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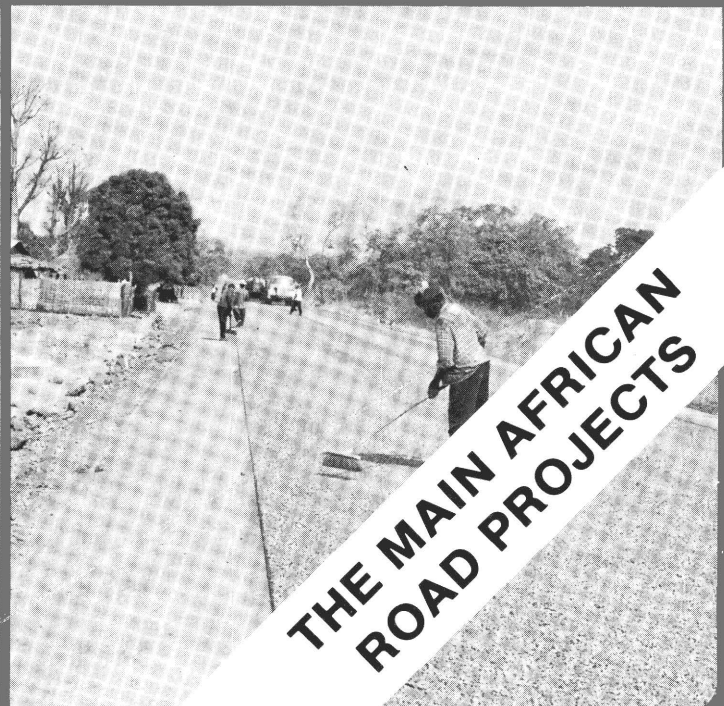
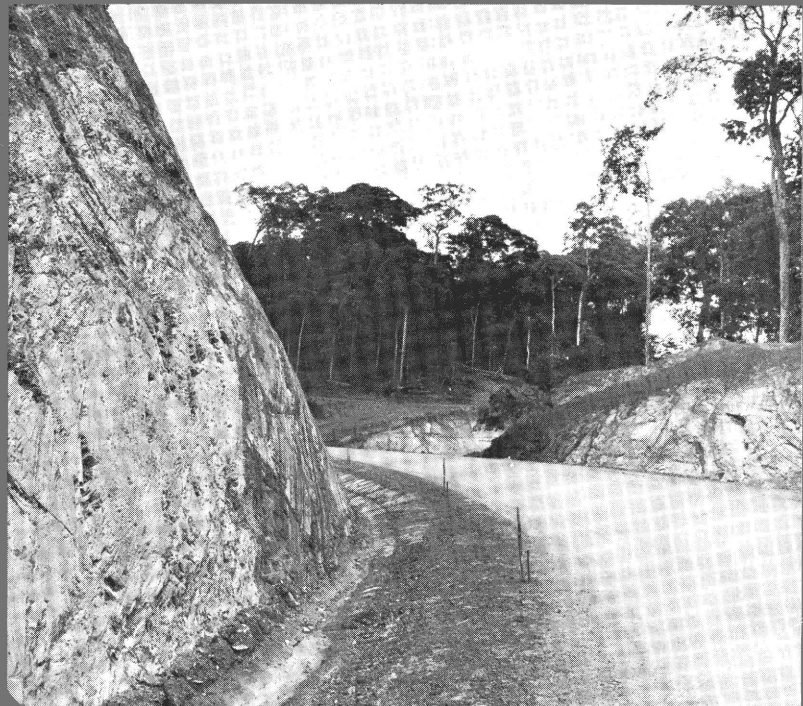


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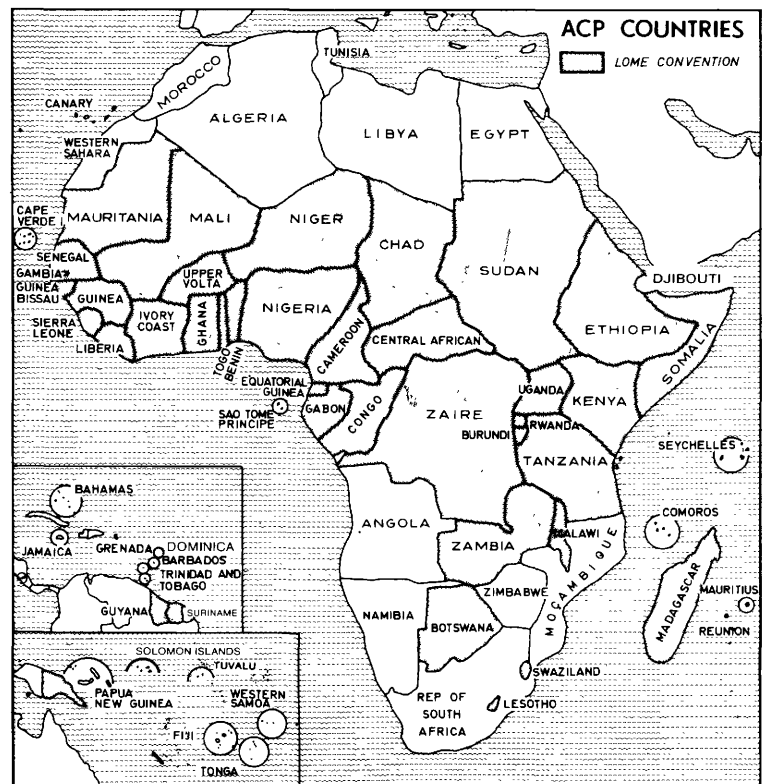
**THE MAIN AFRICAN
ROAD PROJECTS**

THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

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

THE ACP STATES

BAHAMAS	GHANA	SOLOMON ISLANDS
BARBADOS	GRENADA	SAO TOME PRINCIPE
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



Cover — The trans-African highway is no longer merely a project: (top) the Bafoussam-Bamenda section, in Cameroon, is now finished. Other national road plans are going ahead fast despite the natural and financial difficulties: (left) cutting through the Gabonese forest; (right) surfacing a main road in Senegal

Niger — Land-locked Niger is one of the biggest and least developed countries in Africa. It has been saved from abject poverty, however, by the exploitation over the last few years of its considerable uranium deposits. President Kountché describes the main lines of development, the progress achieved and the problems which still remain since his first interview in the *Courier* some four years ago. **Page 7**



Central African Empire — CAE Prime Minister Henri Maidou was in Brussels recently for discussions with the Commission on the implementation of the EDF indicative programme in his country. He outlines the economic difficulties of his land-locked country and gives his opinion on the results of the talks. **Page 38**

Sierra Leone — Famous for its diamonds, Sierra Leone is also trying to develop the agricultural base of its economy. Other minerals offer further possibilities. President Stevens explains his country's new economic priorities, his hopes for its future and the role of its relations with the Community. **Page 28**



Europe — Fabrizia Baduel Glorioso describes how the Economic and Social Committee fits in with the other EEC institutions and the growing importance of its role in EEC-ACP cooperation. Under her chairmanship, she hopes the Committee will give closer attention to development cooperation, as a new convention comes closer, since she feels it is a form of "historical, economic and cultural cooperation between different parts of the world which can lead to the solution of a world-wide problem". **Page 42**

Dossier — The UN General Assembly decided at its 32nd session to make 1978-88 "African transport and communications decade". Although transport and communications are an indispensable precondition of development, they cannot generate it in themselves, but must be part of an overall economic pattern. Our dossier looks at the main African road projects, which constitute a major aspect of the UN transport decade. **Page 56**



THE COURIER

AFRICA - CARIBBEAN - PACIFIC
— EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

No 54 — March-April 1979

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Shorter journeys for a stronger economy

Poor transport infrastructure is one thing all the ACP countries of Africa have in common. They are trying to build the infrastructure they need, but they are hampered by the many problems of an unfavourable environment, vast distances (particularly in the case of land-locked countries), low traffic density and widely scattered economic activity except at one or two points along the coast. Then there are the massive investments needed to develop the transport sector; it is often all or nothing, as a trunk road is of little use if it does not join up at least two economic centres. And unlike productive investments in industry and agriculture, this sector only yields indirect returns.

ACP leaders are aware of the inadequacy of their transport systems and the problems of improving them. In 1977, the 32nd session of the UN General Assembly declared 1978-88 African Transport and Communications Decade. In May 1978, the Executive Committee of the UN Economic Commission for Africa called for an international meeting to be held in 1979 to discuss the matter and, shortly after this, a major conference on transport in Africa (covered by the *Courier*) was held in Bangui. Even more recently, after their 7th session in Yaoundé on 16-18 November 1978, the members of the coordinating committee for the Mombasa-Lagos trans-African highway signed the statutes of the authority which will be governing the road. These statutes, which the states concerned will have to ratify, provide for an administrative board (the transport ministers), a directorate-general and an advisory board (the funding agencies). The seat of the authority will be in Bangui. The director-general and his deputy will be appointed at the first meeting of the administrative board. The UN Development Programme has announced that it will be giving the coordinating committee one million dollars for facilities for the authority.

The 6310 km trans-African highway will go across Kenya, Uganda, Zaire (1547 km), the CAE, Cameroon and Nigeria. The Congo, Gabon, Rwanda, the Sudan and

Chad will all have link roads to the highway, so they too have signed the statutes. The trans-African will be one of the nine main international routes (the trans-Sahara, now under construction, is another) of the continent.

°°

The big trans-African road projects are an undeniably positive factor and one which is vital as far as regional development and forging links between the various countries of the continent are concerned. And the size of the projects forces the countries of Africa to cooperate not just with each other, but with the EEC as well, particularly as regards financing and technical cooperation. This is one more illustration of European/African interdependence, which is the economic foundation for cooperation.

Transport is particularly important in the development process because it concerns the whole of the territory and all levels of economic activity. It is not a special field that can be studied separately or worked on in isolation. Quite the opposite: it is a link between the different sectors and factors of the economy. There can be no development without transport, but transport alone is not enough, since it must be part of an economic whole which it both shapes and serves.

So transport no longer just keeps pace with development. It has a positive effect on it. Are not roads sometimes said to create traffic? And it goes without saying that transport brings people closer, generating all kinds of new needs, facilitates travel, encourages the growth of settlements and is a powerful factor of social change.

Africans are great travellers and they have always been particularly sensitive to the links between the economy and the heart. As one of Niger's proverbs says, "Wither the foot cannot go, the heart cannot go". □

ALAIN LACROIX

Outcome of the ACP-EEC Ministerial Conference on 21 December 1978

The following was issued jointly by the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers and the ACP Secretariat.

At the closing meeting of the ACP-EEC Ministerial Conference on 21 December 1978, Mr von Dohnanyi, President of the Council of the European Communities, Joint Chairman of the Conference, proposed that the Conference take note of the reports drawn up by the three Working Parties responsible for examining the following points:

- trade cooperation and Stabex;
- industrial cooperation, origin, energy and sea fishing;
- financial and technical cooperation, regional cooperation, least-developed, landlocked and island ACP States and agricultural cooperation.

He also proposed that the Conference instruct the negotiators to take the greatest possible account of these reports in their further discussions.

Minister Tapa, President of the ACP Council of Ministers, Joint Chairman of the Conference, gave his agreement to these proposals on behalf of the ACP States.

Finally, the Conference instructed the co-Secretaries of the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers to proceed with the finalization of the above-mentioned documents.

The Conference documents, as finalized by the co-Secretaries, are as follows.

I. Trade cooperation

The Conference chiefly discussed four issues:

- free access to the market;
- the safeguard clause;
- generalized preferences;
- trade promotion.

The Conference instructed the negotiators to examine possible ways of improving the conditions of **access to the EEC market** for products in respect of which the ACP States were encountering access difficulties under the present Convention, it being understood that the principle of free access is maintained for all products originating in the ACP States which already enjoy such access.

The parties affirmed their intention to use the **safeguard clause** only in the

event of necessity and not as an instrument of protectionist policy. Recourse to consultation procedures should be envisaged wherever possible with a view to reaching amicable arrangements between the parties.

Whilst recognizing the obligation on the EEC to shoulder its responsibilities towards all developing countries, in particular through the **Generalized System of Preferences (GSP)**, the Conference took note of the EEC's willingness to take account of the interests of the ACP States with which it has preferential relations where these interests clash with those of other developing countries. The Conference agreed that such difficulties as the GSP might cause should be examined case by case and pointed out that this was already the approach of the ACP-EEC Working Party on the effects of the GSP, whose work should be intensified.

The EEC noted the wish expressed by the ACP States that they be guaranteed a margin of preference or granted compensation in the event of a reduction in that margin. It expressed its reservations regarding this request, which it considered incompatible with the principle of the autonomy of its commercial policy. Both parties nevertheless agreed to continue their discussions on the matter.

The parties expressed their satisfaction with the convergence of views recorded with regard to **trade promotion** measures designed to enable the ACP States to gain maximum advantage from the arrangements for free access to the EEC market. They emphasized the importance of intensifying, diversifying and increasing the effectiveness of such measures, notably by making them possible from the production stage. The negotiators will examine the objectives and methods in this field in greater detail, whether the Community market, ACP penetration into other markets or the development of intra-ACP regional trade is involved.

II. Stabilization of export earnings

The Conference examined the characteristics and functioning of the STABEX system with regard to the following aspects:

- list of products covered;
- dependence and fluctuation thresholds;
- impact of inflationary phenomena;
- loss cover;
- reconstitution of resources made available to the system;
- free use of transfers;
- destination of exports covered.

It agreed on the following guidelines:

1. The Conference recognized that products benefiting under the STABEX system should be included in a list adopted by mutual agreement.

