poor, mainly in rural areas, and, in particular, to people hit by hurricanes. An estimated Mau Rs 5-6 m has so far been paid into the fund in this way.

II. Milk powder

year 1975	200 t
year 1976	200 t.

A recent Commission decision allocated 800 t, which should be enough to ensure that the vast majority of the island's needy will benefit.

In the past, the main organisations benefiting from aid of this type have been orphanages, old people's homes and hospitals.

III. Butteroil

year 1975	200 t
year 1976	200 t.

Supplies of milk powder and butteroil are free fob to the European port and transport and insurance costs are paid by the Government of Mauritius.

COOPERATION WITH NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS

The Delegation has undertaken to run an information campaign as part of cooperation with the NGO's, the aim being to inform all Mauritian organisations eligible for Community aid.

The Mauritian NGOs—of which there are many throughout the island—have enthusiastically welcomed the possibility of receiving aid.

The first result of this triangular action (NGO—Commission—beneficiary) was the financing of an aid project for a total amount of 68 000 EUA in favour of the National Federation of Young Farmers' Centre, with 10% cofinancing from the German section of the FAO. The money will go to buy agricultural equipment for rural information centres. ■

NIGERIA

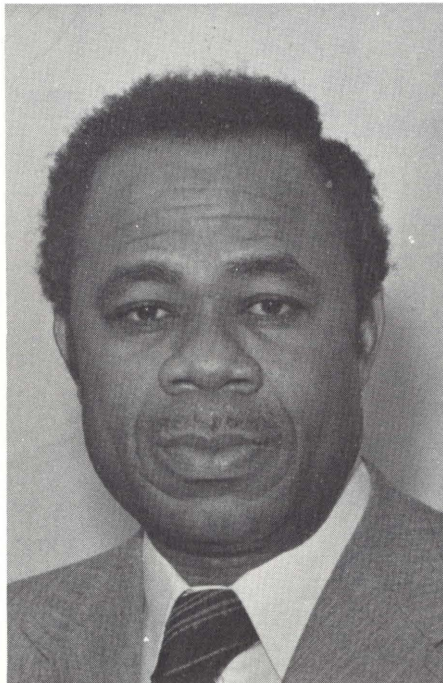
"Cash alone does not solve development problems"

Nigerian Ambassador Gab Ijewere

Nigeria, with some 80 million people, has the highest population of any ACP country and is also one of the biggest, with an area of 924 000 km². Oil exports bring in a considerable revenue to this Lomé Convention signatory. But, says ambassador Gab Ijewere (1), development is not only a question of money.

► *It is said that oil revenues bring problems as well as advantages. Is this true of Nigeria? How has oil revenue affected your development planning?*

— I subscribe to the view that economy is half the battle of life and to spend money well is probably as difficult, if not more difficult, than to earn it. Revenue from oil has by no means made Nigeria a rich country having regard to the fact that income per head in Nigeria is still among the lowest in the world. Nigeria is therefore faced with the problem of making more money and the problem of spending wisely increased revenue from oil. We have certainly been able to expand our development programmes as a result of increased revenue from oil; our people have, for the same reason, been able to participate more intensively and extensively in the business life of the nation. But at the same time, following this



marked increase in economic activity which is confined mainly to the large urban areas, there has been an exodus of people from the rural areas to the cities. This has created a number of economic and social problems—a shortage of housing in the urban areas and overloaded sanitation and other health services. Since it is usually the young and virile ones who migrate from the countryside to the cities in search of new opportunities, rural agriculture is deprived of innovative and productive manpower. The immediate result is the inability on the

part of the agricultural sector to meet the demand for food both in the rural and in the urban sectors.

► *The head of state, Lt. General Obasanjo, recently launched «Operation Feed the Nation». How serious a problem is the domestic shortfall in food production, and what importance does the Nigerian government attach to export crops?*

— The present government has launched a number of very good programmes, with considerable foresight, dynamism and resolution. "Operation Feed the Nation" is one of these programmes. For a developing nation like Nigeria, with a high rate of population growth and increased urbanisation—that is, the movement from the rural to the urban areas—providing adequate food for the growing population is very important, economically and politically. Food prices in Nigeria have increased by about 50% since 1974. A large number of people spend practically all they earn on food. This is a very difficult problem. The Nigerian government of course attaches great importance to the export of agricultural products, including food products, but at the moment we find that we ourselves need practically all the food we can produce at home. Our priorities therefore are to feed our own people. At the same time, we are making efforts to ensure that in the near future, we will not only produce enough to feed our people, we should also be able to produce a large surplus for export. This is one reason why we are trying to diversify our economy, which seems at the moment to depend dangerously on revenue from petroleum. As you probably know, Nigeria was an important exporter of agricultural products like palm kernels, palm oil, groundnuts and so forth; at the moment we export very little of these commodities except groundnut. We are trying to increase our output of them in order to supplement our foreign exchange earnings from petroleum. To this end, the government has given top priority to agricultural expansion in the current development plan. To illustrate this, whereas in the 1970/74 national development plan the projected

(1) Ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary accredited to the Kingdom of Belgium, the European Economic Community and the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg.

capital expenditure on agriculture was \$322.8 million, in the 1975/80 plan this figure was multiplied by more than 10 to \$3800 million. We are, of course, aware that we are often faced with the problem of skilled manpower supply, which has been a bottleneck in the implementation of our development programme. The problem is more acute in the agricultural sector. But we are now expanding training facilities at home and taking advantage of existing facilities abroad.

► *Could you describe the federal government's plan for launching universal primary education?*

— Universal primary education (UPE) is not new to Nigeria; it was first introduced in the old Western Region as far back as 1954 and the old Eastern Region adopted it a year later. The scheme which was launched in September this year is an attempt to make the scheme nationally universal. From the figures available, 2.5 million children enrolled in Primary 1 in September, 1976, bringing total primary school population in Nigeria to eight million. UPE is free; it is not yet compulsory, but it will be by 1980.

There are naturally a number of problems involved in the implementation of the scheme. The most pressing is the shortage of teachers. There are now 163 000 new teachers being trained. Another difficulty is the cost; the annual recurrent cost of the scheme is about \$400 million and the total capital expenditure \$750 million.

► *Your country has signed the Lomé Convention, but does not benefit from the EDF project financing. Yet commercial and industrial cooperation are of particular interest to Nigeria. In these related fields, and as far as your country is concerned, do you feel the Convention can really help the development of Nigeria?*

— I shall answer the last part of your question first. I believe that the Lomé Convention can help tremendously in the development of Nigeria. With regard to Nigeria benefitting from EDF project financing, it is true that we are not getting this at the moment but we very

much hope that in the near future, and in view of what we already have in the pipeline, Nigeria will soon start to benefit from it. People often confuse development with cash. Capital is just one of the factors necessary for development. It is true that Nigeria has some cash, but this does not by itself solve our development problems. We need to train skilled manpower, scientists, doctors, engineers and so on. In the past, our development programmes have not been fully implemented mainly because we were short of executive manpower. This is an area where I think Nigeria can take advantage of the opportunities provided by the EDF. Manpower training involves something more than money. We need the institutions and the know-how and these are things you cannot buy in supermarkets. This is more so when training people who are already on the job. We will need the EDF for training our skilled manpower, which is so necessary for the implementation of our various development programmes in industry, agriculture, education, health, development of infrastructures, etc.

At the moment the industrial sector of the Nigerian economy is fairly large and we are trying to expand it further as a way of diversifying the economy, which is still basically agricultural. Industrialisation naturally implies the transfer of technology, and I believe the EDF can be very useful in this area.

► *In West Africa in particular, have the linguistic, economic and monetary divisions left by colonialism become worse in the 16 years since Nigeria's independence?*

— In the early years of independence, countries were naturally, and probably rightly, engaged in establishing their identities and their newly-won sovereignty. In those years there was a tendency for them to remain within the physical and mental compartments created by colonialism. With many years of independence now behind us, I think these countries have come to realise that political independence is not enough, and they are now coming together to give meaning and content to political independence which in reality is worthless without a strong economic base. In West Africa, Nigeria and Togo, as far back as 1972, led the way for the

formation of ECOWAS—the Economic Community of West African States. Also in West Africa, we have the Niger Basin Commission, the Lake Chad Commission, and the Nigeria/Niger Commission. In Central Africa there is the UDEAC. So, in my view, the compartments—economic, monetary and linguistic—created by colonialism are being demolished, and eventually I think there will be an economically integrated Africa.

► *In the framework of the Lomé Convention, what measures could Nigeria propose to promote this regional economic cooperation?*

— Nigeria has been in the forefront of regional economic cooperation, as I indicated earlier. I believe the Convention will be a useful instrument for furthering this kind of cooperation within the various regional groups of Africa. For example, in West Africa, I think the EDF would be a help in providing infrastructures to link the ECOWAS countries, by building roads, for instance. There is also the Chad Basin Commission, which has already got in touch with the EEC for assistance in the execution of its programmes.

► *Now that the struggle to complete the liberation of the African continent has become a matter of urgent international politics, what should be the African states' priorities for action?*

— I think the priority is that African states should work in concert to achieve nationalist objectives within the shortest possible time.

► *In view of the considerable Western interests in southern Africa and in Africa as a whole, what role could the countries of Europe in particular be expected to play in the liberation of that part of Africa?*

— If my knowledge of Europe, and of the West as a whole, including the United States, is correct, these people have always placed a premium on freedom, and throughout their history they have opposed the forces of oppression. Since what is good for the goose is good for the gander, it is my opinion that the

West, which attaches so much to freedom, should see no wrong in standing by the side of those who are struggling for freedom in Africa. Assuming the Western attitude to the southern Africa problem is determined largely, if not entirely, by economic and strategic considerations, I think it is in their long-term interest to support the African nationalist position because to do otherwise is to be on the side of apartheid and oppressive minority rule which, to my mind, are evil. As the Hindu saying goes, «the triumph of evil is short-lived».

► *Coming from an important country of Africa, and of the Third World, how optimistic do you feel about the North-South dialogue in Paris, and also about a new international economic order?*

— The concept of a new international economic order is relatively new. It is therefore, to my mind, too early to talk of being optimistic or pessimistic about the efforts being made towards introducing it. This also applies to the Paris talks which are based on this concept. A new international economic order could mean to some people an economic idea; to others it is a moral issue. To those who are attached to the rigid principles of free enterprise economics, it probably appears unfair to introduce, artificially, a pattern of international economic relationships; as apostles of *laissez-faire*, they will want the economic pattern that exists at any moment to be determined strictly by the forces of supply and demand. To those who conceive this idea as a moral issue, it is simply not fair that in the same world, a small minority should be growing richer and stronger while the majority are becoming poorer and weaker.

The truth, as it seems to me, is that the concept of a new international economic order involves both moral and economic principles. I have dealt with the moral aspect of the idea. Simply stated, it means that success imposes an obligation. The economically successful section of the world has an obligation to help the poor majority in the interest of harmonious co-existence.

As an economic concept, a new international economic order means that the productive (as well as earning) capacities of the rich (largely the industrialised

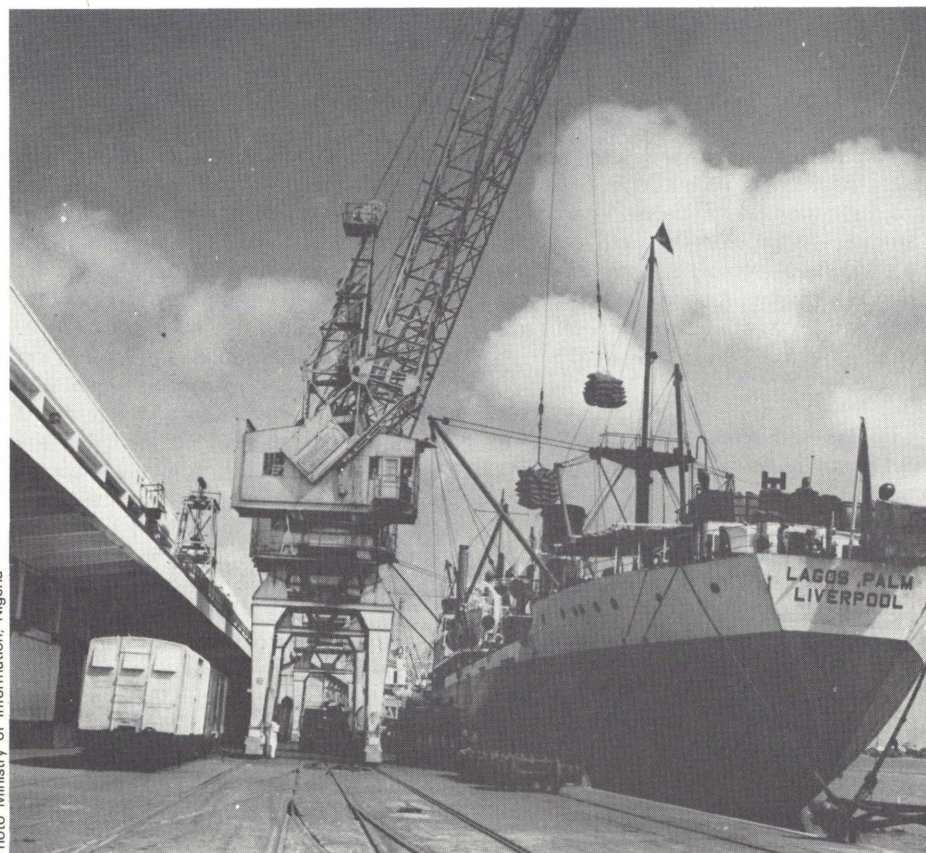


Photo Ministry of Information, Nigeria

Lagos is one of the busiest ports in West Africa

countries) and the poor (largely the raw material producing countries) must be kept at their highest possible levels in order to maximize world output since the economies of the two broad categories of countries are complementary. A major post-war phenomenon was the idea of aid and assistance from the rich nations of the world to the poor. After three decades, it has been shown that international aid has not had the desired impact on the economies of the poor nations of the world especially where such aids were politically motivated and badly administered, which was true in most cases. The result is that both the donor countries and the recipient countries have become somewhat disenchanting with international economic aid. Consequently, the idea of "trade and not aid" began to gain acceptance and gather momentum. This idea, to my mind, has now been transformed into the concept of a new international economic order.

In establishing this order one would have to examine the whole process of the production of goods and services,

their distribution and consumption with a view to ensuring that the poor countries of the world have a fair share of these activities, having regard to the fact that a large part of the present world economic pattern was determined by accident of history and that in the process some of the economic potentials of the poor countries were suppressed. In order, therefore, to maximise world output the economic potentials of both the rich and the poor must be allowed to develop fully. This is, to my mind, the essence of the concept of a new international economic order. The point is, if we fail to establish a new international economic order, the productive capacity of the Third World may be considerably reduced and this may affect the prosperity of the affluent section of the world. In other words, a new international economic order, in my opinion, is necessary for the progress, peace and prosperity of both the poor and the rich. ■

Interview by
LUCIEN PAGNI

THE REPUBLIC OF SURINAM

The 47th ACP State

Less than a year after independence on 25 November 1975, Surinam has become the first official newcomer to the Lomé Convention. The day after the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers gave the go-ahead in July, Mr. R. A. Ferrier, Surinam ambassador in Brussels, completed the formalities required for his country to accede to the Lomé Convention. The speed with which accession took place should not cause surprise. Mr Ferrier, a former director in the Ministry for Economic Affairs, can claim an impressive diplomatic career in Europe going back to September 1962. In his previous job as Plenipotentiary Minister for Surinam in the Netherlands mission to the EEC, he had ample opportunity to get to know the diplomatic background and is well placed to promote to the full the interests of the sovereign state of Surinam at the EEC.

Planning the future

Naturally, Surinam did not wait until it acquired sovereign status before getting down to organised planning. The Planning Office had analysed the country's development potential and has produced specific long-term plans since 1947. The majority of the projects embodied in Surinam's latest Overall Reconstruction Plan (1963-72) have been carried out. According to ambassador Ferrier, Surinam could soon become economically independent through its vast natural re-

sources. But, he said, the fact that over 130 000 people—including many management executives and trained personnel—have left the country for the Netherlands may temporarily hamper the government in putting its policies into practice.

Bauxite policy

Surinam is currently the world's third biggest bauxite producer (Surinam supplied 51% of the aluminium used on all Allied Spitfires during World War II). Significantly, Surinam is the only country where raw bauxite goes through all the

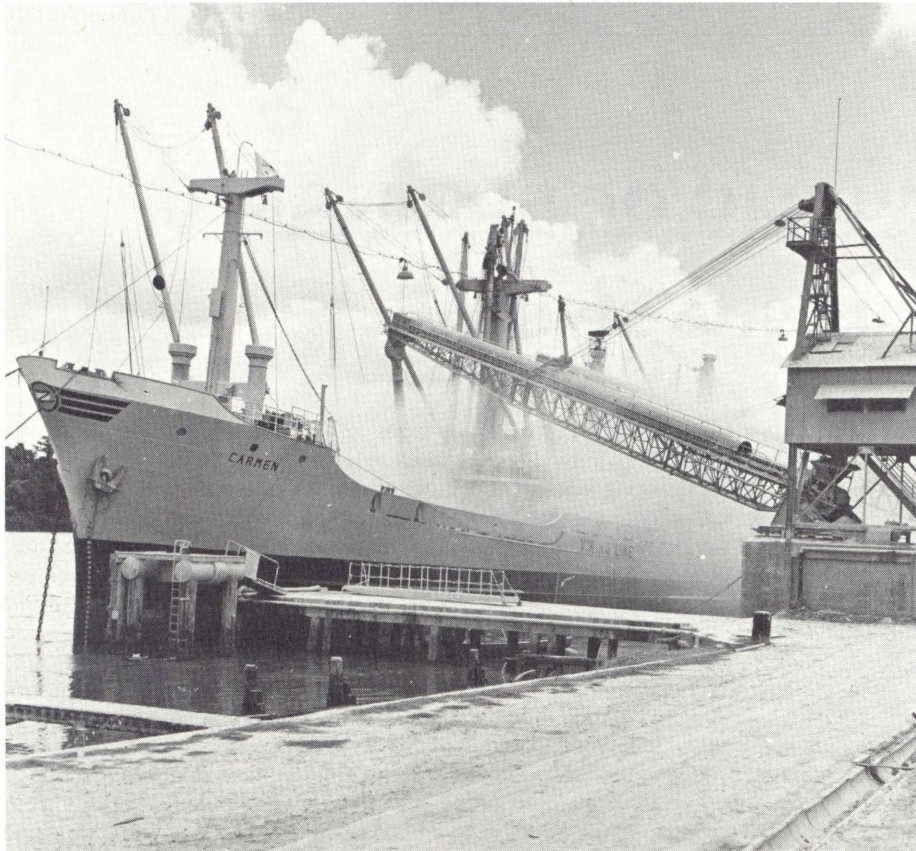
stages of processing on the spot: the bauxite is washed, dried, crushed and then processed into alumina, from which aluminium is finally obtained by smelting. However, the two foreign firms currently exploiting the bauxite reserves export large quantities of the raw material or the intermediate product alumina, so that in fact only about a third of the bauxite is converted into alumina and of that only some 3.5% into aluminium.

Soon after independence, the new state of Surinam secured a redistribution of profits in its favour. According to ambassador Ferrier, Surinam obtained from Suralco and Billiton, the two companies involved, a "not inconsiderable



The Ambassador of Surinam, Robert-Adolf Ferrier, presenting his credentials to François-Xavier Ortoli, President of the EEC Commission

EEC photo



Loading bauxite: a vital resource for the economy of Surinam

sum" in taxes and holdings with arrears, which went into the government's special "increased yield" account to be used for specific development purposes. The first phase of negotiations has already been followed by fresh consultations between the parties concerned, as a result of which Surinam hopes to achieve even better results.

The Jamaica-based International Bauxite Organisation of producing countries does not yet seem to have entirely lived up to expectations, especially as joint agreements have not been kept, but according to its spokesman, Surinam itself is now "coming into its own" in the bauxite sector.

Absorbing a high income

The aluminium sector accounts for over 80% of export earnings. In 1974 it brought in 367.1 million Surinam guilders(1).

In addition to this, when it became independent, Surinam received a "golden handshake" from the Netherlands gov-

ernment of 3500 million Dutch guilders(2) spread over 15 years.

The Surinam government naturally has full responsibility for ensuring that the best possible use is made of these sums. The Minister for Reconstruction, who also supervises the Planning Office, will therefore encourage and monitor the progress of various projects, and recruit experts when necessary.

Ambassador Ferrier said he regretted that under the 3rd EDF, unlike in the 1st and 2nd EDF, years often elapsed before many projects were put out to tender or executed owing to the departure of a large number of managerial and supervisory staff. This happened despite the fact that on the European side decisions were taken rapidly. These long delays also meant that Surinam had to cancel some projects since, with the passing of time, the amount allotted often turned out to be too small, and additional funds were sometimes needed by existing projects.

(1) 1 EUA=1.958 Surinam guilders.

(2) 1 EUA=2.772 Dutch guilders.

Bringing back the emigrants

The mass emigration of 130 000 people inevitably represents a substantial obstacle to harmonious development, especially from the economic point of view. Ambassador Ferrier said people were welcome to come back, but if they were to return on a massive scale it would be difficult to cope with them. He considered that alongside a premium to act as an incentive for people who return there should be a selective repatriation policy; but he also felt that it was still too early to examine the matter thoroughly.

Mechanisation is one possible solution to the shortage of manpower. In rice production, for instance, as the Foundation for the Development of Mechanised Farming in Wageningen (Netherlands) can testify, mechanisation has already produced some very good results. The same Dutch production technique, the cultivation of rice on polders, is to be applied more widely, for example on the land that will become available once the Stondansie project is completed. The dam that is to be built under this project will raise the freshwater level and make an additional 8000-10 000 ha of polders available. According to ambassador Ferrier, Surinam is tailor-made for producing rice. The Stondansie project—which has had a long and eventful history with the study phases, the submission and withdrawal of the project under the 1st EDF and its resubmission under the 3rd EDF—will supplement the "Europolders" financed under the 1st EDF. Mr Ferrier advocated producing factory-milled rice locally for local consumption instead of exporting paddy as cargo rice, which is the normal practice. Higher yields and increased export earnings, along with the fact that the waste products can be used for the production of animal foodstuffs, are in his view decisive arguments.

Ambassador Ferrier has called several times on the EEC agriculture commissioner to allow free access for rice and rice products from ACP countries into the EEC, especially as the quantity of rice exported by Surinam and other ACP countries represents only a fraction of the EEC's total rice imports. Failing this,

he suggested the lifting of the levy on at least the processed rice exports of the ACP, as this would encourage their industrialisation.

In agriculture Surinam can produce virtually anything

Before the abolition of slavery on the plantations and the opening of the Suez Canal, Surinam exported a wide range of agricultural products in large quantities. This is no longer the case. However, the country's bananas, for example, are still of very high quality, which gives them a competitive edge in world market; but here too, production is suffering from the shortage of manpower.

Citrus products also have great potential and the various EEC import and export regulations are favourable here, especially for grapefruit.

According to the ambassador, the sugar cane industry has had a number of setbacks in the last few years with the result that production has fallen sharply. The government is now going to try to produce at least enough to stop importing sugar and possibly to start exporting it later, he said. Surinam rum, which is produced from molasses, a waste product of sugar cane, is another important product here, especially in view of the protocol on rum annexed to the Lomé Convention. A completely new crop has recently been introduced in Surinam: the oil palm. A joint venture company, "Vic-

toria", with the Surinam government and a private Dutch firm as partners, has successfully launched this new and promising industry in the Brokopondo reservoir area. A pressing factory was recently opened there and the refinery is nearing completion. Experimental plantations have also been established elsewhere and according to ambassador Ferrier this is a sector which holds promise for the future.

Plenty of forest but little timber

More than 75% of the country's territory is covered with forest but there are relatively few trees of the same spe-



It's a rough ride but the traditional kinds of transport are still good

cies per hectare, which is a big obstacle to profitable exploitation. A Dutch firm has been producing plywood, particle board and other wood products since 1949. However, part of the balsam wood needed for plywood was imported to conserve Surinam's reserves, at first from Brazil by river, and now from Guyana. Surinam's own forestry resources are maintained by a programme of systematic replanting.

Mr Ferrier said Surinam was very much aware that its forestry resources had to be developed. To this end a state

which was in fact the original reason for planting the pines. Trial newspapers have already been produced from this scheme.

"West Surinam— a dream comes true"

This is the title of the Surinam government's publication on a gigantic project in west Surinam, which clearly expresses the high hopes placed in the undertaking.

lion Surinam guilders, creating a total of more than 19 000 jobs. "Apoera" on the Corantijn river will become Surinam's second largest town after Paramaribo, the capital, as a result of this plan. To encourage a pioneering spirit among the young unemployed in Surinam itself and among those returning from the Netherlands, President Dr. Johan H. E. Ferrier, the ambassador's brother, launched the slogan "Go West young men, go West" or, as the ambassador put it, "If you are prepared to put your shoulder to the wheel you will find work in west Surinam".

A look at the outside world

Personally in favour of close cooperation with Surinam's Caribbean neighbours, Mr Ferrier sat with the "Caribbean Region" group during the September ACP ambassadors' meeting in Brussels. Surinam, the only Dutch-speaking ACP country, successfully called for a change in the name of the former group of the "Caribbean Commonwealth Countries" to simply the "Caribbean Region".

In addition to expressing satisfaction with the earlier EDF projects—and in this connection, he again stressed the fact that time and money were lost all too frequently as a result of the shortage of national managerial staff—ambassador Ferrier expressed Surinam's desire to become a fully-fledged ACP state with all the related rights and obligations. However, he saw Surinam adopting a unique position as regards its allocation under the 4th EDF: as a one-time OCT and new ACP state, he would prefer the financial allocation under the current EDF not to be drawn from the overall ACP package. Under a future 5th EDF, Surinam would be placed on the same footing as the other ACP states. Only time can tell how Surinam's relations with the EEC will develop. That is also true of the country's overall socio-economic development. But it is certain that Surinam can carve out a bright future for itself if it takes the appropriate steps for, as ambassador Ferrier stressed, the new sovereign state holds all the natural cards it needs to become economically as well as politically independent. ■

R.D.B.



Harvesting sugar cane : mechanisation in farming is one possible solution to the shortage of manpower

body for the exploitation of forestry resources has been set up. Negotiations have been going on for years with a United States firm for setting up a pulp production unit, but this project would seem to have been postponed indefinitely. At one time initiatives were taken to plant a species of pine tree imported from the Caribbean, the timber from which is highly suitable for processing into sawn logs for use in housing. The present government, however, is considering using the pine forests—which now cover a wide area—for pulp production,

The plan for opening up and developing this region, where 400-500 million tonnes of bauxite reserves are located—enough to keep production going for years—can very briefly be summarised as follows: bauxite mining; the Apoera railway line and the Tibitie-Avanavero road link; the Kabalebo power supply project with accompanying irrigation facilities; the extension of forestry, agriculture, stock-farming and industry. All these elements are closely linked and the total investment required in this "concentration area" will be 1748 mil-

"Partners in Progress" in Berlin⁽¹⁾



Claude Cheysson (left) with Hans Friederichs, federal German economics minister, at the Zaire stand

Sixteen African signatories of the Lomé Convention took part in Berlin's 14th "Partners in Progress" Overseas Fair from 26 to 30 August 1976. They were: Benin, Burundi, Chad, Congo, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Lesotho, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Niger, Rwanda, Senegal, Sudan, Upper Volta and Zaire.

These States were able to participate at the Fair thanks to the support of the section of the European Development Fund concerned with the promotion of trade in ACP exports and funds made available by the Federal Republic of Germany and the Land of Berlin.

The trade arrangements agreed under the Lomé Convention were implemented in advance, becoming operative as early as 1 July 1975. Under these arrangements 99.2% of ACP exports are

guaranteed free access to the Common Market. The Lomé Convention does not require the ACP States to accord reciprocal treatment to imports of European products. Each ACP State can decide its commercial policy for itself, but must give the EEC most favoured-nation treatment. The great majority of the ACP States apply non-preferential arrangements in trade with EEC countries.

The ACP States export products such as coffee, cocoa and cocoa products, tea, oleaginous fruit, fresh tropical fruit, fresh out-of-season vegetables, fish and deep-frozen shellfish, preserved fruit, preserved vegetables, preserved fish and meat, pure natural honey, hides and skins, tropical wood, raw and processed rubber, gum arabic, cotton yarn and textiles.

Some of these products were offered for sampling at the "Partners in Progress" Fair; coffee from Rwanda and Burundi, fresh and preserved pineapple, pawpaws, coconuts, limes from the Ivory Coast and cigars and cigarillos from Rwanda, etc.

All the states taking part also displayed a large variety of handicraft products, which are not yet sufficiently well-known in Europe: old weapons, silverware, jewellery, jewel boxes, knotted and linen carpets and handmade camel-hair covers, seats made of wood and rattan and carved wooden figures and masks.

Businessmen were able to take advantage of the trade promotion sales organised on the ACP stands. Tropical fruit, coffee, objects d'art, handicraft articles and ready-to-wear clothing were some of the items on offer.

EEC development commissioner Claude Cheysson spoke on European development policy at the opening ceremony.

(see page 70)

(1) Information from Mr Freisberg, head of the EEC information office in Berlin.

National service in Guyana

1976 is the tenth anniversary of the Cooperative Republic of Guyana and the sixth anniversary of the introduction of "cooperative socialism" as a means of bringing about economic progress and the social and economic structural reorganization of "the society forced on the country by the colonial system".

Education and training determine change in society, particularly in the developing countries, and this is why, as soon as independence was declared in 1966, the Guyana government embarked upon a wholesale reform of the country's education system. It was felt that the system originally set up in 1876 in no way matched the real needs of the newly-independent nation.

The first step was to put an end to the proliferation of private schools set up and run by people with no qualifications and often with financial rather than educational aims. Schooling was made compulsory for all children between the ages of five and sixteen.

The government was faced with two main problems—a school population explosion and poor financial resources. This was why the concept of self-help was also introduced in education.

The first self-help establishment, a secondary school, was built at Courentyne in 1966. The project saved the government G\$ 80 000 and, in 1968, some 9 458 primary school places were made available. In 1973, at the end of the first education and training development plan, the government spent G\$ 5.5 m on providing 300 000 primary and 7 000 secondary places.

National service

The government's educational policy was completed in 1970 with the introduction of voluntary national service. The aim is to join with other govern-

ment institutions to stimulate greater interest among the people by providing them with the technical training which will enable them to take an active part in the development of their country.

Why this emphasis on national service in Guyana? Because Georgetown attaches so much importance to development built on solid foundations and is anxious to avoid unemployment and do away with exorbitant privileges. As the Prime Minister, L. F. S. Burnham, said, how could they cut down on unemployment if they did not have men and women who were properly trained for work?

National service involves various groups of young people between the ages of 16 and 25—regardless of whether they have any professional qualifications or university training—who are unable to find jobs. Those with no qualifications are trained in the various sectors of development—agriculture, cooperatives, industrial techniques and understanding the basic tenets of the Cooperative Republic of Guyana.

Dr Reid, the vice-premier, said the education system inherited from the colonial period meant that, 100 years later, Guyana had neither the management staff nor the technicians needed to develop the country properly. The system had "left the country in a state of under-development".

National service is just one of the ways of rectifying the situation the government inherited in 1966.

More than 2 000 young people—of whom 600 are in the Kimbia region—are currently involved in national service training.

It should be remembered that national service in Guyana is voluntary and, unlike national service in the developed countries, entirely devoid of any military connotations. ■ L.P.

Two significant stories about European integration. One day in 1958, Robert Schuman was talking about a possible European common market to a group of students in a lecture theatre at the University of Strasbourg when one of the girls in the audience suddenly got up and shouted, "Shut up you old b—". Schuman calmly took his glasses off and said, "What a nasty word from such a pretty mouth". And then he added that the unity of Europe was a question of faith and intelligence. The second story goes back to 1967. The United Kingdom was in two minds about joining the six-nation Common Market and De Gaulle asked, "Do they really want to or do they feel they have to?"

These two anecdotes illustrate the problems involved in building Europe. They also show the will and the conviction of the men who believed that unity in Europe was the foundation stone for its development, progress and independence.

There is a moral here for African countries and the ACP States in general.

Why regional and inter-regional integration in the ACP?

The problem of cooperation is still very much a bilateral one, both between one country and another and at world level, between the non-industrialized countries and the industrialized countries. This division into two camps determines the highly unbalanced state of trade relations in the world today. Instead of considering progress to be the result of an economy largely dependent on external outlets and help from the industrialized world, the ACP should be seeking a form of development which is founded

The necessity of regional and inter-regional economic integration in the ACP



By LUCIEN PAGNI

CARABIN

primarily on their own (large but ill-organized and unintegrated) markets. It is both regrettable and paradoxical that trade between the various countries of Africa currently only accounts for 6% of their international trade—a growth rate of 2% between 1960 and 1972.

For instance, one of the countries of central Africa buys its beef and veal from Europe—or from Argentina via Europe—while Botswana, a major producer, is unable to sell all its meat and has enormous difficulty in surmounting barriers, particularly tariff ones, to sales on the European market. And again, as far as services are concerned, it is singularly odd that it is easier to phone Paris, London or Washington from some countries of Africa than it is to get through to neighbouring countries, when calls have to go via the capitals of Europe.

In the first part of a series of investigations in industry into the conditions of investment in the ACP (Courier no. 39), the very small markets are emphasized as being one of the main impediments to investment. As far as regional and inter-regional integration are concerned, the history of developing countries contains more failures than successes, although the creation of a vast regional or inter-regional market in Africa, particularly among the ACP countries, would by no means involve abandoning trade with the outside world. A common market and greater liberty in trade relations as a whole are certainly not incompatible. What we do need, however, is to create a sufficiently broad basis to help industries that can compete on foreign markets to develop first.

