



the courier

AFRICA-CARIBBEAN-PACIFIC — EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

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**HEALTH CARE IN THE
ACP STATES**

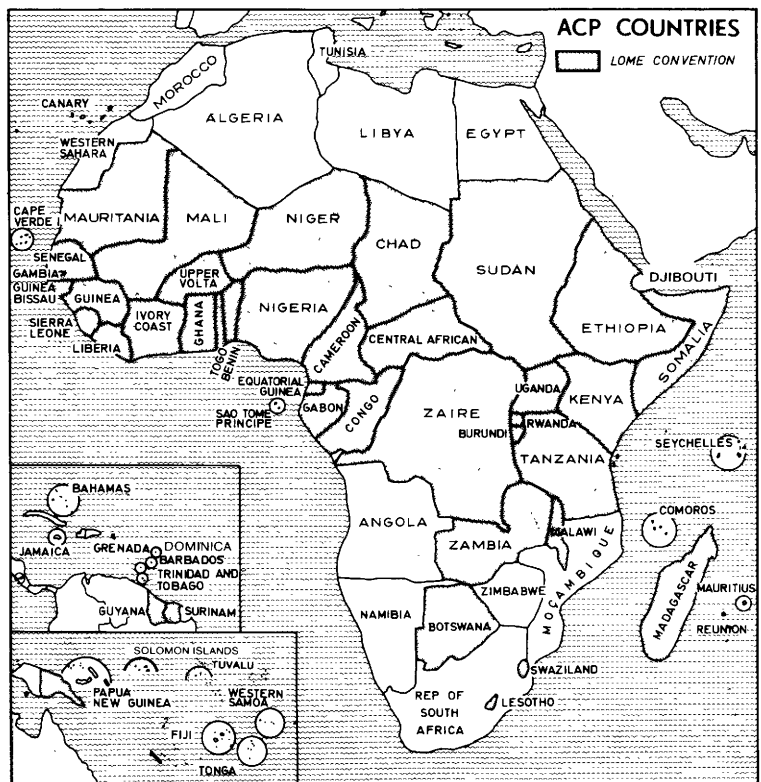
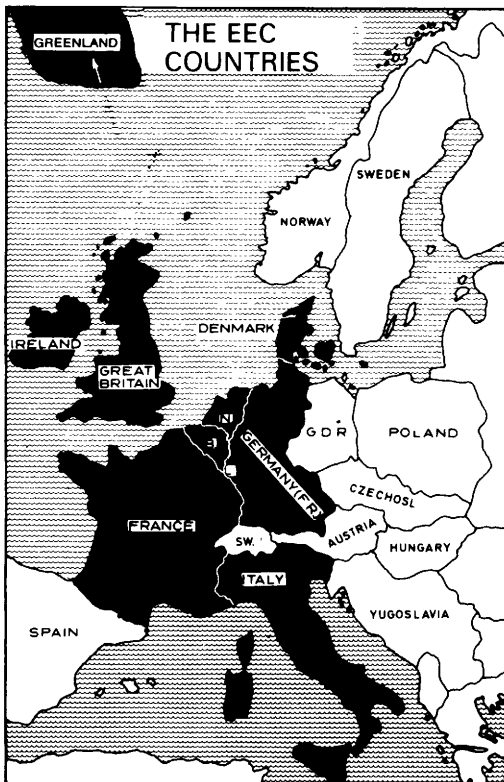
Season's greetings

THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

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

THE ACP STATES

BAHAMAS	GHANA	SOLOMON ISLANDS
BARBADOS	GRENADA	SÃO TOME PRINCE
BENIN	GUINEA	SENEGAL
BOTSWANA	GUINEA-BISSAU	SEYCHELLES
BURUNDI	GUYANA	SIERRA LEONE
CAMEROON	IVORY COAST	SOMALIA
CAPE VERDE	JAMAICA	SUDAN
CENTRAL AFRICAN EMP.	KENYA	SURINAME
CHAD	LESOTHO	SWAZILAND
COMOROS	LIBERIA	TANZANIA
CONGO	MADAGASCAR	TOGO
DJIBOUTI	MALAWI	TONGA
DOMINICA	MALI	TRINIDAD and TOBAGO
EQUATORIAL GUINEA	MAURITANIA	TUVALU
ETHIOPIA	MAURITIUS	UGANDA
FIJI	NIGER	UPPER VOLTA
GABON	NIGERIA	WESTERN SAMOA
GAMBIA	PAPUA-NEW GUINEA	ZAIRE
	RWANDA	ZAMBIA



ACP-EEC Council of Ministers — The initial Council meeting to open the official negotiations between the ACP countries and the nine members of the EEC on a new convention was held on 23 July 1978 and covered in *Courier* No 51. The actual negotiations began on 18 November and at the end of November the Consultative Assembly, meeting in Luxembourg, held a wide-ranging exchange of views between representatives from both groups. The ministerial meeting of 21 December marked yet another stage in the process of the negotiations on a new agreement. **Yellow pages I to IV.**



THE COURIER

AFRICA - CARIBBEAN - PACIFIC
— EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

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DEVELOPING WORLD

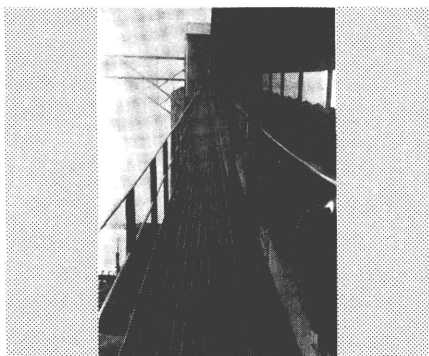
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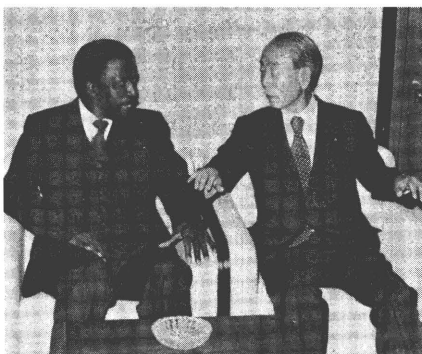
NEWS ROUND-UP (yellow pages)

- I. ACP-EEC ministerial meeting
- VI. Presidents Arap Moi of Kenya and Jawara of the Gambia visit Brussels
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Liberia — This summer the OAU summit will be held in Liberia, an ACP country with a history unlike that of any other Lomé signatory. Since the founding of Monrovia by settlers freed from the plantations across the Atlantic, Liberia's constitution has been based on the American model, and for the last half-century its economy has been based on foreign rubber and iron interests. Now the world steel recession has made domestic agricultural development a priority. **Inside Liberia: Page 9**

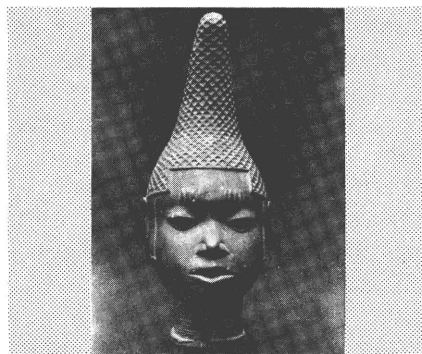
Swaziland — Although it has a common border with Mozambique, Swaziland is practically an enclave in South Africa. But one of the advantages of the Lomé Convention, as Swazi Premier Maphevu Dlamini explained to the *Courier*, is that it has allowed the country to escape the political isolation created by apartheid, a policy which his government opposes. As for other forms of cooperation, the Swazi Prime Minister believes that although the financial aspects are far from negligible, commercial cooperation, and in particular the sugar protocol which greatly benefits Swaziland, are much more important. **Page 19.**



Dossier — Health care has for some time been mainly concerned with therapy. Most of the investment and development programmes in developing countries have concentrated on the curative side of health care. Yet it is a surprising fact that disease and sickness have become more evident in the Third World, despite the advances of medical science. The result has been a new approach—primary health care—based on simple hygiene, prevention, decentralization and simple technology. The *Courier's* dossier this time looks at health in the developing countries in the light of the UN conference at Alma Ata on primary health care. **Page 32**



Arts — African art is steadily regaining its place internationally and the African continent is becoming as much known for its artistic heritage as for its economic resources. Both Nigeria and Niger, for example, now have important museum collections. The ancient kingdom of Benin (Nigeria) was one of the more important cradles of African civilization for many hundreds of years. Examples of Benin's art are to be found in the museums of London, Paris, New York and Bremen. Nigeria is trying to re-assemble its artistic past and the national museum in Benin City already has an important collection. **Page 76.**



Towards a revolution in health care

For most developing countries, the principal health problems are difficult to cope with. First, there is a lack of large-scale preventive medicine. Chronic diseases, which exhaust the sufferer and are expensive to treat, are common. Settlements in these countries, where most people live in the brush, are widely scattered, making diagnosis and treatment difficult and control by rural health services inadequate, particularly when money from limited health budgets is more easily allocated to hospitals, where it can more spectacularly be seen to effect.

There has been a tendency for external aid to be used to build and equip hospitals and clinics. Most doctors and other health staff in many a developing country work in the capital, for historical reasons predating independence, because they earn more, because the capital can offer the technical back-up to allow them to work most effectively, or perhaps just because life is easier there. Some of the students who go to Europe or North America to study medicine decide to stay there, often for similar reasons. And some doctors leave their countries after they have qualified (the leading exporters of doctors are India, Bangladesh, Pakistan and the Philippines, and the leading importers the USA, the UK, Canada, Germany and Australia).

°°

In spite of remarkable progress in tropical medicine over the last 30 years, these

difficulties have not been overcome. Not only is the health situation in the Third World no better than it was at the beginning of this period, but the commonest diseases (apart from smallpox and, to a certain extent, sleeping sickness) have still not regressed. Some are even gaining ground regularly, such as malaria, or bilharzia which, we now know, has been spread by irrigation and artificial lakes. The figures are overwhelming. The industrialized countries have one doctor for nearly 1 000 inhabitants. Bangladesh has one for 15 000, Niger one for 55 000 and Ethiopia one for 70 000 and the WHO (World Health Organization) and UNICEF (the UN children's fund) have calculated that 3 200 million of the world's 4 000 million people have no access to any basic health care whatsoever.

This alarming picture has led to ideas about health in the Third World gradually being revised over the last few years and a new doctrine, widely expressed at the WHO/UNICEF conference in Alma-Ata (USSR), has now emerged.

WHO director-general Dr Halfdan Mahler (introduced in a previous issue of the *Courier*), told representatives of 140 nations and many non-governmental organizations at the conference that it had to be admitted that expensive, Western-style health systems were ill-suited to the practical conditions of underdevelopment and had been a failure in the Third World. Emphasis

had to be laid on the urgent need to replace these systems with "primary health care" geared to preventing the major diseases of underdevelopment, with a more energetic campaign against hunger and malnutrition, with better hygiene and basic care and even with certain traditional remedies. What was wanted, broadly speaking, was clean water rather than antibiotics, village nurses rather than urban hospitals and, in some cases, local herbs rather than expensive imported medicines.

°°

WHO leaders do not try to hide the fact that this new approach owes a lot to the Chinese "barefoot doctor" formula. But some of those responsible for health policy in the Third World will clearly refuse what is already being called "cut-price medicine". The big pharmaceutical firms are naturally monitoring these trends closely and the subject will be discussed in Washington in January when the National Academy of Sciences holds a special conference on the position and potential of pharmaceutical firms in the Third World. Let us hope that political rivalries and differing opinions and interests do not contrive to mask the essential task—which is to take what is best from each system and adapt it to each individual case to raise health standards in the Third World. □

ALAIN LACROIX

The Irish industrialists: from investigation to investment

Becoming a producer and exporter of industrial products is an essential part of economic progress and the industrialization of the ACP countries is one of the key elements of EEC-ACP cooperation.

In this article, the heads of the Confederation of Irish Industry, DEVCO (the organization of semi-state agencies for development cooperation), consultancies in the ACP countries and Jefferson Smurfit Ltd, one of the rare multinationals of Irish origin with stakes in an ACP country, give their views on industrial cooperation with the ACP countries, bearing in mind the particular characteristics of the Irish economy.

Growing industrialization

Ireland has, proportionately, the most important agricultural sector and the least developed industrial sector in the EEC. To take the percentage of the working population in these two sectors: Ireland has 23.8% in agriculture, the highest in the EEC (average 8.4%), and 29.8% in industry, the lowest in the EEC (average 40.9%).

But industrialization in Ireland, which only became independent in 1921, started much later than it did in the other EEC countries and has been a fairly fast process, particularly since accession to the EEC in 1973.

And as Irish industry consists mainly of small and medium-sized firms, it made a better showing than other, bigger industrialized countries in the economic crisis of 1974/75.

The general figures for industrial production put Ireland's 1977 index at 135 (1970 = 100), the highest increase in the Community (average = 118).

Promoting industrialization

The Irish authorities have achieved their industrial expansion by running

intensive campaigns to boost local industry and encourage foreign investors. Ireland has the highest rate of unemployment (9.7% of the working population in 1977) in the Community and industrial expansion is expected both to reduce this and put a brake on emigration.

Its experience of attracting foreign investments would perhaps be useful to certain developing countries, which often have similar situations to cope with. The success of foreign investors, helped by the fact that Ireland can produce at low labour costs, has been confirmed by studies run by American investment prospectors concluding that Ireland is the best place in the world, outside the USA, to set up an industry.

The investment promotion scheme, mainly the responsibility of the Irish Development Authority (IDA), includes a wide range of incentives and tax advantages. In addition to export tax exemption, financial help is provided for the purchase of capital goods.

The IDA can even provide the foreign investor with a suitable plot of land, or an "advance factory" which can be bought outright or leased with an option to buy. In doing this, Ireland takes regional differences into account and pays particular attention to backward areas.

Many developing countries would do well to adopt the same approach.

The Confederation of Irish Industry (CII)

John Kenna, head of transport and external trade at the CII, said "Irish industrialists are obviously interested in industrial opportunities in the ACP countries but it is a question of timing and opportunities for them". As Irish firms tend to be small, few of them are in a position to invest abroad, let alone in the ACP countries. Direct investments of this kind are therefore very limited and private industrial cooperation is practically confined to consul-

tancies, i.e. to the indirect transfer of technology. Mr Kenna feels that Ireland's minimal experience of direct investments and its lack of colonial links with the ACP countries mean that it "has to go deeper into the problems involved and needs longer to assess situations than other members of the EEC".

The CII takes an active interest in the activities of the CID (Brussels), an organization which can help identify possibilities of joint ventures in the ACP countries.

But these investigations (and others carried out through UNIDO, the IBRD and so on) are a time-consuming and therefore expensive business for Ireland, with its few traditional relations with the developing countries.

Mr Kenna also emphasized the difficulty of getting the information needed to compile an investment dossier, and in industry, time always means money...

By and large, John Kenna thinks there is room for greater cooperation with the English-speaking countries and that the local processing of raw materials, in agro-industry especially, is the best form of industrial development to help the developing countries get their economies off the ground quickly.

"The local situations being what they are, our experience of switching from



John Kenna

Director at the Confederation of Irish Industry: "Ireland has to go deeper into the problems involved and needs longer to assess situations than other members of the EEC"

an agriculture-oriented economy to an industrialized one will certainly play its part in our already very positive commitment to the developing countries", he said. This experience, in agriculture especially, would be a sound basis for technical cooperation at first and could lead on to productive investments in manufacturing, which would in turn strengthen trade links between Ireland and the ACP countries.

Mr Kenna sees no conflict between Ireland's drive to attract foreign investors and the developing countries' desire to do so, since, as Irish industry is geared to export, the two can exist side by side. He is in favour of a European investment guarantee system "which might encourage industrialists to broaden their horizons", but he regrets that the developing countries have no established regional economic structures and he stressed the effect this sort of thing has had on Irish industry, particularly since joining the EEC.

The opportunities for investments and joint ventures should, he feels, match the operational possibilities of Irish firms, which are generally smaller than those of other industrialized countries.

Consultancies

The Irish industrialists in the developing countries so far have usually been consultant engineers, offering skills and access to technology to the local authorities. Kenny International Ltd. and Nicholas O'Dwyer and Partners are two such consultancies working in the developing countries, on EDF contracts amongst others.

Nicholas O'Dwyer and Partners has in fact made a certain amount of local investment. In 1969, this firm took over a Zambian consultancy where five Irish engineers backed up by various local staff are now employed. In Nigeria, in 1974, it formed an association with a local partner and now employs six Irish and six Nigerian engineers.

The Zambian office is run as a branch office and the Nigerian one as a local firm, which Patrick Mehigan of Nicholas O'Dwyer and Partners feels is "the best solution in the long term".

They originally chose Zambia because of the Irish government's contact with the country, where local engineers are in short supply as there are plenty of government jobs for them. Nigeria was chosen because the firm considered it "the best market in Africa".



Colm Ó Nualláin
Vice-chairman of DEVCO

Kenny International makes about 25% of its turnover outside Ireland, mainly in the Arab countries and Tanzania where the consultancy started up in 1975 (transformation of a pyrethrum factory). Like Patrick Mehigan, Eoin Kenny thinks that consultancies are "the main means of transferring technology to the developing countries".

As consultant engineers, they try to reconcile the investors' desire for profitability (and the transfer of profits) with the need to use local capital and labour providing the most suitable kind of technology.

They also feel that they have an essential part to play in training local staff. And they are both convinced that Ireland's private industry, in close cooperation with bilateral aid and semi-state bodies, is increasingly interested in schemes in the ACP countries, particularly since the Lomé Convention.

DEVCO

Public and semi-state companies have played an important part in developing Ireland's economy. Good results and sound management make them useful examples for the many developing countries which have also opted for public initiative. Colm Ó Nualláin, head of the Institute of Public Administration and vice-chairman of DEVCO, explained that various of Ireland's public institutions got together in 1974 to form DEVCO, which now has 29 members. Coordinating their activities in the developing countries, DEVCO has been operating for three years

now. It has a small permanent staff and a general coordinator, Michael Boyd, who is in constant contact with the representatives of all the affiliated organizations throughout the Irish economy.

DEVCO can call on a range of skills covering such areas as transport (e.g. Aer Lingus), agriculture (e.g. the Irish Agricultural Organization Society), energy (e.g. the Electricity Supply Board), industrial promotion (e.g. the Irish Development Agency), etc.

In 1977, 22 members of DEVCO carried out projects involving technical assistance, training (for 1 440 people in 1977), help with management, seminars, conferences and so on in 73 developing countries (51 in 1976), 30 of which were in the ACP group.

Its turnover in 1977 was £11 million. In some developing countries, activity was on a non-commercial basis and just costs were covered. In others, the Arab countries for example, projects were purely commercial. Most DEVCO projects so far have been based on bilateral aid.

Mr. Ó Nualláin said "the beneficial part which public firms have played in Ireland's socio-economic development is an excellent basis for cooperation with the developing countries, especially the English-speaking ones, which have opted for a structure similar to the one we have in Ireland for their industrialization".

The Jefferson Smurfit Group

Few Irish firms so far have been in a position to make direct investments in the developing countries. The Jefferson Smurfit Group, Ireland's biggest private firm, is a rare, if not the only, exception to the rule. What began as a family concern now employs nearly 9 000 staff in the packaging, printing, corrugated cardboard and paper-making sector. The group comprises about 100 branches, or subsidiary companies in association with other partners, in Ireland, the UK, the Netherlands, Sweden, Australia, the USA and Nigeria. Turnover in 1977 (up until 31 January 1978) was £175.686 million, with a pre-tax profit of £16 million.

Andrew Woods, a Group projects manager, said, "what we are doing in Nigeria is the result of a positive choice we made in 1973 when we bought up Tremletts, the British paper firm. We decided to buy up the three branches

this firm had in Nigeria, because the Nigerian market met our demands as regards growth and profitability and the Group could put its technological skills and experience to the best effect.

"It was a deliberate choice on our part. We were not forced to take the Nigerian branches and, as it turned out, we were right to take them, as we got the results we were looking for".

With all the enthusiasm and the spirit of initiative typical of this Irish multinational, Jefferson Smurfit embarked upon a programme of expansion and re-equipment of the three Nigerian plants—Smurfit Cases Nigeria Ltd. (58% holding), which produces corrugated cardboard containers, Smurfit Flexwrap Nigeria Ltd. (100%), which produces flexible packaging and Smurfit Print Nigeria Ltd. (60%), a general printing concern. Most work is for the local market.

Since the Group took over these businesses, overall profits for the Nigerian activities (pre-tax) have gone up from below £50 000 to £2.5 million and there are now 750 instead of 350 employees in Nigeria.

When Smurfit Cases reached peak production capacity, the market was still promising, so the Group made a fourth investment, at Aba in Imo State. This was also in line with the Nigerian authorities' desire to spread investments over the country to lighten the

economic load on Lagos, the capital. This fourth factory started production in September 1978.

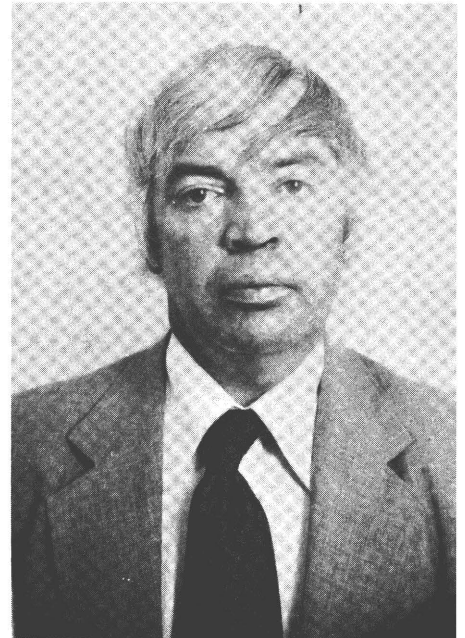
The Group runs all levels of intensive training for the local staff. In accordance with current Nigerian law, there are now only six expatriate managers in permanent jobs in Nigeria.

As an international group, Jefferson Smurfit also offers its Nigerian cadres the opportunity of following crash training courses in other branches, mainly in Ireland itself and in the UK.

The problem of private local capital buying up shares in the Smurfit firms is currently the subject of negotiations with the Nigerian authorities. "Under the Nigerianization programme, we have to give up all but 40% of our shares", Mr Woods said.

A favourable view on future investments in developing countries

Leaving aside the problem of sending profits home (bearing in mind the ongoing negotiations, which are dealing with the payment of shares bought and the transfer of any funds thus accruing) and in spite of the momentary decline in the Nigerian economy, Jefferson Smurfit takes a generally



Andrew Woods

Group projects manager of Jefferson Smurfit Ltd, one of the rare Irish enterprises established in Africa

favourable view of the investment possibilities in other developing countries. "One of our expatriate managers in Nigeria is working, with other people, on an intensive investigation of such investment possibilities, for which our firm usually prepares the dossiers we need", Mr Woods said. He thinks that, so far, the Lomé Convention has had little effect on the Group, which has been concentrating on the expansion and proper management of its various branches.

But the Convention could certainly come into play when new investments are being sought.

A global Irish approach

Industrial cooperation between Ireland and the ACP countries is still in its early stages. Generally speaking, there is close interaction between bilateral aid, technical cooperation via semi-state agencies, the services of consultant engineers and private industry proper, which tests the ground.

For historical and economic reasons, Ireland's relatively recent venture into the ACP countries is expanding gradually. Private industry will follow. □

Roger DE BACKER



A view of the new Smurfit Cases plant at Aba, in Imo State (eastern Nigeria)

TRADE UNIONS

World Confederation of Labour: Declaration on Africa

The WCL(1) held its first African meeting in Upper Volta in September 1978 when it discussed the continent's economic, social and political situation and gave its opinion on the Lomé Convention as a model for cooperation which arouses the interest of "free" trade unions. We print extracts from the WCL executive committee's declaration on the outlook for economic, social and trade union affairs in Africa.

Social, economic and political situation

The world economic crisis worsens the social situation of both rural and urban populations, particularly in the Third World and in Africa most of all.

Extreme poverty, the job shortage, the constantly rising cost of living, sub-standard conditions of health and hygiene and malnutrition make the living and working conditions of the majority of people very difficult.

But this is not the hand of fate. The general economic disorder renders many individual and collective efforts futile. The rich get richer and the poor get poorer, and the system that some of the great financial and political powers want to force on the rest of the world is designed for those who are already well-off. The recent hard-won independence of many countries of Africa is threatened by new masters who, under cover of the multinationals, technology and aid, want to recolonize the continent. So raw materials are seized or bought at token prices and the Third World's debts grow.

Africa is a fine parade ground for the super-powers. Their interventions are made with domination and exploitation in mind and are counter to the interests of the rural and urban populations who legitimately aspire to develop together, mindful of the true values of their African societies.

(1) World Confederation of Labour,
50, rue Joseph II,
1040 — Brussels, Belgium.

The WCL Executive Committee supports all schemes that will ensure that the wealth of Africa (i.e. its raw materials) really belongs to the people of Africa and that it is used first and foremost for their social and economic development. Inter-African (regional and continental) trade, financial and economic agreements, one of the keys of development, must be extended. But they are up against too many external economic and political interests. And particular attention should be paid to the rural populations, so as to increase food production and improve the living and working conditions of the producers.

The WCL rejects all external pressure and supports legitimate desires for development which is designed by Africans and which respects the fundamental freedom and dignity of Africans.

The WCL category condemns all forms of racialism in relations between individuals, ethnic groups, states and nations. It once again condemns the system and practice of apartheid and states its active solidarity with all campaigns committed to wiping out odious racialism. It also declares its support for all African liberation movements, particularly in Zimbabwe, Namibia and South Africa.

The Lomé Convention

Now that negotiations for Lomé II have begun, it is important for a trade union organization like the WCL to assess the workings of the Convention and propose improvements:

(1) The Convention should help establish multilateral and complementary cooperation in which all participants have equal rights and powers. It should not be a means of enabling private interests, particularly multinationals, to penetrate Africa. Nor should it be a way out of the problems engendered by capitalism in Europe.

(2) The Convention should organize the economy to make a better job of meeting social requirements, particularly as regards creating employment and meeting the priority needs of the rural and urban populations. Reference

should be made here to the application of international labour standards as regards trade union rights, bargaining rights, equal rights for migrant workers, young people and working women and humane employment and working conditions. Industrialization is vital, but it must not be the occasion for greater exploitation of the workers and the local people.

The Convention must also strengthen the machinery for the raising, guaranteeing and fair distribution of income among the producers themselves, particularly in the rural sector. And far more means must be allocated to regional agreements. As to the world economic crisis, the WCL attaches particular importance to finding solutions which are right and just and do not create differences between workers in the industrialized and the ACP countries.

The interests of the populations of the Third World and the industrialized world will not converge, nor will social needs be satisfied, unless the authorities have the ability and the determination to serve the interests of the community and do not make it easy for private interests to obtain power and profit. Effective international cooperation is hardly compatible with market laws.

Lomé II will serve development if the trade union organizations concerned really are involved in planning global and specific control over all the provisions of the new convention. But despite long-standing requests, this still has not happened.

The WCL has these aims in view in this decisive period of renegotiation of the convention and intends working with all the relevant trade union organizations to make all the political authorities responsible realize just what the populations, and the workers primarily, really want.

African trade unionism

Workers live, work and campaign in Africa. The union movement exists and is developing there in different forms and in particularly difficult conditions. Life and work are such (minimal wages, unemployment, poor working conditions, unwarranted dismissals, inadequate social security, etc.) that it is vital to have trade unions in the various professional sectors in the (national and continental) regions for the basic rights of workers and populations to be promoted. They are also vital to ensure that economic and political organization is fair and of service to development. □

METEOROLOGY

The urgent need for weather research⁽¹⁾

Since earliest times, man has turned his attention towards the sky to discern what the heavens had in store for him. Sometimes it was a question of his survival.

It is not really necessary to point to the great flood to be convinced of the dangers from extreme meteorological conditions.

One glance at the events in recent years shows how harshly droughts, crop failure and floods have hit many regions of the globe.

Droughts and hurricanes

— 1968-1973: Africa's Sahel (Mauritania, Mali, Niger, etc.), Ethiopia and the Cape Verde islands were badly hit by the prolonged drought which was the most severe this century.

— 1975: a heat wave descended on Western Europe during the summer and countries such as the Netherlands and Denmark experienced their highest temperatures on record.

For the first time in the 20th century, ice from the Arctic ocean found its way to Iceland in the month of July.

— 1975-1976: drought hit all of western, central and southern Europe. Rainfall in England from May 1975 over the following 16 months was the lowest recorded since 1727.

— 1976: a new heat wave hit Western Europe at the beginning of the summer. For 24 days in England, temperatures were 4 °C above the monthly average for the previous 300 years.

The USSR and Canada, by contrast, suffered a very cold and humid summer.

The catastrophic drought which tortured a large number of tropical and subtropical countries between April

and August (from Sri Lanka to West Africa) was followed by torrential rains.

Over the same period, Europe suffered bad weather, whilst extremely violent hurricanes ravaged the coasts of Madagascar and Mexico.

Zero safety margin

The impact of such climatic traumas on man and the earth's resources is enormous. During the period 1960-1970, for example, extreme meteorological phenomena caused some economic disasters.

World reserves of wheat were reduced to negligible size, and market prices of food went haywire. Millions of people in developing countries found themselves threatened with starvation.

The climate of our planet has always been unstable and will doubtless stay so in the future. We know neither the causes of these changes, nor their size or speed. It is vital to direct our research and forecasting resources to these climatic variables.

Whilst our vulnerability has greatly increased compared to past centuries, current world reserves of wheat only represent a small fraction of our annual consumption. The galloping birthrate and increased food requirements imply that a period of bad weather could be catastrophic. It would not require another Ice Age to destroy our agriculture.

Our water resources are also becoming increasingly scarce, given the population growth and the expansion of our cities and industries.

For the future, we can probably expect droughts to threaten our supplies of water for home, industrial and agricultural use.

By contrast, well-dispersed rain could feed our underground waters and increase our water reserves. Though we know that our security

(water and food) depends on the climate, we do not know the precise quantitative relationships involved. Urgent scientific research is required.

Weather forecasting limits

This urgency has led the European Commission to propose to the Council of Ministers a research programme into the mechanics of climate and temperature. The five year programme aims to coordinate research work in Community and associated countries. The total cost will be around 15 million EUA (1 EUA = ± 1.3 dollars) of which 8 million EUA will come from the Community budget.

This European climatology programme will form part of the international research being conducted by the World Meteorological Organization (GARP). In the science of climatology, coordination of efforts produces good results, which is why the European Commission wishes to mobilize the leading specialists from the Nine rather than see European researchers work in relative isolation.

The programme proposed by the Commission covers two research fields:

Climatic mechanisms

This area of research covers short term climatic forecasting, i.e. over a period of a few weeks.

All weather forecasting techniques have their limits and it is currently impossible to forecast the weather or the state of the atmosphere more than two weeks ahead.

The gaps in our knowledge not only concern the actual weather but also causes and origins and the precise moments when certain changes will occur.

At the moment only visionaries can predict climatic disasters with any precision.

To develop useful forecasting techniques, the climatic conditions of ancient times have to be reconstructed to find historical precedents for the current climatic cycles. Information on climates in ancient times can be collected from fossils, tree rings, river beds, analysis of insect life and marine microorganisms in sedimentary layers, etc.

(1) Euroforum no 34/78, 3.10.1978.

Man/climate interactions

Man is increasingly concerned to know if he is in any way responsible for the increasing changes in climatic conditions. Technological progress increases energy consumption which pollutes the atmosphere either thermally or chemically.

The second area of research proposed by the European Commission is composed of the following two themes:

— the effect of climate on European resources (food and water). Evaluation of climatic risks (crops, droughts, avalanches, etc.). The impact of climatic conditions on energy production (importance of rainfall for feeding hydro-electric power stations or cooling nuclear power stations);

— influence of man on the climate: chemical pollution through carbon dioxide in particular and thermal pollution of the atmosphere (see box). □

An almost desert region of Morocco

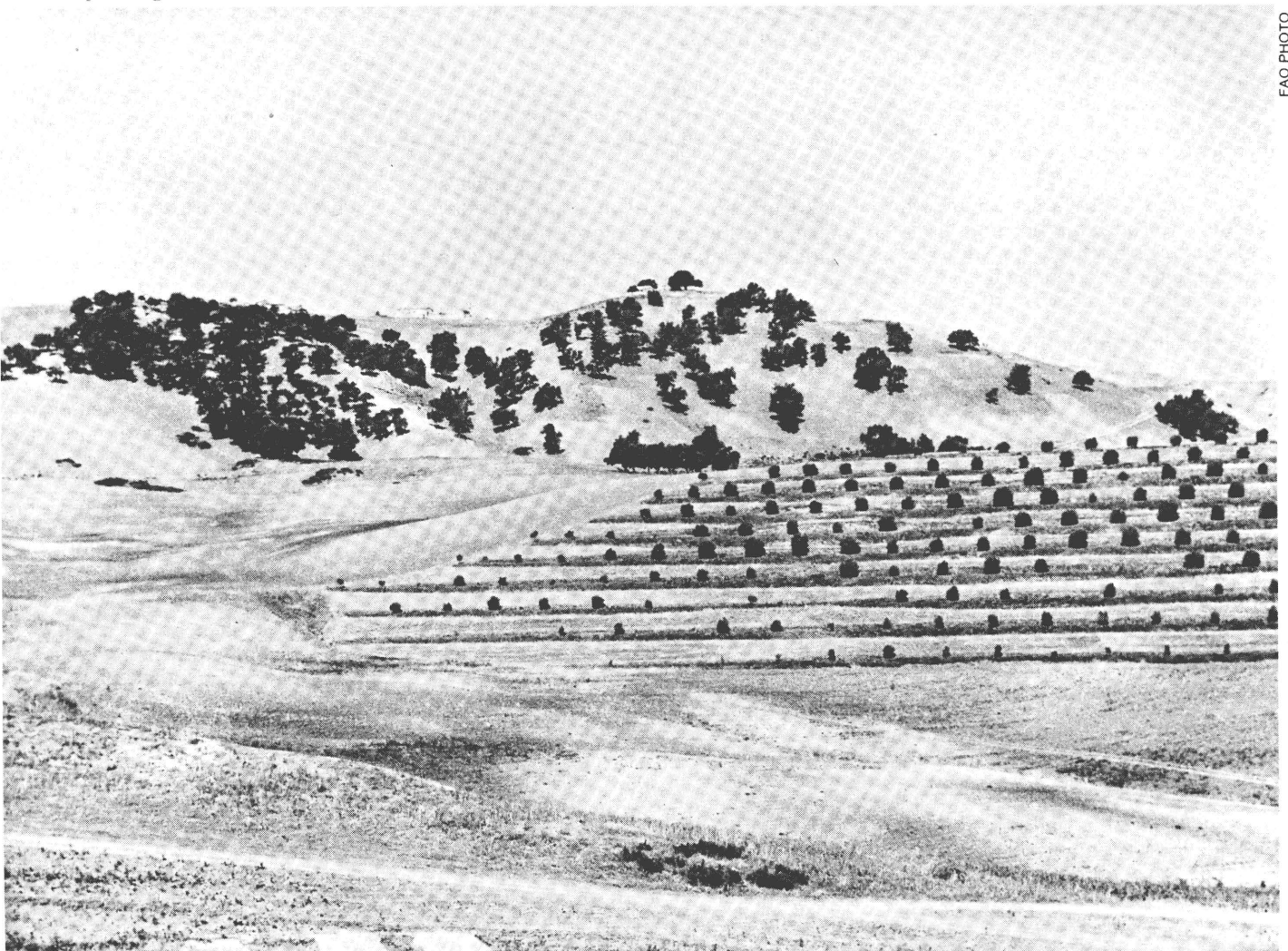
Tree-planting can hold back erosion

Pollution—a lot of hot air?

Thermal pollution of the atmosphere has considerable influence on our environment, and can also affect the climate. By burning fossil fuels—coal, gas and oil derivatives (and we should not forget the growth of nuclear power stations) we are affecting energy reserves and the climate.

The effects of these heat sources on the continental and world scale are still uncertain. It can nevertheless be imagined that sooner or later there will be some effect on local and global meteorological patterns.

The chemical pollution of the atmosphere is also of great concern. Certain gases and particles can inhibit the passage of solar and infra-red rays. These particles also have an effect in the formation and condensation of clouds. Amongst these gases, the most dangerous, in view of its potential impact on the climate, is carbon dioxide (CO₂). Its concentration in the atmosphere is increasing exponentially: 10% since the beginning of the industrial age, 20% in 20 years, 100% by 2020. Such an increase in the global concentration of carbon dioxide could, in the view of certain specialists, raise the earth's surface temperature by 2 °C (greenhouse effect). The consequences of such a temperature rise could be serious: a move of important climatic zones towards the north, glaciers floating in the Arctic, changes in the level of the Antarctic plateau, flooding of low lying coastal areas... □



FAO PHOTO

LIBERIA

“Minerals today, agriculture tomorrow”

The national emblem of Liberia shows a sailing ship moored off a palm-fringed bay, a dove overhead and agricultural tools in the foreground. The collection of symbols is still appropriate.

Although the ship represents the arrival of the first settlers from America in the 1820s, Liberia is perhaps most widely known for the international shipping that carries its lone-star flag. The shovel and the palm tree illustrate the country's current economic slogan, “minerals today, agriculture tomorrow”. As for the dove, well, President Tolbert's initiatives as a peace-maker on the African continent culminate this summer at the OAU summit which he will host in Monrovia.

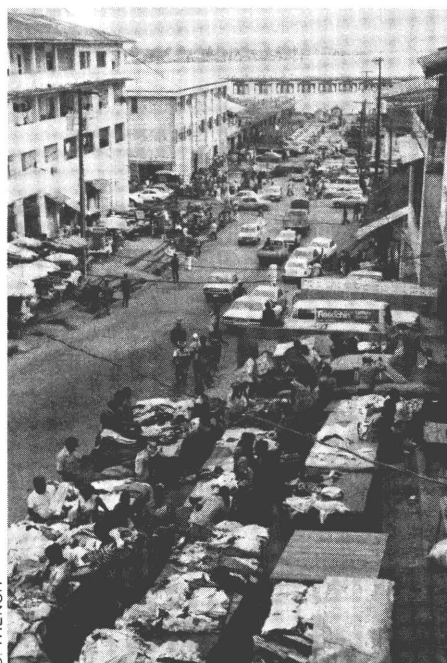
When the visitors arrive, what shape will they find the country in? The 1973-74 oil crisis, which hit most ACP countries very hard, only seemed to cast a passing shadow on the Liberian economy: GDP in constant prices was up 3.8% (1) in 1974, down 3.7% in 1975 and up again by 4.3% in 1976; in current prices, GDP rose from \$453.4 m (exports \$324 m) in 1973 to \$770 m (exports \$447.4 m) in 1977. Iron ore, Liberia's main export, more than doubled in market price between 1973 and 1975, while rubber, the second export, began a strong climb. For overall imports and exports, the terms of trade even worked out slightly to Liberia's advantage.

The effects of international recession

In fact, the real effects of the oil crisis and the international recession were merely delayed. Liberia's small, open, narrow-based economy is very vulnerable to the international trade climate. As the world steel industry cut

back and the steel price levelled out, Liberian iron ore exports slumped from \$328.7 m in 1976 to \$273.5 m in 1977; production fell 30% in three years. Rubber production fell 18% in the 1973-77 period, although the price nearly doubled. Diamonds suffered a 60% drop in production and fell from second to fifth place in the export tables. The cost of imports was rising nearly four times as fast as export receipts between 1973 and 1977, while the balance of trade was falling from a \$130.5 m surplus to a \$16.1 m deficit, the first since 1963. The deficit may approach \$50 m for 1978. Consumer prices have risen 60% since 1973. And the Liberian dollar, at par with the American, has tumbled in value against the currencies of the countries from which Liberia buys three-quarters of its imports (35% from the EEC).

So the open-door economy let in a very cold draught just as Liberia's first national socio-economic development plan (1976-1980) was starting. The government remains firmly opposed to closing the door, the plan has been well wrapped up in a \$585 m budget and the main effort now is directed at ensuring that the economy never



Street scene in Monrovia

catches cold again through a policy of diversification and self-sufficiency. Over the 1973-77 period, the price of timber doubled, the price of cocoa nearly quadrupled and the price of coffee nearly sextupled. The lesson is clear. From the iron age, Liberia wants to move into the age of agriculture.

Agriculture under the first national plan

The main headings of the national plan are road-building (23.1% of the \$585 m) and agriculture and forestry (19.1%). Even the road programme is partly aimed at agriculture in its emphasis on farm-to-market roads. There is a dual agricultural strategy: to establish large cash crop plantations and to improve traditional farming. First of all, however, the emphasis is on a food crop. Although most Liberian farmers grow rice, it constituted 40% of food imports in the 1973-77 period. The objective is self-sufficiency in rice by 1980; rice production has been given plenty of attention since the 1960s, but it will still require a big push if this target is to be met. Another principal objective is to rehabilitate the old rubber plantations and generally develop this sector, which has good prospects now that the price of oil has made synthetic substitutes more expensive. The third is the most significant, as it points the way to Liberia's future as a diversified cash crop producer: the tree crop programme.

Liberia has looked to its neighbour, the Ivory Coast, for a lead in building this kind of economy, and Ivorian teams have been brought in to make studies for 37 500 acres of oil palm, 20 000 of coconut, 15 000 of cocoa and 10 000 of coffee. Already coffee has moved up to become the third biggest export, after rubber, and large-scale land clearance is under way.

The big concessions: self-contained enclaves

A country where 70% of the population live basically from subsistence farming is, of course, already agricultural. This is the other side of a dualistic economy. Although iron ore has constituted two-thirds of Liberia's exports since 1973, it now brings in less than 10% of the government's revenue—and even that is more than would have been the case without the

(1) Statistical sources used in this article: Ministry of Planning and Economic Affairs. Ministry of Finance.

recent revision of the concessions granted to the foreign iron and rubber companies.

The importance of the big concessionary companies in the trade figures is much greater than their importance to the national budget. Since the start of the Firestone plantations, which include the biggest rubber plantation in the world, in the 1920s, these companies have been more or less self-contained enclaves. They have provided much of what transport infrastructure there was until recently—even now, some parts of Liberia are scarcely mapped—provided jobs, training, housing and medical care, although they have often been criticized for paying low wages and failing to promote more Liberians; they have encouraged local cash-crop farming and they provide about half the wage employment in Liberia. Nonetheless, they are still mainly private enterprises which will only flourish in what they consider a good business climate. In the current uncertain economic conditions abroad, the government neither wishes to be nor can afford to be heavy-handed at home with its foreign operators.

A recently-commissioned report by a prominent Monrovia businessman already points to the danger of a deteriorating business climate within the country. If the government is fully to achieve the development objectives it is clearly necessary that private investors maintain their interest in the country.

Bumper budget in 1978-79

Despite the effects of international recession, this year's budget is the biggest ever, with planned expenditure of \$341 m, 47% of which is earmarked for development. This budget includes foreign aid for first time, which will finance more than half the development plan, and carries a hefty deficit; nonetheless, government revenue, as recommended by the budget, is \$191 m, well over twice what it was when President Tolbert took over in 1972.

Finance minister James Phillips told the *Courier* where the money is coming from:

"We have enacted a much more progressive tax law, shifting the responsibility onto the higher-income brackets, and by importing all the capital goods for our development projects we have increased our customs revenues substantially. Loans and grants make up most of the rest. Our borrowing is directly related to our debt-servicing capacity, so as to avoid our being overburdened with debts in the following years.



James T. Phillips
Minister of Finance

"Some projects in the national plan had to be postponed because of the fall in iron ore revenues, but we decided not to borrow any more because we must maintain the financial credibility we have established.

"If all the development targets are met it won't be necessary to have a budget of the same size next year, but a lot depends on our fiscal capacity to carry out the development plan", he said.

In Monrovia there are stickers saying 'pay your taxes'. The new taxation was introduced in July 1977, increasing corporate tax by about 5% and personal income tax by up to 40-50%; the latter was too much to be swallowed without grumbles in a low-tax country and even the budget realistically counts on substantially less than the income tax that should theoretically be raised by the new measures.

Foreign aid, however, is certainly coming in, and from new sources such as the EDF, with an indicative aid programme (see box) worth some \$30 m, and China, which provided a 10-year interest-free loan of \$23.5 m starting in July 1978, following a trip to Peking by President Tolbert. Another loan for a similar amount, to develop rubber-growing, was arranged with the World Bank shortly before.

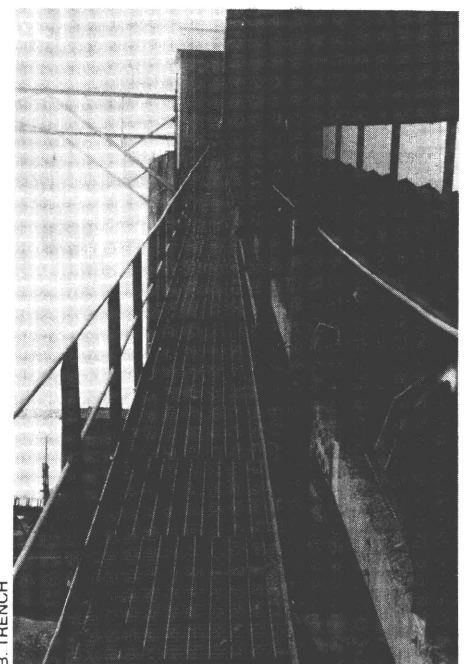
Bottlenecks

Deputy planning minister Ellen Sirleaf confirmed that foreign aid has been rising. "In the last two years our aid sources have expanded very noticeably. For instance, for the first time

we have been able to make some impact in the OPEC countries". The flow has not always been regular, but "foreign finance has certainly been on the incline since the present administration came in," she said.

1978 has been rather a bottleneck year for projects, perhaps partly due to the priority of work on the large OAU summit conference site, for which nearly \$40 m was set aside in the budget. Despite the finance available, there have been cash flow problems which have caused occasional difficulties between the government and private contractors working on some major projects. "There are times when an aid pipeline gets full of projects, implementation slows down and the pipeline isn't refilled as easily because people get anxious," Mrs Sirleaf said. Between the revenue and expenditure columns in a development budget is a gap as wide as the capacity to carry out the development projects. Although 80% of the EDF programme had been committed by last July, for instance, less than 10% of it had been spent.

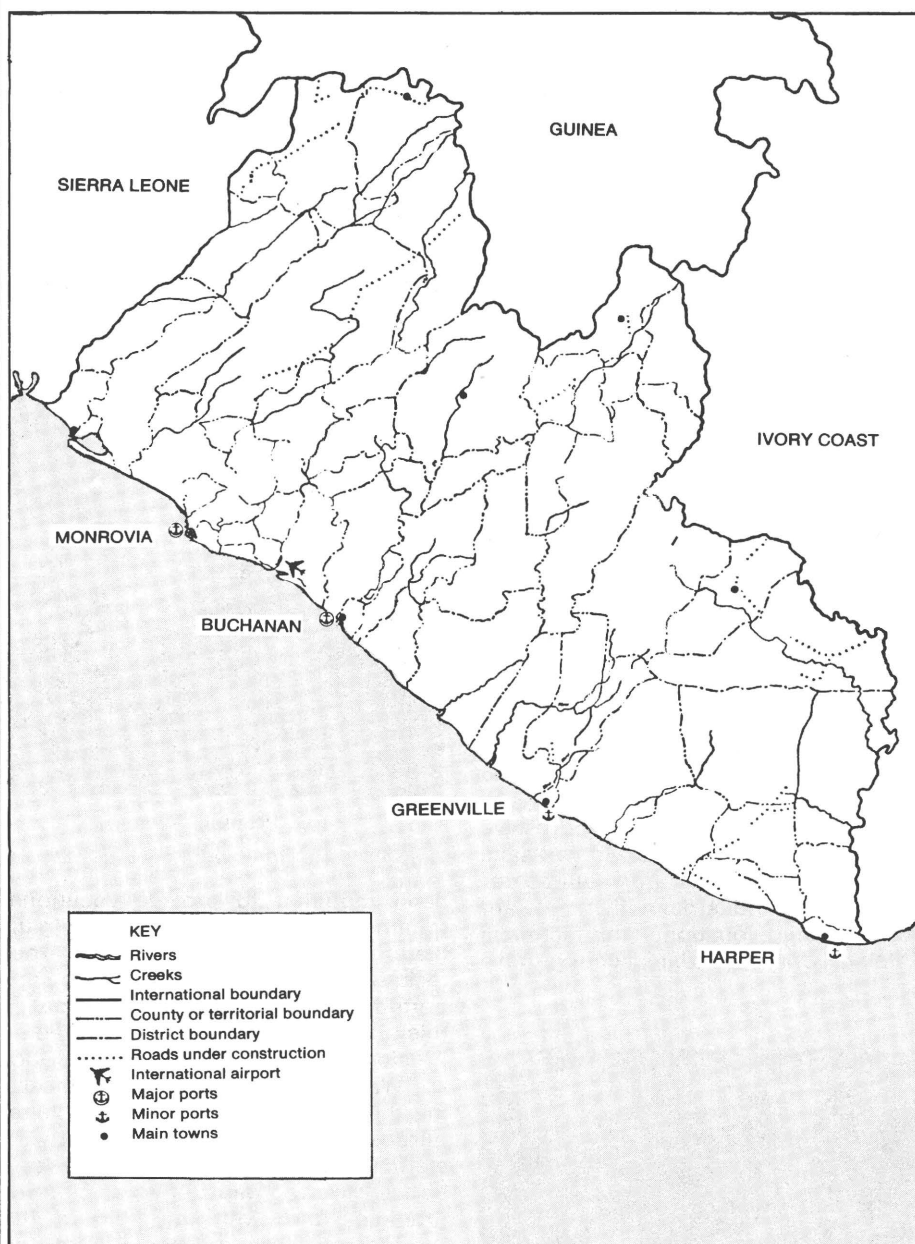
"We have a number of programmes, financed by different organizations, all of which are going on simultaneously and all of which show faith in the way the country is heading. Our expectations have, perhaps, been greater than our performance in carrying out these programmes, but this is not due to a lack of effort on our part. Our institutions require wider capacities to mount the many things we're trying to do," Mrs Sirleaf explained.



Iron ore conveyor belt at Buchanan port:
\$100 m worth of ore in stock

LIBERIA

A statistical and historical outline



Geography

Liberia is bounded on the west by Sierra Leone, on the north by Guinea and on the east by the Ivory Coast. It is contained between the Mano and the Cavalla rivers and the Atlantic coast.

The low coastal belt is characterized by shallow lagoons, tidal creeks and mangrove marshes. Behind it lies an undulating plateau, covered by grass and rain forest, rising to the mountain area in the north, in which Liberia's principal mineral resources are situated. The climate is humid (85-90% humidity), with a rainy season from May to October, and temperatures vary between 21° and 32° C.

The country is divided into nine counties and the ports of Monrovia, Buchanan, Greenville and Harper are fairly equidistant along the coast. Communications are inadequate despite intensified road-building: less than 500 miles of a rough total of 7 000 miles of roads are paved and the ends of the country are joined by a straggling loop around the interior, avoiding the marshes of the coast. The international airport was built in World War II and is nearly an hour's drive from Monrovia.

History

Modern Liberia emerged as a result of treaties concluded in 1821 between local leaders and representatives of black settlers from the United States, who came to Africa under the auspices of the American Colonization Society, whose charitable intention was to "repatriate" freed black slaves. The first mainland settlement was named after US President James Monroe, who supported the Society, and the settlers gradually extended their territory.

Representatives of various settler communities formally signed the Declaration of Independence in 1847 and the first President, J.J. Roberts, was elected shortly afterwards. The government was modelled on the tripartite system of the USA, with the President elected for an eight-year term by direct popular vote. The True Whig Party has been consistently in power since 1848.

Liberia is a member of the United Nations, the IMF, the IBRD, the OAU and ECOWAS as well as a signatory to the Lomé Convention. □

Area: 43 000 sq. miles (110 000 km²)

Population: 1.7 million, increasing at 3.3% p.a., 71% rural, 41% under 15 years old

Capital: Monrovia (pop. 250 000, increasing at 7.8% p.a.)

Currency: Liberian \$ = US\$ (Liberian coins, US banknotes)

GDP: \$770 million (1977, at current prices)

Mining and quarrying: 26.8% (iron ore 25.5%)

Agriculture, forestry, fishing: 14.5% (rubber 6.5%)

Manufacturing: 9.5%

Main exports (1977)

Iron ore: \$273.5 m

Rubber: \$59.1 m

Coffee: \$43 m

Timber: \$25.9

Diamonds: \$21.3

Trade pattern (1977)

Exports to:

EEC 62.6% (Germany 24%)

USA 21.2%

Spain 6.2%

Others 10%

Imports from:

EEC 34.5%

USA 26.3%

Japan 8.8%

Sweden 6.4%

Others 24%

"You may say we've bitten off more than we can chew, but it's a problem of timing, of getting the right people in the right place and of finding out where the weaknesses are. Once this is done, things can move fast. We're certainly concerned about the implementation of the EDF programme and its implications for the next round of ACP-EEC cooperation.

"There are bureaucratic bottlenecks; we perhaps don't move as the Commission does in Brussels—as the evidence has shown, it has moved a bit faster than us in some things—but again, that has to do with our professional capacity to move everything at the same time," she said.

The need for training

Liberia's fundamental development problem is the lack of trained, middle-level managers and technicians. An over-loaded government, revolving closely and still rather ceremoniously around the energetic figure of the President, faces the mass of subsistence farmers across a gap which, although closing, is still wide. It was originally historical; the Americo-Liberian descendants of the early coastal settlers may still agree with the slogan around the National Mark, "the love of liberty brought us here", but the descendants of the 30-odd tribes of the interior could point out that they were there already, and to judge from Graham Greene's account of a journey through

the Liberian interior in 1936 (*Journey without Maps*), their traditional lifestyles were little changed by outside influences before World War II. The gap became social, with Westernized culture and education distinct from African, and financial, and was, of course, reflected in political representation. Now that the descendants of the settlers and the indigenous peoples have mixed to the point where one government adviser can describe the old coastal families as "museum pieces", President Tolbert is pushing ahead with the Liberianization of the economy. Yet it seems that almost as fast as the economy grows, foreigners take the new jobs. A good deal of basic economic development has been achieved in the last 10 years; the road mileage, for instance, has tripled. Yet for 1 000 professional foreign staff 10 years ago, there are some 6 000 today; the most enterprising shop-keepers are often Lebanese or Asian, and other jobs go to Sierra Leoneans and Ghanaians.

Education was the third most important heading for the 1978 development plan budget, after transport and agriculture. Franklin Neal, Minister of Planning and Economic Affairs, said:

"We have had a far too orthodox education system which has not been properly geared towards development. We need a much more aggressive structure to provide the skilled artisans and technicians who are required for servicing our industrial activity. We are now stressing vocational and technical training. Our secondary schools have



B. TRENCH

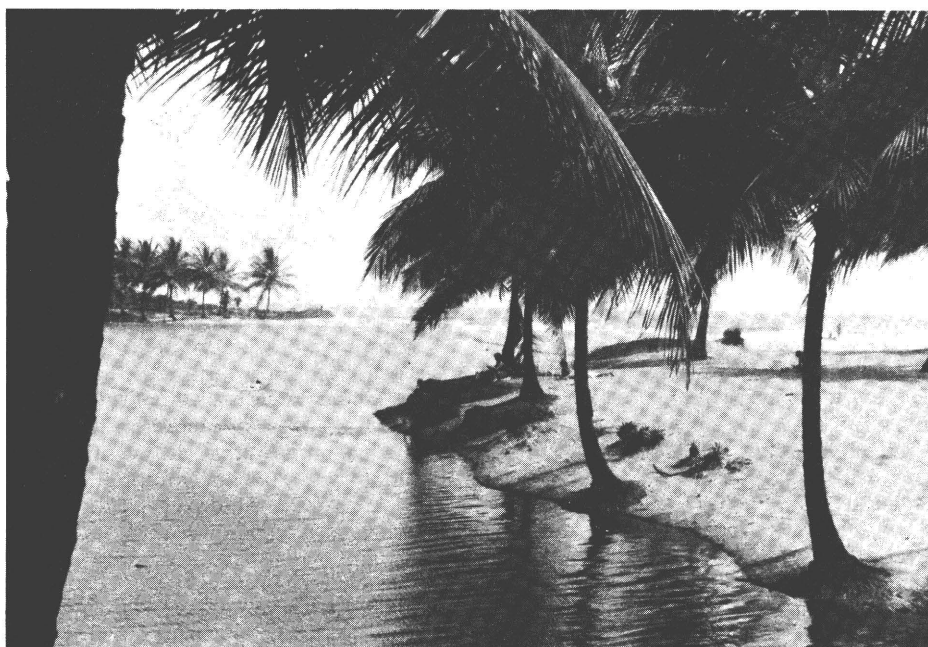
D. Franklin Neal

Minister of Planning and Economic Affairs

been modified to provide vocational training, through what we call the multilateral high schools, and the Harper technical school, which is being supported by the EDF, is in the forefront of this programme—it was inaugurated by President Tolbert in October. Our Booker Washington Institute is also receiving the closest attention; its vocational purpose had been rather eroded with clerical and general education courses, so we have reorganized its whole programme. And, with the help of the World Bank, we are looking at the country's overall manpower profile in terms of technical and vocational education.

"We have set up national vocational training councils, in which both the public and the private sectors are collaborating, to identify our approach to vocational training. We are also beginning to introduce apprenticeship schemes to train welders, electricians, brick-layers and all the other kinds of skilled workers we need.

"Under this first national development plan, we have been looking mainly at initiating something in the rural sector. There won't be any radical changes in the second plan, which is



B. TRENCH

Despite the open door policy and some pretty beaches, Liberia has not yet attracted the package-tour operators

now being prepared, but we will put more emphasis on small-scale industry. We are now reorganizing our development cooperation to take this into account and we are making studies on small-scale industry with World Bank support," Mr Neal said.

The cash crop strategy

A large amount of agricultural groundwork had already been done even before the national plan began to take shape some years ago. Liberian farmers produce about half the country's rubber alongside the big estates, and the trade deficit in 1977 would have been much worse had coffee not brought in \$43 m as against \$6.6 m in 1976, with production rising from 4 200 to over 10 000 tonnes.

"When the American rubber companies began they brought in all the technology, the processing and marketing, and they showed the Liberian farmers how to grow rubber, without any government involvement. We now feel we can use that guided approach for other tree crop products," Mr Neal said.

"We are making loans available to small farmers to tide them over the running-in period, but they will have to work for themselves. They will be given a certain acreage, which they will own, and they will be paid to cultivate that land during the period up to harvesting. When the tree crop is harvested, the loans will be recovered on a structured, individual basis. The Liberian Products Marketing Corporation, a wholly government-owned monopoly, will buy all the produce and recover the loans", he explained.

It is an extension approach, in that the new farms will be models. Starting with palm oil, the tree crop programme is a long-term one and will be continued under the second national development plan.

Food and land

Melvin Thornes of the Liberian Palm Products Corporation, one of the new bodies set up to promote the programme, made it clear that Liberia's cash crop plan goes hand in hand with increased food production, although the country can feed itself.

"I don't see anything like hunger in Liberia, and I don't foresee it. If people have been fighting for rice outside the shops, this should not be misconstrued as hunger. They fight for rice because



Liberian ambassador S. Othello Coleman and EEC development commissioner Claude Cheysson sign the financing agreement on an industrial development unit project for the Mano River Union

they prefer it to staple foods like cassava and plantains. We're self-sufficient in food but people even turn up their noses at our own produce in preference to foreign rice, which probably costs us up to \$10 m in imports. The likelihood of our being self-sufficient in rice by 1980 is a little far-fetched, but if you don't fix a goal, people may not have the ambition to get there on their own," he said.

The farm-to-market distribution system has improved and will benefit from the rural roads programme, but food still goes to waste. How choosy can Liberian housewives afford to be? Finance minister Phillips:

"World inflation has had a direct effect on us, in that we have imported it. We can only control it to a limited extent, by controlling the prices of domestic products. We have monitored wages, but now I think there has to be an increase. The agricultural sector has had wage and price rises to compensate for inflation—the President has increased farm pay from 50 cents to \$1.50 a day. The industrial workers have union contracts, some of which specify wage rises, and these are being negotiated to compensate for the increase in the cost of living."

The stress on private ownership of land under the tree crop programme is indicative of the government's attachment to free enterprise. At 50 cents an acre, however, land is very cheap and it

is coming under pressure not only from the big plantations and mining concessions but also from a new class of Liberian landowners who cannot be described as subsistence farmers.

"The land tenure system in Liberia is unique," Mr Thornes explained. "Anything not certified as being in private ownership is public, or government, land. Most of the interior is public land, but there are tribal reserves which have been set aside by the President for the sole use of the tribe in the immediate vicinity.

"Most of the public land is in the custodianship of the tribes, so any purchases have to be agreed with them. The buyer gives them a token. This is not because they own it, but because they are the custodians. Most of them are not aware of this and think they have squatters' rights which entitle them to the land, but unless they have a legal deed, or proclamation, it is public land. The tree crop programme takes account of the existing small-holders, so we don't drive them off, but we're having to be careful. As regards the new private landowners, most of such land is only a shallow strip along the roads," he said.

Pulling out the stops

So, in the aftermath of the steel recession and in the run-up to the OAU



J. Melvin Thornes

Managing director designate of the Liberian Palm Products Corporation

summit, Liberia is pulling out the stops to build an economy on renewable resources and to catch up on the first national development plan schedule.

The 37 500 acre palm project is now in its third year. "When we started, we had no experience of doing this kind of thing on such a scale and it got off the ground slowly. Now we're progressing as we should and can be fairly proud," Mr Thornes said.

Besides agriculture, the first industrial free zone site is now under construction outside Monrovia and the interest shown in it by investors will be a good indication of whether free enterprise is still as attractive as it was in Liberia.

There may also be a new role for the country as a West African banking centre, especially as the government seems resolved on staying with the dollar for the advantage of its convertibility. "I think we have all the ingredients for this role and we have had a study made on it. There is enough confidence in the government and in our business methods, and we have the free enterprise system and freedom of currency exchange," Mr Phillips said.

"I believe an IMF study has shown that banks in Liberia made more profit last year than banks anywhere else in the developing world. Obviously, an exorbitant profit would suggest that someone is being exploited, but we recognize that no one wants to do business unless he makes a sufficient

profit, and we want to provide an attractive, profitable climate," he added.

As regards the other mainstays of the economy, industrial diamonds are a fluctuating business but they should continue to provide a living for a few thousand people for another 20 years or so, and forestry has a promising future.