Nevertheless, the products give rise to different problems depending on their nature, and it was agreed to examine the problems posed by new products case by case.

2. **The dependence and fluctuation thresholds** which exist under the present system will also be examined by the negotiators.

3. The Conference noted the wish expressed by the ACP States that account be taken of the problems arising from **inflationary phenomena**. It recognized that this problem, which is important but dependent on the world economy, had to be borne in mind by the negotiators.

4. The same considerations should guide the negotiators in their search for better **loss cover**.

5. With regard to the principle of **reconstitution of resources made available to the system**, from which the least-favoured ACP States are exempt, the Conference recommended to the negotiators that they review the provisions governing such reconstitution.

6. The Conference confirmed that the ACP States were at liberty freely to use **transferred resources** in the execution of operations which comply with the objectives of the system.

7. The Conference recognized that the STABEX system comes within the sphere of bilateral relations between the Community and the ACP States. It nevertheless recommended that the negotiators examine the problem of the **destination of exports covered**, with particular reference to trade between ACP States.

III. Industrial cooperation

Objectives

The parties noted that there was agreement on a large number of objectives set forth during the first phase of

the negotiations. Further negotiations will have to tackle problems of form as well as substance. One major issue of substance discussed revolves around the question of restructuring and redeployment. The ACP States noted the Community's response and its willingness to continue its already on-going policy in this field and to examine this problem in the future negotiations.

The ACP States indicated that they considered the Community's formulation somewhat general, and though they recognized that restructuring had to some degree to be seen in a worldwide context, they nevertheless emphasized that specific consideration should be given to a formulation which would recognize the particular nature of ACP-EEC development cooperation.

On the question of complementarity there was agreement as far as the concept is concerned. The negotiators were left to find an appropriate formulation.

Training

The ACP States indicated the need for a revised Article on industrial training which would contain specific commitments that would facilitate the acquisition and development of technology in the ACP States. They referred to their draft text on industrial training [ACP/706/78] which contains such pro-

visions. They also highlighted the deficiencies in the existing arrangements which are the result of inadequate funding as well as the weakness and inappropriateness of the machinery at present employed for undertaking industrial training programmes.

The Community's view was that the provisions of the present Convention offered a wide variety of facilities in this field, not only in relation to specific industrial development projects but also of a broader nature. In cases where some forms of training for industrial development had not been prominent in the various programmes, beyond the choices made by the ACP States in their national or regional programmes, the Community declared its willingness to discuss ways and means to remedy such possible weaknesses in the new Convention.

Both parties agreed to explore the possibilities for further improvement.

Sectoral consultation

Attention was also given during the discussions to the Community's proposals to utilize the mechanism of consultations at sectoral level, within the framework of ACP-EEC industrial cooperation. As indicated by the Community, such consultations would improve the flow of advance information at the disposal of both public and

private economic agents so as to contribute to better decision-making. This could constitute an element facilitating the redeployment process referred to earlier in this report.

The ACP States took note of this proposal. It was agreed that this would be a subject for further negotiations.

Fund for industrial cooperation

The ACP States explained that the evolution of ACP-EEC industrial cooperation was now such that a special supplementary fund was needed to cover deficiencies in the existing arrangements and to meet the range of needs observed in the industrial development of the ACP States. In particular, they stressed that the existing financial institutions did not at present offer the scope and flexibility to respond to these new developments. Moreover, the ACP States emphasized that such a special Fund would not create any additional institutional difficulties and with minor adjustments it could readily be added to the existing institutional framework.

Another aspect which the ACP States stressed was that the Fund, in order to be effective, should be jointly managed and could be open-ended in terms of the sources of funds.

The ACP States finally noted that the rationale for a Special Industrial Devel-



The ACP side at the Council of Ministers session in December

opment Fund was adequately presented in their memorandum [ACP/699/78].

The Community's opinion on this subject can be summarized as follows: the major emphasis should be put on the objectives for industrial cooperation and the possible problems that may exist in this respect. On many of these issues agreement has already been reached, and the Community is fully prepared to study, together with the ACP States, any weaknesses and shortcomings of the present Convention in a constructive manner. However, the Community is not convinced that special financial provisions should be made for this purpose and considers that no new organs are required.

Both parties agreed, however, to continue the discussions on these issues during the second phase of the negotiations.

Investment promotion

On the question of investment promotion, the ACP States stated that they were awaiting a Community proposal on the subject, to be discussed during the second phase of the negotiations.

Energy

The ACP States and the Community agreed that this item remain on the agenda for the second phase of the negotiations.

IV. Rules of origin

The Community and the ACP agreed on the need for the ACP States to speed up the development of their manufacturing industries. The Community noted the concern of the ACP States to the effect that the existing stringent rules of origin frustrate the establishment of industries at the feasibility stage of investment planning, thus making it impossible for the ACP States to make more extensive use of the derogation clause (Article 27 of Protocol No 1).

The two parties are bearing in mind that due attention must be paid to the fact that any relaxation of the rules of origin should not prejudice the interests of the ACP States. The ACP States, while noting the concern of the Community with regard to any deflection of trade which could result from the extension to third countries of the cumulative origin provision, pointed out that a reasonable compromise could be arrived at, as the existing rules of origin went far beyond what would be reasonably required to prevent third countries from benefiting from ACP preferences.

The two parties agreed there was a

need to examine more flexible procedures in respect of derogation. At the same time the memorandum submitted by the ACP States would be examined in the course of the negotiations, given the need to attain the objectives of the Convention.

Furthermore, the Community is prepared to consider concrete and valid cases to be given by the ACP States and to be examined in the framework of the Convention's institutions.

V. Sea fishing

The Community made a statement on sea fishing (see *Annex*). The ACP States noted this statement.

VI. Financial and technical cooperation

The Conference took note of this chapter in the light particularly of the statements on the matter made by both parties.

The Conference recorded that the primary aim of the **principles and objectives** of financial and technical cooperation was to promote the economic and social development of the ACP States in its entirety on the basis of the priorities laid down by those countries.

The Conference agreed to define a new concept of financial and technical cooperation based on the mutual advantages of the parties.

As regards the **detailed arrangements** for financial and technical cooperation, the Conference proposed that an effort should be made, in an open-minded spirit, to provide for the increased and effective involvement of the ACP States in the administration and supervision of financial and technical cooperation.

This involvement will be at the various stages of implementation of projects and programmes, notably:

- programming;
- the preparation and appraisal of financing dossiers;
- definition of the criteria for selecting projects;
- and in cases where a financing dossier is rejected (information on reasons).

The Conference also proposed that every possibility be sought to make the procedures more flexible and less cumbersome, in order to increase the tempo of EDF operations, particularly on commitments and payments.

In addition, the new Convention should provide for periodic discussions on difficulties and blockings liable to

slow down or jeopardize the implementation of financial and technical cooperation.

The Conference took note of the ACP States' intention of submitting a written communication on this subject at an early date.

As regards the determination of the funds needed to implement financial and technical cooperation, the ACP States expressed their view that the fixing of the overall appropriation, rather than being the subject of last-minute negotiations, should be preceded by a joint discussion of the objective criteria so that the overall amount would take account both of the ACP States' development requirements and the effects of monetary erosion.

The Community took note of this proposal.

Furthermore, the ACP States suggested that the activities of the EIB be redefined so that the latter might play a role better suited to the development needs of the ACP States; this would involve an increase in the Bank's resources.

Lastly, while endorsing the principle of the indivisibility of the EDF, the ACP States requested that the flexibility ensuing therefrom should not impede the fixing of certain percentages for resources allocated to priority operations such as STABEX and regional cooperation.

The Community, for its part, noted the ACP States' suggestions and proposals.

VII. Regional cooperation

The Conference noted with satisfaction the results already obtained during negotiations on regional cooperation and in particular on the definition of the objectives of such cooperation.

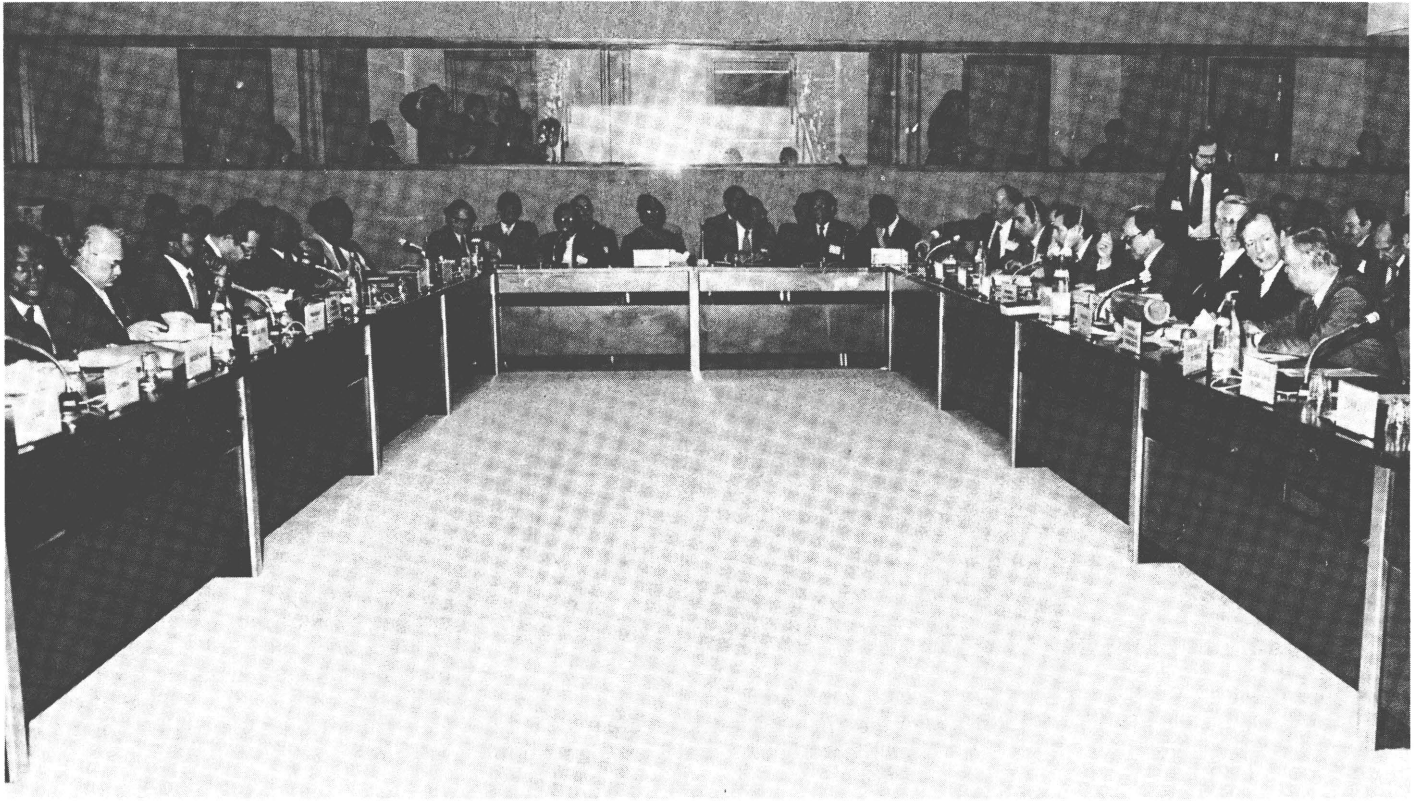
It signified its agreement to the idea of increasing the appropriation to be earmarked for regional cooperation from the sums available under the EDF and to the desirability of seeking co-financing with other providers of funds.

VIII. Least-developed, landlocked and island ACP States

The Conference recognized the need for special treatment of the least-developed ACP States.

It also agreed to devise means of taking into account the specific problems confronting the landlocked and island States.

The ACP States recalled that the



The EEC representatives (right) at the meeting in ACP House

problem of debt relief featured among the negotiating topics already agreed upon and requested the Community and the Member States to look into the possibility of partial or total cancellation of the least-developed ACP States' debts.

The Community stated that it was in no position to enter into a commitment in this connection, stating that it did not feel that this request came within the context of the present negotiations.

Nevertheless, the Community did not rule out the principle of examining this question in an appropriate forum.

IX. Agricultural cooperation

The parties confirmed the crucial importance they attach to agricultural promotion and the rural development of the ACP States and to improving the security of their food supplies.

They instructed the negotiators to seek, in the light of the general objectives and guidelines identified by mutual agreement, means of strengthening agricultural and rural cooperation. In this connection, the parties noted the convergence of their views on the importance to be given to training and to the availability of experts and mixed teams of specialists. The negotiators will examine whether institutional adjustments to the present provisions are necessary.

They will also discuss in greater detail possibilities for more effective means of combining the use of Community food aid with financial and technical cooperation, while respecting the autonomous nature of Community food aid.

The two parties also agreed to continue examining the issue of the supply of surplus agricultural products to the ACP States.

ANNEX

Community statement on sea fishing

As it intimated in July and confirmed in September at previous meetings, the Community would like the future Convention to contain general provisions regarding sea fishing, more particularly as regards fishing by vessels flying the flags of the Member States of the Community in waters within the jurisdiction of the ACP States.

This question was the subject of a joint declaration annexed to the Lomé Convention, which set out the principles of the ACP States; willingness to negotiate with the Community Member States concerned and of non-discrimination between them or between them and third countries.

Since that time a fundamental change has taken place because, in a Resolution dated November 1976, the Council of the Community recognized

the exclusive competence of the Community as regards fishing. Henceforth, it is for the Community to negotiate international agreements in this field.