Making the most of the Lomé Convention

The Convention is by no means a perfect cooperation agreement, although it is, as things stand, the best of its kind, containing some really important features like the Stabex. But the Convention also accords a considerable amount of importance to the regional and inter-regional cooperation already begun under Yaoundé I and II. Some 10% of the 4th EDF's 3300 million u.a. are destined for inter-ACP cooperation. The best use should be made of this and the proper foundations laid for regional

and inter-regional cooperation among the ACP.

Of course, central Africa has UDEAC (central African economic and customs union) and there have been repeated and sometimes successful attempts at unity in the west of the continent. There is also CARICOM, the Caribbean common market. However, the scope of these organizations remains fairly limited in view of the existence and the constraints of international economies.

An average of half the exports in the original six-nation Community remained within the Community. In the nine-nation Community, the figure would appear to be two-thirds for all but the United Kingdom. A similar pattern emerged in the Latin American free trade area 10 years after the treaty was signed, when exports from members accounted for 1/5 of total internal trade, as against 1/10 at the outset.

Inter-ACP cooperation in the form of regional and inter-regional integration is, therefore, vital if these countries are to develop properly. If there is no cooperation, then only the industrialized countries—which already have all the means they need—will be in a position to surmount national customs barriers and the ACP will simply have helped maintain imbalance and unfair competition between their own and the industrialized economies. Only integration will enable sufficiently large markets to be created. It will facilitate certain key investments and mean that mass production, giving competitive products at low unit cost, can be achieved. These were among the ideas that inspired the creation of the European Community in the '50s. They still hold good today, and they still require faith, intelligence and will from the politicians. ■

L. P.



Forestry in Cameroon

Tropical forestry

A third of the land surface of the Earth is covered by forests. They constitute an immense, renewable natural resource. And as with so many of the world's natural resources, the present age has shown that there are limits to what can be exploited without safeguards. The forests which protected mankind for so long now need protection themselves.

The forest has a vital ecological role, protecting land, regulating water supplies, cleaning the air and sheltering flora and fauna. This ecological role is still not really understood. Certainly it is more delicately balanced than many forest users allow for; for example, attempts to regenerate some species of trees in the West African forests appear to have failed because the natural conditions have been changed. Moreover, the forest is part of an overall ecological system and it is no coincidence that in areas such as the Sahel, famine has followed the removal of the tree cover.

At the same time, the forest provides essential resources: food, fuel and clean water for local populations, and timber and wood products for fast-growing markets.

The more optimistic current projections indicate that the natural forests will be able to supply the world's timber requirements until the end of the century, by which time plantations should have taken over as the main source of supply. Nonetheless, the race against time is on. Although it may take a thousand years for a forest ecosystem to evolve, it only takes a day to destroy it. The traditional slash-and-burn method of clearing the tropical forest to grow crops has already destroyed great areas which cannot simply be left to grow again. Tropical forest land may appear very fertile, but it is often an illusion. In many

cases the soil is too poor to support crops for more than a short time, the clearings become waste ground and the farmers move on to destroy more forest. Meanwhile, an unscientific timber industry has decimated the more accessible areas of the forest to the point where some species will never regenerate naturally again.

The developing countries are increasingly aware of the importance of their forests and are taking stock of the situation. While too little is known about the tropical forest and too little has been done to introduce the right forestry techniques, there is a strong temptation to cash in on a world demand for tropical wood products which should soon rise sharply. The current economic climate, however, is acting as a brake, by making foreign investment hard for developing wood industries to come by. This is a respite during which the priorities for the developing wood-exporting countries are:

- to continue the scientific inventory of the forests;
- to introduce better forestry and land-use practices;
- to identify and protect ecologically fragile areas and repair damage by reforestation;
- to develop plantations;
- to acquire new, smaller pulp mills incorporating technology suited to tropical woods and developing economies;
- and to ensure a wholesale rationalisation of the timber industry, including marketing.

This does not only need time, training and money. It requires what Dr Kenneth King, FAO Assistant Director-General of forestry, calls "the domestication of the forest". ■

Domesticating the forest

Interview with Dr. K.F.S. King, FAO Assistant Director-General of forestry

► *Dr King, the FAO intends to devote much of its activities under the 1976-77 budget to tropical forestry. Has this suddenly become more important?*

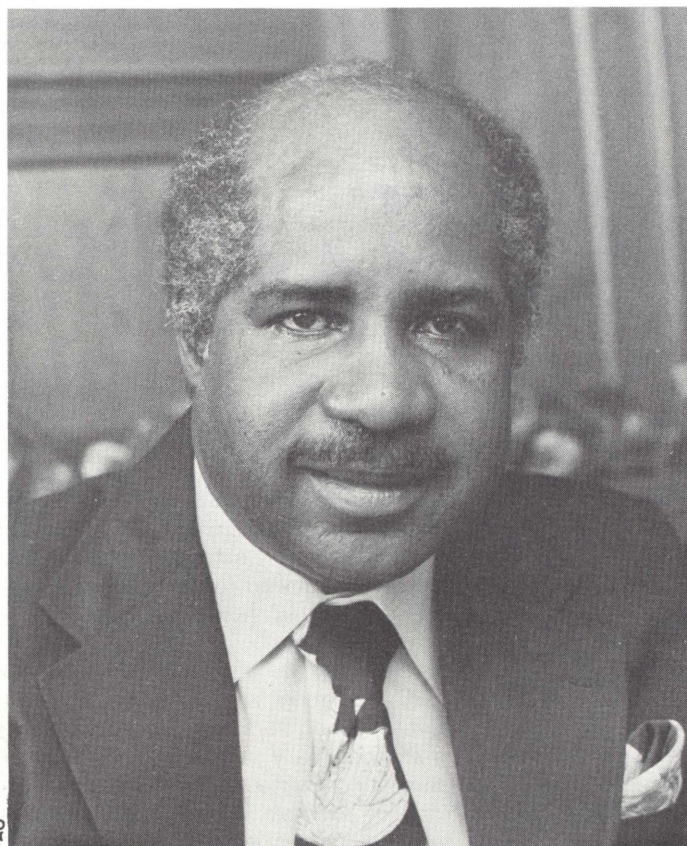
— No, tropical forestry has been important for a long time. But in the past our attack on the problems has been rather fragmentary and we now want to concentrate on certain aspects of tropical forestry that seem to provide the basis for economic development. These are the development of the pulp and paper industry, using tropical woods, and the development of the rural sector through forestry.

The developing countries possess 55% of the world's forests and produce only 6.5% of the world's pulp and paper. There are three main reasons for this. Firstly, the technology developed in the past has been based on making pulp and paper from coniferous, long fibre, timber, which is basically found in the temperate, developed countries. Secondly, the investment needed for pulp and paper development is extremely high—at least, that is the accepted idea. Thirdly, the developing countries do not possess the necessary technology.

The very lushness of the tropical forests has worked against them, because a technology that utilises only a few species is difficult to apply economically to developing countries where forests have several species per unit area. But over the past 10 years there has been considerable laboratory research on the possibility of using a mixture of tropical timber to make pulp and paper, and certain types of paper can now be produced from the tropical forest. We can certainly produce pulp which, when mixed with long-fibred pulp from the developed countries, can be used to make most kinds of paper.

What sort of investment does this require? It is true that there are economies of scale in pulp and paper manufacturing, and the present view in the developed countries is that you need to produce at least 700 tons of paper a day in order to have a viable operation. The consumption of pulp and paper in the developing countries is much less than this, so the accepted thinking is that any sort of pulp and paper development must be export-oriented and is bound to require a fantastic amount of capital.

But we have been looking at two things: whether it is possible to design smaller pulp and paper mills, and at the socio-



Dr K. F. S. King

economic as well as the financial aspects. Our conclusion is that much smaller pulp and paper industries can still offer an acceptable rate of return and will have socio-economic benefits besides. And acceptable tariff barriers could be set up to make these industries competitive with imported products. This is still being studied, but we hope to have pretty definitive results by October, 1977, when a pulp and paper conference is due to be held in Tunis.

However, a study is not an end in itself. Once the relevant technology and the countries suitable for pulp and paper development are identified, we will need investors. And this month (November) we are holding a meeting with private investors from the developed countries and ministers from the developing countries so each side can learn what the other requires and to lay down some ground rules. We also aim to interest international financing bodies in our findings in October next year.

Rural development is the other main area of interest, and here forestry has an important role to play. Although there may be signs of economic growth in developing countries, it is often concentrated in the cities and the bulk of the population is passed by. Forestry can help in rural employment and

we have a rural development project aimed at identifying areas where labour-intensive forest industries could be set up.

A particularly important question is how to combine forestry with agriculture. One of the problems in the developing world is that the forests are being razed to the ground. Because of the need to produce more food, and because tropical agriculture has not matched this need with greater productivity, the farmers seek new land, generally by clearing the forest. I hope no one denies them the right to do so; but what we need is to produce more food *and* preserve the forests. It is tremendously important, not only because there is a rising demand for wood in the world but because many of the soils under the tropical forests are incapable of producing food on a sustained basis. Hence the system of shifting agriculture. We need to use this system, which has been evolved by the tropical farmers themselves, in a more productive way, by growing crops together with the forest. This is called agrisylviculture.

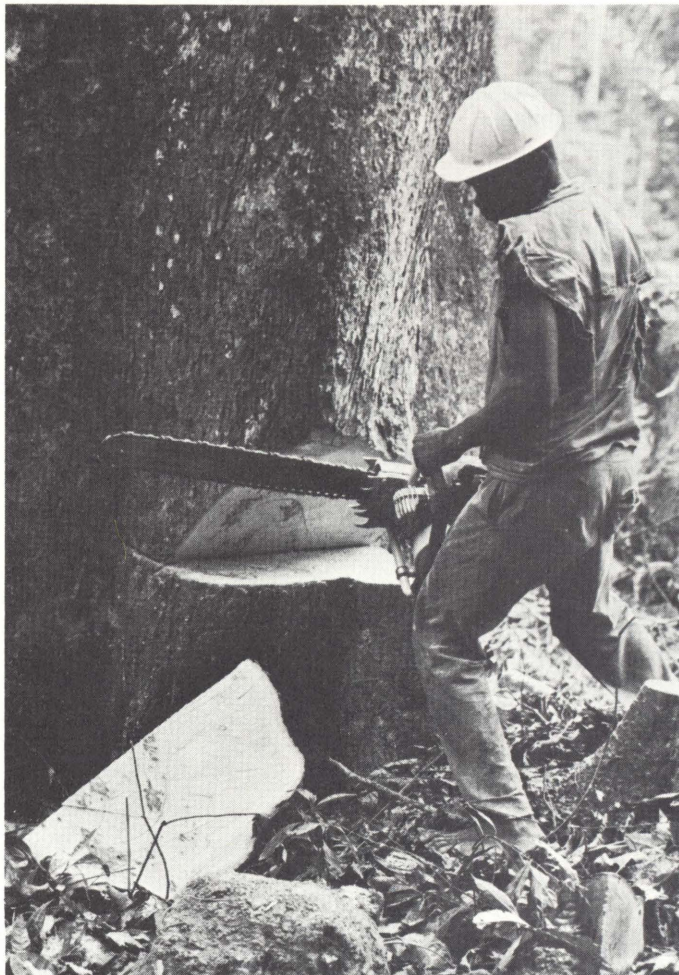
The process is as follows: small trees are planted out in rows, and agricultural crops are planted between the rows. When the trees get too big the farmers then move on to another area to plant their crops. Previously they left an area that had been destroyed. Now they will leave a forest and create a resource that can be the basis for industrialisation. There have been accusations that the forest industry rapes the forest, but I don't really think that's true. If forests are properly managed they are renewable and the practices followed by most forest exploiters, under the control of the forestry departments, are such that the forests are regenerated.

► *What are the prospects for marketing forestry products from the developing countries apart from pulp and paper?*

— Forests are capable of producing a range of products—fuel wood, boards, sawn timber, plywood, veneer, chipboard, pulp and paper—and although this range calls for highly sophisticated technology at one end, it only requires very simple technology at the other. So there is a type of forest industry for almost every country in the world, no matter what its technological level. This makes forestry very important to development.

The problem is that the forestry industries and practices of the developing world have been shaped by the old colonial powers. Consequently, only a few species from the tropical forests are used to meet the demands of the rich countries. But most of the forests in the developing countries are fantastically mixed, and to take two or three out of maybe five hundred trees is obviously bad economics. You still have to build the same roads to get them out. So we must ensure that the developed countries, which still provide the main markets, understand that the other woods in the forests are not only utilisable but as good, if not better, than the woods to which they are accustomed. But even if you say such-and-such a species is good, you still don't usually have it available in quantity because the forest is mixed. So the FAO is looking at the various characteristics of different species—colour, density, strength, what you can do with them—and trying to put together species which, although different botanically, have similar qualities.

Then, cellulose is cellulose; it is the main component of wood wherever it comes from and it doesn't much matter



Using a chain saw (Central African Republic)

what species of wood are used for maceration, for chipping and pulping to make chipboard, etc. So the total volume of the wood in the tropical forests can be utilised.

► *You point out that exports of tropical forestry products depend mainly on the markets in the developed countries. Why should industrialists there turn to the developing countries when they are aware that Canada, for instance, could probably produce twice as much of the traditional kinds of timber as at present, and when they are anxious about delivery dates, quality control and all the other problems likely to trouble a new forestry industry?*

— Canada has large reserves of forests, but they are relatively inaccessible and the cost of producing tropical timber may be lower than the cost of producing timber in the developed countries. Given present practices and the present level of efficiency in the developing countries, although labour is cheaper, the cost of producing tropical timber may still be relatively high. But with training, and if the whole forest can be used, it seems to me that in the long run it will work out cheaper to produce timber in the developing countries than in, say, Canada or Russia.

► *And is the technological research sufficiently advanced for the developed countries really to be able to use new kinds of tropical timber now?*

— The technology is there and it is accepted. The real problem is marketing.

► *What would you suggest as the main lines of a forestry policy for developing countries taking over their own forest resources?*

— First, to ensure that as much as possible of the conversion of the raw material into the finished product is done in their own countries. The reasons are obvious. Second, they must not forget that the forests are not only there to produce wood for consumption but also to protect the land and the farmers. The forest is essential to the environment. They must therefore practise sound land use: they must classify their land, identify those areas that are ecologically brittle and clothe them with forests and use the rest for production—not just for the production of raw materials, I repeat, but to establish industries they can sustain themselves.

► *How important is the role of the forest in the ecology rather than in the economy of the developing countries, and how fragile is the ecology of the forest itself?*

— The forest has a number of beneficial effects on the ecology. It has several layers, formed by trees of different heights and the thick layer of litter on the ground, below which there is humus formed by decomposing vegetation, and there are root channels left in the ground by dead trees. This combination provides protection and spreads water downwards. The forest protects the land from the impact of rain; compaction and erosion are prevented; the forest helps stop flooding, soil loss and the siltation of rivers and reservoirs. It serves as a regulating ecosystem for water supplies, by absorbing the excess of water in peak periods of rain and releasing it in the dry season. The water is purified because the ground litter and the soil act as a filter. This is very important in countries that depend on natural sources of drinking water. The forest also acts as a buffer against other kinds of pollution, noise and dust.



J.J. Swift - FAO

Fire: another threat to the preservation of the forests in the ACP countries

If we exploit the forests, will these benefits be lost? I think the critical areas are the slopes and areas where climatic conditions might lead to permanent degradation if the forest is interfered with. The knowledge that we have can only indicate where this might happen; it is still not enough. Preservationists say we should not touch the forests because we don't know exactly what the effects will be, but this seems to me an untenable point of view in the light of the needs of the developing countries. We have to be cautious in our exploitation of the forests, and at the same time we have to evolve means of research to tell us what will happen.

To conduct this research on traditional lines would require large areas of forest, to replicate the conditions under study; these are difficult to find and exact replication would also be difficult. The research would take a long time because forests grow slowly and to note the effects on the ecology of the degradation of the forest might take centuries. Another approach is to use available technology to construct models, either mathematical or physical, and reconstruct different systems—a certain angle of slope combined with a particular soil texture under given climatic conditions, and so on—then feed the result into a computer. At least it would give a better idea than

we now have of what would happen if certain things were done to certain areas.

► *For much of the history of mankind the trees were our home. We're very fond of them. Seeing a road driven through the Amazon forest, for instance, causes anxiety. Are big areas of forest now seriously threatened, and should something be done simply to protect them before going ahead any further with their commercial exploitation?*

— I've seen figures quoted by eminent scientists on the degradation of tropical forests. As head of forestry at the FAO—I don't want to sound pompous—I should be aware of them. Nonetheless, my concept of the degradation of the forests might be different from that of the alarmists. I do not think the practice of forestry permanently degrades the forests. The number of hectares now being exploited does not indicate whether the forests are being degraded or not and more intensive surveys would be required in order to find out. Even to look at the areas being cleared for farmland does not indicate whether the ecology is being destroyed or not, because some tropical soils under forest are capable of producing ag-



Seedling nursery for reforestation in Zaïre

ricultural crops on a sustained basis. No surveys have been made on this. One thing we are doing now is using satellites to see what is happening to the ecology; we have a pilot scheme in West Africa, covering Togo, Benin, Nigeria and Cameroon. But until more results are available, any statements or predictions regarding the degradation of the forests seem to me unscientific.

The rate of exploitation of the tropical forest for forestry is, at present, very low, and I don't think we are going to lose these forests in the foreseeable future. What is happening is that the tropical forests, as they exist naturally, are being changed. And I don't see anything wrong with this. Mankind's progress has been based on the domestication of animals and plants. At present, tropical forestry is perhaps comparable to agriculture 300 years ago; we pick the individual trees, we fiddle about; we have not domesticated the forest. And it seems to me that the object of the exercise, except in ecologically brittle areas, is to domesticate the forest. We have to do it in such a way that we do not upset the ecological balance. There must be progress on both the scientific and the technological fronts.

▶ *One problem is that forestry is a long-term exercise and politics is more day-to-day. How can forestry policies be maintained against the more immediate claims of the agricultural policies with which they are generally combined?*

— Politicians have on the whole realised that forests have an important part to play in economic development. What really bothers politicians is not so much the rate of economic growth as the number of people unemployed. The developed countries in general have had an economic history of nearly full employment, making labour expensive and technology desirable. The developing countries, on the other hand, have a worsening employment situation. Officially they claim, on average, to have about 17% of the labour force out of work, but you don't need to be tremendously well acquainted with governments to know that the official figures for bad things like unemployment are usually lower than is actually the case. I suspect the developing countries have at least 20% unemployment on average. So the economic problems are not the same and one has to evolve different technology. Forestry and forest industries employ a lot of people, cutting down the trees, building roads, and in primary, secondary and tertiary industries. The back and forward linkage indices for labour absorption in forestry are at least as high as in most other sectors. So I think politicians, if properly briefed, might not feel forestry is a bad investment.

▶ *So the main necessity now is to survey the forests. Who is going to do it?*

— This is absolutely true. We know the area of the forests but we only have a rough idea of what is in them. They must be surveyed. Some areas must be surveyed again. Who is going to do it? In the last resort, the national governments, but these things are costly. Perhaps the EEC could help—if only to know where its future supplies are going to come from! ■

Interview by
BARNEY TRENCH

African wood in world trade



Moving out the timber by rail (Congo)

The main tropical timber exporting regions are, in order of importance, East Asia, West and Central Africa and Latin America. All of them have seen a spectacular expansion in their timber trade over the last 15 years. In the developing countries as a whole, the value of timber exports rose nearly sevenfold between 1961 and 1973, from US \$526 m to \$3598 m. This was almost twice as fast as the increase in the world timber trade as a whole over the same period, which rose from \$6042 m to \$22 360 m (1).

(1) This and the following article are based on the FAO publication "The Marketing of Tropical Wood - wood species from African tropical moist forests" by T. Erfurth and H. Rusche, 1976.

The most spectacular increase was from 1970-73, before the negative results of the recession starting in 1974 were felt. During this period world exports of forest products rose by 78% and the developing countries increased their timber exports by 145%.

In 1973, the developing countries' forest products exports were worth 16% of the world total. The developed market economy countries accounted for 74% of the total and the central economy countries for 10%.

Of the 16% of the world total supplied by the developing countries, East Asia accounted for two-thirds and Africa for one fifth. Africa lagged behind the general world rise in wood production and trade in the '60s, but more than doubled exports in the next four years to provide 3.35% in value of total world forest products exports in 1973.

The developing countries' share of 16% of total world forest products exports might seem modest beside the phenomenal increase they have achieved, but the figure is in terms of value. Most value is, of course, added by processing the raw material, and the developing countries in fact produced

61% of total world log exports in 1973, 50% of the veneer and 43% of the plywood. The big gap comes with all the products made by disintegrating wood. The developing countries only provided 3% of world pulp exports and 2% of world paper and paper board exports in the same year.

The main African exporters

Eight West and Central African countries provided 88% of the total exports of forest products from all African developing countries in 1973. These were: Cameroon, Congo, Gabon, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Liberia, Nigeria and Zaïre. They earned \$656 m out of total African forest products exports worth \$748 m.

Much the greater part of the developing countries' processed forest products comes from Asia. The African countries provided only 1% of world exports of sawnwood and 2% of plywood in 1973. Nonetheless, they accounted for 10% of world log exports and 18% of world veneer exports. Nearly

Timber yard in the port of Douala (Cameroon)



all the tropical logs exported are of broadleaved species, and West and Central Africa provided 15% of world broadleaved log exports in the same year.

These export figures do not reflect production figures. Tropical Africa exported 47% of its log production, tropical Latin America 8%, and East Asia 61% in 1974, and there are considerable differences between the eight West and Central African countries: Cameroon (79%), Gabon (74%), and the Ivory Coast (67%) exported over two-thirds of their log production, while Nigeria (20%) and Zaïre (10%) apparently used most of theirs at home.

Marketing the tropical rain forest

Marketing is Africa's main concern if it is to sell more wood (see interview with Dr King). Too few species are marketed and too little is known about the others. The tropical rain forest has a density of up to 800 cubic metres of wood per hectare, with an average in large areas of mature forests of 250-300 m³/ha. The volume of commercial wood removed from natural forests may reach 60 m³/ha but ranges normally between 5 and 30 m³/ha.

Though it is generally accepted that too few species are exploited, as the above figures would appear to confirm, there are over 200 tropical wood species which are more or less

known to the trade. About half of them are regularly used in appreciable quantities (produced in quantities over 1000 m³ per year). This must seem a good many to the average consumer outside the trade. Moreover, the natural forest, although heterogeneous, is usually dominated by only a few species, and two-thirds or more of the number of tree species growing in a given area of the African rain forest may be formed of between 20 and 40 species only.

Despite the number of species which do find their way to market, a very few predominate. In the eight West and Central African countries under consideration, 35 different species were exported in quantities above 10 000 m³ per year in 1973 (as against 18 in 1951). Yet 10 species made up 70% of log and sawnwood exports, and two species alone, obéché and okoumé, constituted 31% of total log production and 39% of total log and sawnwood exports.

It is relevant to see what happened to this timber. Of the total log production in 1973, only 41% was processed locally; 24% of this went to domestic consumption and 17% (a little over 2000 m³) was exported. Estimates on uses for exported roundwood indicate that 39% was used for sawnwood, 36% for veneer and 25% for plywood.

So about three-quarters of the trees cut down in the main African timber countries were exported, 59% of them as logs; and these logs were sawn, turned into veneer or used for plywood fairly equally by the buyers. ■ B. T.



Picou - AAA photo

Machines like this can change the face of nature in days

Marketing African wood

The 10 best-selling kinds of wood from the main African timber countries are listed below:

West and Central African saw and veneer log production of principal commercial woods — 1000 m³ (1973)

	Log production	Liberia	Ivory Coast	Ghana	Nigeria	Came-roon	Gabon	Congo	Zaire
OBECHE	1960	21	1109	520	229	69	—	5	7
OKOUME	1782	—	—	—	—	—	1571	211	—
SIPO	661	49	430	107	2	26	9	7	31
ACAJOU-MAHOGANY	586	3	195	161	136	18	19	28	26
SAPELLI	552	7	172	190	7	84	—	61	31
LIMBA	462	—	51	1	265	16	39	65	24
IROKO	349	9	184	95	17	18	—	6	20
TIAMA	308	2	179	83	6	4	5	3	26
AZOBE	284	16	5	1	1	261	—	—	—
MAKORE-DOUKA	274	20	166	56	—	2	15	15	—

Isn't it good African wood

These are the top 10 species because they have the right qualities, they are available and, above all, they are known to the trade. Another 200 species are waiting to challenge them. Years of laboratory work have gone into investigating their properties, but timber dealers are not going to read through years of laboratory work. The FAO is now updating a condensed list of different species and their properties to provide a practical handbook for the trade. The simplified list of qualities gives A, B, or C ratings for workability, shrinkage, finishing, strength, durability, log form and occurrence, with four ratings for density.

This looks simple enough, but it based on a complex examination of nearly 50 separate qualities for each species. "Workability", for instance, covers the properties related to cutting, combining and shaping wood: sawing, peeling, slicing, planing, drilling, nailing, nail holding, screwing, glueing, moulding, mortizing and sanding.

"Strength" covers static bending, impact bending, compression parallel to and perpendicular to the grain, shear parallel to the grain, tension parallel and perpendicular to the grain, cleavage and resistance to wear.

Tests had to be devised not only to calculate all this but to give comparable results, and these have to be expressed in terms understandable to everyone interested in using tropical timber.

An example: the species "brachystegia leonensis" gets a 'B' rating for durability. Under this one heading it has been tested for the following conditions:

- in continuous contact with moist ground;
- exposed to weather, but kept from being soaked in water and properly ventilated;
- under the roof, not in contact with moist ground and properly ventilated;



Treating wood can greatly increase its durability

- as above but properly maintained and regularly painted;
- attack by subterranean termites;
- attack by powder post beetles.

These are objective criteria of utility, but much of the appeal of wood, especially for furnishing, is in its appearance, which is not only a subjective quality but follows fashion trends. And utility woods can also be decorative. This complicates the assessment. About a third of African log exports are turned into veneer. Take one example, limba (*terminalia superba*) which grows in all West African countries. It is particularly appreciated as a veneer because of its light yellow colour. However, it is often a greyish colour, which is less commercially acceptable, and it is frequently degraded by borer holes caused by lyctus attack during the growing period. Only the Mayombé area, a mountain strip passing through three countries, seems to provide the right qualities consistently. So how is this wood classified for "occurrence" and "finishing"? It gets an 'A' for both, but a potential buyer would find some reservations as soon as he looked beyond the brief guide into the detailed information that backs it up.

The FAO list is only a first approach to establishing a tropical timber guide that really offers the trade a practical handbook. Clearly it is very useful in its present form, covering 105 "commercial" species and 112 "lesser used" or "lesser known" species; but in itself this classification will only be part of a strategy to sell more African wood. The forests themselves must be surveyed to find out what species grow where and in what quantities, and while the potential supplies are assessed, the potential markets must be researched and marketing techniques identified and applied. The FAO Committee on Forest Development in the Tropics agreed that "the experiences gained in establishing or improving classification by wood properties and in marketing systems could be expected to complement each other and be used in the development of a market strategy for the promotion of lesser-used species. Two major complementary lines of action emerge. One centres on establishing common uses for utility timbers with similar properties, the other on optimizing the value of wood species with assumed higher quality potential" (1).

217 varieties

The FAO classification of 217 species sheds some interesting light on the properties of the "commercial" and the "lesser used" woods. Why are some successful and not others? One point to be borne in mind is that a particular species may be fully commercialised in one country and little used in another, so the sales figures in themselves do not necessarily reflect the trade's choice of different woods.

The first observation is predictable enough. Importers want big straight logs, so small, twisted species are unpopular. In the "commercial" list, 84% of the species scored an 'A' for log form. In the "lesser-used" list, only 53% of high density and 39% of low and medium density woods get an 'A' under this heading.

(1) e.g. dissuading buyers from using veneer woods for railway sleepers.

Otherwise there is surprisingly little difference between the two lists as far as use properties are concerned, and indeed the "lesser-used" species on the whole get higher ratings for workability and finishing properties than the "commercial" species. The exception is durability, where 62% of the "lesser-used" species are of low durability against 49% of the "commercial" species. This highlights the importance of suitable wood preservation methods to improve the durability of the lighter woods, and also to help stop shrinkage and warping in the heavier woods.

A third observation is that there are more heavy species than light in the "lesser-used" group. High density wood species only accounted for 5% of exports from West and Central Africa in 1973, whereas only 12 light species accounted for 45% of total exports. It follows that any promotional effort in favour of lesser-used species must aim at overcoming the technical problems related to using heavier woods.

Selling more kinds of wood

Marketing requires an analysis of supply and demand. The continuing inventory of the forests and the FAO's initial comparative list of wood qualities will provide the basis of an analysis of the potential supply of tropical timber. A look at the potential markets should take the following features into consideration:

- Medium and long-term demand for tropical forest products is expected to expand further, both overseas and locally. Resources of "commercial" woods are dwindling and increased efforts are needed to introduce "lesser-used" species and to intensify regeneration. Rising local demand in particular will influence the diversification of products and requisite wood qualities.

- Wood supply requirements for individual mills tend to increase as a consequence of rising economies of scale, particularly in the primary conversion phase; and more uniform qualities are required for serial and mass-manufacture, particularly of consumer goods such as furniture, prefabricated windows and wall panels.

- Improved transport economics call for larger ships and more mechanised handling, which in turn influence sizes of loads and parcels as well as the kind and type of packaging.

Processing

What kinds of wood do foreign buyers want? Although the general economic recession in the industrial countries last year hit timber imports hard, because of the cut-back in the building industries, African woods are not generally used for basic building purposes. Most of the exports of processed wood from West and Central Africa (sawnwood, veneer and plywood) went for decorative and fine joinery purposes. Their appearance has an "exotic" appeal. Yet, although a relatively large proportion of sawnwood was processed locally (31% in roundwood equivalent of total saw and veneer log production), with regard to veneer and plywood the percentage is only 6% and 4% respectively. A priority for the producing countries is to process more of their wood themselves.



Sawmill in Cameroon

Treatment

The range of utility timbers for building and construction, and for such speciality uses as fencing and railway sleepers, could be widened considerably by wood preservation techniques. These should be part of forest industry planning, although the amount of technical knowledge and experience required in the initial stages to establish the necessary routine in treating and marketing treated timber should not be underestimated.

Timber seasoning has some important market aspects. Reducing the moisture content makes wood lighter and cheaper to transport and less liable to degradation. Most veneers (also for plywood) are dried during production, but some African mills do not yet use this process, which may prove an obstacle to marketing.

Most sawnwood is shipped after seasoning in the open air, but there is a clear trend towards kiln drying. As most African

sawnwood goes into furniture, windowframes and to other specific uses which require low wood moisture contents, this process should also be considered for improving market acceptability.

Shipping

The more highly processed wood products are already generally shipped kiln-dried in air-tight wrapping. Transport in containers offers additional advantages—apart from ease and economy of handling, containers provide first-class protection and help maintain the predetermined moisture content and form of timber exports over long distances, which is a precondition of efficient business. Lack of infrastructure and other factors preclude the introduction of container transport in many developing countries at present, and the problem is not specific to the timber industry, but a first step would be to draw up a list of wood products suitable for international



Banoun Caracciolo - FAO

Protecting and renewing the forest in Liberia

standardisation. International standards here are still relatively imprecise, but will no doubt become more stringent as the trade in processed wood expands. Standardisation would be applied to woods shipped in larger quantities for purposes requiring stable quality requirements, as opposed to products required to satisfy individual and changing specifications on a smaller scale.

Specifications

The question of specifications is an important aspect of marketing. Standardisation, dimensional accuracy, moisture content, tolerances, quality control and packaging are so many anxieties for importers. Tropical forest products usually take several months in transit from producer to consumer, during which they can be affected by handling, moisture and temper-

ature. The timing of deliveries in these conditions also needs special attention.

All these are aspects of industrialisation, a complex subject. Timber processing mills producing for export will continue to face rather rigid market requirements for some time to come, and will have to find an economically viable and technically appropriate mixture of wood species from what is often a limited choice in any particular locality. The choice of species will also depend on thorough market studies. Not only the choice of product but the choice of mills poses considerable problems. The industrial countries' experience of modern, integrated mills based on relatively uniform timber cannot be readily applied to the developing countries and their very different environment.

Local markets

Although export markets will continue to play a key role, local markets offer the advantages of different and possibly integrated industrial operations through which it would be possible to use a wider range of species and also to use wood, including residues, more efficiently. It will require considerable technical and managerial pioneering, but developing local markets could offer outlets for lesser-used species, particularly for their utility qualities, and for a wider range of processed products—quite apart from socio-economic considerations. Another aspect of local markets is that the building and construction industries could very well use the tropical woods that are generally considered too heavy for general utility purposes in the industrial countries, which are used to temperate forest species. More than 90% of the trade in the temperate countries is in low-density species. Heavy species are usually bigger and stronger, after all. Nonetheless, since there is a high demand for light and medium-weight hardwoods, increasing attention should be given to these in planning the regeneration of forest resources and when evaluating the use potential of lesser-used species. Meanwhile, if local markets can use a large number of lesser-used species for general utility purposes, it would be uneconomic and impractical to market species individually.

While there is a high degree of flexibility in the use of most commercial species, specialisation for specific uses has marked economic advantages. Marketing should aim at selling the right wood for the right job.

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* *

In conclusion, there are good possibilities for selling more kinds of African wood. They need to be defined for each particular forest area selected for development, since local resources, market conditions and export possibilities vary considerably, and the complexity of the general question of industrialisation should not be underestimated. Considerable technological adaptation is required as well as improved marketing and product promotion work. The timber industry offers good prospects for socio-economic development via both the domestic and export markets, and the main African producing countries are aware of it, to judge from their recent strengthening of national and regional efforts to harmonise their policies in the development of tropical forest production and trade. ■

B.T.

The Organisation of African Wood-exporting Countries (OAB)

The first meeting of the African ministerial conference on forestry and the timber trade was held in Libreville (Gabon) in December 1974 and the main outcome was a resolution on setting up an African organization for cooperation on forestry affairs.