"Our forestry resources are now being given the closest attention. We have established a national forestry authority that is not only looking at the existing companies but also into replanting and at cultivating special species for pulp and paper. This area has the highest priority for the future," Mr Neal said.

As for the flag of convenience, "we don't call it a flag of convenience," Mr Phillips explained. "Liberia took advantage of certain conditions in the maritime world, for instance, by allowing ship-owners to employ nationals of countries other than those under whose flags they registered. It is not a tax haven; we make it possible for owners to employ seamen at lower wages. At the same time, unlike Panama, for instance, we maintain very high standards of safety, navigation, insurance, etc., which satisfy the shipping financiers. We have been under attack in recent years, but in the final analysis a ship-owner goes where he finds the greatest economic benefit. In 1977 we registered some six million new tons, which puts us well ahead of even Japan. The revenue from this is not very significant—but we're working towards it".

Foreign links

With all this going on at home, Liberia is nonetheless busy maintaining an international presence. A founder-member of the League of Nations and member of several international groupings, Liberia's role in African diplomacy—something dear to President Tolbert—will be highlighted this summer at the OAU conference.

Relations are good with neighbouring anglophone countries Sierra Leone and Ghana, and with francophone neighbours Guinea and the Ivory Coast. The Mano River Union, a general cooperation project with Sierra Leone, is getting into its stride; ultimately, the idea is that it will be absorbed by ECOWAS. And despite slight problems with language and business methods, cooperation with the Ivory Coast is providing an encouraging

example of closer ties between ACP countries across the linguistic barrier. There are fledgling ideas of establishing a union across the Cavalla River, Liberia's border with the Ivory Coast, although the postponement of the Putu Hills iron ore scheme makes it appear unlikely that there will be enough economic activity in the east of the country on which to build a regional cooperation plan. Cooperation with Guinea also depends in some part on iron ore, since Liberia's Bong mine is part of a vast iron deposit which lies mainly in Guinea. It would be a tremendous task to build a railway from there to the Guinea coast, whereas the ore could be shipped from Liberia via the Bong mine railway, only a skip and a jump across the border.

The American connection

The striking difference between Liberia and its ACP neighbours is that Liberia has never been a European colony. "Fortunately or unfortunately, we do not enjoy the legacies of colonialism," as Liberia's ambassador to



Country girls: are Mr Thornes' oil palms going to change the rural way of life?

Brussels, S. Othello Coleman, said. Founded on an American initiative and based on the American constitution, it is in this respect unique among the ACP countries.

But for all the historical ties and the American rubber and iron interests, the influence of the USA has become more diffuse over time and trade with the USA is diminishing. The EEC is Liberia's main trade partner and indeed an EEC country, Britain, was the first to recognize Liberian independence in 1847.

The USA spends more aid per capita in Liberia than in any other African country, but, to quote an American diplomat, "the USA has not done as much development work here as the other powers did in their colonies, and that really only began in World War II, when Liberia was a staging post for American arms on their way to Europe. Now the American military presence is limited to half a dozen officers, headed by a Colonel. Most Americans feel at ease here, but Liberia is as genuine an African country as you will find".

The future of iron

Whatever the market situation at present, iron ore will certainly not disappear from Liberia's exports overnight. One mine closed in 1977, putting some thousands of miners out of work, and \$100 m worth of ore is waiting in stockpiles to be sold. Massive investments in pelletizing the ore—the first step in processing—have coincided with a collapse of the pellet market, and plans for making steel, which have run into successive difficulties over the last 10 years, are now indefinitely ruled out by the state of the market and the cost of energy. Liberia has no coal or natural gas and meets three-quarters of its energy requirements from imported oil—most electricity is generated by private companies—and one quarter from a hydroelectric station (studies are under way on two more). The quantity of oil is modest, but the bill has gone up by over \$50 m.

Yet studies have gone ahead on three new iron ore mines, and although they would not come on stream until the mid-1980s and would require thousands of millions of dollars in investments, these projects have not been cancelled. They would bring large-scale economic activity to remote parts of the country and the steel market situation might be very different in 10 years time. The government is crossing its fingers. □

BARNEY TRENCH

The EDF indicative programme: state of progress by end 1978

	Amount in '000 EUA	
Agriculture		
Oil palm project	9 100	Half finished, will need extra year
Coffee and cocoa project	2 900	Project to start shortly
Roads		
Tartuke-Karloke road	4 800	Hoped to start shortly
Health		
Extension of Phebe hospital	410	In hand
Paramedical school	1 330	To start shortly
Four health centres	670	Invitations to tender just closed
Education and training		
Harper technical institute (WVS Tubman College of Technology)	1 000	Opened by President Tolbert in October
Science and technology centre at Harper	450	Equipment arrived, staff being appointed
Scholarships	310	In hand
Maintenance of hospital equipment	210	Training under way
Vocational and technical training programme	480	In hand
Technical assistance to the Ministry of Planning and Economic Affairs	220	In hand
Micro-projects (wells, schools, markets, etc.)	300	In hand
Trade promotion	300	To start in 1979
Feasibility study for Harper port	750	Final proposal stage
The total EDF indicative programme allocation to Liberia is 25 million EUA. The EDF is also aiding the Mano River Union, for which work is mainly being handled from the Sierra Leone side.		
For the Mano River Union		
Feasibility studies on the Mano River hydro scheme	2 370	In hand
Establishment of Industrial Project Development Unit in the MRU Secretariat	900	To start shortly
MRU telecommunications and postal training programme	1 730	Being prepared
Total	5 000	

The EDF projects are complemented under the Lomé Convention by European Investment Bank projects. Two EIB interventions, together worth \$77 m, have been approved: they cover a line of credit and an electricity scheme. The Brussels-based Centre for Industrial Development is also actively promoting private EEC-Liberian investment cooperation. □

Example of an EDF project: the Buto oil palm plantation

The main EDF project in Liberia, worth some 40% of the indicative aid programme allocation, is directly in line with the government's determination to develop a cash crop economy. It is the Buto oil palm project, under which 7 500 acres will be cleared and planted with oil palms and an out-grower programme, intended to cover a further 5 000 acres, will be launched.

The plantation and the independent farmers will produce sufficient oil to justify an oil mill.

The project began in April 1976, but was 50% behind schedule by the end of 1977 due to various teething troubles. Heavy rains further retarded progress, but work is now going ahead rapidly with the state company Agrimeco getting the hang of things both on the plantation and on road-building.

A private firm was brought in to give them a hand and an Ivorian firm

has drawn up the specifications for the buildings, for which contractors were due to submit their bids at the time of the end-1978 progress report given below:

Aim of the project: the implementation over five years of a 7 500 acre oil palm plantation complete with the necessary infrastructure.

The project was initiated in 1976 by government prefinancing. A financing agreement for 9.1 m EUA was signed in March 1977 and disbursement of funds started that autumn. By November 1978, half of the plantation had been transplanted; tenders for building construction and contracts for roads had been prepared and work on both will begin early this year.

By November slightly less than \$2 m, or 16% of the total allocation (at current exchange rates) had been disbursed, and it is expected that a

substantial balance will be available at the end of the project.

	Acree- sche- duled	Acree- ge com- pleted	%
Transplanted in 1977	2 500	1 230	49%
Transplanted in 1978	2 500	2 470	99%
Total	5 000	3 700	74%

Because of the shortfall in implementation during the first year, an additional transplanting season will be required in 1980.

A tender dossier for building construction has been prepared by Sodepalm, an Ivorian company which was allocated \$85 000 for this consultancy work. There were slight delays due to language difficulties, but bids were due in by 15 December. The road construction programme also fell behind schedule while Agrimeco concentrated on forest clearance, but 15 km of "essential roads" were opened to help move nursery plants during the transplanting season. □



The Buto oil palm plantation. (Right) President Tolbert helps break new ground

SWAZILAND

“The Lomé Convention has broken our long-standing isolation”

**Prime Minister
Major General Maphevu Dlamini**

On 6 September Swaziland celebrated the 10th anniversary of its independence. Isolated and land-locked by geography and history between Mozambique and South Africa, the traditional Kingdom of Swaziland, ruled by King Sobhuza II—the longest reigning monarch in the world (since 1921)—has experienced rapid economic development throughout its decade of “somhlolo” (independence).

The country is generally marked by its duality, first in its governing

structure with the King and the traditional Swazi National Council on the one hand and a modern constitutional government with a two-chamber parliament on the other, for which elections were held on 27 October. Secondly in its economy: a rapidly growing agro-industrial sector and widespread subsistence farming.

Some key issues, such as the regaining of freeholds and land concessions dating from before independence and relations with



Swaziland is trying to widen its foreign contacts: here Prime Minister Maphevu Dlamini, who is also foreign minister, meets former Japanese Prime Minister Fukuda

its neighbouring countries in this area of southern Africa, dominate both domestic and foreign affairs.

Belonging to the Rand Monetary Union(1), and the Southern African Customs Union(2), Swaziland has widened its international horizons under the Lomé Convention, which also “opened new and very vital economic opportunities», as Swazi Premier Maphevu Dlamini explains.

► *Swaziland, as one of the smallest nations in Africa(3), is often said to have a unique constitutional structure. Could you explain how it works and how it is developing?*

— You will recall that Swaziland was a former British “protectorate” which was granted independence in 1968. The Westminster type of constitution imposed on the country proved unworkable as it did not meet the socio-cultural needs and aspirations of the people. In 1973 this constitution was repealed. For the last few years the Swazi people have been working on a constitution that would meet their needs and aspirations, and I am happy to say that on Friday 27 October elections under the new system were held.

The new system has not yet started functioning, but it would be safe to say that it is based on a Nkundla system, a structure with which the Swazi are very conversant. This follows the Swazi tradition of full consultation and consensus right through from the grass-roots level.

► *A key issue in Swaziland's history was the regaining of control of the concessions made to white settlers before independence in 1968. How successful has this policy been and how will it be continued?*

— The history of concessions, on both land and minerals, is a very long one. Through the wise leadership and understanding of His Majesty the King, several concessions farms have now been converted into Swazi Nation Land, but the rate of their conversion depends on the date of expiry of each concession. However, it is fair to say

(1) Together with Lesotho and South Africa; the national Swazi currency, the Lilangeni (plural Emalangeni/E) is at par with the South African Rand which circulates freely in Swaziland.

(2) Together with Botswana, Lesotho and South Africa.

(3) Total area of 17 364 sq. km (e.g. Belgium 30 500 sq. km).

that through friendly negotiations and purchases the nation has gradually increased Swazi Nation Land. This has been done without any disruption to our economic development.

With regard to mineral concessions, this matter was a subject of lengthy discussions during the last parliament. At present all mineral concessions belong to the Swazi Nation, which now has the right to grant prospecting and mining concessions under such terms and conditions as are considered favourable.

“Our level of development is overstated”

► *During its 10 years of independence Swaziland has achieved considerable economic progress and a high level of per capita income. However, it insists on being kept on the list of least developed countries. Could you comment on this?*

— This government believes that to rely on per capita income as the criterion for measuring levels of development is misleading and incomplete. It leads to false conclusions. This is particularly true of a small, open economy such as ours. Given the small size of our population, two or three large enterprises tend to dominate the economy and this gives an overstated idea of our level of development. Besides, our landlocked position in this geographical area implies that there are particular needs and problems that must mean we remain on the list that receives special attention from the international community. Each country has its special circumstances. It is our feeling that those who excluded us from the list are not familiar with the distribution of economic resources in this country. I would like to add that most of the investment is from foreign businessmen who siphon most of the profits out to their own countries.

Geography and politics

► *Swaziland has a particular geo-political situation, surrounded by South Africa and with only 96 km of border with Mozambique in the east. How do you view Swaziland's role and position in this area?*

— In spite of its geo-political position in relation to Mozambique and South Africa, and in spite of the different political ideologies pursued in these countries, Swaziland continues to enjoy friendly relations with both countries. First and foremost, although we belong to the same customs union, we have made our position abundantly clear that we do not support apartheid.



H.M. King Sobhuza II

We are a non-racial society and moreover we have no wish of interfering in the domestic affairs of other countries.

With regard to our neighbours in the east, they appreciate the fact that we are a monarchy and on that basis we continue to have friendly relations and to cooperate on as many issues of mutual interest as possible. For example, most of our exports go through the port of Mozambique.

► *Could you outline the main characteristics of Swaziland's foreign policy?*

— Our foreign policy has some guiding principles. First of all, as members of the United Nations and the Organization of African Unity and also the Commonwealth of Nations, we adhere to the principles and the spirit behind the charter of these august bodies.

We are also members of the non-aligned movement, which makes us approach all international issues objectively as a nation that is not committed to any of the power struggles that seek to divide the world.

Our philosophy has always been that of a peaceful settlement of conflicts. We do not believe in violence, and we are firm believers in the principle of non-interference in the affairs of other states.

Our hands are open, and we welcome all those with good intentions who appreciate our philosophy and way of life. We therefore believe in and practise a free enterprise economy.

Finally, we have consistently deplored the policies of the oppressive minority regimes in the South African region, taking into account, of course, our own geo-political and economic position.

“Special consideration for our peculiar geo-political situation”

► *What has Swaziland's accession to the Lomé Convention meant for the country and how do you think the EEC could generally assist you in this situation?*

— Our accession to the Lomé Convention is of great significance to us

for a number of reasons and in a number of respects. Firstly, it has broken the long-standing isolation that both geography and the political history of the region have imposed upon us. While our external ties were traditionally mainly with the United Kingdom and with our immediate neighbours, the Lomé Convention has established a formal relationship with eight other industrialized and influential European nations as well as with a large bloc of Third World nations. We therefore, no longer are or feel as isolated as we did in the past. This is all the more important considering the current political developments in South Africa. It is, perhaps, pertinent at this point to mention the various official visits to the country by a number of senior EEC officials, in particular that of commissioner Claude Cheysson. The physical presence in the area of an EEC leader is of great political significance to us.

Secondly, our accession to the Convention has meant the opening of new and very vital economic opportunities for Swaziland in several respects. With regard to trade, the Lomé Convention has provided us with guaranteed access to the large market of the EEC for our sugar, which has become the country's single most important industry, as well as for our citrus and canned fruit. This new trade pattern means a great deal to us as it has considerably reduced our dependence on a hitherto very narrow market outlet for our exports. The Convention also means an opportunity is now available for the possible diversification of sources

of development capital, another area of economic dependence. Opportunities for development aid have also been opened for us under the Convention and in this regard we hope that Swaziland will receive considerably more from the next EDF than she did from the current one.

I should also like to mention that we expect to receive soon some payment in respect of our iron ore export claims from the Stabex scheme(1). This payment will mean a lot to us, as we intend to utilize some of the proceeds for some important development projects in the country. We are very anxious to include other of our major products in the Stabex scheme.

As to what the EEC could do to further assist Swaziland, I have no specific prescriptions to make considering the collective nature of the Lomé Convention. But I should like to point out both to the EEC as well as to our brother ACP member states that we are in a very peculiar situation in southern Africa and that political developments in this area will have profound economic repercussions on Swaziland. We shall need considerably more financial resources to survive than have hitherto been available to us. Only special consideration will make this possible. With regard to trade, our peculiar geographical and political circumstances have to be realistically considered and recognised. A great deal

(1) On 30.11.1978, Swaziland was granted 3368878 EUA under the second tranche of Stabex transfers for 1977.

depends on the foreign policies of the EEC member states.

Constraints on regional cooperation

► *What prospects do you see for regional cooperation in southern Africa with ACP and non-ACP states?*

— Prospects for regional cooperation in southern Africa do exist, but I should hasten to qualify that statement by stating an obvious but generally overlooked factor, that is, geographical and political constraints. Swaziland has physical borders with South Africa and Mozambique. There is obviously no question of regional cooperation with the former under the Lomé Convention and, while prospects with the latter do exist, it is not as yet a signatory to the Convention.

The other possible regional cooperation partners, Botswana, Lesotho, Zambia and Malawi, are all separated from us by thousands of kilometres of foreign territory. Communications in any form among these ACP countries are extremely poor at the moment. This would make the administration of joint projects difficult. Perhaps, in a sense, this in itself suggests some possible regional projects which Swaziland would fully support, namely, telecommunications and civil aviation. Other possible areas of regional cooperation might be in the field of technical training facilities. □

Interview by
R.D.B.

Development and independence

Swaziland's geo-political position prevents it from having full control over all the factors affecting its economic development, but progress over the last few years has been remarkable nonetheless. Its development strategy is based on three, closely-linked elements: growth, through self-reliance, social justice and stability. They should lead to prosperity and prosperity should, in turn, enable Swaziland to achieve a greater degree of socio-economic and political independence.

Reducing disparities

Between 1973/74 and 1976/77, the growth rate of Swaziland's GDP was 7%, in spite of the world recession and the economic problems of South Africa.



An area of 17 364 sq km land-locked in southern Africa...

ca, its main supplier. But the 500 000 Swazis derive unequal benefits from this growth. The government is therefore determined to reduce the disparity between the majority of the population, which survives outside the monetary economy on subsistence agriculture, and the minority in the modern (mainly agro-industrial and forestry) sector.

Greater "Swazilandization" and conscientious planning should bring about a fairer distribution of economic opportunities and social services.

Integrated rural development

About 80% of the population live from agriculture, which represents about 30% of GDP. The Permanent Secretary for Agriculture, Mr Khoza, described the main aim here as "to modernize the rural sector by getting the traditional farmers involved in marketing products and producing surplus, so as to raise the standard of living and make it possible to save". This concept of modernization is reflected in the Rural Development Area (RDA) programme.

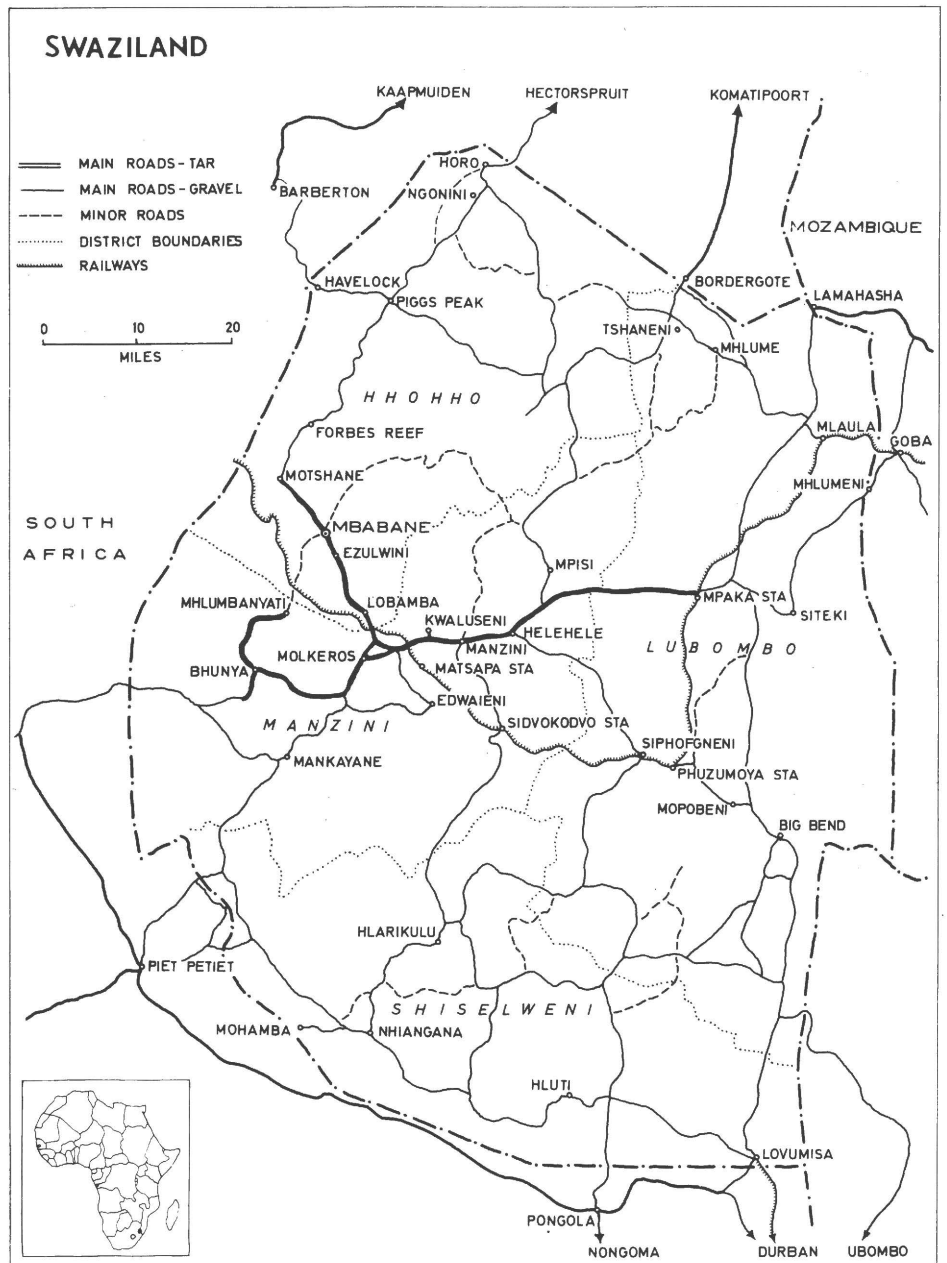
One of the first aims of the RDAs, Mr Khoza explained, is to ensure that every Swazi family gets a 7-10 ha smallholding (taking account of the 2.9% population growth rate and the problem of the transfer of conceded and freehold lands). The problem of land ownership, a dismal heritage from the colonial period, has had a direct effect on the concept of RDAs.

On independence, only about 40% of the territory was under Swazi control. The Swazi Nation now owns 60-65% and should control 80% by 1983. The land that has been bought back — mainly with British capital aid — needed to be developed, hence the choice of integrated rural development.

Six RDAs were already operational in October 1978 and another three or four due to get under way by the end of the year. The general aim is to have 14 integrated rural development areas, covering some 60% of the territory, by 1983. The Swazi government contributes some 35% of the RDA budget and the rest comes from foreign sources (the USA, the UK, the IBRD, the ADB, Canada and the EEC).

Increasing the country's own resources

As Mr Khoza sees it, the modernization of subsistence farming will mean



By agricultural modernization Swaziland hopes to feed itself



greater self-reliance. Cash crops, such as cotton and tobacco, can be extended and more attention can be paid to the condition of livestock and marketing of meat. All these measures should push up the farmers' income.

The RDAs will also enable Swaziland to produce enough maize, the staple food, of its own. "Our present situation is intolerable as we only produce about one third of the maize we need and depend on imports for the other two thirds.

"We now aim to produce enough to feed our population and to have a surplus to build up our reserves and boost exports", Mr Khoza said.

A sound financial situation

Agriculture is behind Swaziland's industrial expansion. The on-the-spot processing of agricultural products, particularly sugar cane and timber, means that industry accounts for between 15% and 20% of GDP. Mining (dwindling iron ore reserves, asbestos, coal, etc.) accounts for 7% of GDP.

This industrial progress, based on free enterprise, has created a certain amount of wealth. In 1975, the World Bank put per capita GNP at US\$ 440; but, as finance minister Robert P. Stephens pointed out, "about 80% of this wealth is in the hands of 20% of the population, which is one more reason for thinking that the majority of the people are in fact less developed".

Redistribution is difficult, but the government is taking an increasingly active part in industrial development. Meanwhile, funding organizations see Swaziland as financially sound and a "good risk".

This is due, Mr Stephens said, to a favourable trade balance, as "the income from our main exports is good and the tourist trade further augments our earnings".

Swaziland exports about 80% of its production and imports 92% of its requirements.

Countries in the South African Customs Union share their joint income from customs duties and Swaziland currently gets between 17% and 23% of this, providing 60% of its total revenue. Swaziland also belongs to the Rand Monetary Area, but, Mr Stephens said, it "does not intend staying in forever".

The Monetary Authority of Swaziland, with its own currency, was created in 1974 and once the country has obtained the experience it needs in this

field, the Authority will become a fully-fledged central bank.

Cooperation with the EEC

Mr Stephens is in charge of implementing the EEC indicative programme and feels that, so far, cooperation with the EEC has been very good.

"We are pleased with the aid the EEC has given us, particularly in the third sugar refinery, but we would have liked to have more. We have found the methods and procedures unusual, on occasion, but we are gradually getting used to each other". He thinks Stabex

is very useful for Swaziland, despite the limited number of export products it covers.

Swaziland has successfully applied for compensation after a drop in the earnings from exports of iron ore but the minister would like to see the range of products extended to include cotton, processed wood, citrus fruit and so on.

So, in conclusion, it emerges that the EEC (via the EDF, the EIB and the CID) has given assistance to all the main sectors of the Swazi economy and that the country has put the trade provisions of the Lomé Convention to particular advantage. □ R.D.B.

"Swaziland's survival will depend upon development"

Sishayi Nxumalo, King Sobhuza's special envoy for foreign affairs

The recent elections, held on 27 October, have brought "no startling changes in policy or in the governmental machinery" although they have certainly brought some new faces into the government, in the view of Mr Sishayi Nxumalo, who has just left the job he has held as industry, tourism and mines minister since independence 10 years ago. His new job first of all involves operating at the political, inter-governmental level as royal envoy and secondly, but not less importantly, being managing director of the Tibiyo Fund(1).

This all-enveloping holding company, in which every Swazi is a shareholder although without receiving dividends, has a varying stake in all the main sectors of Swazi industry. However, the Tibiyo Fund is more than just the "main economic arm of the Swazi Nation", contributing as it does to maintaining the traditional Swazi laws and customs. It also plays a major role in bringing land under freehold or concession back to the Swazi Nation, having bought back more than 100 000 acres at over 2 million E(2) in recent years.

Mr Nxumalo, who negotiated and signed the Lomé Convention for his country, is keenly aware of the need for economic growth to preserve Swaziland's independence and "survival as a non-racial, non-communist state". As he told the *Courier*, Lomé has offered a chance of diversifying Swaziland's access to foreign capital and investment, given new impetus to Swaziland's industrialization and has essentially offered the country trade opportunities, first of all through the sugar protocol.

"Sugar serves the Nation"

► *Sugar plays a key role in Swaziland's economy, being the principal export earner. How do you view future developments in this sector, considering the generally bad world market trends?*

— Sugar is Swaziland's biggest industry, employing some 10 000 workers at present, representing about

(1) Tibiyo Taka Ngwane: "Minerals of Swaziland", i.e. figuratively, the essence of the Swazi Nation.

(2) Emalangeni, plural for the national currency, the lilangeni: 1 EUA = L 1,111 as of 25.9.78.

14% of the total wage-earning population. Allowing for dependents, probably between 60-70000 people directly or indirectly depend on the sugar industry today. When our third sugar mill comes into full production these figures will have increased respectively to 13000 workers, 17 per cent of the total labour force and probably 90000 people dependent on sugar.

Swaziland's expansion programme was initiated five years ago. First, there is an expansion of existing areas, now nearing completion and amounting to an extra 67000 tonnes per annum. Second, a third sugar mill is being constructed in which the government and the Nation are major shareholders and in which a number of international institutions such as the European Investment Bank and the DEG(1) of West Germany are participating with either equity or loan capital. Construction is well under way and the mill is expected to start production in 1980, rising to full production of some 120000 tonnes by 1982.

Over 90% of Swaziland's current production is exported. Sugar is Swaziland's top export and has been for

many years. Even with the present low world prices, sugar and molasses account for about 35% of Swaziland's total exports by value. In 1975, when sugar prices were very high, it was over 54%. When the expansion programme is completed and the third mill is in full production, the sugar industry, assuming average world prices, will probably again account for about 55% of total exports.

We are naturally concerned at the present low level of world prices, which must be below the cost of almost every producer.

Swaziland is fortunate in being one of the most efficient sugar producers. We have a 100% irrigated industry and are therefore not subject to climatic problems, and, with our above-average yields and good productivity, we have below-average costs.

Nonetheless, we had hoped that by now the new International Sugar Agreement would have brought prices within the target range. Unfortunately the delay in US ratification has created uncertainty in the market. This has also been coupled with far higher exports to the world market by the EEC than ever before.

In such circumstances, why is Swaziland building a third sugar mill? As we foresee it, the present low prices are a temporary phase. The USA will ratify the Agreement, almost certainly not this year, but early next year(2). The EEC cannot indefinitely remain out of an International Sugar Agreement, exporting to the world market and thereby hurting the developing sugar exporters. The EEC must join the Agreement and help bring about a proper balance between supply and demand and satisfactory price levels in the free market. In this connection we welcome the exploratory discussions between the EEC and the International Sugar Organization.

So, although prices are low at the moment and although it may be a year or more before they rise to satisfactory levels, we could be back in a period of sugar shortage by the time our third mill comes into full production in 1982. The beet crops of Europe are notoriously volatile. Although the EEC beet producers are currently criticizing expansion in developing countries like Swaziland, by 1982 the European hou-

(1) Deutsche Entwicklungsgesellschaft.
(2) 1979.



Sishayi Nxumalo signing the Lomé Convention for Swaziland

sewife may be only too glad that Swaziland did build its third mill. However, for Swaziland the prime importance of the third mill is that it will provide employment for a lot of people and opportunities for job advancement to higher levels, which will be very important for the prosperity and stability of the country.

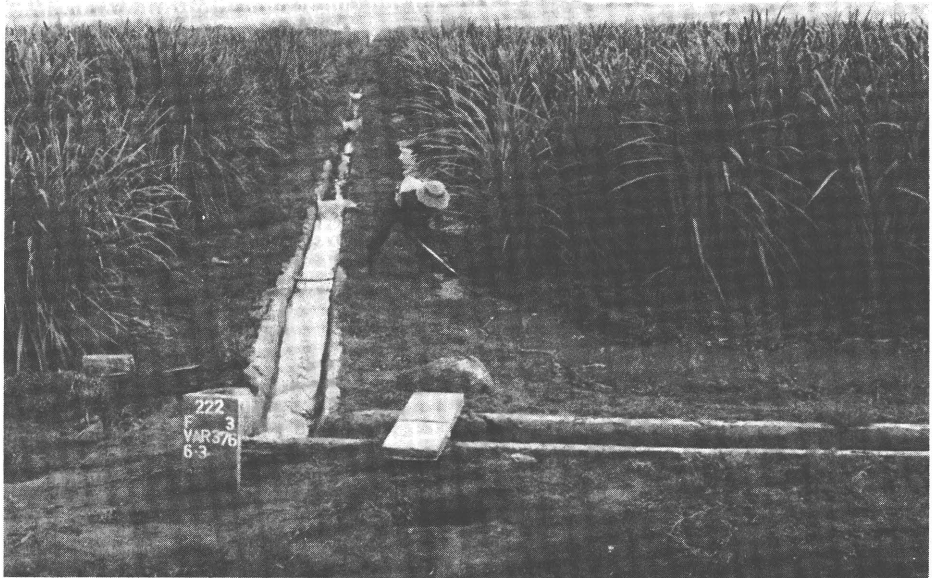
A Swazi view of the sugar "case"...

► Under the trade arrangements of the Lomé Convention, Swaziland has a 116 400 ton sugar quota. What importance do you attach to this element of EEC-Swaziland cooperation?

— The sugar quota Swaziland has under the Lomé Convention is vital. Without an assured outlet at a remunerative price for a major portion of its exports, the sugar industry, efficient though it is, would not be viable. The stability of the Swaziland sugar industry was based on the long-term negotiated price quota that Swaziland enjoyed under the Commonwealth Sugar Agreement (CSA). When Britain entered the EEC this was replaced by an assured outlet for an agreed quantity of 120 000 tonnes (116 400 MTWV) of sugar in Europe. Once established, sugar cane is a 7-8 year cycle crop and therefore sugar is a long-term industry. It needs to have assurance of long-term outlets. This is why the Lomé sugar protocol's assurance of an outlet "indefinitely" was so important.

There is at the moment a fierce propaganda campaign being mounted by the EEC beet producers against the sugar protocol, with countries agitating for a reduction in imports from ACP countries in face of Europe's surplus. Swaziland is naturally concerned at this sort of agitation. We have taken nothing away from the EEC beet producers. The sugar protocol quantities were part of the 1.4 million tons of former CSA imports that had to be accommodated as one of the conditions of Britain's entry into the EEC. The EEC beet producers have no real claim to it. Anyway, they benefited from the fact that the Australian quota of some 375 000 tons under the CSA was terminated and that gap in the British market became immediately available to them.

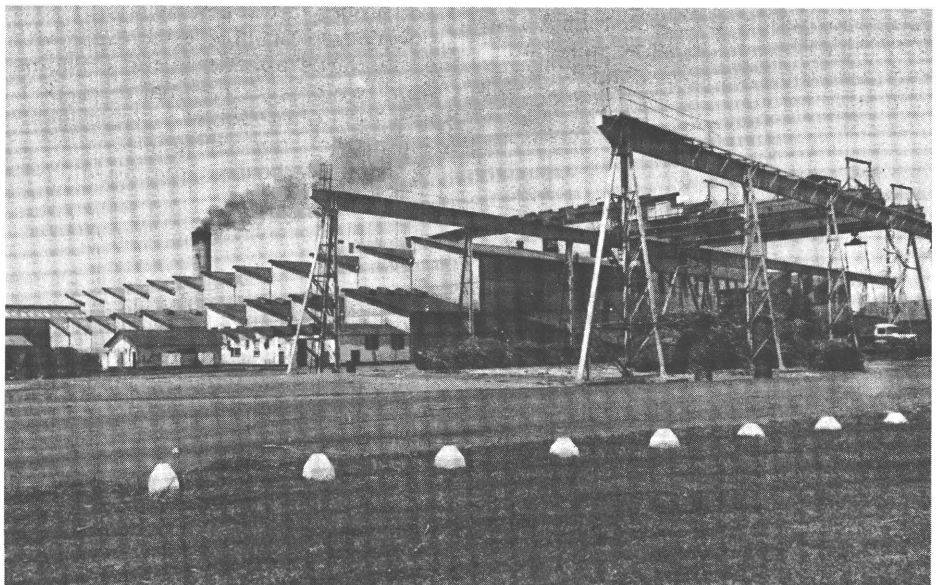
The present EEC surplus has come about as a result of over-expansion during the sugar shortage in 1974-1975. It is up to Europe, therefore, to remedy it by reducing production to more reasonable levels. If you study the production statistics of Europe you will see that beet crops can fluctuate widely. The former CSA developing country



All of Swaziland's sugar production depends on irrigation



Sugar cane is cut by hand (above) or by machine and then sent to refineries like this one at Mhlume (below)



Swazi businessmen and the EEC

Meat

The Swaziland Meat Corporation (in which the state has a 50% stake) provides work for 550 people, but, SMC director J. Fourie said, "it would not be a viable proposition without the access to the European market which the 3 086 t quota provides". This "quota" is a special arrangement, fixed annually, under which the EEC grants a 90% reduction on import duties. Swaziland has some 600 000 medium-quality livestock yielding fairly lean meat. Worm infestation and a certain amount of overcropping have had their effect on the quality of the cattle, but there are now schemes to remedy this. Modernization in this sector depends partly on the EEC "quota", as the price paid to the farmer enables him to market his cattle at worthwhile prices and means that improvements can be made throughout the production process. Mr Fourie explained that, thanks to the EEC quota, the farmer gets E 200 per animal (of approximately 185 kg) instead of the E 140 he would get if the same meat were sold elsewhere (on the South African market there would be a loss of E 14 - E 15 per head compared with the open market). The principle of free enterprise has also led to a change in outlets. Before Lomé, the main markets for Swazi meat were Zambia and the UK, but since Lomé, the German market, where lean meat is popular, has gone into first place. The long-term prospects are good, Mr Fourie thinks. "The European meat mountain is dwindling fast and there could well be a world meat shortage in years to come." Swaziland's meat quota, leaving aside one or two problems with the actual machinery and the granting of import licences in Europe, is the key factor which will enable the whole sector to modernize.

Sugar

Representatives of the sugar industry are unanimous in emphasizing the value of the sugar protocol to Swaziland, which has a guaranteed quota of 116 400 t. Bernard Mallet, general director of the Swaziland Sugar Association, the sugar cane planters' and refiners' association, said, "in 1975, one tonne of sugar sold on the European market under the sugar protocol fetched twice the price on the free market". The ex-refinery price in 1977 was about E 320 per tonne for the "ACP sugar" as against E 185 per tonne on the free market, and the drop in world prices made the 1978 figures E 330 per t ACP as against E 150 per t on the free market. "As things stand, guaranteed access for 50-60% of our total sugar exports to a market such as this is vital for Swazi sugar producers", said Michael Fletcher, chairman of Ubomo Ranches, one of the two existing sugar refineries, and the Swaziland Sugar Association's representative at the international sugar negotiations. World sugar prices are expected to return to a profitable level in the end and the country's good levels of production, combined with the quality of the product (illustrated by the fact that Coca Cola made its first investment in sugar production outside the USA in Swaziland) will, whatever happens, provide a regular supply for the European market, given the contractual nature of the protocol. Generally speaking, the machinery of the sugar protocol is more favourable for Swazi producers than the machinery of the free market, although there is no guarantee that the strong and cyclical nature of the fluctuations in sugar prices will not reverse this situation. □

exporters have a long history of consistent performance. We feel that it is essential that Europe should not only maintain the existing sugar trade with the ACP countries but be prepared to increase it as consumption rises in Europe, both in order to encourage trade between the EEC and the ACP countries that provide a market for European goods, and also to put the EEC in a position to take more later from a country like Swaziland, with its third mill.

Expanding the forestry-based industries

► *Swaziland has the largest man-made forest on the African continent. Could you outline this sector's contribution to the economy and its prospects?*

— Our forestry-based industries consist of six sawmills, a pole plant and a woodpulp mill. One of the sawmills also operates a veneer/blockboard plant. They employ about 3900 people, and their combined turnover in

1976 was about E 46 million. Their contribution to gross domestic product is approximately 4.5%. The share of total exports was 28% in 1976.

Three of the six sawmills are located in the Piggs Peak area and account for 86% of the sawmill capacity in terms of log input. The average recovery of sawn timber in the sawmills is 41%. A recovery rate of 48% is possible with the standards applied in the Customs Union, which is the major market. Some 10% of production is sold locally—industrial and structural timber, and, to a limited extent, mining timber.

The input material is pine, eucalyptus and wattle, which mainly comes from our own plantations.

Nearly all the output from the veneer/blockboard plant is sold to the other Southern African Customs Union markets. Builders, fence, telephone and electric poles are produced by pressure impregnation and sold within the customs union area.

The woodpulp mill employs some 2 500 people in its production of unbleached woodpulp. In 1976 turnover was in the region of E 39 million.

The timber input is mainly from own plantations in the Usutu Forest. The woodpulp is exported world-wide, major markets being the EEC (approx. 26%), South Korea and Japan.

Due to the economic recession in the customs union area, the major market, the sawmilling industry is experiencing difficulties.

Efforts are being made to open up alternative markets outside. The present depression in world market prices for woodpulp is being felt by the pulp mill.

In accordance with government policy to intensify processing of local raw materials, timber being a replenishable one, emphasis is being placed on the further growth of this industry.

The mining sector

► *The mining sector is undergoing significant changes with the end of high-grade iron ore mining. What prospects are left for the future development of mining based on the low-grade iron ore deposits, or other minerals such as asbestos, coal and kaolin?*

— Depending on technical as well as economic considerations, the prospects are good for the future development of mining in Swaziland. The mining sector contributes about 16% to our country's gross export earnings, and obviously I would like to see this amount increased. It is intended that the loss of receipts from the export of the high-grade iron ore, which, incidentally, should end in 1980, will quickly be made good by the development of our high quality coal deposits, for which we already have a number of markets, including member countries of the EEC.

I am aware that any new mining project, or extension of an existing mine, requires very careful analysis. In this respect I am concerned not only with the financial results but also with the maximum utilization of the reserves of each mineral, provision of full employment and the rehabilitation of the mined-out area.

In this respect I am indeed grateful that the EEC should see its way to helping us not only in looking at our coal deposits, but also with the development of our lower-grade iron depos-

its by financing studies on the mining and beneficiation of the iron as part of a joint integrated regional project with Kenya. As my geologists tell me that Swaziland has reserves of several hundred million tonnes of coal and iron ore, these studies could be most rewarding. In them we shall be looking at a variety of ways to produce iron and steel, making the best use of our coal as well as iron ore resources.

Our asbestos is obtained from the Havelock (Bulembu) Mine in north-west Swaziland, and the product is considered to be of very high quality. This mine does have a limited life, but it can be substantially increased by mining reserves from adjacent areas where reserves have been discovered.

Various other minerals, such as kaolin, tin and gold, have been mined in Swaziland, and there is a small tin-mining venture. Needless to say, the country welcomes companies who wish to prospect for these and any other minerals. I firmly believe that Swaziland will rely on the development and processing of its mineral wealth for many more years as a means of diversifying the country's economy and providing

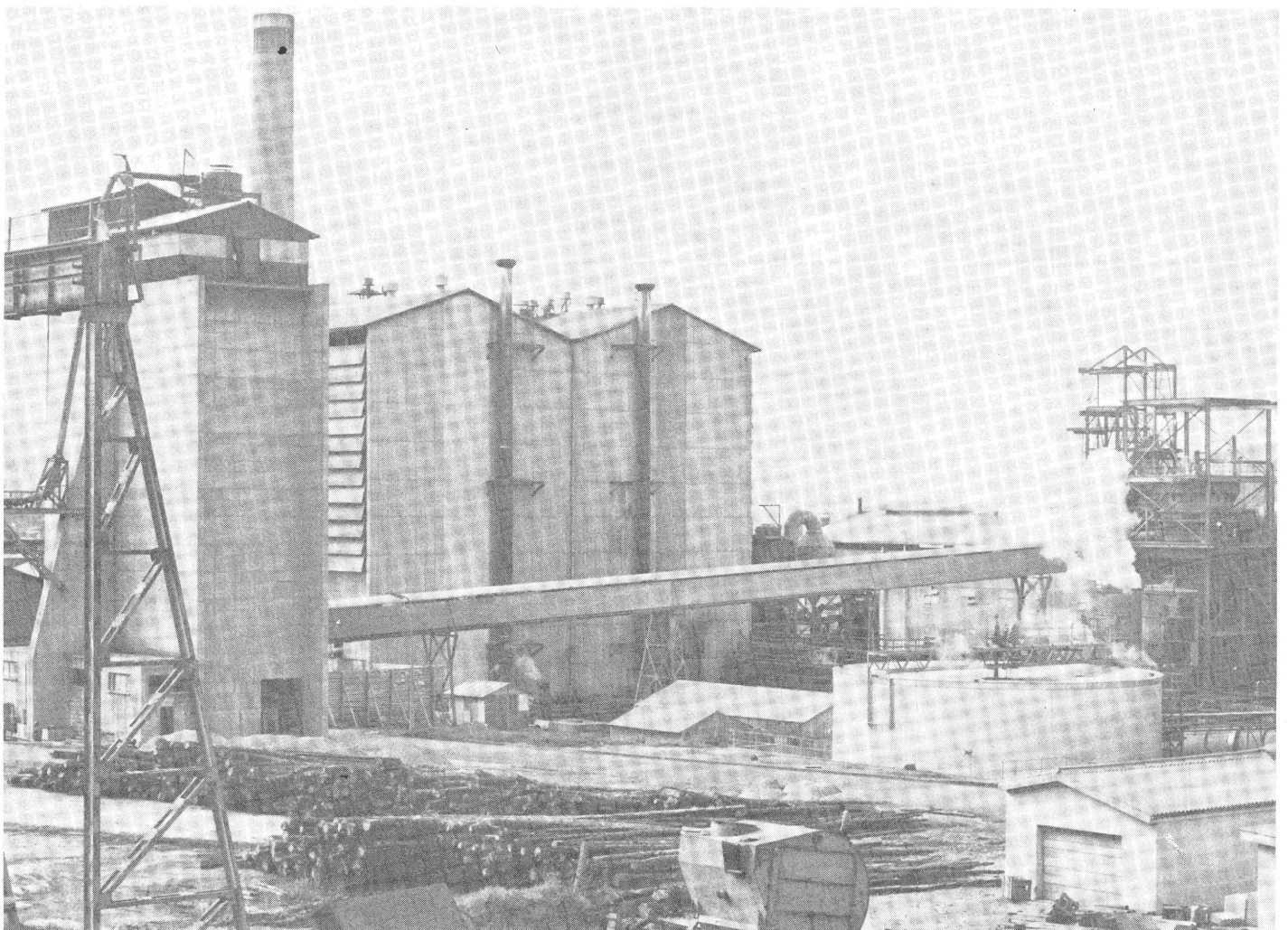
new employment.

► *In relation to this, what infrastructure projects might be undertaken to ensure a regular export outlet for these mining products as well as other export commodities?*

— Swaziland already has a well-established export outlet for its mining products via Maputo, through which all iron ore and coal exports pass. Asbestos is mainly handled through Durban harbour. Swaziland is now completing a railway link to connect up the existing line with the South African railway at Lavumisa on our southern border, and this should be ready at the end of this month(1).

With these two export lines in operation, Swaziland will have direct rail access to three major harbours, those of Maputo, Richards Bay and Durban, and should therefore find no difficulty in moving its export commodities. I foresee the need to establish the correct handling facilities for our exports at these harbours, and in particular it will be necessary to ensure that

(1) October 1978.



The kraft woodpulp factory at Usutu

With the largest planted forest in Africa, Swaziland's wood industry is of growing importance

adequate coal handling facilities are provided at Maputo, where most of our exports will continue to be directed.

Tapping the potential of tourism

► *Swaziland already gets significant revenues from tourism. Has it reached its maximum?*

— The tourism industry in Swaziland is characterized by a good rate of growth—more than 20% p.a. in the first years after independence in 1968. The lower figures in the last two years are mainly due to restrictive measures applied in the neighbouring countries, which have been Swaziland's major source of tourists.

The figures for 1978 show that the trend downwards has stopped. It is

expected that at the end of 1978 about 105 000 tourists will have stayed in our hotels. The development of the revenues from tourism was parallel to the demand for accommodation.

The drop in the last two years was not only caused by the decline of tourist arrivals but also by the decreasing average length of stay. Due to the fact that nearly 100% of the hotel arrivals are those of foreigners (because of the size of the country, there is no domestic tourism) the turnover of the tourism industry represents foreign exchange. Constituting more than 6% of total export earnings, tourism is the fifth most important export product after sugar, woodpulp, asbestos and iron ore (1975). The development in the past shows that the tourism industry is far from reaching its maximum. On the contrary, the major part of the tourism potential is not yet tapped.

The government is aware of the importance of problems which have arisen as a result of past developments and has therefore set several objectives:

First of all, the tourism industry should be decentralized so as to better utilize the country's tourist attractions and to better distribute the benefits created by the industry.

We also have to develop high quality and authentic facilities to attract the types of tourists who will yield the greatest benefits for the country. Other objectives are the diversification of the sources of tourists (more from Europe, America, etc.), and the encouragement of the participation of nationals in the tourism industry. In relation to this, Swazi control of the development of the industry will be necessary to avoid any harmful socio-cultural effects the rapid development of tourism may have and to safeguard the country's capacity to absorb tourists.

To realize these objectives, projects (hotels, outdoor facilities, promotion, etc.) costing E 24 million are planned. With the realization of the projects it should be possible to receive at the end of the 3rd Development Plan in 1983 at least 130 000 to 140 000 tourists, staying three days on average and spending E 12 to 13 million.

"Bread and butter" education and training

► *How can greater Swazi involvement in the management of the modern industrial sector be encouraged?*

— Successful management of a modern industrial enterprise presupposes an in-depth appreciation of modern industrial management techniques and practices. On a long-term basis, the government envisages the inculcation of these techniques and practices to capable Swazis at the earliest possible opportunity—starting as early as the primary school stage. Consequently, no effort has been spared in reshaping the curricula of both our primary and secondary schools to be in line with national development objectives, one of which is to completely re-orient our educational system towards what we call "bread and butter" education and training, that is, education with a strong emphasis on the development of productive technical skills. We feel that on this basis we will achieve our aim of greater involvement of our people in the management of our modern industrial sector.

In the short term, relevant courses on management at institutions earmarked for this purpose are being made available to Swazi school-leavers. These are

EEC-Swaziland cooperation in figures (end 1978)

Indicative programme

	in million EUA		in million EUA
Projects committed		— University of Botswana and Swaziland	3.5
— Infrastructure for the 3rd sugar mill and estate	3.5	— Institute of development management (Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland)	0.2
— Rural development project (RDA)	2.5	Projects under study (indicative amounts)	
— Radio services development	0.99	First instalment:	
— Training, technical cooperation and studies (multi-annual training programme; studies, e.g. on the development of the railway network)	2	— Posts and telecommunications training programme (Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi and Swaziland)	1
— Self-help construction of small bridges	0.08	— Foot and mouth disease control (Mozambique and Swaziland)	0.5
Projects being drawn up		Second instalment:	
— Teacher training college (indicative amount)	± 2.5	— Railway training programme (Botswana, Mozambique and Swaziland)	2
Total indicative programme (including reserve)	12		

Industrial cooperation

— EIB loan for the 3rd sugar mill	10
— Interest rebate on this loan (on EDF resources)	1.626

Furthermore the CID has been consulted on a number of projects, e.g. a small oil refinery.

Regional cooperation

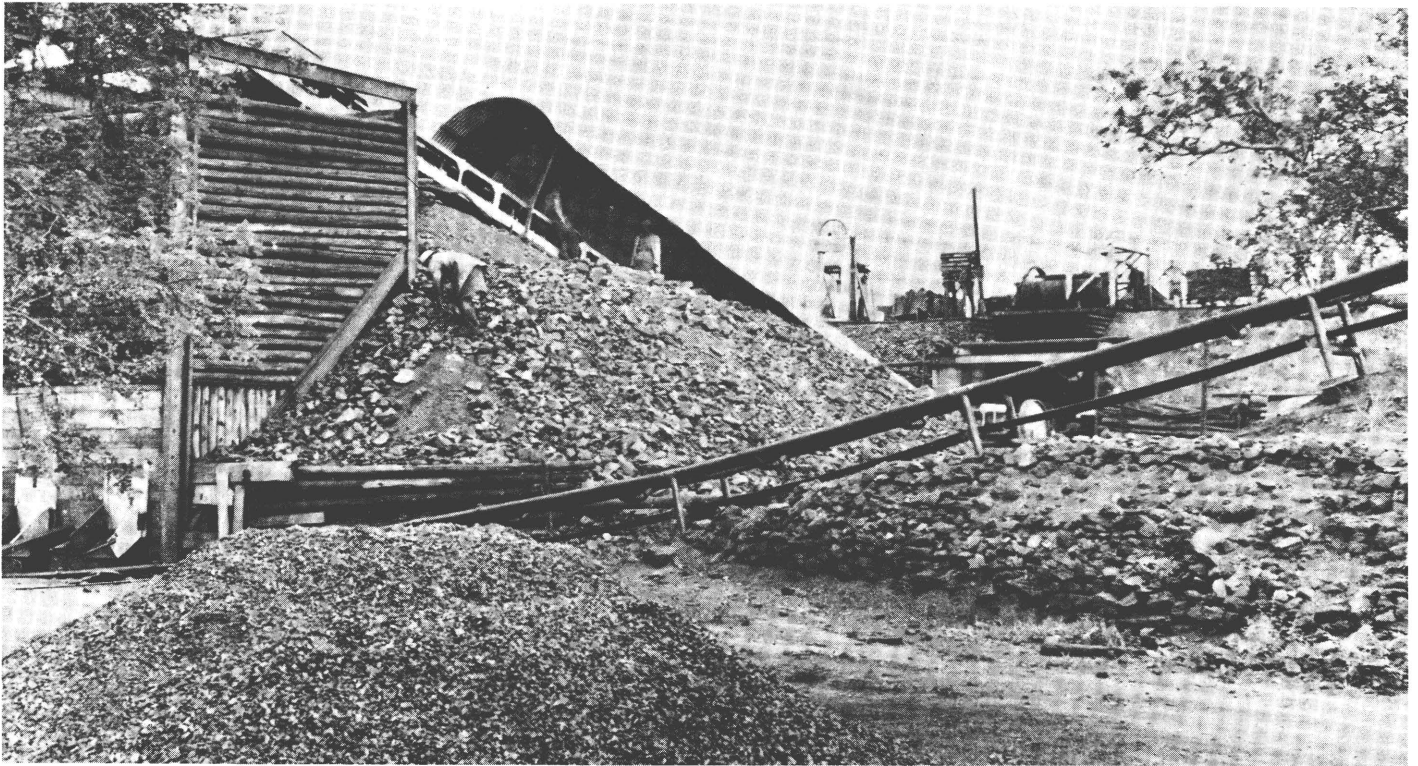
Projects committed (1st instalment)

Commercial cooperation

Swaziland has a 116 400 MTWV sugar quota. Furthermore, under a special annual arrangement, Swaziland is allowed to deliver to the European market 3086 tonnes of beef for which the EEC grants a 90% reduction on import duties.

Stabex

Swaziland has been granted 3 368 878 EUA under the second tranche of Stabex transfers for 1977 to cover the shortfall in its iron ore export receipts. □



The coal mine at Mpaka

“Swaziland has reserves of several hundred million tonnes of coal”

backed up by well-coordinated on-the-job training in industry itself. The ultimate success of these efforts depends, of course, to a great degree on the willingness of industry to participate in this exercise. A healthy working relationship between the government and the private industrial sector exists and cooperation has so far been quite good.

Industrial cooperation with the EEC

► *What could be done by the EIB and the CID, the EEC's principal industrial cooperation bodies, in the development of Swaziland's industry?*

— There are numerous ways in which the EEC industrial cooperation bodies can aid industrial development in Swaziland. Infrastructure: this is always a high capital expenditure area when starting a new industrial infrastructure. It would be helpful if financial collaboration with these bodies could be established when the above exercise is undertaken. Feasibility studies: on large and complicated projects, Swaziland relies heavily on foreign consultants for carrying out feasibility studies. The cost is usually prohibitive and local manpower for such studies is lacking. Assistance in this respect by these organizations would greatly enhance investment prospects in the country. Identification of markets: this is often the bottleneck in

Swaziland's export trade by small to medium investors. An organization geared to helping in this respect would be invaluable. As a side issue, the organization could also consider export financing in deserving cases. This service would also facilitate the promotion of new projects in the country.

These two institutions could also assist Swaziland in identifying joint venture partners for specific projects and, in the case of EIB by further investing directly in some of these projects.

“Reasonable” EEC-Swaziland relations so far

► *As a negotiator and signatory to the Lomé Convention on behalf of your country, how do you view overall EEC-Swaziland cooperation so far, and how should you like it to evolve under a subsequent convention, taking account also of your particular geo-political situation?*

— The EEC-Swaziland relations under the Lomé Convention, I think, have been working reasonably well so far. This is not to suggest by any means that there have not been problems, but the important thing is that these problems have been tackled and in most instances satisfactorily resolved. Just to mention a few of the more important ones: firstly, we had long delays in the

processing of our projects after the overall indicative programme had been agreed upon. These delays have been experienced by many other ACP states. In this regard I sincerely hope that the project review procedures and the decision-making machinery within the Commission will be improved in order to minimize the kind of delays we have experienced under the present Convention.

We have also had problems with the beef regime, mainly in respect of the tenure of the levy rebate arrangements. I am hopeful, nevertheless, that in the successor convention a permanent, mutually acceptable beef regime will be evolved. It is important to our industry that a long-term arrangement be made so that its orderly development can be assured.

Perhaps the most intractable and difficult problem facing us is that arising out of our geographical position in respect of EEC procurement regulations. I will not go into any detail on this, as it is a problem that has been and still is a subject of discussion with the Commission. I can only express a hope that the EEC will approach this subject with understanding and an appreciation that the circumstances giving rise to the problem are not of our own making. Geography and history have left us with limited, if any, options. □

Interview by
R.D.B.

TUVALU

Ten square miles of coral to join the ACP group

On 1 October 1978 another group of islands in the Pacific Ocean, Tuvalu, became independent. The new government, under Prime Minister Toalipi Lauti, has already asked for full membership of the ACP group and Tuvalu will then become the smallest ACP country (number 55). The main resources of this country are, as the Prime Minister remarked on Independence Day, "sunshine, wind and a portion of the Pacific Ocean".

The European Commission was represented at the independence celebrations by the Commission's Delegate for the Pacific, E. Stahn, who has sent the following "biography" of the new state.

Tuvalu (the national name of the former Ellice Islands, which was readopted after their separation from the Gilberts on 1 October 1975) comprises nine islands situated in the south-west Pacific between 5 and 11 degrees south, and 176 and 180 degrees west. The islands have a total area of approximately 10 square miles (26 km²) and

are scattered over half a million square miles (1.3 m km²) of the Pacific Ocean, forming a chain running north-west/south-east some 360 miles (570 km) in length.

The islands are low-lying atolls, rising scarcely more than 15 feet (4.6 metres) above sea level, composed of coral reefs built on the outer arc of the ridges formed by pressure from the Central Pacific against the ancient Australian land-mass. In five of the islands the reef encloses sizeable lagoons, but in the remainder the islands comprise only pinnacles of land rising sheer from the ocean bed. Only at Funafuti and Nukufetau can ships enter the lagoons; elsewhere there are no anchorages in anything but the calmest weather.

In 1892, after consultation with the inhabitants, the Ellice Islands were, with the Gilbert Islands, proclaimed a British Protectorate. The headquarters of the new protectorate was established at Tarawa in the Gilberts and district magistrates were assigned to the various islands. A simple code of law was drawn up, based on earlier mission legislation, and the traditional councils of old men were transformed into native courts to administer it. Each

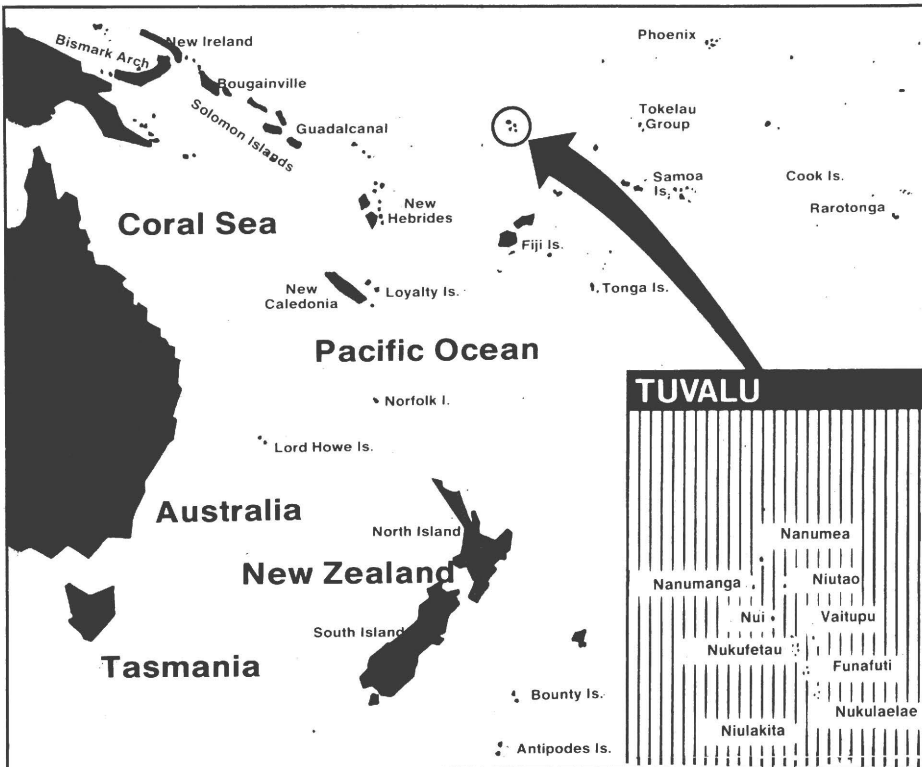
island in Tuvalu became a unit of government (local government) guided by a small number of European officers. The new administration heralded a period of peace and stability, and this continued after 1916, when, after consultations and at the wish of local governments, the protectorate became the Gilbert and Ellice Islands Colony.

Being Polynesian, the people of Tuvalu differ culturally, socially, linguistically and politically from the Micronesian Gilbert Islanders, having more in common in these respects with other Pacific Polynesian groups. In the 1970s these differences were reflected in a desire by the Ellice Islanders to separate from the Gilberts and make their own way to independence.

On 1 October 1975, the Ellice Islands were established legally as a separate colony called Tuvalu. Formal administrative separation was implemented on 1 January 1976.

In a census of the Gilbert and Ellice Islands in 1973, some 6 000 people were found to be living in Tuvalu's nine islands, with a further 2 000 Tuvaluans resident elsewhere in the former colony. It was estimated that 1 500 were overseas on census day, mainly working in the phosphate industry on Nauru or employed on overseas ships. The total number of Tuvaluans, therefore, is now about 10 000. Population density in the islands is very high, an average of 230 persons per square kilometre before Tuvalu's separation from the Gilberts, since when it has increased substantially as more than half of the Tuvaluans previously resident in the Gilbert Islands have returned home.

Tuvalu has a written constitution which establishes a "Westminster-style" parliamentary democracy, with Queen Elizabeth II as head of state represented by a Tuvaluan governor-general. Effective power is in the hands of the cabinet, consisting of the Prime Minister and four other ministers. The attorney general, legal adviser to the government, is not a member of the cabinet, but is required to attend. There are 12 members of parliament. The speaker and Prime Minister are elected from and by the MPs, and the other ministers are appointed by the governor-general on the advice of the Prime Minister. There are thus only six backbenchers, but they do not constitute an official opposition. After first reading bills must be deferred to the next session of parliament for consideration by island councils. However, much of the daily life of the people is governed more by tradition, family life and the church than by the formal procedures of government or island councils.





JIMMY CORNELL

Preparing turtles caught in the lagoon for the Independence Day feast

Life in Tuvalu is simple, but there are no evident signs of poverty, the people of the country maintaining a reasonable standard of living by intensive subsistence exploitation of the sea, reefs and atolls, and by sending their young men to work abroad. Remittances from the latter are the main source of income in the group, other income being derived from copra, the chief cash crop, and, on a small scale, from handicrafts marketed through cooperatives.

The economy

The country, however, requires substantial budgetary and development aid, and the primary objective in Tuvalu's progress up to independence has been to achieve, as far as possible, economic self-sufficiency.

Agriculture for commercial purposes is virtually non-existent on the islands. The physical factors of poor porous soil, coral sand and rock fragments are obstacles to the development of agriculture. The major part of all the islands is covered with coconut palms, which provide the islanders with an important source of food and drink, and, with copra, their only cash crop. Sea fishing is excellent although its exploitation is mainly on a subsistence level. There are plans to develop a fishing industry on a commercial scale, although its physical and economic impact may not be felt until the very early 1980s. The main food crops, apart from coconuts, are pulaka, a species of taro, pandanus fruit, bananas and some pawpaws.