For this reason the Community takes the view that the future Convention should incorporate a text which takes account of the Community competence in this field and of developments in the law of the sea over the last few years. We consider it to be in our mutual interest to develop fishing activities by vessels flying the flags of the Member States in waters within the jurisdiction of the ACP States under agreements which include advantages for the latter beyond, and therefore additional to, financial and technical cooperation measures and which take into account the development of their own fishing activities and their fish stock conservation policies.

Without entering into the details of this matter, the Community would like at this juncture to clarify two points:

- the text the Community wants would, like the present text, be confined to laying down general principles. The fisheries agreements as such would remain bilateral acts negotiated case by case between the Community and each ACP State concerned as is the case for the current negotiations;
- both the text and the bilateral agreements would in no way rule out the possibility for each ACP State of applying, as part of its programming, for EDF assistance for development projects in its national fisheries sector.

□

NIGER

“The revenue that uranium is beginning to bring in should not be taken to mean that Niger can do without aid”

Lieutenant-Colonel Seyni Kountché (*)

Niger is one of the biggest countries in Africa and one of the least developed. It is land-locked, much of its territory is in the Sahara desert and most of its population live along the Niger river in a strip 1 600 km long. This expands in the south to a width of about 200 km and in this area there is sufficient rainfall for the staple crops, millet, sorghum, groundnuts and cotton. Some 15-20% of the population are nomads. Agriculture and stock-raising, the basis of Niger's economy until fairly recently, were severely hit by the 1969-73 Sahel drought.

Uranium has come to the rescue of the economy in recent years and Niger is now the world's fifth biggest producer of this ore. There are other mineral resources, but the government has given priority, under a tightly-controlled programme and budget, to agriculture and the reconstitution of the livestock. The Head of State was first interviewed by the *Courier* four years ago; Colonel Kountché now outlines the work that has been achieved since then, the basis of the development effort and the problems that remain.

► *In the first interview you gave the Courier about four years back, you explained how you had begun to modernize the country and develop the economy. Has your realistic, pragmatic and rigorous policy begun to bear fruit?*

— You no doubt remember what conditions were like when Niger changed its regime five years ago.

There was an economic slump because the authorities, or more properly the public finances, had deteriorated, and society had deteriorated because morals had deteriorated and it was every man for himself. The country had reached a point of no return in its political life. On top of that we had the drought, which left our people in a really terrible state. Our first job was to straighten all this out.

I shall not stress how the international community came to our assistance with food aid. From the point of view of national recovery, we had to revive a certain national spirit, not just in the population as a whole, but throughout the ranks of all who served the state. Discipline was as necessary as financial rigour and austerity. Politically speaking, we had to take account of what was happening at home and abroad and, most important, we had to be careful, in our economic and social policy, not to apply rules that were not right for Niger. We had to try and stick to things that were in keeping with our

life-style. This obviously brought results, but I would prefer people on the outside to assess our achievements. If I do it, what I say will be taken as self-glorification on the part of myself and my team.

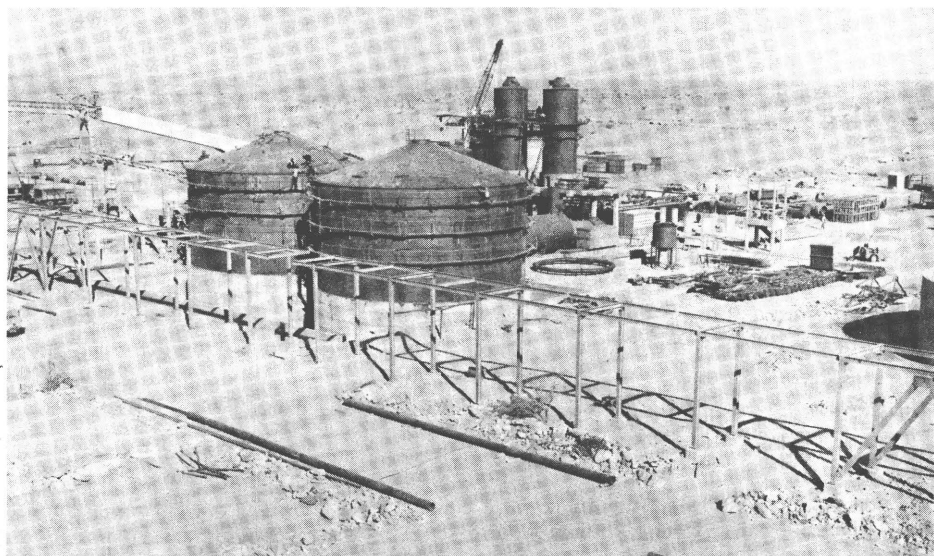
Uranium

► *This first answer has shed light on the essential facts that have shaped your activity over the past few years. Now I should like talk about uranium. Can you outline the policy for developing this resource since you have been in power?*

— I summed all this up, I think, on 22 April 1974, in one sentence. I said that we could only exploit minerals on a national basis, that is to say, within the framework of some sort of system that would better the economic and social development of our country. This is still the keynote of our policy. But as far as the exploitation of our national resources, particularly uranium, is concerned, far be it from us to reject the idea of help from the outside world.

We obviously haven't the know-how or the resources to do it alone and we are forced to call on external aid for help.

However, particularly because this is our only asset at the moment, we want our uranium to be exploited rationally. We must both safeguard the future and we must enable our partners to get what is due to them. And we want the profit from uranium to be ploughed back into the development of our country.



Early photo of the Arlit uranium mine, producer of the first trickle of what is now a flow of export earnings

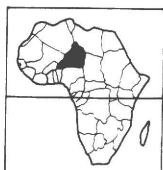
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(*) President of the Supreme Military Council, Head of State and Minister of Defence.

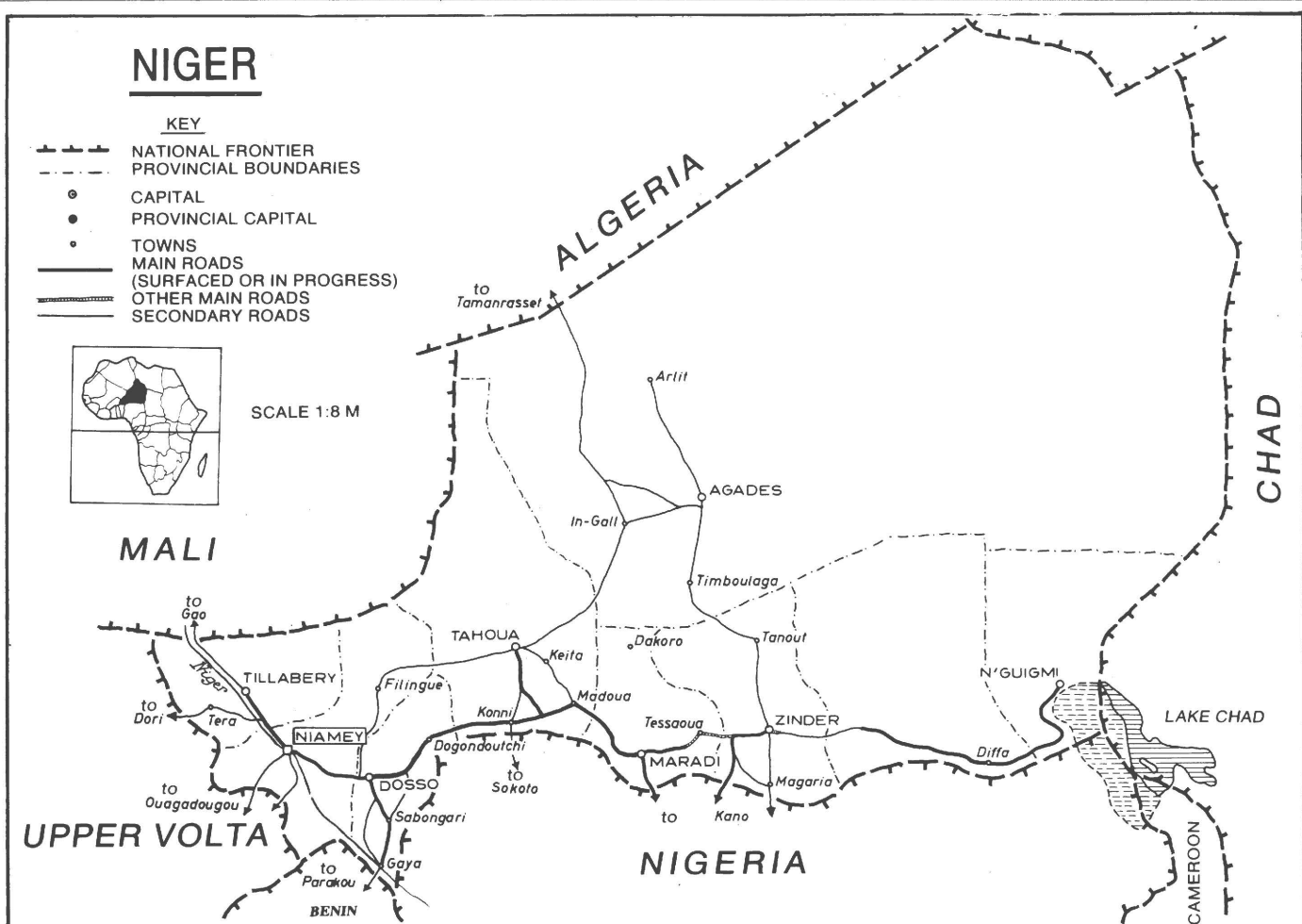
NIGER

KEY

- +—+— NATIONAL FRONTIER
- - - - - PROVINCIAL BOUNDARIES
- CAPITAL
- PROVINCIAL CAPITAL
- TOWNS
- MAIN ROADS
(SURFACED OR IN PROGRESS)
- OTHER MAIN ROADS
- SECONDARY ROADS



SCALE 1:8 M



Area: 1267 000 sq km

Population: 1976: 4730000; rate of increase: 2.75%; population aged under 15: 42.99% (1974); working population engaged in farming: approx. 90%

Capital: Niamey (150000)

Other main towns: Zinder (40000), Maradi (42000) Tahoua (30000) Agadez (10000)

Official Language: French

Date of independence: 3 August 1960

Political regime: Presidential republic

Head of State: Lieutenant Colonel Seyni Kountché

Member of: UN, OAU, ECOWAS, CEAO, OCAM, UMOA, Franc area, River Niger Commission, Lake Chad Basin Commission, Entente, ACP

Currency: CFA franc; US \$ 1 = F CFA 241.95 (February 1978)

GNP 1976: at market prices: US \$ 740 m; per capita: US \$ 160

Main products (1976):

agricultural: millet: 1195 m t; sorghum: 307900 t; roots and tubers: 311600 t; unshelled groundnuts: 95500 t; rice: 29200 t

livestock: 2.7 m cattle; 27000 pigs; 7.4 m sheep and goats; 260000 camels

manufactured goods: uranium: 1460 t; tin concentrate: 84 t (1975); electricity: 65 m kwh; cement: 18000 t (1975)

Foreign trade (1976):

Imports: US \$ 110 m

Exports: US \$ 86 m

Trade balance: deficit: US \$ 24 m

Main exports (1975): groundnuts: US \$ 11000; cotton: US \$ 64000; cattle: US \$ 10014 m; sheep and goats: US \$ 6.932 m; groundnut oil: US \$ 4.786 m; uranium ore: US \$ 55.438 m

Main imports (1975): machinery and transport equipment: US \$ 28.118 m; other industrial products: US \$ 22.979 m; raw materials: US \$ 16.631 m; foodstuffs: US \$ 11.946 m

Major export destinations (1975): Eur 9: US \$ 60.813 m (of which France: US \$ 58.093 m, United Kingdom: US \$ 1.144 m); other tropical African countries: US \$ 26.966 m; USA: US \$ 2.351 m

Major import sources (1975): Eur 9: US \$ 44.781 (of which France: US \$ 31.024 m, West Germany: US \$ 5.043 m; United States: US \$ 12.481 m;

other tropical African countries: US \$ 23.646 m

Budget 1977-1978(1): F CFA 43400 (US \$ 176.7 m), of which operational budget: F CFA 30400 (US \$ 125.74 m), investments: F CFA 13.000 m (US \$ 52.9 m)

Development plan(1): three-year plan 1976-1978 provides for F CFA 88.000 m (US \$ 368.23 m) and F CFA 48.000 m (US \$ 200.85) for the quasi-public, semi-public and private sectors.

Education 1977-1978: 159000 pupils in primary education; 18835 pupils in secondary and technical education; 850 students in higher education

Health: persons per hospital bed: 1526 (1973); persons per doctor: 41101 (1974)

Foreign aid (1976): total net public and private aid: US \$ 153.47 m, of which Member States of the EEC: US \$ 59.64 m, Japan: US \$ 33.69 m, Canada: US \$ 13.70 m, EDF: US \$ 32.85 m, other multilateral sources: US \$ 3.54 m

Source: From European Parliament, Directorate-General for research and documentation (1978).

(1) 1977 conversion rate: US \$ 1 = F CFA 245.67; 1976 conversion rate: US \$ 1 = F CFA 238.98.



President Kountché during his interview with the *Courier*

► *Could we sum up by saying that you are anxious to combine profitability and national independence, as you just said, with a gradual move to get all management posts taken over by national staff?*

— We ask our partners not to forget one very important thing about all societies that have been or are being created: the need to have national staff at all levels. Obviously, foreign cadres are needed to begin with, since we do not have enough of our own in Niger. But we do stipulate that nationals be trained to replace them. So our policy is the same here: priority for cadre training at all level. Furthermore, as I said in my answer to your previous question, as things stand, we need money for our development, but this should not lead us to exploit our assets irrationally or too rapidly. It goes for uranium today and it might well go for phosphates tomorrow. Or even oil.