The organization—called the Organization of African Wood-exporting Countries (Organisation des pays Africains et exportateurs de Bois—OAB)—was set up in Bangui, capital of the Central African Republic, on 27 May 1976. The 15 members are French and English-speaking wood-producing countries of Africa. The secretariat-general is at Libreville and the main institution is the annual conference of ministers.

The body is an international one devoted to cooperation and concertation in forestry and the timber trade. The aim is to enable member countries to coordinate the ways and means of getting maximum benefit from the forests and forestry products. The following objectives have been fixed:

- Permanent exchange of information among member countries and mutual support for forestry policies, marketing and industrialization in the timber sector.
- Harmonization of the trade policies of the member countries, particularly as regards prices, names, nomenclature and classification of products, standardization, packing, quality control and taxation.
- Investigation of freight costs and of the types of transport required for African products and the promotion of cooperation between member countries in negotiations on these questions.
- Market surveys on African woods and marketing of them.
- The coordination of member countries' industrialisation policies.
- The harmonization of policies in respect of reforestation and improvements to forests and the environment in general.
- The coordination of management training policies.
- A study of the possibility of a rationally-based African timber market and the setting-up of such a market.
- The promotion of close collaboration between land-locked and coastal countries, particularly as regards seeking fresh solutions to transport problems.
- Generally speaking, the promotion of cooperation between the member countries on all aspects of forestry warranting attention. ■

Improved forest productivity through the evaluation and conservation of genetic resources

by A. GREAVES^(*)

The increasing demand for wood throughout the world is drawing attention to the potential role that fast-growing man-made plantations within the tropics can play in contributing towards future requirements. At the same time, excessive exploitation of existing forests, and the constant pressure on forest land by rising populations for its conversion to other uses, is causing a rapid depletion of the natural resources capable of supplying the seed for these plantations. As the extents of the wild tree populations contract, so does the diversity of the genetic base, with the danger that some races or varieties which are eminently suited for use as exotic plantation species will be irretrievably lost. In these circumstances there is an urgent need for a programme of genetic exploration and evaluation leading to the conservation of those seed sources (provenances) which are of value in afforestation projects.

In 1962 the 8th Commonwealth Forestry Conference requested the Commonwealth Forestry Institute to initiate such a study of *Pinus caribaea* Mor., a species indigenous to Central America and the Caribbean, and one which is used widely in tropical lowland plantation schemes. In 1969 this research was expanded with the aid of funds provided by the U.K. Overseas Development Ministry (ODM), into the Central American Pine Provenance Research Project, incorporating two additional species, *P. oocarpa* Schiede and *P. pseudostrobus* Lindl.

The objectives of the project are threefold. Firstly, provenance seed collections are made throughout the natural ranges of the three species. Special attention is given to stands found at the extremes of the ranges, particularly sites on low altitudes and in atypically dry conditions. It is these provenances which may have the genetical adaptations capable of extending the range of environments in which the species can be grown satisfactorily, thus bringing into production areas of previously low forest potential.

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Secondly, these seed collections are used for establishing provenance trials in a wide variety of new environments. The trials are assessed at periodic intervals and the performances of different provenances compared, paying particular attention to rate of growth, form and wood quality.

Thirdly, at the sources of promising provenances whose continued existence is endangered large seed collections are made for the creation of *ex situ* conservation stands in secure locations. FAO is coordinating a global programme for this aspect of the work.

At the same time every encouragement is given to the conservation *in situ* of valuable seed stands, their management, and efficient exploitation as commercial seed sources.



Guyana is one of the biggest timber exporters in the Caribbean

The first phase of the project has now been completed. In reply to a questionnaire over 40 countries expressed a wish to participate in the second phase, and the establishing of an international series of *P. caribaea* and *P. oocarpa* provenance trials commenced in 1972. The distribution of seed for the *P. pseudostrobus* trials is now in progress.

The early growth of many of these trials is now being assessed. Most of the participating countries have expressed a willingness to make the results of their assessments available for a scheme of international cooperation and exchange of information. Computerized facilities are being developed by the

Commonwealth Forestry Institute to assist in the storage and retrieval of this data which to date comprises the results of some 300 experiments. Also available are comprehensive details of the environments of the seed sources, and information on herbarium specimens, wood samples, and the chemical composition of oleoresin, all acquired from trees which contributed to the provenance collections.

The early results from a world-wide selection of the trials are already giving strong indications of the overall superiority of some provenances. This is especially true of *P. oocarpa*, a potentially valuable species which has received comparatively little attention in the past. Unfortunately the seed sources of several of these provenances are in serious danger of eradication. Efforts are being made to collect large quantities of seed from these sites for the creating of *ex situ* conservation stands, thus ensuring the continued availability of this genetic material.

In the past the project has been solely concerned with the three mentioned species of tropical pine. However, attention is now being focussed on hardwoods within the same region, with initial emphasis being placed on *Cordia alliodora*.

The role of the Commonwealth Forestry Institute is primarily concerned with the procurement and distribution of source identified seed for provenance trials in response to requests from overseas, whilst the recipient countries undertake the actual planning and execution of the trials according to their own requirements. However, research officers are also available for the intensive regional evaluation of trials in cooperation with local forest departments if this kind of assistance is requested. Familiarity with the characteristics of the natural populations achieved through close supervision of the provenance seed collecting is a particularly useful asset when assessing the performances of those same provenances in new environments.

An example was the assistance given in 1975 to Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. In June of that year a regional project was initiated, assisted under the ODM technical aid programme, with the objective of establishing local seed orchards to meet the requirements of lowland tropical pine afforestation programmes.

An important preliminary step in this project was the determination of the most suitable species and provenances for the seed orchards. This was achieved after evaluating the growth rates and form of existing provenance trials throughout East Africa, and comparing these with the results achieved elsewhere. Meanwhile, wood samples collected in East Africa are being examined to confirm the acceptability of the timber properties.

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The progress now being made in this programme of provenance evaluation and conservation reflects the admirable degree of international cooperation that has been achieved at all levels of its implementation, from the generous cooperation of the Central American forestry organizations, to the feedback of information from the countries participating in the trial programme, all of which is already paying distinct dividends in the conservation of forest genetic resources and their more efficient utilization in the creation of man-made plantations which are greatly improving the productivity of areas of forest land throughout the tropics. ■

A.G.

Trends in tropical timber production

The role of the French tropical forestry technical centre (CTFT)

by J. MORALLET^(*)

Tropical forests are generally thought to make up 60% of the world forests—i.e. 2 500 m ha, including 750 m of rain forests (64% in America, 27% in Asia and 27% in Africa) which supply almost all of the hard tropical woods sold throughout the world.

International trade in tropical woods and their products has improved rapidly since 1945. FAO figures suggest that 1973 production was 50 million m³ of logs, 7 million m³ of sawn wood and upwards of 4 million m³ of veneer and plywood, amounting to a total value of US \$ 3 000 m.

The 1974/75 recession showed how fragile the tropical wood market was and the huge increase in production between 1945 and 1973 should not be allowed to mask the generally low productivity of the tropical forests.

As the FAO points out, less than 90 million m³ were obtained from 750 m ha of tropical rain forest in 1973—average productivity of something like 0.12 m³ per hectare, a fairly modest figure compared to that for the temperate forests.

They are both ecological and economic reasons for this.

Temperate forests are, by their very nature, relatively homogeneous. In addition to this, man has for centuries now been organising them to produce a few types of wood for mass production, one or two types being chosen in each area.

Forests in most developed countries in the temperate zone are fairly easily accessible.

The dense rain forests are, on the other hand, somewhat less homogeneous. Although most trees in the forests of south-east Asia (Malaysia and Indonesia, for example) are very similar (dipterocarpaceae), the dense African forests contain a much wider variety of flora. Forests in the Ivory Coast contain 596 species of tree and 50 different sorts can be found on one hectare of land. However, few of them are used. In this country, Africa's major exporter of wood, only 30 species of tree are exploited and production is between five and six m³ per hectare.

The FAO suggests that a hundred types of wood are being exploited in western and central Africa as a whole—yet only 10 of these varieties account for 87% of timber production and 93% of timber exports.

It is obvious that exploitation of the forestry resources has led to a scarcity of some types of wood such as utire, mahogany, sapele and makoré, which have been in demand for a number of years. This is reason enough for placing restrictions on felling.

Does this mean that an activity which represents a considerable percentage of the resources of a large number of the EEC's African partners must be allowed to dwindle? In 1973, export earnings from unprocessed and processed wood represented 36% of the total value of exports in Gabon, 33% in the Ivory Coast, 19% in Ghana and 10% in Cameroon. There is an increasing tendency for little-known types of wood from African tropical forests to be exploited and this would appear to be the only way of avoiding regression as well as a possible solution to a large number of problems.

Consumers, and manufacturers of industrial timber and plywood in particular, are faced with dwindling supplies of traditional types of wood. They are anxious to find less well-known woods to complement the traditional types now and perhaps to replace them in the long run.

Forestry concerns obviously want to increase the variety of species of wood they cut. It is clear, for example, that production of 5-6 m³ per hectare could well be raised to between 20 and 30 m³ if new types of wood were also cut. This would both alter the conditions of exploitation and bring about a considerable drop in cost prices.

The forester and the timber specialist would also like to see more trees used. Forestry usually goes hand in hand with lumbering and it is extremely difficult to bring about natural or artificial replacement of wild natural forests if only one or two trees per hectare are being felled.

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Similarly, it is a complicated business to organize things so as to get a regular turnover of one or two marketable types of wood in the midst of an otherwise commercially worthless forest.

A policy to promote little-known types of wood has therefore been introduced by the EEC's African partners. At their request, the Commission invited the Paris-based tropical forestry technical centre to look into the matter. The study involved surveys in Africa and Europe and both laboratory and industrial testing.

We will not go into details here—suffice it to say that when there are plans to sell little-known types of wood, it is worth asking what the conditions of success are. There are two main ones:

— The physical, mechanical and technological properties of these woods must, of course, have been gone into and it must be possible to suggest specific uses for each.

— It is vital to know how much of the wood in question is available in the forests. In the past, for example, some types of wood have been reasonably successful when launched but have lost their appeal as soon as it became clear that supply could not keep pace with demand.



Photo CTFT

Laboratory work at the CTFT

Tropical forest production will therefore have to involve an increasingly large number of types of tree that can be used for construction purposes and there will be some cases where all the trees in the forest can be used.

In the immediate future, the tropical forest can be used to manufacture cellulose. In the longer term, the wood may well be processed chemically or, more generally, tropical forests may be used as a source of energy.

So far, in all but exceptional cases, the tropical forest has been exploited much along the lines of a mineral deposit. However, for some time now, governments, forestry departments and research organizations have been concerned with the future of the forests.

The forest must be improved and exploited so that production is continuous. It must be regenerated where necessary by planting a greater volume of useable species per hectare. These tasks emerged as essential fairly early on.

The work of the CTFT

The French tropical forestry technical centre keeps a check on the problems involved in developing tropical forest production and deals with the improvement and replacement of the forests. The centre was opened in May 1969. It is a financially autonomous state body and its statutes provide for it to carry out any applied research, studies and work supervision that prove necessary in respect of waterways and forests in tropical and sub-tropical regions. It provides training and refresher courses for technicians, supplies experts and compiles and distributes the relevant scientific and technological documents.

The organization, in fact, dates back to 1916, when the French forestry mission began systematically prospecting the timber resources of the then French colonies. At the same time, they collected samples of unknown types of wood which then had to be studied so that suggestions could be made as to their use. In 1917, a specialized laboratory to test tropical timber was set up at Nogent-sur-Marne. The centre is, therefore, last in a series of organizations which have studied wood over the last 60 years and it has collated and made full use of the tests and information passed down by its predecessors.

A few years after the centre was opened, it extended its research to the forest themselves and set up branches in tropical forest areas. The first overseas research units were set up in 1958. When the French-speaking states of Africa and Madagascar became independent, a number of them asked the centre to conduct forestry research on their behalf until such time as their own national structures were in a position to do so.

The centre is, therefore, an organization whose scope ranges from seedlings and young plants in the tropical forest to semi-finished industrial products and their uses.

There are a number of research divisions at Nogent-sur-Marne, with laboratories and the attendant technical and administrative services and a documentation centre. The centre also has overseas units and missions in countries with which cooperation agreements have been signed—Cameroon, Congo, Ivory Coast, Gabon, Upper Volta, Niger, Senegal and Madagascar—and with Guyana and New Caledonia.

The main function of these units is to carry out research into the forest environment, forestry and soil preservation.

Finally, mention should be made of the technical studies office which carries out individual studies at the request of national or international bodies and private organizations.

CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC

On the occasion of his country's national festival, Nestor Kombat-Naguemon, Ambassador to Belgium, has expressed his interest in the "Courier" by sending the following message. When meeting "Courier" editor Alain Lacroix to transmit the message, the ambassador was anxious to stress both the difficulties the Central African Republic, a landlocked country, is experiencing with its economic development and the schemes (to develop and increase national unity) being introduced by the head of state. He also explained that Marshal Jean-Bedel Bokassa, Life President, was hoping to receive Mr Lacroix in the second half of November, with a view to taking an overall look at developments in the Central African Republic and to explain what the country was hoping from the Lomé Convention.

"On behalf of his Excellency Jean-Bedel Bokassa, Life President and Marshal of the Central African Republic and its government, on behalf of the Central African Embassy, the Central African colony in Belgium, and on my own behalf, I have the honour to present best wishes for peace and prosperity to our friends, the people of all the member states of the European Communities, on the occasion of my country's national festival on 1 December.

I shall take this opportunity of thanking the Instances of the European Economic Community and the authorities of all three European Communities for the effective help and active cooperation we have already received with our economic development under the Yaoundé and Lomé Conventions.

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As its name suggest, the Central African Republic is in the heart of Africa. It shares more than 4 000 kms of frontier with Chad in the north, the Sudan in the



Mr Kombat-Naguemon presenting his credentials on 3 December 1974

east, the People's Republic of the Congo and Zaire in the south and Cameroon in the west. It has a mild tropical climate with average temperatures of between 20° and 30°C, covers an area of 623 000 km² and has a population of some 3 000 000.

The economy is primarily dependent on agricultural production—coffee, tobacco, hevean groundnuts, silkworms, manioc, rice, maize, millet, potatoes, bananas, pineapples and so on.

There are also other vast—and, as yet, unexploited or under-exploited—resources:

— a dense equatorial forest of some 34 000 km², an unparalleled source of tropical woods such as limba, ironwood, mahogany, sapele and ebony;

— a variety of local crafts and traditions, equatorial fauna and colourful flora, providing the tourist with a wide choice of safaris giving him the opportunity to hunt, observe and take photographs;

— considerable mineral deposits—diamonds, gold, iron, uranium, copper, limestone, tin, manganese, nickel, chromium, cobalt, etc.

Although the country is rich in natural resources, it is, like all developing countries, faced with problematical structures in production, processing, transport and marketing. And, like all landlocked countries, it has particular difficulties with rail, road and river connections. It is 1 500 km away from the nearest coast and both imports and exports are a problem. The government, led by His Excellency Jean-Bedel Bokassa, Life President and Marshal of the Republic, is convinced that the first essential is to have the cooperation and the efforts of the Central African people and it has, therefore, launched an intensive national production development campaign to promote the material and spiritual well-being of the people by effectively feeding, housing, nursing, clothing and educating them and by whole-hearted belief in a policy of cooperation at regional, bilateral and multilateral levels.

At a time when, paradoxically enough, the world is suffering from both over and under-production and hunger and affliction are the lot of three-quarters of humanity, international cooperation and solidarity are more than essential. They are our duty, our means of building a united world, in harmony with the great ideals of peace and justice that are the keywords of all known or imagined political charters. But this sort of peace requires frank and active cooperation between the industrialized countries, who need the resources of the Third World if they are to continue to progress, and the developing countries, who need technological know-how and financial help from the developed world.

This is why my country believes and participates in the Lomé Convention. This is why the Government of the Central African Republic prizes the development and intensification of its bilateral relations with all the countries of the world—and particularly with each of the states of the European Economic Community and Benelux.

I am grateful to the "Courier" for giving me the opportunity of spreading my message of friendship and hope in the name of the Government and the people of the Central African Republic". ■

THE CONVENTION AT WORK

Mr Tiéoulé Konaté, Secretary-General of the ACP Group, has taken up his duties

In September the "Courier" reported that Tiéoulé Konaté had just been voted Secretary-General of the ACP Group by the ACP Council of Ministers, shortly before the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers.

The editor of the "Courier" went to pay his respects to the new Secretary-General, who is highly qualified, well-versed in economic affairs and with a wide experience of international affairs (see box).

Mr Konaté said how interested he was in the "Courier" and how he appreciated it both for its quality and for the role it played within the framework of the Lomé Convention. He stressed the need to highlight the diversity of the ACP countries and the originality of the Convention, which is the first formal framework for dialogue between developed and developing countries.

He pointed out that the ACP Committee of Ambassadors had recently expressed its interest in the "Courier" and mentioned that both the Commission and the ACP were seeking to increase cooperation here to make the magazine an even more effective instrument of cooperation at the service of everyone involved in the Lomé Convention. Mr Konaté explained that one of his major preoccupations as Secretary-General of the ACP was the cohesion of the group. He thought that the "Courier" was a means of letting people know what was being done under Lomé and publicizing the ways in which effective help can be given.

He was sure that the "Courier" should build on its achievements. It is the result of several years of work and, in a climate of understanding, it is always possible to improve upon existing structures and develop effective cooperation in the interests of us all. ■



Mr Tiéoulé Konaté during his recent talk with our editor

Tiéoulé Konaté was born in Bamako (Mali) in 1933, is married and has three children.

He qualified in economics at the University of Paris before going on to specialized studies at the French Ministry for the Economy and Finance and the International Monetary Fund in Washington.

He has held the following posts of responsibility in Mali:

— *Director-General of Economic Affairs*
— *Head of Cabinet at the Ministry of Transport and Trade*

— *Chairman/Director-general of the Mali Development Bank*

— *Governor of the Bank of the Republic of Mali*

— *Governor of the African Development Bank*

— *Governor of the International Monetary Fund*

— *Head of Mali's Delegation at the UNCTAD conference in Santiago (Chile)*

— *Minister of Finance before being elected Secretary-General of the ACP Group.*

The ACP Committee of Ambassadors elects its officers and outlines its programme of work

Brussels — The ACP Committee of Ambassadors met on 27/28 September to elect its officers and organize its work.

James O'Neill Lewis, Ambassador of Trinidad and Tobago, will chair the Committee, which confirmed the vice-chairmen of three of its sub-committees—Stabex (Senegal), industrial cooperation (Nigeria) and customs cooperation (Kenya)—before electing chairmen for the other three, on trade cooperation (the Ghanaian ambassador replaces Mr Lewis), financial and technical cooperation (Gabon replaces Burundi) and sugar (Mauritius replaces Fiji).

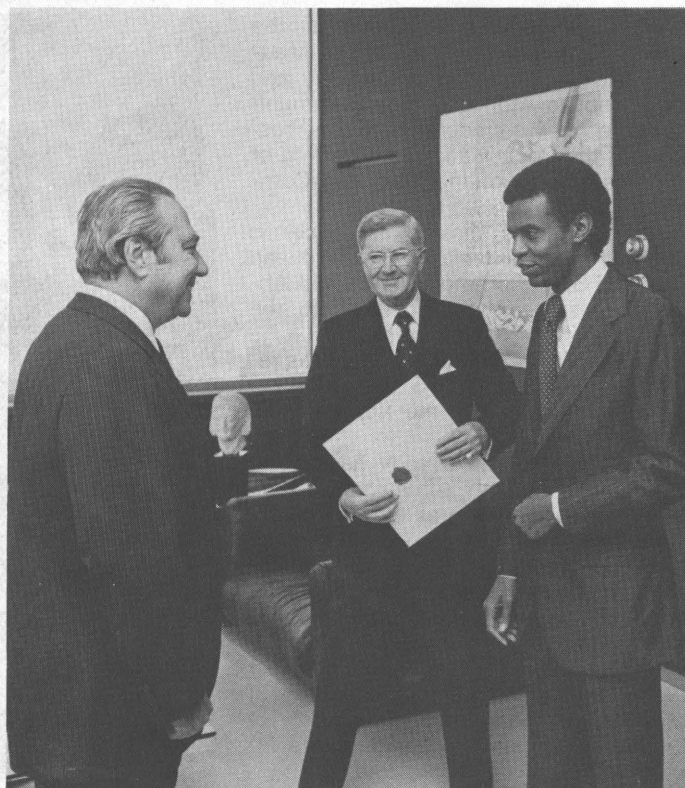
The following meetings have so far been fixed:

— sub-committee on trade cooperation, to list the problems in the field, namely beef and veal, the aflatoxin content of groundnut oil cakes, pineapples, GSP, the Community's agricultural surpluses and wheat;

— working party on bananas, to discuss implementation of Protocol 6 and the problem of the tariff quota on German imports from non-associated countries;

— sub-committee on sugar, to discuss various problems—the interpretation of Protocol 4 in respect of the calculation of guaranteed prices, and the back-dating of storage fees (which the ACP feel they should not have to pay).

At the meeting, the members of the Committee said they regretted that the Community had so far been unable to choose the head of the Industrial Co-operation Centre, which is one of the main instruments of EEC-ACP cooperation under the Lomé Convention. ■



Ambassador Chasle (left) and Ambassador Abdallah (right) presenting their credentials

ACP EMBASSIES

Brussels is the busiest crossroads of EEC-ACP cooperation and the "Courier" is following the comings and goings behind the embassy doors. This autumn has been an active time for diplomatic postings.

MAURITIUS

L.J. Raymond Chasle appointed Ambassador

The European Communities have approved the appointment of His Excellency Raymond Chasle by the Government of Mauritius as head of that country's mission to the EEC, the ECSC and Euratom. He replaces Sir Leckraz Teelock, Kt, CBE.

Mr Chasle, as Head of the Mauritian mission to the European Community and the European Atomic Energy Communi-

ty, has presented his credentials to the President of the Council and the President of the Commission of the European Communities.

As head of the Mauritian mission to the European Coal and Steel Community, Mr Chasle presented his credentials to the President of the Commission. He has been Minister Plenipotentiary and interim chargé d'affaires in Brussels and to the European Community for some years.

He is an accomplished diplomat. He began in the central administration in Port-Louis in 1958, before taking up his first diplomatic post in his country's High Commission in London.

He went to Paris in 1964, also taking responsibility for Rome and Bonn, and then became Mauritius' permanent delegate to UNESCO. He was appointed to Brussels in 1972.

Mr Chasle has many friends in diplomatic circles and among all those who have had the good fortune to meet him.

"Courier" readers already know Mr Chasle, since his literary work has often been mentioned in our arts column. His poems, "Le Corailleur des Limbes" and "L'Alternance des Solstices" appeared in 1970. He also published the "Accord de

Port-Louis" in 1973, an analysis of Mauritius' accession to the Yaoundé Convention.

He is well aware that proper information must light the way to action, has always maintained good relations with the press and has collaborated on many newspaper articles and written various radio plays. He is currently in charge of "L'Etoile et la Clef", a literary magazine which he founded in collaboration with a number of other French and African writers.

Raymond Chasle—who is married with two children—is not just a successful diplomat. He is also a writer of no mean reputation.

MAURITANIA

Ahmedou Ould Abdallah appointed Ambassador

The European Communities have approved the appointment of His Excellency Ahmedou Ould Abdallah, by the Government of the Islamic Republic of Mauritania as head of that country's mission to the EEC, the ECSC and Euratom.

Mr Ould Abdallah, as head of the Mission of the Islamic Republic of Mauritania to the European Community and the European Atomic Energy Community, presented his credentials to the President of the Council and the President of the Commission of the European Communities.

As head of the Mission of the Islamic Republic of Mauritania to the European Coal and Steel Community, Mr Ould Abdallah presented his credentials to the President of the Commission. He succeeds Mr Ely Ould Allaf, who was recalled to head the OMVS, a regional organization to develop the Senegal river valley, in Dakar.

Mr Ould Abdallah already has a brilliant career in both administration and diplomacy behind him at the age of 36. He was in charge of Mauritania's industrialization policy for three years before becoming trade and transport minister and finally being appointed ambassador to Washington.

He has also fulfilled various other functions, in particular taking charge of Mauritania's copper mining company, of the port of Nouakchott and of the Investment Planning Committee.

He led the Mauritanian Delegation at UNCTAD III in Santiago (Chile) in 1972 and has also been chairman of the joint Mauritania/Algeria and Mauritania/Morocco economic committees.

Mr Abdallah holds a degree in economics from the University of Grenoble, a higher diploma in economic studies from the Faculty of Science and Economics in Paris and a diploma from the Paris Institute of Political Studies.

● We also hear that Mr R.D. Rainford has been appointed Jamaica's ambassador and Mr Mamadou Traoré Mali's ambassador to Benelux and the Commission of the European Communities, and Mr Satia Nandan has been named as the ambassador of Fiji. More of these appointments in our next issue.

● Bernard Adundo has arrived in Brussels from Washington to take up a post as chargé d'affaires in the new Kenyan Embassy. ■

The Comoros and the Seychelles join the Lomé Convention

Various applications to accede to the Lomé Convention were accepted by the



Photo Guyaux

The King of the Belgians host to ACP Ministers

Brussels, headquarters of the European Community, is, first and foremost, capital of the Kingdom of Belgium. Most of the Lomé negotiations took place in Brussels and ACP negotiators were very appreciative of the hospitality extended to them in the Belgian capital.

When the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers was held last July, King Baudouin of Belgium again expressed his people's friendliness towards their guests from Africa, the Caribbean and the Pa-

cific and ACP leaders were invited to a reception to mark the occasion.

Above is a picture of this reception. Right to left—His Majesty King Baudouin, Max van der Stoep (Netherlands), president in office of the EEC Council of Ministers, George A. King (Guyana), ex-president of the ACP Council of Ministers, Claude Cheysson, European development commissioner and Simon Nko'o Etoungou, ex-chairman of the ACP Committee of Ambassadors. ■

EEC-ACP Council of Ministers at its first meeting on 14 July 1976 and the Comoros deposited an instrument of accession on 13 September, shortly after the Seychelles on 27 August. The procedure is simplified in the case of former OCT, all that is required being the simple deposit of the instrument of accession, and both these states are now full members of the Lomé Convention. There are now 49 ACP States, the 46 original signatories having been joined by Surinam,

which deposited its instrument of accession on 16 July last. ■

European Commission authorized to negotiate accession of Papua-New Guinea to the Lomé Convention

Luxembourg — The Council of the EEC has adopted directives authorizing the Commission to negotiate the accession of Papua-New Guinea to the Lomé Con-

vetion. Things should go smoothly, as the government of Papua-New Guinea has already announced its willingness to accept all the provisions of the Convention. The only points likely to need discussing will be left aside for the time being. The directives to the Commission do not mention whether Papua-New Guinea can be considered as one of the least-favoured countries (entitled to special treatment) or included in the list of countries covered by aid from the Stabex if their export earnings drop, even to third countries. These two points will be dealt with in a second stage of negotiations.

The Commission is planning on negotiating stage one in November. The conclusion of these talks will then enable the Council to approve at the same time, the accession of two other countries—Sao Tomé and Príncipe, and Cape Verde—with which negotiations have already taken place. ■

EDF

7 new financing decisions amounting to 14 528 000 EUA, bringing the total commitments under the fourth EDF to 255 863 000 EUA

Following the favourable opinion delivered by the European Development Fund Committee at its 109th meeting held on 21 September 1976, the Commission took 7 new financing decisions for the supply of grants under the fourth EDF on 27 September 1976.

These decisions concern the following actions:

1. Mauritius — Repair of cyclone damage: Construction of subsidized housing (Fourth EDF).

The Government of Mauritius has been granted 3 million EUA as exceptional aid to enable it to continue the reconstruction programme started in the wake of the serious damage caused to

plantations, crops and the country's economic and social infrastructure by the passage of the cyclone "Gervaise". It was the housing sector, however, that suffered the worst damage: more than 28 000 houses were affected, of which 7 000 were entirely destroyed.

Thanks to international solidarity the victims' most urgent needs were catered for but the problem of rebuilding the dwellings could not be resolved entirely despite the mobilization by the Mauritian government of all national resources. The credit from the Community is intended for the reconstruction of 750 low-cost dwelling-houses.

2. Rwandese Republic: Exceptional aid (Fourth EDF).

The Community is to provide a grant of 4 million EUA as exceptional aid to help the Rwandese Republic to cope with the critical situation that has arisen as a result of difficulties in obtaining supplies of essential goods imported via the Mombasa-Nairobi-Kampala-Kigali route, which normally carries 80% of Rwanda's exports and imports and nearly 90% of its fuel imports.

The aid is designed in particular to cover the most urgent needs through the construction of fuel storage tanks and the purchase of lorries and fuel.

3. Democratic Republic of Somalia: (Fourth EDF; grant of 1 400 000 EUA): Hydraulic and agricultural studies for the Saakow Scheme, Juba Valley.

This financing relates to studies for the construction of irrigation works for a 34 000 ha agricultural development programme and studies necessary for the development of 5 000 ha under that programme. The project will concern an area south of the village of Saakow, situated close to the River Juba which runs north-south across the southernmost part of Somalia: the Juba and the River Scebeli are the largest rivers in the country and the only two able to provide sufficient water for carrying out large-scale agricultural development programmes.

This is one of several irrigation schemes recommended in a study financed by the third EDF to the tune of 400 000 EUA, concerning the development of the whole of the Juba valley. The overall programme will last 30 years and will cover 215 000 ha extending up to several kilometres on either side of the River Juba.

The project resulting from these studies will be carried out in a region inhabited by about 300 000 people, 50 000 of whom are nomads recently installed there as part of the government programme for the re-settlement of the nomad population hit by the recent droughts.

4. Democratic Republic of Madagascar: (Fourth EDF; grant of 500 000 EUA): Study of the drinking water supply in the south.

Three studies on the development of a drinking water supply system will be carried out in the extreme south of Madagascar, in the poor region delimited by the River Menarandra in the west and by the River Manambovo as far as the coast in the east. The total cost of these studies, estimated at 500 000 EUA, will be covered by a grant from the fourth EDF.

The studies consist of the following:

- hydrological and geological surveys;
- topographical work necessary for the siting of the pipelines and structures planned;
- economic and technical study of the whole project.

These studies will enable the necessary investments to be made subsequently, also with financing from the fourth EDF, to resolve the critical problems of supplying drinking water to the population of this underdeveloped area.

5. Republic of the Niger: (Fourth EDF; grant of 1 266 000 EUA): Rural development in the Department of Badéguichéri.

Community aid will finance the extension of the operations for the development of the Badéguichéri valley to the upper part of the valley, to the Baga valley, to the plateaux bordering these valleys and to the eastern part of the district of Illela. The original operations were carried out under the third EDF and have given satisfactory results.

The project covers:

- supervisory activities intended to increase the production of food crops and income from cash crops and to improve the marketing of these crops;
- measures to protect and conserve the soil;
- construction of small-scale transport and infrastructure facilities and storage areas.

6. Republic of Senegal: (Fourth EDF; grant of 4 200 000 EUA): Continuation of the peanut scheme.

Community aid will contribute to this project, which is to cost altogether 7 409 000 EUA and is aimed at extending from 25 000 ha to 33 500 ha the area under peanuts in the regions of the Sine Saloum, Casamance and Sénégal Oriental and at developing the production of confectionary peanuts in the Diourbel region. To back up this production scheme, the Senegalese authorities will modernise and expand the primary industrial plant so as to increase the volume and improve the quality of the share of production intended for export. The project also aims:

- to provide the producers with selected seeds suited to the ecological conditions in the growing areas and coming up to the technological and organoleptic qualities required by the external market;
- to improve crop cultivation processing and packaging techniques;
- to improve primary marketing conditions.

The project is pursuing the following objectives:

- to help the diversification of the Senegalese economy, which is over-gearred to the production of groundnuts for oil;
- to increase the volume and improve the quality of production so as to secure a bigger share of the international market and hence to enable a modern packaging and processing industry to be set up in Senegal;
- to increase the rural population's production and income by improving technical skills.

This project brings Community contributions to projects involving the cultivation of peanuts in Senegal to over 7 500 000 EUA.

7. Republic of Guinea-Bissau: (*Fourth EDF; grant of 162 000 EUA*): Provision of agricultural supplies and equipment.

This EDF grant has been made to enable the Republic of Guinea-Bissau to import vegetable seeds and light agricultural equipment for distribution to the growers so that the country's vital and urgent need for foodstuffs can be satisfied.

The quantities of seeds should suffice to sow 350 hectares, producing 5 000 t of vegetables. The light agricultural equipment, mainly for use with draught animals, will help to intensify cultivation on an area of between 500 and 600 hectares.

EIB

First EIB financing operations under the Lomé Convention

The first financing operations to be carried out by the European Investment Bank under the Lomé Convention have been in favour of the Republic of Upper Volta.

Acting as agent for the European Economic Community, the Bank has provided two loans, totalling the equivalent of 4 428 000 units of account (CFA-F 1 155 m) for extensions to a sugar complex at Banfora in the south-west of the country.

The loans have been made available from the 95 m u.a. of European Development Fund (EDF) resources set aside under the Lomé Convention for risk capital operations to be managed by the EIB.

A conditional loan of 1 428 000 u.a. has been granted to the Republic of Upper Volta for a term of 20 years, including a 6-year grace period, with a rate of interest of 2% per annum. It will go towards financing an increase in the capital of Société Sucrière Voltaïque (SOSUHV), the project sponsor, in which the State has a majority shareholding.

This company has also received a subordinated loan worth 3 000 000 u.a. for a term of 13 years, including a 9-year grace period. The interest rate is 2% for the first 7 years and 5,5% thereafter.

The funds advanced will be used for extending the area of sugarcane plantations from 2 250 to 3 500 hectares and for increasing the sugar mill capacity to raise annual output from 20 000 to 31 500 tons.

As a result of this capital investment, Upper Volta will be in a position to meet all its sugar requirements until about 1 985 without having to import supplies, which will have a favourable effect on the country's balance of payments.