Cooperative societies dominate the commercial life of the country, although there are a number of private enterprises now emerging on Funafuti.

Most people live on a subsistence basis. As of June 1976, there were 503 people in paid employment in Tuvalu, 44% of whom were in government

service. As of December 1977, some 255 Tuvaluans were employed by the Nauru Phosphate Corporation, with a smaller number employed in the Gilberts (including Ocean Island). Some 300 young men are employed in overseas ships and are intensely loyal to their families at home, remitting on average about 70% of their wages. The need to create new avenues of employment, both within and outside Tuvalu, is a major preoccupation of the government.

The only port is at Funafuti, the capital. Vessels up to 300 feet draught can enter the lagoon and anchor about three-quarters of a mile from the small boat jetty. Plans have been drawn up for the construction of a wharf which would allow vessels of up to 200 tons to lie alongside.

The only airfield is again at Funafuti. It has a grass strip unsuitable for jets and a weekly air service is provided.

The total actual revenue received by the government of Tuvalu in 1976 was 3.6 million Australian dollars. Roughly 26% of this sum was raised inside Tuvalu. In 1977 total revenue amounted to \$3.1 million, 29.6% of which was locally raised. The main sources of locally-raised revenue are philately, income tax, the housing loan scheme, import duty and fares and freights from the government vessel.

The development budgets since 1976 have been wholly financed by the British government, which also met the deficits in the recurrent budgets of the Tuvalu government.

In addition to British aid funds, Tuvalu is receiving aid from Australia, New Zealand, the United Nations Development Programme and the European Economic Community. Tuvalu is also an associate member of the UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific.

In 1978 there were 1500 children receiving primary education in eight schools and 250 children undergoing secondary courses at Motufoua Secondary School. There are no training institutions of any kind, teachers, technicians and trainees for government service being sent to suitable institutions in Fiji or the Gilberts.

Plans are under-way for the establishment of a marine training school to train young seamen for employment on overseas ships. This would ease the unemployment problem in Tuvalu. A community vocational training school is also being planned, to educate ex-primary school students in the skills necessary to lead a productive life at the village level.

The "inner pillars"

The traditional unit of government prior to contact with Western administration was the village meeting house (maneapa). Each island in the pre-contact period (with the West) was ruled by a paramount chief, or king, who owned and ruled his island. The village meeting house was where the king discussed policies for his island with the elders.

The eldest male of each clan in each island has a seat in the "inner pillars" of the maneapa. This is a privileged position which carries a lot of social status and the highest respect in the Tuvalan society.

With the acceptance of the British system of government, the role of the traditional chief in Tuvalu slowly gave way to formal governments. The privileges and rights that belonged to the chief were, with society's consent, handed over to the local pastor. The turtle's head, for instance, which traditionally was the chief's share, is now received only by the pastor. Locally the turtle's head (ulu fonu) symbolizes respect for the highest possible social rank and "ulu fonu" is now uttered only during "alofa" (presentation of gifts) to high-ranking dignitaries.

Traditionally, the islands are organized on a communal rather than a clan basis, which has long existed and still operates successfully. Young men's clubs and women's committees are standard features of everyday life. The former are concerned with sailing, fishing and local arts and crafts, while the latter pay special attention to child welfare and domestic cleanliness. This communal spirit accounts for the ready participation of rural people in island council schemes on a voluntary basis. The success of family planning work in Tuvalu has been partly due to the support of women's committees. □

GUYANA

The growth of a university

Education and training have become urgently needed in the ACP countries, and on a very wide scale. Higher and university-level education is one of the main weaknesses in these countries, each of which had to set about creating its own university on attaining independence.

The University of Guyana, founded in 1973, is one of the most interesting, as its vice-chancellor, Dennis Irvine, explains.

— The university was founded in 1963 and began its operations in temporary premises loaned from Queen's College, the foremost secondary school for boys in Georgetown. In 1969 we moved to our permanent site here at Turkeyen, which is about five miles from the centre of the capital. The 140-acre (56 ha) site was a gift from the Booker group of companies (original owners of Guyana's sugar plantations, but now nationalized) and the original nine buildings, which cost around G\$4(1), were financed by capital grants from the United Kingdom, Canadian and Guyana governments. We started off with 164 students in 1963. Now we have more than 1 800.

Of course, in the early days at Queen's our students were all part-time since the building was used as a school during the day. Indeed, our classes did not start until 5 o'clock in the evening when the schoolboys and teachers had gone home and our students had finished their day's work.

► *If your early students already had jobs and attended the university in the evening, this must have influenced the sort of courses you taught and perhaps your thinking about how the curriculum should develop in the future?*

— That is true. Since our early students already had jobs, they were mainly interested in learning intellectual skills of practical relevance to their work. That got us thinking about the practical relevance of what we taught

(1) 1 US\$ = 2.3 G\$.

and about the job market our students would face.

As a result, we have always kept closely in touch with the needs of the government's development strategy.

Today, nearly all our students are young people who came to us straight from school. Around 70% of them follow full-time courses in the faculties of arts, social studies and education while the remaining 30% are in the science and technology faculties.

Nevertheless, we make a point of maintaining special entrance qualifications designed to encourage older people, who have already started work, to study at the university.

We teach to sub-degree or diploma level as well as bachelor degree level. Last year somewhat more than half of our final year students were awarded degrees whilst the remaining 45% were awarded diplomas. We have, as yet, only a couple of postgraduate programmes but this is something we want to develop in the near future.

► *The University of Guyana is not part of the University of the West Indies, which has branches in Jamaica, Trinidad and Barbados; but are there any links between the two institutions?*

— Yes, there are fairly close cooperative links and these are growing and developing all the time. The design of our curriculum in certain areas is done in close consultation with our colleagues at UWI. We send students to their faculties of medicine and law as well as working together with them on joint research projects relevant to the Caribbean. Many of our visiting examiners are drawn from UWI.

► *In what ways do you see the University of Guyana developing over the next decade?*

— We have just completed work on our development plan for the next five years, during which we propose to move ahead strongly in several areas.

The first of these is science and technology. By Caribbean standards, Guyana is a big country, rich in natural resources like minerals, timber and fish. It is a country of great agricultural potential, capable of feeding not only the people of Guyana, but much of the population of CARICOM too.

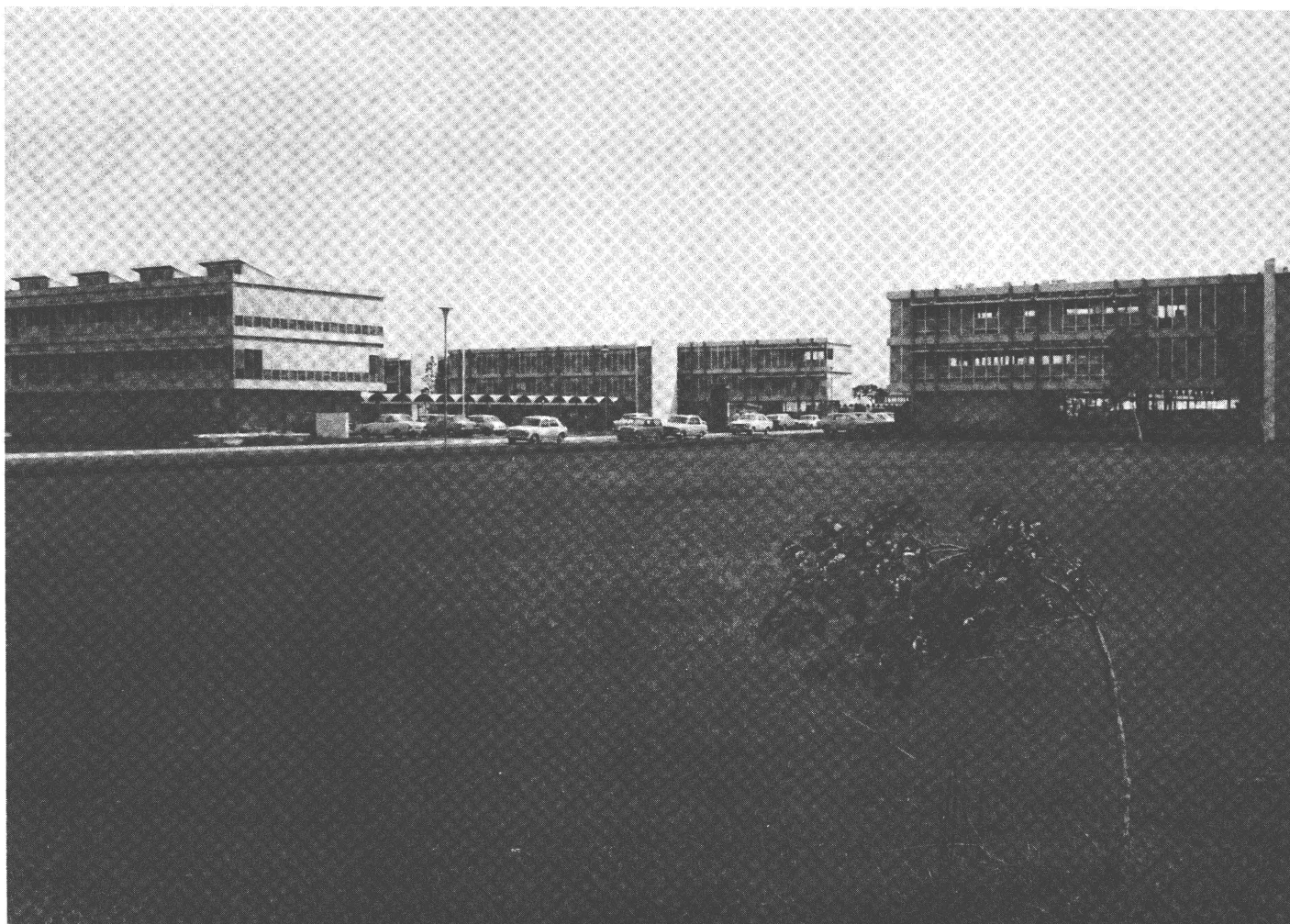
We want to develop and expand our faculties of science and technology in a way that is directly relevant to the full utilisation of our natural wealth. We have chosen five priority areas for development—minerals, food, timber, textiles and leather.

Our second area of development is post-graduate education. We propose to introduce a master's degree comprising both advanced course work and research. Our aim here is to develop people who can conceptualize and analyse problems before selecting and applying techniques suitable for their solution—in other words, to produce thinkers as well as simple practitioners of technique.

Next, we want to expand and develop our links with the wider community. We feel that the university's extra-mural department should take some of the expertise available here out into the community at large. Small farmers, for example, need to know something about elementary economics and accountancy if they are to be really efficient. In the social studies faculty at the university we know about inflation, money, commodity prices and all the rest of it and this information, in appropriate form, we want to place at the disposal of those in the community, like the small farmer, who can make good use of it.

Finally, we want to help develop the artistic potential of the nation. Towards this end, we intend to establish a creative arts faculty which will, we hope, help to bring out the talent of our people and give artists a place to practice their skill, thus contributing towards developing the cultural identity of our nation. The faculty will also have the role of taking the creative arts out from the university and into schools and other sections of the community.

► *These are ambitious objectives. Do you already have the necessary resources or is there a way in which foreign donors, perhaps the EDF, could help?*



The University of Guyana's new campus

— In some areas we must rely mainly upon ourselves. The establishment and development of our creative arts faculty, for example, is an area in which we need only a limited amount of outside help with material inputs.

Turning to the culture-free areas of science and technology, however, the situation is different.

Here there is a very considerable role for foreign donors, whose help would be both effective and most welcome. It costs twice as much to produce a scientist or technologist as an arts or social science graduate.

This is because laboratories require expensive equipment, for both teaching and research. We intend to increase substantially our output of scientists and technologists, but to do so we must increase our teaching capacity and expand our laboratories. We would like help to do this, especially with laboratory equipment.

On the manpower side, we are short of staff in the science and technology faculties, so there is a very considera-

ble need for additional teaching resources from abroad until a sufficient number of our own people have been trained to do the job.

At present we have a number of lecturers on secondment from Community countries but we need more if we are to develop as fast as we need to.

► *Do you see any scope for exchanges in the opposite direction?*

— Certainly I do. Many of our staff, and ultimately their students, would benefit from one or maybe two years abroad in university departments where their specialities have been developed to a high degree.

If we had more temporary staff from abroad to share the heavy teaching load during the period of expansion, we would be able to release some of our people more easily.

We have, however, gone some way already in developing exchanges with other universities. For example, we

have exchanged staff with the University of Leeds, in England, where applied sciences and mining technology have been developed to a very high degree relevant to the needs of the mining sector of the Guyana economy.

► *How are the university's present limited resources coping with the very considerable demand for education from Guyana's rapidly growing population?*

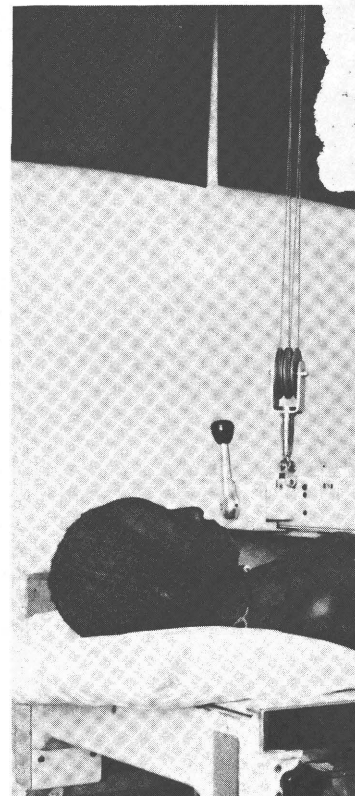
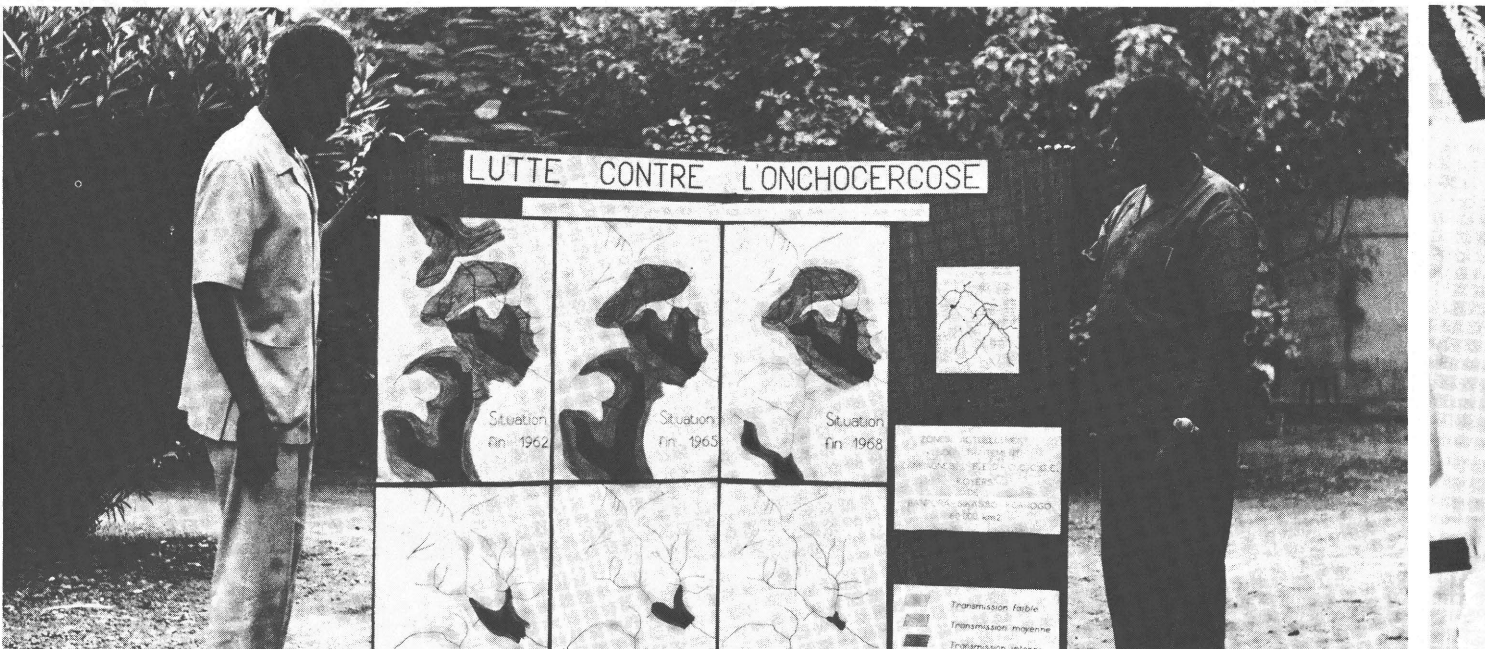
— Since our physical facilities are already used intensively during the day we are turning towards the reintroduction of evening courses of relatively short duration, leading to certificates and diplomas.

We plan also to introduce summer courses on a wider scale, placing greater emphasis on continuing education through seminars and short intensive courses.

There is, however, a limit to which existing resources can be used more intensively. We are close to that limit now. □

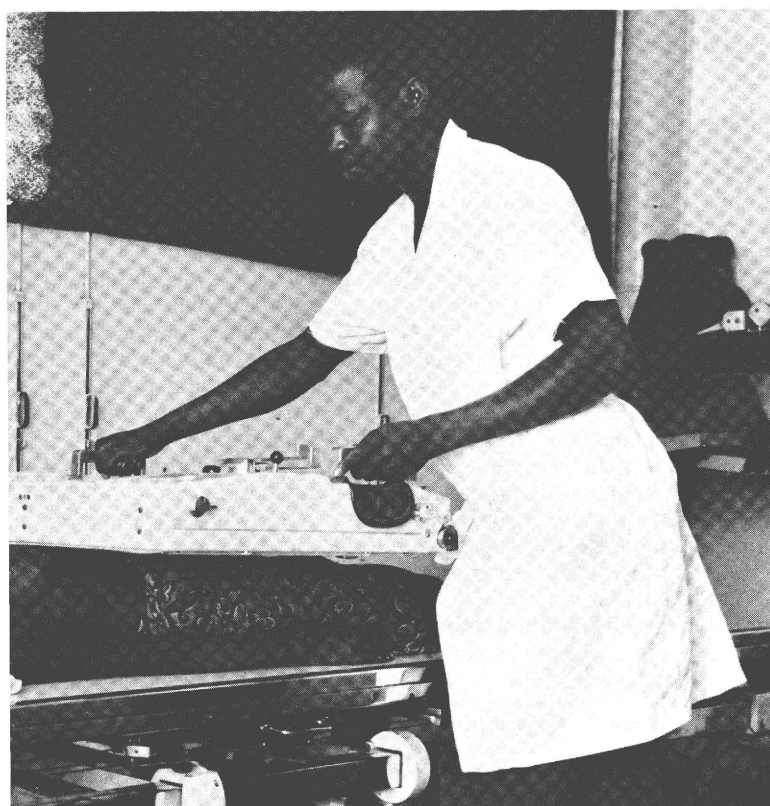
Health care in the ACP

Campaigns against river blindness and tuberculosis in Mali



countries

Health policies in some parts of the developing world have undergone radical changes in the past few years. A new concept of community-based health care has become popular, known as primary health care (PHC). In fact there is little new in the various facets of this policy, since they come from experience over



many decades. What is new is the way in which various, very elementary, health care methods are now being incorporated in health policy as an alternative to the high-technology, expensive and labour-intensive health systems found in the developed countries. In many urban centres in the developing world, large hospitals, sophisticated equipment and highly specialized staff and techniques, have a place, but such a service cannot be provided for the vast mass of people in the rural areas with the limited resources currently available.

A new approach to their needs is required based on simple preventative health education, basic training of health workers, appropriate and inexpensive technology, practical and easily maintained buildings. Such an approach must be part of a comprehensive rural development programme aimed at providing adequate food and clean water supplies, sanitation and housing improvements, appropriate population and education policies, an improved social position for women, and so on.

Health care cannot be separated from other policies. Teachers, agronomists, hydro-engineers, in fact all involved in rural development, have some role to play in preventing disease and raising health standards. Vital as the medical profession's role is, and science in the fight against disease, good health cannot be brought to the mass of people without community participation.

By a better use of limited resources (less than 5% of bilateral aid goes to health), primary health care aims to raise the health standards of the mass of the people. The position could be changed whereby today only 15% of the rural population lives within a 10 km walk of any form of medical care. The urban/rural imbalance whereby three quarters of the doctors serve only one quarter of the population, could be reduced. Doctors in the rural areas could be freed to deal with training, supervision and the cases that really need their skill, since experience has shown that middle-level health personnel and PHC workers can care for 90% of all illnesses.

The economic potential of the labour force could be dramatically improved by better health. Finally, and most important, the human misery caused by easily preventable sickness and disease would be reduced and a significant contribution could be made to improving the well-being of the majority of mankind. These are some of the objectives of primary health care which were discussed at the Alma Ata conference, jointly sponsored by UNICEF and WHO, in September 1978. If primary health care can be brought to developing rural communities, it would be little short of a social revolution, a revolution which Halfdan Mahler, director-general of WHO, defined as "essential health care made universally accessible to individuals and families in the community by means acceptable to them, through their full participation and at a cost the community and country can afford".

EDF PHOTO

International health policy in the Third World

by Dr Etienne BERTHET(*)

Thirty years and billions of dollars have been spent on development, but two thirds of the world's population still have no access to a health service and, the international organizations say, less than 20% of children in the Third World attend mother and child welfare centres.

In May 1973, the World Health Organization's 26th assembly in Geneva sounded the alarm, drawing the governments' attention to the fact that the populations of rich and poor countries alike were dissatisfied with the inadequacy of the health services.

Time has done nothing to lessen the disillusionment. On the contrary, the world-wide economic and monetary crisis that began in 1973 has considerably increased it.

In the rich countries, in spite of spectacular progress in medicine and ever-increasing spending on public health, the situation is no longer improving. Over the last decade, death rates in general have settled at around 10 per 1000 p.a. Expectation of life at birth (now 68 years for men, 75 for women and 70 overall) rose by 20 years between 1900 and 1950, by five years between 1950 and 1970, but stood still between 1970 and 1975.

But in the developing countries, the situation gives far greater cause for concern. Death rates for children under a year are 10 times what they are in the rich countries (150 p.a. in the former and only 15 in the latter per 1000 live births). And there is an even bigger difference in death rates in the 1-4 age group, those in the Third World being 30 times those in the rich countries (30 per 1000 p.a. as against 1 per 1000).

Why is this? Why, in spite of all the scientific and technical progress of the last 20 or 30 years, are health problems so difficult to solve? Why, in spite of unremitting efforts on the part of both governments and international organizations since the end of World War II, do health policies, as WHO puts it, provoke so much dissatisfaction among the populations of rich and poor countries alike?

One of the most important of the many reasons for this dissatisfaction is doubtless the way trends in international public health activities were shaped during the first UN development decade (1960-1970). There were two guiding principles. The first was that economic growth and higher GNP would automatically lead to a better standard of living, particularly for the poorer classes. But this proved wrong. Although growth in many countries was high, social inequalities were not levelled out, since most of the extra income went to the already comfortably off. The rich got richer and the poor got poorer.

The second principle was that if sophisticated techniques in everyday use in the rich countries were transferred to the poor countries, they would produce the same results. This



"Death rates for children under a year, in developing countries, are 10 times what they are in rich countries"

also proved false. In medicine, as in agricultural production, the new techniques failed to be as effective as anticipated as they were ill-suited to populations who were poorly prepared and instructed in their use.

This failure led WHO and UNICEF to recommend a new strategy. They decided on a change of policy whereby a drive would be made to improve health in the rural communities in which more than 80% of the population of the Third World lives. This new strategy is concerned with primary health care (PHC), i.e. providing the populations with easily accessible health services that are simple and effective as regards cost, techniques and organization. The aim is to provide each rural community with locally-recruited public health officers, who receive basic training and can, with regular supervision from members of the medical profession, administer first aid and ensure that the elementary rules of hygiene are adhered to. Unless this can be achieved, the present system, (whereby Western-type health services are set up and advanced techniques, only viable in well-equipped towns, are transferred to countries with no money or staff) will mean that whole generations will go on living and dying with none of the benefits of modern medicine(1).

(*) Honorary director-general of the International Children's Centre, secretary-general of the International Union for Health Education and chairman of the French chapter of *Medicus Mundi*, the international medical cooperation organization.

(1) A joint WHO/UNICEF study on how to meet fundamental public health requirements in the developing countries was published in 1975 (WHO, Geneva, 130 pages).

There are many reasons for the gulf between the vast possibilities of medical science and the inadequacies of its application. Four of them are of particular importance:

- The lack of qualified technical staff.
- The lack of money to cover the rising costs of medical treatment.
- The lack of coordination of the schemes which the various ministries run to improve the overall physical, mental and social health of the population.
- A lack of education and involvement on the part of individuals, families and communities in schemes run to promote and protect their health.

Public health policy in the countries of the Third World should be guided by three considerations:

- the new dimensions of the concept of health;
- the increasing responsibility which individuals, families and communities must take in respect of threats to their health;
- an integrated, interdisciplinary and multisectoral approach to public health problems.

The new dimensions of the concept of health

Finding a satisfactory scientific definition of health is not just a question of vocabulary, since the problem involves grappling with our still imperfect knowledge of a complex, multiform and ever-evolving reality. What complicates the definition of health and its boundaries is that there are economic and social components in addition to the biological and psychological ones.

Although we have all suffered or had experience of illness and know what it means, the problems start when we try to define health and say just where normal stops and pathological begins. The dictionary gives health as the absence of sickness or infirmity, which is true, just as it is true that wealth is the absence of poverty and peace the absence of war. For many people, in fact, being healthy means "feeling well", i.e. having nothing wrong and being able to work normally. But this static definition is inadequate today.

When WHO was set up in 1946, it defined good health as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being. But what is complete well-being? Does it not, in certain cases, mean the opposite of what we normally consider to be a good state of health? Are the jovial drunkard, the unrepentant smoker and the contented drug addict who derive their state of well-being from alcohol, tobacco or drugs healthy people? Perhaps we need to go beyond the notion of well-being and define health in much broader terms.

Health is balance and harmony of all the biological, psychological and social possibilities of the human being. Which means that man's fundamental emotional, nutritional, health, educational and social needs, which are qualitatively but not quantitatively the same the world over, must be satisfied. It also means that man must forever adapt, in an ever-questioning way, to his ever-changing environment.

In the poorest parts of the world, where economic and social life is paralyzed by epidemics, malnutrition and a hostile environment, biological life is the main problem and every effort will be made to combat this situation. In the richer areas of the world, on the other hand, where conditions are better and health depends more on family and social background than on natural surroundings, the aim will be to improve the quality of life, handle psycho-social problems and combat maladjustment.

At the level of the individual, health is a satisfying way of life, regular output and total harmony of the human being, to

which should be added the notions of family and community health. A child is not born an orphan and a man does not live alone on a desert island, which means that any health scheme must fit into everyday life and be based on sound knowledge of the living conditions, needs and hopes of the family and the community.

Health risks—growing responsibility on the part of the individual, the family and the community

For thousands of years, people have resignedly accepted sickness and death as a normal part of their existence. But education should make them aware that they have some responsibility in the matter, since accidents are often caused through ignorance or negligence or by inadequate government accident prevention policies.

In Africa, statistics presented at a UNICEF conference in Lomé (Togo) in 1972 showed that there were only three causes (malnutrition, contagious diseases and poor hygiene) for 90% of deaths among the under-fives and they could have been prevented by simple, easy-to-apply measures such as the introduction of nutritional education for mothers and vaccination of children, with the provision of drinking water supplies and waste disposal systems as a matter of priority.

Health education for individuals, families and communities has three main aims.

- People must be given the right information to lead a healthy life and to enjoy complete physical, mental and

Sophisticated hospital care is confined to the big towns (Benin)



PICOU — AFRIQUE PHOTO

social health. The individual's view of health and sickness depends on his level of perception, the information he has received and the beliefs of the community to which he belongs. The better the information, the easier it is to accept the advice of public health staff. Today, such information is all the more necessary as people are better-educated and want to know just what benefits they can derive from the recommended health measures.

- But there is no point in providing information if it is not followed up by a change in attitude and behaviour in all aspects of daily life. If health education is to be effective, it must uncover the motivations of individuals, families and communities and see how they can be changed. For example, health education should make it clear that drugs and medicines are only some of the things that go to improve health and that very often it is changing the life style or giving up harmful habits rather than taking pills and having injections that will effect a cure.

- Information and fresh motivation will only have a lasting effect if people use the health services provided for them. But the health services have to exist and an important function of health education is to convince governments that they must provide as much health coverage as possible for their peoples. This is a vital prerequisite for all economic and social development.

Health problems—an integrated, multidisciplinary and multisectoral approach

All the problems of health promotion and protection are complementary and interdependent.

The idea that man is dependent on medical treatment for his health has led to wholesale wastage of knowledge and effort. Only rarely are ailments that upset the life of the individual, the family or the community attributable to isolated causes and they tend to be due to a whole series of factors which combine and influence each other. So a reduction in infant mortality will not just be achieved by building health centres and hospitals. Education and family living conditions, the development of agriculture and industry, trading facilities and communications are at least as important.

It is the job of the doctor, the nurse and the midwife to practise good medicine, but good medicine is more than just a case of knowing the clinical and therapeutic aspects of illness. It also means knowing about the preventive, psychological, family, social, professional and economic aspects. Public health staff now have to do more than just cure illnesses. They have to prevent them as far as they can and do their best to promote health via health education.

It is the job of the teacher to teach children. But more than simple instruction is involved. There is a social aspect to the work which consists of shaping the child's personality and not just teaching him the three Rs and getting him through exams. The school must help form the man. It must, as Montaigne put it, teach the child to learn rather than fill his head with facts. To which we would add that the child must have sound physical and mental health that will give him the best chance when he enters the difficult world of adults.

It is the job of the economist to draw up development plans, but he should not lose sight of the fact that economic and social aspects are interdependent.

Primary health care in East Africa, where mobile units give instruction in hygiene and nutrition



AMREF

If health schemes are to be fully effective, they must not only provide a range of training for health staff. They must also train anyone whose functions involve them, directly or indirectly, in improving the living standards of the population.

It is only in practice, in the field, that the great theories can prove that they meet the genuine needs of the populations.

In the rural world, inertia has always been a major obstacle to development. It is only proper information and education on the practical problems of the everyday life of the village that will create fresh motivation and encourage the people to take an active part in what is being done to promote and protect their health.

All too often, the lion's share of aid to the developing countries goes to the urban centres, although 85% of the population live in scattered, isolated villages with poor communications and transport. Here is the priority sector for our activities.

National schemes should not lead us to forget the need to inform and stimulate village communities where, as has been said, many small achievements in many small places by many unimportant people can considerably increase the wellbeing of the population.

Outlook for the future

The coming years will be marked by the speed at which the world is developing, which means we must plan for the future by designing today's instructional schemes with tomorrow in mind. This is all the more difficult in that we have to work out what will be happening in 10, 20 or 30 years' time with the intellectual training we received 10, 20 or 30 years ago.

Although there must be no let-up in the fight against the age-old scourges of mankind (negligence in a vaccination programme is enough to create a fresh outbreak of a contagious disease), further problems will arise during the last quarter century between now and the year 2000. Ten of the most important of these are set out below.

— Development of the demographic situation. This problem, which will be posed differently in the various parts of the world, demands priority attention. There will be excessive population growth in some developing countries and limitation in certain industrialized countries which are beginning to give cause for concern among demographers and politicians.

— Faster scientific and technical progress in all areas of biology, psychology and sociology. This will force us to revise our ideas about our methods of approach to problems. The blocking of the natural selection machinery will push up the number of physically, mentally and socially maladjusted if stringent preventive measures are not taken. Progress with the techniques of keeping people alive will also mean that the vegetative life of some incurable invalids can be prolonged, with all the emotional, family and economic problems this involves.

— Longer lives. This will increase the number of old people and all the attendant medical, psychological, social and economic problems.

— A deterioration in the traditional family structures. This will be particularly marked among adolescents, since countries the world over have little or no reception infrastructure for these newcomers to the labour market.



EDF PHOTO

Some of the luckier ones who get proper maternity care

— Urbanization, industrialization and population movement. These, in view of the social tensions they involve, contribute to social maladjustment, particularly among the younger generations.

— The new dangers of environmental pollution affecting the atmosphere, water, soil and food. Of particular concern is the chemical and radio-active pollution which will put our genetic heritage at risk.

— Improved knowledge about the structure of living matter. This may lead the way to genetic engineering, with all the risks it involves.

— The emergence of new drugs capable of altering man's psychological make-up, behaviour and personality. These could be used as powerful therapeutic means or as dangerous poisons.

— The danger of self-medication. This exists in many countries where people can, as they see fit, absorb a whole series of drugs, the virtues of which are sung in commercial advertising.

— The rapid progress which will be made in the coming years in communications and the distribution of educational television (by satellite, for example). This will pose major ethical problems for countries which broadcast or receive.

Health schemes in the coming 10 or 20 years must both prepare man to adapt as well as he can to the world he will be living in and make everyone want to increase his own potential, since the problem is not just one of feeling at home in the world as it is, but of mastering and guiding its development as part of the search for the common good of the whole man and the whole of mankind. □ E.B.

Organizing the fight for better health—30 years of the WHO

by Halfdan MAHLER(*)

WHO sprang into life 30 years ago, shortly after the Second World War. Since then the world has changed; so have expectations for health care. The old medical approaches stand revealed today as inadequate, particularly for the needs of the many developing countries among WHO's member states. Health care has not escaped the contradictions that spurred many countries to demand a new international economic order. The sick, with the poor, have increased; and despite technological progress for the few, the footsteps of the health worker rarely sound on the overgrown paths leading to the dwellings of the neglected majority in the Third World.

The World Health Assembly, WHO's governing body, has forcefully indicated its desire to achieve a more equitable distribution of the world's health resources. Stressing the principles of self-reliance, international cooperation (as opposed to supranational technical assistance) and social relevance of health programmes, in 1975 the Assembly adopted the WHO target: "Health for All by the Year 2000". In response, WHO has undergone a radical change of emphasis to strengthen its role as a coordinating authority and to improve its capacity to organize technical cooperation and provide other services to governments.

Countries vary so much that it is impossible to construct a plan for health care that can be universally valid. However, the WHO "blueprint" for Health for All can be adapted to most contexts. For our blueprint is based on the principle of social justice: an acceptable level of health for all citizens, one that permits them to be socially and economically productive, must come before the fulfilment of special individual needs. Secondly, resource priorities have to be turned upside-down: for some time to come the maximum in money, equipment and staff must go to the rural population and the urban slums, and not to the urban elite.

To achieve an acceptable level of health for all, certain elements are essential whatever the circumstances: adequate food and housing, with protection of houses against insects and rodents; water adequate to permit cleanliness and safe drinking; suitable waste disposal; services which provide ante-natal, delivery and post-natal care, including family planning; infant and child care, including nutritional support; immunization against the major infectious diseases of childhood; prevention and control of locally endemic diseases; elementary care of all age groups for injury and diseases; and easy access to sound and useful information on prevailing health problems and the methods of preventing and controlling them.

(*) Director-general of WHO since 1973. He received his MD in 1948 from the University of Copenhagen, and in 1958 joined the WHO. He served in India for 10 years. In 1962 he returned to Geneva, and in 1970 became assistant director-general.



Halfdan Mahler
Director-general of WHO

A new and practical approach

We believe that these essentials can be provided through primary health care, a concept that has evolved over the years in the light of experience in basic health services in many countries. Primary health care is a practical approach to making essential health care universally accessible in an acceptable and affordable way, and with people's full participation. The form it takes is determined by social goals—improvement of the quality of life, maximum health benefits to the greatest number—that are attained by social means such as the acceptance of greater responsibility for health by communities and individuals.

Delivered by community health workers of various levels of skill, primary health care remains part of the broader health system, which is reorganized to support primary health care. The consequence for health policy is the preferential reallocation of resources to people at the social periphery in order to satisfy their needs first, since it is clear that overall improvements in national health depend on improving the health status of these people.

This approach and its practical implications have been debated recently at the International Conference on Primary

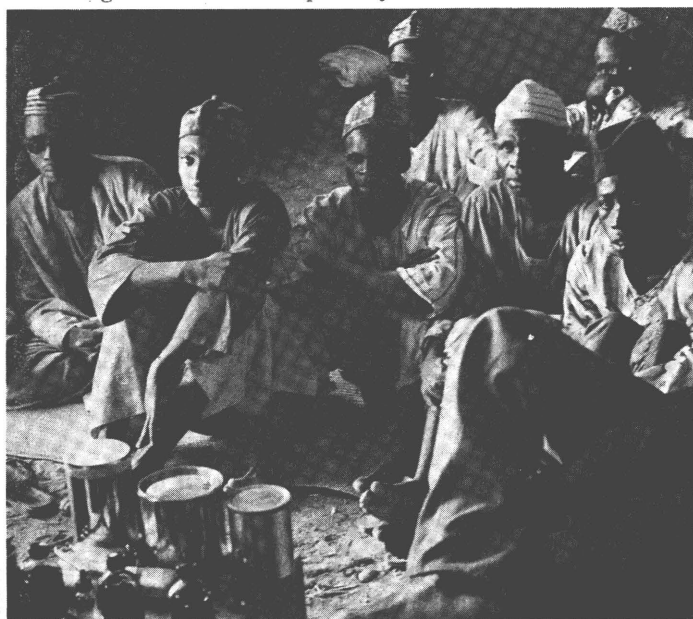


A community health post in Papua New Guinea—the basic unit for primary health care

Health Care held in Alma-Ata, USSR, in September 1978, under joint WHO/UNICEF sponsorship. For the developing countries in particular, primary health care has become a burning necessity, though it is valid for all situations. Its application in WHO's member states, I am convinced, would be half the battle in reaching our target.

Within the blueprint of Health for All, WHO also emphasises the communicable diseases that continue to be a major health hazard in the developing world. A major and expanding WHO programme is concerned with tropical disease research and training. Yet while we await new solutions, there is no doubt that better use can already be made of our traditional defences: clean water, safe waste disposal, vector control, hygiene, and such drugs and vaccines as are available now. Safe water, proper nutrition, environmental health and immunization of children are other major programme areas for WHO; again primary health care can be the vehicle of such measures.

Training health workers in primary health care in West Africa



R. DA SILVA WHO

That we do not apply all we know is true not only for the communicable diseases but in many fields of WHO's activity. Research must give us new knowledge but also teach us how to use better what knowledge we have, in the face of social and political, as well as technical limitations. An urgent need is technology for health appropriate to the situation in which it will be used. Closely linked to this are a new drug policy to counteract the phenomenon of "drug colonialism", and more rational training and use of appropriately selected categories of health workers attuned to social as well as technical requirements.

Health: a universal human right

"Health for All by the Year 2000" is a matter of social and political conviction that health is a universal human right. Governments must make an unequivocal commitment to introduce the health reforms that are essential if health development is to become a reality. Yet health is not a matter to be pursued in isolation. It is part of development in general: health is not everything, but without it the rest counts for little. This is why primary health care must be integrated with efforts in other development sectors: housing, communications, agriculture, education and the emancipation of women. Health, both a cause and an effect of development, can itself be used as a lever for further social and economic progress.

The modern emphasis on WHO as a unique international coordinating agency, the stress on national self-reliance, the shift from "assistance" to technical "cooperation" among developing countries—all these indicate that WHO's member states are taking squarely upon themselves responsibility for the wide range of health problems common to all countries of the world. Increased sharing of knowledge and experience and the exchange of technology and resources between developing as well as developed nations cannot fail to bring concrete dividends in the form of increased human well-being. Today WHO and its members stand on the threshold of a new era of challenge and promise in which the attainment of health by all is seen as an essential human goal. □ H.M.

Health priorities in the developing world

Dr T. Adeyo Lambo is deputy director-general of the World Health Organization in Geneva, and was formerly vice-chancellor and professor of psychiatry and neurology at the University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

While attending the 10th anniversary meeting in the Italian capital of the Club of Rome, Dr Lambo gave an interview to the *Courier* on how he saw the health priorities facing the developing world. Below are his principal observations.

Prevention: less expensive than cure and more to the community's advantage

"Medicine seems to have grown into technology. Medicine as we know it, from the point of view of historical development, is much more associated with curative medicine than preventive and community medicine, environmental hygiene, or the growth and development of children. So health has a much wider definition than medicine. I think prevention is the obligation of the medical profession.

"This is a subtle difference. If you take Africa, within the social, economic and ritualistic fabric they are completely aware of the need to ward off disease. I think the traditional aspect is so strong that one should not have any difficulty in convincing the modern politicians or policy-makers that prevention is less costly and much more to the advantage of the community as a whole. I think it is very important, too, to realise that it is also a political decision.

"I have just come back from China. What I saw there was staggering. Once a political decision has been made to do a particular job, there is a sort of ideological commitment on the part of the leaders right down to the grassroots level. Everywhere you go you will meet what they call the chairman of the revolutionary committee of that neighbourhood, who sees that the orders coming from above are carried out."

The wrong type of manpower

Dr Lambo felt that there was an intellectual problem in getting health services to the mass of the population. He blamed in particular traditional, highly scientific, medical training:

"If you take the English-speaking countries, they have inherited all the models of Great Britain and America.

"A young man who qualifies today in Chicago wants to have a degree from an institute of heart disease or from an institute of neurology or from an institute of cardiology and so forth. A young man who qualifies today in Dakar wants to transport wholesale the University of Sorbonne to Dakar, not realising that even those universities and institutes have



Dr Adeyo Lambo

become absolutely obsolete in terms of the needs of the people in the developing countries. This is a major obstacle: how can you get rid of your old reflexes, how can you get rid of the supremacy of the colonial past? I think the priority is getting health services, minimum care, to the 80 to 85% of people today still having no access to such facilities. This is the priority. We talk about manpower and say we need so many doctors by the end of the year 2000. But you need total mobilization of the population.

"The manpower problem is not the same thing as is talked about in Western culture. Even manpower planning in the richer countries is confused. In Belgium, for example, by the year 2000 you would have, on present projections, one doctor to every three people. What are you going to do with them? It takes a political decision to have more medical schools. Fine, you produce more doctors, but we don't need such people. So improved manpower yes, but of the effective type, of those who perform the job, and manpower which would cost less.

"The cost benefit analysis is extremely important. You can put a doctor in Nigeria at tremendous cost, but the health services will still be terrible. Most important is the mobilization of the masses, and also your ideological framework: you have got to have this otherwise you cannot motivate people."

The accent is on the primary health care approach

Dr Lambo did, however, feel that in the last 20 years attitudes to providing basic health facilities in the Third World had changed.

"Attitudes have changed a lot. This shows, for instance, in medical literature, even that coming from the United States. I was so surprised when I was in Washington about a year and a half ago with the dean of medicine in Harvard and Senator Kennedy. We said to the Senator: "Mr Senator, you must go and visit Cuba to see the miracle which has been performed in the rural areas. If you are talking about primary health care, this is primary health care at it's best." I think it is extremely important that the emphasis be laid on this aspect of medicine, but it is not the concern of only the traditional medical profession, it is the concern of the total community. The accent is on the primary health care approach. This is the only way out. Mass immunization, investment in general infrastructure, this is the only way to prevent diseases. This is the only way you can make sure you are not going to be building gigantic hospitals to look after the many diseases that will otherwise come. It is a matter of priority, which even leaders do not always appreciate.

"I will tell you a story that Dr Mahler(1) told me when he visited a country in Africa where the President asked, "You know they told me that in my country 80% of our children are not covered by immunization between the age of 1 to 5 and that X number died and they have just been telling me to make a contribution to the immunization programme of WHO, but my physician has been telling me that they needed a scanner; can you advise me?"

Getting the resources

"I think on the whole there is really no difficulty in getting the necessary resources", Dr Lambo said. "There is tremendous good will, in Europe, in America. Leaders in certain areas have begun to see this, and a lot of people are committed now, so there is no difficulty or restriction about money or funds. For example, we set up a big programme in WHO, not long ago, which we call the TDR, for tropical diseases prevention. When we set it up we had not a single penny. I had to beg the director-general to let me have \$ 50 000 to get us going. Only a few days ago the man in charge said to me that we will have spent \$ 99.5 million by the end of the year. We will be left with \$ 3.6 million and not be able to spend it. So, there is no difficulty at all in getting resources. There is also no difficulty in mobilizing people, not only in the developed countries but in developing countries.

"In other words, if we are talking globally and not thinking in terms of when you can mobilize in Lagos, or in Dakar, can you mobilize world opinion to irradiate certain things? I say you can do it tomorrow if you have the political will."

The technology is there

From the technical point of view, Dr Lambo thought that there were no major changes necessary in technology to handle health problems in the developing countries. "What we need now is appropriate technology. Technology that is not too highly sophisticated, that is relevant to the needs of the people. What is lacking is the spirit, the will, and there is a great deal of misconception in the best of people. I was talking to a Nobel prize winner, a tremendously committed man in many ways, but he belonged to the old generation and he said he was so sorry about what has happened to WHO. He thought it had killed medical research. He had spent all his life in a laboratory. He came to WHO to produce

(1) Director-general of WHO.

a vaccine and wanted politicians to leave him alone. Now in WHO we are talking about the politics of medicine, the politics of health."

Urban health care

Dr Lambo did not think the differences between rural and urban needs was that great. Equal emphasis should be laid on the urban areas. "I think the same tactics, the same strategies, the same philosophy are needed. If you think in terms of planning a big city, of high-rise or low-rise housing, in terms of provision of parks for children to play in, and how to get the spirit of community in an urban area, that is a different matter. But in terms of the provision of health facilities in an urban area, it is more or less the same thing. Over 200 million people are affected by tropical diseases alone and that is just in urban areas.

"It has been estimated that a child born in an African village or Indian village today carries not less than three parasites. So, right from childhood its growth and development are completely stunted. The same thing appeared in a big survey in an industrial plant near Abeokuta, Nigeria, at a cement factory. We discovered 92% of adults working there had at least two major parasites; 80% had not known a good night's sleep for nearly 10 years, and 64% were malnourished, they could not even lift. So when a man gets five minutes, and he is not being watched, of course, he drops off. He is lazy, unmotivated, because he is basically ill."

Getting through to people

The international structures are not adequate enough, in Dr Lambo's view, to get the basic health message through to the mass of the people in the Third World countries. "It is developing, but I think it needs greater mobilization of forces, by voluntary organizations, as we know them in the West, what we call the NGOs (non-governmental organizations), church participation, and all aspects of the community. This is the only way to get as quickly as possible to the people. You have to have their participation, but the infrastructure we have on the ground now is inadequate to cope with it. The international structure is also inadequate. What we can do is motivate national will. In fact, it is not necessary to generate a policy globally. Politically it is better for each national entity to define what it wants and this is what WHO is trying to do.

WHO's targets

"We have a target for the year 2000 to achieve health for all through political and professional mechanisms. Secondly, we also feel that by the next decade, we know enough basic medical science and so forth, if we put our minds to it we should be able to find a vaccine for malaria, or medicines if these type of vaccines are not found. The next 10 years are crucial for tropical diseases. Of course they are spending 50 times as much fighting cancer than in fighting the totality of tropical diseases, but the mere fact that we have now at least started to do something in the field of tropical diseases is encouraging. But irrespective of the amount of money invested in anything, you can still find a vaccine tomorrow because of the skill of the people who are working, say, on malaria. It is important to have funds but at a particular, critical level, it doesn't make any difference. It is the number of people you have committed to it, in their laboratories, hospitals, and in the community." □
R.D.B. and I.P.

Health education means behaviour change

by Norman SCOTNEY(*)

At least nine out of ten of the people reporting sick to the hospitals, health centres and dispensaries of the developing world, as well as to traditional practitioners, should never have become sick.

Had they the good fortune to live in one of the countries with comprehensive health care, free popular education and a reasonable standard of living, they would have been protected, or would know how to protect themselves, from the diseases that now bother them. Lastly, if, despite this, they became ill, they would know the importance of quickly seeking treatment to minimize the consequences of their sickness.

What can be done to reduce the huge unnecessary burden of sickness which handicaps so many individuals in the developing world, limiting their productive employment, their enjoyment of life and—too often—the duration of their lives? When services of the same level in education, housing, clothing, nutrition and basic livelihood can be provided and environmental protection maintained, then we know the sickness experience of the developing world will approach that of the wealthier countries. But, in the meantime, with so many competing demands upon the small resources of money, men, and materials that the poorer countries can command, is even a small breakthrough to health possible?

New thinking

Many of us working in health in the developing world believe that not only a small but a major breakthrough is possible. Moreover, increasingly we see signs of the mobilization of just those ideas and forces that can break the barriers currently standing between people and the healthier existence that, we all feel, should be theirs. But to move at a reasonable pace into this new era, the lessons implicit in the history of health development in the West have to be studied. The new thinking derived has then to be applied vigorously to the less developed countries, to accelerate their progress.

Lesson No 1 might be stated as follows:

We all fear sickness and want to be assured that there is skilled help available for us close by. Yet, in fact, the health we enjoy has been assured to us far more by "prevention" than by "treatment". An example: drains and safe water have everywhere made major and sometime dramatic improvements in people's lives, far greater than any drug or treatment, even antibiotics.

Prevention pays!

(*) Head of department of health behaviour and education, African Medical and Research Foundation, (AMREF), Nairobi, Kenya.

Lesson No 2

When we have found the preventive answer to a health problem, then we are confronted with a more demanding task; we have to devise the organizational machinery and mobilize the public support needed to bring that preventive capacity into operation. Jenner gave the answer to smallpox in 1778, but it has taken most of two hundred years to mobilise the resources required to eliminate this unnecessary human scourge. Incidentally, the cost of eliminating this disease has been computed at half the usual previous annual cost of treating it.

Prevention needs resources!

Lesson No 3

People's health depends far more upon what they do than upon the efforts of health service workers, however, numerous. In many countries of the developing world bilharzia is an increasingly severe and handicapping problem. If people continue to go into water that has become polluted by the cercaria—arising from urination or defecation into the streams by people suffering from this disease—then the numbers infected must continue to increase. If, on the other hand, people can learn not to infect their water, or learn to protect themselves from the water of streams and lakes already contaminated, elaborate and expensive drug treatment for bilharzia will be at an end.

Prevention depends upon what people themselves do!

Taken together these three lessons suggest that we must resolutely work at prevention, and do so initially by persuading those who have the power to divert resources to finance to this work and, lastly, that we must involve the people, the public, the consumers; the changed responses that they can make will represent the difference between progress and frustration.

The process of persuading people to change their responses to disease problems is called health education. But so many other activities—from simple school lessons to the preparation of health workers—have been called "health education" that confusion has been compounded.

Now, reinforced by the development of the behavioural science disciplines, a new wave is breaking. Progressively, "health education" is coming to mean the utilisation of systematic processes designed to produce, in those afflicted, beneficial behaviour changes.

Changing habits

As a systematic activity, health education depends upon knowledge of people's present habits and behaviour. How can we hope to change people's behaviour unless we have some understanding of what they are doing now and why they are doing it? Understanding the roots of their present behaviour, we can proceed to work with them to secure the behaviour modifications that will ensure their improved health. Then we do not exact a high price, either by destroying their culture or way of life, or by putting on to their overlaid backs "burdens too grievous to be borne". Health education, then, as "behaviour modification" becomes an activity carried on with people, depending for its success upon the responses they make.



J. ABREDE—WHO

Health education in Papua New Guinea through classes (above) and in Kenya through the production of rural health manuals (below)



AMREF

In remote north-western Kenya, the African Medical and Research Foundation (AMREF) is working in association with an amalgam of government and mission health personnel, in particular upon hydatidosis. Dogs eating the offal—or residues—of other animals, develop cystic ova. These “eggs” they deposit with their faeces. When these ova in the faeces are swallowed by human beings, small worms multiply in fluid-filled oblaters around the liver, or in other sites. The only known treatment for the giant cysts that are so formed is one or a sequence of major operations.

The Turkana have possibly the highest incidence of hydatid cysts of any people in the world. Commencing with surgery, proceeding then to clinical studies, AMREF is now also involved in behavioural research. If AMREF field workers can discover when and how the ova are ingested, then we hope that working with and “educating” the Turkana we can help them to free themselves of this burden. Their lives are lived in a harsh, unrewarding and arid environment where most of us could not survive even without hydatidosis!

The Masai have a saying that “the more flies a man has around his cattle bomas (enclosure), the happier he is”. For them, more flies mean more cattle. But flies also play a part in the transmission of trachoma, moving from the eyes of one person to another and carrying the virus-like infective organism. People do not wash by habit. The fat and ochre mixture that they spread on their bodies is for their decoration. It may protect then from the desiccating effect of dry winds. Trachoma is so common with Masai that it is accepted to some degree as normal. The scarring of the cornea by the pustules on the eyelids leads to progressive deterioration of vision. Even this is accepted as a component of aging. How can we persuade the Masai to improve their washing practices, to reduce the flies settling on people’s eyes and to seek treatment for early trachoma and thus, by changing their practises, to improve their health? In a programme which began a year ago, an AMREF field worker has been making headway in this. The programmes of mobile eye clinics in one part of Masailand are being modified following his suggestions. His aim is to involve Masai leaders in positive health programmes. An encouraging response suggests a long-term programme is just beginning.

Other AMREF programmes for health behaviour change are concerned with problems of mothers of malnourished children, with women’s groups who want to improve their health and their living environment by their own activities, with reducing the popular fear and stigma surrounding leprosy so that patients with the disease are helped and not rejected by their communities, with helping village groups to themselves combat their own health problems, including malaria and relapsing fever. Many more are in prospect. The needs and the demand on programmes designed to secure health behaviour change seem almost limitless. AMREF’s experience suggests that success with one programme enables the development of increasingly effective strategies for other programmes.

Health authorities everywhere recognise that they are not devoting a sufficient proportion of their resources to planned preventive programmes. The tide of demand for curative services seems to swallow all the resources they can command. Moreover the conduct and evaluation of preventive, behaviour-change programmes require skills not usually possessed by people trained in clinical roles. If AMREF can show the way to success in providing effective “health” as opposed to “sickness” programmes, many health authorities will eagerly follow the same path. □ N.S.

Protecting the child

In 1978 it is estimated that 13 million children under the age of 5 will die, 11 million of them in the developing countries. Had that 11 million been born in the developed world, only 1.6 million would have died. Many of these deaths are due to illness and disease which is preventable, and prevention is often possible without massive investment in men and materials. During their first five years many children also contract non-fatal diseases which bring about suffering and permanent damage to both health and development.

In East Africa, doctors estimate that from every 20 live births, 3 children will die before one year, 2 more will die before 5 years, 5 will be under-nourished and suffer permanent damage to development, and 10 will become normal healthy children. They estimate that this picture could be dramatically changed with only one child dying before the age of one, and 19 becoming normal healthy children if four steps could be taken:

- Food improvement to avoid malnutrition.
- Provision of clean water and environmental sanitation.
- Immunization and control of preventable diseases like measles, whooping cough and tuberculosis.
- Simple treatment and early diagnosis of common diseases.

It is obvious from this that the most important aspect of child health is preventive rather than curative, and that this involves more than medical and health workers. The environment into which the child is born determines, to a large extent, its chances of survival. If the village or the home lacks clean water, adequate food and other basic amenities the child's chances are lower. Agricultural and water development complements the preventive work of health workers who are involved in health education, immunization and diagnosis. A health manual for medical assistants and rural health workers on child care(1) in Africa lists the following four vital areas for action:

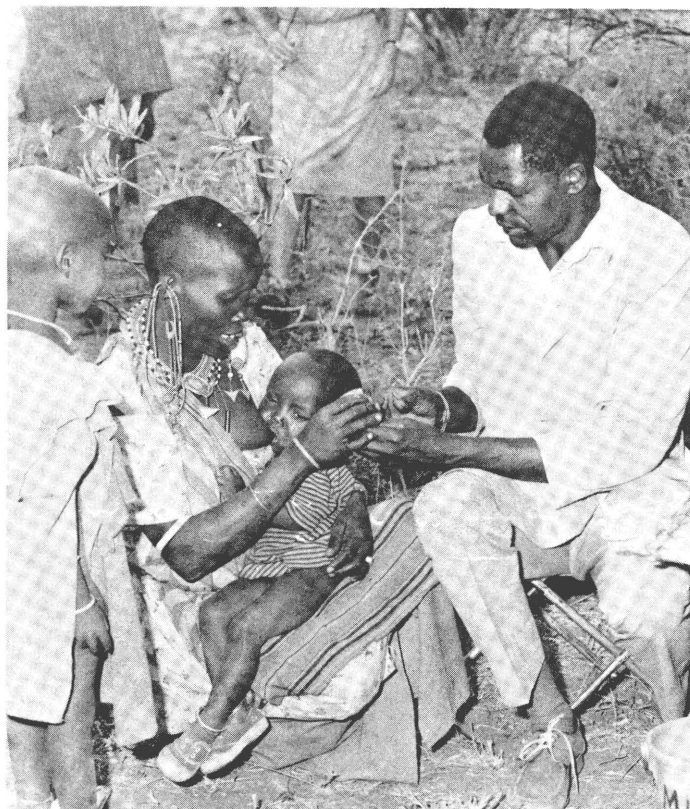
Nutrition

The type and quantity of food a child eats is one of the biggest factors influencing his health. If his nutrition is inadequate, he is much more susceptible to other diseases, and each attack of a disease will be more severe than usual. As an example, a malnourished child has a 400 times greater risk of dying from measles than a well nourished child. A good nutritional start in life is necessary to ensure maximum mental and physical development.

Environment

A child's environment is all of the many things that surround him every day. These include the home where he sleeps, plays and eats, the water he drinks and bathes in, the air he breathes, the latrine he uses, the clothes he wears, the other children he plays with, and all of the other things around him. Because each of these items has a direct

(1) *Child Health*, rural health series N° 1, African Medical and Research Foundation, P.O. Box 30125, Nairobi, Kenya.



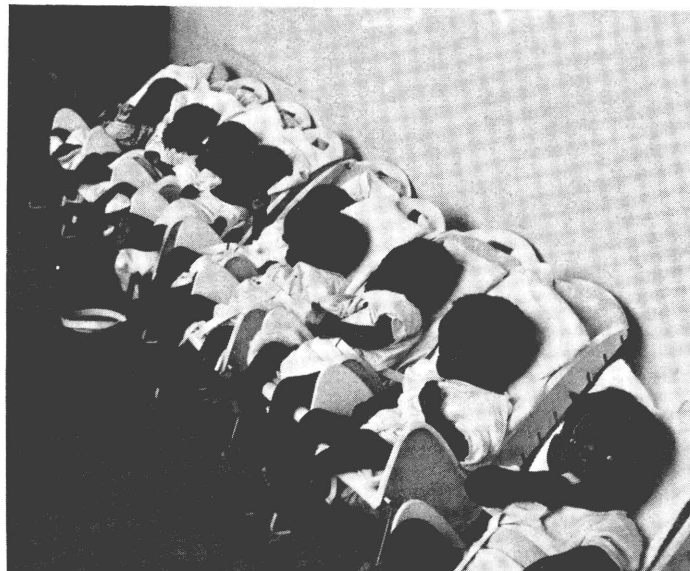
Child care in Tanzania

influence on his health, it is vital that their quality be the best possible under the circumstances. Any health worker who is seriously promoting good health practices must concern himself with these environmental factors.

Infections

Exposure to many different infections is a normal part of childhood. These range all the way from a mild cold or infected cut to a life-threatening case of measles or tuberculosis. Treating these infections is usually the major activity of any outpatient clinic. There are three main ways in which

To be well fed and well cared for is not every child's lot



NAUD — AAA PHOTO

Dangers facing the child

Birth to 1 month - neonatal period

- obstetric complications and birth injuries
- asphyxia (failure to breathe at birth)
- low birth weight babies (prematurity)
- congenital abnormalities
- infections leading to septicaemia
- tetanus (from infected cord)
- death of mother — the newborn baby is likely to die of starvation (or gastroenteritis, if bottle-fed) unless another woman can be found to breast feed him.

First year of life — infancy

- respiratory diseases — pneumonia, whooping cough, etc.
- diarrhoeal diseases (especially likely if baby is bottle-fed)
- malaria
- measles
- marasmus, due either to lack of an adequate diet or to a chronic disease.

2nd to 5th year of life

- malnutrition (marasmus and kwashiorkor — sometimes both together)
- pneumonia, often caused by measles or whooping cough
- diarrhoeal diseases
- measles
- malaria
- anaemia, sometimes caused by hookworm
- tuberculosis
- accidents.

After 5 years

- infectious diseases
- intestinal worms (e.g. hookworms, roundworm)
- malnutrition
- malaria
- skin diseases
- respiratory diseases. □

A UNICEF study of infant mortality in West Africa showed that 90% of infant deaths could have been prevented by measures other than curative:

- **developmental:** water and food supply, alleviation of women's work through provision of appropriate technology, environmental sanitation;
- **educational:** increased parental knowledge of health, nutrition and agriculture;
- **preventive:** vaccination, chemoprophylaxis against malaria. □

health workers can protect children from a serious illness or even death due to infections:

The first of these, as mentioned above, is the good nutrition which enables a child to fight off the infecting organisms.

The second is immunization, which can completely prevent many of the worst infections.

Finally, all children and their parents should be encouraged to seek early and effective treatment for each serious infection. We must be aware that some infections are caused by viruses which cannot be cured by any drugs.

Each of these measures is an integral part of a child health programme.

Traditional practices

Everyone is greatly influenced by the traditional customs of his family, tribe and country. These customs affect almost everything people do, including the food they eat, the houses they live in, their relations with other people, and how they work and play. Because these traditional practices influence so many things that are done, they have an important influence on health also. Some of them are good for health, such as prolonged breast feeding or the acceptance of modern medicine, and should be supported. Those traditional practices and beliefs which are bad need to be gradually changed. This is another important area in which health workers can have a strong influence in improving health.

These services can best be carried out through basic rural health clinics for both mother and child. They can provide minor curative services, but most important, the various preventative services. Rural clinics of this sort can cope without great expense with a number of services and do not require staff with advanced training.

Expectant mothers can be given advice on nutrition and hygiene prior to birth, immunized against tetanus, and helped with labour and delivery. After the birth the feeding of the child is most important and the mother can be given advice how to do this given the possibilities locally available. The growth of the child, plotted by frequent weighing, is a good guide to progress in feeding the child properly.

A mother who gives birth to too many children close together can maintain good health neither for herself nor her children. Birth control allows the mother to space the birth of children properly, and spacing (2 to 3 years) enables the mother to feed each child properly.