Better communications and regional cooperation

► *Now I should like to move on to two of Niger's big problems, the need for communications with the outside world and the need for regional cooperation. These result from your geographical situation and not just economic and political considerations.*

Can you tell us how far the "uranium road" and the project to build the Cotonou-Parakou railway, which could ultimately be continued to Niamey, have got?

— The uranium road will be about 650 km long. First of all, it will go from Tawa to Arlit via Agadez. Work began back in April 1978; it is going well and a start has even been made on asphaltting. So the Tawa-Agadez-Arlit stretch is finished. The file is closed. That leaves the second section, from Arlit to the Assakama area on the Algerian frontier, that is to say the junction with the trans-Sahara highway which the Algerians have already got complete from the coast to beyond Tamanrasset. The question is which country will get to the frontier first, Niger or Algeria?

Now the railways. Obviously, our natural outlet on the coast is the port of Cotonou. But there have been a lot of hold-ups here. I think we are getting somewhere now, as I shall very soon be welcoming experts provided by French cooperation to carry out proper studies, with a view to seeking financing to pay for the project. But Cotonou must not be the only outlet, as traffic is on the increase. As I said recently, when I got back from my official visit to Togo, we shall reach something like 500 000 t, all products combined, hydrocarbons and dry goods that is, in 1979. Economically speaking, 500 000 t is beginning to be enough to make the railway worthwhile. The problem, in a nutshell, is to set up a real logistic system to get these 500 000 t from Cotonou and the various other ports. So, as well as carrying out studies on the Parakou-Niamey railway, we are also studying another route which will give us access to the port of Lomé.

This is not just a bilateral scheme between us and Togo. Upper Volta and Mali are also involved. Here again, we are making progress. Slowly perhaps, but surely. All the four countries concerned need to do is complete the feasibility study dossiers on our respective mining potential. In Niger's case, this means our iron and phosphate deposits.

So, as far as opening up the country is concerned, we are pursuing our policy for both roads and railways. But the schemes are very expensive and we are forced to plan implementation in conjunction with anyone who is willing to help us.

► *You have always said that Niger was in favour of regional cooperation and your country belongs to several regional organizations in West Africa, most importantly the CEAO, ECOWAS, and the Liptako-Gourma Integrated*

Development Authority. Don't you think that a regional organization will need to be formed for the Kandadji dam?

— In Europe, you are looking for unity. There were six countries to begin with, now there are nine and soon there will be 12 in the EEC. Niger belongs to the small but long-standing Entente Council and to ECOWAS. No country can live in isolation, whatever its economic or financial strength.

I do not think we will need to set up a regional organization for the Kandadji project. The dam will have three main functions. The third, navigation, can perhaps be shelved for the moment. The two main ones are electricity production and irrigation for agriculture, the latter being most important because 100 000 ha of land are involved. If we are to get as much electricity and as much irrigated land as possible, the dam must be 240-247 m above sea level, which would mean the River Niger flooding land in neighbouring Mali. But Mali also has a project to build a dam, the Lapsanga dam. Of course, if we flood the neighbouring territory, we will have to pay compensation and this will push up costs. This is a very important aspect for the Niger government to consider. And as Mali is planning the Lapsanga dam, we must coordinate our schemes.

But, as it is always a good idea to have more than one iron in the fire, our government has made a second proposal, to cut the costs of the dam and avoid flooding Mali's territory. Until our discussions with the Mali government produce a solution—they could drop the Lapsanga dam in a spirit of mutual cooperation—we have lowered our dam to around 230 m. This, of course, cuts the amounts of electricity we can produce as well as the amount of land that can be brought under irrigation. Instead of 90-100 000 ha of improved agricultural land, we might well only manage 70-80 000 ha. But this would mean we would not need the agreement of the sovereign state of Mali and the possibility of raising the height would still be there. The only country to be interested whatever the outcome would be Upper Volta. The Kandadji dam would make it possible to regularize the Beli, a dead or more or less semi-permanent river, to a certain extent. So, either way, whether we have bilateral or sub-regional cooperation, our plans will allow us to build all or part of the Kandadji dam, with complete independence, to meet specific economic demands.

Agriculture

► *Can we now move on to agriculture? Niger has a strip of agricultural*

land about 150 km wide along the river. Do you think that the hydro-agricultural improvements will mean this can be developed and yields pushed up, bearing in mind what you told me four years ago, that agriculture is your priority of priorities? Is it still?

— Obviously we notice certain things which lead us to take a closer look at our policy of self-sufficiency in food. The fertile strip is getting narrower because the desert is advancing. And the arable land is constantly deteriorating. There are two ways of tackling this and we have to tackle it, whatever the cost, as the problem is a priority one.

The first answer would be to upgrade the land by means of fertilizer, by making the peasant farmers aware of what needs to be done and by introducing new methods. Methods must change and considerable means are needed to change them. The second answer would be to shift our centre of gravity.

So far, hydro-agricultural improvements have been confined to land near rivers, but in some areas, we are now going to start building dams and even tapping underground water for irrigation purposes(1). But schemes of this sort are beyond our technical and financial scope and we shall be forced to ask the EEC to help.

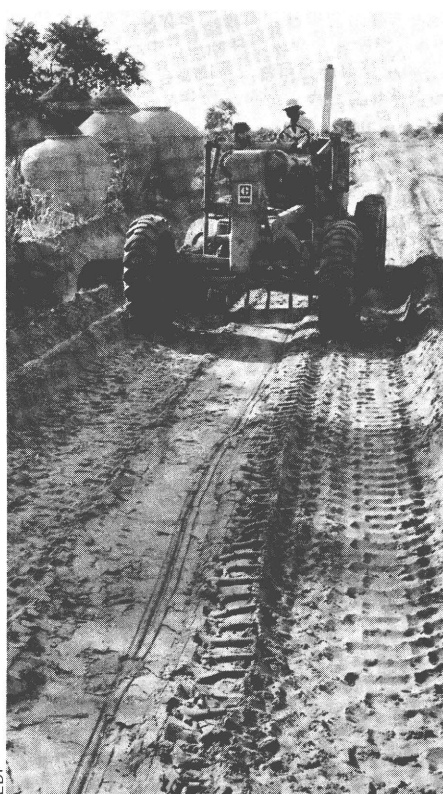
Cadre training

► You mentioned the importance of training for Niger, and for all developing countries. Since this is such an important problem, would you perhaps like to go back briefly and outline your policy in this field?

— You are right to say that this is an extremely important sector as regards the economic and social life of the country and the achievement of our development aims. You have to have cadres, but you have to have good ones. There is no point in having them if they have not really had the right sort of training. In a country like ours, where school attendance is low, it is very difficult to reach targets without raising the rates of educational coverage in a rational manner.

I say in a rational manner, because there is no point in pushing up the school attendance rate systematically and filling the streets with people without jobs. We have to bear in mind what

(1) ONAHA, the national hydro-agricultural improvement board, has just been set up as part of the campaign to achieve self-sufficiency in food. It will be financed jointly by the Niger government (next five-year plan) and external sources.



Roads are vital for overcoming Niger's land-locked isolation. This Madoua-Zinder link was financed by the EDF

the possibility is of finding employment for all, or most, of those who have been to school.

The second thing is to start by training those who will train others, that is to say, by teacher training. Without properly educated teachers and instructors in every field, it is very difficult to provide training at all levels.

This obviously means we have to open a certain number of technical and vocational establishments. We must expand the ones we have and open more. But above all, we must have technical schools of a reasonable level. Another aim is to have most of our cadres trained here in Niger and to leave very little training to be done abroad.

This is why one of the aims at university level at present is to have as many means as possible so we can implement the training policy. But such a policy must be properly thought out and in line with the development aims and priorities.

Public health

► Public health takes one of the biggest slices of your budget. Are you pleased with the results?

— One look at the health situation and you are tempted to say that what has been done is nothing compared with what there is still to do. But it has

to be admitted that there are, all the same, some real grounds for satisfaction. The results are there. We have had to cope with epidemics and with endemic diseases and we have had to make a proper job of providing health centres for the people. We are doing this with the help of the Community and other sources because we feel this is a priority sector. Without good health, any development schemes are difficult.

Relations with the Community

► Can we move on to your relations with the EEC, particularly under the Lomé Convention? I should like to know whether you are satisfied with the effect EDF aid has had on Niger's economy.

— I do not mind answering in front of the Commission delegate here, because I usually say what I think. Any cooperation, any aid must evolve in the light of demands from and conditions in the recipient country or population. The key to the success of any cooperation is really frank collaboration between the giver and the receiver. In the case of the EDF and the other international aid bodies, there have been errors on the part of everyone concerned. But it has to be admitted that, in Niger's case, we have got as close as possible to what this cooperation really should be and a big step has been made as regards adapting aid from the Community, in this case the EDF, to our country's economic and social development schemes.

This is in line with the spirit and the letter of the present Lomé Convention. EDF aid is only given for a specific programme drawn up by joint agreement, after considerable thought. That is not to say that I have nothing but compliments for the EDF, but let us say that, pending the next convention, it has to be admitted that we are genuinely satisfied with the help we are getting.

► Do you think that food aid should be continued?

— Obviously Niger doesn't want the tap turned off, as you never know what tomorrow or the next day will bring. On the contrary, we want the tap turned on more and food aid to flow faster.

► What points have attracted your particular attention in the present negotiations for the next convention?

— Let us leave aside the political issues bothering both ACP and EEC countries and get down to practical

details. In Lomé I, as I said in Brussels and as I have said to the Community officials who have visited us here, we must make a distinction between those countries whose economies have got off the ground, those who have their engines ticking over ready for take-off and those who have no engines at all, nor any fuel for them if they had. Otherwise the poorest will stay that way.

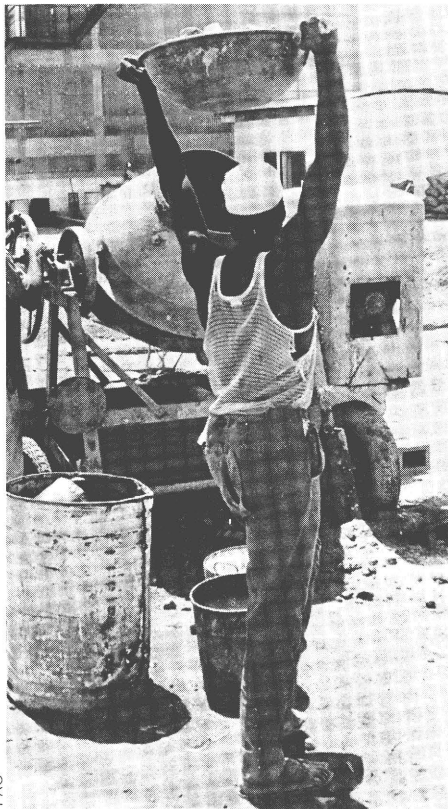
Secondly, we must also make a distinction between those who have natural advantages and those who have not. Niger is obviously badly off climate-wise, but it has plenty of mineral resources. That's the usual answer. But in fact, even if you have uranium or you have oil, it is difficult to develop without a thriving agricultural sector. Agriculture is the key and industrialization depends on it.

Another thing (and I know the UN is dealing with this, but however long will it take to find an answer?) is to make a distinction between those who are a thousand or two kilometres from the sea and those who actually have a coastline. If my pleas were to be heard, Lomé II would be better than Lomé I in this respect.

The outlook for Niger

► In your message to the nation on 2 August 1978, you sketched out the 1979-83 national plan. What are its guidelines?

— They are no different from those of the three-year programme. That is to say, our aim is still to achieve self-sufficiency in food and a certain indepen-



FAO

Building a better future on the site of the world's first millet-processing factory, at Zinder

dence within a certain interdependence. That, in a nutshell, is the future plan.

► In your New Year speech you said that the key to your action in the world was the affirmation of Niger's "personality". Can you comment on this?

— As I see it, any man or any individual, and of course any state or any nation, must have a personality of its

own. I know this has provoked some comment and that is why I want to make myself clear. Whether we are dealing with economics or with politics, we always want our position to be a national one, one that is in keeping with the spirit and the conditions of Niger. That is to say, we do not want to commit ourselves to things that might harm us or to things that are not right for us, particularly if they lead to stalemate.

► Niger seems to have the confidence of the international community and it also has one of the smallest external debts in the ACP group. Do you expect to have greater recourse to loans on the financial markets in future?

— I was expecting that question. EEC journalists have already asked me the same thing. If we have fewer debts than the other countries in the West African Monetary Union, in the Franc Zone or in the international community as a whole, it is because this is what we aimed for. Our policy has been a stringent one, and when our plan was launched it enabled us to apply to the various banks with very few debts to our name.

But this, combined with the revenue that uranium is beginning to bring in should not be taken to mean that Niger can do without aid or that it can do without grants and get by on loans. How much did uranium bring us in 1978? About CFAF 12 000 million. We expect it to be just over 20 000 million in 1979. Our total budget for 1979 is around CFAF 57 000 million.