The total fixed investments involved are put at CFA-F 4 248 m and they will mean 500 new jobs for Upper Volta nationals. The Caisse Centrale de Coopération Economique (France) is co-financing the project through the Banque Nationale de Développement. ■

The Lomé Convention and the EIB

The Lomé Convention was concluded with almost all the states of tropical Africa together with a number of developing countries in the Caribbean and the Pacific (46 countries). It provides for the Community to grant financial aid of 3 390 m u.a. between now and 1980. The EIB will be responsible for making available 585 m u.a. made up as follows: 390 m u.a. in loans from its own resources, normally to be provided with an interest rebate of 3%, for which 100 million u.a. is set aside from the resources of the European Development Fund. The remaining 95 m u.a., also to come from EDF resources, is earmarked for risk capital operations. This assistance may be used either as a direct contribution towards increasing the equity capital of an enterprise or to provide quasi-capital assistance in the form of subordinated loans (repayable only after senior loans have been paid off) or conditional loans (repayable only after fulfilment of certain conditions, indicating that a project has overcome teething problems and has reached a certain level of profitability). ■

EEC-ACP

The chairman of the ACP Council of Ministers, Ratu Sir Kamisese Mara, Prime Minister of Fiji, the chairman of the EEC Council of Ministers, Mr Max van der Stoep, and EEC development commissioner Claude Cheysson met for informal discussions in Brussels on 20-21 October.

The meeting was the outcome of a special resolution during the first ACP-EEC Council of Ministers meeting held in mid-July and was intended to clarify points on the operation of some aspects of the Lomé Convention in the area of trade.

After the meeting, the Prime Minister of Fiji said that the talks had been constructive and progress had been made in some areas. The bilateral talks between the chairmen of the ACP and EEC ministerial councils were exceptional and do not form part of the institutions of the

Lomé Convention as such, but because of the difficulty of reaching agreement on a variety of complex issues at the two-day session of the joint Council of Ministers in July, it was decided that the chairmen should meet and discuss outstanding matters further.

The main points under discussion were access to the European market for bananas, rum, groundnut cake, beef and veal, sugar and vegetable oils. The two chairmen also talked about the possibility of European food surpluses being sold to ACP states at concessionary rates.

Finally the two chairmen agreed that the next meeting of the joint ACP-EEC ministerial council should be held in Fiji in April next year. ■

TROPICAL PRODUCTS

Sugar

1975/76 quotas carried over for Fiji and Mauritius

EEC-ACP relations in the sugar sector are based on reciprocal commitments. The Community agrees to buy certain quantities at a guaranteed price and the ACP producers agree to deliver the quantities in question. If the agreed quantities are not delivered, the quota of the country concerned is cut by the missing amount for the subsequent years. However, in case of force majeure the quota is maintained or the delivery period extended.

In 1975/76, six ACP countries (Mauritius, Fiji, Congo-Brazzaville, Uganda, Kenya and Surinam) failed to deliver all the agreed quantities. Two of these were cases of force majeure.

Fiji — The Commission recognized that the case was one of force majeure, a hurricane and flooding having destroyed part of production. The 163 000 t quota, therefore, is maintained in spite of the 25 701 t shortfall.

Mauritius — The Commission recognized this as a case of force majeure as

early as July, when the delivery date was extended to 1 October. Statistics on actual deliveries are not yet available. The quantities involved are enormous—66 000 t of a quota of 487 000 t not delivered within normal delivery dates. The Mauritian authorities have decided to meet their commitments, since the shortfall was due to an exceptional hurricane which destroyed one third of the usual production of cane sugar last February.

Ultimately, the overall EEC commitments to buy sugar from the ACP will be reduced by the following amounts (the country to which the reduction refers is given in brackets)—10 000 t (Congo-Brazzaville), approximately 2 000 t (Uganda), 5 000 t (Kenya), about 4 000 t (Surinam), i.e. almost 21 000 t in all.

Total commitments were for 1 221 500 t, excluding Surinam (which did not belong to the ACP when the protocol was signed), and is now of the order of 1 204 000 t.

Bananas

Problems in the ACP banana trade with Europe

Germany imports 607 000 tonnes of bananas from Latin America in 1976

Brussels — Almost all the bananas eaten in Germany again this year came from Central and South America. The duty-free import quota for non-associated countries has been raised from 347 000 t (basic annual volume) to 607 000 t, as against total consumption of some 620 000 t. This is because the ACP countries are not yet in a position to deliver large quantities of the right quality bananas at prices that will suit the German market. On 23 July last, the ACP were asked to state how many bananas they would be able to export to Germany before the Community took its final decision on the volume of the duty-free quota for non-associated countries. The EEC asked for replies by 15 September, but the ACP countries did not submit them in time, although some information was provided and it appears that there was a certain amount of direct contact between German importers and ACP exporters at the IKOFA food

fair in Munich. The EEC felt that something like 7 000 t should be reserved if the ACP countries' export possibilities were to be safeguarded. Potential sales in the French overseas departments of some 6 000 t brings this up to 13 000 t and thus the duty-free quota was finally fixed at 607 000 t (of the anticipated consumption of 620 000 t).

But this should by no means be considered as final. The Lomé Convention banana protocol will mean that effective schemes (including investments) will have to be run to help the ACP push up their exports to traditional markets and find new outlets.

Furthermore, certain aspects of the banana issue will be dealt with at the meeting on trade matters which will be taking place at the end of November between the heads of the EEC Council and the ACP Council. This includes exports of bananas from Somalia to Italy and exports from certain ACP countries (mainly Caribbean ones) to the United Kingdom. The misdirecting of consignments will also be investigated — it would appear that some consignments of bananas from Martinique and Surinam are exported to Italy via Germany, thereby interfering with direct Italian arrivals of bananas from Somalia.

This is a highly complex problem. It involves well-known multinationals, whose interests in the market are considerable, and all aspects will need to be thoroughly discussed. ■

FAIRS AND EXHIBITIONS

ACP at the IKOFA food fair in Munich

IKOFA, the big international food fair, took place this year in Munich (West Germany) in September.

The European economy is back on the road to growth and, six months after the signing of the Lomé Convention, IKOFA provided a number of ACP countries with the opportunity to present their food products to importers and consumers in Federal Germany. Five of them—Cameroon, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Panama and Uruguay—benefited from

co-financing offered by the Community and West Germany to dress this important window on to the German food trade. India and three South American countries—Colombia, Panama and Uruguay—also received aid from the Community.

One of the events was an EEC-run one-day session on the problems of the packaging and labelling of fruit and vegetables. Ghana's ambassador to the Community in Brussels, Mr. K.B. Asanté, chaired the event, which gave a number of specialists from the Commission and the member states of the Community the chance to explain European and national laws on the matter.

The questions are both important and complex. The protection and information of the consumer in Europe has led to increasingly strict regulations on packaging, labelling and general presentation of fruit and vegetables and schemes to promote ACP exports can only be effective if they take this into account.

However, the harmonisation of legislation in the food sector still has a long way to go, in spite of the Commission's various proposals—some of which are still awaiting approval—to the Council of Ministers.

This was why Mr Ravelina, first counsellor at Madagascar's embassy in Bonn, asked Europe to speed up the harmonisation of national laws. He gave the example of consignments from his country which had been accepted as conforming to standards in some member states and refused entry in others. He also pointed out that developing countries did not really have the staff or the equipment to pack the goods exported.

Improvements to the ACP export trade partly depend on standard, straightforward systems being used throughout the Community. It is worth noting that a food packaging expert asked the Community to do something about a regulation on packaging—particularly for fish and shellfish—rather than wait until the various states introduced their own national systems and a laborious process of harmonisation was necessary.

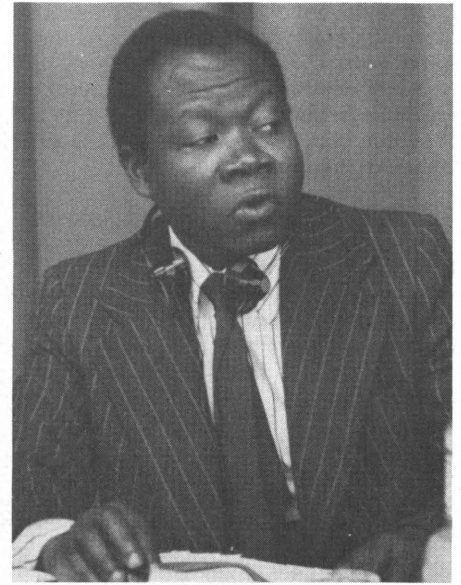
Meanwhile, representatives of the French and British ministers concerned were able to clarify the problematical aspects of their national laws, so that exporters could take the necessary steps to comply with them. A delegate from Germany also explained the situation there.

Talks of this sort are highly technical, often tedious and do not always provide an immediate answer to the questions in

Ghanaian ambassador K.B. Asante chaired the debate on the problems of packaging and labelling ACP goods

hand. However, they are useful in that they can make exporters and importers aware of the situation, so that they can discuss it together and decide on the right measures to ensure that trade is fluid and dynamic. And however the ACP countries view industrialization, food exports will still be a deciding factor for many of them for many years to come.

This was again made clear at IKOFA. The results obtained by the various participants confirmed the potential of the German market, where existing sales



Senegal's stand at the IFOKA fair in Munich

Left, Mrs Sinaiski of the EEC fairs and exhibitions service; back, Louis Joos from radio and TV news; 3rd left, K.B. Asante and 5th left, Mourtada Gueye, ACP Secretariat expert



can be further boosted by skilful promotion campaigns.

However, over and above the question of promotion, there is the transport issue. Some countries, for example, complain that deep frozen products (primarily shellfish for the luxury market) are

difficult to sell to Germany, since no specialised vessels sail direct and importers are reluctant to accept frozen goods when trans-shipment—always a major risk as far as quality of the goods is concerned—is unavoidable. ■

LOUIS JOOS

EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

Development Committee

The Committee on Development and Cooperation, chaired by Colette Flesch (Lib. Lux.) has discussed the projected GSP scheme for 1977.

The resolution put forward by Sir Geoffrey de Freitas (Soc. Brit.), and adopted unanimously, illustrates the Parliament's satisfaction with the increase in both the volume and value of the preferences offered to developing countries. However, it also stresses various points the European Parliament has mentioned on frequent occasions in the past:

— the need to improve and simplify the system to make it more effective (only 2 400 million u.a. out of a possible 3 600 million u.a. actually used);

— any modifications to the scheme should give priority to the poorest countries (10% of the recipients from the scheme—and not the poorest ones—account for more than 70% of the benefits);

— the interests of exports of both agricultural and manufactured goods from the Community's ACP partners under the Lomé Convention must be taken into account.

These points were dealt with at the plenary sitting in Strasbourg on 12 October.

Members then adopted the report on UNCTAD IV in Nairobi, produced by Pierre Deschamps (Chr. Dem. B.). The resolution draws certain conclusions from the difficulties encountered at Nairobi and says that there are certain policies that the EEC countries should adopt more firmly in the future. They should concentrate on improving the way the trade in commodities is organised, carry out a thorough study of the problem of the developing countries' credit-worthiness (without going as far as general moratorium) and produce a code of conduct for the transfer of technology. This is of vital importance particularly since UNCTAD is a continuous and gradual process whose results to a very large extent depend on how its achievements are followed up by other international institutions.

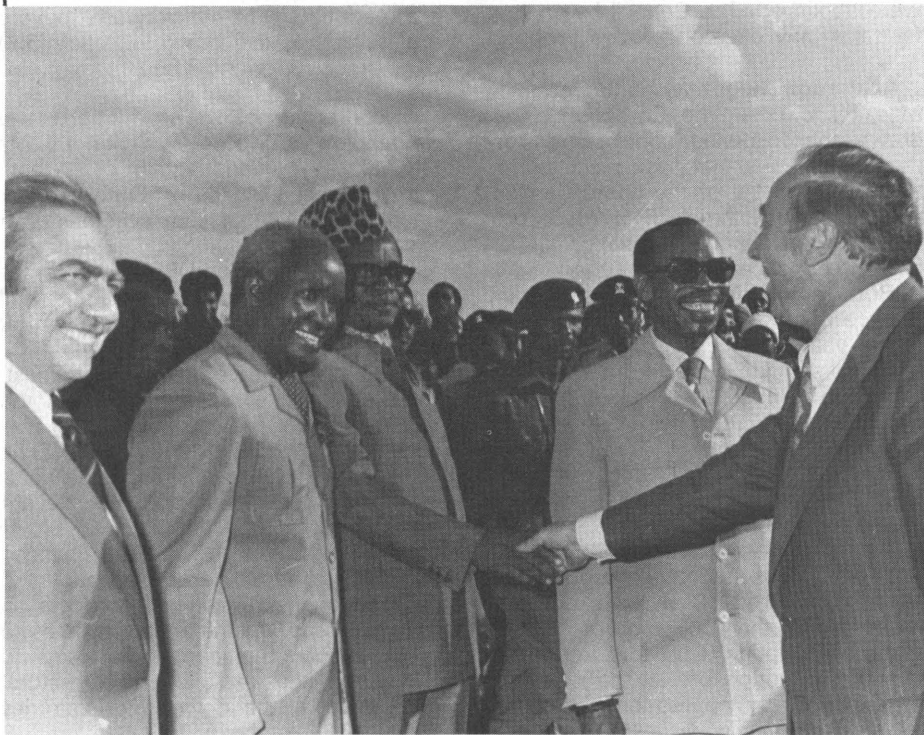
The Gaborone Trade Fair was one of the events staged to celebrate Botswana's 10th anniversary of independence on 30 September. The EEC pavilion, displaying information on the Community, was awarded third prize in the foreign section, Zambia and Tanzania having won first and second places respectively.

During his stay in Botswana, EEC President Ortoli also signed an agreement with the country's vice-president, Mr Quett Masire, on the immediate transfer of one million u.a. as emergency aid from the Community to Botswana, as announced last April. During

the ceremony, Mr Ortoli said that in view of recent developments in southern Africa, the European Communities and the member states had decided to set up a programme of emergency aid for countries adversely affected by the situation. Article 59 of the Lomé Convention provides for aid of this type. This is the first time that Botswana has benefited from Community aid under the Convention.

One of the 10th anniversary celebration events was a lecture on the Lomé Convention, given at the University of Botswana by Maurice Foley, deputy head of development.

In front of the EEC pavilion at the Gaborone Trade Fair in Botswana. Left to right: F.-X. Ortoli, President of the EEC Commission; Dr Kenneth Kaunda, President of Zambia; Mobutu Sese Seko, President of Zaire; Sir Seretse Khama, President of Botswana and Maurice Foley, deputy head of development at the Commission



The document on UNCTAD was also discussed in the Parliament on 12 October.

The Committee ended by adopting Mr Deschamps' opinion on the sections of the 1977 budget dealing with development cooperation. The Parliamentary opinion requires the re-establishment of all the budget headings proposed by the Commission of the European Communities.

North-South Dialogue

Concluding a brief discussion on an oral question by Mlle Flesch, the European Parliament, in a resolution approved unanimously, drew attention to the major role played by the Community and the member states in the North-South dialogue—which is of such vital importance to the EEC and to the developing countries of the world.

The Community should clearly show its desire to reach a positive conclusion, particularly regarding the credit-worthiness of developing countries and the maintenance of their buying power.

During the debate prior to the vote, Mr Cheysson outlined the first phase of the North-South dialogue, during which participants attempted to list and analyse all the problems involved, and to define their own positions. The atmosphere later deteriorated—particularly at UNCTAD IV in Nairobi—owing to the fact that those developing countries not represented at the Paris conference called the good faith of the industrialised countries into question. They took hard-line positions and concentrated on the twin problems of the debt burden and earnings from the export of commodities. Mr Cheysson explained the compromises that had been reached and outlined the Nine's position before going on to emphasize the extremely important part the Community had to play (in the talks), as one of the biggest importers of commodities. The Conference would perhaps have been more aptly called the "West-South" dialogue, because the countries of the East were missing, he said.

The United States seemed unwilling to accept responsibility for the breakdown of the talks, Mr Cheysson said, and all the weight fell on the Community's shoulders whenever there was any profound disagreement with the developing countries on matters that were of crucial importance to them.

Written questions

Duties on tropical products. — At Mlle Flesch's request, the Commission announced how much was changed in duties, by product and by country, on these products and what percentage they represented of total tax receipts in 1974.

Coffee: Germany - DM 1 190 million, 0.48 %; Italy - L 116 466 million, 0.66 %; Denmark - DK 79 million; 0.10 %.

Cocoa: France (+ internal taxes on spices and tea) - FF 18 million, 0.006 %; Italy - L 7 883 million, 0.04 %; Denmark (chocolate and confectionery) - DK 286 million, 0.35 %.

Tea: Germany - DM 44 million, 0.02 %.

Bananas: Italy - L 35 150 million, 0.19 %.

Edible oils: France - FF 124 million, 0.04 %; Italy - L 5 040 million, 0.03 %.

Sugar: Germany - DM 140 million, 0.06 %; Italy - L 17 760 million, 0.10 %; Netherlands - Fl 28 million, 0.05 %; Belgium - Bfrs 237 million, 0.04 %; Luxembourg - Flux 11 million, 0.04 %.

In 1972, the Commission transmitted a proposal for an outline directive to the Council, suggesting that duties on tropical products should be removed as part of the harmonization of taxation no later than the date on which tax frontiers were abolished. The Council has not so far taken any decision on this proposal.

ACP sugar negotiations (question by Mlle Flesch). — The Commission has drawn the following conclusions from the negotiations that took place pursuant to Protocol 3 of the Lomé Convention (particularly Article 5(4) which provides for an annual negotiation of the guaranteed price for ACP sugar):

a) Both the negotiations themselves and the preliminary talks should start earlier in the year.

b) There should be a clear interpretation of Article 5(4), so as to avoid the misunderstandings that held up the final agreement this year.

The first ACP-EEC Council of Ministers, which met on 14/15 July, drew the same conclusions.

The Commission intends promoting both the consultation procedures referred to in Article 8 and the measures necessary for the application of the Protocol, by adopting a broader interpretation of the notion of "all the measures necessary for the application of this Protocol". However, it wishes to point out,

as the Community spokesman at the ACP-EEC Council did, that consultations do not always result in agreement between the various parties concerned and that each party must still be able to adopt any decisions on matters within its own jurisdiction.

Price of ACP sugar (question by Mr Schuijt). — Almost all Community imports of ACP sugar are in the form of unrefined sugar. However, it would appear essential that the quantities of ACP sugar the Community has undertaken to buy and import under Protocol 3 should be refined, within the Community, under satisfactory economic conditions.

The margin for refining—which covers the costs of refining plus a profit margin—is therefore a vital element to be taken into consideration when fixing the guaranteed price for raw sugar on the basis of the intervention price adopted for white Community sugar.

The profitability of European sugar refineries is a factor in establishing the guaranteed price for raw sugar from the ACP. Once the price of Community sugar has been fixed, it is clear that the smaller the margin for refining (and consequently the lower the costs), the higher the guaranteed price that can be offered for raw ACP sugar.

Attention should also be drawn to the fact that the guaranteed price is a threshold that the Community grants, but that white or raw cane sugar is sold on the Community market at prices that are negotiated freely between buyers and sellers, as laid down in Article 5(1) of Protocol 3 on ACP sugar.

Encouraging palm oil production in the developing countries (question by Mr Glinne). — The various palm oil projects partly financed by the IBRD have never been the subject of joint schemes with the Community as such.

However, the World Bank has sometimes provided financing for palm oil projects that were originally financed by the EDF.

This was the case in the Ivory Coast, for example. It is worth noting that the EDF has so far provided some 100 million u.a. and enabled almost 90 000 ha of industrial plantations and smallholdings to be established and the relevant infrastructure to be provided.

The assessment of all EDF-financed projects always takes account of competition from other oil products on the world and regional markets, so as to avoid uneconomic competition and to encourage the exploitation of natural resources in the developing countries concerned.

At no time has the problem raised by the member (Mr Glinne) ever been brought up by the ACP States themselves—either when the indicative aid programmes referred to in Article 51 of the Lomé Convention were being drawn up or during consultations within the EEC-ACP institutions. ■

Tanzania

Tanzania's agriculture minister John Malecela was in Brussels in September to follow up the EEC programming mission to Tanzania last December.

Mr Malecela came to finalise EDF backing for various projects, notably the Iringa integrated development plan and a coffee improvement programme. He said his visit had been "very useful".

The Community is Tanzania's main trading partner and a year ago President Nyerere was the first ACP head of state to visit the EEC Commission after the signing of the Lomé Convention. Tanzania's share of the 4th EDF (excluding Stabex and European Investment Bank interventions and food aid) is set at 110 m EUA. About 50% of the projects relate to industry, 29% to transport infrastructure and 19% to rural development, though subsequent to the programming mission Tanzania has asked for a switch of some resources from industrial into water supply projects.

Asked why agricultural growth rates had fallen behind the projected rates in the development plan, the minister pointed to a number of factors which he said were true for developing countries in general: the official plans were often too ambitious; not enough foreign aid went into agriculture; rainfall had

lessened considerably in Africa in recent years; and sufficient manpower was not always available. Aid projects had tended to aim at profits rather than "utility to the people", Mr Malecela said.

Tanzania was trying to raise the production of cash crops, such as coffee, cotton and cashew nuts, and to boost food crops. The government was subsidising fertilisers by 50%, the minister said. The Ujamaa village system might be criticised for not having raised agricultural output as hoped, but it was "the only answer to many of the ills of Africa" because it put development "on a permanent basis", Mr Malecela said. Eight million people had been moved in four years under the scheme and the administration was now more directly answerable to the wishes of local communities, while facilities such as schools and clinics were being fully used, he added. ■

GENERAL INFORMATION

Emergency aid to the developing countries 1975-1976

The Community has various means at its disposal enabling it to take rapid action to help associated and other developing countries which are confronted with exceptional difficulties resulting from natural disasters or catastrophes affecting their populations. In the past two years these various means have permitted the Community to deal with extremely varied situations and to undertake 37 emergency operations benefiting the populations of 23 countries (1).

1. Emergency aid for civilian victims of disasters

There is a special appropriation for this form of aid in the Community bud-

get; it is not reserved for operations in favour of developing countries although in 1975 and 1976 it was used for their benefit, with the exception of the aid to the Friuli earthquake victims (Italy).

The Community has provided the following aid:

1975

- Vietnam (260 000 u.a.)
- Turkey (100 000 u.a.)
- Angolan refugees (150 000 u.a.)

1976

- Guatemala (700 000 u.a.)
- Lebanon (100 000 u.a.)
- Mozambique (70 000 u.a.)

2. Emergency food aid operations

The purpose of emergency food aid operations is to deal with exceptional situations resulting from events which cannot be foreseen at the time the annual aid programmes are drawn up. This aid, for which a reserve is established each year, generally covers both the supply of the products and the cost of transport. As a rule the products supplied are distributed free of charge to the people concerned by the govern-

ments or by specialized organizations whose services are used by the Community (Red Cross, United Nations International Children's Fund, World Food Programme, UNRWA, etc.).

In 1975 these operations involved some 64 000 t of cereals, 5 000 t of skimmed-milk powder and 4 000 t of butteroil.

They provided aid to populations affected by:

— conflicts: Vietnam, Cyprus, Angola, Palestinian refugees;

— natural disasters: Somalia, Haiti, Cape Verde, Guinea Bissau, Pakistan, India, Turkey.

In 1976 schemes in progress involve about 38 000 t of cereals, 4 800 t of skimmed-milk powder and 2 750 t of butteroil, the total cost being about 14 million u.a. This year's operations have once again made it possible to deal with very varied situations: the consequences of the situation in southern Africa (aid to Angolan refugees, Mozambique, Zambia and Zaire), the situation of the civilian populations in Lebanon and Vietnam,

(1) This aid is independent of the international emergency operation in favour of the developing countries most seriously affected by the rise in international prices — an operation to which the Community contributed more than \$710 million in 1974-1975.

the destruction of crops and the unforeseeable breakdown in food supplies in Senegal, Niger and Mali.

The Community's main contribution towards attaining the world food security objectives advocated by the seventh special session of the UN General Assembly (500 000 t of cereals) for dealing with emergency situations is the annual constitution of reserves in its food aid programmes: a general reserve (105 000 t in 1976) for direct aid, to which must be added the reserves provided for in the allocations to international organizations such as the International Committee of the Red Cross, the League of Red Cross Societies and the World Food Programme (a total of 20 500 t in 1976). Provision is made for similar reserves in the programmes of aid in the form of milk products.

3. Exceptional aid provided for under the Lomé Convention

The Lomé Convention also provides for exceptional aid (in grant form). This may be accorded to ACP states faced with serious difficulties resulting from natural disasters or comparable extraordinary circumstances.

A special appropriation has been constituted for this purpose within the European Development Fund; initially fixed at 50 million u.a., it will be replenished at the end of each year to reach a maximum of 150 million u.a. for the duration of the Convention.

Since the entry into force of the Lomé Convention on 1 April 1976, nine operations have been undertaken at a total cost of nearly 47 million u.a. in favour of:

- Niger (supply of groundnut seeds because of the destruction of the crops by aphides);
- Somalia (construction of schools as part of nomad settlement schemes);
- countries affected by the events in southern Africa: Botswana, Malawi, Zambia, Zaire (purchases of rolling stock or parts);
- Mauritius and Madagascar (repairs to cyclone damage);
- Rwanda (purchases of lorries and fuel to deal with the supply difficulties of this landlocked country). ■

European agency for trade cooperation

The Commission has just proposed that the Council set up a European agency for trade cooperation with the developing countries to improve the way the generalized preferences scheme is used and ensure the implementation of trade cooperation programmes for developing countries. There are two reasons for this. First, Community action to help developing countries in both the sectors mentioned has increased and, second, the operational and commercial nature of the new type of operation means that it cannot easily be run by an official-style administration.

The Agency will be legally and financially autonomous, under Commission supervision, and will collaborate closely with the private sector, using appropriate management techniques. It will take on technical duties and be responsible for implementation of schemes within the framework of policies and action programmes devised and decided on by Community Institutions.

The Agency is a political move above all, illustrating the Community's desire to increase its cooperation with the developing countries as a whole now that the Lomé Convention has been concluded and come into effect.

Background

The opening of the Agency is part of the Community's overall policy of cooperation with the developing countries. In particular, it is one of the results of the Council's resolutions of 30 April 1974 on the improvement of the GSP scheme and the promotion of developing countries' exports.

It is worth noting that the Council adopted another resolution on GSP, on 3 March 1975, confirming its desire to make constant but gradual improvements to the scheme, mainly by keeping the developing countries better informed about it and ensuring that they make greater use of it. The idea of setting up a special agency for this purpose gained the immediate support of the European Parliament, the national governments and, of course, the recipient countries.

As regards trade promotion, a Council resolution of 30 April 1974 laid

down Community financing for special technical assistance schemes involving export promotion for non-associated developing countries. The Lomé Convention also provides trade promotion for the ACP states.

• Improving the GSP scheme

The Agency should play a key part in the additional measures to provide support for the GSP scheme mentioned in the Council resolution of 20 April 1974. The aim here is for the Agency to ensure that greater advantage is taken of the scheme by making four improvements:

- Making the scheme easier for developing countries, who often complain of the complexity of the Community system.
 - Ensuring that the scheme is more evenly applied throughout the Community and that greater quantities are involved, and making it better adapted to the structural and economic developments in the various sectors of the Community economy. The bulk of imports under GSP are concentrated in the sectors of sensitive and semi-sensitive products, although there are considerable opportunities—so far neglected—in the non-sensitive sector.
 - Distributing the benefits of the scheme more fairly among the developing countries. Only five countries account for half the GSP imports of sensitive and semi-sensitive products at the moment.
 - Ensuring that exporters in developing countries make more profitable use of the scheme. Some of them are ill-informed and do not avail themselves of the financial advantages of duty-free entry.
- The Agency will have three types of function in this respect:
- **Documentation.** It will have to produce and use its own card systems on Community importers and exporters in the developing countries involved in the GSP scheme and carry out a statistical analysis of the effect of the scheme on the import and export trade.
 - **Operational information.** It should publish an annual practical guide to the GSP scheme, with the intention of making it more accessible to potential users. This should appear in all the official Community languages and in Spanish and Arabic if possible.
 - It should provide importers and exporters with information on the remainder of each quota (sensitive products) and on each ceiling and each country

ceiling tied to that ceiling (semi-sensitive products). This is in answer to a legitimate request by users of the scheme, who complain of uncertainty about quotas and ceilings being exhausted and, therefore, about the quantity of preferential imports remaining before customs duties are payable.

— **Advice to users of the scheme.** For example, the Agency will provide advice on trade contracts and market studies.

• Export promotion

The Agency will also have to implement trade promotion schemes for the ACP and other developing countries, mainly as part of the Community programme for the promotion of developing countries' exports.

There are three categories of action here:

- Help for developing countries wishing to take part in trade events.
- The organization of trade missions of European buyers to developing countries or producers from developing countries to Europe. This includes running seminars on such things as sales techniques.
- Training and technical assistance schemes (running courses, sending out experts, carrying out market studies, drawing up trade documents, etc).

• Nature of the Agency

It will be a legally independent European agency, under Commission control, complying with the traditional rules of trade management. It will have a limited number of specialized management staff and will be financed by an annual grant from the Community budget. It will work in close collaboration with the developing countries' export promotion organizations in the member states and in the developing countries themselves and with the private sector. ■

Promotion of exports from "non-associated" developing countries

A feature of the Community's overall policy towards the developing countries

The Community does not confine its financial cooperation to those develop-

COUNTRIES CONCERNED BY THE 1976 PROGRAMME (being undertaken currently)

	Fairs	Trade missions to Europe	Seminars	European purchasing missions
ASIA				
Afghanistan			X	
Bangladesh	X	X	X	
India	X	X	X	X
Indonesia	X	X	X	
Malaysia	X	X		
Nepal			X	
Pakistan	X	X	X	
Philippines	X	X	X	
Sri Lanka	X	X	X	
Singapore	X	X	X	
Thailand	X	X	X	
LATIN AMERICA				
Argentina			X	
Bolivia	X		X	X
Colombia	X	X	X	X
Costa Rica	X		X	
Ecuador			X	
Dominican Republic	X			
Guatemala	X		X	
Honduras	X		X	
Mexico	X		X	
Nicaragua	X		X	
Panama			X	
Paraguay	X		X	X
Peru			X	X
El Salvador	X		X	
Uruguay	X		X	
Venezuela				X
OTHERS				
Algeria			X	
Egypt	X		X	
Haiti			X	
Tunisia			X	
Yemen			X	

ing countries with which it has concluded full cooperation agreements on the lines of the Lomé Convention or the agreements signed with the Maghreb countries.

The Council confirmed the principle of granting financial and technical aid to other developing countries (called "non-associated" for the sake of convenience) in a resolution of 16 July 1974. On that basis the Commission proposed a general action programme for 1976-1980 mainly involving operations to develop food production and schemes for regional cooperation and integration, an initial appropriation of 20 million u.a. was entered in the 1976 budget under that heading.

Since 1973, however, the Community has been undertaking specific schemes to assist regional integration and trade promotion.

The trade promotion schemes form part of the Community's policy, based on the generalized system of preferences, of opening the EEC market to manufactures and semi-manufactures from the developing countries. They are, moreover, an essential means of implementing the trade cooperation agreements concluded with countries in Asia and Latin America, such as India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh and Mexico, and the cooperation programmes set up with regional integration groupings such as the Association of South-East Asian

Nations (ASEAN)(1), the Andean Group(2) and the Central American Common Market(3). Export promotion is also one of the main topics of the annual dialogue between the Community and the member countries of the Special Coordinating Committee for Latin America.

An appropriation of 4 340 000 u.a. for 1976

Since the Council's adoption of the resolution on the subject in April 1974 the Commission has made steady progress with its export promotion schemes. For this purpose it has a 1976 budget of 4 340 000 u.a. as against 600 000 in 1975 (in 1973 and 1974 expenditure amounted to 200 000 and 519 000 u.a. respectively).

Diversified action

Community action in this sphere was limited in 1973-1974 to the organization of training courses and seminars but has since been greatly diversified. It includes:

- financing participation at trade events in Europe: international fairs, regional fairs, specialized shows (1976 programme: 13 fairs with a total of 90 stands);
- organizing trade missions from the developing countries to the Community, with the assistance of specialized bodies in the Member States (1976 programme: 16 missions);
- organizing marketing seminars to help developing countries' exporters to explore the opportunities for a given product on the market of a particular member state (such seminars were organized in six member states in 1975/1976);
- organizing European purchasing missions to the developing countries (1976: Bolivia, Colombia, India, Paraguay, Venezuela);
- sending European experts in marketing, design, etc. to the developing countries (50 missions in the 1976 programme);
- publishing marketing brochures and guides.

These schemes are mainly of interest to the Asian and Latin American devel-

oping countries (similar operations are also mounted for the Lomé Convention countries).

To this must be added the seminars on the generalized system of preferences which the Commission has held every year since 1972 in various non-associated developing countries to help industrialists in these countries to make the most of the opportunities offered by the GSP. ■

Aid for "non-associated" developing countries

The EEC Council has given its go-ahead for 20 m units of account to be earmarked in the general 1976 budget of the European Communities for technical and financial aid to "non-associated" developing countries.

The exact breakdown of the sum was discussed by the EEC development ministers in November.

For 1977, the Council has agreed to set aside 30 m units of account for the same purpose, although a formal decision is still required before this can be drawn on. ■

UNITED NATIONS

Dutch foreign minister Max van der Stoel, speaking for all nine members of the European common market, sharply attacked South Africa's apartheid policy and called for racial equality in the republic.

Addressing the UN General Assembly in September, he also repeated his remark at a press luncheon that the nine nations of the Community "do not intend to recognise the Transkei on the occasion of its purported independence."

The Transkei is the first of South Africa's so-called tribal homelands. It was accorded separate nationhood on October 26.