Local clinics will encounter many diseases in children which result from poor sanitation, unclean water, inadequate housing and so forth. Health workers must therefore play an active part in promoting better practices. The number of sick children being brought to the clinic for curative treatment can be reduced through the success of the various preventive activities. The clinic will aim to diagnose early to prevent the diseases becoming serious, and act as a referral unit for more serious cases which cannot be dealt with by the resources of the rural mother and child clinics. In many developing countries greater emphasis is now being put on such basic preventive activities in rural areas. Local support and participation is essential, and can reduce the cost of such things as simple buildings. Child health is an important part of this primary health care. If a child starts its life healthy, there is a better chance that he will stay that way as he advances in life. □

IAN PIPER

Appropriate technology for health

by E. ISRAEL and M.E.F. TORFS(*)

The ingenuity of man has no limits. When facing an unusual situation, an emergency, or a life-saving operation, his inventive skills come to the rescue and he finds replacement solutions and techniques using tools and materials at hand, sometimes using what is available for quite a different purpose from that for which it was designed. An example of this is the way bamboo may be used to satisfy different health needs: stretchers for the transport of patients; splints for setting bone fractures; pipes for community water supplies; orthopaedic aids for disability prevention and rehabilitation.

This salient feature of man is valid in all domains including the health field, and it is this distinctive characteristic that the programme of appropriate technology for health wants to utilize and build upon.

The developing world has until recently been heavily, and unduly, dependent upon technologies imported from industrialized countries—technologies which were often too sophisticated, too costly and, above all, ill-adapted to local conditions, and not suitable or acceptable to the population for which they were intended. In parallel with this uncontrolled importation, however, some people were striving to find local solutions to their day-to-day problems and very often succeeded in their efforts, drawing upon locally available resources. No publicity has been given to these endeavours and it may be only by chance that someone comes across an

(*) First published by WHO in *World Health*, January 1978.

A simple but sturdy first-aid box can cope with many minor problems



WHO PHOTO

innovative solution of this sort and makes it known outside the area where it has been developed.

Over the last few years there have been a handful of people who realized that the mere introduction of sophisticated technology from one part of the world to the other was no solution, and who have attempted to find out how technological problems have been solved at local level; whether the inventions developed were valid ones; whether they were transferable elsewhere, with or without adaptation; and what were the unfilled urgent needs.

These pioneers have helped to make the national and international bodies more aware of the need to find adequate local solutions to the problems.

Since 1975 the directive organs of WHO have stressed the need for new approaches to the promotion of national health services related to primary health care, with the aim of improving the health of the underserved populations. Consequently, the primary health care (PHC) approach, based on direct partnership between the health services and the population, was devised. When this concept was further developed, it became apparent that there was a lack of technology to implement this programme and consequently the Appropriate Technology for Health programme—ATH—was established as a support to PHC and rural development.

The purpose of WHO's programme of ATH is to help countries find solutions to the technological problems encountered in their primary health care programmes—solutions that are acceptable to the communities as well as to the providers, feasible in terms of manpower, cost, application and local production, while at the same time being effective and efficient. ATH aims at making the developing world gradually self-reliant in this field, and at increasing the capacity of national health services to meet the real needs of the people.

The word "appropriate" which qualifies health technology has been selected with much care, and the appropriateness of a particular technology is determined by the specific place and conditions where it is applied. It does not have the connotation of a "cheap" or second-rate technique and should be appropriate in terms of the needs and habits of the people, appropriate in terms of money, and appropriate to the health worker who is going to apply it. This does not imply that the techniques, methods and tools usually used are suddenly obsolete and useless; it means rather that simpler tools and techniques can achieve the same results effectively, but are less costly and easier to apply.

It has been said earlier that one of this programme's objectives is to enhance the self-reliance of countries, but this self-reliance need not necessarily take place nationally; it may also be accomplished through technical cooperation among a group of countries with similar problems and conditions, thus enhancing the principles of technical cooperation among developing countries (TCDC) to which WHO is committed.

How can the countries reach this goal and how can WHO help?

If countries are to take advantage of the experience and the good, practical solutions developed elsewhere and if they are to adapt these to suit their own needs and requirements, there must be proper and systematic collec-



A paraffin lamp provides light for an emergency operation in rural Kenya

tion, analysis and dissemination of information. This is an area where WHO has an important role to play and a particular effort in this direction has already been made through the regional offices, the WHO representatives and the field staff who are confronted by their national colleagues with the day-to-day problems for which they have to find immediate solutions. These people are instrumental in identifying solutions which are not makeshift but are astute, creative and transferable. Some of these transient solutions also constitute areas for further research to perfect the procedure or the tool, and to study its possible national or inter-country production. WHO foresees this information system as a joint endeavour of all those concerned with the problem. It has already concluded agreements with such bodies as the Appropriate Health Resources and Technologies Action Group (AHRTAG-UK) in London, which is affiliated with the Intermediate Technology Development Group (ITDG), also in the United Kingdom, in order to establish a clearing house to explore the range of needs for information services as related to ATH.

This will be undertaken in collaboration with all the other UN agencies that have a special interest in encouraging self-reliance in appropriate technology in health and health-related areas, with non-governmental institutions and groups capable of taking responsibility for meeting technological needs, as well as with governments and individuals with an interest in the subject.

One of the first tasks of the ATH programme is to identify the areas of needs and establish an order of priority among them in order to begin work on the most flagrant and pressing requirements. Here the input of the countries is of paramount importance, and, within a country, those more likely to provide the right type of information are the health workers at community level who have currently to deal with the problems and find solutions. For this purpose a check list of recognized needs has been designed within WHO and transmitted to the countries for them to add their own requirements and indicate their order of priority. This check list contains elements such as the elimination of syringes for vaccination, a simple method for sterilizing equipment, communications for the health sector in developing countries, and so forth.

It may be that certain countries have already evolved for themselves a solution to some of the problems listed: in this case it is hoped that they will agree to share it with WHO

which will, in turn, add it to the pool of information for wide dissemination among other countries. It may also be that the priority areas thus identified do not lend themselves to immediate solution, for example, a vaccine against malaria might turn out to be the top priority and, as it is known that many researchers are working towards this end, WHO would therefore neither embark on nor encourage the countries to embark on this area of research.

What will happen, then, when this priority list of needs is established? Each of the priorities in turn will be examined and the first step will be to look for whatever solution might already exist. If a solution, or solutions, should exist, it will be carefully scrutinized to assess its qualities in terms of effectiveness, simplicity and ease of application, reasonable cost, acceptability, feasibility, safety, and also inclusiveness (a single intervention serving several purposes), though this last factor may be uncommon. When all these aspects have been examined, it may be found that a technique having most of the required qualities is accepted neither by the consumers nor by the providers; in either case, a promotion campaign is required. One may find in the end that, in the case of the consumers, there was a valid reason for rejecting a particular technology, such as incompatibility with their traditions or practices, so that a new technique will have to be evolved.

Do we mean that if a valid solution exists somewhere, it will merely be transferred where it is unknown or not used? Of course not. The solution that will be applied to solve a specific problem in a country should be adapted to the particular conditions of this country; one should not try to impose a technique but to see that it has all the qualities required to solve this problem, here and now. Therefore proper selection of the technique is required together with testing before implementation, adaptation if and when necessary, and finally evaluation.

If no valid technique exists, then the process of inventing one has to be initiated. As we have seen, the whole ATH programme is based on partnership with all those concerned and interested in the subject, and on the sharing of experience and expertise. Putting this principle into practice will involve a network of research institutes or groups which will be made responsible for studying the problems, evolving solutions and testing them before they are made known and available to all. These groups will become collaborating institutes of WHO, and the ultimate objective will be to have a network with a wide geographical distribution, putting their creativity and imagination at the disposal of all. The sphere of influence of a collaborating institute may go far beyond the country where it is situated, and its discoveries may be applied in countries with similar backgrounds and conditions. Development of the information network described earlier will also enable each group to build upon the work of others in different parts of the world. Finally, the development of local production using raw materials and factories available in the country itself or in a neighbouring one, apart from creating wealth and employment, will contribute to cooperation among countries in a large variety of activities.

It is time that the developing countries became conscious of their potentialities, looked more closely at their traditional heritage and practices and drew upon them, throwing off the yoke of imported technology. This is not to say that all that is imported from the industrialized world is bad and that the Third World should reject it totally—this would be a severe mistake; what is meant is that the developing countries should build their own self-reliance, utilizing and sharing the experience of the industrialized countries while relying on their own skills, expertise, traditions and resources. □

E.I. and M.E.F.T.

Towards a food and nutritional policy

by Dr Thianar N'DOYE

Malnutrition is responsible for more than one quarter of infant deaths in the world today. In the developing countries, it causes 50% of deaths in the under-five age group, which shows just how urgent a matter it is for the countries of the Third World to introduce a food and nutritional policy. Better fed means more resistant to disease.

Dr Thianar N'Doye, head of Senegal's national nutrition service, recommends listing all available food products in Africa and assessing their nutritive value. Here is how he sees the food problem in the Third World today.

The socio-economic constraints of colonization in the Third World have led to a loss of cultural identity which has

profoundly affected traditional diets, particularly in the tropics. Methods of cooking have had to adapt to new, imported products and this has upset consumption structures and patterns right down to the most rational of dietary habits. Take the mistaken assumption that "you only need give poor people the calories and the rest will come automatically". Quite the contrary, food in the tropics must and always used to be of good quality.

All the local customs and methods of preparing food and drink took account of hydro-electrolytic considerations well before modern science had anything to say about it. Such things as ionization were known and used. The "green water" of Timbuktu, the Kanvouah, the potassium salt/sodium stone which the Haoussa have chewed for centuries, are interesting examples. We are still awaiting algae steaks of *spirulina maxima* although the people from Kanem along Lake Chad have made this a regular source of food.

So the Africans have lost their original eating habits. Economic growth today sometimes involves a totally unexpected drop in biological level. The fact that nutrition is a vital element of civilization has been forgotten. Food and nutritional policies must promote solutions to right the situation, which means research leading to the sort of cultural restructuring that alone will engender more enlightened education about food. The success of many practical nutrition programmes depends on it. And there is

Nutrition is an important aspect of midwifery training



still considerable progress to be made towards a better understanding of the biological aspects of the problem.

The cultural aspects of nutrition, a multidisciplinary science, are more a matter for UNESCO than for the FAO or WHO. Studies are required to reassess the conception and effectiveness of the development aid which this organization dispenses in the social science sector. The now practical theme of the study of the psycho-sociology of nutrition, for example, is one of the best ways of clarifying the concepts and criteria that will make for progress in social science, since data on trends in eating habits are, in turn, eloquently indicative of socio-economic constraints in the developing countries.

Recommendations 78 and 79 of the Stockholm conference on the human environment concern the protection of foodstuffs and, therefore, the protection of the consumer as well. They are not unrelated to the fact that the motive force of ecosystems is based on trophic relations and that nutrition is a matter of applying human biology to development.

Educationally speaking, training in nutrition, even for teachers, is hampered by the inadequate methods used to date because of the shortage of basic data on the populations' behaviour, habits, tendencies and customs with regard to food. It is no longer a question of what food is (something we know very well), but of what it means (something we are still ignorant of). It is a question of nutritional symbolism.

The important thing is to uncover the essential educational messages and to insert them in the biopathological and medical causes and effects (pregnancy, breast-feeding, weaning, cerebral malnutrition, protidopathy, anaemia, goitre ... and obesity and diabetes as well).

Childrens' lives have often been saved without anything being done about their basic quality, for all the world as though they already had a defective bio-type and their somatic and psychomotor development was already mapped out, making it difficult, if not undesirable, to escape. Birth then is like a launching, with the possibility of risk and failure inbuilt and everything capable of being charted in the years, months and seasons of pregnancy and parturition. So underdevelopment is characterized by the fact that ecology marks (or stigmatizes) the individual.

Devising laws

One practice of the FAO/WHO Codex Alimentarius committee since it was set up in 1963 has confirmed my idea that the main aim, once the situation is understood, is to standardize food products.

Standardization in the technically poor nations is primarily a matter of scientific and technical research, particularly since its special aim is to help provide a normal, i.e. adequate, balanced and healthy, diet. This is not just a matter for industry and technology. Ecology and culture are concerned as well. So it is now vital to have proper control over international standards of hygiene and trade.

What we must do, as well as continuing, as a matter of necessity, with the systems (with all their repressive aspects) left over from the colonial era, is to start at the beginning and take the following immediate measures:

— Compile a filing system of the composition of those of our products that are of the greatest interest as far as value, consumption and trade are concerned.



WHO PHOTO — MANDELMANN

Planting rice as part of the rural development programme in Tsevie (Togo)

— Study and devise codes for the practice, use and hygiene of these products and even of water.

— Constitute, by gathering the data produced, the bases for national codex alimentarius systems (which will obviously always need updating, amending and improving).

This last stage could serve as a support for the national laws, which have been inadequate so far, now being devised. It is up to us to promote this legislation, to make it genuinely meaningful, to control its application and, better still, to ensure that such control is properly carried out. The current barriers to trade are caused more by a failure to harmonize national laws than by tariffs. This regional harmonization should be achieved by such economic groupings as CEAO and ECOWAS.

Nutrition, as a pluridisciplinary science, has emerged as the most functional and operational technique for the application of biology to development. The ways and means of such application must therefore be borne in mind in any research into food and nutrition in the Third World.

Transferring the techniques of producing biologically high-quality protein is still one of the most common methods of handling the situation. Groups of UN experts devote themselves to the task with a harmful ignorance of the skills and habits of the people actually receiving their assistance and recommended solutions still often fail to take account of Africa and the Third World. □ T.N.

Research and training in tropical diseases

by Adetokunbo O. LUCAS(*)

The challenge of tropical parasitic diseases constitutes one of the major unsolved problems of world health today. While the imminent eradication of smallpox is an outstanding example of what can be achieved where effective tools are vigorously and strategically applied in a collaborative global venture, the total eradication originally envisaged for malaria has proven difficult and elusive. There have even been significant reverses in some parts of the world where a few years ago the disease seemed to be nearly conquered.

A variety of factors accounts for the persistence of malaria and other tropical infections which have resisted the efforts to bring them under control. Unfortunately, the available tools include many drugs that frequently produce unfavourable toxic effects, require complex treatment schedules, and are rather expensive in relation to the low incomes of the affected populations. A major gap in our armamentarium is that no vaccine has been developed against common parasitic infections such as malaria, schistosomiasis and trypanosomiasis, more commonly known as Africa's dreaded sleeping sickness.

Some of these diseases are killers. The enervating effect of the others ranges from mild morbidity to severe disability, with river blindness being an extreme example. Adding to this burden, in some areas these diseases also constitute a significant impediment to economic development and social well-being. Affected populations are often caught in the vicious cycle of disease predisposing to poverty, and poverty aggravating disease.

The barrier of the technical problems

Even with the inadequate tools available, better design and management of control programmes could yield improved control of these diseases. But, in addition, a number of technical problems have made it difficult to tackle them effectively. The emergence and spread of parasites that are resistant to commonly used drugs, for example, has complicated the control of malaria; and this problem is compounded by the resistance of some anopheline vectors of malaria to insecticides.

Another factor is the effect of human enterprises—in particular the major agro-energy projects such as man-made lakes, irrigation schemes and hydro-electric works—on the ecology of these diseases. Often, such development projects have aggravated the situation by expanding the favourable sites for the breeding of vectors and also by increasing the man-water or man-vector contacts, thereby significantly intensifying the transmission of infection.

(*) Director, UNDP/World Bank/WHO Special Programme for Research and Training in Tropical Diseases.

Fundamental biology has made dramatic advances in recent years. New techniques have yielded a massive accumulation of knowledge of living things at the cellular, sub-cellular and even at the molecular level. There is now a new-found confidence that man can investigate and discover the most intimate details of the vital processes in living things.

These exciting developments are finding application in various aspects of health, such as the problem of cancer, but not to a similar extent in parasitism, although there is a most promising prospect that the application of these techniques in the study of parasitic diseases would yield a wealth of useful information about these organisms and their relationships to their hosts. Hopefully, such knowledge can be exploited in designing new techniques for controlling these diseases.

Much of the developmental research that should be done to produce new solutions cannot as yet be undertaken in the endemic areas. Although some developing countries have built up their research establishments, the research capability of most of the affected countries is far from adequate to meet the urgent needs.

Most of the modern pharmaceutical companies having facilities and scientific staff for research are situated in the non-endemic areas and only a few pay attention to these problems. With the rising costs of drug development, some of the drug companies are reluctant to invest in the development of agents that are required mostly by poor rural communities in developing countries.

The objectives of the Special Programme

Facing these vast and complex problems, the World Health Organization, in collaboration with the United Nations Development Programme and the World Bank, has initiated the Special Programme for Research and Training in Tropical Diseases. Its two closely-interrelated objectives are:

- research and development of new and improved tools for the control of tropical infections, and
- the strengthening of the research capability of the affected countries.

A health worker in the Ivory Coast palpates the glands of people he stops in the street, looking for signs of trypanosomiasis infection



Six major diseases of the tropics are being attacked: malaria, schistosomiasis, filariasis, trypanosomiasis (both African sleeping sickness and the American form called Chagas' disease), leishmaniasis and leprosy.

The development activities are focused on the search for new drugs, vaccines, new approaches to the control of the vectors of these diseases, and simple diagnostic tests. In addition to research aimed at any one of the disease problems, there are several major areas of research applicable to all six of them. The programme therefore includes components on epidemiology, vector control, biomedical and socio-economic research.

Each component of the programme is being developed under the guidance of multidisciplinary groups of scientists—immunologists, biochemists, geneticists, entomologists, epidemiologists, to name a few—organized into scientific working groups whose research is oriented towards specific goals. The Group on Immunology of Leprosy, for example, is aiming for development of a vaccine and simple immuno-diagnostic tests for leprosy.

A network of participating laboratories spread over some 20 countries, extending from Venezuela through North America and Europe to Japan, is carrying out various tasks such as the supply of *M. leprae* from infected armadillos or breeding this little South American animal from which the leprosy bacillus is then harvested, or preparing the antigens suitable for field use in skin testing.

For malaria, scientific working groups have been established and research proposals approved in immunology and chemotherapy, and a third group is being formed for operational research.

The successful establishment of the continuous cultivation in vitro of *Plasmodium falciparum*, most dangerous of the malaria parasites, was achieved in 1976 just before the Group on Immunology of Malaria was being formed, bringing the parasite material into the reach of many laboratories and facilitating immunological studies of the parasite.

Dr William Trager of Rockefeller University in New York who achieved the breakthrough, has been teaching the technique which he developed, special programme-sponsored training courses in the tropical endemic countries, so that researchers there can participate in the exciting basic research on the malaria parasite.

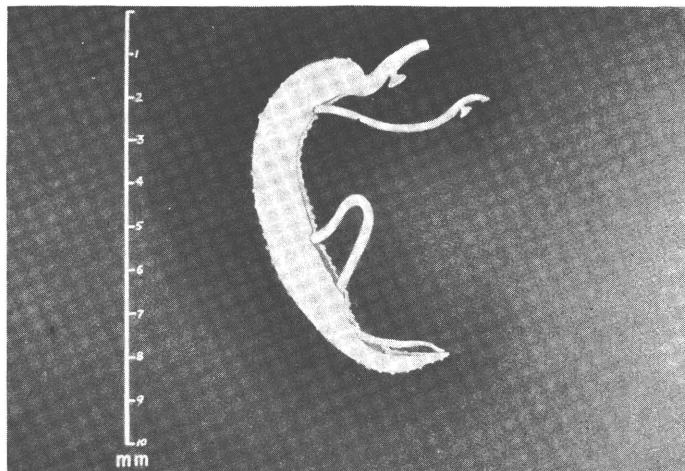
More training and research in the developing countries

Intimately related to this search for new tools is an equally important interdependent objective: the development of scientific manpower and the strengthening of research institutions in the affected countries. The aim is to strengthen their research capability, especially in respect to the diseases of concern to the Special Programme, and to assist them in achieving self-reliance.

In addition to contributing to a rapid transfer to the affected countries from the industrialized world of the knowledge, technology and skills that are relevant to their health objectives, the institution strengthening and training activities of the special programme will in return ensure an increasing involvement of scientists from the tropical countries in the programme's research and development activities.

To ensure continuity and relevance, these activities are being developed in close collaboration with national health

WHO



Schistosomiasis is caused by three species of flatworms, or schistosomes. Above, a pair of adult schistosomes as they live in the human body, with the slender female tucked in the long, folded male

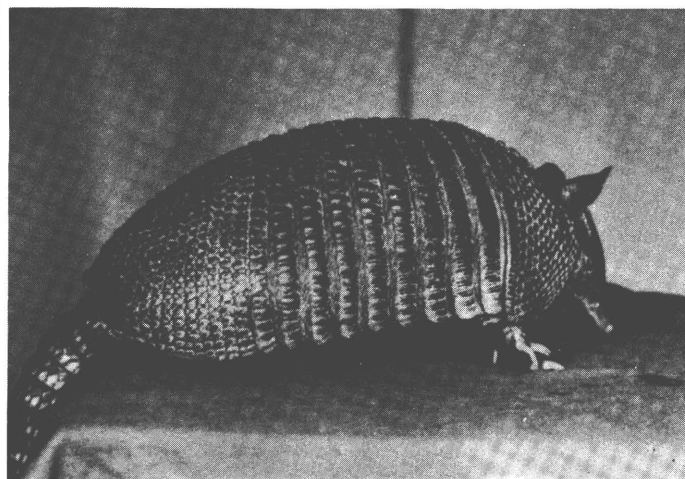
authorities. Particular attention will be paid to the problem of national research careers to encourage promising scientists to enter and remain in the field of tropical medicine research. Much of the present knowledge about parasitic and other communicable diseases has been generated from studies based in institutions of tropical medicine outside endemic areas, and these institutions should continue to play an important role in research, especially in the more fundamental aspects. But every effort is being made to develop the research in such a way as to assist in the training and strengthen the institutions in the tropical countries. The emphasis will be placed on technical cooperation with mutual support in affected countries and reciprocal relationships between endemic and non-endemic countries.

Can modern biomedical research deliver the new and effective tools required for better control of tropical diseases? Can scientists go beyond interesting and ingenious discoveries of the minutiae of biology and biological processes to the stage where they can be applied in the fashioning of useful diagnostic, prophylactic and therapeutic agents? For the public health authorities in affected countries, will modern biomedical research be a miracle or a mirage?

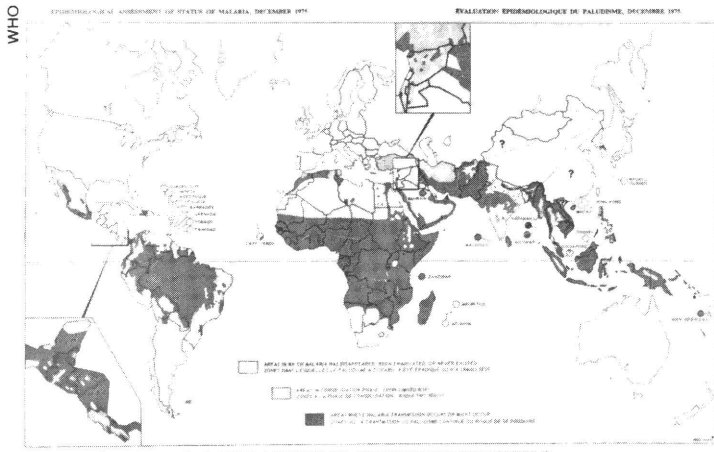
(Continued on page 53)

The armadillo is the first source of large amounts of the leprosy bacillus, *Mycobacterium leprae*. Researchers in 20 laboratories around the world are now involved in the effort to develop a leprosy vaccine

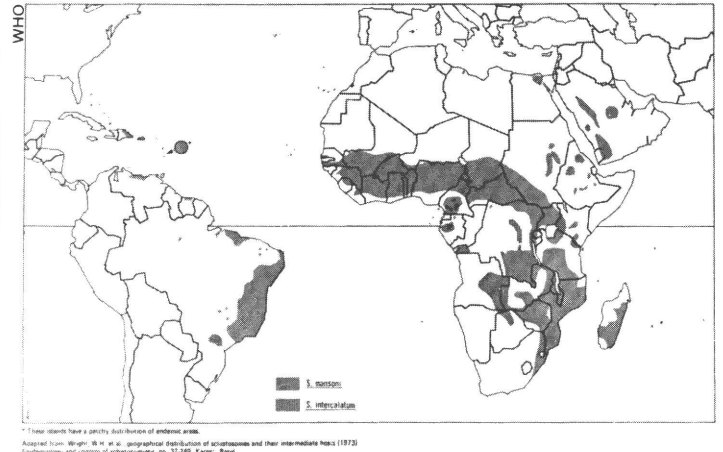
WHO



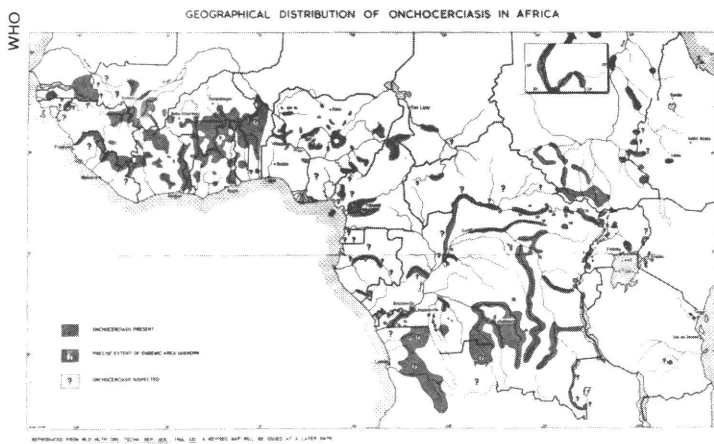
Areas affected by the world's main tropical diseases



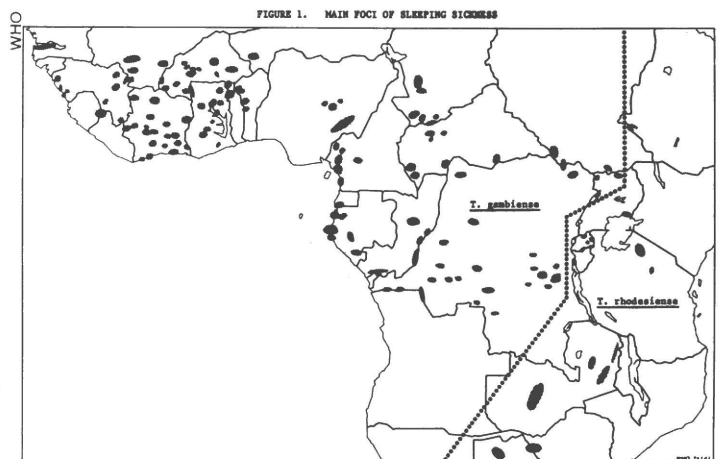
Malaria is still a serious health problem in some 60 countries involving a population of about 600 million people, particularly in tropical Africa and Asia



Schistosomiasis is endemic in 71 countries and about 200 million people are infected by different forms in East Asia, Africa, the eastern Mediterranean and parts of Central, and South America



It is estimated that 20 000 000 persons in the world suffer from onchocerciasis. Blindness rates vary, but in the endemic area of the Volta river basin in West Africa, there are 57 000 blind in a population of 4.2 million



Sleeping sickness, human trypanosomiasis, constitutes a permanent and serious risk to the health and well-being of at least 35 million people in Africa

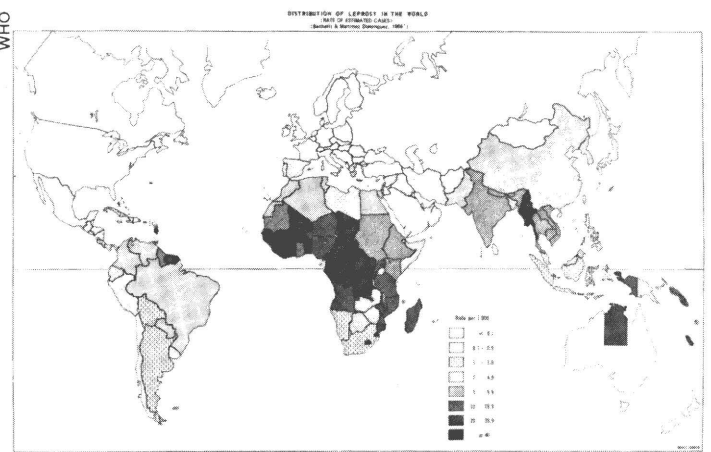
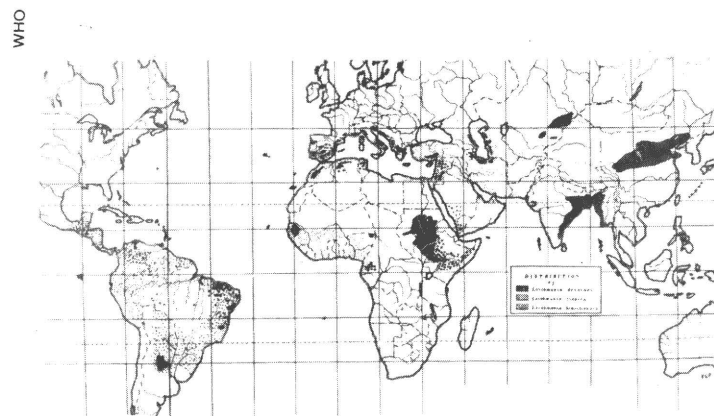


Fig. 10-2. World distribution of leishmania infections. (Original, Faust (1970))

Leishmaniasis occurs in the tropics, subtropics and temperate areas. There are no estimates of the number of people actually infected or at risk but there is evidence that all forms of the disease are increasing in prevalence

Leprosy is a public health problem in 70 countries, mainly in Africa and Asia, but some also in South and Central America. According to WHO estimates, there are in the world about 11 000 000 leprosy cases, among which almost 4 000 000 have some disability

The Special Programme for Research and Training in Tropical Diseases represents a bold new attempt to harness scientific resources on a global scale to deal with the continuing challenge posed by tropical parasitic diseases. Through the financial resources made available by the sponsoring agencies and the generous donations from a number of governments and philanthropic foundations, together with contributions in kind by institutions in tropical and non-tropical countries, the programme is gaining momentum.

Even under the most favourable conditions, the development of new tools is a time-consuming and high-risk venture. Advances cannot be expected in weeks, or in months. But in terms of five, ten, or fifteen years—with the intensification of research and global collaboration—the auspices are very good and there is hope for significant advances in the near future.

Full documentation on the Special Programme for Research and Training in Tropical Diseases, its content, organization and operation, is available to interested scientists, as are the information on procedures for making a research proposal and the application forms for submitting a proposal. A newsletter is published periodically to provide interested scientists and institutions with information on the progress and plans for research in the six diseases and the trans-disease areas covered by the programme. Specific information on the gaps which the programme seeks to fill in the relevant subjects of research may be obtained on request from the Office of the Director, Special Programme for Research and Training in Tropical Diseases, World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland. □ A.O.L.

Traditional medicine in Africa's health services

by Professor Mamadou KOUMARE(*)

Although there are no old documents to prove it, there is no doubt that authentically African medicine existed in Black Africa and that it was forced to go under cover when European medicine was introduced and developed by the missionaries and soldiers.

After independence came in the early sixties, the national public health authorities looked to the health of the populations. But, in spite of all the progress that has been made, only a minority (10-15%), comfortably off and living in the towns, yet receive modern treatment. And what about the others? Most of them live in villages in the brush and consult traditional doctors, imported medicines being too expensive as well as in short supply.

There is a shortage of infrastructure, qualified staff, equipment and medicines and our health authorities, with their slender means (often only 5-6% of the national budget), are well aware that modern health services are not the right answer for our populations and our socio-cultural conditions.

Faced with these short- and even medium-term problems of extending modern medical coverage to the rural and sometimes the urban populations, the public health author-

(*) National institute of research into traditional pharmacopoeia and medicine (INRPMT), Bamako, Mali.



Herbalists learn how to prepare and process roots so as to make the best of their healing properties

ities in our countries have firmly committed themselves to finding a rational strategy that suits our conditions. One such solution was to study traditional pharmacopoeia and medicines with a view to making use of traditional therapists (we prefer not to use the word "healers" in view of its pejorative connotations).

In Mali, because of the requests to practice traditional medicine, the impossibility of preventing clandestine practice, the increasing appeal to all classes of people of traditional healing, the need to protect the sick from charlatans and the necessity of collaboration between doctors and traditional therapists, the legalization of ancestral healing practices was authorized under the supervision of INRPMT by the decree of 29 May 1975. It was by no means a hasty or an anachronistic move. Neither was it narrow-minded nationalism or megalomania. There was unanimous agreement as to the need to bring traditional medicine into the open and to use it rationally to help in economic and social development in general and the expansion of health services in particular.

However, there are certain basic things to be done to avoid this means of health promotion from just becoming folklore or a passing fancy.

First and foremost, we need political commitment to a specific course of action. The important thing is not drawing up texts but taking firm decisions to apply them.

Traditional therapists must also be helped to regain their confidence. Their wariness and esoteric attitudes are not always calculated to guarantee them a living, but they do

sometimes stem from a medical ethic unknown to the uninitiated. Indeed many of them would not sell their secrets for gold. Associations of recognized traditional therapists must be set up to encourage collaboration between them and the health services of which they must be considered full members.

Our people believe in traditional remedies to the point where a hospital patient is often treated by the doctor in the daytime and the traditional therapist at night. This can obviously be extremely dangerous to the patients themselves. How can a doctor make a proper assessment of his treatment in conditions like this? Traditional medicine obviously still has its shortcomings and only official recognition and the progressive codification of techniques will gain everyone's confidence in this art.

It is important for the community to know the scope of traditional therapists and to be made to understand the need to follow their advice carefully. Patients have been known to increase their prescribed doses in the hopes of speeding up their recovery and, alas, the results of this are usually blamed on the unfortunate healer who prescribed the traditional remedy.

We do not feel that traditional therapists should become civil servants. As we see it, better working conditions (which also benefit the patients) and the maintenance of certain customary symbolic payments are more in keeping with the socio-cultural environment. It should be emphasized that it would be difficult to standardize the system of remuneration of traditional therapists to any greater extent.

Although some of our health service staff with training in modern medicine are tolerant towards traditional practices, others are frankly hostile. To remedy this, everyone must be encouraged to keep an open mind towards traditional medicine. Open-mindedness in the opposite direction will be possible once the traditional therapist feels completely accepted.

So much for the prerequisites. Let us now move on to the choice of method of approach.

A calculated risk

In view of the shortage of qualified staff and the cost of classical pharmaceutical research, we have opted for improved empirical preparations. There is obviously a risk here, but it is a calculated one such as any therapy involves. Some of the current laws on the sale of medicines put an undeniable brake on new types of therapy and hinder the search for a new system of health care which is in keeping with our particular situation.

It is dangerous to ignore the safety limits of any given medicine. But it is also unfortunate that excessive stringency deprives certain invalids of the benefits of certain drugs. The use of preparations, even dangerous ones, that have stood the test of time obviously involves some precautions known to the properly informed. Experimental botanical research is by no means a prerequisite in the early stages of treatment. Doses can be codified on the basis of what the traditional practitioner prescribes.

As far as the analysis of and search for pure crystallized substances is concerned, our procedure is to carry out brief testing of characteristics, etc., in the light of the possible (and sometimes preferred) use of the total extracts. The aim



In China the simplest equipment is used in making traditional herbal medicaments

is much less to find new molecules than to perfect simple pharmaceutical preparations that can take the place of the medicines we lack.

Finally, we think that it is reasonable to suggest that, if traditional therapists become full members of our health teams, the country will get better health coverage and a larger supply of pharmaceutical products. □ M.K.

USSR

Declaration of Alma Ata

The International Conference on Primary Health Care, held in Alma-Ata in September 1978 and sponsored jointly by the World Health Organization and the United Nations Children's Fund, was attended by delegates from all over the world, including the EEC. A declaration was adopted, from which the main points are as follows:

1. The conference strongly reaffirms that health, which is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being, and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity, is a fundamental human right and that the attainment of the highest possible level of health is the most important world-wide social goal whose realization requires the action of many other social and economic sectors in addition to the health sector.

II. The existing gross inequality in the health status of the people, particularly between developed and developing countries as well as within countries, is politically, socially and economically unacceptable and is, therefore, of common concern to all countries.

III. Economic and social development, based on a new international economic order, is of basic importance to the fullest attainment of health for all and to the reduction of the gap between the health status of the developing and developed countries. The promotion and protection of the health of the people is essential to sustained economic and social development and contributes to a better quality of life and to world peace.

IV. The people have the right and duty to participate individually and collectively in the planning and implementation of their health care.

V. Governments have a responsibility for the health of their people which can be fulfilled only by the provision of adequate health and social measures. A main social target of governments, international organizations and the whole world community in the coming decades should be the attainment by all peoples of the world by the year 2000 of a level of health that will permit them to lead a socially and economically productive life. Primary health care is the key to attaining this target as part of development in the spirit of social justice.

VI. Primary health care is essential health care based on practical, scientifically sound and socially acceptable methods and technology made universally accessible to individuals and families in the community through their full participation and at a cost that the community and country can afford to maintain at every stage of their development, in the spirit of self-reliance and self-determination. It forms an integral part both of the country's health system, of which it is the central function and main focus, and of the overall social and economic development of the community. It is the first level of contact of individuals, the family and community with the national health system, bringing health care as close as possible to where people live and work, and constitutes the first element of a continuing health care process.

VII. Primary health care:

1. Reflects and evolves from the economic conditions, and socio-cultural and political characteristics of the country and its communities and is based on the application of the relevant results of social, biomedical and health services research and public health experience.

2. Addresses the main health problems in the community, providing promotive, preventive, curative, and rehabilitative services accordingly.

3. Includes at least: education concerning prevailing health problems and the methods of preventing and controlling them, promotion of food supplies and proper nutrition, an adequate supply of safe water and basic sanitation, maternal and child health care, including family planning, immunization against the major infectious diseases, prevention and control of locally endemic diseases, appropriate treatment of common diseases and injuries, and provision of essential drugs.

4. Involves, in addition to the health sector, all related

sectors and aspects of national and community development, in particular agriculture, animal husbandry, food, industry, education, housing, public works, communications and other sectors and demands the coordinated efforts of all those sectors.

5. Requires and promotes maximum community and individual self-reliance and participation in the planning, organization, operation and control of primary health care, making the fullest use of local, national and other available resources, and to this end develops through appropriate education the ability of communities to participate.

6. Should be sustained by integrated, functional and mutually-supportive referral systems, leading to the progressive improvement of comprehensive health care for all, and giving priority to those most in need.

7. Relies, at local and referral levels, on health workers, including physicians, nurses, midwives, auxiliaries and community workers as applicable, as well as traditional practitioners as needed, suitably trained socially and technically to work as a health team and to respond to the expressed health needs of the community.

VIII. All governments should formulate national policies, strategies and plans of action to launch and sustain primary health care as part of a comprehensive national health system and in coordination with other sectors. To this end, it will be necessary to exercise political will, to mobilize the country's resources and to use available external resources rationally.

IX. All countries should cooperate in a spirit of partnership and service to ensure primary health care for all people, since the attainment of health by people in any one country directly concerns and benefits every other country. In this context the joint WHO/UNICEF report on primary health care constitutes a solid basis for the further development and operation of primary health care throughout the world.

X. An acceptable level of health can be attained for all the people of the world by the year 2000 through a fuller and better use of the world's resources, a considerable part of which are now spent on armaments and military conflicts. A genuine policy of independence, peace, detente and disarmament could and should release additional resources that could well be devoted to peaceful aims and in particular to the acceleration of social and economic development, of which primary health care as an essential part should be allotted its appropriate share.

The International Conference on Primary Health Care calls for urgent and effective international and national action to develop and implement primary health care throughout the world, and particularly in developing countries, in a spirit of technical cooperation and in keeping with a new international economic order. It urges governments, WHO and UNICEF, and other international organizations, as well as multilateral and bilateral agencies, non-governmental organizations, funding agencies, all health workers and the whole world community to support national and international commitment to primary health care and to channel increased technical and financial support to it, particularly in developing countries.

The conference calls on all the aforementioned to collaborate in introducing, developing and maintaining primary health care in accordance with the spirit and content of this Declaration. □

EAST AFRICA

The flying doctor service

by Michael WOOD(*)

The East African flying doctor service was registered in 1961 as one programme of the African Medical and Research Foundation (AMREF). It had started two years before in an unofficial and experimental fashion but it survived and from starting with one aircraft it now has a fleet of nine and covers what has been termed as the "largest practice in Africa". The area is about 1 000 000 square miles, or the size of Western Europe. Between 1961 and 1977 the flying doctor service flew 4 343 864 miles, performed 16 208 major operations in the "bush", saw 261 107 special cases and evacuated 2 509 emergency cases.

Flying doctor services really started in Australia over 50 years ago and they have now been developed in many different countries and modified according to their particular needs. The Reverend Flynn, who pioneered the Australian service, used the emotive phrase which has always stuck in my mind, "casting a mantle of safety over the continent". This does describe in one sentence the essence of what a flying medical service can achieve. Similar services have grown up in so many countries now that the technique and philosophy behind it is well known and respected throughout the world.

They are used extensively by the armed forces in time of both war and peace. They are used in the arctic, in the jungles of South America, in tropical Africa, in northern Scotland, in the Falkland Islands, in the Pacific and many other places in both the developed and developing world.

All the services have expanded as modern aircraft have improved. Longer distances can be covered faster and more safely. The carrying capacity has been increased and, therefore, more work has been undertaken.

In the lee of Mount Kilimanjaro, the flying doctor answers a call for help



AMREF

All flying doctor services have certain objectives in common. The most important might be described as the reaching out to peripheral areas to bring medical help in all its forms efficiently and quickly. This help may be of various kinds and although dealing with emergencies is perhaps the most well-known, it is certainly not the most important.

Such a service may be used to transport vaccine during an epidemic, take out medical teams to deal with a natural disaster such as an earthquake or flood, or to undertake routine hospital visits or take training teams to assist with medical educational programmes, and a host of other medical and paramedical tasks.

Speed is one of the most important elements in these services and aircraft are particularly useful when it comes to flying over country which is difficult to penetrate on the ground.

Flying doctor services operate best when they are planned to tie in carefully with the existing static services and act, so to speak, as "the long arm" of the medical services. AMREF (the African Medical and Research Foundation) in East Africa functions on this basis and with the objectives mentioned above.

Radio communications

Flying doctor services depend very much on an efficient radio service and a great deal can be achieved without getting into an aeroplane. This is certainly true of the AMREF service in East Africa, where nearly 100 stations are connected by a radio network with our "foundation control" in Nairobi, which is manned by nurses. Individual medical care can be discussed over the radio and assistance sought from specialists if required. Stores, drugs and equipment can be ordered over the radio while messages concerning staff, reports from laboratories, estimated arrival times of aircraft and many other routine tasks can be accomplished quickly and cheaply.

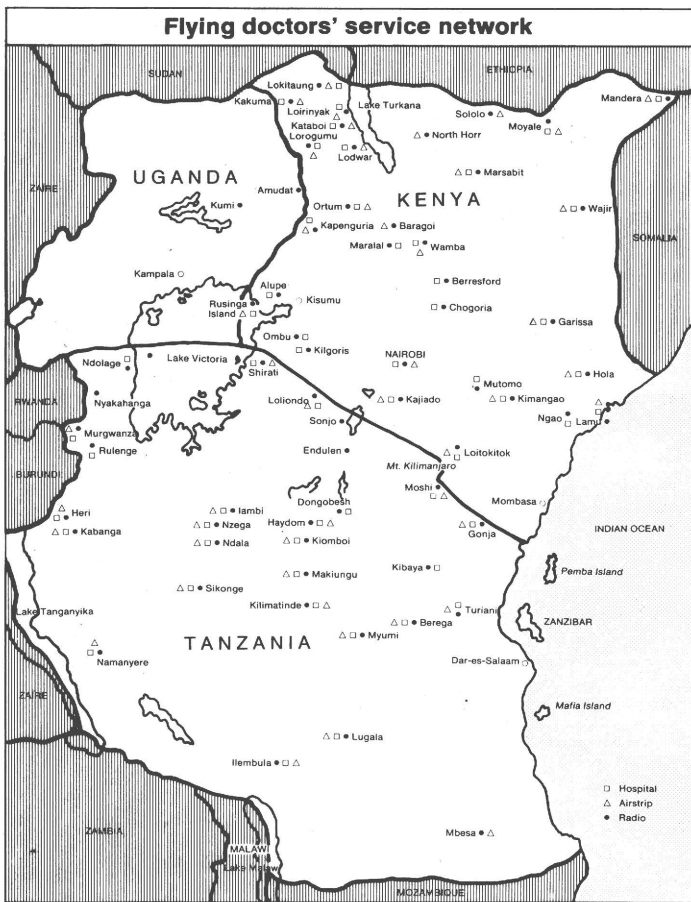
In Australia the famous "school of the air" is another intelligent use of a radio network. The education of children living out on remote farm stations can be greatly enhanced by using this method of teaching.

AMREF arranges definite times in the day when stations can talk to each other. This is particularly vital for doctors in a remote region and effectively ties them together. It would be impossible, too, to overestimate the effect that radio communication has on the morale of people living in the "bush". The very fact that they are able to contact medical help, if they need to, can be very reassuring.

AMREF uses Pye 130 HF SSB radios which have a range of at least 1 000 miles. They can be powered by mains electricity or batteries.

All messages passed or received by "foundation control" are taken down on special forms and filed for reference so that important matters are not forgotten.

(*) Michael Wood is a surgeon who founded the flying doctor service in East Africa. His book on his experiences, *Go an extra mile*, is published by Collins, London, at £5.95.



Network of stations

AMREF started by installing radios at the most remote stations where no other form of communication existed. These radios often prevented the doctor in the "bush" station having to go hundreds of miles in a Land Rover for help. A quick exchange of views over the radio and perhaps some expert advice can often save time and money and much unnecessary worry.

Radio provides the vital link connecting almost 100 medical centres throughout East Africa



AMREF

The aircraft and ground mobile units being used by the foundation are all equipped with radios which have the same frequencies as the hospitals and are all on the same network.

The hospitals belong either to government or voluntary agencies such as the missions. AMREF undertakes for them certain services, including the sending of regular medical or surgical teams to see and operate on patients who have been selected for them. A roster of visits is worked out six months in advance so everyone knows when the teams are expected.

Airstrips

Early on in the history of AMREF airstrips were constructed so that the flying doctor planes could land close to the medical facility on the network.

These strips were made at no cost to AMREF by the local people, who turned out to level a suitable piece of land adjacent to the hospital. This was a great contribution and when the local authorities explained to their people that the airstrip would enable planes of the flying doctor service to bring doctors and nurses to help treat them, there was never any problem with finding sufficient manual labour.

A pilot of the flying doctor service would supervise the construction of the strip so that the runway faced into the prevailing wind, the approaches were clear of obstacles and the length was sufficiently long for safe landings and take off. It was always reckoned that if the doctor could run his car down the runway and reach the speed of 60 mph without too much trouble it was safe to land a light aircraft.

Over 100 of these airstrips are now in use with the service, which has helped to open up some of the remoter areas of East Africa.

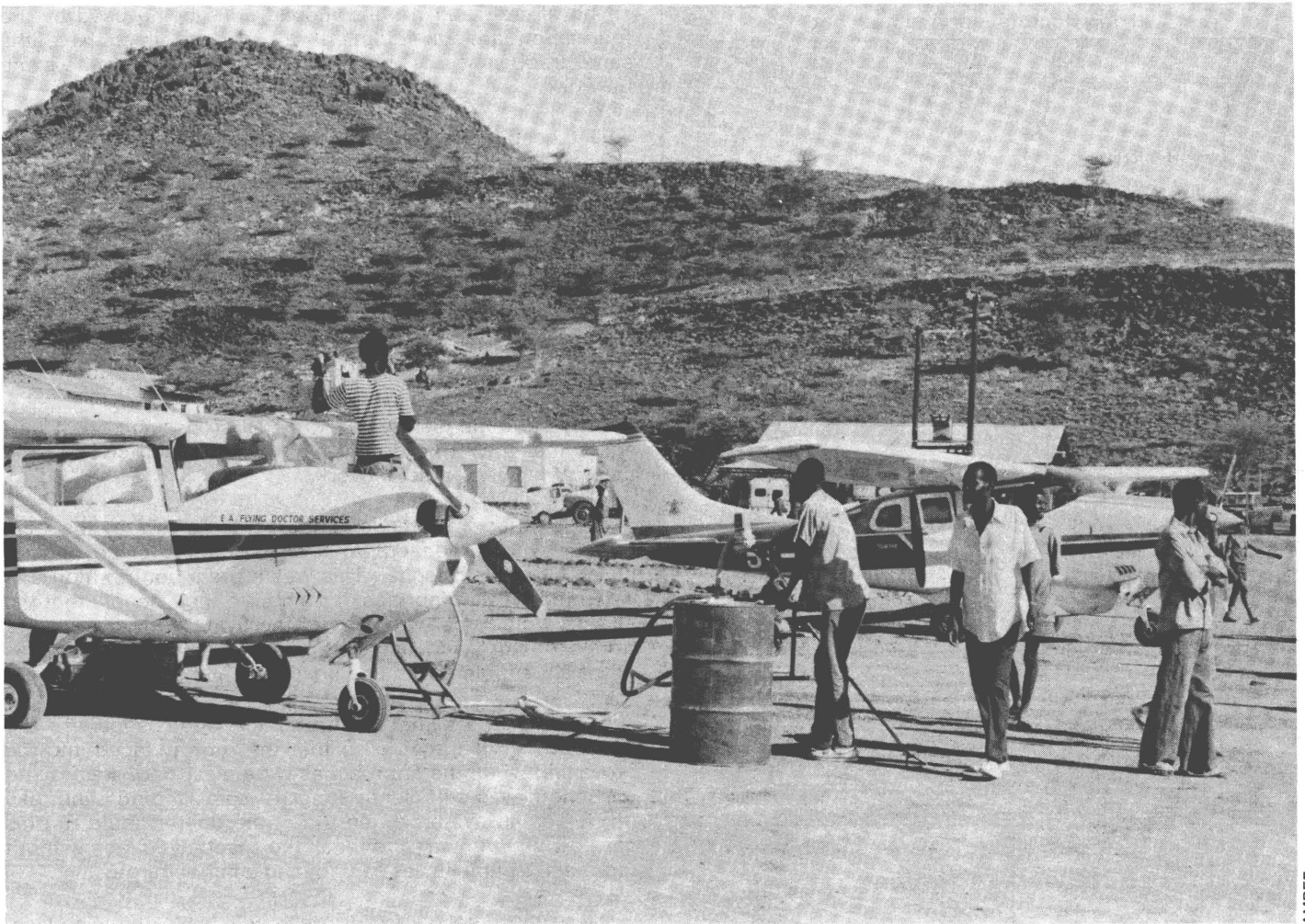
Aircraft

AMREF uses both single and twin engine aircraft. Many of these have been Cessnas, but Pipers and an Islander and a Partenavia have also done excellent service. No aircraft possesses all the virtues and some attributes may have to be sacrificed in order to concentrate on others.

Speed, economy, carrying capacity, short take off and landing ability and availability of spares are among the points which have to be taken into consideration. The aircraft we use have to stand up to rugged conditions as they are often landing on sand or earth turned into mud by the rains.

AMREF now runs its own service in its own hangar. This is found to save money and give the pilots added confidence, as they know that any snags which they find on a particular aircraft will be seen to promptly by engineers who are part of the same organization and whom they trust.

AMREF has found that pilots who have extensive local knowledge, speak the language and are used to the African scene are the best for the job of the flying doctor service. Special techniques have to be learnt by the "bush" pilot, which only local experience can teach. It is so different from airline flying and has been described as "flying by your shirt tails". AMREF expects its pilots to have flown a minimum of 1 000 hours, have a commercial licence, a twin rating and an



AMREF

Refuelling at the landing strip

instrument rating. The flying has to be as professional as the medical care if a safe record is to be earned and maintained

Often the issue is very simple. You either render this service by air or you do not do it at all.

Costs

It is here that the major criticism of flying doctor services is usually levelled. Light aircraft are more expensive than motor vehicles to buy but they have a much longer life, particularly in countries where the rock surfaces are poor.

Their running costs are very similar to those of running a vehicle such as a Land Rover. AMREF's cost per mile (average for the whole fleet) is 4/50 (East African shillings), or 56 US cents. This includes all expenses such as the pilots salary, depreciation, insurance, fuel, maintenance, navigational charges, etc.

It is often true that an aircraft may fly many less miles on a particular journey than a land vehicle will use to complete the same journey. An aircraft can fly straight from A to B while the land vehicle may have to deviate considerably from the shortest line between two points in order to follow the road.

If, on top of this, the doctor's or nurse's time is taken with the calculation on an hourly basis, it will be obvious that flying for them will be cheaper than going by road. There are many instances within AMREF's experience where a road journey which would take 3 days would only require 3 hours by air.

The future

There are unlimited possibilities for developing these flying doctor services in the future.

Helicopters are beginning to be extremely valuable under certain circumstances, such as picking up casualties in the field in war time or picking up accident cases from the roads, as has been shown very dramatically by such a service run on the autobahns of Germany.

AMREF does not use helicopters at the moment because they are four times as expensive to buy and run than fixed wing aircraft, their endurance is less, their carrying capacity is less, they are noisier and their safety record is less good.

It is very probable that as helicopters are developed they will be used more and more in certain types of flying doctor services.

Air travel has become commonplace and there is no reason to suppose that it will not be used increasingly commonly to help render medical care more quickly, more cheaply and more efficiently, provided always that it is seen as an adjunct to existing services and not an end in itself. □

M.W.

The main lines of EDF health projects

The importance of decentralized medical services

Health projects are an important part of every developing country's programme, and this fact is reflected in the prominent place occupied by such projects within the range of social projects supported by the EEC. Currently, there are 150 projects of a social nature on the 4th EDF's national and regional programmes; of these, 50 are of a strictly and evidently health content; while it is possible to discern an important health content and purpose in at least a further 15 projects in related sectors such as housing, site development and rural development.

This simple statistical statement is an indication of our interpretation of health projects, which we share with other organizations. We take the broadest possible view of what constitutes a health project. Any activity or investment which contributes to the improvement of human well-being, both physical and mental, can constitute a health project. Given this definition, a very wide range of activities lies before us, such as draining a swamp, providing safe drinking water, thinning out overcrowding, teaching cookery and domestic hygiene, conducting an immunization campaign, providing recreation facilities, or building, equipping and staffing a hospital. This last item is deliberately mentioned last; it is most important that it should be seen only as one of a variety of possible actions, and not the solution to be immediately seized upon (an error which has unfortunately characterised earlier projects, both ours and other agencies').

From this premise, it follows that in order to identify which components we are going to include in a health project, the nature of the health problem itself, i.e. the need, must be examined and analysed. This intellectual discipline is vital and must not be avoided, even in a case where the answer seems obvious. The problem must be attacked as near to its source as possible, and all temptation to content ourselves with palliating the symptoms must be resisted (no apology is made for formulating this idea in medical terms). The foregoing may seem obvious and not worth mentioning; however, it is a mistake commonly made even now. Let us refurbish this hospital, we say, justifying our choice of action by citing the fact that the hospital is old, overcrowded, and the only one covering a big area. And so we do it, no doubt quite well; but when we finish, what we have done is dealt with the problems of the hospital itself, not necessarily (or even likely) with the health problems of the area, an examination of which might well have revealed that the main investment in men, money and materials should have been in a variety of other actions providing more effective and more lasting improvement to the local health situation—and incidentally also greatly relieving the beleaguered hospital.

Briefly, it cannot be overemphasised that good health is not solely, or even principally, to be found in providing more and better hospitals. These are only one part of the picture.

GUIDELINES

Lessons drawn from our own experiences (successful and unsuccessful) and from the experiences of other organizations can give us the main guidelines we should seek to follow in planning health care projects. For us, these guidelines cover the following fields: integration, structure, continuity, design of infrastructure, nature of action. These apparently cryptic terms are explored in the paragraphs which follow.

Integration

By this we mean the proper place and function of the health system within the overall life, social and economic, of the country. It implies that in designing a project to fit within the health system of the country, we must take account of such factors as climate, topography, population and its distribution, major activities and life patterns (industrial, agricultural, pastoral, maritime, nomadic), social and cultural patterns including family and community behaviour, and factors such as age distribution and educational levels. Human habits (which is all we mean by the somewhat grandiloquent terms used above) are such important conditioners of human health that we must consider them when seeking to make a health investment. Likewise, the economy of the country must be at least summarily known in order to fix a realistic scale for the operation.

Structure

In planning for any sector of development, the whole sector must be examined at once, and the relevance of the planned investment to the whole sector critically appraised. The likely effect of the project on the whole sector, and not the likely success or failure of the project alone, must be the criterion for implementation. This presupposes at least two essential things:

(a) Coherence. There must be an operationally useful pattern over the whole health network of the country or region; a clear function ascribed to every unit (and a respect of that function), together with a system of referral from bottom to top, with the physical facilities, such as communications and transport, to enable the system to work.

(b) Decentralization. The task of the central health body is to determine and execute policy; also to intervene when major sectoral problems arise. The running of units is best left to the appropriate level. This implies that, for example, while major ordering of stocks is a central matter, decisions as to local stock levels are best made locally. It also implies a devolution of some degree of financial management, a need far from universally recognised.

There is one important and general social good which comes from decentralization of health services. Together with decentralization of other sectors, it helps to slow the flow of population to the large towns, which is a major problem not only in developing countries. There is a vicious circle, in which the large towns become more and more crowded and unable to provide essential shelter, work opportunities and community facilities for the flooding

(1) See following article.



Mobile units in Mali

“Good health is not solely, or even principally, to be found in providing more and better hospitals”

population, while the rural areas and small towns drained of their active population get less and less of a share of the limited new investment in infrastructure. This in turn leads to further drainage of people of working age, and so on. For planners who have limited resources, the temptation to invest these valuable resources where they are immediately most acutely needed, i.e. the large towns, can be irresistible. Yet it is obviously vital to break the harmful cycle somewhere.

The provision of scaled health care facilities in the rural and semi-rural areas, and the creation of a feeling of confidence in that care, can be a major power in revitalizing the countryside. It can also give health care a human visage seldom found in a large, overworked central hospital. The current philosophy in development aid is that of help for the poorest; decentralization of facilities follows this philosophy. This does not mean that we now turn our backs on the large central hospital, or on the needs of the urban poor; it simply means that the urban hospital is no longer the automatic answer, but rather is considered, on its needs, along with other possible solutions. Decentralization helps the urban hospital in the longer term; it permits that hospital to resume its role as the local hospital (one of the many in the hierarchical chain) instead of, as now, being besieged with inhabitants of the whole region who have walked for days to get treatment, arriving with complaints either too advanced to respond to treatment, or too trivial to merit it. A similar fate currently befalls the central hospital, which should properly deal only with referred cases, but which at present is forced to operate as a big and unwieldy general hospital open to all.

Continuity

We must plan projects in such a way that they survive and continue to operate on the need for which they were designed, while that need lasts. Experience shows that certain provisions must be built into the project to achieve this continuity of operation. The main ones are:

(a) Staff. A wide range of staff is needed. For the simple rural clinic, this may be a nursing auxiliary, a midwife and a general hand. For a water project, probably a plant manager and technical staff. For a hospital, medical, auxiliary or nursing staff, administrators and technicians. It is important not to forget the non-medical staff, who are the vital majority in most units. In planning the project, we have to consider the existing and anticipated volume and level of available skilled manpower, and provide for training to fill the gaps. Under the Lomé Convention, it is envisaged that the country concerned must find the permanent staff; however, the EDF can and does provide short-term technical assistance and counterpart training to enable projects to get moving. It is found that this complex operation of staffing, including staff planning for future expansion, is easiest when the country has a clear and regularly updated manpower plan.

(b) Operating costs. The philosophy behind the proviso, contained in the Lomé Convention, that countries must provide their own operating costs for projects, is that there is no future in saddling a country with a facility which it cannot run; on the contrary, such a facility can be a very great burden on the national economy. This approach means that operating costs must be considered at the outset.

(c) Maintenance. It has been found that inadequate provision of trained men and money for maintenance of structures and equipment has been one of the greatest problems faced in past projects, and has caused more than one project to be ineffective. For this reason, we are now concentrating very greatly on this need(1). We believe the EDF has given more, and earlier, attention to this problem than has any other major development aid body.

The problem can lie, for example, in the installation of equipment which is too expensive or too complex for local maintenance. A simple example is air-conditioning. A centralized air-conditioning system usually has to be serviced by the makers or suppliers; if, on the other hand, you install window air-conditioning units available locally, these can be removed and replaced by spare units, and can be given preventive maintenance locally. We may even train the hospital electrician to do minor fault-finding and small repairs. And if a whole unit has to be scrapped, it is not a catastrophic loss. It is also found that staff required to operate equipment have little understanding of its design, and hence use it badly and wastefully. And finally, there is often no provision for servicing and replacement at the national level.

The EDF has provided programmes for, inter alia:

- advanced maintenance training for technical staff already in service,
- specialist fault-finding and repair training,
- creation, inside the Ministry of Health, of appropriate maintenance bodies,
- mobile maintenance teams,
- training in proper use of equipment, for medical and auxiliary staff,
- stock-keeping and supply training.

We also think that more could be done by suppliers. In considering supply tenders, a supplier who provides demonstrations and training, together with a simple operating and maintenance manual and a spare parts catalogue, will clearly present advantages.