Can this be enough to keep us going and enable us to develop with nothing

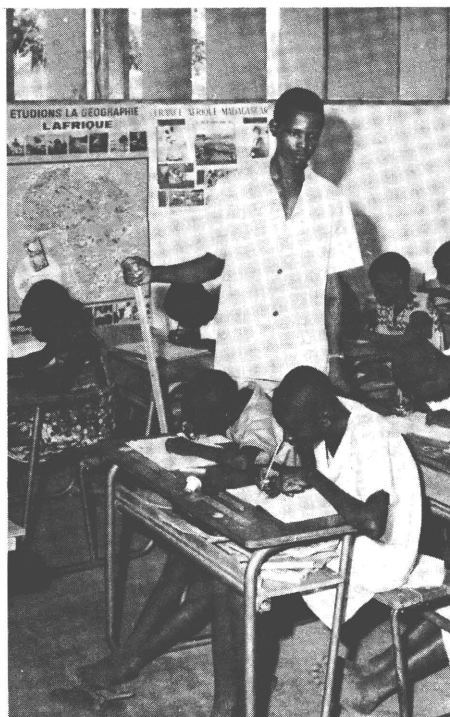


EDF



GREVIN AAA

Irrigation holds back the encroaching desert. An EDF-backed rice scheme in the Niger valley contrasts with the arid surroundings of these millet stores



*Education and training:
a priority in Niger's development*

more than loans, when there are countries with budgets of CFAF 200 000 million or 400 000 million which get grants and aid? So leave poor Niger alone! It hasn't finished sorting all its problems out yet. Don't let the new convention give Niger more loans than grants!

► *Last March you had a visit from the EEC development commissioner, Claude Cheysson, who said that Niger had made considerable progress. In 1978, the international press also frequently emphasized the progress your country has made in recent years. Do you share their optimism?*

— It would be illogical to say I was not pleased to hear what Mr Cheysson and other people said. Of course, our policy of austerity and the attitude we have adopted in all fields so far have enabled us to get results. But they are far from what we hope to get in the end.

It is true that the international community is concerned about our welfare. Quite apart from the fact that Niger has one or two raw materials, I like to see this as encouragement to help us solve some of our vital problems.

Briefly then, we think it is very difficult to get results and to lead a country towards development without ourselves adopting certain disinterested attitudes that take account of the concerns and motives and the international situation in all sectors. □

Interview by A.L.

Round table on Niger's economic situation

Mr Annou Mahamane, Minister of Planning, Mr Mai Maigana, Minister for Economic Affairs, Trade and Industry, and Commission delegate Mr Jean-Paul Martin discussed the economy with the *Courier* in Niamey.

Mineral wealth

► *Niger is the world's fifth largest producer of uranium and it is said to have the potential to move into third place by 1985. Is this true?*

A. Mahamane — Our aim is not to get into any particular position. The important thing is the effect uranium has on the national economy and on our development programme. This is what matters, as far as I am concerned. We are anxious to have a policy whereby our resources are exploited rationally and in a way that will help our development. That is to say we want to use uranium to boost some existing sectors and to start up others, and simply to meet social needs as well.

M. Maigana — I should like to add to what the Minister of Planning has just said. Our Somair company(1) has recently celebrated 10 years of activity and we also have Cominak(2), which was inaugurated on 18 December 1978 with the Société Minière project and will yield something like 2 000 t p.a. These are the projects which have already been defined and which have already or are about to be started. Then we have the Imouraren deposit. Negotiations on working it have been more or less completed, but nothing has begun in the field yet. It's a good thing if these four projects do place us high up in the league table, but the important thing in fact is that they should all fit into a proper government resource exploitation programme. I should like to add that Somair, which was designed to produce 1 500 t p.a., is due to be extended to yield 2 000 t p.a. With these four factories, we could produce something like 8 000 t p.a. in 1982-83. Two of the projects have actually seen the light of day, a third is being nego-

tiated and the decisions relative to the factory have already been taken. It has also been decided to expand Somair. The Imouraren negotiations have reached the point of no return, and other projects are on the drawing board as well.

Our uranium reserves are such that our production is high at the moment. We intend producing more, quite simply, as the Minister of Planning said, because we want to exploit our national resources to provide the necessary funds to inject into the economy.

► *If I brought up this question of position in the league table it was, as you stressed, to show just how important uranium production is for the national economy. Two of the companies now operating combine partners of different origins and Niger itself also participates. What is your country's stake in the two companies and how do you view this cooperation between foreign partners and the government?*

A. Mahamane — The underlying principle in the mining sector is that the state always participates in the working of mines. When the army took over in 1974, one of the first things it did was to increase Niger's stake in Somair. Before this, the state held 16.75%; after negotiations with our partners, this went up to 33.50%. The state held 31% of Cominak right from the start, so the policy of participation which began with Somair carried on with Cominak, and with SMTT and Inorarem, too.

► *Niger is paying a lot of attention to training. You have recently set up a school of mining to train cadres. Are you satisfied with the first results?*

A. Mahamane — I think it is too soon to assess the results of the school, since the first batch of middle-range cadres are not due to graduate until this June. It is only just beginning to be possible to see how the school is operating, this being Niger's first experiment of this type. But I do not think our first results are disappointing.

M. Maigana — It has not been easy to find teachers, but, thanks to the good will of our partners, the French mainly, and the help of the French Atomic Energy Commissariat, we are

(1) Société des Mines de l'Air (Air Mining Company).

(2) Compagnie minière d'Akouada (Akouada Mining Company).

now recruiting the teachers we need. We are fully staffed for 1978-79 and I think the school is now able to function normally.

The emphasis will be on practical training and on producing technical managers. We will have a better idea of how successful we have been in June, as the Minister of Planning said.

► *Niger is land-locked and the rise in oil prices has hit it harder than other developing countries. Coal has been discovered in Niger, I think, north of Agadez. I should like to ask you how much progress has been made with exploiting it. Hasn't a company recently been formed to handle this?*

A. Mahamane — We are still looking into the oil question. We are not exploiting it because we still have to find out how big a deposit it is, if indeed there is a deposit at all, and see whether there are enough reserves to make exploitation an economic proposition. A company has indeed been set up to deal with coal. It is called Sonichar(3). Mining has begun at Anou Araren about 50 km north of Agadez and we think, barring delays, that the power station we are building, that is to say the actual exploitation of coal at Anou Araren, could start in 1982-83. At all events, this is what we are aiming at and we are on schedule so far. I have visited the Anou Araren site myself and they have already begun work on the base on which the station is going to be built.

One or two technical problems have cropped up. There is clay in the soil and a certain amount of reinforcement was necessary because of the civil engineering. But the housing is on schedule and I think the cadres and the workmen who are coming to jobs in the power station and the mine will have their accommodation ready.

The first buildings will be a basis for future works. Work on the mine has already begun. The coal is 35 m down and when I went, they had got down to 10 m. Things have gone well so far, as they have not even had to use explosives, so the power station will be finished fairly quickly.

► *Niger gets a lot of sun. I think you had a meeting on solar energy recently in Niamey and I should like to know what Niger hopes to get from solar energy and if there is a possibility of it making any contribution to your energy supplies in the near future?*

A. Mahamane — We in Niger have already done something about solar energy as we set up a solar energy



(Left) Mai Maigana, Minister of Economic Affairs, Trade and Industry and (right) Annou Mahamane, Minister of Planning, with Commission delegate Martin beside him

office, called Onersol, a few years back. In the early stages, the idea was to carry out research into solar energy. The results of this have enabled us to open a workshop for the construction of water heaters, purifiers, solar ovens and cookers. So we do both pure and applied research now. There are no solar pumps made in Niger, but we do use solar pumps made by Sofretes in France.

As to the future, we think that, if we increase Onersol's means, we can get some of its products, like water heaters and solar ovens, popular in the neighbouring countries. In Niger at the moment, it is the water heaters that have been the most successful as we have used them in our clinics and hospitals to meet the patients' needs. And some private houses in Niamey also have solar water heaters. In the agricultural sector, we have an irrigation project going with the European Community and solar energy will be used here too. I visited the site a little while ago and I think work has begun now.

J.-P. Martin — Yes indeed. The EDF is currently financing a project to install two solar pumps. They were manufactured by Sofretes, but the solar captors were made by Onersol here in Niger. The first pump is due to be installed at Karma, to irrigate part of the rice growing area, and the other is for Tabalak where the agricultural unit has still to be created. Work has begun and there are also plans to install a second solar pump on this site, north of Tahoua, in the fairly near future.

► *To complete our information on mining, I should like to ask you about*

Niger's other mineral resources. How far have you got with the plans for the phosphates deposit and the iron deposit in the Say area near park W?

A. Mahamane — There are two phosphates deposits. One is in the Tahoua area. It is a very small one and you don't hear a lot about it, but it is quite important to us, nevertheless. Things are on a very small scale, although a workshop is now being built to crush the phosphates to produce fertilizer, all of which will be used by our own agriculture.

The W phosphates deposit would appear to be bigger than the one at Tahoua. The first samples have been taken and they are being analyzed in



“The top priority is agriculture”: EDF rice project in the Niger valley

(3) Société nigérienne du charbon d'Anou Araren (Anou Araren Coal Company of Niger).



FAO

After the terrible drought, "we have practically managed to reconstitute the herds"

Canada at the moment. We hope to get the results of this and to assess the size of the deposit in 1979. The Say iron project is not so far forward, although this deposit was discovered first. A pre-study has been carried out, with UNDP help, by the Niger-Nigeria commission. We are analyzing the reports now, but I should start by saying that one of the problems we are going to have is how to transport the ore. There will be extremely heavy loads to be brought out of a zone where access is difficult and considerable means will therefore be required.

► *How do things stand as regards producing cassiterite from the deposit a 100 kilometres north of Agadez?*

M. Maigana — The local people have been producing cassiterite, on a small scale, for years. Production has improved slightly in recent years thanks to the introduction of modern methods, but there has been less expansion than we hoped, largely because of the type of deposit we are dealing with.

Then there is a problem with water. There seem to be a number of ways of processing the mineral, but they all call for water. We had thought about building a large dam that would be useful for mining and for crops and livestock as well. We had a partner who was supposed to be helping us build this dam, but we haven't got anywhere so far.

A. Mahamane — The negotiations with this partner are not getting anywhere at the moment. We have a study of the dam. Costs are fairly high, it has to be admitted, and probably outside our partner's scope. Agriculturally

speaking, only a fairly small area could be brought under irrigation and, as far as health is concerned, we would have to be very careful about using the dam to provide water supplies for livestock.

Agriculture and livestock

► *Although you are getting encouraging results from your mining, you still have a certain deficit as far as food is concerned. Is agriculture, as President Kountché told me four years ago, still your priority of priorities?*

M. Maigana — As the Minister of Planning has just said, the top priority of our five-year plan is indeed agriculture. So what the President said four years ago still stands and we are even going to try, in the five-year plan, to go further than this and achieve total self-sufficiency in food.

One of our priorities within the agricultural sector is to get a proper mastery of water supplies from both surface and underground sources. So the five-year plan will concentrate on going into all these questions in depth. Our aims therefore have not changed and agriculture is still top priority.

► *You have a problem with your arable land, I think. There is a fertile belt along the River Niger where almost 80% of the population live. As your population is expanding fast, by something like 2.9% p.a., doesn't it seem likely that the arable land will be getting overcrowded?*

M. Maigana — It is true that the population is concentrated in this area. In the east, in the Sahel area, that is, there is a problem of water. The only

source is rain. But there is a certain advantage in the river valley, in that there is both rain and the possibility of irrigation as well.

I don't think we have exploited the full potential here yet and that is why we are planning projects to develop the river valley. The Kandadji dam is already considered to be part of this policy. We expect to gain 150 000 ha of land thanks to this dam.

There obviously is a problem of overcrowding in this part of the country, which we call "the useful part of Niger". But we think we can recuperate enough land to grow irrigated crops and build the dam so as to make use of the water we tap.

► *Can you tell us what production was like as regards food crops and groundnuts in 1978?*

M. Maigana — We had a shortfall of about 50 000 t of food crops in 1978. But we used our own resources to buy food crops abroad and friendly countries and international organizations provided the aid we needed to bridge the gap.

1978 really was a bad year for groundnuts, as the amount our national groundnut board sold was short of 3 000 t. And although we were able to provide the oil mills with about 13 000 t that year, it was mainly because of what we brought from neighbouring countries like Nigeria. Rainfall was poor and there was disease, what we call rosette disease. It was this kind of thing that caused production to drop. In 1978, thanks mainly to aid from the Community, we were able to sow 10 000 t of seed bought from Senegal, but, unfortunately, this did not have the results we anticipated.

► *Niger produces cotton. What was your last harvest like?*

M. Maigana — We are harvesting now, but no results are available as yet, as the sales campaign is still going on. In 1978, there was just enough production to supply our factory in Niamey and have a small surplus for export. But production was low in any case, because, since the drought, the peasant farmers have been more interested in food crops.

► *Is fish a useful and substantial addition to the diet in Niger?*

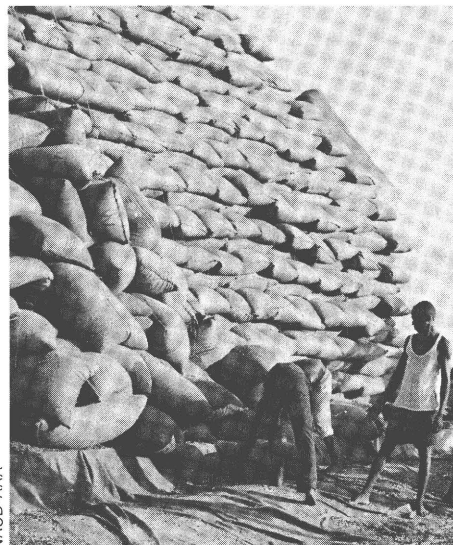
M. Maigana — Fish certainly could have been a useful addition, but as it is, our people eat very little of it. This is a sector we need to develop and I think that the next five-year plan could include provisions to see that our fisheries are better taken in hand.