In his remarks Mr van der Stoel qualified the EEC's position on the Transkei, saying that it applied to "present circumstances". Diplomatic sources said the policy would be subject to review after October 26. Mr van der Stoel, president of the ministerial council, said

false solutions to the problems of apartheid, such as the establishment of homelands at present pursued by South Africa, promoted rather than diminished racial discrimination.

"South Africa is a multiracial society in which all people, irrespective of their race or colour, should have the right to live peacefully together on the basis of equality.

Apartheid is in flagrant contradiction with this fundamental right and should be eliminated. As long as it is practised, it will be resisted by those whose basic human rights are denied. The Nine are unequivocal in their firm belief that justice and freedom for all people should prevail in South Africa", the Dutch minister said.

On Rhodesia and the acceptance by white Rhodesian premier Ian Smith of Anglo-American settlement proposals, Mr van der Stoel said that, if all sides showed good faith, with Africans and Europeans working together, the foundations could be laid for an independent state which would then take its rightful place among the family of nations.

"We condemn South Africa's policy of apartheid and we advocate the right of self-determination and independence of the peoples of Rhodesia and Namibia", he said, speaking for the nine foreign ministers of the European Community.

"We respect the independence of all African states and their right to define their national policies in complete sovereignty and without foreign interference. Our countries support actions by the Organisation of African Unity promoting African co-operation", Mr van der Stoel said.

"We are ready to co-operate with the African states and reject any action by whatever state aimed at establishing a zone of influence in Africa.

Until fundamental changes come about, there can be no peace in southern Africa. Therefore, our countries welcome the present efforts to find peaceful solutions to the problems of the area. The Nine remain willing to contribute to these efforts", Mr van der Stoel said. ■

GREAT BRITAIN

Britain's aid programme

Britain's official development assistance to developing countries in 1975

(1) Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand.
(2) Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Venezuela.
(3) Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua.

amounted to £432m gross and £388m net of repayments on previous loans. This compared with £352m gross and £309m net in 1974.

Of last year's £432m, £298 m, or 69 %, was in grant form (including technical co-operation and contributions to multilateral agencies). £97m, or 23 %, took the form of interest-free loans, £17m or 4 %, related to loans provided at fixed concessionary rates of interest; £20 000 or less than 0.005 %, related to disbursements from earlier loans at market rates and £19m, or 4 %, was in the form of overseas investment by the **Commonwealth Development Corporation**, of the £432m, bilateral (country-to-country) aid accounted for £298m, the remainder being in the form of multilateral assistance.

The planned level of the aid programme for the 1976/77 financial year is £515.8m net and £559.3m gross.

An estimated 60 % of Britain's bilateral aid in 1975 was effectively tied to UK procurement, that is used for the purchase of British goods and services, apart from any further procurement which may result from untied aid.

New aid emphasis

The overall change in emphasis of Britain's policies to poverty oriented programmes will be a gradual process and will inevitably take some time to become fully effective. It is, however, intended that the share of Britain's bilateral aid disbursements to the poorest countries (those with a GNP of under \$200 per capita in 1972) will be at least as great as their share of the population of the developing countries as a whole. In 1974 that intention was achieved, but in 1975 the phasing of disbursements to **India** and **Kenya** in particular led to a temporary reduction in the share going to the poorest.

In 1975, £148m, or 57 % of gross bilateral official development assistance, went to such countries, whose total population represented 64 % of the population of developing countries as a whole.

During 1975 bilateral appointments of British experts for service in developing countries made under ODM auspices totalled 2,253 including 449 teachers and 79 teacher trainers. ■

Netherlands

Harmonising European aid

The Dutch government has sent round a memo—already widely distributed in the Netherlands—to the other member states and the Community institutions on the problems of development co-operation.

Realising that the Community had no overall policy in the matter, and that action would not be coordinated while the Nine had varying views on major issues, the Netherlands suggested a series of gradual changes. Cooperation between member states could be a stepping stone to Community policy covering all aspects of development cooperation.

The Netherlands realizes that **there can be no question of one state imposing its views on the others**. It feels that the Community should start from principles that are already recognized across Europe and collaborate and cooperate on implementing these basic ideas. Four separate stages would lead to a genuine common policy:

— **Consultation**—systematic and reciprocal information on the policies and activities decided on or envisaged by each member state.

— **Ad hoc coordination**—harmonization of specific national schemes as they crop up.

— **General coordination**—harmonization of national policies in given fields.

— **Common policy**—implying either that a Community body should be left to implement the schemes or that a uniform policy should be applied in each member state. The common policy does not exclude additional schemes, provided they are in line with Community thinking.

The Dutch government feels that intensive consultation should begin in all sectors now (stage one) and the **ad hoc** coordination should be introduced wherever possible (stage two). There can be no abstract definition of the degree of cooperation, cooperation will improve as solutions are found to concrete problems. It is obvious that joint positions will have to be defined on questions that affect the whole Community or which are of particular importance as far as the Common Market is concerned.

The following procedure should be adopted:

— List what is already being done as regards consultation, **ad hoc** coordination, general cooperation and common policy in each sector.

— See how much harmonization has been achieved in national policies and in bringing about more intensive cooperation among the member states.

In addition to this general plan, the Dutch memo outlines how the various sectors should develop and sets out possible improvements in sectors where organization is already carried out at Community level. ■

CLUB OF ROME

3rd report : the RIO project

On 19 October 1976, the third report of the Club of Rome, "Reshaping the International Order", was presented in its final English and Dutch versions to the international press in Rotterdam (Netherlands). Initiated by the executive committee and in particular the president of the Club of Rome, Dr Aurelio Peccei, it is the Club's outline for the "new international order" proposed at the sixth special session of the UN General Assembly.

Professor Jan Tinbergen, Nobel Prize for economics in 1969, was asked to form and coordinate a group of 21 specialists representing both industrial and developing countries and a variety of disciplines. Their report is said to be "process-oriented": instead of drawing up a blueprint as such (a product orientation), it aims at contributing to and promoting the dialogue currently taking place—internationally and nationally—between the many groups involved in attempts to establish a new international order.

The final RIO report is divided into four parts. Preceded by a general introduction on the aims and scope of the report, part I, "The need for a new international order and the main problem areas", is devoted to the "why" of the new international order. Part II, "The architecture of the new international order; initiating and steering the process of planned change", focuses on the "what" of this new order. Here the RIO group takes a normative position presenting its view of what should constitute development and discussing the ways in which the required change can and should be

organised. "Proposals for action", part III, contains the main recommendations and proposals for action derived from the technical reports. These "technical reports" forming part IV, outline the 10 major subject areas examined by the working groups of specialists. The subject areas they deal with are: the international monetary order; income redistribution; industrialisation, trade and international division of labour; energy, ores and minerals; scientific research and technological development; transnational enterprises; human environment; arms reduction; and ocean management. Part IV represents the foundation or "supporting evidence" for the construction of the former three parts.

The combined proposals of the report can be summarised as three main objectives for a more just and peaceful world: the need to reduce gross inequalities; the need to ensure harmonious global economic growth; and the creation of a global planning system. In their attempt to translate into politically feasible first steps the possible choices for the realisation of that reshaped world, the RIO experts used a modicum of quantitative data where appropriate to support their ideas. They tried to take into account the political, social, cultural and other aspects of society, as well as the purely economic considerations which are too often seen as the only real basis of a new international order.

First reactions to the RIO project were discussed from 25-28 October 1976 in Algiers at a special meeting of the Club of Rome, at the invitation of President Boumédiène. The feasibility of the proposals will be discussed at a second meeting in Amsterdam, sponsored by the Netherlands Minister for Development Cooperation, who made funds available for the preparatory work on the report. Several other regional meetings will be held during 1977. The follow-up to the RIO project will be handled by the RIO Foundation, created in December 1975, membership of whose board is divided equally between the industrialised countries and the Third World. With Jan Tinbergen as honorary president and Jan van Ettinger as acting director, the RIO Foundation exists "to promote a widening and deepening dialogue on the creation of a new international order, a precondition for a world in which a life of dignity and modest prosperity becomes the inalienable right of all mankind".

The final RIO report is available in English from E.P. Dutton & Co Inc. (New York) and in Dutch from Agon Elsevier

(Netherlands). The report will also appear in other languages, including French, (Editions du Seuil—end 1976/early 1977), German (West Deutsche Verlag—end 1976/early 1977), Italian, Spanish and Japanese in 1977.

After the publication of the first report ("Limits to Growth", by Dennis Meadows) and second ("Mankind at the Turning Point", by Mihaljo Mesarovic and Eduardo Pestel) and the impact these reports have had on present thinking on the world's future, this third report of the Club of Rome may be considered one of the most important publications of recent years. It will shortly be followed by a "third generation report" called "Goals of Mankind" by Ervin Laszlo, due out in February 1977. This will be a more philosophical approach to the problem of the gap between the options chosen by mankind and the goals that should be pursued.

In the next edition of the "Courier" we will present the ideas and activities of the Club of Rome in interviews with Dr Aurelio Peccei, its president and co-founder and Prof. Jan Tinbergen, the RIO project coordinator. ■

R.D.B.

CONFERENCE OF THE GROUP OF 77

Summary of measures adopted

Mexico. — The Mexico conference on economic cooperation in the developing countries ended after a night session on 22 September.

Alfonso Garcia Robles, Mexico's foreign minister, who chaired the conference, said it had enabled "a considerable step forward to be taken along the path to collective autonomy" in the developing countries—which, according to the introduction to the final report of the conference, is one of "the imperatives of history."

It is the introduction to a long list of cooperation schemes—involving all the

sectors of the economy, particularly trade and commodities—which the developing countries are planning to set up. Here is a summary of the principal economic cooperation measures between developing countries approved by the Group of 77 in Mexico.

● Economic cooperation in general

With the help of UNCTAD a conference is to be convened in 1977. It will be attended by the secretariats of all existing regional and sub-regional groups with the aim of boosting cooperation and the economic integration of the developing countries at regional, sub-regional and inter-regional level.

● Trade

The 77 want a global system of generalized preferences to be established for the exclusive use of the developing countries. They ask UNCTAD to carry out a detailed study of the various aspects of such a system and to investigate ways of ensuring better coordination of the purchasing policies of the developing countries.

● Commodities

The 77 whole-heartedly support UNCTAD's integrated programme for commodities. They have decided to hold a conference of plenipotentiaries to set up a special fund to finance buffer stocks if the UNCTAD negotiations on a common fund fall by the wayside. They have decided to set up a council of commodity producers' associations as quickly as possible and to look into the formation of further associations and the enlargement of existing ones. The Group of 77, with the help of the producers' associations, hopes to run a series of consultations with the consumer countries on a certain number of commodities.

● Production

Official organs of the Group of 77 will collaborate with existing bodies, such as the FAO, on carrying out studies and producing recommendations on cooperation between developing countries in the agricultural and industrial sectors. This will involve coordinating national policies, setting up multinational firms, implementing joint projects and so on.

● Transport

There should be an overall strategy here and studies should be carried out on the establishment of multinational firms and the convening of maritime conferences between developing countries. UNCTAD should prepare a study on the problem of landlocked countries.

● Currency and finance

The group thinks existing links—particularly as regards regional clearing houses—should be stepped up and further agreements along these lines introduced.

Before the end of 1977 groups of experts should look into the possibility of setting up or establishing a "union of payments between developing coun-

tries", a unit of currency to be used exclusively by developing countries, a counterweight currency supported by the economic potential of the developing countries and a developing countries' trade bank.

There should be increased solidarity among the Group of 77 in negotiations on the reorganization of the international monetary situation.

● Science and technology

The 77's position as regards both the UN Conference on Science and Technology and the development and creation of a code of conduct for the transfer of technology should be strengthened and unified.

Technology centres should be set up at national and regional level along the lines of those that already exist in Africa and Asia, the aim being to transfer and develop technology at inter-regional level. One example of this is the Centre for Science and Technology for developing countries in Lima, whose statute should be adopted in early 1977 at a conference of plenipotentiaries in Peru. Inter-regional centres should be set up in certain special sectors such as pharmaceuticals.

The possibility of setting up technological data banks should be gone into and technical cooperation between the countries of the Third World should be stepped up. The 77 should unify their position before the UN conference, due to take place in Argentina next year, on science and technology between developing countries. ■

NORTH-SOUTH DIALOGUE

New round begins

Paris. — The four commissions of the North-South dialogue (Conference on International Economic Cooperation) started their eighth and second to last working session in October. The CIEC is to close at the end of the year.

The developing countries put down 15 working documents for the dialogue's agenda, covering all the subjects being dealt with: energy, raw materials, development and financial affairs. The documents were prepared during an in-

ternal meeting, at the beginning of October, of the developing countries taking part in the conference. The industrial countries were expected to do the same; their internal meetings have been held at the OECD or, for the EEC countries, in Brussels.

The CIEC executive secretary, Bernard Guitton, indicated that these documents were appreciably different from those with which the dialogue began 18 months ago. They are precise enough to allow the ministers of the 27 countries taking part to take some concrete decisions during the final round of the talks on 15/17 December. ■

IN BRIEF

Exceptional aid to the ACP: 47 million EUA

Since 1 April 1976, the Community has granted exceptional aid of 47 million EUA to nine ACP countries—Botswana, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Niger, Rwanda, Somalia, Zaire and Zambia.

For aid of this type, the Lomé Convention provides 50 million EUA, renewable at the end of the year, up to a ceiling of 150 million EUA over the period of the Convention. ■

United Nations

Vienna — The United Nations Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO) has set up a new consultative committee to step up UNIDO's involvement in the industrialisation of the Third World. The committee is made up from 11 specialised UN organisations, including the FAO, the World Bank, the International Labour Organisation and UNCTAD. It is intended to provide a forum for harmonising the objectives, strategies and programmes concerning industrial development. The new committee was proposed at the first general UNIDO conference in Peru in 1975. ■

Ratification of the International Coffee Agreement

UN (New York): Brazil, the Central African Republic, Ecuador, Federal Germany, New Zealand and Switzerland have ratified, and Madagascar has

The Group of "77"

● **February 1964:** Group created by ministerial meeting of 77 developing countries of Africa, Asia, and Latin America, then members of the UN, with a view to defining a joint position at UNCTAD I (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development).

● **October 1967:** Ministerial meeting of the Group of 77 (now 86) in Algiers to prepare for UNCTAD II in New Delhi in 1968. Adoption of the Algiers charter, mainly asking the developing countries to provide 1% of GNP for the development of the Third World.

● **October 1971:** ministerial meeting in Lima (now 95 members) to prepare for UNCTAD III in Santiago in 1972. New theme—national sovereignty over natural resources.

● **January-February 1976:** Ministerial meeting in Manila (112 members) to prepare for UNCTAD IV in Nairobi in May 1976. Adoption of the declaration of Manila. Group of 77's economic action programme adopted. Decision to convene a 77 economic conference.

● **September 1976:** Conference on economic cooperation between developing countries in Mexico. Decision to hold annual ministerial meetings instead of simply to prepare for UNCTAD conferences. ■

acceded to, the International Coffee Agreement (1976). ■

Nine other countries—Belgium, the Dominican Republic, Ireland, Italy, Ivory Coast, Japan, Luxembourg, Paraguay and Togo—and the EEC have decided to implement the agreement on a provisional basis.

London: The Inter-American Coffee Organization communiqué says that entry into effect of the new international coffee agreement means changes in the system of daily price indexes. They will now be based on the average price of arabica mild and robusta coffees (Salvador, Guatamal, Mexico, Angola and Uganda). ■

Ghana-Mali

After discussions lasting five days, the Ghana-Mali joint cooperation commission, meeting in Accra, signed a draft agreement which is the first step towards freedom of movement for people wishing to travel between the two countries. Nationals of one country travelling to the other will no longer need a visa for stays of up to three months. The commission also decided on a campaign to boost trade between the two countries. There will be a ministerial meeting in Bamako next January to finalize the agreements decided on so far, when the ministers will look at further proposals to improve economic relations between Mali and Ghana. ■

Upper Volta

In September, the member states of the organization for the development of Liptako-Gourma met in Ouagadougou to decide how to coordinate policies and services in the health sector. Observers from the World Health Organization attended the meeting. ■

Senegal

The first results of last year's census reveal that the population has now passed the five-million mark. ■

Ethiopia

Ethiopia has introduced a new national currency, called the Birr. After 12 January 1977, Ethiopian dollars bearing the

likeness of ex-Emperor Haile Selassie will no longer be valid. ■

Rwanda

The headquarters of the Community of the Great Lakes (Zaire, Rwanda and Burundi) will be established at Gisenyi, Rwanda, as a result of a decision taken by the three heads of state at a meeting there on 18-20 September 1976. A convention setting up the economic community was also adopted. ■

Barbados

Following the Barbados Labour Party's success in the legislative elections, Mr J.M.G. "Tom" Adams, a 45-year old lawyer, is to lead the new government in Bridgetown. ■

Namibia

The UN Institute for Namibia, set up by the UN assembly in 1974, has been officially inaugurated in Lusaka (Zambia) by President Kaunda. The aim is to provide Namibians with the sort of training that will enable them to plan the administration of an independent Namibia. ■

Ghana

The Ghanaian authorities have announced that they have applied to the EDF and the EIB for aid to finance the hydroelectric project at Kpong on the Volta. The requests are currently being assessed. The IBRD is also involved in the project.

Pending the financing decisions, Ghana has issued the first invitations to tender for some of the supplies (turbines, generators and a crane). ■

Netherlands

Official development aid in the Netherlands reached \$600 million in 1975, i.e. 0.74 % of GNP. This was the first time the country had gone beyond the target figure of 0.7 %. It was the second of the DAC/OECD countries to do so, the first being Sweden in 1974. ■

EEC-Mashrak

Brussels: The EEC-Egypt negotiations started again on 14 and 15 October and

the continuation of negotiations with Jordan and Syria took place during the fortnight that followed. The Commission aimed at concluding the negotiations with these three countries by the end of the month, in anticipation of opening of negotiations with Lebanon.

The main aim of the new phase of negotiations is to define the Community offer of financial assistance. ■

EEC-Bangladesh

A trade cooperation agreement between the EEC and Bangladesh was signed in Luxembourg on 19 October 1976.

The pact lays down mutual most-favoured-nation treatment and calls for the two sides to give each other's imports and exports the most liberal conditions already obtaining for third countries. ■

SWAPO

Brussels: At the request of SWAPO (South West Africa People's Organisation), EEC development commissioner Cheysson received a delegation from that organization, led by Mishaké Muyonga, its vice-president. The EEC feels that SWAPO is well qualified to discuss the problems of Namibia. ■

France

Marseilles Fair – official ACP Day. A group of official ACP representatives, led by Mr J. O'Neil Lewis, Ambassador of Trinidad and Tobago and chairman of the ACP Committee of Ambassadors, was received by Gaston Deferre, MP, major of Marseilles.

— **The "Maison d'Afrique"** (Africa House) was officially inaugurated in Paris on 27 September 1976. It is a meeting place and centre of information on Africa, grouping a number of French-speaking African countries, whose finance and trade ministers were present at the opening ceremony along with the French development cooperation minister and several African ambassadors. Chairman on the occasion was Mr Issa Diop, who leads the Conférence permanente des compagnies consulaires africaines et françaises (chambers of commerce). ■

The centre's research into the various types of wood is a prime contribution to shaping trends in the tropical forests,

The exploitation of a greater variety, if not of all varieties, of wood for the manufacture of cellulose is a problem in itself. The exploitation division researches into methods and materials needed, the construction of road networks and costs. Analyses have resulted in a certain number of practical resolutions on the choice of equipment and the conditions for use, optimum development and the ways of clearing forest track networks to suit the area to be exploited.

Various divisions and laboratories are involved in the technical investigation of the woods to be marketed.

The anatomy division enables them first to be identified. Many tropical woods with very different properties look quite similar. If they are to be properly identified, their anatomical structure needs to be examined. This is a constant need which the anatomical division satisfies for the profession a whole. It has a collection of 19 000 samples representing 9 000 different species of wood and it carries out research, based on anatomical examinations, into the biology of the various tropical species.

The wood testing and utilization division carries out standard chemical and mechanical tests of the properties and characteristics of wood. Some 2000 types of tree, belonging to 700 different species, have so far been tested.

Testing enables comparisons to be made between known and unknown types of wood and studies of density, hardness, retractibility and mechanical resistance mean that possible uses can be pinpointed. Techniques such as entering results on 70 punched cards and breaking down technological properties into major categories make for quick identification of the right wood for the right job.

The mechanical and processing division determines the conditions in which little-known varieties can be processed and worked. It is often difficult to work tropical woods because of the silica content or the grain.

Improvements to sawing techniques have been studied and saw teeth have been checked systematically according to type and humidity of wood. The various aspects of cutting, such as thickness of shavings and speed of the saw, have also been investigated. The formation and disposal of shavings are studied by means of high-speed photography. Pressure on the teeth according to type of wood and shape of teeth is measured and a study of the heating of the teeth is under way.

Studies on slicing and peeling are also carried out using high-speed photography.

The preservation division deals with the natural resistance of tropical woods to biological agents and seeks satisfactory methods of preserving exposed woods. It also deals with applied research into the protection of billets, plywood, panels and so on.

The cellulose and chemical department investigates the possibilities of using all the types of wood in the tropical forest

to produce cellulose pulp, wood charcoal and other products of chemical changes in wood.

Research into paper-making involves investigating the variety of trees in the natural, heterogeneous forest, and evolving different methods of heating for each. It also involves deciding which types of wood can be used to make up a homogeneous crop to supply cellulose manufacturing plants.

Chemical research programmes comprise the systematic study of the chemical composition of wood and research into possible processing.

Inventories

Once the possibilities of exploitation and the technological qualities of the wood to be marketed have been investigated, the volume of timber available in the forest must then be calculated and inventories are therefore carried out. A country anxious to exploit the forests in a given region must know exactly what is growing there. The inventory division has evolved statistical methods of making inventories via surveys and has carried out inventories in the various countries of the EEC to get an idea—which varies with the scope of the survey—of the volume of wood available and the volume of marketable woods in the various species in question.

The traditional use of wood for construction purposes has resulted in the forest being creamed of a certain number of marketable woods that are considered worthwhile. If more types were exploited, the problem of depletion would become more acute unless an answer was found.

If forests can be exploited for cellulose production, all the trees will be involved and the areas in question will need to be completely replanted.

These problems are studied in the overseas units that the centre has set up in the various tropical countries. They have their own research programmes to improve knowledge of the forests and the trees that make them up, study the ways of maintaining forestry resources by rational exploitation and the planting of large areas with fast-growing varieties.

All research is organized and coordinated in Nogent-sur-Marne by the directorate for forestry research (forestry and improvements, and entomology and pathology divisions). The technical studies office works on specially financed contracts involving development schemes and individual investigations such as inventories, studies of the possibility of setting up industries, analyses of economic factors, forestry development plans and so on.

The centre has more than 50 years' experience to draw on and is therefore well-placed to help develop forestry production in the tropics. It is able to intervene at all stages of production from basic knowledge of the forest, through regeneration, improvement and the definition of characteristics and uses of the various woods, to the semi-finished product which must be manufactured under the best possible conditions. ■

Pulp and paper from the tropics

The world will be consuming almost twice as much wood pulp and paper in 10 years time if it goes on at the present rate. There are already shortages, and forecasts indicate that the supply situation in some areas could be acute by as early as 1978. The developing countries, with over half the world's forests, only produce 4% of the world's wood pulp. Until recently the technology for making pulp products from tropical hardwoods was lacking, but this is no longer the case. The developing countries would therefore appear to have good prospects as pulp and paper producers.

That is a simple statement of a complicated situation. World consumption of wood for all industrial purposes by 1985 is forecast to be 1900 million m³, of which 800 million m³ will go to the pulp and paper industry. The world's forests are estimated to grow 3000 million m³ of wood a year. In theory, therefore, there should still be enough wood to go round by then. But:

- In some regions (particularly western Europe and Japan) there will be, and in some cases already are, serious deficits.
- Potential future sources of supply naturally tend to be less accessible and more expensive to develop than present sources, particularly in developing countries short of infrastructure.
- For ecological reasons, not all the forests can be harvested as fast as they grow.
- Scientific forestry and land-use practices have hardly begun to make inroads into many of the natural Third World forests.
- There are increasing demands on forest land for other purposes: agriculture in developing countries, recreation in some developed countries.
- The technology developed for pulp and paper production in the temperate zones is not suited to the tropics.
- The pulp and paper industry is notorious for its fluctuations



FAO

Okoumé: one of the Ivory Coast's best-sellers, but for how much longer?

and it is difficult to attract the capital required to develop viable pulp mills in the developing countries.

- The present uncertain situation has encouraged the industry to dig in rather than expand abroad, and there are few technical advisers available to help launch new mills in the developing countries.

- The viability of mixed tropical hardwood pulp has yet to be proved by large-scale commercial experience on a world market, which still hardly exists for this commodity.

The economic climate

Factors such as these mean that new supplies of pulp and paper are going to be hard to come by. In the end the price of these products must rise and justify new investments. Over the last three years, paper and paper products have shown

This article is based on FAO publications.

marked price rises of up to 100%; but relative to other commodities they have remained virtually unchanged for 30 years, and pulp and paper capacity is expected to increase more slowly until 1980 than it has over the last 10 years. The recent turmoil in the world economy has caused basic reorientations in the pulp and paper industry and new trends in the use of paper, which have discouraged the construction of new mills. Few developing countries can afford the capital to establish viable pulp mills from their own resources, and in the present circumstances in industrial countries, despite signs of an economic recovery, it is difficult to see who will provide that capital.

The total pulp manufacturing capacity of the developing countries is expected to increase to about 8% of the world total by 1980. A total world increase in pulp capacity of 25 million tons was forecast between 1975 and 1980, of which 7 million tons is scheduled to be established in the developing countries. But nearly half of this is planned for Brazil alone. Although studies throughout developing countries have identified a number of potential investment opportunities into large-scale export market pulp mills, these depend on an improvement in the market situation and the investment climate.

The most active development is in South America, where pulpwood plantations are well established and have immense potential. Land of similar quality and productivity in Africa is restricted and virtually fully committed. However, major developments in the pulping of mixed tropical hardwoods mean that the vast resources of the West African forest can now be exploited for pulp and paper. At present one third of the pulp capacity of the developing countries is based on non-wood fibres, mainly bagasse and bamboo. Future supplies of pulp from developing countries will probably be based on a combination of intensively managed indigenous forest together with plantations of both long and short fibre, which, through genetic improvement, the use of fertilizers and good management, have a greater growth potential than the forest resources of temperate lands.

In the long term there is little doubt that the extensive fibre production potential of the tropical and sub-tropical developing countries must become a major world source of fibre for pulping, and that the manufacture of paper in these countries will become a major economic activity. But the best way to achieve this at present would appear to be to develop mills for internal consumption rather than for export.

Developing countries as a whole only consume about 8% of the total world output of paper and paper products, but they are going to need a lot more. The priority given to education, welfare and import substitution is resulting in a rapid expansion of demand and many developing countries are particularly vulnerable to rises in world demand under circumstances of tight supply. Already there are reports of schoolchildren being sent home for lack of books and paper. The pattern of trade between major producers and consumers in the industrial countries has tightened further recently and the amount of pulp and paper available on a really free market is restricted. It is also likely to cost considerably more in future.

Starting with domestic markets

So the developing countries need more paper themselves; there are too many constraints on investment to expect the construction of many new mills in the next 10 years for export-oriented pulp from mixed tropical hardwoods; and world markets for mixed tropical hardwood pulps have yet to be established. In these conditions, it makes sense for the poorer developing countries to start by establishing suitable small mills to serve their existing paper industries, which are largely dependent on imported pulp. There are strong arguments in favour of relatively simple, tailor-made, integrated pulp and paper units, aimed initially at the domestic market, which will provide the experience necessary if these countries are to cash in on the future world demand for pulp.

Although domestic markets in many developing countries appear too limited to attract foreign investors, who are used to thinking that the minimum viable output for a mill is 700 tons a day, consumption could be considerably higher if paper were available from a domestic source. Moreover, imports are often constrained through lack of foreign exchange and may give a false picture of the demand. The successful implemen-



The wooden bicycle, invented by the Bamiléké of Cameroon, proves useful for carrying wood

FAO



AAA photo

Carved wooden house in Bamiléké country

tation of national development plans should also generate a massive increase in the use of paper.

Studies carried out in developing countries suggest that the minimum size of viable investment as a growth point for a domestic chemical pulp and paper mill lies in the production range of 100 to 200 tons per day.

Investigations are also being carried out into the feasibility of manufacturing newsprint and "cultural" grades of paper by a thermo-mechanical process having a production range as low as 50 tons per day.

Experience has shown that developing societies are quite prepared to adept to a lower grade of paper than that accepted internationally. Since the majority of potential uses in the developing countries cannot afford a high quality product, particularly of cultural paper, domestic production of paper should be aligned to the manufacture of those grades which will meet the real needs of society as a whole, through promoting the availability of paper at the level at which it will make the greatest social impact.

As it is most unlikely that increased supplies of cheap paper will be available on the international market in the future, the interests of development require that increasing priority be directed towards the attainment of self-sufficiency in the major cultural (especially newsprint) and industrial grades of paper, wherever this can be shown to be justifiable either on a national or on a sub-regional basis, depending upon market demand.

Self-sufficiency implies the establishment of domestic integrated pulp and paper mills, together with converting and printing plants, of a size and type which can be operated as economically viable units within the infrastructural and institutional limitations, the financial capacity and the managerial capability of each specific country, and to manufacture those grades and qualities which are required to serve the domestic market.

Although small-scale pulp and paper mills do exist throughout the developing countries, few of these incorporate the most recent innovations of modern technology, nor are they of

a type which can contribute towards the further sustained expansion of the sector; many of these mills require substantial modernisation or restructure.

Because of the relatively high capital cost of economically viable pulp and paper mills, of a size which will have a positive impact on the national economy, it is essential to ensure the attraction of finance through promoting only sound and fully viable enterprises. Attempts to reduce capital costs by "stripping down" the traditional mill design have been only partially successful due to the need to maintain operating economy and specified environmental standards. Nevertheless, the "stripped down" mill represents the cheapest and most unsophisticated form of design currently available.

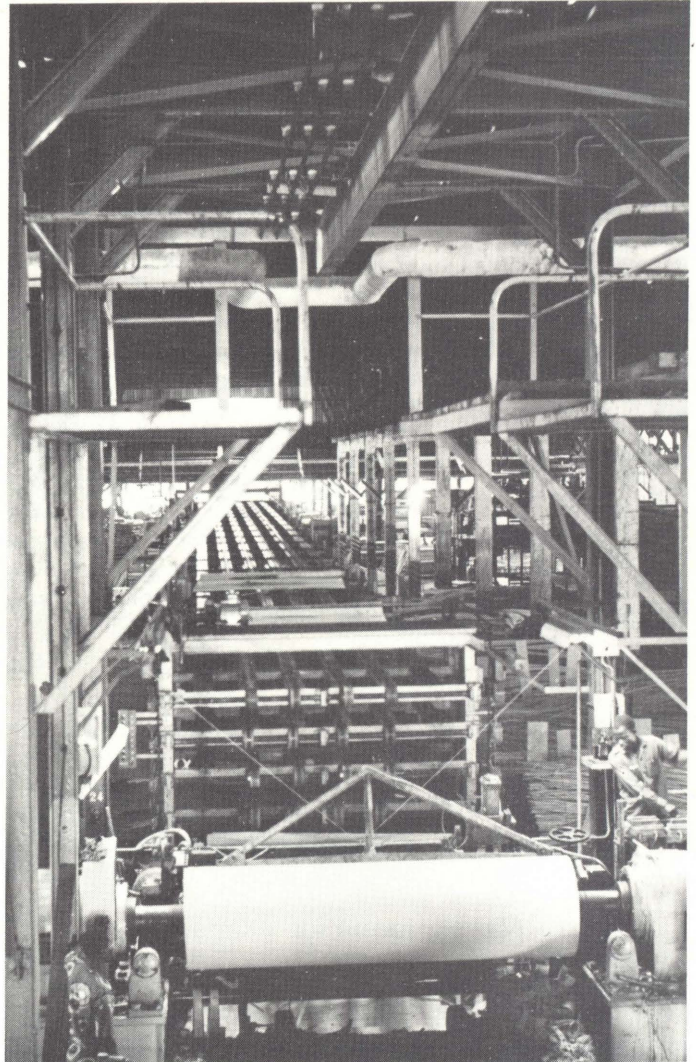
New kinds of mills

A new generation of integrated pulp and paper mill, specifically designed to meet the requirements of developing countries, is urgently required. The new design should aim at a major reduction in capital cost through, for instance, a modular form of construction which can be readily prefabricated and which incorporates relatively simple equipment based upon modern processing technology.

Cheaper, small-scale, integrated mills could also help industrial decentralisation. They can provide growth points in the rural areas, initially by being at the centre of a forestry operation (offering good job creation possibilities); and the establishment of pulp, paper and paperboard plants at strategic locations could act as a catalyst in attracting secondary manufacturing industries.

Self-sufficiency, then, appears to be the priority, although the long-term objective for the developing countries is to be ready to supply export pulp when the projected world shortage really starts to bite. This will require training in management, production, maintenance and marketing, based on a simplified, small-scale mill incorporating the new tropical hardwood technology and specifically designed for future growth. It represents a major challenge, but it is vital if developing countries are to gain the experience necessary to their ultimate involvement in international trade. The objective of self-sufficiency as a primary basis for growth requires that the pulp and paper sector of each country should be integrated with all other economic activities in the overall picture of national development; equally important, it should also be harmonized with sub-regional and regional plans, and be compatible with the development pattern of the pulp and paper industry throughout the world.

Although full-scale commercial experience of marketing mixed tropical hardwood pulp has still to be acquired on a world market, this is not to say that such pulp has only been tested in the laboratory. The use of short-fibre hardwood pulp has expanded rapidly in the last 10 years and the percentage of hardwoods used in total pulp production now stands at 27% for the world as a whole (and over 50% for Japan). Indeed, the pulp and paper industry has been in a state of considerable technological innovation for some time and the recent recession has further encouraged new techniques. One of



Plywood factory in Gabon: pulp and paper could be the next step

these is the recycling of waste paper; about 28% of the world's paper is currently recovered for recycling and in some countries the figure is around 40%. The trend is towards a more effective use of fibre, including full-tree utilisation.