Design of infrastructure

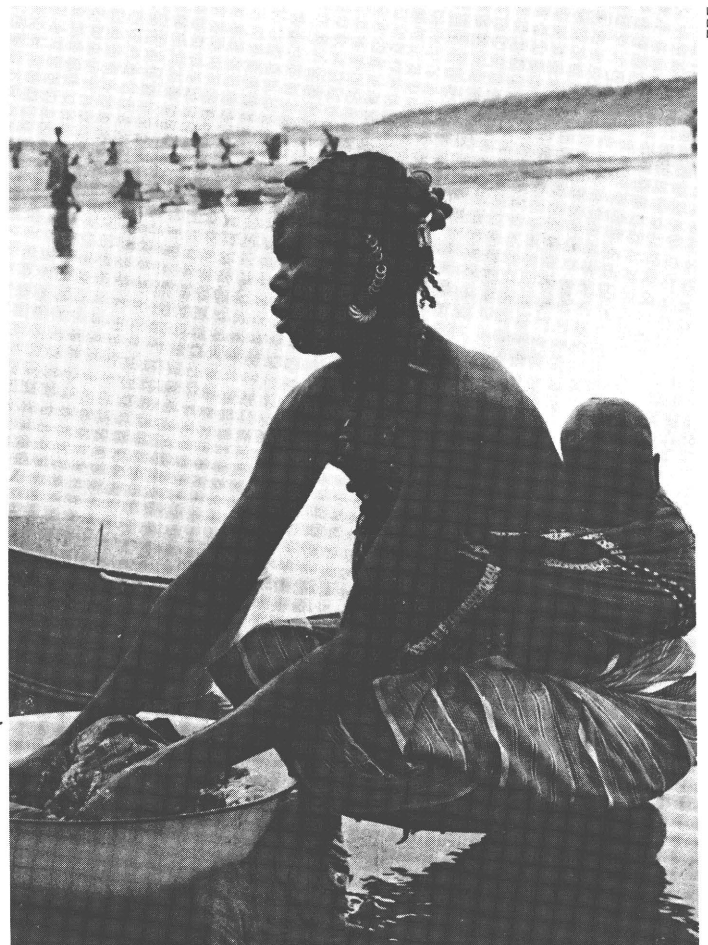
We aim for designs which reflect to the maximum degree possible the desiderata set out in the preceding paragraphs. Characteristics which should be borne in mind include:

(a) Extensibility. No structure remains the same for the whole of its useful life. It is therefore useful, and moneysaving, to provide for easy extension of the structure in the future; often this is best achieved by building on a modular or pavilion design; new units can then be added without further design or any major demolition. The site should always be chosen with this likelihood in mind.

(b) Adaptability. The function even of existing structures may change. It must be foreseen in design, right down to such necessities as accessibility of wiring, piping and ducting.

(c) Climatic conditions. Fortunately, few designers now think exclusively or immediately of total air-conditioning when designing a tropical hospital. It is now common for air-conditioning to be confined to units such as operating theatres and laboratories, while maximum use is made of shade and natural ventilation to take care of the rest. The single-story pavilion design allows for maximum use of these natural (and free!) advantages. Similarly, climatic conditions such as rainy seasons must be borne in mind in designing site and service schemes, to ensure effective drainage of storm water and to minimise the chance of flooding of the sewerage system.

(d) Social conditions. It is idle to design a structure which takes no account of the life-pattern of its beneficiaries. It may, subject to that life-pattern, be necessary to provide accommodation for part of the in-patient's family in a



EDF

Teaching domestic hygiene and proper use of water is a major part of health education

hospital; this in turn may affect the arrangements for cooking and laundering. In remote areas, accommodation may have to be provided for the resident or the touring health worker.

Nature of action

It was said earlier that we think that the type of action to be undertaken must be derived from the analysis of the health problem itself. It is now generally accepted that preventive health measures, backed up by an effective health and hygiene education programme, are a better answer to national health problems than are curative health measures, in every respect. The health projects of the EDF currently reflect this philosophy. Coupled with an encouragement of decentralization, we attempt to emphasise preventive medicine and health education in the programme to be followed under our projects—whether it involves mobile rural health assistants, or resident auxiliary staff with visiting doctor back-up in the village clinics. Health education is almost taken for granted (like so much else) in the industrialized countries. In developing countries, considerable conscious effort is needed to impart such essential knowledge as simple physical and domestic hygiene and nutrition.

If we consider the range of actions which are open to us in formulating our health projects, we are likely to conclude that, in order to be successful, such projects should include several actions. In fact most development aid bodies now integrate into their projects the three main elements of technical solution, financial provision and human resources. All three are in fact vital and complementary, and we should not fall back into the error of omitting any one of them. □

JOHN MACE

EDF

The importance of maintenance of buildings and equipment

The European Community has financed (grants) since 1958 approximately 15000 beds (national, regional, rural hospitals — health centres — dispensaries) in the ACP countries. With almost 20 years of experience, the Commission's departments are now able to pinpoint a number of problems which are affecting, sometimes to a large degree, the utilization of health projects: especially hospitals, health centres and dispensaries. The problem of the maintenance of buildings and equipment is one of these.

The buildings

In general it is found that the buildings are maintained in a fairly regular and satisfactory way in the major hospitals and in the health units run with external aid. In contrast, maintenance is often insufficient or even non-existent in health units at the intermediate and lower levels.

Generally speaking the maintenance of internals (plastering, painting, window and door frames, etc.) is more neglected than the maintenance of the body of the buildings.

Although the governments have become aware of the need to maintain buildings, the funds available are often insufficient or are used to finance other construction work considered more important or more urgent. In the majority of the developing countries it is the Ministry of Public Works which decides the order of priority for maintenance work in all sectors, but without always having objective criteria.

The equipment

Generally speaking, the degree to which equipment is maintained is in inverse relation to its complexity (extreme cases are refrigerating, electrical and heating plants, lifts, sophisticated medical equipment, etc.). The often rapid deterioration of equipment is due in particular to:

- the insufficient quantity and quality of maintenance staff;
- the actions of the users (medical and ancillary medical staff, administrative staff), who are often ill-prepared for the use of European-type equipment;
- the slenderness of maintenance budgets;
- the absence of technical and management structures at national level, in particular the absence of general maintenance schedules and of work and control cards in hospital units.

To avoid prolonged breakdowns, more account should be taken of the choice of hospital equipment. The suppliers of equipment could be obliged, under more strict conditions than in the past, in the general conditions of supply contracts to:

- give users a practical demonstration of the operation of items of equipment;
- supply a very simple guide or maintenance cards which can be easily assimilated by both the user and maintenance staff;

- supply a catalogue for the acquisition of any spare parts required.

Programmes for the training of maintenance staff

The Commission is aware of the fact that the solution of maintenance problems is an essential condition for the proper functioning and full utilization of a hospital, a health centre, etc., and has suggested and financed a number of programmes for the training of maintenance staff. These programmes provide for:

- the advanced training of the workers in service in the medical units to carry out current maintenance work;
- the training of specialists to detect faults and carry out more complex repair jobs;
- the creation, within the Ministry of Health, of appropriate structures for the organization of maintenance work;
- the creation of mobile teams at national level;
- the education of the medical and ancillary medical staff to make rational use of equipment;
- making the administrative staff aware of maintenance and organizational problems and the running of a small stock of spare parts.

Examples

CAMEROON

The projects carried out in Cameroon and financed from the resources of the first and second European Development Funds involved the construction and equipment of:

- eight hospitals;
- 13 hospital extensions (including three hospitals pavilions);
- 21 bush dispensaries;
- a school of nursing in Bamenda;
- a central supply pharmacy in Victoria;
- accommodation for nineteen doctors.

The various units came into service between 1962 and 1971.

The objective of these projects was to bridge the economic and particularly the social development gap between north and south and to establish a better balance between the north and the south of West Cameroon.

In general, the projects were integrated into an existing health infrastructure forming a hierarchical, coordinated system of all treatment units. With the exception of the dispensaries, the projects were limited to the extension, improvement and replacement of existing installations, thereby restricting the increase in recurring expenditure to the minimum. All the health units are being used as intended.

Generally speaking, the projects carried out by the European Development Fund suffered from a lack of current maintenance work in the early years after their entry into service. With the particular aim of remedying the shortage of qualified maintenance staff, the European Development Fund financed — for a four-year period beginning in 1972 — a project for the training of hospital maintenance staff. The objective was to:

- ensure the maintenance and repair of the medical equipment installed in the country's various hospital units;
- train general-purpose workers in the hospital centres;
- train on-the-job repair technicians grouped into mobile maintenance and breakdown teams.

To meet these objectives a technician-instructor was sent to Cameroon, not only to make an inventory and survey of

the maintenance and repairs to be carried out, but also to train maintenance staff in each health unit, and to train technicians grouped into mobile maintenance teams. Scholarships, spare parts, vehicles and tools were also provided.

Two mobile teams are now in operation and are carrying out very useful work, visiting all the health units in turn.

MAURITANIA

In Mauritania, Community aid has financed the construction of the national hospital and the school of nursing in Nouakchott. Further decisions have been taken on the financing of two additional projects: in 1973 on the building of a polyclinic in Nouakchott, and in 1974 on the extension of the national hospital.

In 1974 technical assistance was also financed for a short period (two years) to organize the maintenance department and the training of the maintenance staff: technician-instructor, spare parts, tools, scholarships.

Similar technical assistance was provided for Chad and Somalia.

Future orientation in the field of maintenance of buildings and equipment

The above operation was made some years after the entry into service of the health units, and in fact to avoid prolonged breakdowns. During the period covered by the Lomé Convention (1975-80), the European Development Fund is paying particular attention to the possibility of organizing projects in conjunction with a maintenance personnel programme along the lines of those which the Community has already suggested and financed in some countries.

These programmes will generally comprise:

- further training for maintenance personnel working in health units, who will be responsible for day-to-day maintenance;
- training of specialists to detect faults and carry out more complex repair jobs;
- setting up appropriate facilities for maintenance organization in the ministries of health;
- setting up mobile teams at national level;
- providing medical and ancillary staff with a grounding in the rational use of equipment;
- educating administrative staff on maintenance problems and the organization and management of a limited stock of spare parts.

Furthermore, particular attention will be given to the choice of plant and equipment: consideration must be given to the technological content of the medical services to be provided and to the capital cost and the technical, financial and manpower capabilities for operation and maintenance.

In this framework a recent project will illustrate this orientation.

SIERRA LEONE

The purpose of the project is to improve the existing health infrastructure in Sierra Leone by supplying medical and hospital equipment to the country's public hospitals, dispensaries and health centres. At the same time, training is given to maintenance staff in order to ensure the smooth functioning not only of the equipment provided but also of the existing equipment.

As a whole, the project aims at improving diagnosis and the treatment of out-patients and in-patients, thereby going part of the way towards meeting the priority needs of the population in the field of public health.

Given the nature and the scale of the country's needs, the equipment supplied under the project is as follows:

- equipment for the technical diagnosis departments (radiology laboratory);
- equipment for treatment (operating units — obstetrical, gynaecological and paediatric departments);
- equipment for the in-patients' departments of the three specialist hospitals in the Freetown area (maternity, paediatric and psychiatric);
- basic equipment and instruments for the dispensaries and health centres.

The training aspect covers the provision of a technician-instructor for a period of twelve months and two vehicles fitted out with the appropriate equipment and also the award of scholarships and training grants.

The equipment

The equipment supplied takes account of essential medical requirements and is adapted to local conditions. The equipment is neither complex nor sophisticated, so as to facilitate use and maintenance.

Training scheme

At present, the maintenance of equipment is the responsibility of the Ministry of Health, which, owing to a lack of technicians skilled in repairing medical and other equipment, is not always able to do this job. Therefore, in order to mitigate the absence of technical maintenance staff, a training scheme is undertaken alongside the above-mentioned equipment project. This scheme aims at providing basic and/or advanced training for maintenance staff responsible for supervising the functioning and maintenance of existing and new medical and hospital equipment.

Two mobile teams are created under this scheme. Each team is composed of three local people, who are supplied with a vehicle and the equipment and instruments necessary for their work. Their training is covered by the scholarships and training grants provided for in this project. Each team comprises:

- One technician, specially trained in the maintenance and repair of complex medical equipment. It should be noted here that in Murray Town (near Freetown) there is a regional school for nationals of English-speaking African countries which trains these technicians in 15 months: Centre for Training Technicians in the Maintenance and Repair of Medical Equipment. The technician is more particularly responsible for the maintenance and repair of X-ray, laboratory, operating unit and other equipment;
- one technician who is responsible for the maintenance and repair of less complex hospital equipment: air-conditioners, ventilators, sterilizers, kitchen and laundry equipment, etc.;
- one driver-technician responsible for the maintenance and repair of his own vehicle and the vehicles of the various hospitals visited (ambulances in particular).

Each mobile team is responsible for about ten hospitals: one, in Freetown, visits hospitals in the Western Area, plus some rural hospitals near the capital; the other team, based in the Eastern Province, visits the other rural hospitals.

Each hospital will consequently be guaranteed not only an average of two visits per month by the mobile team, but will moreover be able to call on it in an emergency, which will ensure that the various equipment necessary for maintaining continuity in the care and treatment of patients functions properly.

When the new equipment covered by this project is installed, it is necessary to familiarize the operators, the permanent maintenance staff and the staff of the mobile teams with the equipment in question and to ensure adequate on-the-job training for these people. Consequently, a technician-instructor was also planned for a period of twelve months to supplement the training scheme and to ensure its success. This technician-instructor is on the spot

at least two months before the new equipment is installed in order not only to make an inventory and survey of the maintenance and repairs to be carried out on the existing equipment and to supervise the installation of the new equipment, but also to train the operators and the maintenance staff and to coordinate the duties and activities of the mobile teams.

Assessment of the project

The project described above is in line with the government's public health policy objectives and the priorities adopted under the plan.

The project fits in with the health authorities' aim of increasing, in a first stage, the existing health infrastructure by improving the equipment of general hospitals and by extending and equipping certain specialist hospitals. It can thus be seen as supplementing the work undertaken by Sierra Leone.

The supply of equipment to the departments given priority status by the project contributes directly in the short term to increasing the efficiency of the facilities already available and consequently to achieving the fundamental objectives in the field of public health, which are to provide better protection for mother and child, to increase life expectancy at birth and reduce the overall death rate and the infant mortality rate.

As regards the equipment supplied, the project takes into account, as fully as possible, the physical and human circumstances as much as the medical requirements. Consequently, the equipment is neither complex nor sophisticated so as to make for simplicity and ease of use and maintenance and to keep the running costs within the budget earmarked for this purpose.

Lastly, the project does not merely involve the supply of equipment but is to be supplemented by an in-built training scheme which helps to solve the problem of ensuring the proper functioning and maintenance of the equipment and which costs only a low percentage of the project.

GUINEA

This is a project to improve Guinea's health infrastructure by providing health centres and hospitals with both vehicles and medical/hospital instruments and equipment. Alongside this there will be a training scheme for maintenance staff, similar to one run in Sierra Leone.

Training scheme

Maintenance of buildings and equipment is currently carried out by the following staff:

— **In each region.** A team of masons/carpenters/plumbers and radio technicians for basic repairs.

— **At the Ministry of Health.** An all-purpose 21-man team (higher and middle cadres, an engineer, assistant engineers and skilled workmen).

— **Rolling stock.** A central repairs garage in Conakry and a specially fitted vehicle to visit the regions at their request for various maintenance and repair work.

It should be noted that the regional teams can only cope with basic upkeep and small repairs and that the Conakry team, although of high quality, still lacks experience.

The health authorities have therefore decided to reorganize and restructure the maintenance services as follows:

Administration/management service

This will be in the health directorate and therefore situated in Conakry. Its main tasks will be:

- i) keeping records of existing apparatus and equipment;
- ii) ordering equipment, supplies and spare parts;
- iii) managing the stock of spare parts;
- iv) coordinating the maintenance teams;
- v) handling various administrative matters.

Technical service

This comprises:

1. Central maintenance teams

There will be two such teams, based in Conakry as most of the important and complex items and equipment are in the capital. Each team will consist of a variety of qualified staff able to cope with the whole range of maintenance and repair work

The teams will travel to the regions, where necessary, to carry out any repairs which are beyond the scope of the local teams. Two heavy-duty vehicles will be provided by the project for this purpose.

2. Mobile regional teams

Their job will be to carry out maintenance and repair work on machines and equipment demanding a higher level of technical skill and more specialized tools than the existing regional teams can currently offer.

There will be three of these teams in all, based in Kankan, N'Zérékoré and Labé.

Three heavy-duty vehicles will be provided by the project for these mobile teams.

In order to ensure that the maintenance service is satisfactory, a training scheme will be provided as follows:

— **For the users.** Instruction in the use of equipment to avoid breakdowns due to mistakes or carelessness.

— **For the workers.** Primarily practical instruction to suit the specific requirements of the individual hospitals.

— **For the technicians.** Training to enable the mobile teams to carry out any maintenance and repair work where special technical skill is required.

— **For administrative staff.** Training to ensure that the central maintenance service is run in a rational and efficient manner.

The project also includes six grants for study abroad (about 60 months) for technical and administrative staff, as part of the training scheme. These will go to the five technicians (in electronics and electro-mechanics) who are to lead the teams and the administrator who will be in charge of the management service.

In order to ensure that the maintenance service is properly reorganized both administratively and technically, that the staff training scheme is a success and that the activities of the teams are properly coordinated, the project also includes the provision of a technician/instructor for a two-year period. He will go out at least two months before the equipment provided by the project is installed. His job will be to list what maintenance and repair work needs to be done to existing equipment, supervise installation of the new equipment, teach the staff who will be responsible for its use and upkeep and organize the duties and activities of the mobile teams.

Finally, the project training scheme includes provision of a stock of spare parts and a selection of tools. This is to enable any maintenance, repairs or alterations required at the beginning of the in-service training to be carried out and to constitute a basic revolving fund for the reorganized maintenance service. □

PAUL DEDOYARD

THE CONVENTION AT WORK

NEGOTIATIONS

ACP-EEC ministerial meeting in Brussels

Issues "discussed in depth"

On 21 December 1978 a ministerial negotiation conference was held at ACP House, Brussels, between the EEC and the African, Caribbean and Pacific States which signed the Lomé Convention. It took stock of progress in the negotiations to establish a new convention which would come into force when the Lomé Convention expires.

The chairman on the EEC side was Mr Klaus von Dohnanyi, minister of state, Federal Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Germany (President-in-Office of the EEC Council) and, on the ACP side, Dr Sione Tapa, minister for health and finance of Tonga and President of the Council of Ministers of the ACP group.

von Dohnanyi: "a step in the right direction"

In an opening speech to the ministerial conference, Klaus von Dohnanyi emphasized that "Lomé is a concrete step in the right direction towards a new world economic order". The pre-

sent economic situation offered newer possibilities than in 1975 but, Mr Dohnanyi said, "we can go beyond Lomé. We need a dialogue to maintain the Lomé Convention, not to destroy it, because there is still a lot to be done under the Convention and because a constructive dialogue on the ACP requests is necessary". Some of their requests could not be considered, either for economic reasons or because they went back on what had already been concluded under the Lomé Convention, the minister said. He added that EEC-ACP relations must be based on liberty and justice, on the charter of the United Nations and the Universal Declaration on Human Rights. "We want to confirm our will to improve living conditions in the ACP countries and for that we have problems to solve together. We must conclude a pact for mutual progress", Mr Dohnanyi said.

Declaration from Dr Tapa

In reply Dr Tapa made the following declaration:

The two presidents in a relaxed mood

Klaus von Dohnanyi (right) and Sione Tapa. Between them, Tiéoulé Konate, secretary-general of the ACP group



IN THE YELLOW PAGES

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VI-VII. Visits to the Commission by the Presidents of Kenya and the Gambia

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XII. Dominica: the 56th member of the ACP group

GENERAL INFORMATION

XV. Club of Dakar: 5th meeting in Libreville

XVI. UNCTAD: meeting on the common fund

XIX. Namibia: SWAPO visit and training programme in Jamaica

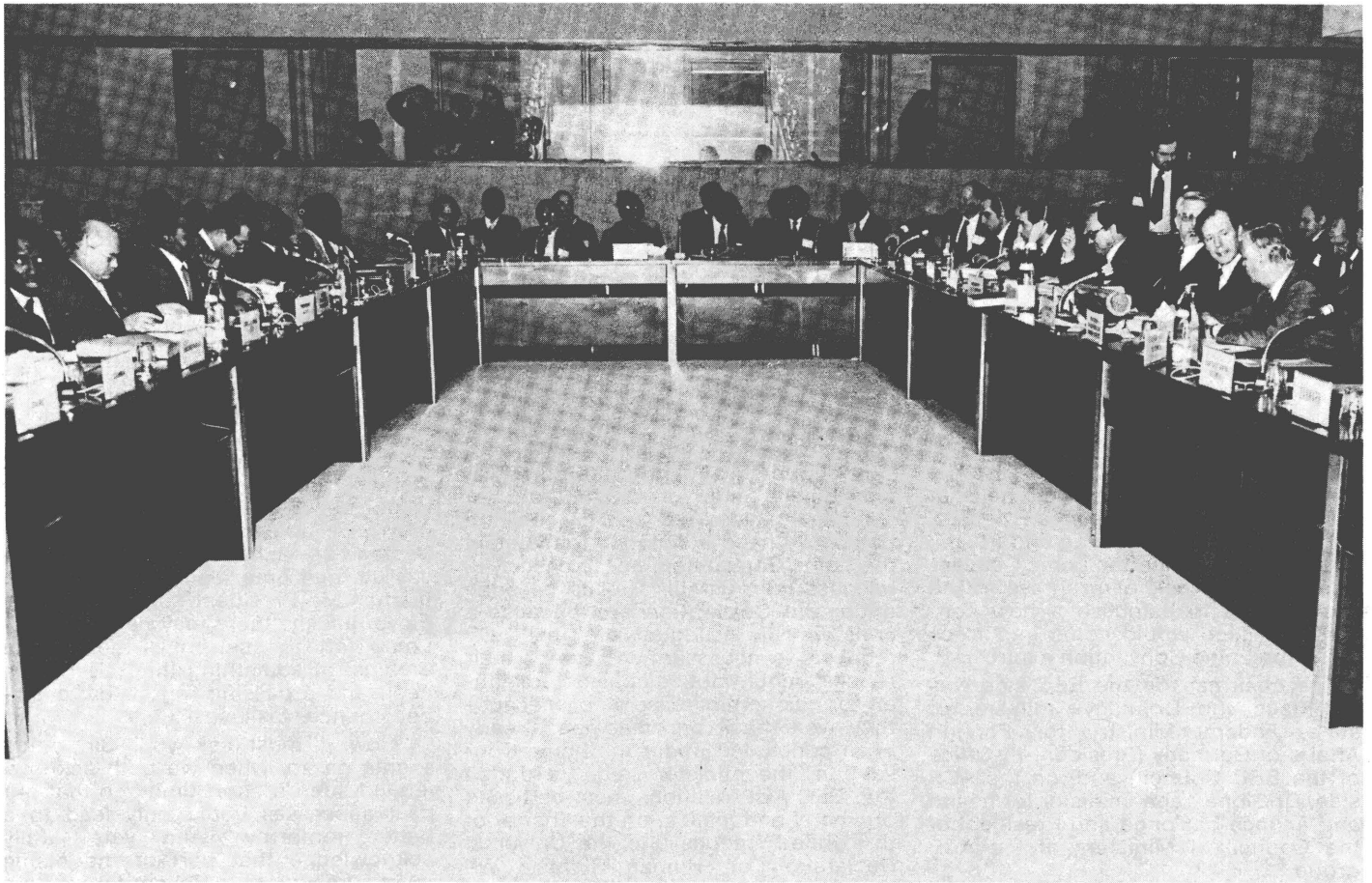
EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

XXII. European summit in Brussels

XXVI. Socialists: preparing for the elections

CID

XXIX. Business opportunities



EEC

General view of the meeting, with the ACP delegations on the left and in the background, and the Europeans on the right

fruits of your honest labours. If I be permitted the observation, Sir, we come as friends of long standing with a tradition of links and bonds with the comity of Europe that predates the Treaty of Rome itself.

"That is why we do not appreciate the Community's failure to concede our **request for free and unimpeded entry to the Community market for all the products** we are able to produce and sell to the Community, taking into account the reality of our falling share of your market and our worsening balance of trade with the Community since we signed the Lomé Convention.

"Mr President, how can we make progress in our negotiations when you fail to recognise what all the world knows, that our level of industrial development is low, that most of our countries can never, in this century perhaps, be expected to produce goods meeting the origin requirements on which you insist in the Lomé Convention. When therefore you insist on such rules of origin for our goods to qualify for free entry, you must be aware that, save for our agricultural products, of which you limit a significant portion due to your Common Agricultural policy, we really cannot meet the Rules of Origin requirements so as to benefit from free entry provisions.

"But, Mr President, we find it particularly discouraging that even the rare cases where some of us are able to meet this origin requirement we notice

that you are increasingly limiting the amount we can sell to you—first, for example, for rum; now you are proposing to do so with textiles—even though you sell more of these to us than we sell to you.

"Further, Mr President, we continue to be perplexed with the disturbing experience we have regarding the tiny quantity of beef and veal which we export to the Community. We firmly hope that any successor arrangement which we may sign with you puts this matter on a secure and satisfactory footing in keeping with its acknowledged merit.

"We find that our agricultural exports must be limited", continued Dr Tapa, "because of the Common Agricultural Policy and our exports of the limited industrial products which we can produce to meet the rules of origin must, if they do qualify, be restricted for other reasons—all the while being told by the Community that the reasons are all valid. Mr President, are there other types of product left for us to produce and sell to you?"

"No wonder our share of your trade cannot increase, though I am glad for your sake, that this has not affected the significant progress in **your** exports to us. When we seek to negotiate free entry for all our products, and more realistic rules of origin, we are given to understand that this is likely to be of marginal effect and in any case not possible.

"Mr President, let me remind you, we have seen what the extension of the Generalised Scheme of Preferences can do to our trade; we are aware of the changes which **the Multilateral Trade Negotiations** will bring by way of more competition in your market and we know that **the imminent enlargement** of the Community will bring in even more preferential competition. Under these circumstances, how your side can fail to meet the requests we have advanced to protect our already declining share of your trade is beyond our understanding. Either you have not seriously turned your mind to this question so as to appreciate the danger to us, or you do not fully appreciate our problems. I firmly hope it is the former.

"We have sought to have our experimental **Stabex** scheme implemented in full, taking care to improve the very weaknesses which informed opinion on your own side recognised in 1974, and which we have experienced over the years since 1975. For this we are likely to be denounced, but, Mr President, how can fluctuations in trade to the value of nearly 13 000 million units of account be effectively stabilised by 75 million units of account, or 0.56 % of the trade value!"

"We have placed great hope in our **industrial development**, committed as we are to assuming increasing reliance on our resources for our own development. As you must be aware, we share a fundamental mutuality and inter-de-

pendence in our industrial development. We are therefore seeking cooperation and **partnership** in advancing this process, which calls for access to your technology, know-how and information, greater processing of raw materials in our countries, adequate financial and training resources and more realistic rules of origin for the disposal of some of our products on your markets. In return, we offer your side a share in the processing of our significant supplies of raw material, access to our growing markets and an opportunity to share in the growth that must follow.

"We also strongly advise that the adoption of a realistic adjustment policy on your part is indispensable if your countries are to be encouraged to adopt the necessary measures to meet the inevitable short-term difficulties which they would face in the process of complementary development and if your economic operators are to find it sufficiently profitable to join us in that process.

"Mr President, we are not yet in a state of despair, but we are concerned at your failure to understand our positions and determination on this issue and at your difficulty in seeing how important a special fund for industrial development and less stringent rules of origin must be to this process.

"We are sure that you know from the experience of your own countries how important **agricultural development** is to the overall development of any country. In our case, not only will it help alleviate the chronic food shortage which some of our countries are only too prone to, but it should also help us to export more to the Community. **Our least developed, landlocked and island countries** which include some of the poorest countries on this globe have sought to obtain additional support for their development commensurate with the extra handicaps they face. We are yet to receive any clear sign of response although there can surely be no argument as to the deserving nature of their case.

"The financial assistance which you have so far provided in the Lomé Convention can only be considered as inadequate having regard to the quantity, terms and conditions and the benefits it confers on ACP states. Our offer to sit with you in consideration of every aspect of the appraisal and approval of projects have not been welcomed and yet this fund from which costs are met has been provided for our benefit.

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"Mr President, in spite of the pessimistic nature of my message let me say immediately that we do not come to this meeting with a negative or defeated spirit. We come, still with hope and a determination to search for way to widen and strengthen the bridge of Lomé...

"The peoples of this Community of Europe should not fear to take the next



Above, the ACP president Dr Tapa (centre with spectacles) with Mr Konate, on his right, and Ambassador Faletau of Tonga, on his left. Standing behind him, Mr Asante, chairman of the ACP Committee of Ambassadors. Below, the EEC president Mr von Dohnanyi (centre) with, on his right, Mr Lesort and Mr Cheysson, and on his left Mr Sigrist, chairman of the EEC Committee of Permanent Representatives



step forward—three hundred million people of our developing world are with you and for you."

Cheysson: world-wide attention

Development commissioner Claude Cheysson spoke briefly on the world-wide attention given to the Lomé Convention and said it was the most original attempt at cooperation between industrialized and developing countries even if it had not solved all the problems. All involved in the current negotiations carried the greater

responsibility because of this. No doubt there are still worries to overcome and misunderstandings can always appear because of differing interpretations of the same figures or different approaches to the same problem. The development commissioner gave two examples: the ACP side is concerned by the rules of origin, but during Lomé there have been four demands for derogations and four have been granted. As to enlargement, which has created some worry among the ACP group, this possibility should not be regarded as a threat but rather a hope that new markets will be opened

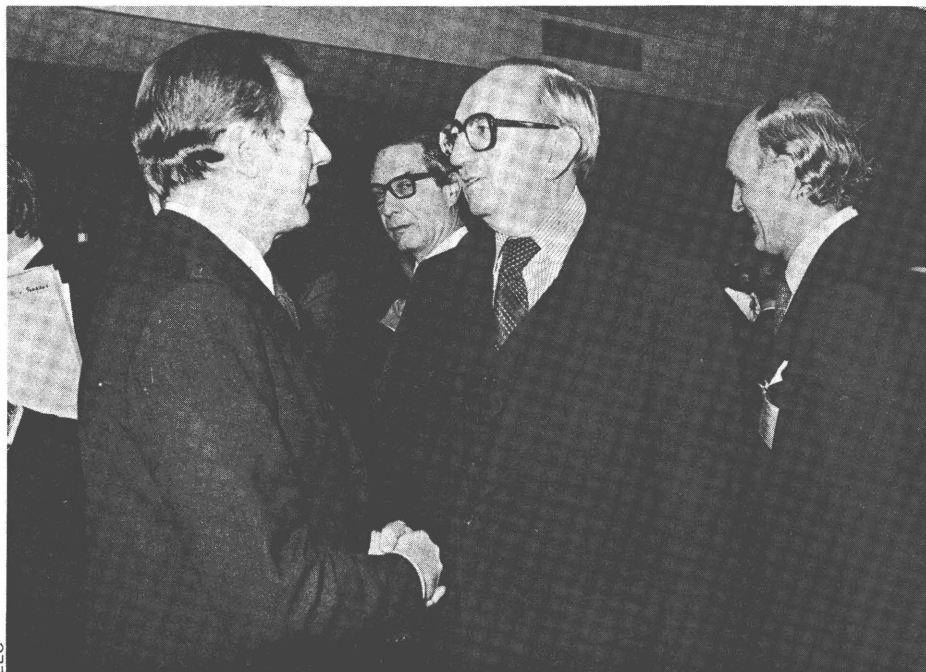
up. At present only 3% of Spain's imports come from the ACP. There is therefore the chance of advances being made in a market of 35 million people.

The working parties

After opening statements by the two presidents, the conference divided into three working groups to study various aspects of the negotiations. Although the opening statements gave firm negotiating positions, the discussions that followed were held in a relaxed atmosphere and were constructive in tone. The brief reports of the three working groups will be communicated to the negotiators, who will be asked to use them as guidelines.

The first working party discussed trade cooperation and Stabex. On trade it discussed four issues: free access to markets, the use of the safeguard clause, generalized preferences and trade promotion. The group then agreed guidelines for the negotiators on Stabex covering the list of products to be covered, the degree of dependence and fluctuation thresholds, the impact of inflation, loss cover, the reconstitution of resources made available to the system, the free use of transfers and the destination of exports covered.

The second group considered industrial cooperation, which covered training, sectoral consultations, a proposed



Klaus von Dohnanyi (left) with Belgian foreign minister Henri Simonet. On the right, Jean Durieux, deputy director-general in the Commission

fund for industrial cooperation, investment, energy, rules of origin and fishing agreements.

Finally, the third group considered a wide range of subjects including technical and financial cooperation, and agricultural and regional cooperation.

The timetable

The negotiations will continue through the early part of 1979 and two ministerial gatherings are envisaged. Both sides were aware that the negotiations' speed will determine whether a

Some of the ACP delegations with, on the far left, the only prime minister present, Ratu Sir Kamisese Mara of Fiji



new agreement can be ratified by all the parties in time for it to replace the existing Convention without a gap. The negotiations should end by June at the latest.

The presidential group

In a separate presidential working party other questions were discussed such as human rights and the duration of the new convention. Again it was agreed to have more discussions on these subjects in the first part of 1979.

"A good day's work"

For Mr Cheysson, the development commissioner, speaking informally just after the meeting to journalists, the ministerial meeting had made some progress. "We have begun discussions," he said, "in fields which were refused until now. It is striking that in the conclusions there is a list of subjects, put forward by the ACP, which the Community has so far avoided discussing. Now we shall have to discuss them in the negotiations. It was a good day's work, too, from the point of view of the simplicity of the talks. We approached subjects in depth, and not superficially, even very difficult subjects like protectionism and the extension of Stabex to new products, etc. We didn't reach agreement on everything, but there was no subject that wasn't taken up, and taken up in substance.

"Let us take a technical example, the rules of origin. The ACP countries say to us that although these rules do not actually adversely affect existing industries, they could hinder the creation of new industries, a theory that I had never heard before. On the other hand we have said that we do not want to see the ACP simply putting a new stamp on Japanese or American exports so that they can enter our market freely. This is the sort of thing which was never said during the negotiations, but which is, however, very important.

"Since the beginning of the negotiations the ACP have asked for new ideas to be injected into the Stabex system, for example, the problem caused by inflation. We didn't agree, but now we are committed in the paper on Stabex to examine the effect of inflation on export receipts."

There was progress too on the complex problems of industrial reorganization. "The ACP ask us," said Mr Cheysson, "to organize our policies of industrial restructuring with their interests in mind. This isn't new, but immediately afterwards the document talks of consultations by sector between the ACP and the Community to enable us to foresee the areas where restructuring will be necessary because of the growth of ACP exports."

Both sides accepted that the list of products at present should continue to be covered, but it was also agreed that

others should be considered, and that this would include consideration of minerals and non-agricultural products.

"It was noted that the question of thresholds should be examined, but it was also noted that the less favoured countries get an advantage at present from the thresholds. That is not to say that I am suggesting that our ACP partners agree to maintaining differing thresholds, but the fact that the advantage was noted, that it helped the less favoured, points that way. As to industrial cooperation, there was a large measure of agreement on the type of operations the ACP wish to see covered by a fund. If we are strongly

opposed to the fund, we are not opposed to the type of operations they would like to see covered by the fund. We feel there are other means than the creations of a different fund.

"There is a strong declaration on the unity of the EDF which should not be divided into too many tranches. There is already a section for Stabex and one for regional cooperation, but that is the extent of it. The idea of having smaller funds to the right and to the left appears to have been dropped.

"Today's meeting was not expected to take decisions, but to establish problems. And in the way it has identified them, common points are appearing." □

NON-ASSOCIATED STATES

African countries not yet part of the ACP-EEC Convention

At the end of December two financing agreements were signed between the EEC and Angola and Mozambique. For the first time a Mozambique minister came to the Commission for the signing, the finance minister, Mr Rui Dos Santos Alves.

Mozambique

Fish processing, Beira.

3 000 0000 EUA as a grant.

The project is to provide a fish processing plant supplied with fish caught by the Mozambique fleet. Located in the fish bay of the Port of Beira, the plant will produce 2 000 tonnes per year of canned fish products and process 1 600 tonnes fish and prawn offal for animal feed. The project follows from studies financed by Italian bilateral aid.

This will be the first time that Mozambique has received a grant under the financial and technical aid to non-associated developing countries. Other forms of community aid have, however, been received (food and emergency), and may be received in the form of regional projects with ACP states (Tanzania, Zambia, Swaziland). Mozambique has expressed the intention of being represented, at least as an observer, during the negotiations for Lomé II.

The principal results the project is designed to provide are:

- A saving of 0.8 M EUA per year in foreign exchange by import substitution of 2 000 tonnes preserved fish products, and 400 tonnes of fish meal;
- Provision of a stable market for local fishermen, an essential input to the government's priority plan for expanding the fishing sector and;
- Creation of jobs for 100 people.

Furthermore, inputs included in the project to ensure that Mozambique will supply the fish to be processed are designed to provide the following secondary benefits.

- Increased export of crustaceans conservatively valued at 0.8 M EUA per year and;
- Substitution of imported fish valued at 0.2 M EUA.

Finance to meet total project costs (4.22 M EUA) will be provided: by Mozambique (1.00 M EUA), by Italian bilateral aid (0.22 M EUA), by the EEC (3.00 M EUA).

Angola

Development of the fishing sector in Mocamedes region. Grant, 500 000 EUA.

The programme includes technical assistance in the form of the supply of materials and spare parts to reanimate the fishing industry in the region of Mocamedes. It aims, in particular, to repair and set working the Somar installations which include a processing plant, a freezing plant and refrigerated storage.

This is the first time that Angola has received Community aid under the heading of cooperation with non-associated developing countries, since until now it has only benefited indirectly from food aid from the Community in 1976, 1977 and 1978. Fishing is very important for Angola. Statistics show that in 1973, the last year in which there were normal catches, some 500 000 tonnes of fish were taken. Since then, because of the events which led up to independence, this has fallen by two thirds.

The main aim of the project is to supply the internal Angolan market with fish since the population lacks sources of protein. □

Suriname, Caricom and the Port of Spain regional seminar

The *Courier* reported on the major regional seminar on the Lomé Convention, held in Port of Spain (Trinidad and Tobago) last June, in issue no. 52 (pp. 38-40). All the Caribbean ACP countries and British dependencies were represented at the seminar, which was organized by the Trinidad and Tobago authorities with the help of the Commission of the European Communities, and this was indicated in our report without any particular country being singled out. A list of the ACP countries is always given inside the *Courier* front cover for readers who may not know them already. Nonetheless, one of the countries represented at the seminar, Suriname, is sufficiently different from the others in the Caribbean framework to be given special attention, as has been requested by Suriname's ambassador in Brussels, Mr R.A. Ferrier.

Suriname is the only Dutch-speaking ACP country. Situated on the north-east coast of the Latin American continent, it does not belong to any economic or political organization in the region and has only just become a member, with Guyana, of the Amazonian Pact. Suriname is not a member of the Caribbean Common Market (Caricom), to which the independent Commonwealth Caribbean countries belong; for convenience, its representatives sit with the Caribbean group within the ACP organization in Brussels, by special request.

"Suriname's participation in the Port of Spain meeting did not take place in the Caribbean framework—it was evidence of Suriname's great interest in this sort of conference on the Lomé Convention. As in most ACP countries, few people in Suriname seem to be properly informed about the Lomé Convention and the importance of bilateral and multilateral cooperation between the ACP countries and the European Community", Mr Ferrier said. "By our presence in Port of Spain we wanted to show our attachment to the indispensable solidarity among the ACP countries, in order to strengthen our position as regards our European partners".

Attending the seminar gave Suriname the benefit of the excellent analyses of the form and content of the Convention made by the various delegations, Mr Ferrier said. Suriname's interest in the seminar was reflected in the level and number (five) of the members of its delegation. They were: H.S.

SURINAME

Suriname's ambassador in Brussels, asks us to point out that the name of his country is now spelt with a final "e", following a recent United Nations decision, and no longer as "Surinam".

Rijsdijk (leader), director of the National Planning Bureau and EDF authorizing officer; A.S. Leekong, chairman of the Chamber of Commerce; E.P. Doest, head of division in the Ministry of Economic Affairs; H.S. Hildenberg, economist responsible for EEC questions in the Ministry of Development; and K. Texel, an economist in the Ministry of Finance. They found the seminar very useful, Mr Ferrier said.

As regards the character of his country and the economic policy of his government, the ambassador said the policy had been, since 1947, one of openness to everyone willing to cooperate with the Republic of Suriname towards its development. There was therefore no drawback in Suriname's belonging to the ACP group or taking part in December in conferences for Latin American countries, Mr Ferrier added. □

KENYA

President Daniel Arap Moi in Brussels

In mid-November the new Kenyan President, Daniel Arap Moi, made his first visit abroad since assuming office, and included in his tour the Belgian capital where he met the European Commission's President, Roy Jenkins, and development commissioner Claude Cheysson for talks on Kenya-EEC cooperation, the current ACP-EEC negotiations and the situation in southern Africa.

The EEC's indicative aid programme for Kenya from the 4th European Development Fund (EDF) totals 72 million EUA (712 296 million KSh). However the total amount of aid Kenya is receiving is more than double this amount due to assistance from other sources such as the European Investment Bank and regional projects.

Priority in the indicative aid programme is given to innovative rural development which has served as invaluable experience for the new development plan which will be finalised at the end of the year. The projects undertaken have not only been the largest ever undertaken by Kenya but have also involved close coordination between the EEC and certain Member States notably the UK and Germany.

The main projects in the indicative programme are:

— Upper Tana Reservoir

The EDF is contributing 26 million EUA (257 218 million KSh.) and the EIB 12 million EUA (118 716 million KSh.) towards the overall cost of the project Germany is also contributing 34.6 million EUA (342 298 million KSh.) and the UK 15.6 million EUA (154 331 million KSh.). The total cost is estimated at 110



The five members of the Suriname delegation at the regional seminar in Port of Spain. From left to right Mr K. Texel, Mr H.S. Hildenberg, Mr E.P. Doest, Mr H.S. Rijsdijk, head of the delegation and Mr A.S. Leekong. From right to left Mr G. Bullan and Mr Saint-Rose, respectively directors of the Caribbean Investment Corporation and the Caribbean Development Bank (Jamaica)

million EUA (1.088 billion KSh.). The project is part of a comprehensive plan to develop the Tana river basin, the most important in Kenya. The reservoir will control the water flow and increase both the hydroelectric power generating capacity and the amount available for irrigation and domestic use. The project involves the construction of a large dam across the river and a 40 MW power station.

— **Bura Irrigation Scheme**

The EDF is contributing 10.6 million EUA (104 866 million KSh.) towards the total cost of 85.2 million EUA (842 884 million KSh.). The Netherlands is also contributing 7.7 million EUA (76 176 million KSh.) and the UK 7.5 million EUA (74.197 million KSh.). This project is part of the Tana river development plan. It involves the irrigation of 6 700 hectares of virgin land on the west bank of the Tana river to be used mainly for cotton growing. Water will be supplied by a 19 km main canal and a 40 km subsidiary canal leading from the river. Construction is expected to start in mid-1979 and should be completed by 1984. About 5 150 people will be settled on the land and this will involve the provision of physical and social infrastructure.

— **Machakos Integrated Development Programme**

The EEC is contributing 20 million EUA (197 860 million KSh.) towards this project which is part of a long term scheme to improve the living standard of poor people in the Machakos district which covers an area of 14 000 sq. km between Nairobi and Mombasa. In the first four year phase aid will be concentrated on improving farm productivity, water and land management. EDF finance will be used to buy fertilizers, pesticides and seeds and animal dips for tick control. EDF aid will also be

used to construct and equip a new polyclinic at Machakos Provincial Hospital and four health centres in the district.

Kenya's trade with the EEC 1973-1977
('000 EUA)

	1973	1975	1977
Imports	159 091	177 641	520 471
Exports	222 500	273 305	447 700

In 1977 Kenya was the 5th largest exporter to the EEC and the 6th largest importer from the EEC among the ACP countries. □

GAMBIA

President Dawda Jawara visits the Commission

President Jawara, who is also current chairman of the 8 nation Sahel Committee, visited the European Commission headquarters on November 24 for talks with European Commission President Roy Jenkins, and Claude Cheysson, European Commissioner responsible for development policy. At a press conference, the Gambian leader indicated that discussions with EEC leaders had focused essentially on the problems currently facing the Sahel region, and the way in which the EEC's indicative aid programme for Gambia could be more efficiently and rapidly implemented. As regards the Sahel Development Programme, the President indicated that some 30% of the total 3 billion dollar programme had been financed and that a further 50% seemed likely to be forthcoming from international institutions provided that work on financing and pre-investment

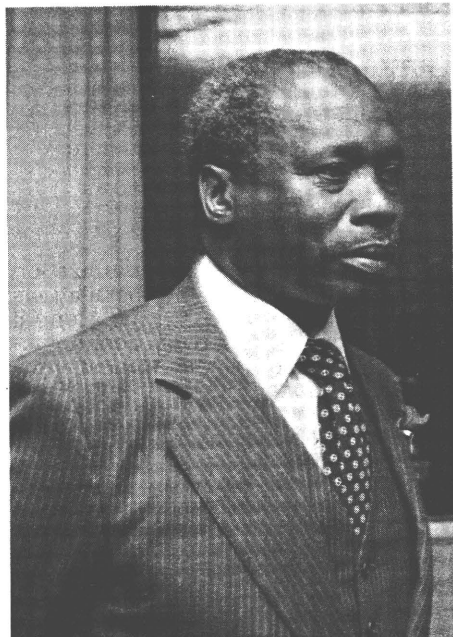
studies is satisfactorily completed. The drawing up of these projects is currently the main concern of the Sahel countries, noted President Jawara, who asked for EEC assistance in this sector.

Although discussions between the President and Commission leaders on the new EEC/ACP Convention currently being negotiated in Brussels, were "general" the Gambian leader indicated to the press certain aspects of the future Convention which are of particular importance to Gambia. On the controversial question of human rights, President Jawara noted that, although Gambia was in favour of including such a clause in the new Convention, it would abide by the decision taken by the majority of the ACP group which felt that such a clause has no place in an economic and trade agreement such as the Lomé Convention. Other sectors of interest for Gambia include the development of dynamic trade promotion activities ranging from the production to the marketing stage, and the creation of a centre for agricultural development.

Turning to the problem of Stabex, another question currently being debated by EEC and ACP experts, President Jawara indicated that Stabex coverage should be extended to include minerals, such as copper, phosphates, and tourism activities, and that transfers should be more rapid and less subject to bureaucratic delays. The EDF assistance programme should be increased and the Community should improve concessional lending facilities for the least developed countries and ACP countries suffering from debt servicing problems. Special measures should also be introduced for the Sahelian members of the Lomé Convention, he added.

Bilateral cooperation between the two sides is "satisfactory" noted the President and both sides have agreed

President Daniel Arap Moi



President of the Gambia, Sir Dawda Jawara, arriving at the Commission



CLICHE CEE

to increase implementation of the indicative aid programme from 40% to 80%, with new projects covering regional cooperation with Senegal and Guinea Bissau, and the development of road infrastructure receiving priority. Gambia receives some 11.3 million EUA from the Community under its indicative aid programme, and has received emergency aid from the EEC worth 800,000 EUA and 1.5 million EUA as Stabex transfers. □

EDF

After the favourable opinions given by the 131st meeting of the European Development Fund Committee on 14 November 1978, the Commission took a number of financing decisions on the 20 and 28 November. The approval of these projects raised the level of commitments under the 4th EDF to 1 562 599 000 EUA.

The details are as follows:

The Caribbean (St. Lucia)

Development of Livestock—Phase I

Commitment proposed as a grant:
1 000 000 EUA

4th EDF

1 EUA = 3 376 EC dollars

Summary of the project:

1. a 300 breeding cow nucleus unit (880 total head) for integrated production of beef and milk on a dual purpose programme;
2. ten smallholder units based on 15 breeding cows plus followers (44 total head) in each unit;
3. a milk processing unit with capacity for pasteurizing 4 000 litres daily;
4. an abattoir and meat cutting plant with total capacity of 1 000 animals per year.

When fully operational the nucleus unit and the 10 smallholder farms will produce 560 000 litres of milk and the equivalent of 170 tons of beef on the hoof.

The total cost of the project is estimated at 1 200 000 EUA. The government contribution will consist in the supply of 100 cows equivalent to approximately 120 000 EUA. The contribution requested from the Community amounts to 1 000 000 EUA in the form of a grant.

Lesotho

Rural post offices with a distinctly social objective, facilitating communication of all kinds especially with emigrant workers.

Commitment proposed as a grant:
1 500 000 EUA

4th EDF

1 EUA = 1.06 Rand

The purpose of the project is to improve communications by building 22 new post offices in areas which strongly need more complete postal services. Lesotho is heavily dependent on postal communications because 60% of its labour force is constantly abroad, working as migrant labour in South Africa. The sole means of maintaining contact with families at home is via the postal system, which is therefore of paramount importance, both socially (letters, parcels) and economically (money remittances, which account for more than the total gross domestic product).

The existing postal services in Lesotho operate satisfactorily and are currently being improved under a Swiss technical assistance project. Like the existing facilities, the new post offices to be financed under the project will be operated by the department of postal services of the Ministry of Works and Communications.

The project is part of the indicative programme of Community aid to Lesotho. Total project cost is estimated at EUA 1.5 million, to be financed by a grant. Following a request by the Lesotho government, the difference between the amount of EUA 1.4 million originally earmarked and the present cost of EUA 1.5 million will be transferred for the item "rural self-help village projects" of the indicative programme.

Suriname

College of Technology at Paramaribo

Commitment proposed as a grant:

1 100 000 EUA

4th EDF

1 EUA = Sur.f. 2

— The first part involves the provision of an additional sum of 500 000 EUA to cover the cost of furnishings and equipment for the College of Technology at Paramaribo, which is being financed under an existing EDF project with funds from the second and third EDFs.

— The second part of the project provides for workshops to be built, furnished and equipped at a cost of 600 000 EUA. These workshops will provide facilities for woodwork and the practical handling of engines in conjunction with courses held at the above mentioned college. They will thus be located near the complex which is being built to house the college.

Botswana

Lobatse—Ramatlabama road

Commitment proposed as a grant:
4 945 000 EUA

4th EDF

1 EUA = 1.07 Pula

The project is for modernisation and bitumenisation of the Lobatse-Ramatlabama road (45 km); this road is the southern-most part of the North-South trunk road of Botswana crossing the economically most important part of the country. The purpose of the project

is to replace the existing earth road by an all-weather road adapted to present and future traffic load, which will substantially reduce transport and road maintenance costs. The existing road is unfit for use in the rainy season and is one of the most trafficked roads of the country not yet upgraded.

The main objectives to be achieved by the project are:

- to connect the North-South road with the road network of the neighbouring country and to diversify the external communications, and
- to link the productive area at the southern border to Lobatse and the capital Gaborone.

The construction work will be carried out by contractor following an international tendering procedure.

The cost of the project is estimated at EUA 4 945 000 to be financed by the EDF as a grant.

Fiji

Jetties for the outer islands

Commitment proposed as a loan on special terms: 1 474 000 EUA

4th EDF

1 EUA = \$F 1.061

The project is for the construction of four jetties on the islands of Vanua Levu, Koro, Kandavu and Moala; it forms part of a comprehensive programme of jetty construction on the outer islands and reflects the government's efforts to promote the economic and social development in the rural areas. The project will contribute to establishing an efficient shipping service, thereby improving the economic and social integration of the country. At present shipping between the centres and the outer islands suffers from high transport costs because of the lack of adequate facilities for loading and unloading.

The project is to be financed by a loan on special terms out of the fourth EDF.

Central African Empire

Improvement of river transport

Commitment proposed as a grant:
2 500 000 EUA

4th EDF

1 EUA = CFAF 285.8

The project is for the modernization and reinforcement of the installations and equipment used by the Central African agency for river communications (Agence Centrafricaine des Communications Fluviales, ACCF), a public body which is in charge of the river transport sector in the Central African Empire.

The project provides for the improvement of infrastructure and reinforcement of equipment in the port of Bangui and the Kolongo boatyard. It also provides for the supply of waterway vessels to supplement the merchant fleet.

The total cost of the project is estimated at 7 640 000 EUA. The contribution requested from the European Development Fund is 2 500 000 EUA, in the form of a grant.

The investment will be the property of the Central African agency for river communications (ACCF).

ACP States and overseas countries, territories and departments

Fixing of a provisional overall amount for certain ACP States and Overseas Countries, Territories and Departments for the financing of scholarships and training grants for vocational and further training in the 1978/79 academic years

Commitment proposed as a grant: 3 000 000 EUA
4th EDF

The aim of this proposal is to make available to those ACP states for which no multiannual training programme has yet been adopted a provisional sum to finance new study grants for 1978/79, or renew the grants of nationals of those countries already receiving training.

The cost of the project is estimated at EUA 3 800 000 to be financed by the EDF as a grant.

Ivory Coast

Village water engineering—second instalment

Commitment proposed as a loan on special terms: 9 400 000 EUA
4th EDF
1 EUA = CFAF 280.8

The project is concerned with the execution of the second instalment of the programme to provide water for human consumption, involving the construction of 760 water supply points in the centre (department of Bouake) and north-east (department of Bouana) of the Ivory Coast, and the continuation of the technical assistance financed during the first instalment.

The work will be carried out by contract following an international invitation to tender.

The total cost of the project is estimated at 10 250 000 EUA and will be financed by:

— a loan on special terms of 9 400 000 EUA from the resources of the fourth EDF which it is proposed be granted to the Ivory Coast;
— a contribution of 850 000 EUA by the Ivory Coast from its own resources, for the purchase and installation of pumping systems at the water supply points.

The structures built under the project will be managed by the SODECI (Société de Distribution d'Eau de la Côte-d'Ivoire — Ivory Coast water distribution company).

The first instalment of 1.9 million

EUA was the subject of a financing proposal submitted to the EDF Committee at its meeting on 25 October 1977. Both instalments form part of the indicative community aid programme under the heading "village water engineering programme", for which an amount of 11.3 million EUA has been earmarked.

Upper Volta

Development of rice growing in the Comoé regional development area (ORD)

Commitment proposed as a grant: 2 968 000 EUA
4th EDF
1 EUA = CFAF 283.5

The aim of the project is to develop rice growing in the south-west of the country covered by the Comoé district regional development body (ORD).

The aim is to develop eight rice plains with a total area of approximately 1 000 ha. Minor water-engineering work will consist basically of putting up constructions to regulate the flow at high water and irrigation channels. Storage facilities for agricultural produce will also be created.

These developments will make it possible to increase the income of 4 000 rice growers and at the same time guarantee them self-sufficiency in food production. Additional production five years after the investments have been made is expected to amount to approximately 2 300 t of paddy, which will replace the growing imports of rice.

The project is to last four years and its cost, to be paid by a grant from the fourth EDF, is estimated at 2 968 000 EUA.

Upper Volta

Development of stock-farming in the Sahel regional development area (ORD)

Commitment proposed as a grant: 1 550 000 EUA
4th EDF
1 EUA = CFAF 283.5

The purpose of this project is to develop stock-farming in the northern part of the Sahel regional development area (ORD) in Upper Volta. Pastures in this area have deteriorated to such an extent that immediate and sustained action is necessary.

The main target must be to restore pastures and at the same time improve livestock production.

For a three-year period, the ORD will be provided with a technical assistant, supervisory and extension services and the necessary transport equipment. Watering points and stores to stock foodstuffs and other products will be constructed.

The total grant will amount to 1 550 000 EUA.

Zaire

Kikwit and Mbandaka higher teacher training institutes

Commitment proposed as a grant: 8 000 000 EUA
4th EDF
Z 1 = 1.001 EUA

Zaire needs large numbers of secondary teachers, in order both to cope with the rising number of pupils and to overcome the problem of under-qualification in the teaching profession. The aim of this project is to build and equip two teacher-training institutes for secondary-school teachers. The new facilities will be located at Kikwit and Mbandaka, where the institutes themselves already operate, each with some 450 students. Although the organization, course content, teaching staff and operating finances of these two institutes are well-established, the buildings are largely outdated, unsuited to modern teaching methods and, worst of all, too small to cope with the rapidly expanding number of students. The project aims to remedy this by providing each institute with about 4 000 m² of new buildings, furnished and equipped. These will form new campuses, but near the towns and existing buildings.

Total project cost is estimated at 8 million EUA to be financed by a grant.

Ethiopia

Practical education

Commitment proposed as a grant: 2 100 000 EUA
4th EDF
1 EUA = 2.6 Birr

The project is a contribution to the implementation of the 10-year plan for educational development whose major aims are to promote universal primary education, to expand adult education, to reduce inequalities in access to secondary education, and to adapt the content of education to the basic needs of the country.

EDF assistance is requested for:
— establishing a workshop for the production of tools needed by the school system,
— strengthening and expanding the network of district pedagogical centres (DPC) which are a device of paramount importance for a timely implementation of the 10-year plan,
— developing the adult education system, with special regard to the preparation of manuals and the equipping of the Community skills training centres, whose function is to disseminate basic skills and technology in rural areas,
— implementing special programmes in the field of reforestation and village water-supply aimed at giving a practical content to the new curricula being currently introduced in primary and secondary schools.

The total cost of the programmes concerned is estimated at 4.5 million

EUA, of which 2.1 million EUA will be provided by the EDF in the form of a grant. The balance will come from other foreign donors, government and local communities.

Dutch Antilles

Fixing an amount for the financing of a multiannual (1976-80) training programme

Commitment proposed as a grant:
2 450 000 EUA

4th EDF

1 EUA = Ant.f 2.275

The aim of this project is to make a contribution to the economic development of the Dutch Antilles by providing training via study and training grants and by sending out technical assistance experts. The project falls within the Dutch Antilles' development programme for 1976-80, which has the following main objectives: to combat unemployment through measures such as accelerated economic development, to reorganize and restructure the country's finances and to overhaul the educational system.

The importance attached to training by the Dutch Antilles is reflected in the large amount of Community aid—2 450 000 EUA—applied for in this sector, to be financed by the EDF as a grant. □

EIB

Investment in the Caribbean region

Under the terms of the Lomé Convention, the European Investment Bank, the European Community's long-term finance institution, has granted a global loan worth 3 million units of account(1) to the Caribbean Development Bank which will use the resources to help to finance capital investment projects, principally in the industrial, tourism, infrastructure and energy sectors.

The loan has been provided for 12 years at an interest rate of 6.8%, after deduction of a 3% interest subsidy from the European Development Fund.

As an institution associated to the Caribbean Community (CARICOM), the CDB aims to support the harmonious economic growth of the 16 borrowing member countries(2) and promote their economic cooperation and integration. The projects to be assisted via this global loan facility will be selected in agreement with the EIB from both the public and private sectors.

The CARICOM countries are either signatories to the Lomé Convention itself or are covered by the decision taken by the EEC Council to extend to Overseas Countries and Territories financial aid of a nature similar to that provided under the Convention.

This is the Bank's second operation in the Caribbean region: in 1977, the EIB granted to the Caribbean Investment Corporation (CIC) a loan of 1 million EUA to help it to finance participations in small and medium-sized industrial and tourism concerns. The loan was provided from European Development Fund resources which are set aside under the Lomé Convention and the Council decision for risk capital operations managed by the EIB.

Forestry scheme in Guyana

Under the terms of the Lomé Convention, the European Investment Bank has lent 3.2 million units of account(3) to help to finance the development of forestry resources in Guyana.

The operation takes the form of a conditional loan(4) granted to Guyana at an interest rate of 2%, the term fixed in principle at 20 years, to enable it to cover half the cost of subscribing the capital of a new state enterprise—the Demerara Wood Company Limited—which is being set up to exploit some 220 000 ha of forest situated up-country between the Demerara and Essequibo rivers.

The loan is drawn from resources which, under the Lomé Convention, are set aside for various kinds of risk capital operations, the management of which is entrusted to the EIB.

Apart from construction of a sawmill, the project involves setting up a township for about 420 workers, transport facilities and the acquisition of logging equipment. Most of the production—mainly hardwood lumber and poles—will be exported to North America and Europe.

Opening up these major natural resources will help to broaden the base of Guyana's economy, spreading development to a previously uninhabited region of the interior, at the same time bolstering the country's foreign exchange earnings.

In addition to the EIB's contribution, other finance for the scheme is being provided in the form of a loan on special conditions from the Community's European Development Fund (EDF) and loans from the World Bank and the Inter-American Development Bank.

Total European Community support (i.e. EIB loan plus EDF special loan) will cover some 36% of project finance requirements, which are put at about 25 million EUA.

The Seychelles

Under the terms of the Lomé Convention, the European Investment Bank is providing the equivalent of 5 million rroupies (0.62 millions units of account) to the Development Bank of Seychelles

(DBS)—the EIB's first operation in this country—to help small and medium-scale ventures.

This takes the form of a participation on behalf of the European Community in the share capital of DBS, financed from part of the European Development Fund resources which, under the Convention, are reserved for various kinds of risk capital operations, management of which is entrusted to the EIB.

The Development Bank of Seychelles, created in September 1977, is the country's only development finance institution. The majority shareholder is the State; the others, apart from the European Community, are the Caisse Centrale de Coopération Economique (France), Barclays Bank International Limited and Standard Bank Limited.

The DBS finances small and medium size ventures in all productive sectors by way of shareholdings, loans and guarantees, and seeks to spread development to the outer islands.

Papua-New Guinea

Under the terms of the Lomé Convention, the European Investment Bank, the European Community's long-term finance institution, has provided finance totalling 8.9 million units of account(5) for construction of a palm oil mill, plus storage and loading installations, in Papua-New Guinea. This is the Bank's first operation in Papua-New Guinea, which became part of the Lomé Convention on 28 March 1977.

The finance is made available in two forms:

— a loan of 7 million EUA granted to Higaturu Processing Proprietary Ltd. (HPPL), of which half the capital is held by the state and half by the Commonwealth Development Corporation (United Kingdom); the loan is for 15 years at an interest rate of 5.65%, taking into account a 3% interest subsidy from the Community's European Development Fund (EDF);

— a conditional loan worth 1.9 million EUA (term fixed in principle at 20 years, interest at 2%) granted to the state to finance its contribution to an increase in HPPL's capital; this loan is provided from EDF resources set aside under the terms of the Lomé Convention for risk capital operations managed by the EIB. The loan allows for the reimburse-

(1) 1 unit of account = approx. US\$ 1.33.

(2) Antigua, Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Jamaica, Montserrat, St Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla, St Lucia, St Vincent, Trinidad and Tobago, Turks and Caicos Islands.

(3) 1 EUA = approx. 3.39 Guyana dollars.

(4) Repayment of the loan is conditional upon the company achieving a predetermined profitability level.

(5) 1 EUA = approx. 0.90 kina.

ment schedule to be modified according to the levels of profitability reached by the plant.

The scheme which the Bank is helping to finance calls for a total investment of 20.7 million EUA. The oil mill should gradually build up production to some 43 000 tons per year, all for export. It will form part of an agro-industrial complex, work on which began last year; this will include a 4 000 hectare main plantation, providing about 1 000 jobs, and 5 600 hectares of small-holder plantations, run by 1 400 farmers and their families. The oil mill itself should give rise to 160 jobs.

Apart from the EIB loans, finance for the oil mill is also being provided by the Commonwealth Development Corporation. □

STABEX

A second instalment of transfers under the Lomé Convention export earnings stabilization mechanism was decided by the Commission, for 1977, on 30 November 1978. Details are given below.

Four ACP countries benefit and the 15 250 407 EUA provided (for four products) brings total transfers for 1977 up to 31 125 209 EUA.