► After the terrible drought that hit you recently, what are the prospects for livestock?

M. Maigana — The drought drastically reduced our livestock. In some regions we lost as much as 100% and in others 40% or 50%... but I think the overall figure was around 50%. The government and the people themselves have made a considerable effort here, and we have more or less built the herds back up again. In some areas, they have been reconstituted by as much as 120%! The demand in the maritime countries is such that this reconstitution of the livestock would be compromised if we met it. Which is why, so far, we have been very careful about exporting cattle and meat. We have a national company that exports these products, but for the past couple of years it has not exported any meat at all, as everything we have produced has been consumed at home. We are beginning, thanks to this company, to export cattle to Nigeria, and we have also just signed a protocol with that country on meat exports. The protocol has yet to take effect, however.

Now, since 1978, the independent dealers, that is to say the approved traders and the exporters of live cattle, have been allowed to export up to 200 head of cattle a year to Nigeria, Ghana, Togo or anywhere else. Licences for small animals, on the other hand, are far more sparingly issued, as we think that reconstitution here has been a bit on the slow side. Exports have to be controlled if herd reconstitution is to go properly, that is to say, fast.

► Generally speaking, Niger's development is picking up speed. Have you got enough cadres at different levels to meet the needs of this increasing development?



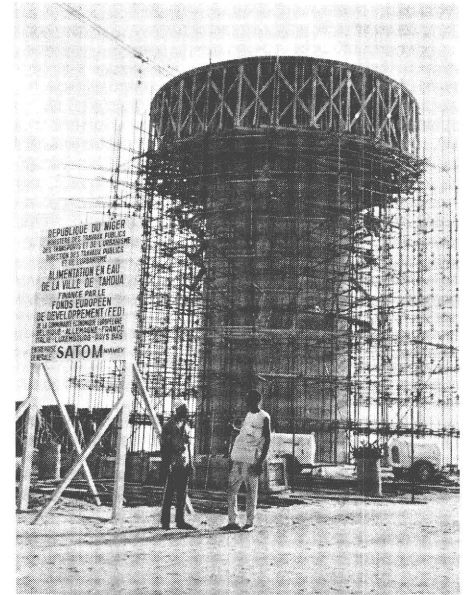
NAUD-AAA

Good years and lean years for groundnuts: 1978 was a lean year



EDF

Since the drought, a lot of work has gone into ensuring better water supplies. (Left) a traditional well; (right) a water tower built by the EDF for the town of Tahoua



M. Maigana — The Minister of Planning told you in a earlier reply that we have a shortage of cadres. We have not got enough to do everything our development demands. But I think that training prospects are quite promising, in that our young university is now building up and providing a wider range of courses. As far as school attendance is concerned, the opening of colleges of general education in the chief towns of most districts is beginning to pay off, and this year quite a large number of students passed the baccalaureate: 450 of them in the first and second sessions combined. Obviously, education is a long-term affair and the more sophisticated the training, the longer it takes.

Lomé I and "Lomé II"

► Training is indeed a long and costly business. Do you think the Community training programme provides an effective answer to some of your needs?

M. Maigana — The EEC training programme is in fact one of the biggest and I think we will be able to get the best from it under our five-year plan. The programme is well-tryed and regular, and I hope it will expand as training is also one of the priorities we are concentrating on in our development.

► Are you satisfied with the Stabex arrangements in the present Convention and, if not, what problems have you encountered with it?

M. Maigana — Every country has its own position or positions as far Stabex is concerned. We in Niger are fully satisfied, as we have had regular trans-

fers on the best terms because they have been geared to our position as a land-locked and a least-developed country.

The rigidity encountered in Stabex rules is, to my mind, a guarantee that things can and must be done seriously. Countries really do have to meet specific conditions if they want to benefit. It would be disastrous if they didn't. But with a country like Niger, one might expect the famous thresholds to be lowered. The products we have had which have qualified for Stabex payments have all been agricultural ones. So we do think that in the case of the less developed countries, like Niger, and in particular those in the Sahel belt, the negotiations should lead to the thresholds being lowered.

► You have received special instructions to follow the negotiations for "Lomé II". Apart from what you just said about the Stabex, what particular points interest you?

M. Maigana — As far as financial cooperation is concerned, some countries find the assessment of dossiers takes a long time. In Niger we don't seem to have this trouble. And I am not just saying that because Mr Martin is here. A large percentage of the indicative programme has already been implemented. So, if there are any improvements to be made in this respect, I think, like everybody else, that we should like the EDF to have slightly more resources. Another improvement would be to further extend the special concessions for the least-developed and the land-locked countries as far as financial cooperation is concerned.

Niger's trade with Europe is mainly based on uranium. Our agricultural

situation is not good enough to warrant major exports, but because of the increasing amount of capital goods we buy from Europe, we have a problem with imported inflation. I think that Europe should also help us face up to this. Another vital thing is to improve infrastructure. The cost of being landlocked is such that if it was possible to do something like extend the Parakou-Niamey railway and help us with our transport problems, it would make a large contribution towards cutting these costs. It is also important for our maritime neighbours, like Benin and Togo, where our President was recently, to get help to improve their infrastructure.

The National Investment Fund, debt and external aid

► *Niger's national finances are sound and your budget has shown a constant surplus recently, I think. Has this enabled you to make a substantial increase in the resources of the National Investment Fund?*

A. Mahamane — You only need to look at how the fund has developed over a certain period to see the truth of the matter. At one time it was expanding fairly slowly. It stood at 1 000 million in 1970, for example, but had barely reached 3 600 million by 1974. But that 3 600 million became 21 000 million in 1979. Another example: in 1978, the National Investment Fund stood at 14 000 million and this year it is 21 000 million, a 50% increase. And in 1978 it represented 32.6% of the total budget, as against 37% in 1979. Look at that rate of increase.

And you should also note the diversification. Different sectors have been benefiting. The trend has been better in

the social sectors, national education, for example, and health. The health budget went from 440 million in 1978 to 1 000 million in 1979. National education gets almost three of the 21 000 million at the moment. So, undeniably, the increase in budgetary resources did make it possible to boost the National Investment Fund.

► *Unlike many developing countries, you only have a small external debt. This has its good side, but is it not also the case that a reasonable amount of debt is a means of development? Isn't Niger's external debt a bit small at the moment?*

A. Mahamane — You are quite right, in my opinion. But there are a number of things to be borne in mind. First the general trends in Niger. Don't forget that loans tend to go to the already well-off. I don't mean that we have become rich, but that conditions have improved faster in recent years than before.

The second thing to bear in mind is that we must be careful. We must not start getting into debt in an anarchical manner just because things are looking up. We think we should decide which sectors can support debt and which ones cannot. The third thing is that we think that, in development, we should ourselves set the example. We should make an effort first ourselves before looking for outside help, whether that outside help be in the form of grants or more or less soft loans. And the fourth thing is that we must start by analyzing the situation. This is what we shall be doing this year. Even with the few debts we have, we have to find out when we are likely to have bottlenecks.

Of course, most loans include a grace period. But once the grace period is over, you have to start repaying and

that is when, if you haven't been careful, you can easily have a lot of repayments to make all at once. This is likely to interfere with the rate of investment established meanwhile, as a large part of your resources has to go to pay back the debt. We have seen some countries having to pay out 20% or 25% or even 40% of their resources to service their debts. Of course, over the next few years, we may be calling on funding organizations. But we shall still be careful.

M. Maigana — We obviously have to be careful about the points the Minister of Planning has just mentioned and take them into account in designing our five-year plan. He said it is wrong to apply for financing in a disorganized manner and I think one of our aims is to work out a five-year plan that will enable us to see how far we can commit ourselves to worthwhile debts on the basis of priorities and profitable projects which really justify it.

► *How much external aid do you get as compared to what you receive from the Community?*

A. Mahamane — As far as multilateral aid is concerned, it is still the Community that gives Niger the most. As far as bilateral aid is concerned, it is France. Cooperation between the Arab countries and the developing world, particularly Africa, is quite a recent departure. It is also fairly slow, as neither side has the right technical structures. The Arab countries, like the African countries, are short of cadres to get their dossiers compiled quickly. As to the particular case of Niger, if you tot up the bilateral aid from the Arab countries and institutions, especially the Islamic Bank and ABEDIA, it comes out in third or fourth place, after aid from the Community and the World Bank. But aid from the Arab countries



Besides using all its water resources to the full, drought-threatened Niger has been applying modern science to the ancient art of rain-making

is growing fast. Can we count on this rate being maintained? If we can, Arab aid will be in more than third or fourth place, although it may level off. I personally think that this is more likely.

Inflation and drought

► There was a 30% price increase between October 1977 and October 1978. And as well as inflation, there is the ever-present threat of drought. Don't these two things darken the somewhat brighter horizons we have just mentioned?

A. Mahamane — This is true. We have inflation. Twice over, as a matter of fact, as the world inflation affecting all open economies is exacerbated in our case by the fact that we are one of the poorest underdeveloped countries in the world, as well as being land-locked. We don't produce oil and we don't have a coastline, so we have problems with transport and we have problems with markets. The 1974 oil crisis had a particularly bad effect on energy importing countries, Niger included. What are the answers? I do not claim to be able to find an easy answer to the problem, as even the more developed countries have been unable to do so. However, it is true to say that an effort has to be made as regards planning and ensuring regular supplies of basic commodities. This is the job of the Minister of Economic Affairs and Trade, to try to slow down inflation.

Then there is the problem of internal inflation due to the major works that have been launched. There must be greater competition between firms and we must select the most important projects to get off the ground in this fairly difficult period. The second phenomenon you mentioned is a possible recurrence of the drought. Scientifically speaking, in fact, in spite of all the conferences on the subject, particularly the one in Nouakchott, no one has managed to find out whether drought is a cyclical thing and, if so, how long the cycle lasts, or whether it is an accident in a wet cycle, or whether the relative return of rainfall over the last two years is just an accident in a dry cycle. We have answers to none of these questions. So the partial solution Niger envisages is to exploit its water reserves rationally and to the full. From this point of view, the aims of the five-year plan are typical of our policy.

Alongside this, since 1973, we have been running annual artificial rain campaigns as a complement to other schemes and to give nature a helping hand. □

Interview by A.L.

Some examples of EDF projects in Niger

Building a modern road from Niamey to Zinder

by Rudolf KAISER(*)

Much of the aid the EEC has given Niger for its development has gone into improving the road network. Roads took 41.4% of the Community aid this country received under the first EDF, 22.8% under the second EDF and 53.6% under the third and, according to estimates, they will account for 41.2% of the overall programme under the fourth EDF. This reflects one of the main priorities of the Niger government and the importance of modern communications for a vast, land-locked country like this one.

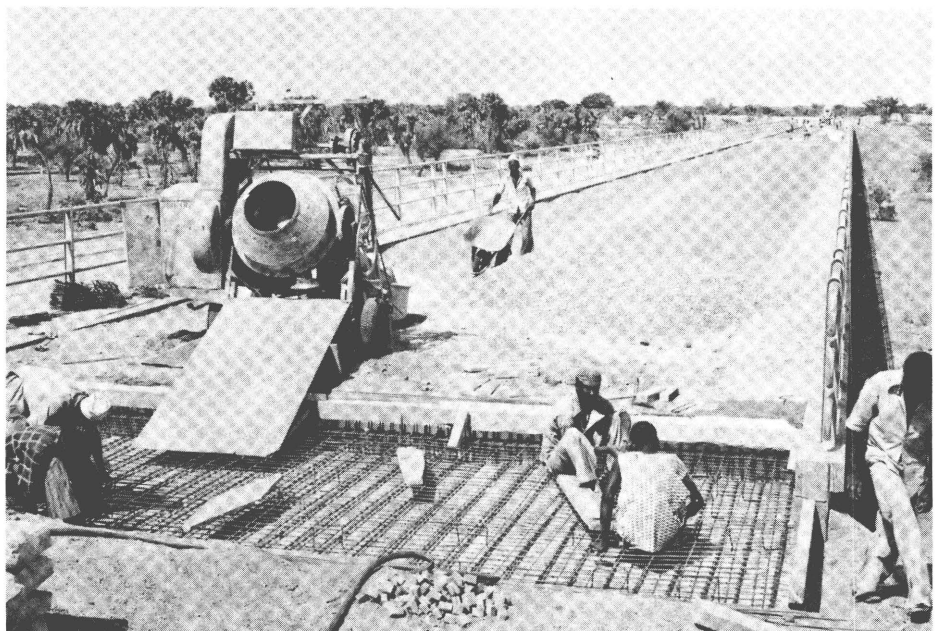
Because of the geographical situation, conditions in Niger are difficult and a severe handicap to the economy. Economic development faces serious obstacles, including the vast distances within the country and the problem of getting to sea ports abroad. Niger is in central Africa. It is 1 267 000 km² in area, being 1 000 km from north to south and 1 450 km from east to west.

Distances like these create complex problems of communication, since the most highly populated and fertile part of the country is a narrow strip that extends about 150 km west-east along the Nigerian frontier and, in these regions of Africa, migration and trade traditionally occur in a north-south direction. This situation pushes up the cost of transport and infrastructure and is a major obstacle to cohesion and unity, particularly since Niamey, the political capital and the focus of economic life and trade, is in the far west of the country.

And there are other drawbacks due to the fact that Niger is so remote. The shortest route to the sea, from the Malanville bridge on the Benin frontier to the port of Cotonou, is 760 km. Niamey-Cotonou is 1 060 km and Zinder-Lagos 1 510 km. The average distance over which Niger's imports and exports have to be transported is something like 1 500 km.