Rationalising pulp supplies

This sort of rationalisation needs to be matched by the suppliers. It is not enough to go into the natural forest and cut it down for pulp, for the reasons outlined at the beginning of this article and because much of the unexploited tropical forest would offer better returns on specialised timber products than on pulp.

Artificial forests and plantations must supplement and in some areas be the main sources of supplies. The advantages of forest plantations are clear:

— The species can be chosen for specific or various purposes and technologies; the forests can be matched to the nation's requirements.

— The locations of these forests can be chosen to take advantage not only of the physical and climatic conditions most suitable for the growth of particular species, but also to take advantage of infrastructure such as port facilities and of the availability of labour.

— Plantations generally grow much faster than natural forests, the cost of producing a unit of wood is often much lower and plantations offer a higher density of the right fibre.

— It is easier and cheaper to practise silviculture in plantations than in natural forests.

— Young tree plantations can be used for growing food crops, providing an alternative to the "slash and burn" practices that devastate so much forest land, and they can protect marginal land with soil erosion and watershed problems.

One of the characteristics of the tropics and sub-tropics is, of course, that vegetation grows much faster than in the temperate zones. This depends on species and conditions, but to take one example, the conifers on which a good deal of the world's pulp industry depends appear to grow, on average, six times faster in the tropics than in the north temperate zones and the Mediterranean countries with a dry season. The rates of growth for broadleaved species are also remarkable.

This permits very short rotation of plantation forests in the tropical and subtropical regions. Pulpwood rotations commonly take 10-15 years, half the time generally necessary in temperate climates. With fertilizers, growth can be stepped up considerably, maybe by as much as four times in the early days of a plantation's life. This also helps the forest canopy to close more quickly, reducing weed growth and tending costs.

More information needed

But establishing plantations takes time and depends on many other factors still to be worked out in developing countries where the pulp and paper industry is only beginning to get its bearings. A more immediately available source of pulp would be the material left behind from the normal logging operations—damaged trees, offcuts, etc.—which amounts to about 30% of the volume cut. In any event, it appears difficult to justify economically operations involving only pulpwood logging in the natural tropical forest, and the best bet seems to be an integrated complex bringing together primary logging, pulpwood logging, wood products manufacture, and pulp and paper mills. This would maximise the use of raw materials and reduce overall capital investment and operating costs. An integrated set-up is more complicated to plan, and a first requirement in this as in almost every other area of tropical forestry is more information. Inventories, data on forest growth, records of activities in pulp and paper, and reasonable estimates of consumption and demand are often hard to come by. The cost of hauling and delivering waste woods, for instance, have to be carefully reviewed, as they could turn out to be even more expensive than the primary logs of normal logging operations.

A pulp and paper mill, whether or not part of an integrated forestry operation, is a project of considerable magnitude. If it is to be established near the sources of supply it will in many



A pity to pulp wood when the artist has another use for it: at the crafts centre of Poto-Poto-Brazzaville (Congo)

cases require new infrastructure—power, communications, community services, etc. The support of the government is a pre-requisite for its success. And there are good reasons to hope this would be forthcoming; a forestry operation is in line with such development goals as job creation, exploiting unused resources, opening up rural areas and decentralising economic activity. But private investors are fully aware of the cost and complexity of developing pulp and paper mills for the tropics and of the present narrowness of the local markets. Although the necessary technology exists and demand for tropical pulp should rise steeply, foreign investment will have to be actively encouraged by developing countries aiming to be the pulp and paper producers of the future. ■ B.T.

ACP timber under Stabex

Tropical timber is at the top of the list of commodities benefitting from the first application of the Lomé Convention's stabilisation of export earnings system (Stabex).

The Stabex system, perhaps the Convention's most important innovation, is a form of compensation offered by the EEC to ACP countries hit by a fall in their earnings from certain commodities.

In principle, for a country to qualify for Stabex compensation the fall in export earnings must be outside the producers' control (drop in world market prices, bad harvest due to weather, attack by blight or pests, etc.) and the commodity concerned must be important to the economy (providing at least 7.5% of total export earnings the previous year).

A country can qualify for compensation if receipts drop by at least 7.5% of the average income from that product in the previous four years. Compensation is provided in the form of an interest-free loan, which should be repaid when the beneficiary country has a better year. For the 24 poorest ACP countries, the levels are set at 2.5% instead of 7.5% and the Stabex transfer is a grant.

Because of the general economic recession in the EEC, particularly in the construction industry which uses a lot of wood, imports of tropical timber were considerably reduced in 1975. Several timber-exporting ACP countries qualified for Stabex compensation and timber was given 43% of the total compensation drawn up under the first application of the Stabex scheme.

The beneficiary countries are Cameroon (transfer of 3 601 423 EUA), Congo (7 361 677 EUA), Ivory Coast (15 000 000 EUA) and Ghana (5 176 408 EUA), giving a total of 31 139 508 EUA compensation for wood (not wood products). The transfer to the Ivory Coast for wood was the largest single item on this first Stabex list.

Signs of economic revival at the end of 1975 have been confirmed and tropical wood sales to Europe have picked up since the beginning of this year. These countries should therefore be in a position to reimburse the Stabex fund fairly soon. ■

EEC-ACP cooperation in the forestry sector

Forests are one of the prime resources of ACP countries in western and central Africa. For some years now, the Community has been running cooperation schemes aiming to promote the less well-known types of wood on the European market and to boost cooperation between the African producers and European consumers of tropical woods.

At the invitation of five countries—Cameroon, Congo, Gabon, Ivory Coast and Zaire—covered by the EDF-financed campaign to promote secondary woods, the Commission recently sent a mission to look into the production and exportation of African tropical woods in general, examine the situation in each of the five countries concerned, assess results obtained so far and make plans for the future.

General situation in ACP Africa

There are two main forest areas still waiting to be fully exploited:

- the area from southern Cameroon to northern Congo, including central and eastern Gabon;
- the central Zaire basin.

The forests of Liberia, Ghana, Nigeria and the Ivory Coast and the coastal regions of Cameroon, Gabon, Congo and Zaire are being fully exploited and can no longer be counted among Africa's major reserves.

The tonnage of African wood (logs and sawn timber) exported fell from an all-time high of 5 624 000 t in 1973 to 3 310 000 t in 1975, i.e. a 40% drop. The world economic crisis is partly to blame, but although European demand went back up in 1976, it is unlikely that the 1973 level will be reached again for some years yet. There are a number of reasons for this:

- In 1974/75, the large drop in European demand for tropical woods proved a major financial setback for many small and medium-sized producers, who had great difficulty in meeting existing commitments and were, therefore, unable to maintain and replace their equipment which is now in a state of disrepair.

- The transport system used to take out the wood from the interior to the ports is increasingly run-down and in some cases (the virgin forest areas) non-existent.

- The rising costs of production, the problems of maintaining equipment, getting spare parts, transporting and marketing products and obtaining the long and medium-term credit needed to get the firms back on their feet, plus the numerous administrative problems, have led large numbers of smaller producers either to close down or to concentrate on local markets—which are currently fairly active—and make exports only a marginal affair.



A five-year forest resources development plan has been drawn up in Cameroon with the help of European experts

— There is increasing competition from tropical Asian woods, which are on average 20% cheaper than African woods. This price difference is partly due to the lower costs of freight on Asian shipping lines, which take over ships for wood alone while the African system is to have ships calling at various ports along the coast for small loads, which results in an accumulation of delays. Furthermore, the Asian labour force is more efficient and transport routes pose fewer problems.

— The forests along the coast have been exploited for decades and their supply of precious woods is increasingly depleted. Europe is unfamiliar with the virtues of some of the less precious, though still valuable, woods and this reticence is further increased by the fact that, as African production stands, European industries can never be sure that they are going to get the regular deliveries of standard quality timber that they must have if they are to launch a new product on the European market.

This is the overall picture of the present situation in wood production and exportation in the five countries covered by the campaign to promote secondary woods.

The picture is not a rosy one. However, the situation could well change completely over the coming years if a good investment climate is created and if improvements and extensions are made to the transport infrastructure needed to bring the wood out. Only under these circumstances will the present campaign be really successful. If this can happen, the forests

will be better exploited, wood will cost less to export and African products will be better placed to compete with Asian ones.

Case-by-case study of the five countries concerned in the early stages of the campaign

IVORY COAST

The Ivory Coast covers a total area of 15 650 000 ha. In 1956, 11 800 000 ha of this was dense forest; according to the Ivory Coast Ministry of Waterways and Forests, it had dropped to 4 400 000 ha by 1976 and the forests are now disappearing at the rate of 500 000 ha per year.

The main reason for this devastation of the forest is that villagers burn down trees in order to clear the ground to grow manioc, coffee, cocoa and so on. They use no fertilizers and only work the same patch for a few years before moving on, once it is exhausted, to other open land or forest nearby. They find it easier to penetrate into the forests now that European forestry undertakings have created a network of tracks. European companies have been going in for large-scale exploitation of the forests for some time now. Some of the more precious species are fast disappearing and all attempts at their reafforestation have failed because the ecological balance has been upset.

The Ivory Coast now only has small forestry reserves in the west. In other regions, secondary varieties of wood remain where all the precious woods have been exploited.

At the moment, something like 3 000 ha per year are being replanted—not much beside the 500 000 ha being cut.

The authorities have also decided to fix an annual quota for cut trees of each type. Producers will now have to cut certain percentages of precious and non-precious woods and their exports will have to be made up of certain percentages of logs and sawn wood. Where producers fail to comply with the regulations here, their licences will be withdrawn.

CAMEROON

Cameroon's coastal forests have been exploited for many years now and no longer contain any major reserves that could be used for export. There are rich forests in the south,

but there are no communications of any kind. A few logs are floated down the Congo to Pointe Noire, but they take at least ten months to get there.

Forestry concerns in the north and centre are forced to use the Yaoundé-Douala railway for a considerable percentage of exports. This is a bottleneck and the equipment is exceedingly run-down.

Exporting wood is, therefore, a long, slow and expensive business and only precious varieties are worth the trouble.

Top priority should be given to building a highway to take the strain off the Yaoundé-Douala railway. Then the capacity of the railway between these two towns will need to be stepped up, particularly if products from the Central African Republic and central Cameroon are all to use the same route to the port of Douala. Lastly, plans for a road to the south should be made.

The problem of spare parts, fixed percentages of exports of logs and sawn wood, export charges and so on are the same in Cameroon as in other wood producing countries.

Three-felling the hard way in the Sudan



GABON

Gabon is officially divided into several forest areas:

Zone I (the maritime zone) has been exploited for some time, since it is easy to transport the wood to the ports. Still based here are a large number of small and medium-sized forestry concerns which only produce logs. Since logs are marketed by the National Timber Board (Office National du Bois) and the firms have to sell to this organization at rates that are sometimes lower or no better than cost, they have stopped production and become subcontractors on work for the Trans-Gabonese railway.

Zone II is downriver from the first rapids and served by waterway. This means that only wood which can be floated, i.e. fairly light varieties like okoumé, can be brought out and it is impossible to exploit hard woods since there are, as yet, none of the highly-expensive special vessels needed for transport purposes.

Zone III. There is no link between this area and the ocean. The Trans-Gabonese railway will, of course, transform the situation as a whole in a few years time and it will be possible to exploit Gabon's forests to the full.

All logs are marketed by the Timber Board; the only wood not covered by this blanket regulation is rough timber produced by firms which supply the whole of their production (plus any finished products, sawn wood, panels etc) to their own sawmills in Europe.

Local labour is another serious problem. Social security costs have risen by 67% over the last two years and the small work-force is in great demand for the Trans-Gabonese railway. This makes for high production costs and means that the wood is becoming increasingly less competitive compared with Asian wood.

CONGO

The Congo also suffers from a poor transport infrastructure, particularly since most of its reserves are in the north. The National Timber Board markets almost all forestry products and some of the woodpeeling and plywood industries have been nationalized. Few new felling licences have been granted.

It is extremely difficult to find labour, maintain equipment and obtain spare parts at the present time, although it would appear that the Congo has realized the economic importance of its forests and the urgency of safeguarding the means of exploitation.

ZAIRE

This country has never been a great exporter of wood, although it has one of the largest areas of forest in all Africa.

Annual exports are currently estimated to be below 50 000 t. However, since 18 June 1976, exports of logs have again been authorized, although an official quota has been laid

down for each type. In this country too, the transport networks, the poor equipment and the need for investment guarantees are deciding factors for future progress.

Assessment of results of Community schemes and outlook for the future

The study of standardization and processing in the wood sector met with general approval and hopes were expressed that the standards in question could be applied as soon as possible. Each country concerned will be submitting an official request to the Commission so that a complementary study can be carried out, the aim being to draft regulations, define the structure of the supervisory body and decide on how to organize a training system. The study came at an opportune moment, since the five countries want to cut back on exports of logs and push up exports of sawn and other processed wood.

General agreement was also reached on participation in trade fairs in 1976 (Copenhagen and Rotterdam). Each country will send an official from the Ministry of Waterways and Forests and from the Timber Board, plus a representative of the producers; these people will be in a position to answer any queries from European consumers. It has been suggested that the answers be as frank as possible and that no attempt be made to gloss over the current difficulties in the production and marketing of African wood.

Mr Guiscaffré, an engineer from the Paris-based Technical Centre for Tropical Forestry, has produced a technical report on the results of industrial testing of secondary woods that are little-known in Europe. The data sheets for each have been sent round to the various potential users of tropical wood in Europe. The authorities in these countries think that their forests should be exploited in a more rational and economic fashion and that Europeans must learn to appreciate secondary woods as well as the more precious varieties. This will mean that the present rate of exploitation of African forests—3 m³ per hectare—can go up to something like 10 m³ and the price per m³ will be lower because overheads will be brought down.

However, this figure is only valid for forest areas near the coast—and these zones are already well-exploited. The current state of infrastructure—particularly road and rail networks—in four of the countries visited (not the Ivory Coast) would preclude the intensive exploitation of forests in the interior.

In all five countries the authorities have shown renewed interest in exploiting the forests, which they consider to be an inexhaustible resource which, if properly used, will go on replacing itself.

The idea of collaboration between Europe and Africa is of obvious interest to all the countries concerned, although only within the framework of the OAB (organization of African wood-producing countries). The present trade promotion campaign covers only five of the ACP countries, but they want to bring in the other 10 members of the organization. The secretariat-general of the body feels that cooperation along these lines could well be discussed at the next meeting in November 1976 and, if agreement is reached, a further meeting can be held in Europe in the first half of 1977. ■

Market prospects

Short-term supplies

It was generally held that in the short-term, greater and more regular demand would result in the tropical timber market being better balanced towards mid-1976.

But the demand for logs could scarcely be met when the exploitation of new areas and renewed exploitation of old areas, in the Ivory Coast in particular, was likely to prove so difficult to get under way. Furthermore, the policy of producer countries now tends to be to reserve a considerable proportion of log production for national industries, for which they are trying to find more local outlets.

The most straightforward decision in any African country was taken by Nigeria on 5 February 1976 when it agreed, in view of the increasing demands of the internal market, to refuse any further wood export licences.

In Gabon, a decision by the Council of Ministers on 10 October 1975 put the ONGB (Gabon's Timber Marketing Board) in exclusive charge of marketing all species of logs and not just okoumé and ozigo. One of the prime aims of this new body is to seek its own ways and means of encouraging on-the-spot processing and meeting national demand. The tendency to call a halt to log exports is thus being confirmed.

In the Ivory Coast, the regulations on export quotas forcing producers to supply logs for national industries before export, were made more severe for certain exporters by the decree of 19 December 1975.

In Ghana, the control of the Ghana Timber Marketing Board over exports is gradually being stepped up and further outlets are being sought in the Middle East.

Finally, it would now appear that the possibilities of log supplies from Asia are fairly limited, since exports here are subject to strict quotas. For example, the South East Asia Lumber Producers Association (Malaysia, Indonesia and the Philippines) fixed a quota of 7 million m³ for the third quarter of 1975 after consultation with the three main importers (Japan, South Korea and Taiwan).

All this, plus the fact that Hong Kong is playing an increasingly important part in the market, particularly as regards Burmese teak and various woods from Thailand, will make for complicated transactions between south-east Asia and European importers.

African woods should have no difficulty in finding an open market in Europe, although the fact that white African woods can be replaced by woods from temperate climates will, in all probability, limit the sellers' ambitions. The same is true of the furniture sector, where competition from common woods like oak and beech may affect the sales of both common and uncommon varieties from Africa.

However, the tax concessions which producer countries grant to exporters of "new" types of woods should mean that the campaigns to popularise these varieties can be continued. The Ivory Coast's decision to assimilate exports of new varieties to deliveries to national factories has much the same effect. Furthermore, European traders are convinced they have to find replacements for traditional, but increasingly rare, woods. This is why they gave a favourable reply to the EEC and why, after negotiations with the producers (Ivory Coast, Zaire and Gabon), they introduced a list of 40 woods to be sold at low prices to enable European stocks to be built up.

Long-term prospects

The destruction of forests through over-intensive exploitation is clearly the main cause of the future wood shortage feared in both official and private circles.

The example of the Ivory Coast is a significant one, since the 1971-75 Plan took account of a recent inventory of the country's forests, which revealed that four red woods were becoming dangerously short. Sipo was the main type concerned, but makoré, mahogany and aboudikro were also threatened. In 1970, these four varieties accounted for 49% of the value of logs and 67% of the value of sawn timber exported.

It is therefore reasonable for producer countries to take protective measures to ensure the rational exploitation of all species and on-the-spot processing so that the production capital, which is so difficult to replace, is not totally lost. This will be a major contribution to the probable stability of the timber market in the longer term.

There are, of course, plans to find new sources of supply. Asian supplies, which are by no means as large, will be increasingly bought up by neighbouring markets and will have to meet increasing demand from them.

Amazonia's potential looks vast. In fact, the needs of Brazil and its neighbours are on the increase and initial contacts, particularly those established by Britain, have borne little fruit, at least as far traditional European-style contracts are concerned.

In Africa, the building of the Trans-Cameroon railway means that Cameroon can now work hitherto unexploited areas in the centre of the country. However, only a small amount can be brought out, since the railway to the coast has reached saturation point.

The Congo basin in Zaire contains untapped reserves which can easily be exploited once the transport network is developed. Their considerable extent should step up exports, though this may require improvements to the conditions of production.

If Africa's potential resources are to be used, their exploitation must be rational, controlled and integrated with the national economies. Producer countries should also run co-ordinated action programmes with the principal aim of evolving a balanced market open to new types of wood and new products. ■

From the BCEAO Bulletin no. 239, May 1976.

EEC generalized tariff preferences for 1977

The Commission has just agreed on a statement to the Council setting out its GSP (generalized system of preferences) proposals for developing countries in 1977. If the Council adopts the proposals, GSP-1977 will be a considerable improvement over 1976, since the potential volume of preferential imports will go up from 4 600 to 6 500 m u.a. — i.e. a 42 % increase in value. The increase will be 51 % for industrial products other than textiles, 24 % for agricultural products and 4 % for textiles.

In its communication to the Council, the Commission stressed that the recovery now under way means that the Community economy can afford these improvements. They represent a refusal to return to protectionism. They are an act of responsibility in favour of the developing countries and proof that the Community intends meeting its commitments,—for although the EEC is going through a difficult period, its problems are not comparable with those facing the developing countries. The Commission feels that the recent introduction of the Canadian and American schemes has resulted in a fairer sharing of responsibility and commitments among the industrialized countries.

In making its proposals for 1977, the Commission has been conscious throughout of the need to present a coherent and, above all, fair set of suggestions which met the general aims of the GSP in the most concrete manner possible, while taking account of the wide variety of individual situations⁽¹⁾. If the Council adopts the Commission proposals more or less as they stand, GSP-1977 will be a significant step towards implementing the Council's major resolution of 3 March 1975 on the future development of generalized preferences. The main features of this resolution are as follows:

(1) A "guide to the GSP" is being drawn up and a Community GSP documentation and information centre will be established.

Agricultural products

As agreed, the Commission proposals for 1977 incorporate the improvements to the GSP decided by the Council on 6 April in respect of the supply of tropical products within the framework of the GATT multilateral trade negotiations. Consequently, GSP-1977 (agriculture) involves 46 new products and 70 improvements to preferential margins.

A total of 296 agricultural products—an estimated 1 235 m u.a.—will be covered by the preferential scheme in 1977, as against 250 (1 000 m u.a.) in 1976.

Most of the improvements are special measures to benefit the least favoured countries and cover Virginia tobacco, spices, vegetable oils and certain cut flowers.

Industrial products other than textiles

In accordance with Community commitments entered into at the CEIC in Paris and UNCTAD IV at Nairobi, the Commission proposes changing the reference year for calculating the ceilings—which will mean that they will be considerably higher, even allowing for inflation.

The Commission proposes that 1971—which was the reference year for ceilings fixed in 1974, 1975 and 1976—be replaced by 1974, the last year for which the appropriate Community statistics are available, on the understanding that the individual increases

for sensitive and semi-sensitive products will be restricted to a maximum of 50 % in value or volume, as the case may be. This would apply to all industrial products other than textiles, with the exception of footwear and one or two iron and steel products, in respect of which it is proposed, in view of the depressed state of these sectors, to freeze ceilings at their 1976 level.

It has been calculated that a change of reference year will involve an overall increase of potential preferential imports of 51 %. The increase will vary according to category—35 % for sensitive products, 45 % for semi-sensitive products and 57 % for non-sensitive products.

As far as product classification is concerned, the Commission proposes that the list of 16 products subject to quotas be maintained and that the system of special country ceilings applied to the most developed countries be continued—on the understanding that the long-term objective is to have the same ceiling for every country. Three further products would be added to the four products already covered by quotas with a Community reserve.

Textile products

The global volume of ceilings would be raised from 75 323 to 79 131 t—i.e. a 5 % increase.

However, the Commission proposals contain innovations which go beyond the purely quantitative aspects. They are as follows.

— Pending the establishment of a link with the multifibres arrangement, the GSP-textiles will be provisionally extended to all developing countries and territories except Romania.

— The distinction between cotton and other textiles will be done away with and this will make for ease of administration and utilization.

— A dual system will be applied to particularly sensitive products, one aim being to reduce the benefits of the GSP to highly competitive far eastern countries on the basis of equal treatment for all. This supposes that Hong Kong will no

The main points of the GSP system

Tariff preferences are:

— **generalised**, i.e. they are granted, in principle, by all industrialised countries;

— **non-discriminatory**, i.e. they are granted to all developing countries;

— **autonomous**, in that they are not the result of negotiations with the countries that are covered by them.

The preferences are not reciprocal and countries covered by them are by no means obliged to grant reductions in tariff duties in return.

The following example shows how the GSP works.

An importer in the European Community importing electronic calculators—mainly pocket calculators, that is—from Japan or the United States, for example, has to pay the 14% duty listed in the EEC's common customs tariff. If he imports the same product from a developing country, he will not have to pay customs duty on any quantities up to the ceiling fixed. This duty-free entry is the preference granted to the exporter of calculators from the developing country over the exporter of calculators from an industrialised country. The GSP scheme means that, within certain limits—ceilings or quotas—imports to the Community are duty free. Over and above these limits, the Community is free to apply the duties laid down in the CCT.

These ceilings and quotas are worked out on the basis of a fixed amount corresponding to the value

of imports from countries covered by the scheme during the reference year. They are raised by 5% of the value of the industrialised countries' imports every year. This increase is called the additional amount.

1971 was the reference year for quotas and ceilings in 1974/75 and 1976. In 1977, 1974 will be taken as the reference year for working out the basic amount and the additional amount for the ceilings.

Sensitive products—those in respect of which Community industry is at a disadvantage—are covered by a strict system of tariff quotas. In this case, the volume of preferential imports is shared out among the EEC countries.

Country ceilings or maximum amounts have been fixed for each country covered by the scheme in order to prevent the most developed and the most competitive from monopolising the benefits it provides. They restrict to a given percentage the maximum share of quotas and ceilings that any country can use.

In order to benefit from duty-free entry under the GSP, exporting countries must comply with certain regulations relative to the origin of goods and must, in particular, supply certificates of origin. These formalities are intended to avoid abuse. Some third countries not covered by the scheme might well attempt to evade EEC customs duties by exporting their products via one of the developing

countries that are covered. The system of certificates of origin is a complex one, but it does safeguard the interests of the countries covered by the Community scheme.

Generalised preferences are a turning point in world trade relations, which have, until now, been based on respect of the most-favoured-nation clause and on the system of mutual concessions. The scheme revolutionises international relations, which will be based on concertation between developed and developing countries, and can rightly be considered an important contribution to the prosperity of the least-favoured nations.

At the present time, 111 countries are covered by the EEC scheme. In 1974 just 10 of them accounted for something like 72% of the scheme with an amount of 1 500 m u.a. — Yugoslavia 288 m u.a., Hong Kong 219 m u.a., Brazil 189 m u.a., India 181 m u.a., South Korea 154 m u.a., Singapore 119 m u.a., Pakistan 115 m u.a., Mexico 98 m u.a., Romania 76 m u.a. and Iran 61 m u.a.

The Community and Japan were the main providers of preferential schemes for developing countries until the United States introduced its own system of generalised preferences in 1976.

The GSP policy reflects one of the main objectives of the EEC—to bring about a fairer distribution of world wealth. ■

longer be excluded. It will also involve relaxing the arrangements for the other beneficiaries, which are among the least favoured of the developing countries. Practically speaking, the Commission proposes that the overall ceiling for 28 products be divided into two: 30% for competitive recipients of the scheme, to be managed as a quota without cut-offs but with a reserve, and 70% for other recipients of the scheme, to be managed as a ceiling with a standard cut-off of 50%.

When a product is covered by a quota, a 5% cut-off will be applied in the case of competitive countries and the other beneficiaries will have cut-offs of 30%. For the other products (6 sensitive products subject to quotas, 15 semi-sensitive products and 54 non-sensitive products), the general system will be applied in respect of all countries. The most competitive beneficiaries—to whom the restrictive system for each product would be applied—will be selected on the basis of two objective criteria—a *per capita* GNP of at least \$300 and a minimum of 6% of imports per product from beneficiaries of the GSP.

Although responsibility in the textile sector is not equally shared between industrialized countries, the Commission feels that textiles should continue to be covered by the scheme. If they were cut out, it would reduce both the political scope of the scheme and the economic effect on many countries, particularly the least-favoured countries like India and Pakistan. It might also be possible for any disturbances to be overcome via the multifibres arrangement.

Jute and coir

Coir. A new agreement has just been concluded with India. It provides for tariff dismantling to continue under the GSP in two stages—suspension of 80% from 1 July 1976 to end 1977 and duty free entry as from 1 January 1978.

Jute. The Commission proposes that the 1976 system be maintained for 1977—i.e. suspension of 50% or 60% according to category—on the understanding that the arrangement might be altered in the light of agreements to be negotiated with India and Bangladesh. ■

Improving cattle feed with liquid concentrates Could it help the ACP countries?

The world hunger problem is often not merely a matter of a shortage of food but of a lack of protein in the food which is available. The situation now, however, is one where the animal food chain is in direct competition with the human food chain for protein since a large volume of vegetable protein such as soya, maize and other cereals—which would otherwise be available for human consumption—is incorporated into animal feed.

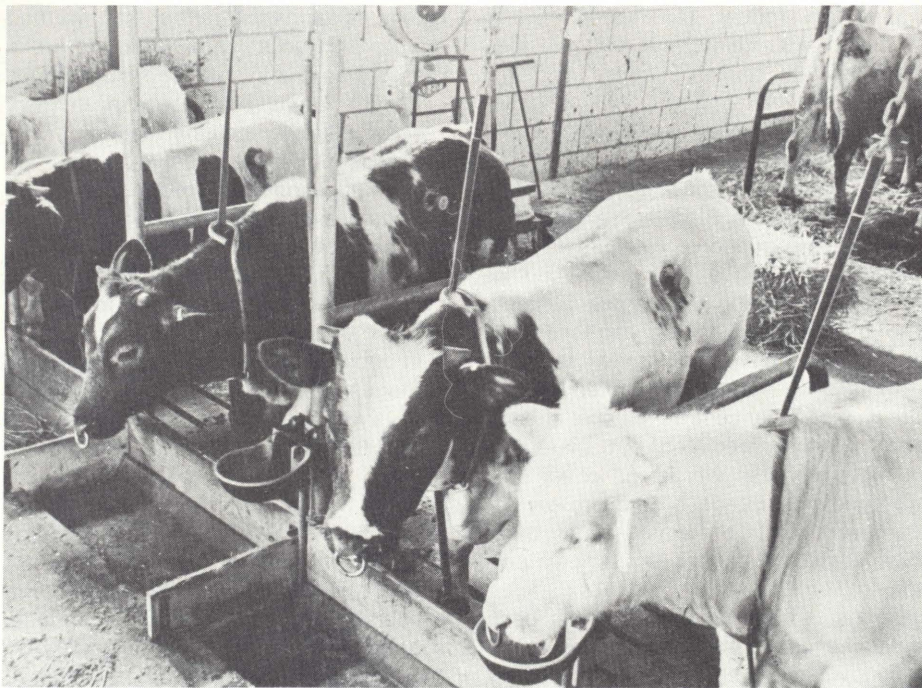
Furthermore, the administering of vegetable protein to animals for conversion into animal protein involves heavy losses. For example, in order to produce 1 kg of live chicken—up to now the most efficient food converter—2 kg of feed is required. This, however, provides only half a kilogramme net weight of

chicken meat for human consumption, which means that 4 kg of feed is in fact needed to produce only 1 kg net weight of chicken meat. The search for by-products for use as animal feed has not yet provided suitable alternatives either for chickens or for pigs, to take another example. These animals are monogastric, however. Cattle, on the other hand, are ruminants, characterized by their own specific digestive system and having micro-organisms in the rumen which enable them to digest and make use of cellulose such as straw.

With cattle, however, the feeding-stuffs/meat production ratio has so far been even worse: 6 to 7 kg of feeding-stuffs is needed to produce 1 kg of live meat or 10 to 12 kg to produce 1 kg net weight of meat.



Not only people lose weight by exercise: cattle on the move in the Central African Republic



An experimental stable

Differences in the digestive system

From the point of view of protein production monogastric animals are basically different from ruminants. When fed to a monogastric animals protein—which is built up of amino acids—is broken down in the animal's digestive system into the amino acids, from which it can then build up its own protein. However, thanks to the micro-organisms in the rumen (bacteria, etc.) ruminants can use much simpler sources of nitrogen for their protein synthesis. And nitrogen, together with carbon and oxygen, is one of the basic constituents of protein. So ruminants can obtain part of their protein from non-protein nitrogen (NPN), in other words nitrogen from a source other than protein.

A study of the digestive system of ruminants has shown that these animals partly break down proteins not only into amino acids but also into urea and ammonia. The micro-organisms in the rumen can then use the ammonia for their own synthesis of microbial protein. The latter is then further broken down into amino acids which are used for producing the ruminant's own specific animal protein.

Most NPN products as such, however,

raise a number of problems when they are introduced into animal feed. Urea for instance, is broken down too quickly and can give rise to a kind of ammonia explosion in the rumen of the animal, which may lead to general poisoning and death. As a general rule therefore, only small proportion of NPN products may be used in the feedingstuffs of ruminants (15 to 20%).

The glycolink process (1)

A Belgian firm has now come up with a promising new process. The distinctive feature of the liquid feedingstuffs produced by the firm is the chemical reaction of a substantial proportion of the urea—originally a fertilizer—with the sugars from molasses, which functions as a support. At present cane-sugar molasses (imported from Cuba)—normally a waste product—is used for this purpose. Some of the ACP States could therefore apply this process using their own sugar production.

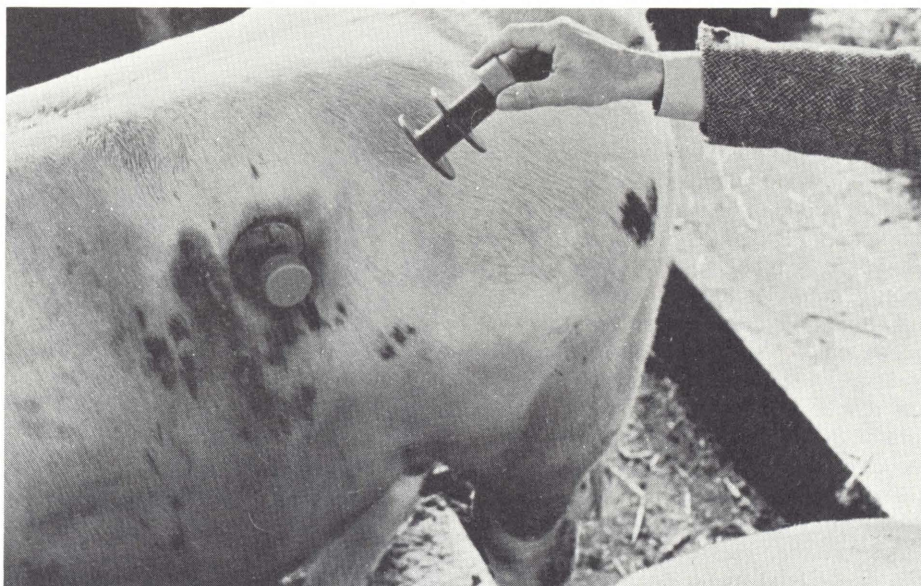
This chemical reaction slows down the release of ammonia in the rumen so that a small amount is released at a time but at frequent intervals ("little-and-often") enabling the micro-organisms to use the ammonia which has been released.

Thus there are advantages to the liquid state which molasses as the support already has in its original form and which is necessary for the chemical reaction to take place. It also means that the degree of acidity (PH) of the ammonia in the rumen can be kept under control.

With this process, up to 80% of the protein requirement in feedingstuffs for, say, store cattle can be satisfied with

(1) More details on this can be obtained from the "Courier"; we will pass enquiries on to the firm concerned. — Ed.