26.3% of transfers in the first two instalments for 1977 were for exports which had dropped due to bad economic conditions (Tanzanian sisal) and 73.7% to make up for reduced earnings due to local circumstances.

All transfers were for the least favoured countries and were in the form of grants.

Advances

The Commission has also decided to grant more advances for 1978. The first of these, of 1 510 000 EUA, is for Gambia (groundnuts) and the second, of 160 000 EUA, for Tonga (bananas). The Commission has just decided to pay Mauritania a 7 000 000 EUA Stabex advance for the first half of 1978. This amount is intended to compensate for loss of income from iron ore exports due to the difficult situation on the world market in 1978.

This, together with the advance granted for Senegal in July, brings total advances for 1978 up to 27 670 000 EUA. □

EMERGENCY AID

Lomé Convention (article 59)

East Africa

The Commission has recently decided to contribute towards an emergency FAO(1) programme to combat, over the next three to six months, the invasion of desert locusts—the most serious in 16 years—that is causing damage to agricultural production in five ACP countries: Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia and Sudan.

The total cost of the FAO programme is 2 663 000 EUA. Of this sum, 1 360 000 EUA has already been provided by other sources, including Belgium (73 000 EUA), Denmark (69 000 EUA), the Netherlands (176 000 EUA), the United Kingdom (135 000 EUA), Saudi Arabia (382 000 EUA) and the ABEDA(2) (38 000 EUA).

The Community contribution is 1 300 000 EUA; this sum plus the four Member States' contributions (a total of 453 000 EUA) together cover 70% of the programme.

Zaire: 4 000 000 EUA

At the request of the UNHCR(3), the Commission has decided to contribute towards the implementation of a programme for the repatriation and resettlement of Zairian refugees.

The programme involves the transfer of 60 000 people from Angola, Sudan, Uganda and Zambia and the resettlement of 110 000 people in Zaire(4).

The Community is contributing to the financing of these operations by making a grant of 4 000 000 EUA to the UNHCR. □

TRADE PROMOTION

ACP States

EDF-financed technical assistance programmes in the field of trade promotion are now being carried out in certain ACP countries. A unit to deal with commercial and industrial questions is being set up in the ministry for finance in the Bahamas, lichee exports are being promoted in Madagascar and a trade promotion scheme for products from Barbados is being run.

Financing proposals have also been approved to provide Ghana with technical and financial assistance for its wooden products, agricultural produce, spices, off-season vegetables and arts and crafts and to help the Sudan develop the Khartoum Trade Fair.

It has also been decided to send experts out to Barbados to help with tourism, to Jamaica (trade management), Kenya (training of marketing agents) and Ethiopia and the Sudan (trade questions).

Decision of 30 November 1978 — 2nd instalment		
Recipient ACP State	Product	Amount of transfer EUA
Mauritania	iron ore	3 605 602
Western Samoa	bananas	99 313
Swaziland	iron ore	3 368 878
Tanzania	sisal	8 176 614
	Total 2nd instalment	15 250 407
Decision of 14 July 1978 — 1st instalment		
Four ACP countries	6 products	15 874 802
	Total 1st and 2nd instalments	31 125 209

(1) United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization, Rome.

(2) Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa.

(3) Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.

(4) The difference between the two figures represents the number of refugees who can return to Zaire by their own means.

Experts' organizations have also been invited to submit proposals for a regional tourist development project in the countries of the Caribbean.

The governments of Cameroon and Togo have obtained technical assistance from the Commission to set up their external trade development centres. The projects have been drafted by experts and submitted to the relevant authorities in these countries.

Four ACP countries had financial and technical assistance from the Commission, as part of the Community programme, to take part in the International food fair in Paris on 13-18 November.

Financing proposals (aid with trade promotion) have been drawn up for the Dutch Antilles (800 000 EUA), Suriname (500 000 EUA), Trinidad & Tobago (700 000 EUA) and Botswana (700 000 EUA). □

DOMINICA

Tiny Dominica wins its freedom⁽⁵⁾

On 3 November 1978 the mountainous island of Dominica, between the French territories of Martinique and Guadeloupe, achieved independence—after over 400 years of British, French and Spanish rule.

The granting of independence followed several meetings in London between island representatives and officials of the British government. Taking part in the discussions were, Dominica's Prime-Minister-designate, Patrick John, who was accompanied by members of the opposition Dominican Freedom Party.

As an independence gift the British government has agreed to provide Dominica with about US \$27 million in development aid spread over a period of years. Mr John is not satisfied with this sum. He wanted \$100 million, he said, "to put us well on the way to economic viability".

At least four other neighbouring Caribbean states—St Vincent, St Lucia, St Kitts-Nevis, and Antigua—are seeking independence.

Also in the area, a royal commission investigating racial disturbances in Bermuda, Britain's oldest colony, has recommended that it be granted independence.

Like its neighbours, Dominica has been a British Associated State for the past 11 years, with the United Kingdom government responsible for defence and foreign policy.

The move towards independence in the region was accentuated after the West Indies Federation, embracing 10 states, collapsed in 1962. The larger

territories, Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago, Guyana and Barbados, subsequently became independent.

In 1974 Grenada joined the ranks of the fledgling independent Caribbean nations.

The British government is already helping to finance a number of projects in Dominica, including a new airstrip just outside Roseau, a forestry project aimed at making the country self-reliant in wood for housing, a clay products factory and a tourist industry.

According to Premier John, technical aid will continue after independence. Apart from the \$27 million the island is getting in the form of a "golden handshake", Britain provided assistance amounting to some \$2.25 million and \$1.25 million for independence celebrations.

Premier John has been shopping for economic aid from North America and Western Europe.

Opposition leader Miss Mary Eugenia Charles is convinced that independence will not bring any measure of relief to the 90 000 islanders.

Dominica is the only Caribbean island where Caribs, the original peoples of the region, are to be found. Several hundred of them live on a 3 000 acre (1 200) reserve, cultivating crops and engaged in fishing. They have long since lost their old language but have retained their traditional craft of basket-making.

Without a solidly-based economy like Trinidad, Dominica, which is a member state of the Caribbean Common Market, will have to depend on loans from international organisations.

Dominica is the 39th member of the Commonwealth and the 56th ACP country.

Accession of Dominica to the Lomé Convention

The EEC Council has recorded the approval of the EEC to a draft decision of the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers approving the accession to the Convention of Dominica.

When the ACP States record their approval to the draft decision in the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers and after Dominica has deposited an instrument of accession, it will accede to the Lomé Convention as the 56th state.

To prevent Dominica from losing certain advantages, in particular financial advantages, which it enjoys in the context of the association of overseas countries and territories with the Community, the Council also approved a decision on the provisional application to Dominica after its independence of interim financial arrangements. □

(1) From GEMINI News Service.

SEMINARS

Dublin: reflexion on the Lomé Convention

At the end of November, Ireland hosted a seminar on the Lomé Convention. The meeting was organized by Trocaire, a body which the Irish bishops have set up to help the Third World.

Maurice Foley, deputy director-general at the development directorate of the EEC Commission, called upon all sectors of European society to help formulate and lend their support to a joint policy vis-à-vis the developing countries.

He laid particular emphasis on the need for a wider public debate on problems that arose during the negotiations for a new convention and urged the various organizations involved to discuss these topics with their governments.

The 70 or so people at the seminar included the ambassadors of Ghana, Botswana, Guyana, Mali and Mauritius to the EEC and the deputy secretary general of the ACP group. Their aim was to make contact with the Irish government to discuss the renegotiation of the convention.

Mr K.B. Asante, Ghana's ambassador to the EEC and chairman of the ACP Committee of Ambassadors, described the Lomé Convention as a "modest attempt at righting the international economic disorder". Nevertheless, he said, in spite of free access to the Community market, ACP exports to the EEC were, relatively speaking, on the decline and the ACP countries had a 511 million EUA deficit in the first half of 1978. He added that the EDF had had minimal effect and had very probably drained what little administrative capacity there was. Fair conditions in commodity trading, he emphasized, would be the best guarantee of mutually beneficial relations between the EEC and the ACP countries.

Finally, Dr Helen O'Neill, of the University of Dublin, stressed that it was vital for the governments and European industry to establish a new international division of labour. □

ACP EMBASSIES

Tanzania

The new Tanzanian ambassador to the EEC, Mr Fulgence Michael Kazaura, has presented his credentials to the presidents of the EEC Council and Commission. For the previous



Ambassador Kazaura presenting his credentials to Roy Jenkins, President of the Commission

PHOTO CEE

three years, Mr Kazaura had been principal secretary in the Ministry of Industries, and before that principal secretary in both the Ministry of Commerce and Industries and the Ministry of Economic Affairs and Development Planning.

Ambassador Kazaura took his degrees (B.A. (Econ.), M.A.) from the University of Cambridge (UK), and later obtained a diploma in industrial management in the United States. He joined the Tanzanian National Development Corporation in 1965 and held a number of posts before transferring to the Prime Minister's office in 1974. Ambassador Kazaura is a member of the advisory council of the ACP-EEC Centre for Industrial Development. □

TRANSNATIONALS

Klaus Sahlgren meets ACP ambassadors

The executive director of the UN Centre on Transnational Corporations, Klaus Sahlgren, addressed a plenary meeting of the ACP committee of ambassadors in November on the role of his organization. The Centre was set up in 1975 to provide an international organization to consider the activities of transnational corporations (TNCS) because, as Mr Sahlgren put it, they "have an important impact on international economic relations, and in particular on development, whether in the field of raw materials, industrialization, finance, technology or access to markets".

The Centre has four main activities. The main priority is the negotiation of an international code of conduct for TNCS, but the Centre also has a research programme, an information service, and a training and advisory service for government officials.

Mr Sahlgren said the negotiations on the code were reaching a critical stage. Progress has been good, but there were still such crucial questions as whether it should be binding or not, and whether there should be international machinery to implement it.

A developing activity of the Centre is its technical cooperation programme with developing countries aimed at assisting them in their dealings with TNCS. These services divide into two, advice and training. Advice is given on drafting national legislation and regulations on TNCS, negotiations, foreign participation and a host of technical questions. So far the Centre has had 70 requests from 40 governments for such advisory services, including a significant number of ACP countries.

In addition many developing countries want to train officials to deal with TNC matters. The Centre has therefore organized a number of training workshops. The courses aim to help officials formulate national policies on TNCS and cover such subjects as ownership, control, taxation, transfer of technology, pricing and regional cooperation.

Mr Sahlgren said the ACP ambassadors would help publicize the activities of the Centre, which was keen to expand its information, advisory and training services. On behalf of the Committee of Ambassadors, Mr Asante (Ghana) assured Mr Sahlgren that the ACP group would keep the Centre's activities in mind since it concerned an important aspect of relations between

developing and industrialized countries. □

HEALTH

Meeting of ACP and EEC experts in Freetown

This was the first time that, within the framework of the financial and technical cooperation set up by the Lomé Convention, experts of member states of the European Community and the African, Caribbean and Pacific states have been invited by the Commission to discuss together results of the evaluation of past development efforts made in a particular field of activity.

This first meeting devoted to the health field was held in Freetown from 11 to 13 December. The importance attached to such a dialogue between the EEC and ACP countries' health specialists was demonstrated by the fact that representatives came from 27 ACP countries and 7 members of the EEC.

The discussions were held in an atmosphere of constructive and frank cooperation, and were marked by a high technical and professional standard and a great degree of mutual understanding.

The clear success of the meeting was underlined by a motion of thanks to the Commission by the ACP experts which praised the excellent initiative in calling such a meeting and expressing the hope that others would be held in the future.

The Commission intends to convene similar meetings on the outcome of other evaluation studies (fresh water supply, integrated rural development) in the future in order to help the joint ACP-EEC institutions gradually devise operational guidelines which will enhance their efficiency through financial and technical cooperation.

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The object of the Freetown meeting, under article 57 of the Lomé Convention was:

- to hold an exchange of views on the results of evaluation work carried out jointly by Commission officials and their counterparts in national administrations with a view to ensure that Community aid was used to the best advantage;
- to see if and how the experience gained from health projects under the Yaoundé Conventions might be applied to the larger ACP group;
- to draw joint conclusions from past experience and reach, if possible, common basic principles which might provide common guidelines for future projects in the health field.

The meeting, which was attended by the diplomatic corps, the press and a number of guests, was formally opened by Mr H.T.T. Williams, the Sierra Leone health minister. The meeting was chaired by Gaetano Speranza, director of general development policy, on behalf of the Commission. He was assisted by two vice-chairmen, one, Dr Belmont Williams from Sierra Leone, representing the ACP countries, and Dr Ernert, from Germany, representing the EEC member states. The discussions lasted three days and centred on the following themes:

- place of health in general development policy
- health policy: aims and priorities
- nature of health operations (intra-sectoral coherence)
- personnel training
- general design of infrastructures and equipment
- technical design, operation and maintenance of infrastructures.

A number of conclusions were reached on practical and policy matters which will be submitted for approval to the ACP-EEC Council in the form of joint guidelines for future projects undertaken by the partners to the Lomé Convention in the health field. The complete text of these basic principles, worked out at Freetown, will be published in the next issue of the *Courier*.

The main conclusions and recommendations were:

- the main objective of ACP-EEC cooperation in the health sector should be the widest possible spreading of health care to the least privileged sections of the populations;
- special attention should be given to the desirability of including into every integrated development action, a health component comprising the full range of appropriate health actions;
- actions funded by the EDF for health improvement can include where appropriate any combination of the means provided by the Lomé Convention and are not restricted to infrastructure and equipment;
- in order to ensure full use of the range of means provided under the Convention, all appropriate ACP authorities, including those responsible for the sector, should be kept informed as appropriate;
- the experts at the ACP-EEC meeting expressed the wish that similar sector consultations should be held regularly, and that the conclusions and recommendations of this meeting should be submitted to the joint ACP-EEC bodies.

While the experts meeting was taking place, the President of Sierra Leone, Dr Siaka Stevens, received Mr Speranza, who was accompanied by Mr Christopher Collins, the Commission's delegate in Freetown, and leading officials of the Commission, to hear the results

of the meeting. The Sierra Leone health minister, Mr Williams thanked the President for inviting the Commission to hold the meeting in Sierra Leone. □

FAIRS

The Brussels wood fair

There has been a growing trend in the past few years for the ACP countries to engage in trade promotion through international fairs. This has been supported by the European Commission which has co-financed ACP participation at such events. Increasingly specialized international fairs are becoming more popular than all-embracing promotions. In the early stages of cooperation between the EEC and the new African states under Yaoundé the latter had a point, since in many cases it was a question of getting oneself known. Today specific fairs are preferred, and with reason since specialists in the field can come together in a calmer atmosphere, make contacts and eventually sign contracts. The Brussels wood fair, which took place at the beginning of December was a good example of this new concept. Six ACP countries agreed to participate, with Community help: the Congo, the Central African Empire, Gabon and Ghana from Africa, Guyana from the Caribbean and Fiji from the Pacific. The goods were displayed in a polygonal building, highly decorated, with other

stands forming a square around the central structure.

The participants were eager to expand their exports, since European industry presently uses only a small number of woods, ebony and plywood among the dozens available. At present many trees are simply cut down to give access to other better known varieties, and then left because there are simply no buyers. This problem is particularly acute for Guyana which is experiencing a boom for green hard wood because of its use in the construction of boats, where it has proved resistant to sea water and parasites. The trees are, however, scattered among numerous other species which are little known. With the cooperation of the European Commission technical data have been drawn up for these "new" species, but nothing gets them known better than an actual presentation. It was above all examples of these woods which were to be found on the stands of the various countries. Only Fiji continued to show traditional woods and did, it seems, excellent business. For other countries it was more important to get other types better known since the traditional woods already have an assured market. Ghana in particular was very satisfied with the number of contracts it concluded, but none of the participants regretted the opportunity to boost their wood industries.

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The third Dakar International Fair

There was a record turn-out of 900 private firms from 50 countries this year. Dakar, like all fairs, is a golden opportunity for trade promotion and this year it was also the scene of two important meetings: a colloquium on regional cooperation and a forum on industrialization.

The colloquium on regional cooperation, which was attended by representatives of organizations like the ACP group, SPEC, the CEAO, ECOWAS, OCAM, the Conseil de l'Entente, etc., stressed the need for all these organizations to maintain contact with each other, to discuss their experience, harmonize their positions and cooperate on the same projects. It invited Tiéoulé Konaté, secretary general of the ACP group, to draft a plan of cooperation for the various organizations, to be presented at a meeting in Brussels. □



Mr Humblet

The Belgian agriculture minister during his visit to the Fiji stand

DANISH AID

While in 1977 the average of official development aid (ODA) of OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) countries was 0.31 %, that of Denmark was 0.60 %, i.e. 258 million dollars, a 19% increase (in national currencies).

The OECD/DAC, which examined this aid, found with satisfaction that Denmark is one of the rare members of the DAC which succeeded in increasing ODA on a practically uninterrupted basis, not only in absolute terms, but also in relation to the GNP.

The OECD/DAC also underlines the role of the **budget planning system** adopted by Denmark which largely helps to protect aid credits from budget compressions. For the period 1978 to 1982, the real growth rate is 7.8% a year, so that the amount of aid (at 1977 prices and exchange rates) rises from 297 million for the 1978 budget year to 401 million for the year 1982. **The fixed target for the opening of budget credits, in % of the GNP, is as follows: 0.67% for 1978, 0.70% for 1979, 0.73% for 1980, 0.76% for 1981 and 0.79% for 1982.**

Denmark is also one of the countries whose contributions to **multilateral organization** are the greatest in relation to GNP: 0.26% in 1977 compared with an average of 0.09% for the DAC. Finally, **low-income** (less than 400 dollars per inhabitant) **countries** benefited to the extent of about 77% for Denmark of the net total of ODA bilateral payments, while the average was 43% for the DAC. □



Mr Foley (left) with Tom Garvey, the Commission's delegate in Nigeria, and Mr Olu Sanu

VISITS

Antonio Giolitti, member of the Commission and head of the Community's regional policy, has been on an official visit to three ACP countries, Kenya, Burundi and Rwanda.

Commissioners have often been out to the ACP countries to improve their knowledge of the situation there by making personal contact with the top authorities and visiting EDF projects.

So in Kenya, Mr Giolitti met the new President of the Republic, Daniel Arap Moi, Vice-president Kibaki, the Speaker and the ministers for foreign affairs and planning and he also visited the Tana river site of a reservoir which is to be built in part under the 4th EDF indicative programme.

In Burundi, Mr Giolitti was received by Colonel Bagaza, the President of the Republic, Lieutenant-Colonel Nzambi-mana, minister for foreign affairs, and Mr Bihute, minister for planning. Burundi has been receiving EDF aid for almost 20 years now and so Mr Giolitti was able to see some completed projects—the Bujumbura-Kayanza road, the Teza tea factory and plantations and the Imbo improvements scheme. He also saw work inaugurated on the Kayanza-Akanyaru-Butare regional road which is being financed as part of the first instalment of the regional fund (4th EDF).

He completed his African tour with an official visit to Rwanda, where he had an audience with Major-General Habyarimana, the President of the Republic, and met Colonel Nsekaliye and Mr Nduhungirehe, ministers for

foreign affairs and planning. Mr Giolitti also visited EDF-financed projects like the Kigali industrial area, the electricity dispatching station and the Kigali high school for girls, where he received a warm, friendly welcome from the 400 pupils. The tour ended with a visit to work being carried out in Umuganda.

In all three countries, Antonio Giolitti met official representatives of the EEC member states to tell them the aim of his visit on the eve of renewal of the Lomé Convention.

• Development commissioner Claude Cheysson went out to Madagascar, Djibouti and Mauritius at the beginning of December and talked with leaders about application of the Lomé Convention and the problems involved in negotiating the new convention.

He had already made a similar visit to Mauritania on 14-16 November, when he met the new President, Colonel Ould Salek, and most of the new government.

• Before Mr Cheysson, Mr Klaus Meyer, the EEC's development director-general, had also visited Mauritania, after missions to Senegal and the Gambia. In Senegal Mr Meyer had discussions with President Senghor and Prime Minister Abdou Diouf on a new ACP-EEC convention.

• In November, Maurice Foley, deputy-director general for development, went out to Nigeria. He told the Nigerians that the EEC would help them develop their hydraulic resources (15 EEC experts will be going to Nigeria for this purpose this year) and stressed that this aid was part of an assistance programme geared to boosting agricultural production.

In Lagos, Mr Foley met various Nigerian personalities, including Olu Sanu (see photo), former ambassador to Brussels (during Lomé negotiations) and author of a work on the Lomé Convention and the new international economic order. □

GENERAL INFORMATION

Club of Dakar 5th meeting in Libreville

The Club of Dakar, which discusses and makes international proposals about the problems of development in the Third World, held its 5th annual session in Libreville (Gabon) at the end of November.

After the discussions, Mohamed Diawara, the Ivory Coast's ex-minister for planning, made it clear that the mem-

bers of the Club were firmly against protectionism. The Club came out in favour of increasing EDF resources and extending the list of Stabex products. EEC commissioner Claude Cheysson had brought up the problem right at the beginning, in the inaugural session, calling for an all-out war on protectionism.

Lomé: a model policy

Mr Cheysson said that the changes that occurred on the international scene following the oil crisis brought the countries of the Third World to the fore and gave them a major role in the international debate. The long-awaited North-South, or rather West-South dialogue was at last able to get under way.

So far, relatively little progress has been achieved at world level. Only Europe, more dependent than any other group of industrialized countries on links with the developing world, has endeavoured to find closer forms of cooperation in a form bringing together a smaller number of partners.

That is the guiding principle behind the regional approach and the "Lomé policy", the main features of which were outlined by Mr Cheysson: Lomé is a comprehensive cooperation agreement offering a wide spectrum of instruments ranging from virtually complete freedom of access to the European market to the stabilization of export earnings, and including, for example, technical and financial assistance.

It is a contractual agreement, worked out and negotiated between partners, not granted unilaterally by one of the parties alone. It links two groups of countries, each speaking with a single voice, which has strengthened the negotiating hand of the ACP countries and encouraged participation by the various states concerned, irrespective of their individual, freely chosen foreign policies or development blueprints.

Industrial cooperation under Lomé: progress and prospects

Industrial cooperation, like the transfer of technology, cannot be implemented by fiat. It is essential that industrialists themselves play an active part, but their involvement alone is not enough.

The authorities also have an important role to sustain, particularly at European level, both in promoting investment and in preparing for the changes which will follow on the industrialization of the ACP countries.

Firstly, Europe's public and private companies must be encouraged and helped to enter into joint ventures with ACP countries. The Lomé Convention contains a number of mechanisms for this purpose, but it must be admitted that in practice the results, although not negligible, have been disappointing. We must therefore make an effort to improve the existing machinery, but also, more importantly, we must endeavour to equip ourselves with additional instruments. This is reflected in the proposals for investment promotion and protection put forward by the Commission in the negotiations for the renewal of the Convention, Mr Cheysson said.

The industrial development of the ACP countries must also be taken into

account in our own policies, and integrated into any plan for the restructuring of European industries. At the European level in particular we have a wide variety of aids for restructuring, but so far the promotion of industrialization in the developing world has not figured among the criteria for their use. That is what we should be aiming for, and that is the idea behind another important proposal being made by the Commission in the current negotiations: that consultations should be held between the ACP and their European partners in export industries earmarked for rapid development.

Finally, particularly on the European side, it is important to ensure that workers' representatives as well as business interests are involved in the consultations from the outset, Mr Cheysson said.

The current negotiations

The negotiations are difficult, partly because of the large numbers of participants involved, but mainly because of the gloomy economic and social climate in Europe. The Commission and the Community have taken a stand against protectionism, but the danger still lurks, he continued.

This is what is worrying Europe's negotiators in the present phase of the negotiations, in the face of the growing number of demands made by the ACP Group. Choices and decisions will have to be made within the Group—and this applies to Stabex in particular—so that the truly significant lines of force of the negotiations can take shape rapidly.

Mr Cheysson believed that until this is done they will not be able to get truly under way. A great deal is at stake, and neither the ACPs nor Europe can afford to let slip this new opportunity to advance further along the course on which they embarked over three years ago. □

UNCTAD

The common fund

The resumption of negotiations on a common fund from 14 to 30 November did not produce a final agreement. However, there was a degree of progress, and the conference to be held from 26 February to 2 March will aim to reach a result sufficiently complete before UNCTAD V meets in Manila.

The conference chairman, Herbert Walker from Jamaica, thought it was useful to sum the negotiations, as he saw them, on a possible compromise. The common fund would have:

— direct contributions from member countries of \$700 million, of which a \$400 million window would be compulsory, and a second window of \$300 million would be voluntary contributions.

— contributions from international commodity agreements in the form of deposits, callable capital and guarantees.

Neither group B (industrialized countries) nor the group of 77 are bound by Mr Walker's conclusions. But it should be recorded that important concessions have been made towards a compromise.

Group B has agreed to the principle of direct contributions by countries to the common fund and to a second window to finance other measures, (still to be specified) than the regulatory stocks of the first window. They have also reduced their demand on the deposit-credit ratio in international commodity agreements attached to the common fund from 75%-25% to 40%-60%. On this point the group of 77 have progressed from an initial demand for 0%-100% to 30%-70%, and have agreed the principle of pooling resources in ICAs, a point on which group B laid emphasis. □

WORK CONDITIONS

International Labour Standards

On 8 November 1978 the EEC Commission adopted a communication to the Council on development cooperation and the observance of certain international standards governing working conditions. The communication concerns the implementation of a principle already stated in the Memorandum on the renewal of the Lomé Convention namely the possibility of a link between the advantages offered by the Community to the developing countries (particularly in the trade field) and the observance of certain standards, this link to apply to all the developing countries, including the ACP States.

The Commission wishes to make it absolutely clear that the Community's aim will be to help countries benefiting from its cooperation to base their economic growth on conditions which are compatible with social progress. It considers that its proposal will strengthen the support of Community business and labour for an open development cooperation policy by reserving preferences for the many countries which are endeavouring to keep economic growth in step with social progress and by not making exceptions for the few cases where under-development is used as an excuse for inhuman working conditions.

From among the vast body of standards covered by the 151 conventions of the International Labour Organization (ILO), the Commission has chosen four which it considers as being fundamental. States are called upon to take measures to:

— promote equality of opportunity and treatment in the matter of employment and occupation (race, colour, religion, sex);
— limit the duration of the working week in industry (maximum of forty-

eight hours, the standard laid down in an ILO convention dating back to 1919);

— secure the abolition of child labour in industry (fourteen years to be the minimum age);

— to look after the health and ensure the safety of children and adolescents at work.

The standards chosen are considered as representing a minimum, for certain business and labour circles in the Community would like the Community to go further in this direction. However, by giving priority to the observance of standards which directly affect people, the Community's action will have significant political scope and will thus accelerate the trend towards greater observance of basic human, social and trade union rights.

Method of application

The Commission considers that effective application of the standards adopted should be monitored by the International Labour Office, the ILO's executive body, given its specialized knowledge in this field and also its considerable moral authority.

Although it will be for the ILO to judge whether the standards are being observed, sole responsibility for the application of the arrangements will lie with the Community. The principles and scope of the arrangements will be the same for all developing countries. Procedures will vary according to the type of relations involved between the countries concerned and the Community:

— In trade

A solution will first of all be sought through consultation with the country concerned.

If the standards continue to be infringed however, and injury is caused to a Member State as a result, the Community will temporarily withdraw exemption from customs duties and charges having equivalent effect. Where appropriate, such withdrawal will be limited to the products of one or more sectors of production.

Where preferential cooperation agreements are involved (Lomé Convention, Mediterranean agreements), the measures will be taken pursuant to the safeguard clauses written into the agreements and such clauses may be adapted for this purpose.

In the context of the Generalized Preferences Scheme (GSP), the measures will be applied on an autonomous basis.

— In the field of financial and technical assistance

The Community institutions (Commission and EIB) will see to it that due account is taken of social aspects, notably of compliance with the minimum labour standards, in the execution of projects and programmes. □

EEC-MALTA

Textile negotiations

An EEC delegation was in Valletta from 26 October to 1 November to negotiate with the Maltese authorities an arrangement intended to regulate, until the end of 1980, imports into the EEC of textile and clothing products originating in Malta.

In addition, the negotiations were undertaken in order to avoid the application of safeguard measures, under Article 10 of the 1970 EEC-Malta Association Agreement, for several categories of products on the United Kingdom market.

During the course of the negotiations, the EEC delegation offered Malta a number of different advantages in exchange for self-discipline on Maltese exports on a quantitative basis, at levels compatible both with the objectives laid down by the EEC Council in its textile policy and with the dictates of Malta's development and employment policies.

Despite considerable efforts by both sides, the two delegations were not able to reach agreement, and the outcome of the negotiations was not successful. An example indicative of the gap between the Maltese requirements and the Community's possibilities for one particularly sensitive product is an instance where the Maltese requested a figure equivalent to 10% of the Community's total capacity for imports from all low-cost sources while the maximum possibilities open to the Community do not allow of a share in excess of 5%.

The negotiations and discussions took place in an atmosphere of good will, frankness and mutual understanding and respect. □

EEC-ASEAN

On 20 and 21 November 1978 the Foreign Ministers of the five ASEAN countries⁽¹⁾ met in Brussels for the first ever ministerial meeting between ASEAN and the European Community. The main meeting, which took place in the historic Palais d'Egmont, was in the form of a dialogue between the two organisations, with ASEAN represented by the Indonesian Foreign Minister, Mr Mochtar Kusumaatmadja, and the Community by the President of the Council, Mr Hans-Dietrich Genscher, the German Foreign Minister, and by the President of the Commission, Mr Roy Jenkins. In addition, there was an

⁽¹⁾ Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore and Thailand.

informal exchange of views between ministers on both sides, while certain ASEAN ministers took the opportunity to stop off in other capitals of the Nine for further bilateral contacts with their European colleagues. Before leaving Brussels the ASEAN delegation had a meeting with the Commission on 22 and 23 November to discuss the follow-up to the ministerial session.

This was the first ever ministerial meeting not just between the European Community and ASEAN but indeed between the Community and any regional grouping of the Third World. Since its creation in 1967 and particularly since the Bali Summit in February 1976, the five ASEAN countries who together almost equal the population of the Community, have established an intensive network of cooperation in the economic, commercial, social and cultural fields, and they are rapidly becoming an important political factor in the South-East Asian region as well. The Community does not have a special relationship with the ASEAN countries similar to that which it has with the developing countries of the Lomé Convention and the Mediterranean basin, but there is now a growing readiness for closer relations with the ASEAN countries as a group. The Community has come to appreciate the role of ASEAN as a factor for peace and stability in South-East Asia, which has become increasingly important in the last two or three years. There is also a growing awareness of the value of promoting trade with, and investment in, one of the fastest growing regions in the world which also happens to be a major source of raw materials. On their side, the ASEAN countries have actively sought an increased European interest, not only for the economic advantages but also as a factor of balance within South-East Asia. It is clear that a more active European presence in a region which is potentially a major economic partner for the Community, is extremely desirable. □

ABEDIA

An ABEDIA (Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa) delegation, led by Dr Chedli Ayari, the president, visited Brussels on 8-10 November and met development commissioner Claude Cheysson.

They discussed how ABEDIA/EEC cofinanced projects in Africa were progressing and talked about the possibility of making further joint commitments. The EEC and ABEDIA are already cofinancing nine different projects involving total commitments of 217 500 EUA.

The talks also dealt with how to strengthen and extend cooperation by setting up a permanent system of consultation and exchange of information. □

EMERGENCY AID

The Commission has decided to grant emergency aid to the victims of the recent events in Lebanon and Nicaragua. It will be provided in two successive instalments, for budgetary reasons.

Lebanon

There are at present 500 000 refugees in the mountains in Lebanon. Because of the destruction of dwellings in the Christian district of Beirut very many of these people will not be able to return for a few months yet. The Community's aid is intended to cover part of the cost of the relief operations launched by the International Committee of the Red Cross (total cost = 1 780 000 EUA) and the Catholic Relief Services (total cost = 575 000 EUA) by giving 200 000 EUA to each organization. The coordination body for the relief work will be the Lebanese government's aid committee.

This relief work consists in supplying basic necessities such as milk and food for infants, layettes and children's clothing, blankets and auxiliary bedding.

Nicaragua

Recent events in Nicaragua have meant that some 40 000 people have left for neighbouring countries (mainly Costa Rica and Honduras) and that there are approximately 56 000 displaced persons within the country.

The food aid (1 350 t of cereals and 100 t of milk powder) will be distributed by the International Red Cross.

The sum of 90 000 EUA will go to the Catholic Relief Services to enable that body to supply food purchased locally and medicines to the displaced persons within the country (65 000 EUA) and to the refugees in Honduras (15 000 EUA). An appeal for aid for the refugees in Costa Rica, made by the government of that country on 4 October 1978, is still being examined.

Thailand

At the request of the Thai government the Commission has decided on emergency aid amounting to a total of 25 000 EUA for the victims of the floods in Thailand. The Thai government will assign the task of implementing this aid operation to Caritas Belgica. With the aid decided on by the United Kingdom (15 000 EUA) and the Federal Republic of Germany (15 000 EUA), the total contribution from the Nine is 55 000 EUA.

Sri Lanka

The Commission has decided to give the League of Red Cross Societies 25 000 EUA in order to help meet the needs of the victims of the cyclone which struck Sri Lanka on 24 November.

This will be supplemented by food aid comprising 100 t of milk powder and 1 000 t of wheat flour (worth 406 000 EUA).

Philippines

On 15 November the Commission decided on emergency aid of 30 000 EUA for the victims of the typhoon which ravaged the province of Quezon to the north of Manila at the end of October. This amount will be used by Caritas Neerlandica to buy clothing and medicines on the spot. □

DAC

At the 17th high level meeting of DAC in November, the main aid donors in the OECD concentrated on the guidelines of a new international development strategy, on an OECD proposal to step up investments in the developing countries and on possible improvements to the procedures for granting aid and making the payments involved.

The discussion on strategy revolved round the prospect of world economic interdependence. Mr Meyer, for the Commission, said that the EEC intended actively working for a new and fairer economic order and reminded members that the Community had already tabled a draft resolution to this effect at the 33rd UN General Assembly.

The proposal for larger investments in the developing countries was welcomed, although the DAC wanted various aspects of the problem to be gone into further before the matter was brought up in the North/South dialogue. The DAC would be continuing its work in this field and had decided to call an informal meeting of top experts in 1979 to discuss their experience of transfers.

The group of Arab officials in front of the EEC Commission with some of their Community colleagues



plus two other informal meetings, one of developing country experts and the other of Arab donors. □

EEC-ARAB COUNTRIES

Eleven senior officials from six Arab countries (Abu Dhabi, Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco and Syria) visited Belgium in November at the Commission's invitation, to learn more about the structures of the European Community and the workings of the Commission departments whose activities directly affect their own countries or institutions (notably in the fields of development, agriculture, the customs union, energy and the economy). The course opened with a general introduction to the Commission lasting for several days, and continued with a week at the College of Europe in Bruges and visits to Luxembourg and Strasbourg. The officials were placed with various directorates-general of the Commission dealing with matters directly related to their own fields of responsibility.

This programme, the first of its kind, was devised by the Commission in July as a way of giving tangible effect to the policy of cooperation to which the Community committed itself when in 1976 and 1977 it signed cooperation agreements, which came into force on 1 November, with the Maghreb and Mashreq countries.

Similar programmes are to be organised annually from 1979, for officials from the seven Maghreb and Mashreq countries, the major Arab Funds, and the Organisation of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries (OAPEC) whose duties involve relations with the Community, particularly the implementation of the seven cooperation agreements. □

TRADE PROMOTION

Asia

The Commission has organized a workshop in Colombo as part of the Community programme of trade promotion schemes for products from Bangladesh, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. This was the opportunity for a dozen European traders to establish business relations with some 60 export firms from the three countries concerned.

Soon after this, a similar event was organized in Djakarta where a five-day session brought European importers and 120 producers from ASEAN (Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore and Thailand) together to investigate the possibility of developing the export of ASEAN products to Europe and Africa.

In October, with the help of the trade departments of the EEC member states, the Commission organized a number of trade missions of businessmen from India, Afghanistan and Singapore to some of the main cities of Europe (Hamburg, Frankfurt, Copenhagen, London, Dublin, Brussels, Paris, Milan and Rome).

The Indian businessmen were selling machine tools and ironmongery, the Afghans hides and skins, carpets, spices and jewelry and the Singapore firms, brochures, publications and publishing materials.

The Commission has sent experts out to India, Indonesia, Malaya, Singapore, Sri Lanka and Thailand with a view to helping these developing countries expand certain sectors of their sales promotion services.

At the EEC-India Joint Committee in Brussels on 24 and 25 October, it was announced that a Trade Centre to promote Indian products would be opening in the Belgian capital shortly. This venture would be co-financed by India and the EEC.

Seminars

The Commission presented papers on access to the market and trade promotion at the Duisberg Institut's seminar in Bremen for trade officials from the developing countries.

A document on Community assistance with trade promotion has been produced for a group of trade officials from the ACP and other developing countries.

In November, the Commission ran trade missions from Nepal and Pakistan. At Chambers of Commerce in Paris, London, Rotterdam, Hamburg, Copenhagen, Milan and Brussels, the Nepalese businessmen offered jute and leather articles, carpets and craft objects for sale and the Pakistani traders offered rubber articles, tools, craft and sub-contracted engineering.

Missions from Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands and the UK went out to buy goods in India and Pakistan in November. The various business meetings were organized with the help of the international confederation of wholesale traders.

Latin America

A convention on reciprocal trade information was held in Lima (Peru) on 16-22 November. The idea was to assess the results of trade promotion schemes which the Community ran for the Andean group in 77 and 78 and to draw up a draft trade promotion programme for 1979. Delegations from the five countries concerned and from the Cartagena Junta informed the Community of their plans for external trade and said what had been done to improve their export position.

A draft action programme for 1979 was produced and will be submitted to the relevant authorities for approval.

Latin American trade missions, run by the Commission with the help of the external trade organizations of the EEC member states went to London, Paris, Milan, Hamburg, Copenhagen, Amsterdam and Rotterdam in November. Businessmen from Honduras sold wooden furniture and doors, those from Salvador sold clothing and leather goods and those from Venezuela articles of iron, steel and aluminium.

Seven Latin American states (Costa Rica, Ecuador, Haiti, Honduras, Panama, Peru and Uruguay) took part in the International Food Fair in Paris on 13-18 November. The EEC Commission organized the building and decorating of the stands. □

FRANCE

The implications of industrialization in the developing countries

In November 1978, the French Economic and Social Committee discussed and adopted a document on the implications of industrialization in the developing countries for French industry. This document, presented by Léon Peillon, rapporteur for trade and industry at ECOSOC, analyzes the current situation of French industry in the light of the gradual industrialization of the developing countries. France has a trade deficit with the developing countries overall, but a large surplus (FF 17 800 million in 1977) with the non-oil producers.

Industrial trade is largely favourable, but, the document says, "France cannot do without these countries' customs". However, Peillon suggests, although French industry both desires and encourages continuing industrialization in the developing countries, it is nevertheless a cause for anxiety as far as the future of certain sectors are concerned. A global policy *vis-à-vis* industrialization in the developing countries is therefore called for, "so as to favourize their orderly integration into the world economy".

In the ECOSOC debate, minister for industry André Giroud said that "the industrialization of the developing countries is a legitimate and inelucta-

ble process... and is, in the immediate, beneficial for French industry". Industrialization is often a rapid process and, Giraud says, "involves changing the rules that govern international trade... We must go from traditional liberalism to organized liberalism", a typical example of which is the Multifibre Arrangement between the EEC and the textile-exporting developing countries.

If France is to be equal to this industrialization, it too must make a "considerable effort" to adapt its industry, Giraud went on, and this effort "must boost firms' competitiveness by liberalizing industrial prices and encouraging investment in stocks and shares. It must build France a sound internal market that is free of protectionism and it must increase export capacity".

The minister ended by saying "our industry must now gear its strategy not to France, nor to the Nine, but to the whole planet". □

NAMIBIA

SWAPO deputy secretary-general visits the Commission

Mr Shihepo, SWAPO deputy secretary-general and head of foreign affairs, visited the EEC Commission in Brussels in November to meet European officials. The main subject of discussion was the Community's humanitarian aid for the movement in its fight against racist South Africa which is currently defying the international community on Namibian independence and racial segregation.

Mr Shihepo said that his movement appreciated what the Commission was doing to help train the Namibian cadres who would be called upon to run the country once it achieved genuine independence under SWAPO, the only liberation movement which the international community recognized. He also said that any solution in Namibia had to involve SWAPO and the UN, but that ultimately it was the Namibians alone, as a nation, who could successfully campaign for the country's independence.

Shihepo also said SWAPO was interested in the results of the Community's code of conduct for European firms operating in South Africa.

Before leaving Brussels, he said he had visited seven other countries of Europe and talked with the leaders about the means of an effective application of economic sanctions against South Africa, in line with the UN decision. He then emphasized the serious risks of war that the racist government in Pretoria was constantly running by refusing to allow free elections under UN control and by preventing any international medical assistance getting to the Namibians. The danger of war was also aggravated by the fact that South African soldiers were constantly crossing the Namibia frontier into Angola.

Mr Shihepo called on all people of good will to put an end to the escala-

tion that South Africa was encouraging in order to strengthen its own position and extend racialism in Africa.

Jamaican welcome for Namibian trainees (1)

Thirty-six Namibians, most of them women, have arrived in Jamaica after being airlifted from Zambia, to train as teachers, nurses, midwives, secretaries, agricultural officers and accountants. All have gone there as a result of a stepping up of the Commonwealth programme for training Namibians decided at the annual meeting of the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Cooperation (CFTC) held in Montreal at the end of last year.

As soon as Jamaica said it was ready to make the training places available the Fund's deputy manager, Terence Dormer, organised the airlift and flew to Kingston with the Namibians.

So far 107 Namibians have started courses in seven developing countries of the Commonwealth—Ghana, Sierra Leone, Gambia, Tanzania, Kenya, Zambia, India and now Jamaica. Another 70 are studying on scholarships given by Australia, Britain, Canada and New Zealand.

When the Namibians went for their official welcome to Jamaica's Foreign Ministry they were sitting in a room only yards away from the conference hall in Kingston where at the Commonwealth summit conference in 1975 a decision was taken to offer Namibia Commonwealth membership if it wished to take it up after independence.

It was historic because Namibia was never, as were all other Commonwealth countries, a British colony.

At the same time it was decided that Commonwealth countries would do all they could to help Namibians train for jobs in the public sector.

The new nation will be in desperate need of trained personnel to run the government since discrimination in education and employment has prevented Namibians getting professional skills.

Jamaica's offer and the swift action of the CFTC came at a frustrating moment in the painful birth of the nation of Namibia—just at the time when South Africa held its own elections in the territory and undermined the United Nations programme for independence agreed with five Western powers and accepted by the main nationalist party, the South West Africa People's Organisation (SWAPO).

Apart from its training programmes for Namibia the Commonwealth is helping to prepare the country for independence in several other ways.

A survey of the country's mineral developments and their economic, legal and financial implications was recently prepared and delivered to SWAPO.

A grant of £10,000 helped take five SWAPO representatives and two members of the Council for Namibia to Lusaka a few months ago for a works-

hip to help set priorities for the UN Nationhood Programme for Namibia.

And special courses in English and mathematics in Commonwealth countries are being devised for young Namibians whose academic qualifications are modest because school opportunities in their own country have been so poor. □

(1) Gemini News Service.

CEAO

A summit meeting of the heads of state of the CEAO, the West African Economic Community grouping Ivory Coast, Upper Volta, Mali, Mauritania, Niger and Senegal, was held in Bamako at the end of October. The heads of the six member countries expressed their satisfaction at the way the regional cooperation tax and the Community Development Fund, the main features of the organization, were functioning.

They approved the CEAO operating budget and a three-year (1979-1981) action programme and decided to set up FOSIDEC, a solidarity fund, with an initial appropriation of CFAF 5 000 mil-

lion in 1978 plus an annual payment of CFAF 1 500 million, mainly from Ivory Coast and Senegal. They also approved a provisional amount of about CFAF 3 000 million for the Community Development Fund, again mainly from Ivory Coast and Senegal, and a list of products covered by the regional cooperation tax. There was also an inter-state agreement on the free movement of workers and the right to establishment.

The next CEAO summit will be in Nouakchott (Mauritania). □

ECOWAS

The Council of Ministers of ECOWAS held its 4th session in Dakar at the end of November. Ministers from the 16 member countries decided that the promotion of trade within the community was a matter of priority in view of their aim of setting up a proper customs union.

The ministers also adopted a CFAF 1 100 000 million budget for the secretariat and a CFAF 655 million budget for the Fund for Cooperation, Compensation and Development. □

CORRIGENDA

DOSSIER EEC-ACP TRADE 1972-1977 (The Courier No 52, p. 45 to 107)

Page 53. Last table
Add "(%)" to title.

Page 58. Right-hand column, fourth paragraph
Change "(see annex 8)" to "(see below)".

Page 59. First paragraph
Change "(see annex 9)" to "(see below)".

Page 62. Right-hand column, final paragraph
Change "the table oppositie" to "the following tables".

Page 63. First table
Replace final column with:
Belgium/Luxembourg
By: Zaire (47 %)
Rwanda (28 %)

Netherlands
by: Suriname
Italy
by: Ethiopia (29 %)

Page 65. Table
In section "Cocoa & Cocoa products" change "Nigeria (90)" to "Nigeria (9.0)".

Page 65. Final paragraph
Change "by the same proportion" to "by 10 %".

Page 67. 9th line from end
Change "1974" to "1975".

Page 71. Fourth paragraph
Change "Purchases of these products ... now account" to "Purchases of the latter product ... now account".

Page 73. First table title
Delete "(EUC mn)".

Page 90. Annex 14
First line of table should read: —
Bahamas 100.0 49.2 4.8 1.4 10.1 3.3
17.9 5.9 7.5

Page 91. Annex 15. In title, change "(19775 = 100)" to "(1975 = 100)".
Final line should read: —
Value index of all imports V 120.5
100.0 120.2 143.0

Page 1. Introduction to "Dossier"
Final section should read: —
"... It emerges that the overall balance of trade has grown in favour of the EEC but this was largely due to Nigeria's expenditure of its increased oil revenue. Excluding Nigeria, one finds a favourable trade balance for the ACP".

All pages. References to annexes:
change annex references in text as follows:

Annex reference in text	Change to
2	1
3 (i)	2
3 (ii)	3
3 (ii) 2	4
3 (iii)	5
3 (iv)	6
4	9
5	10
6	7
7	8
8	11
9	12
10	13
11	14
12	16
12 (a)	15
13	17
14	18. □

FISHERIES

Many West African nations concerned in negotiations

Mauritania

A Mauritanian delegation, led by Lt-Col. Bouceïf, minister for Fisheries, went to Brussels on 29 November-1 December for the first session of formal negotiations with the Community with a view to a three-year outline agreement. This session was the outcome of a number of exploratory Commission missions and the recent visit of Klaus Meyer, director-general for development, and Claude Cheysson, development commissioner, to Nouakchott. At these various meetings, the Mauritanian authorities expressed their desire to terminate their previous fisheries agreements with the USSR, Japan, Spain, Portugal, Greece, Romania and South Korea when they expired in 1979. All the agreements were based on issuing fishing permits for payment, but the system had failed to ensure supplies to the processing industries in Nouadhibou and only brought Mauritania the small sum of \$12 million, whereas the (partly illegal) catches were assessed as being worth more than \$1 000 million.

The new Mauritanian regime has therefore decided to make the development of fisheries one of the priorities of its economic policy. This will mainly involve encouraging the creation of joint ventures combining Mauritanian partners and foreign boat-builders and businessmen interested in activities in this area. Any potential catch not taken by vessels belonging to joint ventures will be allotted to partners who have made an effort to fit into the Mauritanian economy. However, care will be taken to ensure the replenishment of stocks and avoid overfishing by keeping within scientifically defined limits.

The Community, which has similar basic concerns as far as its own internal policy is concerned, has welcomed this new position. It has also stated its willingness to sign an agreement with Mauritania, provided that there is no discrimination against the EEC (which would be counter to the spirit of the Lomé Convention).

A draft outline agreement, whereby both parties encourage the creation of joint ventures (ranging from boat building to processing and marketing), has been produced. Since the Community is thus contributing to Mauritania's development, additional fishing facilities will be granted to EEC vessels.

The practical details of getting the schemes under way and devising a transitional system for 1979 have yet to be studied. These must ensure that the dozen small French lobster boats (currently the only Community vessels in Mauritanian waters) can go on operating in the area and arrange for vessels interested in activity and cooperation

to start work there. A meeting to discuss this has been fixed for Nouakchott on 15 January 1979. The Mauritanian authorities are now contacting their other partners in the fisheries sector and will make plans for 1979 in the light of their reactions. The Community will have consulted people in the relevant professional circles by the January meeting.

If opinions converge, an agreement could be signed at the end of January.

Guinea Bissau

In spite of a number of exploratory talks, progress is slower than with other countries.

On 13 December 1976, the EEC Council authorized France to conclude a transitional agreement, extending no further than 31 December 1978, with this country. Pending an overall solution, the Community will be starting on the internal and external procedures required to extend the transitional system covering French vessels for a few more months.

Senegal

Exploratory talks in October 1978 were fruitful and an EEC-Senegal fisheries agreement now only seems to depend on decisions as to the level of mutual concessions. The Commission has invited the Senegalese government to formal negotiations in Brussels with this in view. □

CLUB OF ROME

"The next ten years will be decisive for the future of humanity. If in that space of time nothing is done to change man, the few options that still remain open to us will be lost." This warning has recently come from Aurelio Peccei, chairman of the Club of Rome, a group of scientists, industrialists and others, who hope to find solutions to the world's gravest problems.

"During the last few decades," said Mr Peccei, "man has been drugged by the technical and scientific revolution, become drunk on cheap petrol and an all-powerful technology... Modern man is incomplete and cannot control what he has created. For other animal species such a gap would mean instant extinction."

"We are still cultural fossils," said Mr Peccei, "we must teach people, and above all the leaders, to abandon their closed minds. They must acquire a consciousness of mankind and leave behind the mentality of nationality or class. If we do not, the human drama will become a tragedy."

Mr Peccei, who has been chairman of the Club of Rome since its foundation in 1968, stressed the need to act quickly, "it would be unwise, if not fatal, to leave things ten years."

He believed the main problem was to face up to population growth, which according to the Washington environment fund had reached a world population of 4.4 billion people. "Each year our planet has 73 million more people. Of the total more than a third live in misery with an annual income of less than \$90 a head. Despite this there is no global plan of a long term nature to ensure a decent life for the growing population, nor to provide work for the billion unemployed it is estimated there will be by the year 2000.

"Meanwhile the world has become an enormous military camp. Nuclear weapons could destroy the world's population twelve times over, and each day 'defence' absorbs over one billion dollars.

"But the greatest danger," Mr Peccei continued, "is to the resources we call renewable. Twenty hectares of forest disappear each day, making an area each year greater than Belgium, Denmark and the Netherlands together. If nothing is done forests will have completely disappeared in three or four decades. Fauna and flora are in danger. 625 species of animal and between 20 and 25 thousand species of plantlife are threatened with extinction."

As for energy resources, "the countdown has begun," said Mr Peccei, "the real crisis will be in the 1990s and alternative sources of energy are not yet sufficiently developed to meet that need. All these problems are interrelated and must be resolved at world level," he said. □

EEC-INDIA

The joint commission established under the EEC-India Commercial Cooperation Agreement signed on 17 December 1973, held its sixth meeting in Brussels on 24 and 25 October 1978 under the chairmanship of Mr C.R. Krishnaswamy Rao Saheb, commerce secretary and leader of the Indian delegation. The Community delegation was led by Mr Manfred Caspari, deputy director-general for external relations.

The joint commission reviewed economic developments in India and the Community. Mr Rao Saheb noted the satisfactory progress registered by the Indian economy since the last meeting in November 1977. Gross national product grew by an estimated 6% at constant prices in 1977/78, with a 12% increase in agricultural production.

While observing that India's share in the Community's trade is still very small, Mr Rao Saheb expressed his appreciation of the constructive cooperation of the Community and the member States in promoting India's exports to the Community. He pointed out that the liberalized import regime that India has adopted for the purpose of expanding the production base and improving the supply of essential goods, has

enlarged the opportunities for EEC exporters to the Indian market. Another area of fruitful collaboration identified by Mr Rao Saheb was cooperation between Community and Indian firms in third countries. He called for an expansion of opportunities on both sides leading to a wider and more comprehensive relationship in the field of trade, economy and industry.

On the Community side, Mr Caspari expressed the sympathy of the Community for the sufferings of the people of northern India following the recent floods. He noted with satisfaction the development and diversification of India's exports to the Community in recent years, to which the CCA had contributed.

He recalled that exploratory talks on the future of the CCA would begin shortly, as agreed between Prime Minister Desai and President Jenkins in June 1978.

The Joint Commission examined the report of the preparatory sub-commission, including activities in such sectors as engineering, tea, leather, animal feed, shellac, tobacco, marine products, computer software and minerals.

The joint commission also discussed the trade promotion programme for 1979. It noted with great satisfaction the decision to establish an Indian trade centre in Brussels to be co-financed for an initial period of three years as a joint venture by the Community and the Indian government.

The joint commission also discussed the functioning of the agreements on jute, coir and textiles. □

EEC-TUNISIA

The EEC-Tunisia Cooperation Council held its first meeting at Ministerial level—the EEC-Tunisia Cooperation Agreement having entered into force on 1 November—on 12 December 1978 in Brussels.

The meeting was chaired by Mr Klaus von Dohnanyi, minister of state at the ministry of foreign affairs of Germany and president-in-office of the Council of the European Communities. The delegation of Tunisia was led by Mr Mohamed Fitouri, minister for foreign affairs.

It agreed on general guidelines for co-operation and the discussions then covered the implementation of this co-operation from an economic standpoint and the implementation of financial and technical cooperation with regard to Tunisia.

The Cooperation Council also examined the results of the application of the trade provisions of the Agreement, advance implementation of which began on 1 July 1976 after an Interim Agreement.

It dealt with the implementation of other provisions in the agreement,

especially those concerning labour and the review clause.

Moreover, the Tunisian delegation set out its concern regarding the repercussions of enlargement of the European Communities on future cooperation between Tunisia and the EEC.

The agenda also included the implementation of the provision in the agreement concerning measures to be taken to facilitate the necessary co-operation and contacts between the European Parliament and the Chamber of Representatives of Tunisia.

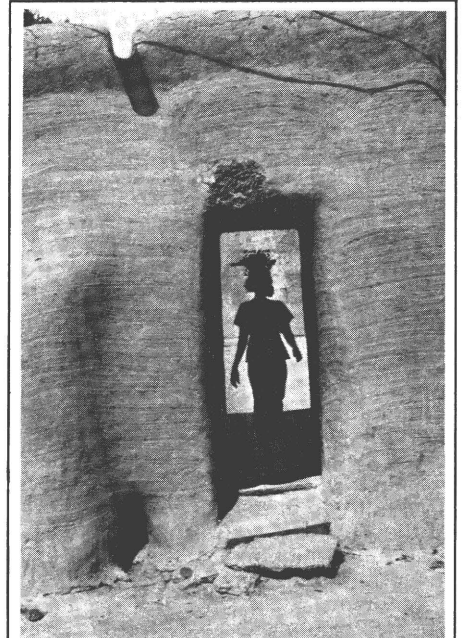
Finally, the Cooperation Council adopted a decision on the definition of the concept of originating products and methods of administrative cooperation. □

FAO

The world food situation continues to give cause for concern despite the improvement in availabilities, according to the FAO (United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation) which has just held its 74th session in Rome.

Harvests were good on the whole in 1978 and food production seems to have increased by 3%. But in the same year there were a considerable number of disasters in the world and there has been hardly any progress made towards solving old agricultural and rural development problems. Natural disasters were even so numerous that World Food Programme reserves for emergency operations as well as the resources of the FAO technical cooperation programme intended for these operations were exhausted.

But, said Mr Saouma, FAO director general, donors responded swiftly and generously to his appeals and it is thus that it was possible to mobilise 570 000 t of food to be distributed in Asian countries devastated by floods. It was also possible to send more than 437 500 t of cereals and other foods to the Sahel. One million six hundred thousand dollars, added to the funds



Ten young photographers were recently sponsored by Editions Larousse and the airline UTA on photographic trips to Africa and Asia. The result is an exhibition of their work in Paris at the Kodak centre in Avenue Georges V. It lasts until 15 January. The photo above of a street in Segou (Mali) is by Eric Cuvillier, who won the grand prize of FF 10 000 for his work.

spent by the FAO, went to the anti-locust campaign in East Africa and in the Middle East. The European Community has also granted 1.3 million European units of account to the FAO for this emergency operation. For its part, the Arab Bank for Development in Africa will provide 15 million dollars for aid to the Sahel and other African countries.

The most worrying aspect of the present situation, as the delegates of several countries pointed out, is the growing dependence of developing countries on food imports. If this trend does not decline, their cereal imports could well exceed 90 million tonnes in 1985. □

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

EEC summit in Brussels

The European Council, a summit meeting of the EEC's nine leaders, was held in Brussels on the 4-5 December 1978. The main debate was on the European Monetary System (EMS) which the Copenhagen summit had decided should be introduced, if possible, on 1 January 1979. In the event the Council did decide to introduce a new monetary system, based on the ECU (European currency unit) but not all nine members felt they could agree to join the scheme as it stood. Britain

decided to stay outside the exchange system, which would link the exchange rates of the various EEC currencies together, and Italy and Ireland also decided that they needed time to consider the new system. Italy eventually agreed to join on 12 December, and Ireland on 15 December. So the summit produced a mixed result, and the European press responded by differing greatly on their interpretation of what had happened. Perhaps the President of the EEC Commission, Roy Jenkins,



The European Council

First row (left to right) Mr Van Agt (Netherlands), Mr Lynch (Ireland), Mr Giscard d'Estaing (France), Mr Schmidt (Germany), Mr Jørgensen (Denmark), Mr Vanden Boeynants (Belgium), Mr Thorn (Luxembourg), Mr Jenkins (President of the EEC Commission), Mr Callaghan (United Kingdom) and Mr Andreotti (Italy). In the second row the foreign ministers, Mr Forlani (Italy), Mr O'Kennedy (Ireland), Mr Andersen (Denmark), Mr Van der Klaauw (Netherlands), Mr Genscher (Germany), Mr Simonet (Belgium), Mr Ortoli (Vice-president of the EEC Commission), Mr Owen (United Kingdom), Mr François-Poncet (France), Mr Hamilius (Luxembourg).

summed up the position best. He called it "a limited success". The new monetary system emerging on 1 January will not be as complete as had been hoped.

The ECU which is being set up is like a basket of currencies which can be used for transactions, for example, between European central banks. It is not a money that will be used by people in the street. There are basically three parts to the EMS—the exchange rate mechanism, a European monetary fund called Fecom based initially on 20% of the gold and dollar reserves of the members, and short and medium term credit facilities under the aegis of the fund⁽¹⁾. The fund, which some have called a European IMF, should be fully in operation in two years' time, when the ECU will be used as a reserve asset and a means of settlement. At the outset the ECU will have the same value and composition of EEC currencies as the European unit of account (EUA).

At the end of the meeting Mr Jenkins, the president of the Commission, gave his judgement on the outcome:

— This European Council was a limited success. It was a success in getting a European monetary system worked out in detail, with a full measure of agreement, which will be in place on 1 January. Given the short timetable within which we have been working since Copenhagen, this is a considerable achievement. The success is however limited because we would naturally have liked a full participation from the start."

"We were aware in advance that the likelihood of British participation was small. However, it is disappointing that Italy and Ireland, before their Prime Ministers left Brussels, were unable to indicate their willingness to join from the start. I do not however under-

estimate the possibility of a positive decision on their part. Like Chancellor Schmidt I would have liked to see a more substantial transfer of resources, but there is a considerable flow of funds envisaged."

"It was always important that the scheme should be a Community scheme. It cannot be a full Community scheme until all members are in it. But it was important to start on a basis of a community scheme which makes the possibility of others joining easier. The Commission will play its full part and will do its best to represent the common collective interest."

The three wise men

The Council also appointed three men to look into the way the Community institutions work, particularly in view of eventual enlargement, and to make recommendations by October 1979. They chose Barend Biesheuvel a former prime minister of the Netherlands, Edmund Dell, a former British minister of trade, and Robert Marjolin, a former French member of the EEC Commission. □

(1) Short term monetary support 14bn ECU. Medium term financial assistance 11 bn ECU. Total 25 bn ECU.

SUGAR

Inconsistencies in the policies pursued by the Community and member states: the example of sugar

Acting on a proposal from Mr Cheysson, Mr Ortoli, Mr Gundelach, Mr Haferkamp and Mr Davignon, the Commis-

sion recently adopted a Communication to the Council drawing the Member States' attention to certain policies being followed in the developing countries to promote industrial investment. In many sectors there was a danger that the resulting exports could cause serious problems as regards profitability and create disruption on the world or Community market.

The Commission chose as its first example cane sugar: fourteen ACP States are already large-scale producers, and, along with other developing countries, are proposing to step up their production considerably.

In many cases, they will do this with financial support and technical assistance from European firms, the financial support sometimes being provided by one or more of the EEC members states.

Protocol No 3 to the Lomé Convention, on ACP sugar, guarantees that 1.22 million tonnes of cane sugar will be purchased each year from the fourteen listed ACP states at internal Community prices, even though the Community is itself currently producing a surplus (about 2.0 million tonnes per annum).

An examination of the investment projects in progress or planned in the ACP States up to 1981 reveals that:

— the volume of ACP sugar available for export will increase from the present level of 2.0 million tonnes to 2.9 million tonnes;

— two-thirds of these projects are receiving private- and public-sector backing from the Community.

These developments are all the more alarming since the world market has a serious structural surplus, which is reflected in persistently depressed prices. At the present price level, new undertakings have no guarantee of profitability.

Projects in progress or planned in the ACP States

It is expected that by 1981 export capacity will have increased by 0.9 million tonnes. This increase will come from 66 known projects—44 backed by

European firms—supported by the full range of national export promotion measures.

Five countries account for a significant proportion of the projected increase:

Quantities available for export (tonnes):

	1978	1981	Firms (country of origin)
Cameroon	12 000	100 000	F / UK
Ivory Coast	0	160 000(1)	B / D / F / NL / UK
Kenya	0	105 000	F / UK
Sudan	0	187 000	B / UK
Swaziland	216 000	359 000	C / UK

(1) Ivory Coast might forego three or four projects representing an additional 200 000 tonnes.

i.e. an increase of 683 000 tonnes from only five countries.