Obviously the cost of this transport (and all the problems that go with it) weighs heavily on the economy and is

(*) Adviser at the EEC Commission delegation



On the transition slab between the Yataoua bridge apron and the embankment



Spraying tar on pavements at Tessaoua

the cause of the considerable difference in the standard of living in Niger and its better placed neighbours—which have the added benefit of the transit operations on their territory.

The essential role of the road network

These few considerations show how important communications are to Niger's economic and political life and what problems they pose the government.

The complete lack of railways and the impossibility of using the river Niger for regular transport mean that transport on both domestic and international routes is almost solely dependent on the roads.

Government policy here is dominated by two considerations:

- the need for political/administrative and economic exchange, particularly between the richest region (Maradi-Zinder) and the capital, Niamey;
- the need to move goods in and out by the most suitable north-south links.

The government aimed to meet the first of these two needs with a vast programme of road improvements. This was introduced as soon as the first three-year (1961-63) plan began, was continued under the four-year (1964-67) plan and the ten-year (1965-74) drive, and is still going on today.

The aim was to make the country's main east-west highway (between Niamey and Zinder) usable by heavy traffic throughout the year. All Niger's centres would be linked to it. It would be the

backbone of the national road system and used to distribute most of the consumer goods and equipment brought in via ports in Benin and Nigeria, and to collect agricultural produce.

The various stages of EDF financing

Between 1965 and 1969, Community aid was used to upgrade and asphalt several sections of the Niamey-Zinder highway, as follows (starting from Niamey):

- PK 10 - PK 140 (Niamey-Dosso), PK 608 - PK 705 (Guidam-Roumji-Tchadaoua), PK 850 - PK 900.5 (Takieta-Zinder).
- Upgrading and asphaltting of the 75 km stretch from Takieta to the Nigerian frontier and asphaltting roads through 10 centres on the route.
- Constructing a 45 m two-lane bridge at Yattaoua (PK 775). In accordance with estimated traffic, the carriageway was made 8 m wide with a 3.5 m band of asphaltting. A total of 359.5 km of asphalted road were provided under this scheme, which cost 8 842 644 EUA.

BCEOM surveys in 1965 and 1969 suggest that, after these improvements, total traffic increased substantially (by 100-300%, according to the section). Lorry traffic increased less overall than lighter traffic, such as private cars and vans, but there was a clear increase in the average weight of transport vehicles. As early as 1969, total traffic passed the asphalt profit threshold, then 70 vehicles a day.

Between 1965 and 1969, Niger got 31% more vehicles. The biggest

increase was in articulated lorries (85% as against only 9% for ordinary lorries). Vehicle fuel consumption rose by 46% between 1964/65 and 1968/69, representing an increase of 22% for petrol and 92% for diesel.

A BCEOM estimate in 1968 (revised by the Ministry for Public Works) suggested that the changeover from an un- or badly maintained dirt road to an asphalted road reduces the cost of haulage by about a third. This gives an average overall gain of CFAF 3 per km on improved stretches and a saving of some CFAF 45 million on transport costs.

However, the cost of maintenance of improved and non-asphalted sections is about the same. Dirt roads are difficult because of the intensity of heavy traffic, and sections with a 3.5 m band of asphaltting are also difficult because of the rapid deterioration of the sides of the carriageway and considerable erosion of the earth shoulders. All this has influenced the design of later improvements.

In 1967, the AIC-Progetti consultancy in Rome began the study of the PK 424 - PK 495 section. Salzgitter (Germany) did the study for the PK 495 - PK 608 stretch and, in 1969, Denzinger (Germany) was asked to do the study for PK 240 - PK 222. Staim (Rome) did the study for PK 140 - PK 240 in 1970/71. Financing (total cost 779 765 EUA) for all these came from the 2nd EDF.

The PK 495 - PK 608 section was upgraded and asphalted between 1970 and 1973 and the work (including a 6.00 m band of asphaltting) was financed from the 1st, 2nd and 3rd EDFs. But very heavy rainfall created damage to the road and some places needed strengthening. The cost of the whole of the operation was 6.6 million EUA.

Work on the Dosso-Mamaoua (PK 140 - PK 495) section was carried out in 1973-76. Here again the asphalted band was 6.00 m. The cost of the work was 25.4 million EUA and the works supervision 631 000 EUA.

Modernization has been completed under the 4th EDF. It has involved widening the asphalted band on the Niamey-Dosso section (PK 10 - PK 140) to 7.00 m and upgrading the Tchadaoua-Takieta (PK 698 - PK 837) section, 141 km in all. Widening of the Niamey-Dosso section was completed in late 1978. Tchadaoua-Takieta will be finished in February 1979, thus completing modernization of the whole 930 km Niamey-Zinder highway and bringing the total EDF contribution to this road up to more than 60 million EUA. □

Developing market gardening in the Agadez area

by Pasquale RAIMONDO(*)

After several years of drought which decimated livestock and led to mass exodus on the part of the population, the Niger government, whose economic and social policy is based on improving the general standard of living, has given priority to the problems of some of the worst hit of its people, the nomads in the Massif de l'Aïr, the mountainous region in the north of the country.

In order to avoid any repetition of the catastrophic results of the drought and to try to get the nomads to settle by giving them a better standard of living, the Niger authorities planned to provide better water supplies for agriculture and stock-rearing in the Aïr.

The EEC has contributed towards these aims by providing 3rd EDF

financing, in the form of a CFAF 93 million (335 000 EUA) grant, for a three-year project to develop market gardening in the department of Agadez.

The idea was to develop irrigated crops in the Teloua Valley north of the town of Agadez at the southern tip of the Aïr mountains. The project involved upgrading existing market gardens and intensifying crops, primarily by providing the gardeners with oxen to work their pumps, and by constructing durable wells out of reinforced concrete to replace the traditional ones, which only last two or three years. The aim was to:

- make the department more self-sufficient in food;
- help supply urban and mining centres in the region with market garden produce;
- stop soil degradation by reforestation;
- develop producer cooperatives;
- settle people in the primary sector in the region.

The general structures of the Teloua Valley are typical of the Aïr. There are

806 gardens, haphazardly marked out along a strip of land 100-200 m wide and some 40 km long (between Agadez and Dabaga in the direction of Arlit, the uranium mining town) either side of the river bed.

The project involves sinking 500 concrete-clad wells and upgrading 800 plots (600 ha of land) supporting 4 500 people, 1 900 of them actually working the land.

Traditional methods are used on the irrigated plots. The growers are successful and fully cognizant with irrigation and water engineering techniques. Their ingenuity is apparent in the smallest details of their irrigation systems, which include log sills, small dispersal pans and counterslope feeder channels.

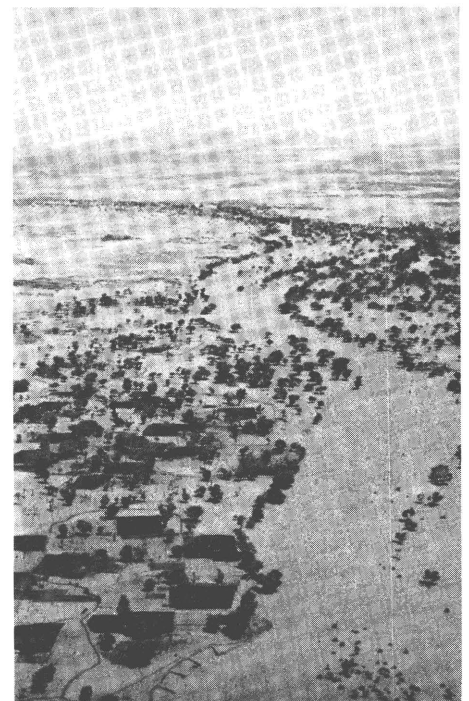
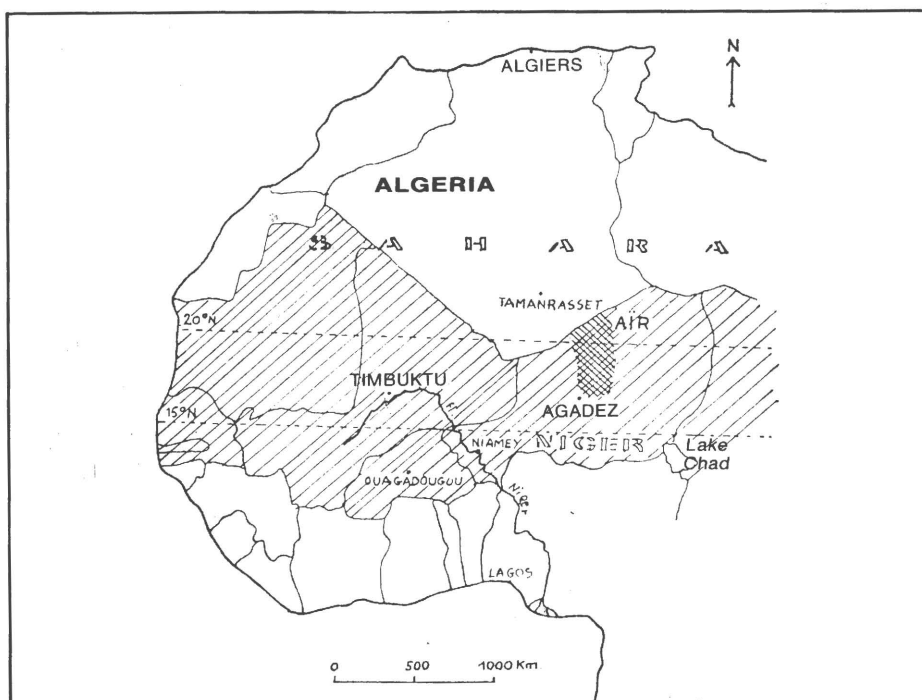
The growers work for about 320 days per year, as follows:

- 180 days on market gardening (corn, tomatoes, maize and various vegetables), from October to March;
- 90 days on dry season crops (melons, maize and alfalfa), from April to June;
- 50 days on winter crops (millet, etc.), from July to September.

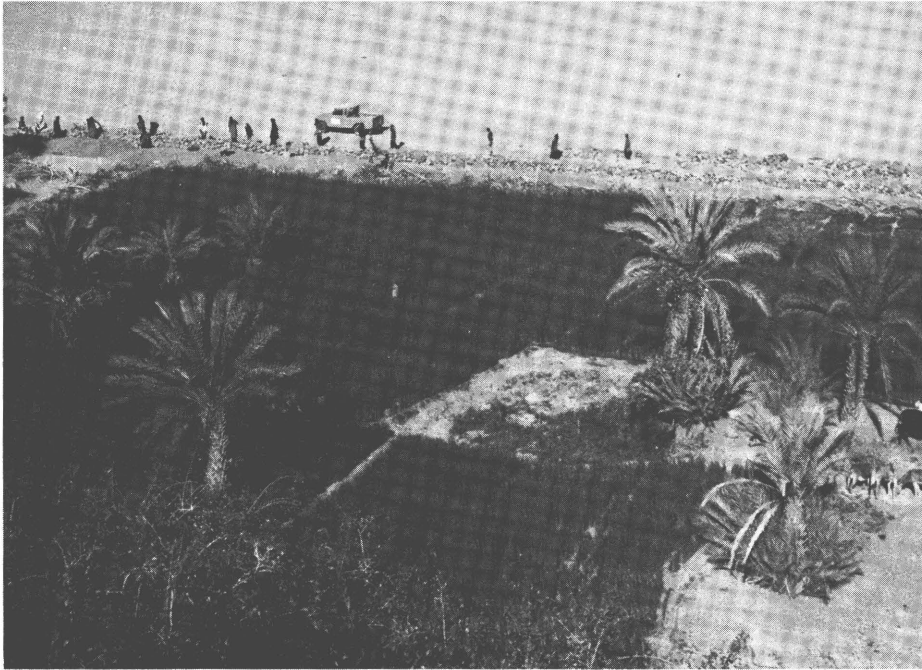
Underground water for irrigation is pumped from wells 10-15 m deep by oxen (the 'dalou' method), which raise a 50 litre leather bucket on each trip.

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(*) EEC delegation attaché.



The map shows the Agadez region and the aerial view shows how the desert is dotted with patches of green — the gardens



A market garden

The UNCC (Niger Credit and Cooperation Union) is in charge of implementing the project, under the supervision of the Ministry for Rural Development.

The UNCC departmental service is backed up by two French *volontaires du progrès*, one of whom is dealing with the construction of concrete-clad wells and the other with improved agricultural techniques.

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The following has been achieved since the project began in November 1977:

- 300 water-drawing oxen in service (300 planned);
- 106 reinforced concrete wells built (500 planned);
- 8t selected corn seed and 5t selected barley seed distributed;
- 12 700 (prosopis) hedge plants distributed;
- 4t fertilizer distributed;
- 2t insecticide for plant-health campaign provided;
- in-service training provided for 10 well-sinkers in early 1978 to ensure continuity of the well construction programme;
- six project stores built at cooperative level.

Project management is currently satisfactory and the two *volontaires du progrès* have proved very successful.

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The project was designed to meet the population's wishes as far as possible, so that later on there would be no

35 000 per draft ox, F 15 per hedge plant, etc.)

This will have many positive effects on production and on the environment. Each cement-clad well saves 20 adult doom palms 6ft high every 10 years and thus helps beat desertification, as the stability of soil in the tropics often depends on the tree cover.

Particular attention will be paid to the marketing of fruit and vegetables in urban centres and mining towns and to the popularization of improved agricultural techniques in year two of the project (the wells and the draft oxen were given priority in the early stages), so as to ensure the harmonious development of the region.