Studying the digestion process



non-protein nitrogen, in this case urea. A level of 60% has already been achieved with dairy cattle.

Practical advantages

The concentrate thus obtained, for which a patent has been taken out, can be used to supplement and balance basic feedingstuffs. At the research station the basic feed was beet pulp, for which there are suitable alternatives in developing countries such as citrus pulp, which is normally a waste product.

The process in question enables a balanced feed to be produced both in terms of energy (in the basic feedingstuff) and in terms of protein (in the concentrate) without the human food chain being deprived of a single product.

The combination of the non-agriculturally produced NPN products with waste products unsuitable for human consumption therefore marks a real step towards solving the problem of the world protein shortage. It is no longer necessary to employ usable foodstuffs in animal feed when waste products and a chemical substance can do the job.

Even after allowing for the initial research and investment costs, the cost price per comparable protein equivalent is appreciably lower—by approximately 25 to 30%—than traditional sources of protein.

The product, which is at present a constituent of the feed of over 60 000 cattle throughout the Benelux market, is marketed in three varieties—with 16%, 24% and 32% protein equivalent respectively. On the Belgian market a comparison with extracted soya meal, for instance (42% protein equivalent)—which is supplied to the farmer at Bfrs 12 per kg—works out heavily in favour of the product in question, which with a protein equivalent of 32% is marketed at Bfrs 6.05 per kg, even after allowance is made for the difference in protein equivalent.

Furthermore, the production unit requires only a small amount of energy and part of the energy used—the chemical reaction takes place at a temperature of 80-85°C—can be recovered and recycled.

The basic product (protein equivalent 64%), from which the three concentrates on the market are derived can and does serve as an ingredient in tra-

ditional dry fodder, representing 6.4% of the total protein content of the feedingstuff.

International prospects

Some 10 countries, so far mainly from the Eastern Bloc, are engaged in intensive negotiations with a view to either purchasing a production unit of this kind or buying the knowhow itself. The only process which can be compared with this revolutionary feedingstuff is one used in the United States. Other liquid concentrates have already been widely introduced but these are ordinary mixtures which can cover only a limited percentage of the protein requirement and moreover with them there is still the danger of ammonia poisoning.

Farms throughout Benelux have been using the concentrate for a year and a half now, and the initial scepticism has been overcome. However, ruminants are found virtually all over the world and, as has been pointed out above, neither the basic waste products nor urea production are essentially restricted by geographical factors. The marketing of the concentrate requires only a limited infrastructure such as troughs or ordinary

drums as far as the farmer is concerned and tankertrucks, with sufficient brake pressure to pump out the syrupy liquid.

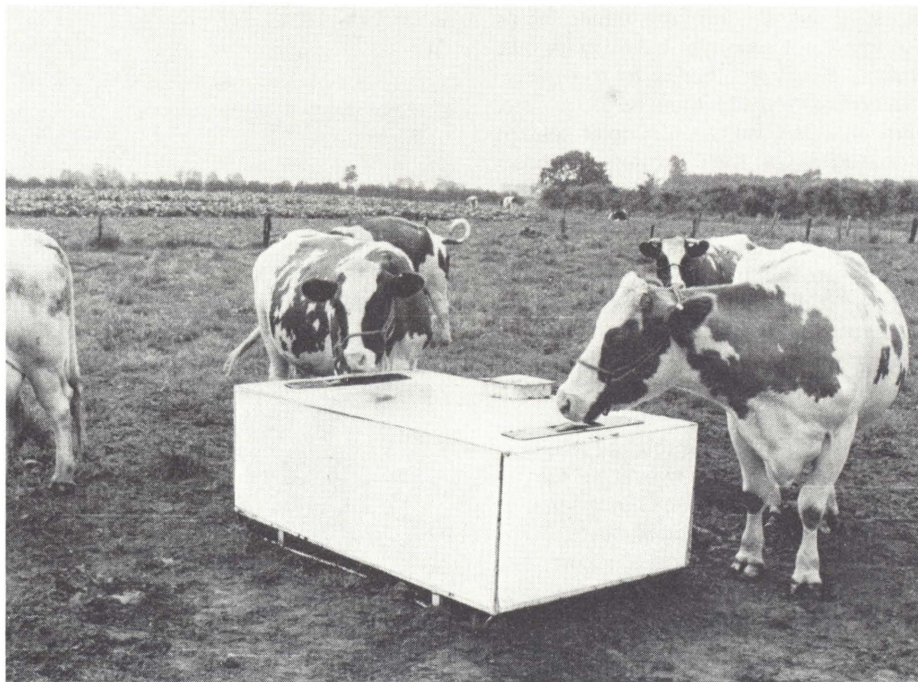
Recent trends in the soya bean market, for example, indicate that traditional feeds cannot always be available. The firm in question is therefore concentrating increasingly in its general research on raw materials which are not suitable for human consumption and whose availability is less dependent upon market fluctuations.

In addition to the purely economic advantages from the point of view of cost price, investment, marketing system and availability, this process is also helping to ease the general problem of protein supply.

With due regard for the chemical jargon, ultimately the taste of the final product is also important and here the consumer need have no qualms: tests show that the meat of cattle reared on this liquid concentrate tastes just as good as that of cattle fed in the traditional manner.

In addition to keeping more vegetable protein available for human consumption perhaps this technology will give the people of the Third World a chance to taste the beef for which there is such a great demand in the West. ■ R.D.B.

Cattle feeding by licking liquid concentrate from a wheel in a trough



Tourism in Fiji

Tourism is now Fiji's second largest industry, bringing in something like \$F 70 million a year from 170 000 staying visitors and 75 000 one-day callers on cruise ships.

However, imports needed to service the tourist industry account for some 50% of total income. These imports cover items like duty-free goods for tourist shopping, equipment for hotels, and a considerable amount of foodstuffs. Another five percent goes out in repatriation of profits, since many of Fiji's hotels are owned overseas.

The reliance on imports to maintain a healthy tourist industry is one of the reasons Fiji is so anxious to establish more secondary industries—to substitute locally-made goods for imports. The same goes for much of the foodstuffs imported. And this is where Fiji's active rural development programme comes in.

With sugar cane its main industry, and forestry coming up fast (estimated to become the number one industry within a decade), Fiji is basically an agricultural society. Hence the emphasis on growing more produce and raising more meat for import substitution. The two main races, the indigenous Fijians and the Asian Indians, are agricultural peasant people, excellent farmers



Nitin Lab - Suva

Fijian beach

working with fertile ground in islands blessed by a soft climate.

Nobody has yet accurately gauged the full impact of tourism on the national economy, though there have been many intelligent guesses. Naturally, those whose interests lie in tourism incline to give more optimistic estimates, and those who are emotionally opposed to tourism tend to be more pessimistic.

Meanwhile, Fiji forges ahead with its tourism, and nobody can argue with the country's basic qualifications of magical scenery, balmy climate and friendly people, in this highly competitive business.

Over the past 15 years, a handful of Fiji's 300 islands (about 100 of them inhabited) have blossomed with fine hotels and resorts. With them has come development of excellent domestic transportation in the form of two airlines (Air Pacific and Fiji Air), fleets of taxis, rental cars, air-conditioned tour cars, and

buses. The government holds the majority interest in both airlines.

Activities for visitors have not been neglected. At a current count, Fiji offers some 60 or so well-organized excursions and tours, ranging from a half-day visit to a Fijian village, to three days of inter-island cruising aboard comfortable passenger vessels.

Fiji hotels have a particular charm, due mainly to their distinctive architecture. With few exceptions, they are designed to blend into the topography and culture of the country. No out-of-town resorts are taller than a palm tree. Many incorporate the traditional high peaked Fijian roof in their designs, and there is much use of local timber and stone in their construction. Gardens display an abundance of indigenous flowers and trees. Interior decor uses the finest traditional handicrafts adapted to modern use—woven palm leaves for wall cover-

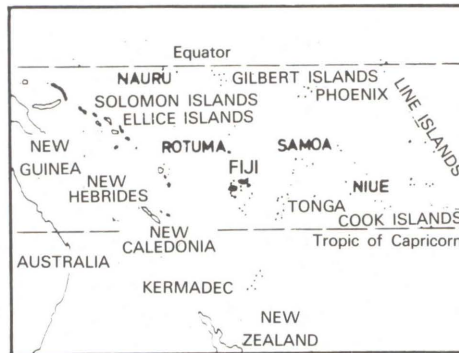
(1) Article contributed by the Fiji Visitors Bureau.

ings and carvings for lamp stands, for example.

Hotel personnel employ the famed Fijian charm and hospitality in their work; their natural gregariousness spills over in their dealings with foreign tourists, and especially with visiting children.

For the entertainment of visitors, there are groups of Fijian dancers and singers to perform the centuries-old traditional meke (entertainment), the dignified yaqona (kava) ceremony of welcome to the stranger.

There are critics who complain that performance of traditional ritual for tourists is debasing. However, the Fijians have managed so far to avoid the crasser aspects of commercialism, and the



The Fiji islands

standard of cultural purity remains higher than in most tourist-oriented countries.

The hotels and resorts, many of them on isolated islands, come up to very high standards of comfort and service. Restaurants are spacious and well-staffed, presenting varied menus of European-type dishes, and a few indigenous foods for visitors with an adventurous palate. Wine lists offer a good variety of Australian, French, and German wines, at prices many visitors say are more than reasonable.

Hotel and catering training was slow to get going in Fiji. It was only three years ago that the government opened the School of Hotel & Catering Services, which is now turning out about 60 graduates a year, and offering a range of short upgrading courses on various



Suva - Photo Nitin

Sugar-cane is one of Fiji's main resources

aspects of the trade to those already employed.

Until then, staff learned 'on the job'. Although not considered the most satisfactory way of learning, Fiji was lucky in that the people who were learning this way were happy and friendly souls, whose warmth and joy in life more than compensated for lapses in impeccable service.

Fiji currently has about 4000 hotel rooms, most of them built in the last seven years to international standards. The largest hotel is The Fijian Resort, with 315 rooms. Hotels account for about 5000 employees. It has been estimated that a further 2500 are employed directly in other sectors of the industry, and an additional 2800 in businesses servicing those directly involved.

Tourism as an industry is recognized by the government, which set up a statutory authority to cover the Fiji Visitors Bureau in 1969. The bureau is financed by the government to the tune of \$F 450 000 a year. The private sector also contributes around \$F 50 000 in the form of cash donations (tax deductible) and 'in kind' (free accommodation and transport for FVB VIP's).

With a recent downturn in visitors to Fiji, and changing market circumstances in the world travel scene, the Fiji tourist industry and government are currently hammering out a new policy, structure, and financing method for the FVB.

Fiji's traditional markets are Australia and New Zealand, both of which regard the country that lies less than three hours' flying time away very much as mainland Americans view Hawaii. Australia and New Zealand each account for about one-third of Fiji's total visitors. US Americans and Canadians account for about 25%, though their numbers have dropped significantly over the past year or so, due, it is thought, to the general recession and economic uncertainties. But forward bookings and a general feeling in the travel and economic business indicate that things are brightening up for Fiji in all three markets. Additionally, Fiji has made a very slight dent in the lucrative Japanese market this year with a programme of charter holidays from Tokyo. However, a great deal more promotional work is needed to make the Japanese aware of Fiji's attractions before this market could be said to be cracked open. ■



Photo by Nitin Lab

*Swimming pool in Suva, the Fiji capital
On the beach in Fiji*



Photo by Nitin Lab

Air Afrique and the African tourist trade

Air Afrique, an inter-state company set up in 1961 by 11 then newly-independent African countries, is consolidating its position in international air transport—and for a number of years now has been increasing its tourist trade by introducing more flights and opening the Hotafric hotel chain.

The following article from Air Afrique headquarters in Abidjan describes the new tourist ventures being undertaken by the company.

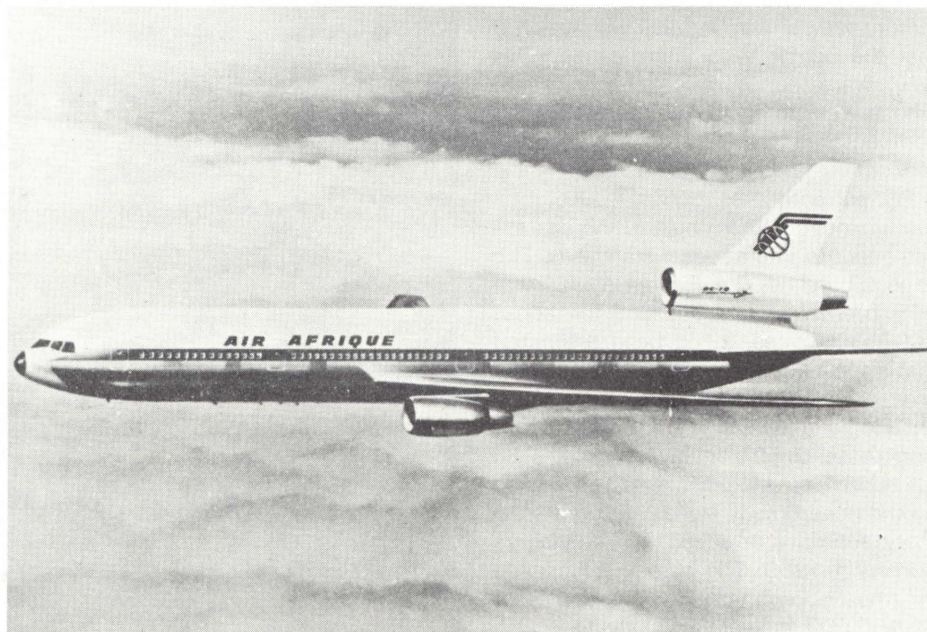
Direct investments

Air Afrique has made an obvious contribution to the African tourist trade by running a vast tourist promotion campaign and by always being willing to make direct investments in the tourist industry.

Between 1966 and 1973, the company invested more than CFAF 2 000 m in tourist promotion. Results were good and, in 1973, 42 000 tourists travelled with the RK/UT/AF Association (1) and a further 14 000 young holidaymakers travelled on extra flights.

In 1974, when it was realized that businessmen were increasingly travelling tourist class, the company was forced to review its tourist policy. This was the turning point and advertising campaigns have been aimed at the businessman and the top end of the market ever since.

(1) RK, UT and AF are the flight abbreviations for Air Afrique, and two French airlines, Union des Transports Aériens and Air France.



An Air Afrique DC 10

Cooperating with national tourist services

Collaboration between Air Afrique and its members' national tourist boards varies according to how active the tourist trade is in each country. Joint advertising campaigns are run whenever the need is felt and, in addition, Air Afrique takes an active part in developing the tourist trade in its various member countries by setting up and managing such things as the hunting camps and fishing centres in Senegal and Mauritania.

The company is also involved in exchanging information and is often consulted on airline prices and charter flights.

Inclusive tours

Air Afrique uses inclusive tours to advertise African tourism in cities such as Rome, Geneva and New York from which it has flights leaving for Africa. This is in line with IATA regulations.

These inclusive tours are used when any large-scale congress—such as the

Peace through Law Conference in 1974, the seed-crushers in 1975, and the congresses of French-speaking doctors and journalists—is being held in Africa. Of course, the special rates offered enable the visitor to see the tourist attractions as well as attend the event in question and this is a boost for mass tourism.

These tours make an important contribution to promoting tourism and have the advantage of being within reach of a wide variety of customers since they can provide all-in tours on very tight profit margins at prices which are extremely competitive as far as established tourist areas such as East Africa, Europe and the Far East are concerned. Within three short years, inclusive tours and an advertising campaign have increased the number of tourists fourfold.

How special prices affect the tourist trade

Air Afrique has introduced a series of price concessions of between 20% and 50% to help promote the tourist trade in its member countries. The biggest reduction is on inter-state fares and amounts to 50% for a party of a minimum of four people over a 3/14 day

period. These promotional prices should push up the number of tourists, in spite of the fact that airline users are often ill-informed about them.

Generally speaking, promotional prices do not automatically attract the tourist. Everything depends on individual motivation. Provided he has enough time and money, the tourist tends not to watch his spending. However, it is worth mentioning that fares are very much a determining factor for the medium-income group.

Vertical integration

Hotafric is Air Afrique's attempt at vertical integration. There is no need to point out that air transport, tourist promotion and hotels are closely linked. Of course, Air Afrique is partly covered by both the monopoly conferred by the Yaoundé treaty and the ATAF monopoly and it would be wrong to think that the usual factors affecting airline viability operate freely in this case. However, if the situation was a fully competitive one or if these two monopolies disappeared, the best-placed airlines would be those which could offer the client (through group travel agencies or travel agents) good terms and flights as well as hotels. Integration of this sort would mean that the airline would receive everything the holiday-maker or businessman spent.

Financially speaking, it is obviously a tremendous advantage if the vertical group—the group travel agency or travel agent, the airline itself and its hotel and tourist organization—collects everything the traveller spends.

As well as these potential profits, quite considerable amounts are involved in loss of earnings through, for example, free or cut-price services to the hotel chain, or investments. This is why any decisions taken on integration should be based on proper studies that are updated periodically and highlight the advantages and disadvantages involved.

The break with old-style tourism

Air Afrique plays an important part in the African tourist trade and is one of

the pioneers of tourism in West and Central Africa. It has now decided to alter its tourist policy and, in collaboration with other tour operators, is evolving and marketing a new range of "super products". Why "super products"? Because the company wants to break away from the traditional sand-sea-sun holiday and provide more instructive tours for people with specialized interests, such as the masked dances of the

Ivory Coast. On such tours, commentaries are given by people who are natives of the country and who understand its social and ethnic structure. Air Afrique also runs a full range of hunting and fishing tours.

What happens in the future depends on the results of the new policy and on the fruits of collaboration between Air Afrique and the various individual tour operators. ■

Air Afrique headquarters in Abidjan (Ivory Coast)



(from page 29)

The particular character of European policy

Mr Cheysson emphasized the fact that any policy aimed at encouraging the development of the Third World must be a comprehensive one. The European Community could feel "justly proud of the Lomé Convention and of being the first to set up a coherent system of relations with a major part of the Third World".

Mr Cheysson went on to discuss the four main features that made the Lomé Convention such an original agreement.

1. The Convention and other similar agreements recently concluded with three North African countries and about to be concluded with five countries in the Middle East, cover the full range of cooperation from financial aid, with priority for the worst-off, and promotion of exports via guaranteed free access to the European market for more than 99% of the production of the 52 Lomé countries, to trade promotion, technical assistance and industrial cooperation, which includes a set of procedures to enable firms in Europe and the developing countries to meet and deal directly with each other.

2. The guiding principle that each country must decide on its own model for development—which must be deeply rooted in the society, history, beliefs and culture of its people. The EEC wants to provide neither models nor ideology, and its partners in the developing world must fix their own priorities for development. Europe can only provide the means; the hands, minds and the determination of people in the developing world will bring about the development itself.

3. International treaties, duly ratified by parliaments, lay down, once and for all, what Europe is to provide to its partners and no further bargaining or negotiation is necessary. The aid becomes one of the permanent resources of the developing countries.

4. Finally, cooperation is with a whole group of nations, regardless of differences in regime, ideology or level of de-

velopment. The aid is, therefore, intrinsically neutral. Europe is making a conscious effort to remain apart from the conflicts which all too often divide neighbouring countries in the developing world. Some countries may be tempted to take sides and thereby contribute to local tension. Europe is seeking peace, cooperation, and understanding between the peoples of the Third World. The Lomé Convention is one of the success stories of African unity. At the end of April, agreements were also reached with Algeria and Morocco—who were at war—and similar agreements will be signed with Israel and the neighbouring Arab States.

The commissioner concluded by saying that aid had to be confined to certain regions of the globe because the strength and resources of Europe could not be stretched to cover the whole of the Third World. Europe had to choose and, quite naturally, it had chosen to aid those countries with which it had the closest historical, geographical and economic ties. Furthermore it was clear that this was where existing structures could be built on with the best effect.

Europe should do more than the rest of the industrialized world, Mr Cheysson said, because it is heavily dependent on

its Third World relations. The European Community imports 3/4 of the raw materials and commodities it needs. The United States import only 15%.

Finally, Mr Cheysson said, some people would quite rightly point out that Europe was promoting dangerous competition for its own production and was responsible for structural changes which could well affect certain sectors of its own economy. This he thought was true, but he still believed in close ties with the Third World and in developing its exports. A policy of this kind, he argued, can only be a working proposition within the context of growth. There will always be inequality, and the fairest distribution of wealth can only be achieved if growth brings further benefits. This is how he saw Europe's future and the future of its relations with developing countries.

One very important conclusion must also be drawn according to Mr Cheysson. Europe's relations with the Third World—and the Mediterranean, Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific in particular—have ceased to be a marginal problem. The consequences of developing these relations have to be closely harmonized with Europe's industrial, agricultural, social and economic policies. ■

Dr Hans Friederichs at the Ghana stand



Wolfgang Albrecht

BURUNDI

The development of tea planting

One of the events of the recent Africa-EEC exhibition in Bujumbura was a lecture by Zénon Nicayenzi, head of the OTB (Office du Thé du Burundi—Burundi tea board), on Community and EDF contributions to developing the country's tea industry. Extracts are printed below.

The speaker explained the pre-1962 situation and stressed that the government plan was to step up and diversify Burundi's sources of foreign currency and income in general. He went on to describe early EDF projects between 1962-1972 and then those of 1973-1975, and ended with a summary of their results.

1962-1972

In the early stages, aid from the European Development Fund went on studies. One of these was a global study, comprising a general and an analytical report, on the development of Rwanda and Burundi. It appeared in 1961 and was co-produced by René Dumont, who wrote "L'Afrique noire est mal partie". The study was an excellent one to which we could still usefully refer today. It dealt primarily with tea growing, strongly recommended that a tea industry be built up and suggested a target of 25 000 tonnes of dry tea for Rwanda and Burundi by 1975.



Téza tea plantation

Other studies on introducing tea growing in Burundi were also undertaken, the main ones being:

- a study of the possibility of growing tea in Rwanda and Burundi in 1963;
- a prospective study of land suitable for tea planting, in 1966;
- a report on research into tea in Burundi, also in 1966;
- a general development programme for the tea industry in Burundi.

In 1962/63, the EDF financed the setting-up of the 500 ha Téza tea plantation. The 500 ha Rwegura plantation followed three years later. Then a 580 ha plantation was set up at Tora in 1968/69 and a year later a further 500 ha at Muramvya. All were EDF financed.

A factory able to handle an annual 500 t of dry tea was built on the first plantation at Téza in 1967 and another similar factory went up at Rwegura in 1970.

The main features of this period were: — tea plantations were set up in suc-

cession, giving a low annual rate of planting.

— The first tea plantations were complete units, as in the case of Téza and Rwegura, or half units, as in the case of Tora.

— At the same time, smaller tea projects were planned and carried out in the surrounding villages—for example, Muramvya was a satellite of Téza. The first installations began to appear and the various production units became interdependent. At the same time, peasant farmers in Muramvya and Tora started to grow tea on their own land.

— Farmers volunteered to grow tea and were given free tools, young plants, fertilizer and technical assistance during the early years. They did not show the same interest when coffee growing was introduced.

But as with coffee, the plots of ground used for tea-growing were scattered over the various individual farms. This breakdown into family smallholdings was one of the basic features—and con-

straints—of the tea industry. Tea growers kept to the traditional division of the land as with coffee and other crops in spite of the fact that this was not always compatible with rationalization.

— The plants used were grown from seed and the yield per hectare was lower than in 1973-75.

1973-1975

This period began with a vast EDF--financed expansion programme, which covered 1950 ha, as follows:

— JENDA	1000 ha
— BANGA	150 ha
— RWEGURA extension	150 ha
— REMERA	500 ha

TOTAL 1950 ha

The extensions to Rwegura involved a 300 ha block and 1 650 ha split up among the local farmers.

At the same time, the EDF agreed to cover the costs of an organization to follow up, monitor and supervise the scheme, the aim being to boost Burundi's tea industry and oversee any public tea firms that had been, or were going to be, set up (article 1 of the OTB statutes).

Furthermore, in accordance with article 5 of these statutes, the tea board developed a programme for extending the tea industry and became responsible for all tea-planting projects set up by third parties. It was also empowered to carry out its own seedling production and planting programme. The OTB is responsible for all tea-growing projects, whether they were started before the board was set up or since.

The financing agreement extending tea growing and providing technical assistance to the OTB was signed on 27 May 1973. This enabled a vast development programme to get off the ground.

What were the features of this period?

- A coordinating body was set up.
- A full-scale programme was planned and carried out under the auspices of the OTB.
- All but 400 ha of the 1950 ha programme were planted.
- This programme began simultaneously at Jenda, Banga, Remera and Rwegura and the annual rate of planting went up.

The rat hunt

Rodents are known to spread some contagious diseases such as typhoid, plague and salmonella, but their ecological importance has received less attention. Rats eat or spoil 3.55 % of world food resources every year. It is thought that one quarter of India's cereal production goes to rats and 20 % of Africa's animal food production to rodents in general. At a time when hunger is a way of life for many people, the problem of rodents is becoming acute.

Rodents in Africa

There are many different species of rodent which thrive in all conditions, from the driest to the most humid. Natural phenomena (such as drought) may bring outbreaks of rodents. Harvests can be completely destroyed and human populations reduced to famine. In most cases, it is man who, by extending food crops and the large-scale cultivation of single crops, upsets the natural balance, thereby encouraging the development of certain species of rodent that are well-adapted to the new conditions.

Here are some examples of crops that have been devastated:

- Sugar cane in Mauritius and the West Indies by species from Europe, and in Senegal by African species;
- Oil palms by a small marsh rat in Ivory Coast and by a larger African species in Benin;
- Cocoa trees in the equatorial forest by various forest species;
- Tea plants on the Zaire-Nile ridge by an African species that normally lives underground;
- Rice in Ivory Coast, Burundi, Senegal etc. by local species.

In almost all cases, measures used in Europe to combat these pests have no effect further afield where they are not suited to conditions of widespread devastation nor to the ecosys-

tems involved. Specific solutions have, therefore, to be found in each case.

The EDF and the fight against rodents

At the Burundi government's request, the EDF financed two draft studies connected with the fight against rodents.

— An irrigated area of 3 000 ha on the Imbo plain has been set up, mainly to cultivate rice, maize and cotton. In 1972, rodents destroyed part of the harvest during the dry season, cutting down incomes and discouraging the farmers. The study should be completed by the end of 1976. A general anti-rodent campaign carried out in September 1975 has already borne fruit and enabled maize seedlings to be saved, thus reviving the peasant farmers' hopes of being able to grow two crops per year. The effect of this campaign on individual income and available foodstocks should be considerable.

— On the Zaire-Nile ridge, a considerable amount of damage has been done by subterranean rodents cutting through the roots of tea plants at higher altitudes. Damage is such that it jeopardizes the success of the efforts in the pasture areas to supply the peasant farmers with income and the country itself with foreign exchange.

A study of the means of fighting this animal was started in April 1973 and three main research themes have been adopted—reducing numbers of rodents, crop-protection and preventing damage. It is to be hoped that a combination of various methods will bring the rodent population down to an agriculturally tolerable level, for the greater well-being of the population in rural areas. ■

FOREIGN SALES OF TEA BY BURUNDI (in kgs and FBu)

TEZA			RWEGURA			TOTAL			Export levy FBu	Final total	
Year	kgs	FBu	Average FBu per kg	kgs	FBu	Average FBu per kg	Total kgs	Total FBu			Average FBu per kg
1969	89 861	7 535 577	83.95	—	—	—	89 861	7 535 577	83.95	358 972	—
1970	137 861	11 525 843	83.60	—	—	—	137 861	11 525 843	83.60	551 444	910 416
1971	129 224	12 810 311	99.13	16 560	1 721 689	103.97	145 784	14 532 000	99.68	583 136	1 493 552
1972	254 967	22 608 309	88.67	119 850	10 355 556	86.40	374 817	32 963 865	87.94	1 499 268	2 992 820
1973	401 374	27 983 111	67.72	172 845	13 879 409	80.30	574 219	41 862 520	72.90	2 296 876	5 289 696
1974	442 324	38 608 104	87.28	287 145	27 534 666	95.89	729 469	66 142 770	90.67	2 917 876	8 207 572

— All national and expatriate technical assistants worked under the supervision of the OTB.

Finally, the 3rd EDF financed extensions to raise the capacity of the Téza tea factory from 500 to 1500 t, and the capacity of the Rwegura factory from 500 to 1000 and 1200 t of dry tea per year. The first stage of the 600 ha Tora factory was also planned and financed from the 3rd Fund.

Overall then, the 3rd EDF provided Burundi with tea factories able to handle an annual 3100-3200 t of dry tea—as against the 1000 t provided under the 1st and 2nd Funds.

Social infrastructure and road networks were always included in the village projects. This meant that the OTB was able to put up attractive housing at Jenda, Remera and Rwegura and build, improve and maintain a comprehensive road network.

The main feature of this period was the consolidation of tea growing, which was extended to the area east of the Zaire-Nile line, from Tora to Rwegura. Most of the credit must go to the small farmers—who also reaped the greatest benefit.

Prospects under the 4th EDF

In November 1975, a Commission programming mission went out to Bujumbura to finalise the indicative programme with the Burundi government. This programme covered the tea industry, under four headings:

— As the 3rd EDF projects have considerably exceeded their budgets, because of enormous rises in the cost of fuel, vehicles, building materials, fertilizers and so on, the 4th EDF will first have to cover this deficit. The infrastructure for block tea growing projects financed from the 1st and 2nd Funds

was inadequate, and the 4th EDF will also therefore have to make up for these deficiencies.

— Factories will have to be built on the plantations started since 1973 with aid from the 3rd Fund. The Jenda plantation will cover 1000 ha and a 600 t tea factory—which should be ready in 1980/81—will be provided during phase I. The Remera plantation will cover 500 ha and have a factory also due to start operating in 1980/81 and initially able to handle an annual 400 t of tea.

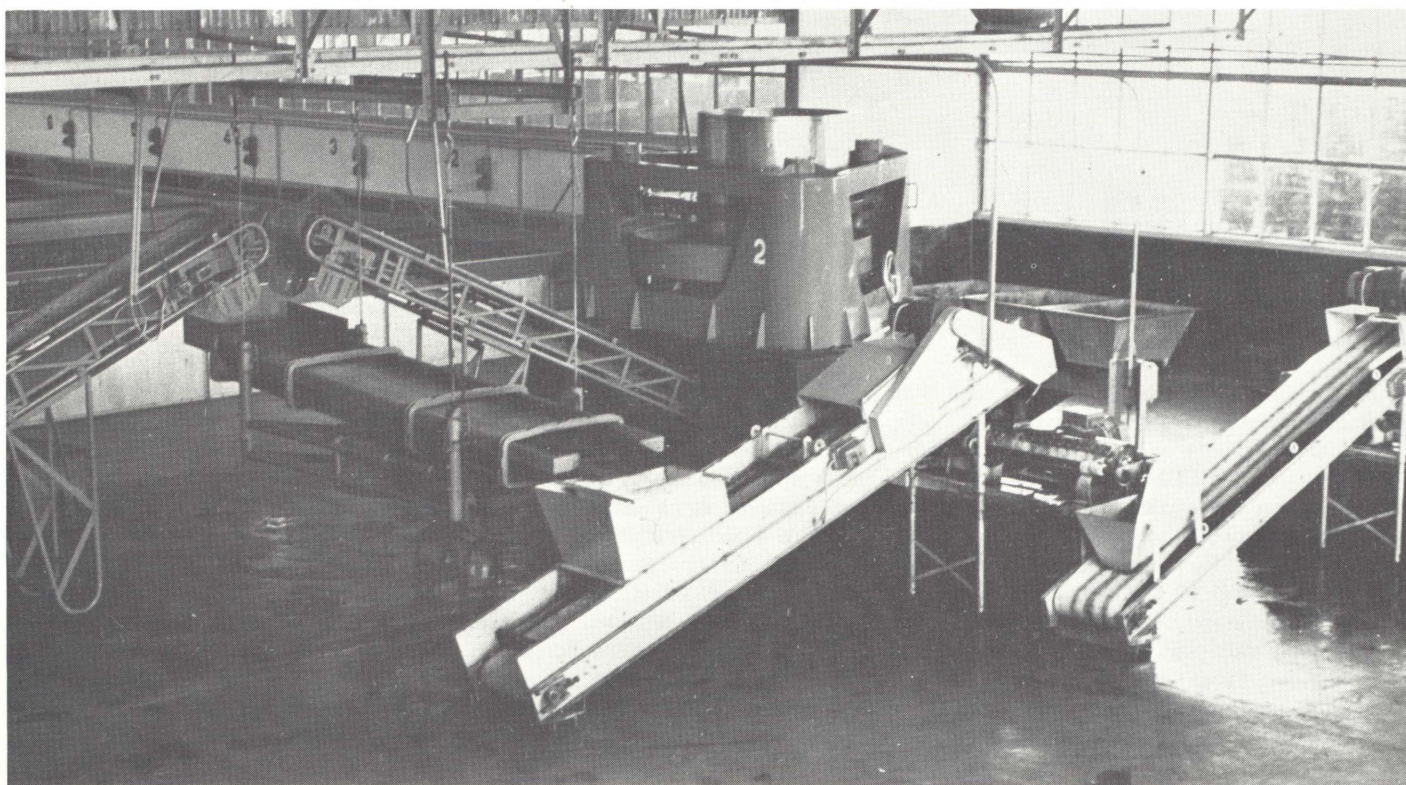
The Tora plantation covers 580 ha at the moment and the factory produces

500 t of dry tea per year. However, since it also has to deal with fresh leaves from Gisozi, the 4th Fund will be doubling its capacity. This work should be completed in 1978/79. The 4th EDF will therefore have provided Burundi with an additional capacity of 1600 t of dry tea per year, thereby bringing capacity up to 3100-4700 t per year overall.