It is clear, with the sugar market in its present state, that the Community must expect further requests for inclusion in the Sugar Protocol (concluded for an indefinite period) and that, furthermore, it cannot contemplate any increase whatsoever in the quota laid down in the protocol. This is the reply it gave to Zambia's request.

The Commission therefore proposes that, in the sugar sector, which is being taken as an example, there should be full coordination of all the schemes being implemented or planned which the EEC Member States or indeed the

Community (EDF, EIB) might support directly or indirectly. The attention of other financing bodies (World Bank, African Development Bank, etc.) is being drawn to the Commission's conclusions.

The Commission asks itself the following question: Can we go on accepting, by pretending the problem does not exist, the inconsistency between blanket export aid policies—which are in themselves perfectly understandable—and the responsibility which the Members States and the Community should exercise *vis-à-vis* their Third World partners, particularly as regards the selection of sectors for development?

World market situation

Figures

Over the last three sugar years, the world sugar market has developed as follows:

September-August balance	'000 t raw sugar		
	1975/76	1976/77	1977/78(E)
Initial stock	17 305	20 440	23 330
Production	82 780	86 080	92 500
Available quantities	100 085	106 520	115 830
Consumption(1)	79 650	83 190	85 500
Final stock	20 440	23 330	30 330
of which: as % of consumption	26	28	35
	in EUA/t		
Free world market price(2)	273.90	169	130.63

(1) Calculated by deducting the final stock from the available quantities.
(2) Annual average July/June (London spot prices).
Source: FO Licht-European Sugar Journal (Balance). International Sugar Organization (ISO) (International Trade).
(E): Estimates.

Since the price spiral during the 1974/75 sugar year, which was caused by a temporary shortage, there has been a steady fall in prices and an equally steady increase in stocks. At the end of the 1977/78 sugar year, the 7 million tonnes production surplus raised world stocks to their highest level in 25 years.

At the same time, sugar projects are being implemented throughout the world, and particularly in the developing countries, which can only aggravate the market surplus, at least in the short term, and keep world prices at a level where production units cannot operate profitably.

World consumption is increasing, although slowly, the rate being slower in the industrialized countries, where in some cases consumption is stagnating or even declining. The unknown factor is clearly the future rate of increase in the developing countries, which, with a few exceptions, notably among the countries that are traditional sugar producers still have very low consumption levels (from 7 to 18 kg per head of population against 34 to 50 kg in the industrialized countries). The rate of increase in demand in the developing countries will largely determine the future of the world sugar economy.

Efforts for the long-term organization of the sugar market

The new International Sugar Agreement (ISA) entered into force provisionally only on 1 January 1978, and it is too soon for an assessment to be made of the scope of the economic measures it contains (export quotas to reduce international supply).

There are, however, structural factors at work which do not exactly help towards the effectiveness of these measures. The world sugar market has always been subject to cyclical fluctuations, which have sometimes been sudden and violent. The reasons for this situation are numerous and complex, but it is possible to point out a few:

- the world sugar market is a residual market (about 10% of production);
- the residual nature of this market considerably aggravates the risks arising, one way or another, from the vagaries of climate;
- the governments of most countries (whether they are purchasers or sellers on the world market) intervene more or less directly in the formation of domestic prices, and this has repercussions on the trend of production and consequently on the formation of world market prices;
- the relative price inelasticity of consumption, at least in the industrialized countries.

Observation over a long period reveals that, in eight years out of ten, the market is oversupplied, which suggests that there is structural overproduction. The effects of this situation on prices is only too obvious, especially for the developing countries, which have fragile and largely undiversified economies and do not have the means to offset these effects in other sectors

of the economy. It is therefore only natural that these countries expect a great deal from the ISA.

In the first few months of application of the new ISA, and despite a temporary recovery in January 1978, there has been a significant and steady decline in spot prices, both in Paris for white sugar and in London for brown sugar, while the quotation for brown sugar in New York has been suspended since November 1977. This situation is completely different from that experienced during the first few months following the entry into force of the 1968 Agreement, when prices rose by 25%.

The new ISA might have been expected to have a considerable impact since the introduction of export quotas was designed to reduce supplies on the world market by 4 million tonnes, thereby obliging exporting countries to build up stocks (with IMF facilities). The reality of the situation has proved very different, however, for between the end of the negotiations for the Agreement in October 1977 and its entry into force on 1 January 1978 the participating producer countries, which were not yet bound by the export quotas, no doubt used this period to reduce their stocks to a minimum by large-scale selling. These sales brought about a drop in the price of brown sugar at the end of 1977 and caused a large number of importing countries to stock up. The net result was a transfer of stocks from exporters to importers, which is bound to influence the market situation in the short term.

There is little encouragement to be drawn from the factors described above, particularly if it is considered that:

— although the price objective set by the ISA in October 1977 was US\$ 242 per tonne, and despite an initial 15% reduction in the export quotas, the average price per month in 1978 has been about US\$ 155 per tonne, a price at which no production unit can cover its costs.

— the additional quantities of sugar will be offered, despite a certain increase in producers' consumption, on the world "residual" market and will aggravate the downward pressure on prices. There is consequently a danger that the objective pursued by the introduction of export quotas may not be attained.

Account being taken of preferential imports (ACP, OCT, India), the Community balance reveals that the quantities available for export increased from 1.7 million tonnes in 1976/77 to 2.8 million tonnes in 1977/78. The Community situation is therefore contributing to the depressed state of the world market, and it is possible that this situation may continue.

Furthermore, the Community is likely to place increasing pressure on the world "residual" market as long as it does not participate in the ISA (which would make it subject to certain obli-

gations) and owing to the fact that the traditional "African" outlet will tend to become smaller. □

SOCIAL AFFAIRS

Retirement in Europe

A sample survey of Europeans' attitudes to retirement was carried out in late 1977 at the request of the Commission directorate-general for employment and social affairs: A total of 8936 people aged 15 and over were interviewed personally in their own homes by professional interviewers.

The aim was to explore, with a view to possible future proposals in the social policy field:

- the working population's feelings about retirement;
- their intentions in the context of existing national legislation;
- reactions to the possibility of early retirement in return for extra contributions;
- opinions on a gradual transition from full-time work to retirement;
- how lowering the retirement age ranks in a series of improvements in living conditions that might be introduced.

Two major conclusions emerge from this exploratory study.

1. Feelings about retirement among the working population of Europe vary considerably in the course of working life. Three distinct periods can be distinguished:

— Up to age 30. Indifference is the keynote here. The vast majority rarely think about retirement at all but, when asked, they are equally divided between anxiety and satisfaction.

— Age 30-45. This is when retirement is most attractive and people in this age group view it with increasing satisfaction. The desire to stop work at normal retirement age, or earlier if possible, is at its peak during this period.

— Age 45 and over. Anxiety mounts during this period and once retirement is really imminent, i.e. at 55-60, the desire to go on working beyond the normal age is at least as common as the desire to stop working as soon as possible.

2. Attitudes to retirement and retirement age seem far more varied than might have been expected. To begin with, traditions vary from country to country, which makes it difficult to harmonize regulations at European level. Attitudes vary within each country too; in all cases there are three large groups, none of which have a clear majority: there are those who want to stop working before retirement age, those who want to stop at retirement age and those who want to go on working beyond retirement age. Finally, opinions change as retirement approaches, which means that discussions between those who make the rules and representatives of those to

whom they apply are likely to be affected by the question of how far participants are from retirement themselves.

If any account is to be taken of the aspirations of Europe's 100 million working people as expressed in late 1977, then the need is for action to make the system more flexible. Retirement is, after all, one of the most important changes in an individual's life. □

COUNCIL

Cooperation with developing countries in the field of energy

On the basis of the Commission communication of 1 August 1978, the Council has discussed certain questions relating to cooperation with developing countries in the field of energy. The discussion was to be seen in the context of the follow-up to the conclusions of the Bremen and Bonn summits, which committed the participant countries to fostering cooperation with the developing countries in this area.

After emphasizing the close interdependence between the economies of the developing countries and those of the industrialized countries in the energy sector and the need for world-wide cooperation in this area, the Council reached certain conclusions in accordance with which the Member States and the Community would attribute increased importance to energy questions in their development aid programmes. They would participate in coordinated efforts aimed at enabling renewable energy sources to be made use of in the developing countries, thereby meeting the needs expressed by those countries.

In this context, the Council asked the Commission, initially in consultation with the developing countries concerned, to prepare inventories and analyses of needs, resources and instruments for the developing countries, on the understanding that such analyses could represent a Community contribution to the discussion which would have to take place at world level.

The Council also invited the Commission to submit a study of aid granted in respect of energy through the various existing Community instruments and of the measures being studied in international organizations and to examine the advisability of additional Community action. □

SCHUMAN CENTRE

Robert Schuman Centre for Europe

This centre opened about 18 months ago in Scy Chazelles near Metz

(France), in the house where Robert Schuman lived and died. Schuman was the founder of the first European (coal and steel) Community and his declaration of 9 May 1950, hoping to see genuine solidarity established between the countries of Europe, has gone down in history.

Schuman stood for political as well as moral and spiritual solidarity and he was always a man of dialogue. And dialogue is difficult. It is not something that can be learned and it makes understanding of the opposite view essential.

This is why ACP ambassadors and European MPs together put forward the idea of holding discussions away from the negotiating table, on an informal and friendly basis, with the participation of any other people whose particular experience might prove useful. The aim was to go beyond economic and technical problems and enable ACP and EEC personalities to meet informally to discuss moral and spiritual issues.

The first meeting was held at Scy Chazelles in June 1977 and the second at Enscherange (Luxembourg) in October of the same year. The third, at ACP House in Brussels at the end of November 1978, was the scene of a lively discussion between European MPs and ACP ambassadors. □

EUROPEAN ELECTIONS

Socialist campaign

The Socialist Party of France launched its first European election campaign in Lille, where Pierre Mauroy is mayor, on 8 & 9 November. Direct elections to the European Parliament are scheduled for June 1979.

The first event of the socialist campaign was attended by socialist leaders from the members and potential members of the EEC, including Willy Brandt, chairman of the Socialist International and the SPD, François Mitterrand, first secretary of the French Socialist Party, Joop den Uyl, chairman of the PVDA, Mario Soares and Melina Mercouri (representing the Portuguese and the Greek socialist parties) and EEC commissioners Antonio Giolitti and Claude Cheysson. And there were socialist mayors from such major European cities as Paris, Venice, Milan, Hamburg, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Bremen and Copenhagen, as well as socialists from the world of arts and science, like Heinrich Böll, Günther

Jean Monnet is 90

Jean Monnet: "Nothing is possible without man, and nothing lasts without institutions" (Mémoires p. 360)

Jean Monnet, famous for his role as a pioneer of European unification, was 90 on 9 November. Roy Jenkins, President of the European Commission, sent him the following message to mark the event:

"It gives me the deepest personal pleasure to salute you on your 90th birthday. The European Commission and I personally send you our warmest congratulations and good wishes. We celebrate your birthday at a moment when the European Community has a greater sense of momentum and dynamism than for some years past.

There are risks as well as opportunities in the way ahead, but we shall be constantly guided and inspired by your work and example. The foundations which you laid and constantly supported are proving themselves capable of adaptation to the new challenges.

New advance in the Community is the best birthday tribute we can make to you".

Also on 9 November the founding session was held of the Jean Monnet foundation in Paris. □

Grass, Françoise Sagan, Paul Guinard and Giorgio Strehler.

German socialists

The president of the SPD, Willy Brandt, has been appointed head of the SPD list for the European elections. This was decided during the special congress of the German socialist party, by 196 votes to none. Tremendous applause followed the announcement of the decision. Willy Brandt has stated that he would place himself at the entire disposal of the party for the European election campaign. The SPD, which will present 78 candidates, reckons on winning 35 to 40 seats in the future European Assembly, including at least seven women. The personalities who will figure on the SPD list will include, apart from eminent trade union leaders, Mr Otto Kühn, former Minister of Rhineland-North Westphalia, and Ludwig Fellermaier, current President of the European Parliament's socialist group.

Danish socialists

The Social-Democrat Party, which is Denmark's strongest political group, has appointed its 20 candidates for the European elections. Eight of these candidates are already members of the present Parliament. Seven women are included on this list. Denmark will have 16 representatives, and the Social-Democrats hope to win four or five of these seats. □

Among the socialist leaders in Lille, (from left to right) Mario Soares (Portugal), François Mitterrand (France), Melina Mercouri (Greece) and Willy Brandt (Germany).



EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

The geographical scope and duration of the Lomé Convention, its social and development objectives with respect to the poorest countries, as well as the need to prevent the most flagrant violations of human rights, were the main problems dealt with during the debate which the European Parliament held in December at the proposal of Mr Broeks (Dutch Soc), on the negotiations aimed at renewing the Lomé Convention.

Mr Broeks, supported by the majority of the speakers, believes that:

— the parties involved in the negotiation should give sympathetic consideration to membership applications from countries belonging to the group of poorest nations in the world.

— the new Convention must be concluded for a period of 10 to 15 years;

— the least-favoured strata of the population of the ACP states must be the main beneficiaries of the development policy in the context of the new Convention, which means concentrating on developing small agricultural undertakings, small and medium-scale firms and craft industries;

— restructuring of certain sectors should in no way affect ACP preferences and their products should have free access to the Community market; one should not be swayed by protectionist considerations;

— in order that certain violations of human rights may be condemned, it will be necessary to agree on an appropriate procedure, which would nevertheless respect national sovereignty;

— it would be advisable to examine the possibility of extending the Stabex system, which is on the whole satisfactory in its present form, to a greater number of processed products;

— the appropriation for the new EDF will have to take sufficient account of the diminished effect of the preferential concessions granted to the ACP countries;

— the new Convention should establish the volume and details of special aid for southern African countries which suffer because of particularly preoccupying political situation.

In his reply, Mr Cheysson highlighted the following points which guide the Commission in its negotiations:

— the geographical scope of the Lomé Convention is explained by historical and economic reasons, as well as considerations relating to aid to the poorest countries. The geographical extent of the Convention must remain limited, because the Community cannot do everything alone;

— as regards the duration of the new convention, which the Parliament would like to be somewhat longer, the Commission would first like to wait

until it receives proposals from its partners. The problem of extending the period of the Convention is in fact fairly delicate, particularly in view of the future developments clause which it contains;

— Mr Cheysson underlined the fact that, as in all its external relations, a rejection of protectionism and the combatting of such trends is the fundamental theme of the negotiations. This is a duty which the Community has towards the ACP countries, but also towards itself, because all protectionism is suicidal.

In this respect, the Community must beware of disguised protectionism which, under the pretext of safeguarding International Labour Organization standards, is in danger of slowing down the development of trade. In the context of the Lomé Convention, the Community must not, moreover, confine itself to denouncing excesses, but must also take action to eliminate the causes by bringing about a general improvement in the situation. Mr Cheysson is, therefore, absolutely opposed to any formula introducing the threat of sanctions, and he believes that, in this respect, a new climate must be established at the level of the industrialized countries.

Written questions

The European Commission gave the following information in answers to written parliamentary questions on its development policy in December.

Regional cooperation in the Lomé Convention (question by Mr Nolan). The financial resources earmarked for regional cooperation under the Lomé Convention (article 47) comprise: an initial instalment adopted in March 1977, about 50% of which (104.1 MEUA) had been accounted for by financing decisions by September 1978;— a second instalment, which was examined by the Community authorities in September and which is now being examined by the ACP states. According to the Commission, these financial commitments, while not spectacular, may be considered satisfactory in view of the practical difficulties inherent in regional cooperation schemes.

Target programmes for the OCTs (question by Miss Flesch). Unlike the case of the ACP states, there are no programming missions to OCTs: it is the trustee member state which communicates the proposed programmes to the Commission, and these are then submitted for the opinion of the member states meeting within the Programming Committee. In view of its special status, the Dutch Antilles alone received a programming mission (in June 1977). The Programming Committee approved the target programmes for the various OCTs in five meetings, between 28 February 1977 and 6 April 1978. Replying to the parliamentarian, who had expressed regret at the delays in the case of OCTs, in comparison

with the ACPs, the Commission recognizes that, while the Lomé Convention was signed on 28 February 1975 and certain programming missions were carried out in the summer of 1975, the framework for financial cooperation with the OCTs was only adopted on 29 June 1976 on the association of the overseas countries and territories with the EEC.

Contacts with non-governmental organizations concerned with development cooperation (question by Mr Vanvelthoven). Once a year or so since 1975 the Commission has organized an informal assembly to which it invites people, in their personal capacity, who are experienced in the various types of NGO schemes to help the developing countries (field projects, food aid and development education). In the last three years, the participants in this assembly have elected an NGO Liaison Committee, made up of nine members, whose aim is to exchange views with Commission staff and to facilitate informal contacts between NGOs at national level through the representative of each member state. In reply to the parliamentarian, who asked about the "philosophical and/or ideological complexion of the participating organizations" belonging to the Liaison Committee, the Commission points out that this committee is formed on the basis of the experience of each of its members. □

EUROPEAN COMMISSION

The Community Council has confirmed the President and Vice-Presidents of the European Commission for two years, from January 1979 to January 1981. The office of commissioner is valid for four years, but the President and Vice-Presidents for only two years. Practically without discussion, there was unanimity within the Council that the terms of office of Mr Jenkins, the President, and Mr Haferkamp, Mr Ortoli, Mr Gundelach, Mr Natali and Mr Vredeling, Vice-Presidents, should be extended.

EDF (cont.)

After the favourable opinion of the EDF Committee on 29 November, the Commission took the following financing decisions, totalling 1 830 000 EUA, on 5 December.

Dutch Antilles

Trade and tourism project (1979 and 1980). Grant: 800 000 EUA. This project

aims to help the national and island authorities, and the private sector, in promoting trade and tourism. It consists of:

- technical assistance and training for some of the personnel involved,
- a number of studies on products directly related to trade and tourism,
- documentation.

Help in the tourist sector will go primarily to the island of Bonaire, which until now has not benefited to the same extent as the other islands from industrial and tourist development.

Trinidad and Tobago

Trade promotion programme 1978-80. Loan on special terms: 700 000 EUA. The programme aims to improve Trinidad and Tobago's export performance by raising the standard of the institutional framework in the country and training personnel. Assistance will also be provided in the context of programme encouraging the sale of national fruit and vegetables on foreign markets, to the new and more traditional products of the Trinidad Lake Asphalt Company, and other products which might be exportable, in the form of the publication of a tariff guide.

Cayman Islands

Cayman Brac airport. A loan on special conditions of 300 000 EUA. The project involves the extension of the runway at Cayman Brac airport from 3 300 feet (1 006 m) to 5 000 feet (1 524 m). The object is to allow medium-sized aircraft to land and thereby improve the island's communications. The government wants the island of Cayman Brac to develop its contacts with the economically more developed island of Grand Cayman, the largest in the Cayman group. The work will be carried out by local workforce under the direction of the public works ministry.

Guinea

On 23 December Mr Claude Cheysson, the development commissioner, and Mr N'Faly Sangare, the planning minister of Guinea, signed a financing convention for the rehabilitation (first phase) of the textile complex at Sanoyah in Guinea.

The project includes:

- the renovation of buildings and auxiliary installations. (The existing buildings were put up in 1963 and are almost at a standstill);
- the renewal of production materials, with the initial objective of producing 5 million metres a year;
- setting up a training centre;
- the provision of a stock of raw materials.

The total cost of the project is 30 000 000 EUA, with the EDF providing a grant of 26 000 000 EUA and a loan on special conditions of 4 000 000 EUA. □

EIB (cont.)

First EIB loan in Nigeria: the Bank's largest in an ACP country

Under the terms of the Lomé Convention, the European Investment Bank, the European Community's long-term finance institution, has granted a global loan of 25 million units of account (1 EUA = approx. 0.84 Naira) to the Nigerian Industrial Development Bank Ltd. (NIDB) which will on-lend the funds, in agreement with the EIB, for medium-scale industrial ventures throughout the country.

This is the EIB's first operation in Nigeria, which, in terms of its population and natural resources, especially its oil industry, is one of the most important developing countries in Africa.

The loan is the largest yet made by the EIB under the Lomé Convention; it is for 11 years at an interest rate of 5.75 %, after deduction of a 3 % interest subsidy from the Community's European Development Fund.

The NIDB, of which the Federal Government is the main shareholder, was constituted in 1964 to provide equity and long-term loan finance for manufacturing, mining and hotel projects.

Its operations have grown at a rapid pace over the last few years; during the period 1975-1977 it approved loan and equity investments worth 232 million EUA in over 60 individual projects, involving the creation of an estimated 37 000 jobs.

In addition to the EIB loan, external financial support for the NIDB's activities is also being provided by the World Bank.

Global loans, which have been used to effect by the EIB in most of the Community member countries and also Greece, Turkey and Portugal, have become an important means of providing aid under the Lomé Convention.

This form of financing enables the Bank to channel financial resources through experienced local institutions to assist a wide variety of small and medium-scale investment projects; very often the amount of employment created is high in relation to the scale of the investment concerned, which is particularly important at the present stage of development of many of the Lomé countries.

Apart from the latest operation, the EIB has made to date 8 other global loans, amounting to 26.3 million EUA, to development finance institutions in

Kenya, Mauritius, Malawi, Liberia, Zambia, Trinidad and Tobago and to a regional institution serving the member countries of the Caribbean Community (CARICOM).

It has also used about 5 million EUA of risk capital resources, drawn from the Community's European Development Fund but managed by the Bank, to provide other forms of financial assistance to development finance institutions in Tanzania, Zaire, Liberia, the Seychelles, Zambia and, again, in the Caribbean region. □

EMERGENCY AID (cont.)

Sri Lanka

On 20 December the Commission decided on a second slice of emergency aid (1), totalling 26 000 EUA, for the victims of the cyclone which hit Sri Lanka at the end of November.

The Community is contributing to the programme of the non-governmental organization Catholic Relief Services in the provision of supplies for some 100 000 people affected.

The total credit available under this budgetary heading for disasters in 1978 is 2 188 500 and was for 14 operations in 11 countries, 7 in the Far East, 1 in Angola and one each in Latin America (Nicaragua), Lebanon and Turkey.

Laos

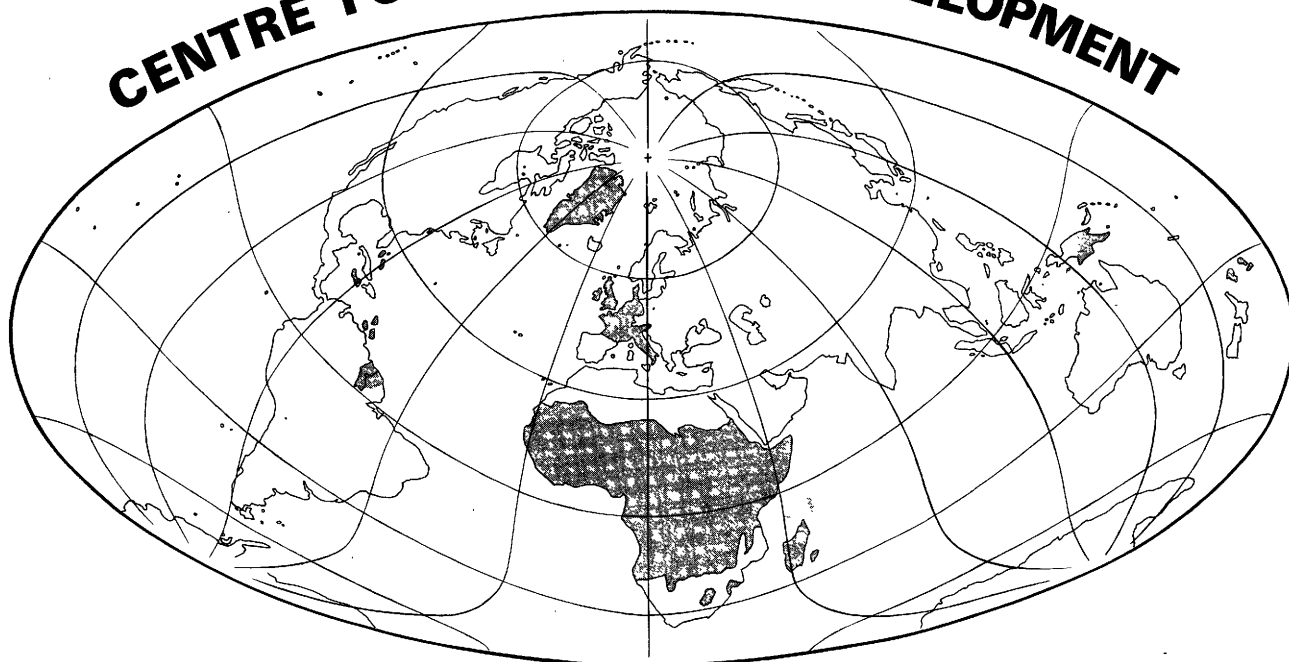
On 15 December the Commission decided to provide 25 000 EUA to the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization in Rome for insecticides to protect the rice crop in Laos in 1979. The Community's help is part of the emergency programme of the FAO costing some US \$400 000-\$500 000.

(1) First sum of 25 000 EUA to the Red Cross, see page XVIII.

SESAME SEEDS

The European Commission has proposed that sesame seeds, which are of particular interest to the Sudan and Ethiopia, be included in STABEX. These countries' high level of dependence on exports of sesame seeds fulfils the requirements for countries at this stage of development (2.5%) even though it is subject to big variations. The rate of dependence was 7 % in 1973 for Sudan, 13.5 % in 1974, 7.8 % in 1975 and 9 % in 1977 (provisional figure) and for Ethiopia 10.7 % in 1973, 16.1 % in 1975 and 4.7 % in 1976. □

CENTRE FOR INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT



BUSINESS OPPORTUNITIES

EEC industrial partners wanted

- | | | | |
|--|--------------------|--|--------------------|
| <p>Bricks</p> <p>CAMEROON: A private sponsor in the construction industry is looking for a technical and financial partner for the setting up of a small brick plant in Cameroon.</p> <p>The envisaged scale of production is 15 000 tons per annum which represents approximately 7 million bricks per annum.</p> <p>A brief project proposal may be obtained from the Centre.</p> | <p>Ref. 99/78</p> | <p>Poultry</p> <p>NIGERIA: A poultry farmer would like to start a poultry project for the production of 50 000 day-old chicks per week initially. This is to be increased to 10 000 per week within two years. The project would be located in Oyo State.</p> <p>The ration of investment desired would be 60:40 i.e. 60 per cent local and 40 per cent foreign capital.</p> <p>Hatching eggs would at the moment need to be imported but the growth of the poultry industry in Nigeria justifies the establishment of a national capability in this field.</p> | <p>Ref. 101/78</p> |
| <p>Terry towels</p> <p>PAPUA NEW GUINEA: The Department of Labour and Industry are presently promoting a Terry Towel project at an annual scale of production of 500 000 square meters which should be increased to 700 000 square meters in the second year of operations.</p> <p>The market assessment is based on import statistics: the average imports for the seven years preceding 1975 were about 300 000 square meters with a demand growth of 10 per cent a year.</p> <p>Thereafter the enterprise could diversify by producing continuous material suitable for the manufacture of beach-wear etc.</p> <p>Raw materials are to be imported.</p> <p>EEC firms interested in this project are invited to contact the Centre for further information.</p> | <p>Ref. 100/78</p> | <p>Glass reinforced plastic products</p> <p>NIGERIA: A private promoter is looking for a technical and financial partner for the manufacture of glass reinforced plastic articles, in particular tanks, industrial and domestic components, sanitary ware, etc.</p> <p>The anticipated weekly production would be around 5 tons of finished product per week.</p> | <p>Ref. 102/78</p> |
| | | <p>PABX systems</p> <p>KENYA: A local entrepreneur believes there is a growth market in small PABX systems sufficient to justify local assembly. The Centre will put interested parties in contact.</p> | <p>Ref. 103/78</p> |

EEC firms looking for ACP partners

Bricks

Ref. 104/78

Some EEC firms have expressed an interest in co-operating with ACP partners for the implementation of brick projects.

One company has redesigned the plant to be suitable for low cost labour. The plant has been reduced both in capital cost and in the scale of production. The production sale is 15 000 tons a year and the total investment for equipment and know-how, but not including the local building, is about £200 000. Another offer envisages a production of 75 000 tons a year and has a capital cost, not including local building, of about £4.3 million.

Business profiles are available at each scale.

Glue

Ref. 105/78

An EEC firm manufacturing every type of industrial glue, suitable for furniture, leather, packaging, binding, cars, etc., is ready to consider a project in an ACP country.

The estimated equipment investment for a two thousand (2 000) tons plant per year is around £170 000 and a know-how fee will need to be negotiated.

Polyethylene sacks

Ref. 106/78

An EEC company is interested in setting up a polyethylene sacks factory in an ACP country.

The envisaged scale of production is 3 200 tons per annum or 18 million sacks. The approximate capital required is £1.25 million excluding building.

A business profile is available at the Centre.

Building boards from woodwool and cement

Ref.9107/78

An EEC firm would like to implement a building board project in an ACP State. Both technical and financial participation is considered.

The scale of production is around 500 000 square meters per annum and the capital requirements are around £1.5 million excluding cost for building.

A business profile may be obtained from the Centre.

There is growing interest in the EEC in the establishment of factories to make building boards at low levels of production.

The Centre has a number of technical specifications: a summary is being prepared.

Scales of Production

The viability of an industrial project depends overwhelmingly on the market available and the cost of raw materials. This is a check list showing the size of the market necessary for projects for which the Centre has found potential partners. The list gives a guide to the raw materials needed.

Product	Application	Annual Production	Raw Materials
Hollow glass	Bottles, jars, etc.	30 millions	Silica sand, feldspar
Ceramic tiles	Floor or wall tiles	350 000 square metres	Clay
Ceramic sanitary ware	Toilet bowls, hand bowls	1 000 tons	Clay
Ceramic tableware	Cups, saucers, plates etc.	1.5 million pieces	Clay
Clay pipes	For sewerage, land drainage, or cable conduit	150 000 metres	Clay
Clay bricks	For houses, factories, etc.	15 000 tons	Clay
Building board	Made of fibrous material and a bonding agent—e.g. wood plus cement	15 000 cubic metres	Wood or groundnut fibres, cement or resin
Gasifiers	Uses agricultural or forest waste to produce gas which can drive a diesel e.g. for a saw mill		Gasifiers are made largely from imported raw materials. Some local metalwork is possible
Recycling of oil	Used oils can be recycled to produce usable lubricants	1 500 tons	Oil must be easy to collect
Concrete roof tiles	For roofs of houses, hospitals, etc.	1.5 million	Sand, cement
Jerricans	Plastic containers for conveyance of water	240 000	Probably imported plastic
Jerricans	Metal containers for conveyance of most liquids	200 000	Mild steel sheet

Plastic Sacks	For fertilisers, etc.	1 600 tons	High Density density polyrthylene
Glass reinforced plastic products	Boats, water tanks, car bodies, etc.	Tiny	Resins, glass fibres
Disposable hypodermic syringes	For medical use	12 millions	Probably imported parts
Telephone handsets	Domestic and office use	100 000	Probably imported parts
Cement	Building industry	100 000 tons	Clay and limestone
Dry cell batteries	Radios, torches, etc.	18 million	Probably imported materials

The following report has been received from the Uganda Development Corporation. Ref. 108/78

East African Distilleries Ltd. — Molasses spirit factory

East African Distilleries, a subsidiary company of the Uganda Development Corporation Ltd. which at present is producing Uganda Waragi and other spirits from Uganda made from raw spirit or industrial spirit purchased from third parties, is to be reconstructed to a molasses which is available in Uganda in more than sufficient quantities, and to use this fine spirit for production of Uganda Waragi and other potable spirits. Furthermore, reconstruction will double the present overall capacity of the factory.

A complete economic and technical feasibility study has already been undertaken and completed. Production will be 5 000 litres of fine spirit per 24 hours on a basis of three shifts per day, for 300 days per year, which will double the full capacity of the existing plant and give a total yearly production of fine spirit of 1 350 000 litres. It is also envisaged to have a carbon dioxide plant which will produce carbon dioxide as a by-product. At present, carbon dioxide for beer and soft drinks is being imported from Kenya. Production is estimated at 950 000 kg per annum of carbon dioxide.

Grand total investments in this project is approximately Shs. 46/- million of which Shs. 37/- million is to be in foreign exchange.

Shoe industry project

This project stems from a Government directive for a shoe industry to be established in Uganda, utilising the leather which is to be produced from the tannery project at Jinja, now nearing completion. The amount estimated is of the order of Shs. 100/- million.

The demand for footwear in Uganda is insatiable. At present there are no shoe factories in the country except Bata and very small private enterprises. If all these were working at full capacity, the national total production of the foot-wear would be about 3 million pairs of shoes per year for a population of over 12 million people. The envisaged capacity of the proposed shoe factory is 3 million pairs of shoes of various types and sizes per year. What is required here is capital.

Brewery

Recently there has been a shortage of drinks in the country due to low production by the two breweries we have. But even if the two breweries were producing at full capacity, we would still lack beers for domestic consumption owing to the rapidly growing beer consumption demand. UDC has therefore initiated investigations into the construction of a new brewery on a joint venture basis with foreign firms in order to attract finance and technical know-how.

The capacity of the new brewery would range from 200 000 to 300 000 hl. per year; and it is proposed that the same plant will produce mineral waters as well as beer—say about 100 000—1/2 litre bottles per day of Coca-Cola, orange, ginger ale, soda water, etc.

Total cost of the project was estimated at US \$30 million in 1976.

Reconstruction of African Ceramics Company Ltd.

African Ceramics Company Ltd. factory was closed down in 1972 due to critical technical, financial and managerial constraints. It is now proposed to reconstruct the factory by installing a complete new plant for the production of dinner wares, floor and wall tiles, to be established at Kasiyireze near Kampala (which is the present location of the closed factory).

A sharp rise in consumption of both ceramic sanitary and table ware had been experienced in Uganda, and long term consumption trends show a favourable rate of growth, although there have been wide year to year fluctuations in the case of sanitary ware. Average annual increase in future consumption of 6% for sanitary ware and 14% for table ware have been assumed. These assumptions are thought to be conservative and may be used with confidence in the planning of the ceramics project.

Ceramic raw materials are available in Uganda in sufficient quantities and qualities. Uganda has its own kaolin deposits with the quality very much suitable for fine ceramic manufacturers; some of these kaolin are quite plastic after grinding and they do not show any thixotropy. Plastic clays in Uganda occur as swampy clays, and although they contain higher content of iron oxide, they are good for fine ceramic manufacture; fluxes needed for introducing alkali-oxides into the ceramic blends exist as potassium pegmatites and feldspars; silicious materials are present as glass sands, quartz and quartzites, and there are a series of other non-metallic raw materials which have not yet been commercially exploited.

The estimated project cost (materials and services) is about UK £2 510 000. This, however, is subject to revision after the first course of action which is to find a reputable firm in the ceramics industry to send its representatives for the purpose of carrying out a thorough study of the existing plant.

Animal glue production project

This project is a proposal from the East African Development Bank and stems from a feasibility study report prepared by EADB with Pers India Ltd.

The current demand for glue in Uganda is estimated to be around the pre-1972 average consumption levels which amounted to about 656 tonnes per annum.

Animal glue is made from bones, off-cuts and parings of hides, the pith of horns, the bonny materials in hoofs, tannery ware, etc.

Constant and reliable supplies of raw material are available at Uganda Leather and Tanning Industries Ltd., due to be operational this year. Planned output amounts to 120 tons of glue per annum.

The total capital investment in fixed assets amounts to about Shs. 1 470 500.

The cost of imported glue, in bulk packing, c.i.f. Mombasa is currently Shs. 6/10 per kg.

Small scale manufacture of high quality furniture for export to the Community

Ref. 109/78

The statistics for the importation of timber into the Community are quite revealing:

AFRICA

Of the timber imported by the Community from Africa in:

1973	76.6% came as logs
1974	88.1 % came as logs
1975	89.6 % came as logs
1976	79.4% came as logs
1977	88.0 % came as logs

ASIA

By way of contrast, of the timber imported from Asia in:

1973	13.0% came as logs
1974	10.0% came as logs
1975	9.2% came as logs
1976	18.7% came as logs
1977	12.9% came as logs

Understandably in the ACP timber exporting states there is a great interest in industries which add value to the timber before exportation.

Given the lower labour costs, and the availability of quality timber, it should be possible to establish in ACP states small factories to produce high quality furniture for the Community market. If such a factory were to be established by an ACP entrepreneur without a Community partner, he would face a major problem in creating acceptable styling and in finding an export market. The CID has suggested to a major Community furniture manufacturer that he might be interested in a joint venture operation in which he established the designs provided management and accepted responsibility for selling the whole of the production. This has met with some interest and the manufacturer would like to consider such an operation.

Any ACP entrepreneur interested is invited to communicate with the Centre and to provide the following information: 1) types of timber available; 2) price of high quality timber; 3) quantities available; 4) the cost of labour: unskilled, semi-skilled, skilled; 5) the availability of skilled workers in wood machinery. □

A QUICK RESPONSE

If you are interested in any of the items mentioned in this periodical, send us a telex quoting the reference and we will send you further information when it is available.

Address all correspondence to:

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The experience of modern industrial societies: a look at the history of development

by **Manfredo MACIOTI**(*)

Since the days of Watt's patent for a steam engine with a separate condenser (1769), two centuries have passed. In these two centuries, several Western countries (and a handful of other societies, such as Japan in the East) have pulled themselves up from the level of subsistence to that of affluence.

Economic historians usually argue that the political, economic and financial situation in the world is today so totally different from the conditions which prevailed in the late 18th century, and throughout the 19th century, that the current industrialization effort of the Third World cannot simply duplicate the pattern established by the West.

And, indeed, the modern world of the large, powerful multinationals, of extensive banking, insurance and stock exchange services, of highly innovative technology-based growth industry, of international transport and telecommunications—not to speak of modern weapons and reconnaissance systems—looks like a very difficult environment for a developing nation to push forward along its own path of industrialization.

On the other hand, the wealth and diversity of technical know-how and communications channels of the modern world could prove to be an asset for developing nations.

Since the times of the first industrial revolution (1760-1830), the monopoly of one nation (Britain) commanding a few technologies (the power loom; the smelting of iron ore with coke; the steam engine), one system of communications (the sea) and one managerial innovation (the factory), has been transformed into a highly diversified system.

The stock of technology which is unprotected by patent rights, and therefore generally available, has grown

enormously and could be reasonably quickly adapted for use by most developing societies.

It is the object of the following paragraphs to try and distil from the historical development experience of what are today's advanced nations a few "lessons" which could be relevant to the future of the Third World.

These could be summarized as follows:

(i) National sovereignty is a precondition to development. The satellization of China from the middle of the 19th century was as much an obstacle to development as the independence of Japan was an asset for that country's spectacular take-off after 1870.

China had to wait for the overthrow of the Ch'ing Dynasty (1912) and the proclamation of the People's Republic (1949) before she could begin to emulate the Japanese experience.

(ii) Government intervention seems necessary to initiate and nurture the modernization process. With the exception of the British experience (and a handful of other cases, such as Hong Kong), government initiative and guidance have been a constant feature in the development of both West and East.

It could actually be argued that the more backward a country is, the more radical should government intervention be in promoting trade and industry (examples abound in the Japanese and Soviet patterns of industrialization). On the other hand, government intervention should not develop into outright interference and bureaucratic control (as the negative example of Ch'ing China illustrates so well).

(iii) Complementary to government intervention from above the initiative and self-help of farmers, merchants, industrial entrepreneurs and bankers should develop from below. Examples run from the early English "Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufacture and Commerce" (1774), to the

German trade associations (from 1815) and industrial associations (from 1840) to the US business corporations in the first half of the 19th century, to the Danish cooperative rural movement of the second half of the 19th century.

(iv) Attention to the agricultural sector (where the majority of the population of a developing country is likely to be employed) is the basis of successful development.

This is amply demonstrated by the experience of such diverse countries as China, Japan, the USA, Sweden and Denmark.

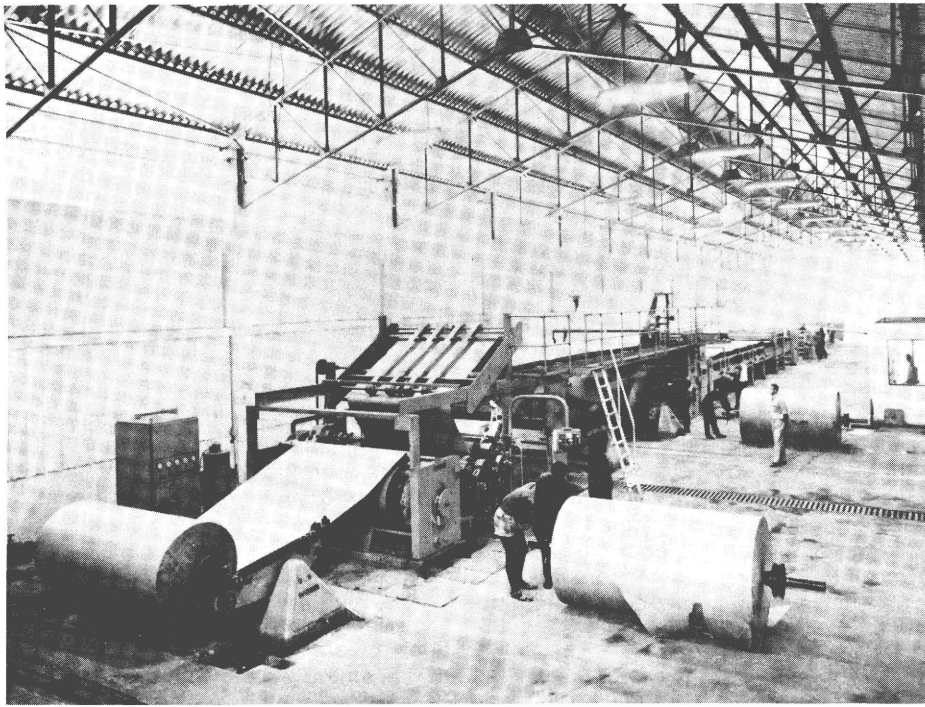
Concurrent with this policy of focus on the rural masses, investment has been usefully directed towards the heavy, capital-intensive industrial sector (e.g. mines, steel, machinery), the communications infrastructure (e.g. railways and telephone) and the financial services (e.g. industrial banks). The Japanese experience seems one of the best in this connection.

(v) The setting-up by the government of modern institutions in the educational sector (e.g. vocational training), the industrial and trade sectors (e.g. standardization bureaux) and the research sector (e.g. geological surveys) are important components of the development process.

Investment in education seems particularly vital. To take the case of Meiji Japan, education played a triple role in the industrialization of the country. Firstly, education contributed towards preserving the values of thrift and diligence, making high saving rates possible. Secondly, it contributed both quantitatively and qualitatively to the supply of labour (and to its mobility). Thirdly, education trained the leaders who successfully modernized agriculture, trade, banking, technology and public administration.

(vi) Technology transfer from abroad, especially when balanced by the training of local skills and the

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A plywood factory in a developing country: the Third World must not take so long to industrialize

development of growth points of national innovation, seems a mandatory option for accelerating modernization. Among others, the German and Japanese experiences illustrate the importance of technical studies and educational trips abroad; of the temporary recruitment of foreign experts; of the exhibitions of foreign machinery and the acquisition, testing, adaptation, reproduction and dissemination of foreign prototypes and of the translation and publication of foreign technical works.

But they also indicate the unavailability of having to adapt one's cultural, social and economic patterns to the requisites of modern foreign technology.

(vii) The abolition of internal barriers to the free movement of people and goods and the gradual lowering of obstacles to international trade are an important stimulus to expansion.

Examples range from the abolition of restrictions and levies on the great trading waterways (such as the Belt and the Sund in Scandinavia around 1857 and the Danube and Rhine in Central Europe around 1860) to the establishment of various forms of free trade areas, customs unions, monetary zones and common markets (witness the German Zollverein of 1834, the Latin Union of 1865 or the Nordic Union of 1873).

(viii) Incentives to national industry and initial protection of strategic national markets can secure spectacular

results. A classic example here is the railways policy of early 20th century Japan. After having purchased, in 1911, and thoroughly studied a number of the very latest superheated steam locomotives from Europe and the USA, the Japanese railways adopted, as from 1913, a policy of restricting purchases of railway engines exclusively to domestic products.

(ix) Sailing with the prevailing technological winds seems a good way of catching up with the advanced nations.

Thus, the process of industrialization of Germany in the middle of the 19th century, and of Russia in the second half of the 19th century, was led by the railway, while the motor of the modernization of Italy and Japan at the turn of century was the electric industry.

Today's boom in S.E. Asia (e.g., South Korea) seems centred upon shipbuilding and car manufacturing.

(x) At least in the initial stages, the accumulation of indigenous capital—even if it has to be extracted from the hard-pressed peasant class—can achieve more positive results in the long run than the acceptance of foreign aid. The experience of self-reliant Meiji Japan contrasts here with that of concession-prone Ch'ing China.

(xi) Belief in the country's future can be a powerful boost to modernization. The ambition to succeed, the will to catch up fast, remains one of the

more peculiar traits of Meiji Japan. Similarly, in the first half of the 19th century there was constant talk in N.E. America of the need for internal improvements: the cleaning of rivers and harbours, the digging of canals, the building of roads and eventually railroads.

It is worth noticing that both American and Japanese societies, being used to heavy cultural imports from abroad, were highly receptive to foreign technology.

(xii) The role of dynamic, usually literate, national minorities should not be underestimated. The switch of the well-educated but impoverished Samurai class in Japan from a privileged consumer group into financial and industrial entrepreneurs is a good example of this mobilization of achievement-oriented minorities.

Other examples are provided by the role of the Huguenots, the Quakers, the Calvinists or the Puritans in the industrial revolution of America and Western Europe, the role of the Jews in the development of Central and Eastern Europe, the role of the overseas Chinese in the current take-off of S.E. Asia.

(xiii) The introduction of legal safeguards of individual property rights (including patent rights) seems necessary to the maximization of personal incentives (as Adam Smith wrote in 1776: "it is not from the benevolence of the butcher, the brewer or the baker that we expect our dinner, but from their regard for their own interest").

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To sum up, in the above analysis, the "limits" to development do not seem to be physical (raw materials, energy, capital, etc.). They seem rather to lie in political will, social institutions, technical knowledge, managerial abilities and general cultural attitudes. Using the words of the Report on the Joint Meeting of the Club of Rome and of the International Ocean Institute held in Algiers in October 1976, we might say:

— "that the real solution of the development problem lies primarily in the capacity of each of the developing countries to mobilize its resources and energies"; and that, in turn

— the two most effective methods of mobilizing internal resources seem to be the systematic improvement of the agricultural sector and the channelling of rural savings into the development of a domestic industrial basis. Education appears as the precondition to both achievements. □ M.M.

Relations between the EEC and the Mediterranean countries ⁽¹⁾

1 November 1978 was an important date in the implementation of the global Mediterranean approach which the Community adopted in 1972(1).

It marked the entry into effect of the cooperation agreements (financial protocols included) with the countries of the Maghreb (Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia) and the Mashreq (Egypt, Jordan, the Lebanon and Syria) and the financial protocol with Israel.

European countries on the Mediterranean were also concerned as the financial protocols concluded with Malta and Portugal were to take effect on 1 November, the one with Greece having taken effect on 1 September, and those with Turkey and Cyprus are likely to come into operation shortly.

The Community has so far committed a total of 1 600 million EUA to these countries for the next four or five years(2).

Agreements with the Maghreb and Mashreq countries and Israel

In accordance with the Community's Mediterranean policy, the following cooperation agreements came into force on 1 November 1978:

— the agreements signed with Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco (Maghreb) in

April 1976, Egypt, Jordan, Syria and the Lebanon (Mashreq) signed in 1977:

— the financial protocol and the additional protocol signed with Israel in February 1977, which complete the preferential trade agreement signed in May 1975.

Three main topics are covered:

Trade preferences

It should be remembered that the trade provisions took early effect on 1 July 1976 (Maghreb) and 1 July 1977 (Mashreq). Undeniably, the opening of a market of 270 million consumers is a great asset to these countries which are just beginning to reap the fruits of their various industrialization programmes and therefore have an ever-growing need of export markets.

In the industrial sector, the agreements provide free entry to the Community market (elimination of customs duties and quantitative restrictions) for all products except refined petroleum products, for which limited exceptions will apply until 31 December 1980.

The EEC-Israel agreement of 1975, looking to the creation of a long-term free trade area, includes tariff concessions by Israel in favour of Community exports. An industrial free trade area will be set up between the two sides in 1985, but the Community does already give free entry to Israel's industrial products, with a few exceptions valid until 1 January 1980; and 85% of EEC agricultural imports from Israel are covered by Community concessions.

The special case of textiles

Morocco and Tunisia agreed to limit their exports of certain sensitive textile

products to the Community in 1978. Alongside this, the EEC has concluded voluntary limitation agreements with the other textile producers (including Egypt) in the Multifibre Arrangement and similar arrangements are to be made with Morocco and Tunisia for the period following 31 December 1978.

Economic, financial and technical cooperation

The European Community aims to contribute to the economic development of the countries in question by aligning its aid with the objectives and priorities of their development plans and programmes. The agreements mainly cover the following areas:

- measures in favour of trade and sales promotion;
- industrial cooperation;
- Community participation in the partner countries' research, production and processing programmes;
- encouragement of private investment in the mutual interest of both sides;
- cooperation in the fields of science, technology and protection of the environment;
- where necessary, exchanges of information on economic and financial trends concerning both sides.

The table below gives the financial means provided in 1977/1978.

These means will go to total or partial financing for investment projects in production and economic infrastructure.

Before the financial protocols took effect, the Commission and the EIB visited all the countries concerned and combined with the relevant local authorities to lay down general guidelines for the use of the funds, and to decide what specific schemes should be financed in the near future (see list of projects).

(million EUA)

	Algeria	Morocco	Tunisia	Egypt	Syria	Jordan	Lebanon	Israel
EIB loans	70	56	41	93	34	18	20	30
Special loans	19	58	39	14	7	4	2	—
Grants	25	16	15	63	19	18	8	—
Total	114	130	95	170	60	40	30	30

(1) Text prepared by the spokesman's group of the European Commission and the Directorate-General of Information.

(2) 1 595 million EUA to be exact. This includes the financial protocols which took effect or were signed on 1 November 1978 but not the one with Yugoslavia, which is still being negotiated.

Cooperation in the labour sector

Since there are large numbers of Maghreb nationals working in the Community, special provisions have been included in the agreements with these countries. In particular, they guarantee the workers the same working conditions, pay scales and social security benefits as European workers. It needed Community-wide agreements to achieve solutions such as these.

Joint institutions

The agreements are administered on a basis of rigorous equality. A cooperation council, representing both parties, meets at least once a year and may set up whatever committees it considers necessary to assist it. The Commission will be appointing a delegate to the capital city of each of the eight countries concerned, as it has done in the Lomé Convention countries.

Agreements with the European countries

The Community is linked to practically all the European countries of the Mediterranean basin by association or preferential agreements. These agreements were concluded as part of the EEC's European policy, although some of them were later adapted in the light of the global approach. However, each agreement has its own, individual features.

— The association agreements signed with Greece (July 1961) and Turkey (September 1963) provide for both the establishment of a customs union and the adoption of joint policies in all the areas covered by the Treaty of Rome, with a view to the two countries joining the Community later. In June 1975, once Greece had restored its democracy, it applied to join the EEC and negotiations began in July 1976.

— The association agreements with Malta (December 1970) and Cyprus (December 1972) simply provide for a customs union to be set up in two stages. However, only the contents of stage one are described.

— In July 1972, the Community signed a free-trade agreement like those concluded with the other EFTA members who could not join the EEC. After internal political changes, Portugal applied to join the Community in March 1977 and negotiations started in

October 1978. Meanwhile, the EEC concluded an additional protocol with Portugal improving the trade concessions in the 1972 agreement and extending cooperation to further fields.

— The Community is linked to Spain by a preferential trade agreement of limited scope, signed in June 1970. Following political changes that began in 1975, Spain dropped the possibility it had been offered of concluding a free trade agreement under the global approach and the Spanish government applied to join the EEC in July 1977.

— Yugoslavia is linked to the Community by a simple, non-preferential trade agreement. However, negotiations are now being held to replace the June 1973 agreement by a global cooperation agreement which would take account of the specific relations between Yugoslavia and the EEC and of the geographical situation of the country (which is non-aligned, European, Mediterranean and a member of the Group of 77 developing countries).

Trade provisions (3)

The four associated European countries (Greece, Turkey, Malta and Cyprus) and Portugal already get their industrial products zero rated on importation to the EEC. Completion of the customs union, i.e. the abolition of customs duties on Community exports and alignment with the CCT, is scheduled for November 1987 for Greece and 1995 for Turkey. The agreements with Malta and Cyprus only provide a 35% reduction in tariffs, the full customs union being reserved for the as-yet-to-be-defined stage two. The final abolition of duties in the case of Portugal is scheduled for 1985.

Spain has an average reduction of 55% on the Community market, as against the Community's 20-25% reduction on the Spanish tariff. Yugoslavia, which has a non-preferential agreement with the EEC, is nevertheless one of the main beneficiaries of the GSP for developing countries.

In certain cases, there are quotas for exports of textile products to the Community. And when the Multifibre Arrangement was renewed, the EEC asked for the cooperation of the whole of the Mediterranean in controlling the flow of particularly sensitive textile products to the Community market (while respecting the preferential nature of the agreements).

In the agricultural sector, the various agreements tend to provide specific concessions for just one or two products exported by each of the EEC's partners. In order to take account of

the concessions offered to the other Mediterranean countries in line with the global approach and, in some cases, with the traditional patterns of trade *vis-à-vis* the British market, the EEC offered extra concessions to Malta, Portugal and Cyprus (additional protocols) and to Turkey (review provided for in the agreement).

However, important changes may soon be made to the Community's relations with several of these countries.

- Greece, Portugal and Spain have applied to join the Communities. This means that a full customs union for both industrial and agricultural products must be timetabled when accession is negotiated.

- Turkey has just asked for its tariff obligations under the association agreement to be frozen. This means putting off completion of the customs union until the year 2000.

- The new agreement now being negotiated with Yugoslavia will doubtless involve customs duties on Yugoslavian imports to the Community being lifted, in line with the system provided for other Mediterranean countries as part of the global approach.

Migrant workers

The association agreements with Greece and Turkey lay down the principle of the gradual establishment of free movement of workers as part of preparation for accession. The other agreements contain no such provisions, although the additional protocol (September 1976) with Portugal has a section on social matters like the provisions in the cooperation agreements concluded with the Maghreb countries as part of the global Mediterranean approach.

It is intended that the new cooperation agreement with Yugoslavia should also deal with social matters.

Financial cooperation

Financial protocols have been concluded or are planned with all the Mediterranean countries but Spain. The situation is as follows:

- Financial cooperation with Greece and Turkey is covered by the association agreement. The aim is to promote faster economic development in these countries so they can join the Community later on. The new financial protocol (February 1977) with Greece,

(3) This outline of the various agreements includes any changes introduced by the additional protocols.

which took effect on 1 September 1978 and lasts until 31 October 1981, is only the second, since development of the association stopped between 1967 and 1974 due to the country's political situation. The financial protocol with Turkey (signed May 1977, expires 31 October 1981) is the third of its kind and has still to be ratified by the Turkish parliament.

- The association agreements with Malta (December 1970) and Cyprus (December 1972) do not provide for any financial cooperation. However, a financial protocol was signed with Malta in March 1976 and with Cyprus in July 1977, as part of the global Mediterranean approach, the protocol with Malta being considered as exceptional aid to facilitate the conversion of the Maltese economy. The Maltese protocol took effect on 1 November 1978 for a period of five years. The Cypriot protocol, also for five years, will take effect once the ratification procedures have been completed.

- The free trade agreement (July 1972) with Portugal contains nothing on financial cooperation either. Only after the political events of April 1974 did the Community agree to provide financial support to help the Portuguese government establish a pluralist democracy. In December 1975, the EEC gave exceptional emergency aid worth 180 million EUA. This was followed in September 1976 by the signing of a financial protocol which took effect on 1 November 1978 for a five-year period ending on 31 December 1982.

- The June 1973 agreement with Yugoslavia did not mention financial cooperation, but, in February 1975, Yugoslavia asked for cooperation to be increased and extended to new sectors, including financial cooperation. In January 1976, the Council authorized the EIB to grant up to 50 million EUA worth of loans from own resources to finance projects of mutual interest. The new global cooperation agreement now being negotiated will include a major financial protocol involving an amount still to be fixed.

The Community has made the following commitments to the European countries in the Mediterranean basin:

Aid is granted to finance specific projects submitted by the government of the recipient country or approved by it within the framework of the aims defined in the agreement and the financial protocol. The main idea here is to promote the development and diversification of industry, the modernization of agriculture and fisheries, the tourist trade and so on. The various types of aid are as follows:

- EIB loans granted from own resources on conditions laid down in its regulations. The interest rate is appli-

cable the day the contract is signed subject to any interest rebate provide for in the protocol;

- Special loans (at 25% over 40 years with a 10-year grace period). These are granted by the Bank, acting on a mandate from the Community, from the

resources of the EEC budget;

- Grants from the Community budget. These are generally used to finance interest rate subsidies on EIB loans, but may also be used for technical cooperation schemes. □



VIVANTE AFRIQUE

Olive oil is one of the southern Mediterranean exports posing problems of competition with the Community's own products. Here an Algerian expert demonstrates grafting techniques to raise the yield

Country	EIB loans	Special loans	Grants	Total
Cyprus	20	6	4	30
Greece (1)	225	10	45	280
Malta	16	5	5	26
Portugal (2)	200	—	30	230
Turkey (3)	90	220	—	310
Yugoslavia (4)	50	—	—	50
Total	601	241	84	926

(1) The first financial protocol with Greece involved \$125 million of loans.

(2) The emergency aid the EEC decided to grant Portugal in October 1975 amounted to 180 million EUA (150 million EUA EIB loans and 30 million EUA budgetary aid to finance 3% interest rate subsidies).

(3) Turkey has already had the benefit of two financial protocols: The first took effect on 1 December 1964 and provided 175 million EUA as special loans from the Member States' budgets. The second involved 220 million EUA (195 million EUA special loans from Member States' budgets plus 25 million EUA EIB loans from own resources). An extra 47 million EUA was provide in the additional protocol signed in June 1973 after enlargement but never ratified by the Turkish government.

(4) Council decision of January 1976. A financial protocol is now being negotiated.



EEC-Israel symposium on industrial cooperation

Trends in EEC/Mediterranean trade

(million EUA)

Country	1975			1976			1977		
	Export	Import	Balance	Export	Import	Balance	Export	Import	Balance
Europe									
Cyprus	152	73	+ 79	223	123	+ 100	285	152	+ 133
Spain	4 088	2 997	+ 1 092	4 816	3 974	+ 842	5 332	4 765	+ 567
Greece	2 173	1 169	+ 1 004	2 465	1 417	+ 1 048	2 893	1 514	+ 1 379
Malta	193	74	+ 119	240	121	+ 119	293	158	+ 136
Portugal	1 225	853	+ 371	1 649	924	+ 725	1 949	1 000	+ 949
Turkey	1 904	566	+ 1 338	2 292	873	+ 1 420	2 155	818	+ 1 337
Yugoslavia	2 783	1 041	+ 1 742	2 686	1 459	+ 1 228	3 556	1 565	+ 1 991
Total	12 518	6 773	+ 5 745	14 371	8 891	+ 5 482	16 463	9 972	+ 6 492
Maghreb									
Algeria	2 824	2 048	+ 776	2 759	2 153	+ 607	3 673	2 098	+ 1 575
Morocco	1 047	808	+ 239	1 317	840	+ 477	1 528	833	+ 695
Tunisia	711	357	+ 355	836	412	+ 425	977	559	+ 418
Mashreq									
Egypt	1 352	319	+ 1 033	1 519	678	+ 842	1 681	702	+ 979
Jordan	219	8	+ 210	407	13	+ 394	371	10	+ 361
Lebanon	612	52	+ 560	146	40	+ 106	594	33	+ 561
Syria	584	465	+ 119	1 032	650	+ 381	857	602	+ 255
Total	7 349	4 057	+ 3 292	8 016	4 786	+ 3 232	9 681	4 837	+ 4 844
Israel	1 298	573	+ 726	1 287	816	+ 471	1 482	983	+ 499
Total	20 165	11 403	+ 9 763	23 674	14 493	+ 9 185	27 626	15 792	+ 11 835

+ = Excess EEC exports.

Source = Monthly bulletin of external trade — Special edition 1958-1977, no.s 4/6-1977 and 4-1978.

Values: 100 EUA = US\$ 124 (1975); US\$ 112 (1976); US\$ 114 (1977).

African Development Bank Group

A year of consolidation and expansion⁽¹⁾

The African Development Bank has a \$40 m new headquarters to celebrate its fourteenth anniversary and can look back with its partners in the ADB Group, the African Development Fund and the Nigerian Trust Fund, on a year of unprecedented achievements.

Owned by nearly 50 African governments, the ADB is the principal African financial institution for development. Its new 24-floor headquarters in Abidjan marks a coming-of-age confirmed by its record volume of lending this year and last. Total ADB Group loans over 10 years now top the \$1 000 m mark, with \$323 m for 1977 alone.

The head of the ADB Group, Dr Kwame Fordwor (Ghana), has been setting a fast pace to pull the institution through the international economic stagnation of the last two years, combing the financial centres and markets of the five continents.

The results speak for themselves. The ADB Group's lending targets over 10 years have been as follows:

1968	\$2.68 m
1969	\$7.92 m
1970	\$11.15 m
1971	\$24.69
1972	\$27.38 m
1973	\$43.13 m
1974	\$135.28 m
1975	\$196.62 m
1976	\$179.05 m
1977	\$325.00 m

The ADB Group's annual report for 1977, the first year of its 1977-1981 action programme, said this would be

"a period of accelerated growth in the life of the institution". But, the report points out, last year's \$323 m in loans only represents a very small fraction of the development finance requirements of member countries. The World Bank estimated these requirements for sub-Saharan Africa in 1977 at \$4 700 m. "A lot remains to be done. For the 10-year period 1977-1986, the Bank Group hopes to mobilize resources that should enable it to raise its contribution to about 20% of the region's development requirements", the report says.

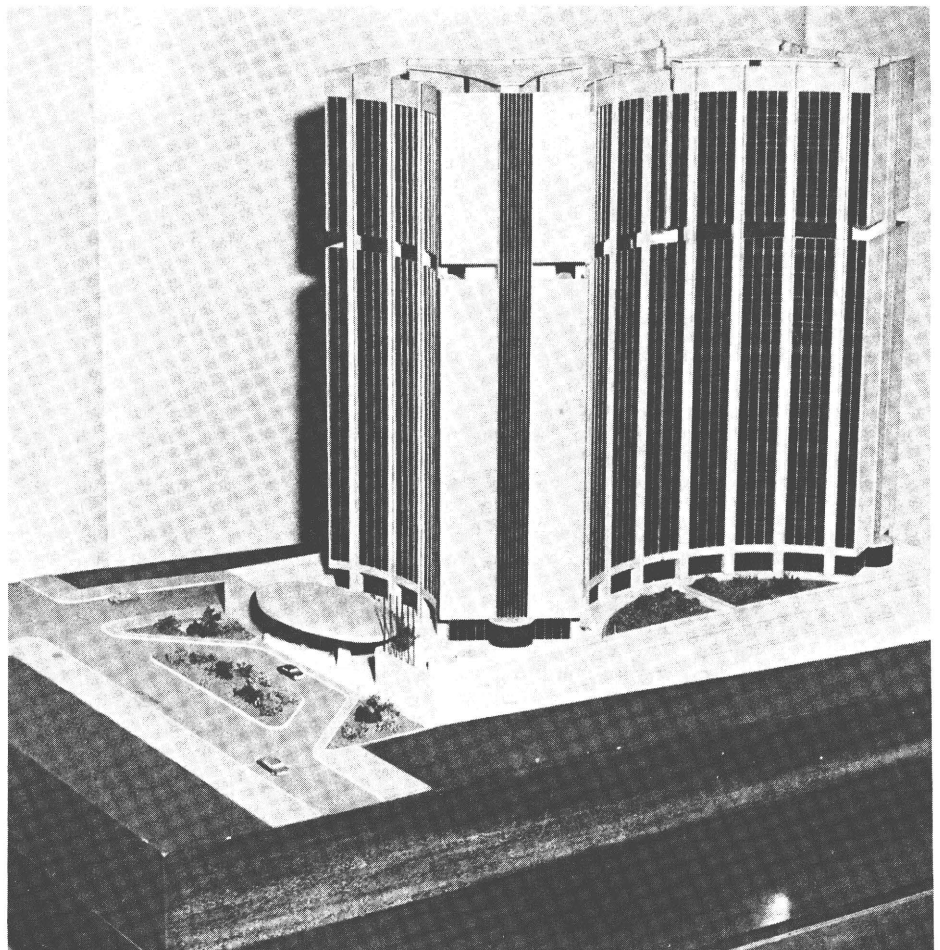
Total ADB Group loans for 1978 are expected to be close to the \$400 m mark, with the emphasis on agriculture, infrastructure and the poorest countries.

Subscription to shares by member states in 1978 stood at \$72 m by the end of September, at a time when many of them were facing serious cash problems.

For many African countries, the ADB Group has provided "solutions to economic nightmares", to quote a North African minister, and banking leaders told Dr Fordwor in London in July that the ADB had reached a new level of credibility and efficiency.

The main achievements of the various institutions of the Group in 1977 were as follows:

African Development Bank. For the first time its loan commitments passed the \$150 m mark (under \$100 m in



Model of the new headquarters of the ADB, 24 stories high, which will soon be inaugurated in Abidjan (Ivory Coast)

(1) From information supplied by Douglas Ngwube, head of information at the African Development Bank Group.



Henri Lopez (centre) Congolese finance minister and Kwame Fordwor, director of the ADB, (right) signing a financing agreement between the Bank and Congo for realignment work on the Congo-Ocean railway (below)



1976). Thirty projects were financed in African states in 1977, as against 19 projects and six supplementary loans in the previous year.

More states received the maximum loan of \$6 m per project in 1977 than in the previous year (18 as against 10 projects).

ADB loans from 1977 to 1977 total nearly \$558 m invested in 48 projects in 35 African states.

The West African region, with the largest number of member states, has received \$180.5 m (32%) of the loans, for 52 projects; East Africa has

received a little over \$145 m (26%) for 41 projects; North Africa approximately \$115 m (21%) for 28 projects; and Central Africa nearly \$85 m (15%) for 20 projects.

Seven multinational projects received loans totalling about \$33 m (6%).

1977 disbursements were about \$73 m, the highest since the ADB started its lending operations more than a decade ago (41% higher than 1976).

The ADB also co-financed 12 projects last year with the World Bank,

Arab funds, etc., to the tune of about \$702 m. Countries which benefit from the loans contributed well over \$115 m. Most of the projects are for agricultural and agro-industrial development.

African Development Fund. Loans for 1977 totalled approximately \$142 m (\$80 m in 1976).

Founded four years ago, the ADF has now committed loans worth nearly \$361 m for 84 projects in 27 African states.

In accordance with ADB Group policy, the ADF committed more money to agricultural projects in Africa. In 1977, loans for agricultural increased by more than \$35 m over the 1976 total of about \$15 m.

Loans for education and health show an increase of about 35% over the previous year. Over the four years, agriculture has had 34% of total commitments, transport 27%, public utilities 21%, and health and education 18%.

Nigeria Trust Fund. Run by the ADB, the NTF has resources of about \$80 m from which six loans totalling about \$30 m were approved in 1977.

Burundi, Cape Verde, the Gambia, Guinea, Liberia, Niger and Madagascar have benefited from this fund so far.

With a more efficient management and more expertise, backed by new development policies geared towards achieving maximum results with its limited resources, the ADB Group has been able to inject more funds than ever into the withering development programmes of many poor African states. Mali got a total of \$18 m for projects which would not only produce more for several thousand people in the rural areas of the country, who face severe drought problems, but also improve the standard of living of the people. The same development objectives go for other states which got loans for different aspects of their development, even down to school textbooks. Benin got over \$14 m; Ethiopia and Lesotho each got more than \$13 m; Guinea nearly \$13 m; Egypt, Malawi and the Ivory Coast, \$12 m each; Niger and Swaziland, over \$11 m each; Madagascar and a number of other states got loans in the \$10 m bracket. Particular attention was paid to the newly independent states, particularly former Portuguese colonies, in granting loans of \$6 m and above. Most states got loans, in a continent which is relying more heavily each year on the ADB Group for development funds, in their struggles to conquer hunger, poverty and disease. □ D.T.

Tourism and wildlife ⁽¹⁾

by Sir Peter SCOTT(*)

A ring of zebra-striped tourist buses surrounds a pride of lions on a kill. Cameras whirr and click. Later, in distant countries, others will share vicariously the excitement of this vision of nature in the raw, and many of them will vow to visit Africa "before it is too late".

"Before it is too late..." Most of us are conscious that wild animals are diminishing in numbers, and many are said to be heading for extinction. And while some people think it is a pity, they perhaps console themselves with the thought that it is the price of human progress and welfare. It isn't! Conservation of our natural resources, which includes wildlife, is an essential part of economic development for human benefit.

Reasons for wildlife conservation

There are a variety of reasons why wildlife should be conserved. Tourism shows the pleasure that people get from seeing wild animals in their natural habitat, and arising from this is economic benefit to the country and people involved. Wildlife, and by this I mean both animals and plants in their natural habitats, produces food and medicinal products. And from scientific study we learn the secrets of evolution and the working of the life force, and acquire knowledge which we can apply for the benefit of our own lives.

But the crucial argument for conservation of wildlife is that all life on earth, including human life, is inextricably bound together with the environment on the planet. Green vegetation turns the sun's rays into edible energy which flows to the animals which feed on it, and through them to the carnivores—and that includes us. Animals help plants to reproduce through pollination and by spreading seeds. Predators keep a check on the numbers of grazing animals. Forests and grasslands, and the mass of minute vegetable plankton in the seas, produce oxygen and absorb carbon dioxide, which is

poisonous to us. The sun draws moisture from the planet's surface and it is redistributed as rain which ensures our water supplies. These are all parts of the working machine supporting life which has evolved on our planet, and that is, so far as we know, at present, the only place in the universe where life exists.

The dynamic balance of nature

Throughout the ages we humans were part of the dynamic balance of nature and had to accept our limitations. We no longer do so, because our scientific and technological genius has given us virtually overwhelming power over our fellow species and the environment, which is ours and theirs. Medical advances have enabled us to reduce our death rates, so that there has been a population explosion, which is pressing on all other species and their living space, putting a strain on natural resources, and overloading the self-cleansing system of nature.

We need space to live and to produce our food, which impinges on the habitat of wild species, and in the developed world especially, we make great demands on natural resources to make our lives more comfortable than is perhaps necessary, and to enjoy various luxuries, some of which may not be very good for us anyway. These are the reasons for the basic threat of extinction which hangs over so many animals and plants.

The balance of nature has been so upset that many people are convinced human survival itself will ultimately be at stake unless we rapidly control ourselves and act responsibly towards our environment.

Organizations concerned with environmental problems

There are now a considerable number of organizations which are tackling the problem. On the governmental side there is the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), which was born of the Stockholm Conference on the Human Environment in 1972. Private initiative created the World Wildlife Fund, and its scientific partner, the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN),

which are today the leading organizations dealing with the whole spectrum of wildlife conservation. These three organizations, together with the relevant sections of FAO and UNESCO, are increasingly coordinating their efforts.

The tiger: a particular victim of loss of habitat

The main threats to wildlife arise from overexploitation and loss of habitat, and both have to be tackled simultaneously. The tiger makes a good case study. It once roamed large areas of Asia from eastern Turkey to the Pacific coast and down into India, southeast Asia and Indonesia. At the beginning of this century there may have been 100 000 or more tigers, but today it is estimated that there are probably no more than 5 000.

The primary reason for this is loss of habitat. The forests and grasslands which were the tiger's home have been converted to agriculture, and the tiger's prey, such as deer and pig, have been decimated by hunting. Increasingly, hunting became an important contributor to the tiger's decline as its habitat shrank and the ability of man to penetrate tiger habitat with powerful weapons increased. It has been hunted mercilessly as the supreme trophy.

At the IUCN's assembly in Delhi in 1969 the tiger was declared to be in serious danger of extinction and all nations with tiger populations were called upon to institute conservation measures. These consisted of the establishment of reserves and the enforcement of protective legislation against hunting and trade in tiger skins.

The tiger became, in fact, a symbol of nature conservation, because it can only be saved by protection of the species it preys on and of the forests in which it lives. In most cases these forests are of great importance for conservation of soils and water supplies for surrounding agricultural land. Thus the Tiger Conservation Programme is of direct benefit to us humans.

Drain on wildlife through trading

Trade in wild animals and their products has been a serious drain on many species. The orang utan suffered grievously because the young were in demand as pets and for zoos. They were usually obtained by killing the mother, which also removed future

(1) *World Travel/Tourisme mondiale*, no. 143, July-August 1978.

(*) Chairman of the World Wildlife Fund.



MYERS — AAA PHOTO

An untroubled snooze. Has he thought of taking out a life assurance policy?

breeding potential. Spotted cats were hunted down for fur. And millions of birds and tropical fish are trapped for the pet trade. Protective national legislation in countries of origin has frequently been ineffective because the demand in developed countries of Europe, North America and Japan made smuggling lucrative. This is still the case, but now a Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora is becoming a major weapon in the fight to save the most threatened species.

Convention to counter wildlife trading

The Convention was prepared by an 80-nation conference in Washington in 1973 and came into effect on 1 July, 1975. There are now 46 countries which are parties to the Convention, including major importing countries such as the United States, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Great Britain, East and West Germany, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland. There is an urgent need for other importers such as Austria, Belgium, Netherlands, Spain, and Italy, as well as Japan, to

join the Convention in order to choke off demand and help other countries conserve their wildlife.

The Convention applies not only to commercial trade. It also affects tourists. If their home countries are parties to the Convention, the customs can seize such souvenirs as stuffed young turtles, crocodile skin bags, spotted cat skins, tortoiseshell jewellery and other items unless the owners have export permits from the countries of origin.

The case of the hawksbill turtle

In this context I should like to relate an interesting little story: as a tourist airliner descended towards Bali the guide explained that everywhere people would be trying to sell wood carvings and tortoiseshell jewellery:

"You should keep in mind that it is illegal to bring tortoiseshell products into the United States. However you could probably sneak in one or two little bracelets if you are careful".

It so happened that one of the tourists on the flight was a zoologist who had been working on turtle conservation. She leapt to her feet and the tour

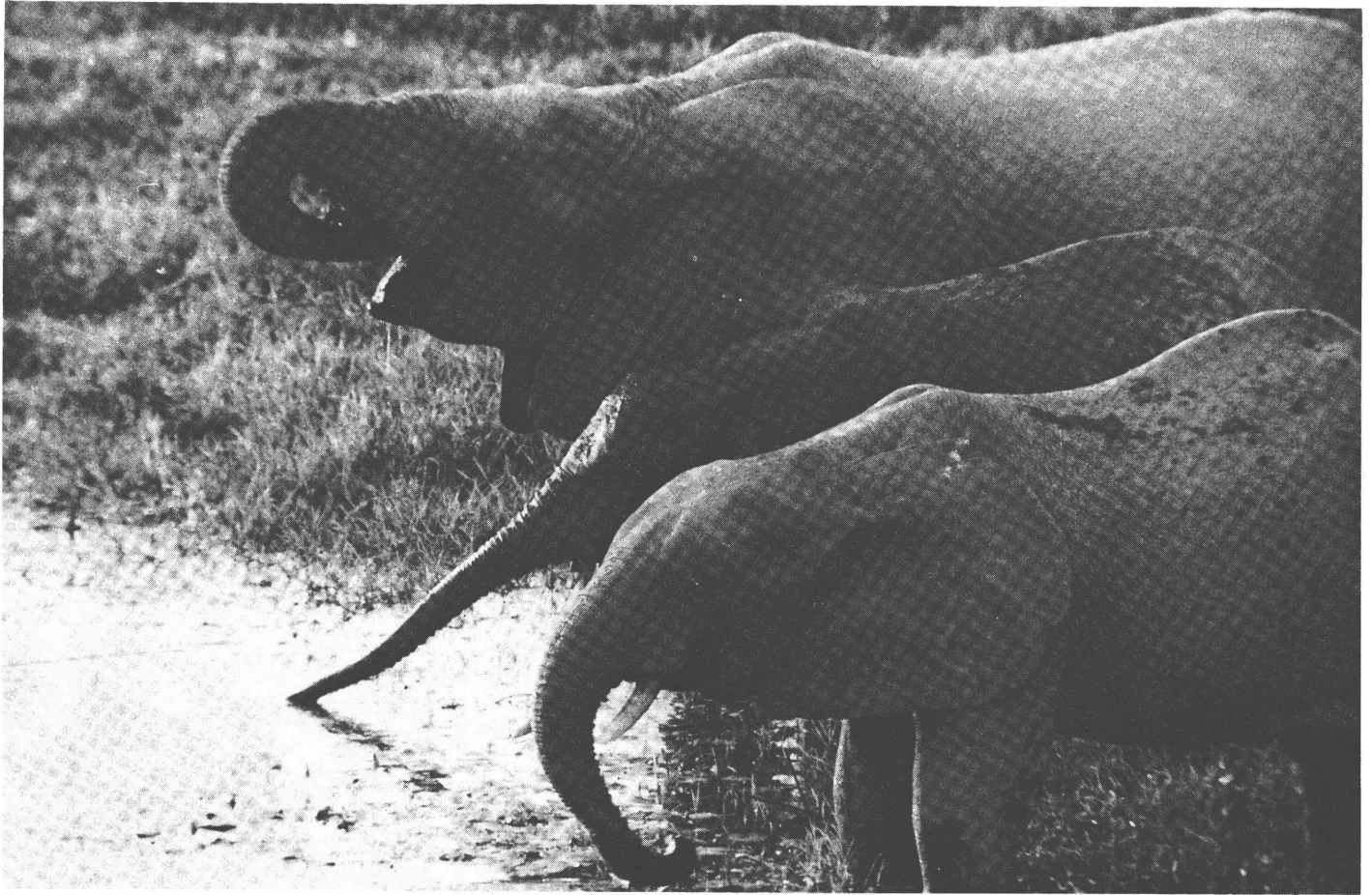
guide let her have the microphone:

"I would like to urge you please, please do not buy any tortoiseshell products. There is a good reason why it is illegal to import these items. The Hawksbill turtle, whose shell is used for this jewellery, is on the verge of extinction in every part of its range, simply because it is being killed for its shell and sold to tourists like yourselves. I would be the first to admit that tortoiseshell jewellery is beautiful, but it is something we just have to do without. Please try to control yourself when someone offers to sell you some".

There was applause from other passengers, several of whom said they had not realised the situation was so serious. This probably applied to the tour guide as well.

Wildlife mementos and curio shops

In fact this almost universal human desire for mementos of enjoyable experiences or of places is a major threat to the world's wildlife. Air travel has opened up formerly remote places to mass tourism and people are flock-



Animal life is an integral and necessary part of the planetary ecology

ing to enjoy fabled wildernesses and beautiful sun-baked beaches. Local people have found that the wildlife around them, which they had perhaps mildly exploited as part of their normal way of life, can often bring them undreamed of wealth when sold in various forms as souvenirs to visitors. Thus massive exploitation has started, which is driving many species of both animals and plants to local if not overall extinction.

A prime example of the effects is to be seen in Kenya, where, until the government stepped in with a ban at the end of 1977, more than 200 curio shops existed in Nairobi alone, filled with bits and pieces of animals—carved ivory, zebra and reptile skin bags, elephant umbrella stands and wastebaskets, keyrings and brooches adorned with horns, feathers and teeth—all representing dead animals. Attracted by the rewards stemming from tourist demand, poaching had risen to formidable heights.

And the fashion for wildlife ornaments and curios has spread through Europe and North America so that department stores order stacks of zebra skins for home and office decoration; boxes of shells stand on the shelves; and display boxes of beautiful moths and butterflies are for sale. Leopard and ocelot skin coats, and croco-

dile skin bags and watch-straps are marketed as status symbols.

It may be argued that many of these wildlife products are from common species, but even if this is true there are few species which can withstand such an assault. Just remember that little more than a century ago, hundreds of millions of Passenger pigeons darkened the skies of North America. They were mercilessly hunted as good eating. The few cries that the species was being threatened were ignored—and the last Passenger pigeon died in Philadelphia zoo in 1914. The American bison was snatched from the brink when reduced to a few hundred compared with the 70 000 000 which had roamed the plains only decades earlier.

And so when a single load of 22 000 horns of the little Dik-dik antelope are recovered by Kenya's anti-poaching authorities, can one believe that the Dik-dik population can withstand that kind of pressure and that it can avoid one day becoming extinct—because the horns make nice brooches or keyring attachments?

Self control by all urgently needed

If seem to labour this black side of tourism it is because I am convinced

that unless we all—governments, tourist authorities, operators and we tourists—control ourselves, we shall rapidly destroy the very basis of the whole business, not to mention important parts of the natural foundation of life on earth.

Why not put a message in the brochures calling on tourists not to buy souvenirs made of wildlife products because it threatens the future of many animals and degrades the natural heritage of the country from which they come?

Many countries have protective legislation, but enforcement is frequently poor. It behoves us to respect the law, and to go further—to cherish and respect our natural heritage beyond the letter of the law.

May the words of a distinguished distinguished French scientist, Professor Jean Dorst, linger in your minds:

“Man has enough objective reasons to safeguard nature. But in the last analysis it will only be saved by our hearts. It will only be saved if man loves it, simply because it is beautiful, and we need beauty, in whatever form our background and training enable us to appreciate it. For that too is an integral part of the human soul”. □ P.S.

NIGER

The national museum

Niger is proud of its museum. Its people cannot praise it too highly. They see it as an original success without parallel in Africa and they are right to do so.

There is no question as to the originality of the Niamey museum. It is original in conception.

It successfully combines the traditional activities of a museum (the search for and preservation of evidence of the past) with other, more forward-looking activities (such as the craft centre which provides a living for 170 craftsmen and their families) and social rehabilitation schemes (training for the blind and the physically handicapped).

It also includes an experimental education centre, aimed at helping jobless 12-20 year olds who have no opportunity to complete their studies in primary schools and training them to fit into the social, cultural and economic life of the nation.

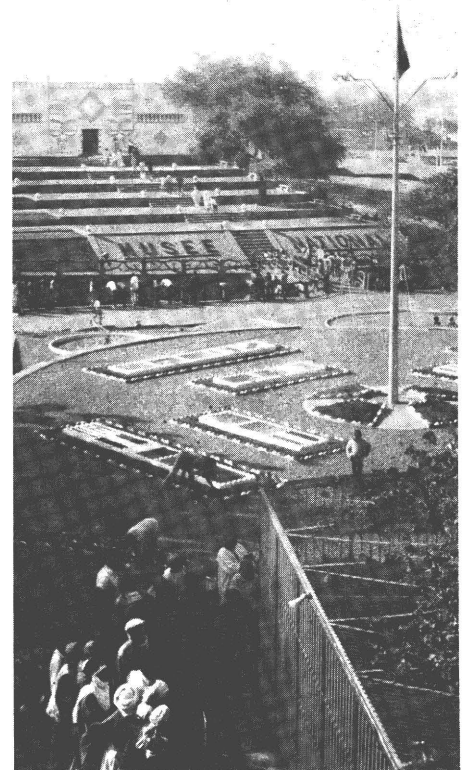
It is original in its design. It has broken away from the traditional system of imposing and costly buildings, with one vast exhibition hall after another, and instead there are small pavilions set in a pleasant park with an aquarium, aviaries, a nursery, a zoo, a botanical garden and an arboretum.

This setting, a pleasure garden in some ways, is a sharp contrast to most of the rest of the town and no doubt has much to do with attracting the 1 000 daily visitors.

But perhaps the most important reason for the museum's success is the fact that entrance, even to guided tours, is free.

The system of small pavilions offers one other advantage which the founders were quick to appreciate, namely that the museum could be built as resources became available:

- 1959: Inauguration of the classic ethnography pavilion reproducing Niger's traditional housing;
- 1961: Aquarium;
- 1962: Costume museum; Large aviary; Lion cage;
- 1963: Crocodile & turtle pond;
- 1964: Hippopotamus & large bird pond;
- 1967: Craft pavilion;
- 1968: Large terraces and belvedere for 30 000 people;
- 1969: Temporary exhibition pavilion (fitting out of pavilion & preservation);



The animal cages (foreground) always draw the crowds

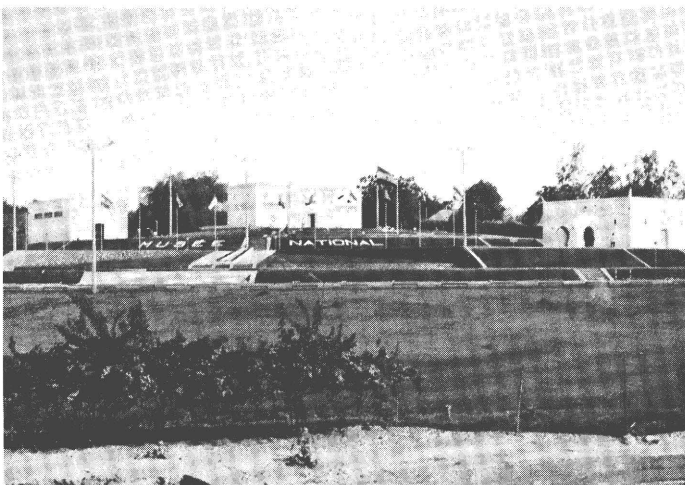
Musical instruments and audio-visual pavilions;

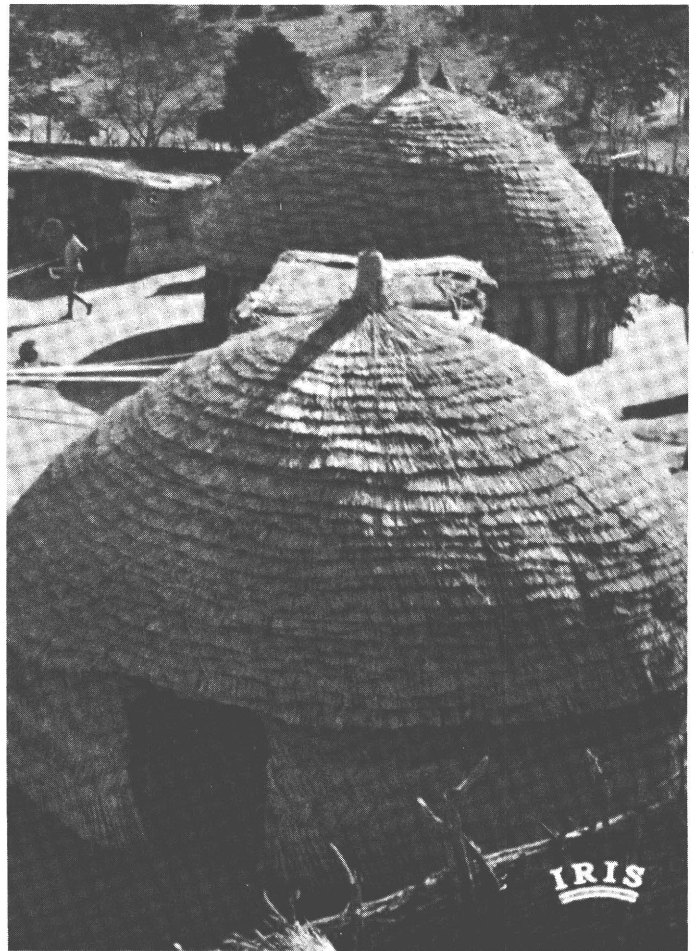
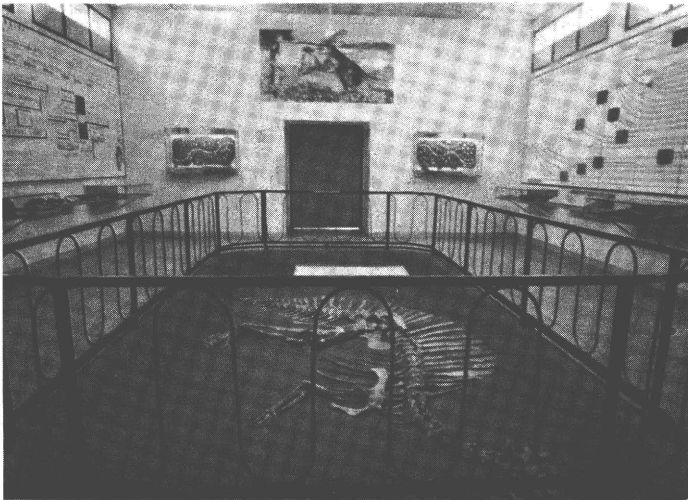
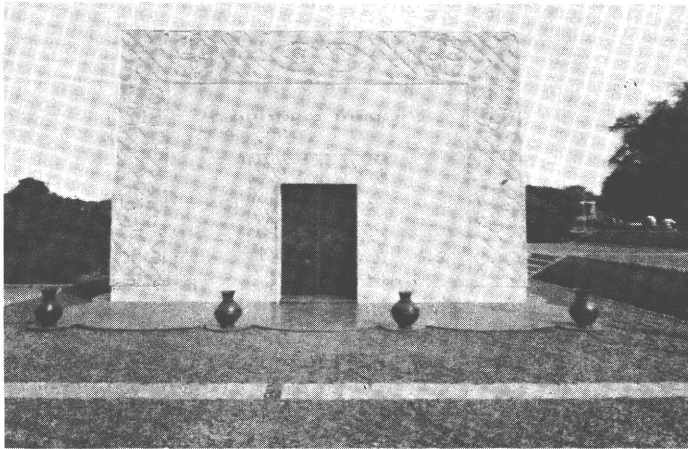
— 1970: Integral lighting; Fencing; Lawns; Pavilions to house the educational centre;

— 1972: Pavilion for the blind and the physically handicapped;

The pavilions are scattered around the exotic gardens

The workshops support more than 170 craftsmen and their families





The dinosaur skeleton is one of the treasures of the natural history pavilion

The museum has also reconstructed the traditional past of Niger like these Songhay huts

— 1973: Paleontology & prehistory pavilion.

Instructive and diverting

The story of the museum is, first and foremost, the story of the meeting between architect Pablo Toucet, Niamey's first curator, from 1958 to 1974, and Boubou Hama, head of IFAN (the French Institute for Black Africa) and later president of Niger's national assembly and, as such, an irreplaceable advocate of the former's projects.

Both their names are inextricably bound up with the national museum.

For Pablo Toucet, "A museum is just something to extend and complete the basic instruction which the schools provide.

But, in our case, that something had to be able to attract the attention of both the cultured and the illiterate, so it meant seeking a difficult compromise that would avoid disappointing the one and boring the other.

This is why the museum's aim, an extremely ambitious one as we realize, is to be both instructive and diverting."

Today, this aim, as the people of Niger are proud to tell you, has been achieved. The crowds of visitors to the various pavilions, the zoo and the craft centre are proof of it.

The aim has been achieved and even exceeded, for, as Albert Ferral, the present curator who took over from Pablo Toucet in 1974, says, the museum has also shown that:

- "1. It is possible and feasible to set up museums without a vast outlay on construction and operation.
2. It is not in the interests of the people of the Third World to try to copy the grand museums of Europe and elsewhere, since they are, for the time being, beyond their financial means.
3. A museum has to be designed and built with the country's population and resources in mind.
4. The museum should play its real social and cultural role in the developing countries fully and dynamically to avoid becoming trapped in the cult of

arts and sciences."

All this means that Niamey is particularly aware of the importance of what has already been achieved, and also that it would be wrong to sit back now since the best way of keeping the museum's international reputation is to look to the future, to move into new fields and to innovate constantly.

And there is no shortage of plans. They include using a World Bank loan to set up modern craft centres in Niamey, Maradi, Zinder and Agadès, opening a regional centre to train Africans in museography and extending the museum by building a traditional pharmacopoeia laboratory and a reptile house.

The people of Niger remember the complimentary words of Mr de Varine-Bohan, formerly director of UNESCO's international council of museums, some years back:

"The first country to have made the most of a museum to back up government action for national unity is Niger, with Mexico a close second".
□ A.T.

NIGERIA

The Museum of Benin

by Ilemobayo AKINSETE (*)

History of the museum

Like most museums in Europe and America, the Benin National Museum started with a private collection, that of the Oba. Benin Obas have patronised and enriched their collection since the time of Ere, the second of the 17 Ogisos who ruled before the present dynasty. King Ere is credited with the introduction of wood and ivory carving in Benin.

The artists were commissioned to produce works of art in consonance with royal aesthetics. Such objects were used to decorate the royal shrines and palace walls.

The court continued to be the patron of art until the sack of Benin. The punitive expedition exposed Benin art to the outside world and its high quality led to its demand in Europe. It became necessary for the Oba to preserve the remaining objects d'art. The objects were assembled in a place within the palace in the Royal House of Iwebo and Chief Jacob Egharevba was appointed the first curator of the museum.

The need to make the collection accessible to the people soon led the Oba to remove the collection from the palace to one of the rooms in the Benin Tax Office. Later it was removed to another building. Meanwhile the department of antiquities had been inaugurated and Mr K. C. Murray, who was appointed the first Surveyor of Antiquities, suggested that the museum be taken over by the Benin Divisional Council.

In 1960 the museum was taken over by the Federal Department of Antiquities as one of its national museums. Initially the objects were housed in a wing of the former Benin Post Office. With the determination of the then military governor of the mid-west state (now Bendel) to establish a museum befitting the famous City of Benin, the government of the mid-west state became the only state government that

provided funds for building a national museum. Additionally, the government provided money to the museum to purchase antiquities.

The museum now occupies three out of the four buildings within the King's Square, which is at the very heart of Benin City. The King's Square was designed as a recreation centre and its maintenance is the responsibility of the Ministry of Local Government and Chieftaincy Affairs.

Future plans

The Antiquities Commission is negotiating the maintenance of the square with this ministry so that it can be developed as an added attraction to the museum. If the Commission is successful, the remaining building on the square would serve as a library and the fish pond therein would be rehabilitated.

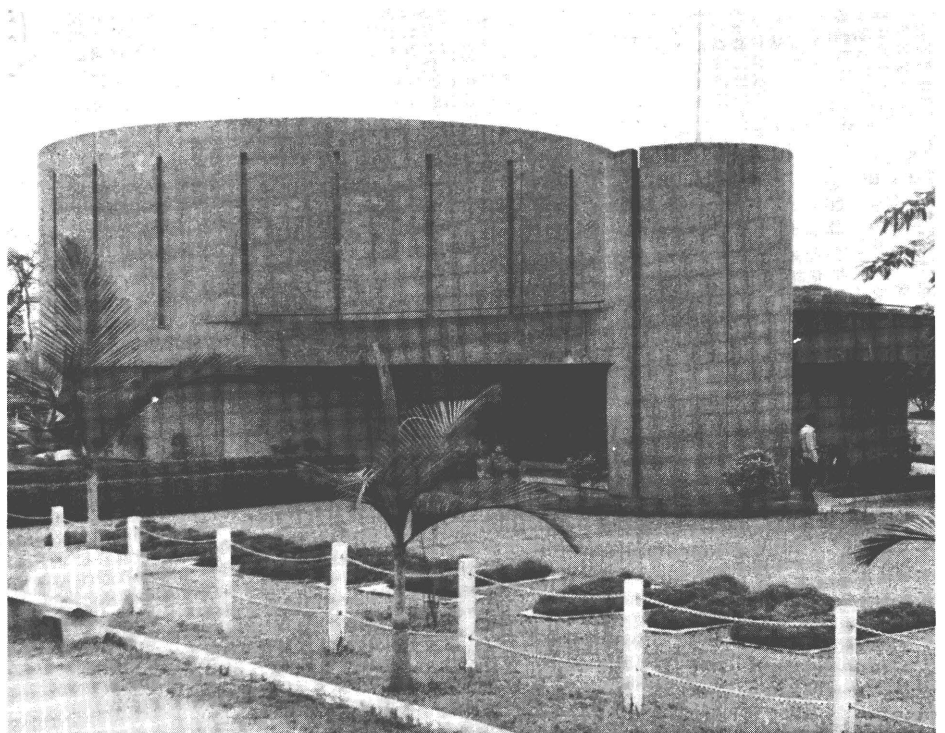
Works of art

The National Museum in Benin has been designed to represent works of art from different parts of Nigeria. There are three galleries in the museum.

The Benin gallery occupies the ground floor. The display follows a narrative sequence and it is intended to make the visitor aware of the history of Benin and of its empire.

The display opens with the famous bronze figure of the queen mother, (photo p. 79) but this is, however, only a copy for the original is in the British Museum. There follows a display of some weapons of warfare, such as spears and guns. The latter weapons are known to have been introduced by the Portuguese during the 16th century. Next are bas-reliefs illustrating King Akingboi in battle attire. This first section also shows maps and illustrations relating to the extent of the empire.

One of the great attractions in this section is the area depicting the palace and the Royal ancestor altar. Here are exhibited objects related to the buildings in the palace and associated with events that took place within the King's compound. The objects consist of plaques depicting battle scenes and



The museum in Benin (Nigeria)

(*) Curator, Benin National Museum (Nigeria).

events, jugs used in ablution, and so on. Plaques were usually mounted on pillars on the palace while brass snakes were displayed on the gatehouse roof and in the conference hall of the palace. The royal ancestor altar reproduced here in the museum was specially dedicated by the ruling Oba to the late one. Such altars in the 15th and 16th centuries used to carry thin bronzes. Elaborate altars were set up after 1897.

Beyond the shrine area are works of art made by the guilds of craftsmen. Such works appear in wood, ivory, terra-cotta and bronze.

Bendel gallery

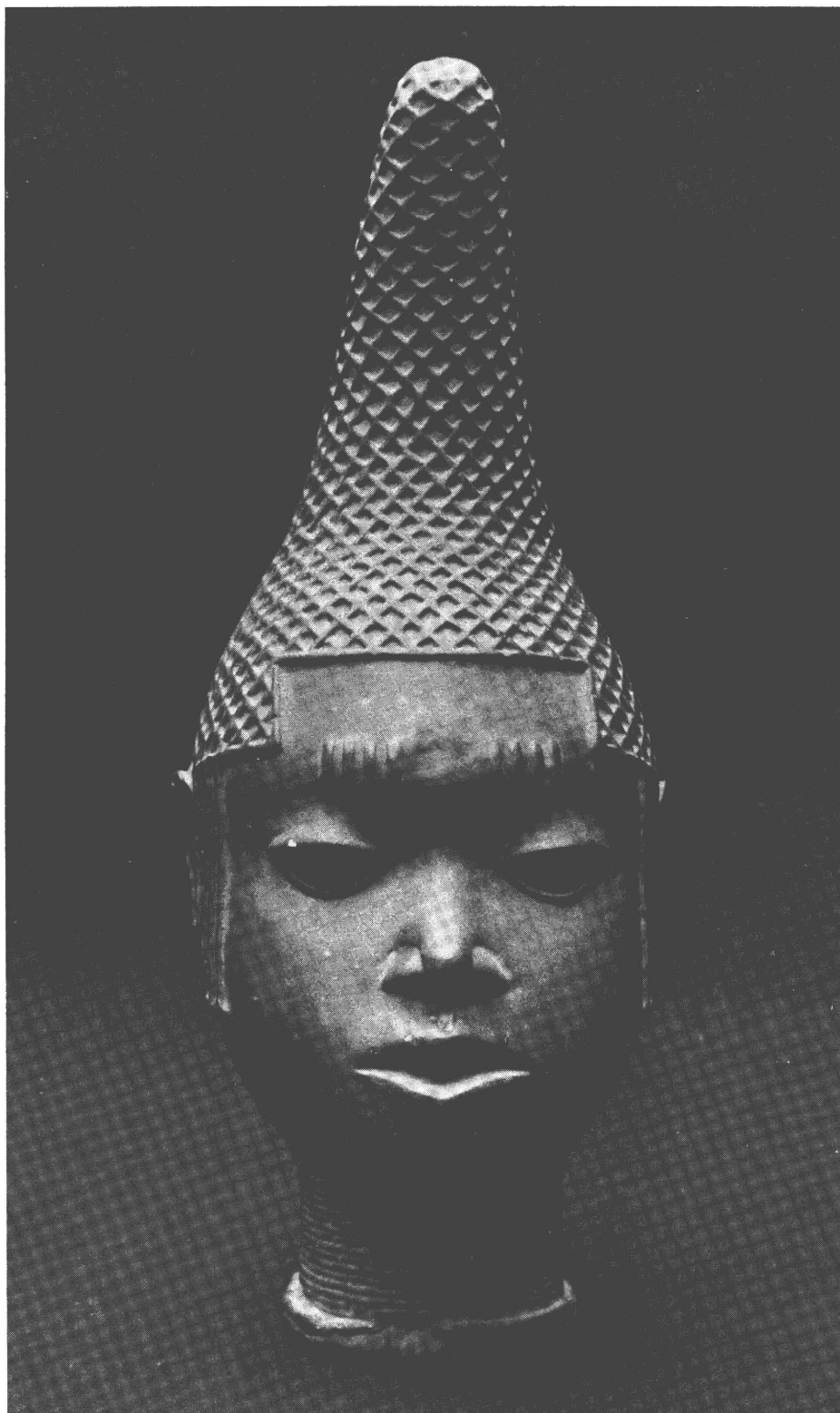
The first floor is arranged in a cultural rather than historical setting. The objects are displayed to represent different cultural groups within the Bendel state of Nigeria, and range from items used in the house, such as cooking utensils and hairdressing equipment, to materials used in the Ewana divination. There are some selections of traditional musical instruments, such as the Benin harp (Akpata) and the linguaphone (Asologun), which were both used for accompanying the telling of stories. Rattles were often added to the tops of the guitar to give an added effect. Flutes and drums used by native doctors are also on display.

Some show-cases have also been devoted to the arts of transformation. These include pictures related to body ornamentation, masks used during the annual ritual called Eho Ekpo, Delta head-dresses (Emedjo) representing animal and human figures, and the Etsako costume used during the Okakaghe dance (photo p. 80). This costume represents Odagu, the mother. The head was made by Okeleke, who lived in Weppa (Etsako Division), while the costume was the handiwork of Lawrence of Ogiriga, the only man in the northern Edo area who still makes them.

A section of the gallery is devoted to terra-cotta and bronze works from Owo, Ife and Benin. This area is being removed to the second floor, which is devoted to the whole of Nigeria. This second floor, the Nigeria gallery, will on completion exhibit works of art from various parts of Nigeria. The display is expected to cover various subjects.

Activities

Like other national museums in Nigeria, the Benin national museum



Bronze head of the queen mother

engages in a number of professional and social activities aimed at educating people in the role of museums. Among these are research and education.

The research division aims at making its findings known to the public through journals and magazines. The education wing attempts to bring the public to the museum to experience the educational tours daily organized for visitors. The department has a

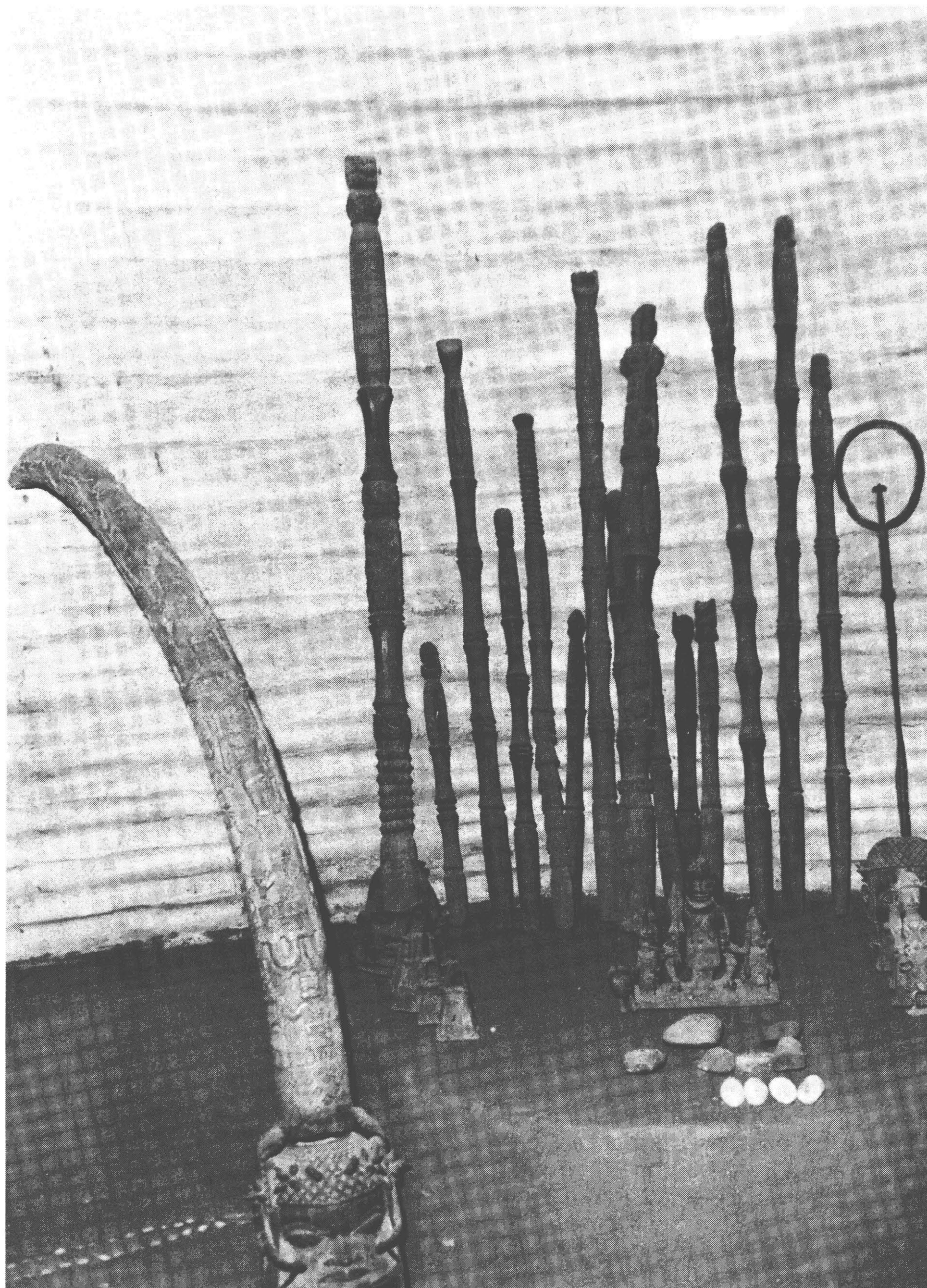
trained museum educator at its head. He is assisted by a number of staff, some of whom are guides trained to conduct visitors round the galleries. The department plans to organize lectures, workshops, and photographic exhibitions for schools, to the extent that its limited funds permits.

Closely associated with the education wing is the Benin National Museum Society. This society has as

its objective to try to involve adults in the activities of the museum. Membership of this non-profit organization is voluntary and open to people from all walks of life. The society aims at promoting Nigerian culture through films, public lectures, cultural shows and so on. It is hoped that the Benin National Museum Society, like the other national museum societies in the country, will stimulate interest in Nigerian culture by intensifying its efforts.



Okakaghe dance robes (Etsako)



Royal regalia in bronze and wood from Benin City

Professionals in the Benin National Museum do, occasionally, participate in programmes organized by the mass media with a view to attracting the public to the museum. A documentary film on the Benin Museum was recently completed by Nigerian television, in collaboration with the curator.

The Benin Museum acquires antiquities originating from Nigeria. It is an accredited agent of the government and is therefore authorized to sell and buy antiquities. The 1974 Antiquities Prohibited Transfers decree forbids any person other than the accredited agents of the government to buy and sell antiquities.

The decree attempts to discourage illegal trafficking in antiquities and vests the power in the Federal Department of Antiquities, to which the Benin National Museum belongs.

The new Nigerian Constitution, which is yet to be approved, places museum service on the concurrent list. This implies that state and local governments could own their own museum. By implication, they too can collect antiquities.

Maintenance of monuments

The Federal Department of Antiquities maintains a number of monuments in Nigeria. The Benin Museum is responsible for supervising those in the Benin zone. These include maintenance of historical houses and the supervision of the Benin City walls and moats. □ I.A.

FRANCE

The Leopold Sedar Senghor exhibition at the national library, Paris

For the first time an unusual tribute has been paid to a living poet by the national library in Paris. At the end of November 1978 the Leopold Sedar Senghor exhibition was opened and will run until February 1979. It is not about Senghor the politician, but about his poetry. However there is a letter from another politician, Georges Pompidou, dated 16 June 1969, when he was President of France, and addressed to the Senegalese President, his former classmate at the Louis-le-Grand Grand high school. "So we are both heads of state! What an adventure!". The evolution of poetic thought and the passion for art were adventures too. This is very much Senghor's year: the international grand prix of the Del Duca foundation, the Eurafrique prize, the book "Élégies majeures" (major elegies) illustrated by six artists from various countries and cultures, a series of conferences and so on.

Born in 1906 at Joal, Leopold Sedar Senghor grew up in the Sine region and has maintained his roots in the area and with the traditional values of the Serer people. He was educated at the Catholic mission at Ngasobil and then Dakar. He was a good student and won a scholarship to continue his studies in Paris.

At the Louis-le-Grand high school, preparing his entrance to the Ecole normale supérieure, he made friends with Georges Pompidou, Pham Duy Khiem and the West Indians, Louis Achille, Léon Damas and Aimé Césaire. It was at that time that Paris acquired a taste for black culture: jazz music, the dance of Josephine Baker and black art and it was in this atmosphere that Leopold Sedar Senghor felt the need to return to his roots, to rediscover and reaffirm the values of black civilization. With other African students he founded the West African students' association, and worked with Sainville, Césaire, Gratiant on *l'Étudiant noir* (Black Student). Once qualified he taught at the

high schools at Tours and Saint-Maur in France, but still continued his research into African linguistics.

He was imprisoned in 1940, released, and in 1945 elected to the French national assembly as a deputy for Senegal. In the same year he published *Chants d'Ombre* (Songs of Shadow). He was one of the founders of the magazine *Présence africaine* and published an anthology of black and Malagasy poetry in French in 1948. Then in 1956 the concept of negritude, defined by Aimé Césaire and Leopold Sedar Senghor, broke on the world at the first conference of black writers and artists at the Sorbonne in Paris. A second conference followed in Rome in 1959. Organized by the society of African arts, and attended by Leopold Sedar Senghor, these two conferences had profound repercussions in black Africa on the eve of independence.

Once head of state, President Senghor continued with his poetry, to which he still attached great importance. To *Hosties noires* (Black Hosts) in 1948 and *Ethiopiennes* (1956) he added a collection of nocturnes (1961) and



President Senghor

Lettres d'hivernage (Winter Letters) in 1973. He also kept in touch with black writers and artists. Through his actions and his works he continued to show the values of black African civilization, which, through his essays in particular, he brought closer to the Arab, Latin American and European worlds. (*Liberté* I, II, III). □ A.L.

NEGRO MASK (1)

To Pablo Picasso

She is asleep, resting on the candour of the sand.

Koumba Tam is sleeping. A green palm veils the fever of the hair, the curved forehead is copper

The eyelids are closed, double cup and sealed fountains.

This fine swell, this lip darker and scarcely heavy — or the smile of woman the accomplice?

The patina of the cheeks, the shape of the chin sing in silent accord.

The face of a mask ephemerally closed, without eyes or substance

A perfect head in bronze and the patina of time

Unblemished by paint or roughness or wrinkles, without trace of tears or of kisses

A face as God created you even before the memory of the ages

Face of the dawn of the world, do not open like a gentle valley to move the feelings of my flesh.

I adore you, oh Beauty, with my monochord eye!

From *Chants d'Ombre*

(1) Courier translation.

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BOOKS

Gerald M. MEIER & Robert E. BALDWIN — **Economic Development, Theory, History, Policy — Huntington (N.Y.)** — Robert E. Krieger Publishing Co., 1976 — 588 pp.

This is the eight edition of a work first published in 1957 when it was the one and only textbook on the economy of development.

The approach to the problem is panoramic, providing an overall view of the subject and its prospects which more recent, more specialized works fail and often totally forget to do.

It covers:

1. Theory: what are the major determining factors of development?
2. History: what effect have these factors had in the past?
3. Development policy in the poor countries: the problems of getting the process under way.
4. Development policy of rich countries which have reached industrial maturity: the problems of maintaining growth rates.

This is an excellent work for specialist students and teachers.

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Zalmai HAQUANI — **CNUCED, pour un nouvel ordre économique (UNCTAD, towards a new economic order)** — UN — New York — 57 pages — 1977.

Although UNCTAD is one of the most familiar of the acronyms peppering discussions and publications on rich/poor country relations today, the rapid and occasionally tumultuous changes in these relations sometimes make it difficult to see exactly what it stands for.

The author, who was born in Afghanistan, is currently teaching law public at the regional institute of law on peace and development in Nice. His work outlines the activities and institutional machinery of UNCTAD.

At the end of 1964, the UN general assembly decided to set up the UN Conference on Trade and Development to reduce the disparities in world trade so that the developing countries got a better deal and could adequately expand their economies.

The author outlines the place UNCTAD occupies in UN relations with its other agencies and with certain other bodies. He presents the organization and composition of UNCTAD, des-

cribing first the institutional machinery and then the operation. This latter section covers the decision-making process, budgetary aspects and the programme of work.

It is a concise work, but one which manages to convey an understanding of UNCTAD, one of the many international organizations which are unknown to the general public.

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Michel GODET & Olivier RUYSSSEN — **Les échanges internationaux (International trade)** — Paris — Presses Universitaires de France — 1978 — 126 pp. — Que sais-je? collection.

An excellent little book, thorough, concise, clear and interesting, true to the traditions of this well-known series. The authors, albeit unconsciously, are to a certain extent swayed by fashion in their discussions of the new international economic order. Even so, what they have to say is of considerable interest and their information and questions on the future of the world economy warrant our attention.

They deal with the main past and present changes to the world economy which have affected international trade and given rise to the demands of the underdeveloped countries, with the trends and characteristics of international trade and with what hangs on the ongoing negotiations between the industrialized countries and the Third World.

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Small-scale cement plants (a study in economics) by Jon SIGURDSON, £2.16 UK postpaid airmail from IT Publications Ltd., 9, King St., London WC2E 8HN.

Small-scale cement plants have been attracting increasing attention from international agencies and industrial economists concerned with rural development. This booklet examines the criteria which would justify the establishment of mini cement plants in developing countries and specifically compares the situation in India with that in China, where more than 57% of cement is produced by such small plants. It includes designs for vertical shaft kilns as used in China and comparisons of cement quality.

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Hand-pump maintenance, Oxfam document compiled by Arnold PACEY.

£1.69 UK postpaid airmail from IT Publications Ltd., 9, King St., London WC2E 8HN.

Many governments, with the assistance of official agencies and voluntary organisations, have tackled the water supply problems of rural communities by drilling tubewells and boreholes. Unfortunately, a vast number of these tubewells are useless in practice because thousands of the hand-pumps have broken down.

Why should this be so? This manual suggests that one of the major reasons for the breakdown is that the community or the village have not been adequately involved in the project in the first place, and have not accepted the social responsibility for the task of maintaining the pump.

Of course many of the pumps themselves suffer from design faults and construction defects, but the hardware can fairly readily be repaired and design faults corrected. This booklet puts forward various strategies which, if followed, might overcome the social problems. It also examines and evaluates different types of pump, and puts forward a schedule of recommended work that should be undertaken by the community or the villager responsible for the pump.

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Marianne CORNEVIN — **Histoire de l'Afrique contemporaine de la deuxième guerre mondiale à nos jours (History of Contemporary Africa from World War II to the Present Day)** — Editions Payot, Paris, 106 Bvd Saint Germain, 75006 Paris — 1978.

Since 1974, oil prices have quadrupled, the Spanish and Portuguese have left their colonies and the Ethiopian Empire has collapsed, bringing profound changes to the political, economic and social life of the whole continent.

Events have speeded up and Marianne Cornevin has revised her *History of Contemporary Africa* to reflect them, retaining only the first 262 pages of her first edition and completely rewriting the remaining two thirds with the help of abundant and largely unpublished resource material in English and French. She adds a bibliography, a set of statistical tables (updated June 1977), an index and a list of common abbreviations, making this work, which is without parallel in France or any other country, a wealth of information

for everyone concerned with the present and the future of the continent of Africa.

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Christian MEGRELIS — **Danger: protectionnisme (Danger: protectionism)** — Editions Calman-Lévy, 3, rue Auber, 75009, Paris — 1978.

Christian Mégrelis, one-time student of the Ecole Polytechnique and the Institut d'Etudes Politiques, has devoted his career to the development of international economic relations. He founded Export-Assistance-Internationale to advise firms interested in external markets and his main interest today is aid with balancing trade between the rich countries and the Third World. This often leads to requests for advice from foreign governments.

Since the oil crisis, many of the practices and principles of international economic relations have been overturned. Some developing countries are now able to do more than just sell their raw materials and can also compete with the industrialized countries on the manufactures markets. Countries (like Germany and Japan) with strong currencies are still increasing their exports in spite of constant revaluation. Finally, there is the fact that world prices often rise faster than national ones. But are these recent events enough to reverse the trend towards free trade which has marked the world economy over the last 20 years?

Christian Mégrelis answers this vital question on the basis of his own practical experience and a thorough assessment of the historical facts. The diagnosis is clear. Greater international interdependence is inevitable and a return to protectionism, which might appeal to some, is now impossible. But we should not let things drift and it would be useful to reflect upon the sometimes fruitful lessons of a deliberate national economic policy. This is why the answer lies in new formulae for international cooperation, involving close association of new and old industrialized countries and the redeployment of world production and structures accompanied by a redistribution of responsibility.

Mégrelis has produced a precise, realistic work which goes beyond intellectual speculation to outline new formulae for coping with the present crisis. The book is not just a warning. It is also, and this is most important, an exercise in applied futurology which

directly concerns everyone who is or will be involved in international affairs over the next two decades.

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Yves-Emmanuel DOGBE — **Fables Africaines (African Fables)** — Librairie-Editions l'Harmattan, 18 rue des Quatre-Vents, 75006, Paris — 1978.

Yves-Emmanuel Dogbe, whose primary and secondary education was in Africa, has spent many years teaching in Benin and Togo. He is a doctor of sociology with a thesis on negritude as an ideology and a study of the crisis in education to his name.

These African fables, which like all fables are intended for readers of all ages, were written 15 years ago as an African complement to the eternal La Fontaine fables that Dogbe, then a young teacher, used to arouse his pupils' poetic sensibility and moral sense.

No other genre is as poignant, as perspicacious or as appropriate when it comes to highlighting and censuring our absurd behaviour and our individual and social errors. This is why Aesop, the philosopher and moralist, was such a remarkable figure and so important in both ancient Greek society and literature. He never minced his words and, indeed, might even have been called revolutionary today, having every reason for saying that language was both "best and worst".

Dogbe adds his African collection to all the other fables in world literature as further ammunition in the fight against the sort of individual and collective behaviour that dehumanizes the world we live in.

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Hugues DUFRIEZ — **Evaluation "ex post" de projets de développement rural intégré (Ex-post assessment of integrated rural development projects)** — Commission of the European Communities — 1978.

Financing organizations only commit their funds after detailed studies to prove that the operations in question are viable ones. But as the studies have to be based on forecasts, there is no certainty as to their results and funding organizations are increasingly turning to ex-post assessments, carried out some time after completion of the project to see whether targets were met and, if not, why not. A number of

assessments of integrated rural development projects have been made over the last few years, the two most significant by USAID and the World Bank in 1975.

The Dupriez report, for the EEC Commission, is much more recent. It deals with a representative sample of 10 EDF-financed rural development projects to modernize peasant smallholdings in nine countries of Africa (Niger, Togo, Rwanda, the CAE, Chad, Ivory Coast, Upper Volta, Benin and Zaire).

It emphasizes the positive effects they have had on agricultural production and on the productivity of the peasant smallholdings. But it also points out that the aims, in most cases, were only partly achieved, largely due to exaggerated estimates made when the project was on the drawing-board.

Nor did the increase in production always last and some results dwindled once EEC assistance came to an end. Mr Dupriez also says it was impossible to make any accurate measurement of the trends in peasant income as there was no data on the pre-project situation.

His survey suggests that improvements were only slight and that, in some cases, the peasants' standard of living even stagnated because of a deterioration in the terms of trade, a smaller than anticipated increase in smaller than anticipated and the drought.

In conclusion, Mr Dupriez shows that "specific rural development schemes can only be fully effective if they are part of national policies genuinely aimed at developing the rural sector".

National policies must therefore always involve allotting a high percentage of available resources to this sector and, most important, they must offer farmers the necessary economic incentives by setting up coherent price and tax systems so that the producers have a real and lasting interest in obtaining equipment, expanding production and diversifying their activities.

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Manuel for the preparation of Industrial Feasibility Studies — United Nations Industrial Development Organization — P.O. Box 707, A-1011, Vienna, Austria — US\$ 9 — 1978.

The manual is intended to guide developing countries in the selection of sound investment projects to ensure the best use of human and capital

resources. It is also designed to help UNIDO experts and consulting firms working on feasibility studies in standardizing their reports and findings.

In a foreword, the Executive Director of UNIDO states that the manual was conceived as a contribution to the standardization of industrial feasibility studies, which "have frequently been not only incomplete but also inadequately prepared".

A feasibility study must provide a basis—technical, economic and commercial—for an investment decision on an industrial project. It should define and analyse the critical elements that relate to the production of a product and give alternative approaches to such production.

To ensure the success of the feasibility study, there must be a clear understanding of how the project idea fits into the framework of the economic conditions and the general and industrial development of the country.

In the first of two parts, the manual deals with different types of pre-investment studies that can be applied to any industrial sector, and indicates the information required at the various stages of decision making in selecting a project.

The second part, the core of the manual, corresponds in outline to the framework of a feasibility study. For greater clarity and ease of use, each chapter contains brief introductory remarks, a data and information section, and detailed explanatory notes.

Annexes include outlines of general opportunity studies and a pre-feasibility study; a comparison of study components; types of decisions to be taken during the pre-investment stages; the status of an existing industrial enterprise; techniques for forecasting demand; market surveys; and financial statements required by industrial development banks.

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Higher Education in the European Community — A Handbook for Students — European Community Official Publications Office, BP 1003, Luxembourg — 1978 — FLux 160.

This guide has been reprinted at the Commission's request and is now available in all six languages of the Community.

When the first edition came out in December 1977, 12 000 of the 20 000

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copies were distributed to universities, student organizations etc. and the rest were sold. A further 7 500 copies have now been printed and can be obtained from official distributors or from the Official Publications Office.

The Commission is now working on a second edition, due to appear next summer in time for the beginning of the 79/80 academic year.

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La Recherche française en Afrique tropicale et à Madagascar (French research in tropical Africa and Madagascar) — Travaux et Mémoires de l'Académie des Sciences d'Outre-Mer — 270 pages — FF 50 — 1978.

French scientific research in Africa is little known and understood. We hear about national servicement volunteering to exercise their professions abroad and we hear about tens of thousands of teachers. But we know practically nothing about the research workers. Yet research, contested by almost no one is a privileged area of cooperation and one of the great French successes in Black Africa.

In the absence of any overall summaries, the Académie des Sciences d'Outre-Mer decided to devote a series of sessions to the various aspects of this research and drew up a timetable of papers, to be read in a logical order, in the light of availability of lecturers.

They begin with Guy Camus, head of ORSTOM, who explains what his organization does in Africa, shows the importance of schemes run by a major body and the impressive results that have been achieved.

Then Jean Cabot (University of Paris VIII) deals with geography, Jean-Louis Mestraud (general secretary of the Association of African Geological Services) with geology, Georges Aubert with pedology, Georges Mangenot with botanical research and Jean Pagot (ex-director-general of the Institute of Tropical Stockbreeding and Veterinary Medicine) with research into tropical agronomy. René Vittoz (director-general of the International Epizootic Office) then describes the importance of the French contribution to research into health and animal production in Africa. Professor Pierre Francis Lacroix produced the paper on African linguistics only a few months before his death. African ethnology is covered by Jean-Paul Lebeuf, director of research at the CNRS, and Jean Devisse (Sorbonne) outlines African history.

Political science is covered by Edmond Jouve (University of Paris I), general secretary of the French Association for Study of the Third World, who completes his paper with two indices of the bodies and the people he mentions. Albert Mangin, president of the chamber at the Paris court of appeal and vice-president of IDEF, deals with problems of African Law (teaching and research) and Martin Kirsh, leading lawyer at the Paris court of appeal, discusses labour laws overseas.

Finally, medical inspector-general Journiac, deputy director of public health and social action at the Ministry of Cooperation, presents Franco-Algerian cooperation in the health sector.

Each of these papers provides a clear, detailed account of French research in Africa south of the Sahara.

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