— **Further extensions to tea growing.** There is little chance of extending the areas already under cultivation and this is why Burundi will now be planting 1000 ha in the Burhor-Mabayi region in the north-west. This is a landlocked area within a landlocked country and there-

Workers are increasingly being accommodated on the plantations in Burundi





Téza tea factory

fore very remote. Our aim is to break down isolation and open the area to trade.

— Tea projects being supervised and carried out by the OTB now stretch from Tora to Rwegura. The government feels that better use could be made of the infrastructure provided by the first three EDFs if other agricultural projects were set up alongside. The Commission programming mission to Burundi on 9-13 November 1975 agreed with this. The OTB would then be in a position to undertake, with and on behalf of the peasant grower, a comprehensive programme of tea growing, stock farming and agricultural production in general.

EDF investments in the tea industry and results obtained

The EDF has provided grants for agriculture in general and tea growing in particular.

Under the 1st EDF, 2 483 000 u.a. were provided for agriculture and the full amount went to tea growing. The 2nd EDF provided 9 863 000 u.a. of

which 2 943 000 (29.8%) went to tea growing. Under the 3rd Fund, 17 000 000 u.a. was provided for agriculture and 15 993 000 (94.07%) went to tea growing.

I calculate that the first three EDFs provided 51 460 000 u.a. overall, of which 21 419 000 u.a. (41.62%) went to the tea industry.

And what are the results of all this? I should point out that tea is not a seasonal crop—the first harvest comes three years after planting and there is another every 10-12 days. Tea growing could well be the subject of a major study and a variety of lectures, but let us confine ourselves to essentials.

The tea industry's most vital contribution is to provide income through wages. No private organisation or firm provides as many pay packets.

Burundi has a major employment problem. Young people want paid employment, since subsistence farming can no longer provide an adequate living and hard cash is needed for taxes, dowries, clothing, housing and so on. The OTB is attempting to meet these demands as best it can by creating a large number

of jobs. The disorientation involved in the move to the towns gives rise to many problems the world over and Bujumbura is particularly hard-hit. There is juvenile delinquency, family ties are breaking down, there is a general feeling of being rootless, and crime and banditry are rife. However, the tea projects have made a significant contribution to stabilising the rural population.

It is no exaggeration to say that the tea projects created between 5 500-6 000 jobs in Burundi in 1975. This contribution to reducing unemployment should increase as the OTB steps up its activities. The creation of jobs and the stabilisation of the rural population are two outstanding features of EDF aid to Burundi. The tea industry creates more jobs in the country than any private firm.

The tea industry's second important contribution to our country's development is to provide foreign currency—as the table on page 73 makes clear.

The introduction of tea growing in Burundi was a great event. We feel it will be an integral part of our country's green revolution. ■ Z.N.

Poetry of the Black World

The poems below are by two of the greatest poets of the black world, Léopold S. Senghor and Aimé Césaire. Our translation from the French is literal rather than literary.

La Femme Noire

Femme nue, femme noire
Vêtue de ta couleur qui est vie, de ta forme qui est beauté!
J'ai grandi à ton ombre; la douceur de tes mains bandait mes yeux.
Et voilà qu'au cœur de l'Été et de Midi, je te découvre, Terre promise, du haut d'un haut col calciné
Et ta beauté me foudroie en plein cœur, comme l'éclair d'un aigle.

Femme nue, femme obscure
Fruit mûr à la chair ferme, sombres extases du vin noir, bouche qui fais lyrique ma bouche
Savane aux horizons purs, savane qui frémit aux caresses ferventes du Vent d'Est
Tamtam sculpté, tamtam tendu qui gronde sous les doigts du vainqueur
Ta voix grave de contralto est le chant spirituel de l'Aimée.

Femme nue, femme obscure
Huile que ne ride nul souffle, huile calme aux flancs de l'athlète, aux flancs des princes du Mali
Gazelle aux attaches célestes, les perles sont étoiles sur la nuit de ta peau
Délices des jeux de l'esprit, les reflets de l'or rouge sur ta peau qui se moire
A l'ombre de ta chevelure, s'éclaire mon angoisse aux soleils prochains de tes yeux.

Femme nue, femme noire
Je chante ta beauté qui passe, forme que je fixe dans l'Éternel
Avant que le Destin jaloux ne te réduise en cendres pour nourrir les racines de la vie.

Léopold Sedar Senghor

The Black Woman

Nude woman, black woman. Clad in your colour which is life, in your form which is beauty! I grew up in your shadow; the gentleness of your hands bandaged my eyes. And now in the heart of Summer and the South, from the summit of a high rocky pass, Promised Land I have found you. And your beauty sears my heart like the flash of an eagle's eye.

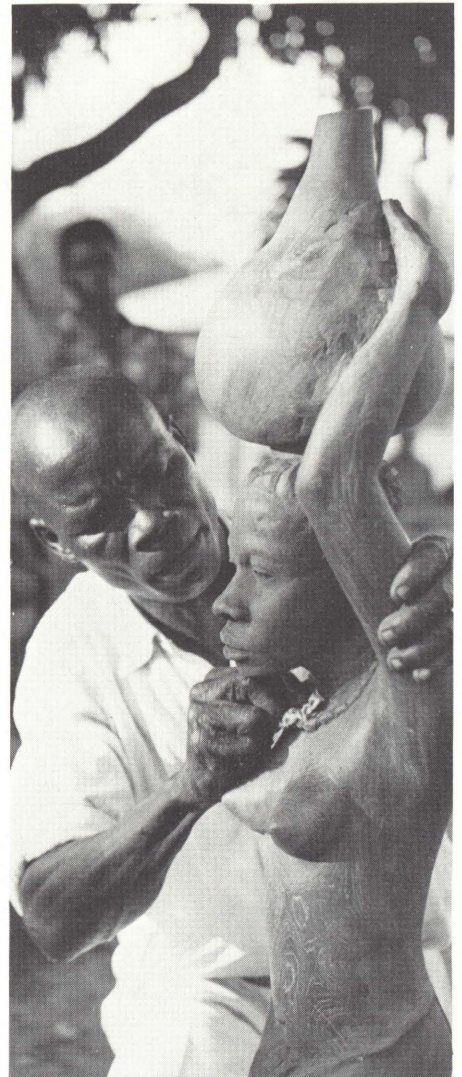
Nude woman, shadowed woman. Firm-fleshed ripe fruit, dark ecstasy of black wine, mouth making lyrical my mouth. Savannah of clear horizons, savannah shivering under the fervent caress of the East Wind. Carved drum, stretched drum low sounding under the victor's fingers. Your grave contralto voice is the spiritual song of the Loved One.

Nude woman, shadowed woman. Oil no breath can wrinkle, smooth oil of an athlete's flanks, the flanks of the princes of Mali. Gazelle with celestial trappings, pearls are as stars on the night of your skin. The red gold glints in wanton pleasure on the watered silk of your skin. In the shadow of your hair, my anguish is lit by the close suns of your eyes.

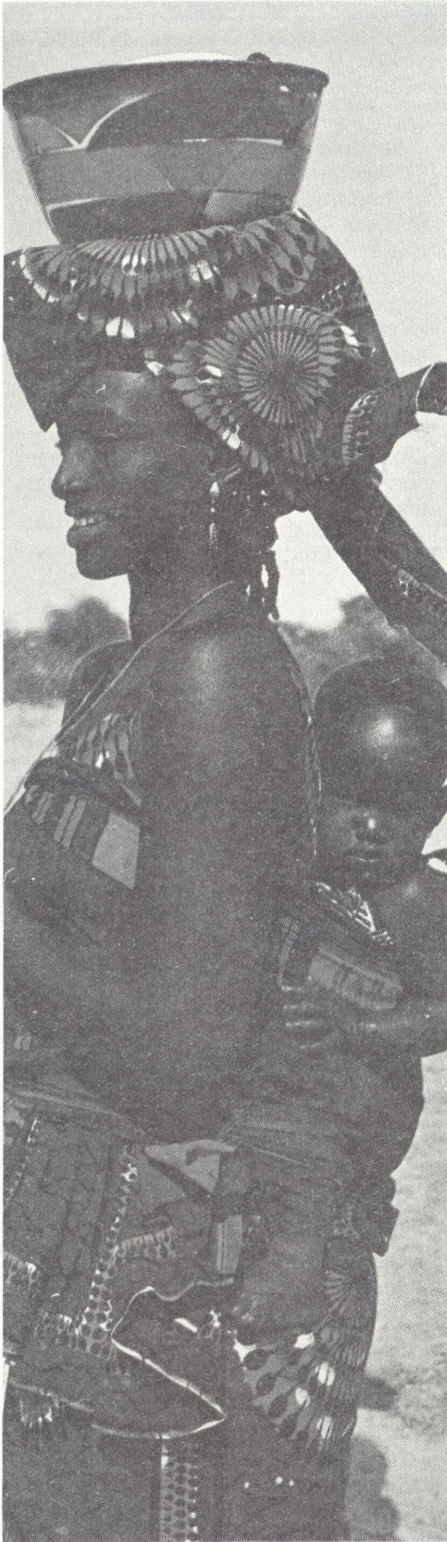
Nude woman, black woman. I sing of your beauty which will pass, I fix your form in the Eternal before jealous Destiny reduces you to ashes to nourish the roots of life.

Léopold Sedar Senghor and Aimé Césaire are two of the leading poets of negritude, the literary movement that aims to defend and uphold the characteristics of black consciousness in order to raise black culture from its neglected and undervalued state to a level equal to the rest of world culture.

Both men are also eminent politicians: Léopold Senghor is President of the Republic of Senegal and Aimé Césaire is a member of parliament and mayor of Fort-de-France in Martinique.



The poet and the sculptor pay homage to the black woman



Young mother in Cameroon

Prière virile du poète

Et voici au bout de ce petit matin ma prière virile
que je n'entende ni les rires ni les cris, les yeux fixés sur cette ville que je prophétise,
belle,

donnez-moi la foi sauvage du sorcier
donnez à mes mains puissance de modeler
donnez à mon âme la trempe de l'épée
je ne me dérobo point. Faites de ma tête une tête de proue

et de moi-même, mon cœur, ne faites ni un père, ni un frère,
ni un fils, mais le père, mais le frère, mais le fils,
ni un mari, mais l'amant de cet unique peuple.

Faites-mois rebelle à toute vanité, mais docile à son génie
comme le poing à l'allongée du bras!

Faites-moi commissaire de son sang
faites-moi dépositaire de son ressentiment
faites de moi un homme de terminaison
faites de moi un homme d'initiation
faites de moi un homme de recueillement
mais faites aussi de moi un homme d'ensemencement

faites de moi l'exécuteur de ces œuvres hautes
voici le temps de se ceindre les reins comme un vaillant homme —

Mais les faisant, mon cœur, préservez-moi de toute haine
ne faites point de moi cet homme de haine pour qui je n'ai que haine
car pour me cantonner en cette unique race
vous savez pourtant mon amour tyrannique
vous savez que ce n'est point par haine des autres races

que je m'exige bêcheur de cette unique race
que ce que je veux
c'est pour la faim universelle
pour la soif universelle

la sommer libre enfin
de produire de son intimité close
la succulence des fruits.

Aimé Césaire

The poet wishes for virility

And in the small hours, this is my prayer for virility: may I not hear the laughter
nor the cries, for my eyes are turned to this town which I prophesy shall be beautiful
give me the wild faith of the witch; give my hands the power to shape; give my
soul the temper of the sword; I shun nothing. Make my head a figurehead

and of myself, my heart, make me neither a father, nor a brother, nor a son, but
the father, the brother, the son; not a husband, but the lover of this unique people.

Make me a rebel against all vanity, but gentle before their particular character; like
the fist at arm's length!

Make me the commissioner of their blood, make me the guardian of their resent-
ment, make me a man of endings, make me a man of beginnings, make me a man
who can harvest, make me a man who can sow; make me the executor of these
noble tasks, for it is time to gird up the loins like a valiant man —

But in doing this, my heart, keep me from all hatred; do not make of me this man
of hatred for whom I have nothing but hatred. For you have billeted me amid this
unique race and you know my tyrannical love; you know that it is not for hate of
other races

that I must be the gardener of this unique race, that what I want is for universal
hunger, for universal thirst,

to summon it free at last; to produce from its closed intimacy the succulence of
fruits.

An African art exhibition in Belgium



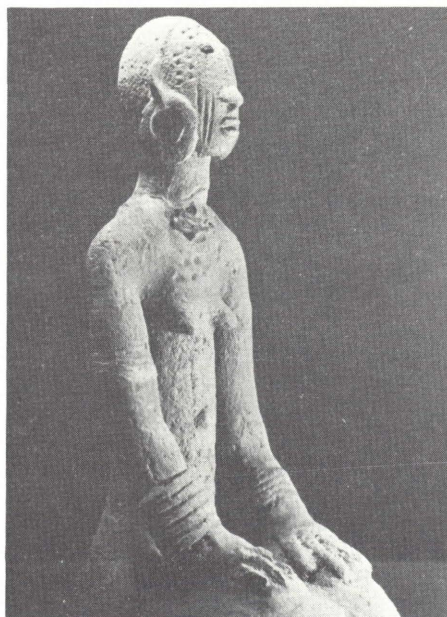
Pictures at an exhibition...

An African art exhibition ran from 4 July to 5 September in an unusual setting—in the Galeries du Grand-Hornu, converted from the vast workshops and warehouses of an old colliery, near Mons in Belgium. The aim was to reveal the roots of black African art. More than 40 000 people from a number of countries visited the exhibition, drawn by the 15 000 posters distributed by the Belgian Tourist Office.

The gallery is an independent one, specializing in modern art, and usually exhibits contemporary work. However, since the discovery of the masks and statues of Africa by European artists in the 1900s made Western art somewhat less conservative and routine, it was natural for the gallery to go back to the origins of this artistic influence and put on this exhibition of negro art. The event was organised by collector Simon du Chastel, who obtained the exhibits on loan from a number of private collections and had no difficulty in persuading the gallery to agree to housing them.

The number of visitors is not the deciding factor in assessing the quality and level of an exhibition of this kind. Nor is the number of works of art on show—in

this case more than 400 exhibits from almost every country in Africa. However, both do prove that there is contact at frequent intervals between civilisations which are both in turn reviewing and re-



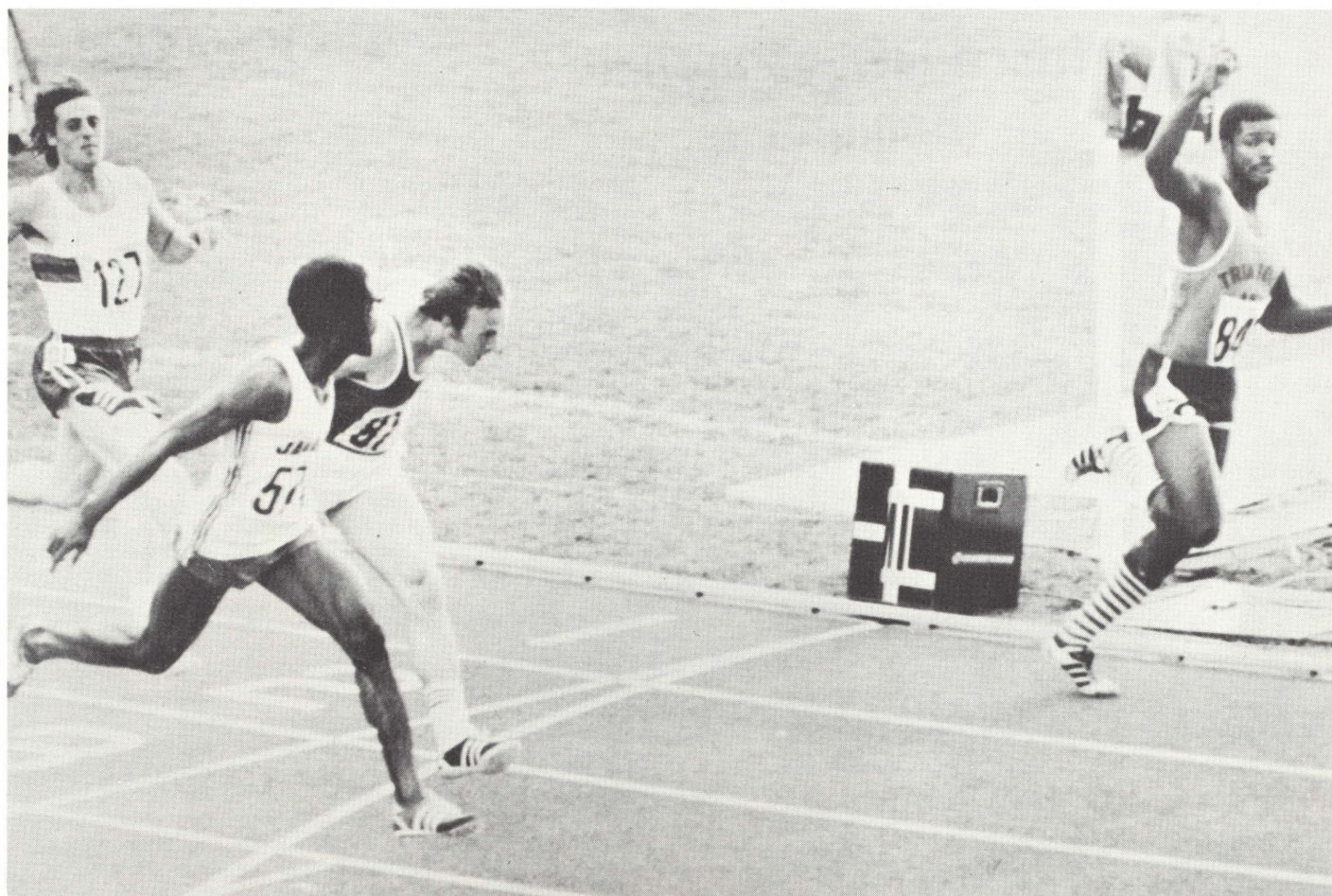
vising their own artistic criteria or seeking to rediscover their own traditional values.

The visitors, who went for a variety of reasons, often had widely differing opinions about the exhibition—not as regards its quality, but about the reasons behind it. The visitors' book is proof of their interest. A visitor from Mauritania said, for example, that she, as an African, had been delighted to see examples of African art "in a wonderful setting" and felt that all men were "united by art and by universal and everlasting values". The entry by a visitor from New York said simply, "I am full of admiration". This is followed by a sarcastic "bravo for the systematic pillage of Africa" and, two lines further on, praise for saving so many works of art that would otherwise have been condemned to oblivion.

Simon du Chastel is enthusiastic about Africa, where he has travelled widely. This is his 30th exhibition about the continent. The Hornu exhibition had eleven main themes—masks, statues, animals, cups and boxes, stools, drums, village scenes, magic, foreign cultural influence, terracottas and metal objects. It is worth mentioning that modern objects as well as older works of art were on show. The value of African art is more a question of evocative power than of age—which is far too often seen as a positive artistic virtue in Europe.

Although the origin of many objects is not always known, their authenticity speaks for itself. However, as du Chastel says, we should by no means always classify them as art proper. They have or can have non-aesthetic beauty which has nothing to do with the traditions of European and American art. African sculptors do not create art as we understand it, as du Chastel explains in the catalogue. Most of the pieces were made to fulfil a specific function in a given African civilisation and may seem meaningless out of context.

This meeting of civilisations may well lead us to revise our own ideas—the white man will often put forward his own conception of truth without seeking to find what truth means to others. The search for truth in contemporary American art is very much rooted in African civilisation. The diversity of African inventiveness, the desire in industrialised societies to return to a natural setting, and a certain nostalgia for ancient civilisations and sciences, all contributed to attracting so many visitors to the exhibition. ■ R.D.B.



Hasely Crawford (Trinidad and Tobago) and Donald Quarrie (Jamaica) respectively won the 100 m and the 200 m in Montreal, beating Valery Borzov of the USSR (r. to l.: Crawford, Borzov, Quarrie)

After Montreal, will Moscow mark the end of the Olympic Games as we have known them?

The Olympic Games, held in Montreal from 17-31 July 1976, are over. The lights have gone out and the points have been counted but there are still conclusions—of both a sporting and a political nature—to be drawn from these, the

22nd Olympic Games. Once again China, with its billion inhabitants, was missing, as, this time, were Africa and a number of other countries of the Middle East and the Caribbean (See "Courier", no. 39).

As far as results were concerned, the United States slipped badly, the USSR maintained its position and East Germany made great strides forward. There were revelations from some of the sparsely populated countries, particularly the ACP group (Trinidad and Tobago and Jamaica), from some individuals like young Nadia Comaneci, the Polish gymnast, and the fantastic Alberto Juantorena from Cuba, the first athlete ever to win the 400 m and the 800 m at the same Games.

Jamaica's Donald Quarrie won the 200 m and Hasely Crawford from Trinidad and Tobago won a gold medal in the 100 m. These were the biggest surprises. Quarrie and Crawford are the

first sprinters to break the domination of the black Americans in these events—although the Jamaican's victory was not entirely unexpected since he is co-holder of the world 200 m record.

Contrary to what was said in the heat of the moment, the absence of the African sportsmen was a considerable loss as far as the balance of the Games was concerned. As Robert Parienté, a journalist scarcely noted for being pro-African, has said, the absence of African altered the Games more than one might think. It made them less universal, which we cannot but regret. It also made all the events from the 1500 m to the marathon far less interesting. Bayi would surely have beaten Walker in the 1500 m. And in the 10 000 m, the 3000 m steeplechase and the marathon, the Ethiopians and the Kenyans in particular—as we saw at two pre-Olympic meetings—would have achieved things that Europeans could probably not even have dreamed of.

It is worth noting that the Tanzanian Filbert Bayi's world 1500 m record was not beaten in Montreal and that, at a post-Olympic meeting in Berlin, the Kenyan Mike Boit comfortably got to within 7/100ths of the world 800 m record.

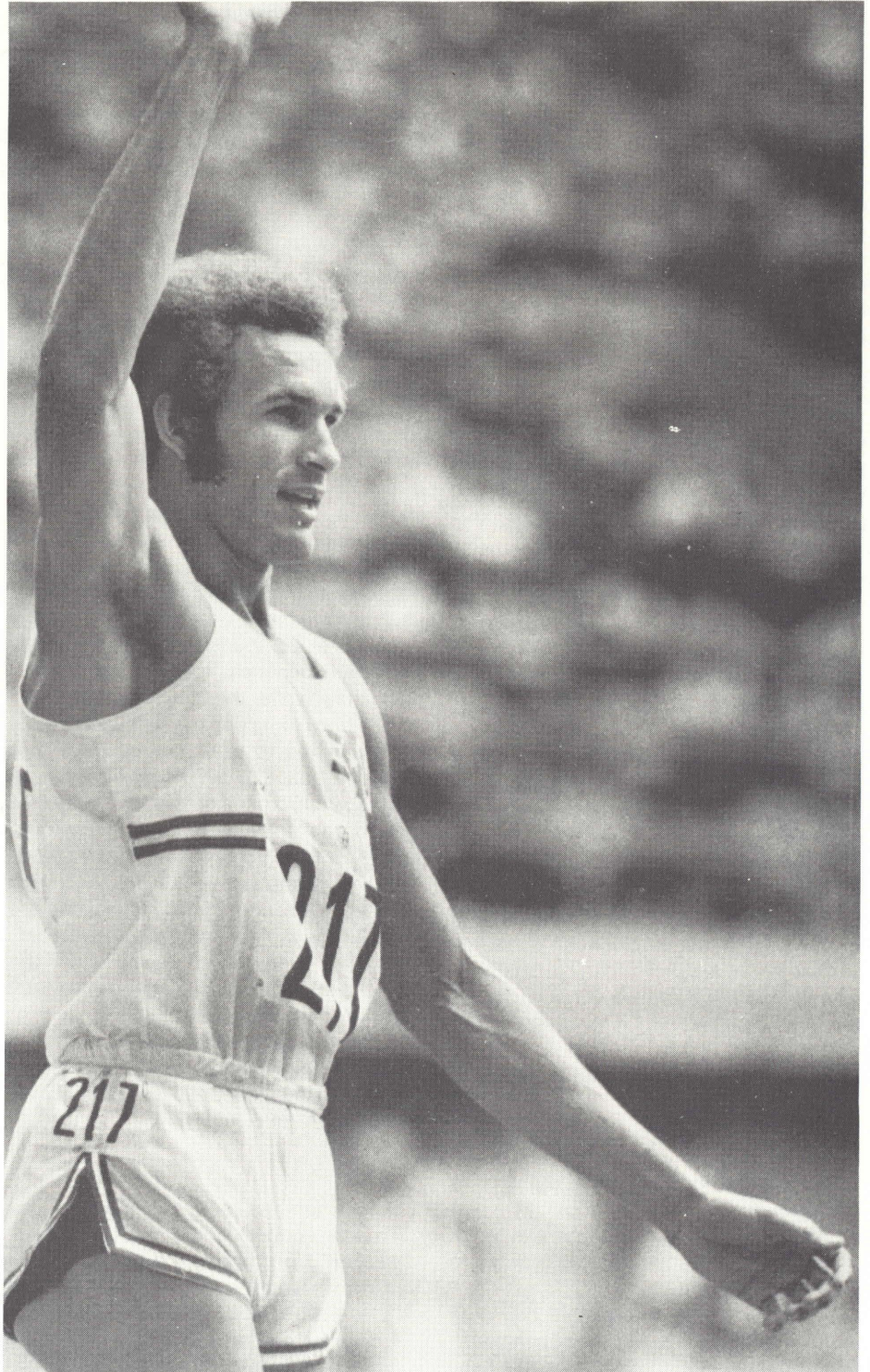
Despite the fact that Africa was not represented at Montreal, the African athletes lost none of their status, although, as Parienté said, their absence considerably affected the technical quality of the sumptuous spectacle we were expecting. This was unfortunate as far as the Games were concerned—but what alternative was there?

This brings us to the two political lessons to be learned from Montreal since we must admit that the Olympic Games are a political event, or at least that they have political connotations. For one, the vast nature of the Olympic Games means that only rich countries can play host to them. Then there is the playing of the national anthem and the unfurling of the flag of the country of the winner. Finally—and perhaps this is the most important aspect—there is the South African question. First Munich, then Montreal. Hopefully we have seen the last of this politico-sporting drama. But if this is to be the case, then it must be made clear that Africa feels that it is no longer possible to ignore human dignity.

The Games are a gigantic undertaking

and Moscow will probably try to outstrip the previous host countries. However, after 1980, perhaps we will see

the end of the present conception of the Olympic Games, which should be and is under fire. Let's hope so. ■ L.P.



Alberto Juantorena of Cuba: a tremendous double gold in the 400 m and the 800 m

BOOKS

John D. ESSEKS et al. — **"Afrique de l'indépendance politique à l'indépendance économique"** (Africa—from political independence to economic independence). — Presses universitaires de Grenoble, 1975 — François Maspero, 275 pages, FF 55.

Once political independence had been won, young African states were obviously faced with a fundamental choice as to what to do about their economic dependence. There were two distinct options—either agree to continue with relations as they were before, thereby confirming their traditional economic dependence, or attempt to rectify the situation and do away with it.

However, although it was clear what the two basic choices were, the initial situation and the options available varied widely from country to country. These initial differences and the variety of approaches adopted to them are the subject of a number of comparative studies and criteria, and parameters have been defined so that similarities and differences can be identified. To these common denominators of economic dependence and those problems facing all the states, specific criteria for each individual country had to be added.

Gérard de Bernis sums up the case of Algeria, which is in virtually full control of the principal sectors of the economy and reaping the proper benefits of its own oil industry.

Pierre Judet suggests that Tunisia, in spite of being a small country with limited natural resources, has nevertheless persevered with a planned economy backed up by a policy of training its own management staff. However, its success here has only enabled it to diversify the countries on which it depends and not to bring about total economic independence.

John D. Esseks then analyzes Ghana. This country is largely dependent on cocoa exports and these are unstable because of the fluctuations of the world market. The Ghana-ization of the work force does not appear to guarantee a successfully economy.

Crispin Kamau suggests that the large number of colonials working in agriculture in Kenya is the reason for the Ken-

ya-ization policy whose fruits may boost inter-African competition.

Jean-Louis Lacroix thinks that Zaire was able to become economically independent because the government took over the mines. Once the Zairization programme was complete, there was still the problem of finding a system of economic development that would be of benefit to the population as a whole and overcome social contradictions, rather than simply serve the national bourgeoisie.

Socialism in Mali suffers, Jan Desseau says, from too much red tape and too few resources.

The Ivory Coast, which is financially linked to France and the other ex-French colonies of Africa, agreed to foreigners participating in its economy and this led to its present prosperity. However, Georges Lawson's analysis poses the question—putting aside the confusion between independence and prosperity—to whom does this prosperity actually belong and what policy will need to be adopted in the future, particularly as far as immigration is concerned?

The final comparison of these various national experiences leads to the conclusion that while the key resources still come from outside, the African economies are free to use them in ways that are appropriate to the African continent.

This work contains a large number of clear, informative tables and the writing is straightforward and concise. The analyses are rigorous, we are provided with comparative and specific data and the conclusions are objective. Regular updating—plus, perhaps, extension of the work to other countries—would be very much appreciated, particularly in view of the large number of world conferences that have been held recently to discuss the increased economic dependence of the Third World.

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L'accroissement de la population et l'avenir économique de l'Afrique (Population growth and the economic future of Africa) — a collection edited by S.H. OMINDE and C.N. EJIUGU. — Population Council, New York — French edition (1974) — G. Harcourt,

15 rue Mesnil, 75116 Paris, France — 768 pages.

A seminar on demographic growth and economic development was held at the University of Nairobi (Kenya) from 14 to 22 December 1969. Specialists from various university and research establishments from both French and English-speaking countries of Africa discussed the crucial interrelations between population growth and socio-economic planning. The aim was to discuss trends in methodology and to look at the results of previous research. This collection, edited by S.H. Ominde and C.N. Ejiogu (English edition, 1972) includes most of the papers read at the seminar.

The demographic factor is particularly important in Africa. Available data suggest that it has the highest birth rate of any of the major regions of the world and the death rate, although high too, is falling steadily. It is obvious that any sort of socio-economic development planning will have to take account of population size. Africa has all the advantages of youth, although young people are usually dependent on the working population. The young states of Africa have to reckon with the considerable effects of the high rate of population growth, which, so far, is the second highest in the world after that of Latin America but seems likely to catch up with or even overtake it. It should be stressed that, all too often, the tendency is to think in terms of a "one way" effect, ignoring the reverse side of the coin, i.e. the effect of economic change on the population.

In this work, a team of specialists attempts not only to analyze the importance of demographic considerations as far as development programmes are concerned, but also to look at the influence of economic policies on the population. The collection is in nine parts, in which different specialists present their studies of the relations between the demographic and economic factors of development in the light of the conditions in each of the countries covered. The demographic data on the countries of Africa includes the level and trends in the birth rate, urbanization and migration, the effect of rapid population

growth on social planning, the use of demographic data in development planning, the importance of a national family programme and a population policy.

This selection of papers from the Nairobi seminar—a major event as far as African demography is concerned—is a valuable source of information and particularly useful to anyone interested in the complex problems of demographic trends in Africa and its interaction with the general socio-economic development of the continent.

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Hildebert ISNARD. — "Géographie de l'Afrique tropicale et australe" (Geography of tropical and southern Africa).—3rd revised edition No 1139—in the *Que sais-je?* series, Presses Universitaires de France, Paris, 1974, 125 pages.

The work is in three main parts—geography (relief, climate, water and vegetation), people (population, traditional ways of life, modern economy) and the major areas of the country. The author, who teaches at the University of Nice, gives a precise, concise sketch of Africa.

He describes a homogeneous Africa, united because all its countries have the same tropical background and the same black people so close to their origins. The geographical features bring only variations within this vast continent, dominated by its climate. Africans must base the development of their economy on their natural milieu, in the light of its special values.

African states can collaborate with each other and overcome the difficulties created by the lack of geographical or human coherence at national level that is so often the heritage of the colonial period.

This, the third edition, has been brought up to date and will be a valuable contribution to our basic knowledge of Africa.

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Problems of higher education and development in Central Africa — (a collec-

tion of papers in honour of Guy MAL-ENGREAU). — Catholic University of Louvain. Work group on international relations. Paris, Librairie Générale de droit et de jurisprudence, 1975, 227 pages.

This collection of a dozen papers includes three essays on economic subjects.

The first is by M. Norro and refers to the experience of the Institute of Economic and Social Research at the University of Louvain and explains the problems facing educational and economic research in Zaire in the gradual attempt to reconcile the reality of Africa today with the need to maintain the standards of the university.

The second, by R. Yakemtchouk, takes a critical look at the three successive association agreements that began by linking the Six to a number of African countries and led to the present Lomé Convention between the enlarged Community and almost the whole of black Africa.

Lastly, F. Bézy, a well-known expert on the economy of development, discusses current changes in international economic relations between developing and industrialized countries—changes which are leading to different trade relations, a certain redeployment of world industry and the greater involvement of developing countries in the process of industrial production.

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1974 Yearbook of companies and principal importers/exporters in Senegal.

— 2nd Dakar International Fair, 3-12 December 1976 — CFAF 2000.

This yearbook of importers and exporters in Senegal is much the same as the previous edition. One or two figures and tables have been altered in the light of readers' comments and to keep in line with the flourishing development of the national economy over the last two years.

The new economic policy is marked by a desire to progress by introducing structures and programmes that are properly adapted to both the national situation and the world economic situation by means of long-term projects, so as to promote the economic take-off that will pave the way to an industrial society.

Senegal's economy is outward-looking. Its geographical position makes it a crossroads for air and sea routes that is open to the outside world. The visitor from abroad sees Senegal as a lively symbiosis of all that is African and universal. The Dakar International Fair—one of the biggest trade events in black Africa—the vast development projects (free industrial zone, Dakar Marine, etc.) and its readiness to integrate with regional economic bodies, such as CEAO, CDEAO, the EEC and the ACP, are a part of this outward-looking policy.

The yearbook contains some essential data on the Senegalese economy—a summary analysis, trends, outlook, commercial and customs legislation, the conditions for setting up industries and the investment code.

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