As in the Teloua Valley, development projects, most of them financed by non-governmental organizations, are now being run in various other valleys of the region.

But do these innovations and attempts to ring the changes contribute to regional development? Will they improve the standard of living of the Tuaregs?

In the five years since the period of desolation (1967-73) brought about by the terrible drought, the Air has been transformed. In 1972, Edmond Bernus had the impression that the area was dying, that the people were abandoning it(1).

But today, there is a feeling of revival in the Air and natural conditions are returning to normal. □

(1) E. Bernus — *Les Palmeraies dans l'Air*, in *Revue de l'Occident Musulman et de la Méditerranée*, II — 1972 — pp 37-50.



Fresh food for sale

Livestock development policy

by Jean-Noël CHAMBELLANT(*)

Until the two great droughts of 1968/69 and 1973/74, stock-raising in Niger was very much a traditional sector. Natural disaster revealed the fragility of having this type of structure in a modern economy and led the government to devise a strategy whereby the national livestock service now implements a new, more global and more dynamic policy and makes the most of the country's natural resources.

The first basic step under the new livestock development policy was to do away with the poll tax on animals.

This socially just and very popular move resulted in a radical change in the attitude of the herdsmen, who had always tended to be wary of the authorities, and led them to make a contribution to national development.

The aim of the policy was to produce meat and milk, with a view to satisfactory domestic consumption and a considerable increase in exports.

It is based on regional differences and specialized productive activities in the pastoral and agricultural zones, as well as on north-south complementarity.

- The pastoral zone now specializes in the production of young animals, something the nomadic herdsmen are undeniably good at.

- The intermediate zone concentrates on young rearing animals (ranching). It gets young male stock from the pastoral zone, which has to remove them from the herd so that its own herdsmen can concentrate on larger numbers of females for breeding.

- Finally, in the agricultural regions of the south, the stock is fattened and brought up to a reasonable weight and quality before slaughter (use being made of agricultural by-products wherever possible). Agriculture benefits by this system since the animals can be used to pull machinery and carry loads, and the manure, an organic fertilizer, improves the soil.

The action programmes and schemes run under the policy involve:

- animal health;
- building up the herd after the drought;
- providing equipment and extension

services for the pastoral and intermediate zones;

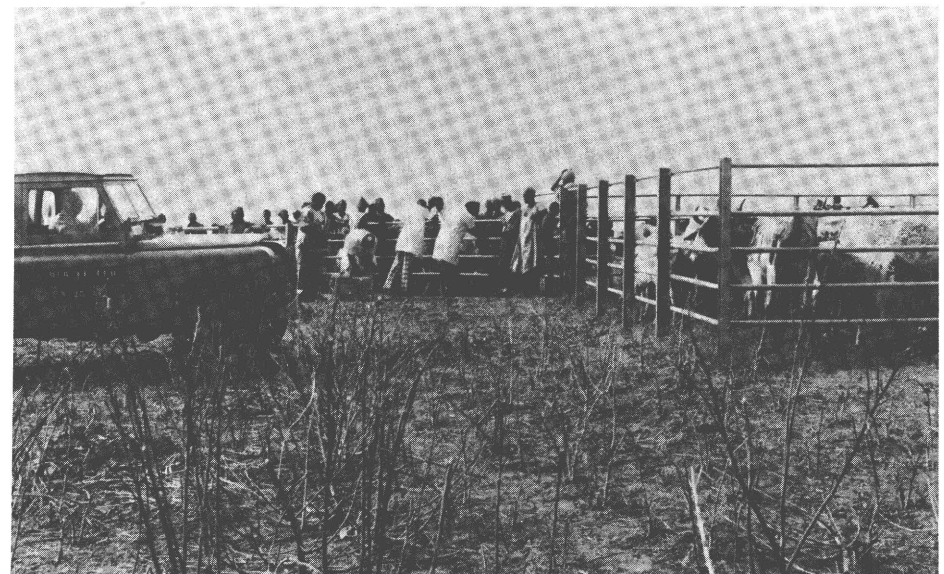
- developing stock fattening;
- developing poultry-rearing;
- setting up marketing and processing structures in the animal industry;
- training national officials and herdsmen.

The European Development Fund has made a considerable contribution



EDF

One of the main concerns of the authorities is the campaign against parasitic and infectious diseases which affect cattle. At the Sansanné-Houssa vaccination centre, a vet prepares a treated mix while herdsmen look on. Below, the vaccination corridor at Boubou



(*) Technical assistant at the European Community delegation.

to implementing the livestock development policy. Community aid has been provided for a wide range of complementary schemes, to:

- set up the Niamey school for stock-breeding assistants and technical officers;
- provide a considerable amount of

financing for the reconstitution of the herds;

- set up the Ibesseten cattle production centre;
- finance campaigns to wipe out contagious bovine pleuropneumonia;
- run a major peasant cattle-fattening scheme.

Niger's veterinary services are giving priority to the original, permanent health protection schemes, but they now also pay a great deal of attention to improving the productivity of the herd, which is second only to mining as far as the country's export trade is concerned. □

Eradicating contagious bovine pleuropneumonia

For many years now, the national livestock service has concentrated on mass vaccination, which has finally put an end to the epidemics which decimated Niger's cattle and gradually enabled a healthy herd, the vital basis of any livestock development programme, to be built up.

The considerable means used since 1967-77 are behind the currently satisfactory health situation prevailing as regards the deadly cattle plague and contagious bovine pleuropneumonia.

The EEC has made a large contribution to wiping out these diseases, first with the campaign against cattle plague and, since 1972, with the project to wipe out pleuropneumonia.

The method of dealing with pleuropneumonia in Niger basically involves dividing the country into different risk zones, which, in the interests of simplicity, coincide with the various administrative areas. Measures taken to combat the disease vary according to the degree of risk in each zone. They may be strictly medical (vaccination) or they may entail clinical and serological screening and the slaughter of any infected animals.

The project is in two successive phases.

Phase I (1972-1976). For the purposes of phase I, Niger was divided into three zones:

Zone 1 (no risk): departments of Agadez, Maradi and Zinder—free of pleuropneumonia for more than 15 years.

Zone 2 (risk): departments of Tahoua and Diffa—an infected area—a buffer zone around zone 1—pleuropneumonia easily identified and contained.

Zone 3 (high risk): departments of Niamey and Dosso—enzootic pleuropneumonia-disease rife and out of control.

Preventive measures in zone 1

No action here. At the slightest alert anywhere in this zone, the department concerned was to be classified under zone 2. There were in fact no cases of the disease after 1972.

Preventive measures in zone 2

A variety of measures were used here. Pleuropneumonia areas were quarantined and stock was screened, first clinically and then serologically. There was an unusual method of slaughtering (a two-tier cattle truck from the veterinary service took the sick animals, free of charge, to the nearest slaughterhouse). This meant that they could be sold at a reasonable price and the money immediately handed over to the herdsmen. It also meant that the risk of infecting another herd en route was almost nil.

Preventive measures in zone 3

A mass medical campaign was run here.

Results of phase I

— Zone 3 disappeared at the end of phase I.

— The health service has now got the situation well in hand and there are no more hidden outbreaks.

— The health infrastructure is working smoothly and the veterinary services can intervene rapidly when outbreaks occur.

— In what used to be the enzootic zone, the situation as regards vaccination, already very good, is improving still further and the herdsmen (apart from those in Diffa) throughout the country now tend to have faith in vaccination.

The disease now only occurs in the extreme east of the country, on the shores of Lake Chad, the project only having got to this department in 1975 (7 outbreaks in 1974, 1 in 1975 and 0 in 1976, all in the department of Diffa).

Phase II (1977-1980)

There are now only two zones: the no-risk zone and the risk zone.

Particular attention is being paid to Diffa, which has a considerable handicap to contend with as far as health is concerned. It is on a route used by commercial herds and breeding stock from many places (Chad, Cameroon and Nigeria) and so the risk of infection is high. In addition, many of the herdsmen are nomads, often with no national ties, and the authorities cannot and do not keep track of them.

So local livestock officers find it difficult to run the health protection system properly in this department, although in fact it has great potential as far as stock-rearing is concerned.

Although there are only sporadic and very localized outbreaks of pleuropneumonia in Niger now, the disease is still latent along the frontiers and there is a great risk of a virulent outbreak whenever transhumance is practised or commercial herds cross the national boundaries.

The cases of pleuropneumonia that occurred after the drought in 1969 and 1973 were the result of cattle moving to or from infected zones outside the country, where little or no action was taken to cope with the disease.

This is why Niger's veterinary services are very anxious to see an interstate anti-pleuropneumonia programme set up to eradicate the disease once and for all.

In the meantime, the health services have the situation well in hand, but they still have to remain on their guard and so have posted permanent watchmen at strategic points along the frontier.

This EEC-financed project has used modest means in a vast, nation-wide experiment. Niger has the full range of obstacles normally encountered in such a scheme: almost all the herdsmen use transhumance methods, the climate is hard, the country is vast and the roads and tracks are poor, there is a shortage of staff and, during phase I, there was an exceptionally bad drought as well.

But the results are there. After a few years of hard work, the health situation is most satisfactory and plans can now be confidently made to develop stock-rearing. □

Financial and technical cooperation under the fourth EDF: implementation of national indicative programme

On 31 December 1978, financial commitments had been made for the following projects:

Title	Amount (EUA)
1 — Infrastructure	
Modernization of the Niamey-Zinder road	4 736 000
Modernization of the RN 1	22 054 000
2 — Rural development	
Peasant cattle fattening scheme	1 610 000
Eradication of contagious bovine pleuropneumonia	1 420 000
Badeguicheri rural development	4 220 000
Zinder development (phase 2)	6 990 000
3 — Hydraulics & solar energy	
Construction of pumps & motors	550 000
Construction of water points (Damergou)	2 100 000
4 — Training	
Multiannual programme	1 880 000
5 — Education	
Renovation of primary schools & colleges of general education	3 100 000
6 — Studies	
Hydro-agricultural improvements	35 000
7 — Project-linked technical cooperation	
Technical assistance (wells)	135 000

Title	Amount (EUA)
Technical assistance (OFEDS)	278 000
Technical assistance (press, broadcasting)	8 000
Technical assistance (renovation of school buildings)	170 000
Technical assistance (Ministry of Planning)	10 000
Technical assistance (Niger Valley development)	70 000
Total	49 366 000

Allocated commitments represent 72% of the total amount of the indicative programme (68 500 000 EUA).

To this should be added the Stabex transfers for 1975, 1976 and 1977, the supply of groundnut seed (exceptional aid) and the interest rate subsidy on the EIB loan to Sonitextil:

Amount of projects	49 366 000 EUA
Interest rate subsidy	222 000 EUA
Exceptional aid	9 614 345 EUA
Stabex 1975	5 949 041
Stabex 1976	6 889 260
Stabex 1977	7 383 280
	20 221 581 EUA
	79 423 926 EUA

The total on 30 June 1978 was 70 132 655 EUA, so there was an increase of about 13% over the last six months, mainly due to the Stabex transfer for 1977.

The rate of payments, having risen from 34% on 31 December 1977 to 50% on 31 December 1978, is very satisfactory. Payments made by the Commission should be added to the percentage in the case of the indicative programme.

Food aid programme

(t)

Year	Wheat flour	Maize	Sorghum	Husked rice	White rice	Milk powder	Butteroil
1970	3 093						
72/73		14 500				2 500	
73/74		15 000	15 000			3 200	1 450
1975		2 000	15 000			2 000	
1976				3 750	1 035(1)	1 500(2)	
1977							
1978			4 000				
Total	3 093	31 500	34 000	3 750	1 035	9 200	1 450

(1) Delivered in 1978.

(2) For delivery in 1979.

Black Africa's literary prize-winner

A conversation with Idé Oumarou

Idé Oumarou, head of the president's office, was recently awarded the «grand prix littéraire de l'Afrique noire» by ADELFA, the French writers' association, for his book "*Gros Plan*" (*Close-Up*). The story takes place in Niamey and is built round the everyday life of a taxi driver. But it goes further than common routine and simple problems. It is a vivid, realistic and lucid reflection on the way traditional society is changing and on what should go and what should be retained.

► *What led you to write Gros Plan?*

— I should like to thank you for giving me this opportunity of talking about *Gros Plan* once more. This is what happened. I was a journalist and I worked at the Ministry for Information in this capacity for 12 years. During this time I ran columns, wrote articles and helped expand our country's information services. Obviously this got me used to writing. In 1972, I changed course. I left information to become head of posts and telecommunications, which, although obviously involving communications, was nevertheless a more administrative post than my previous one. So, in 1973, I thought I might jot down one or two of my thoughts on the development of society and this is how the opening lines of *Gros Plan* came to be written.

If you have read it you will know it deals with the juxtaposition of social situations as they are found in Niamey. A lot goes on in the daily life of Niamey. My hero, the central character, is a driver who works for a big company. Every day, my driver, like all drivers and like all employees and more or less like all Niger citizens, has to cope with his family and his domestic problems. And because he is also part of the city, he feels the pressures of society, political problems and social events, like marriage, in particular.

In all these areas there have been changes. Family life, with all its constraints, has obviously changed a lot, sometimes for the better and some-

times for the worse. Usually the latter. Clearly the family is no longer what it was in traditional society. Things are slacker. For example, traditional marriages have altered completely. The taste for show has turned traditional weddings, which used to be simple manifestations of joy, into excuses for ostentatious spending. All these situations made me think that I should somehow denounce what was happening, not necessarily at the beginning by writing a novel or having anything published, but with the idea of compiling a document, a dossier if you like. Every time I thought about it, I wrote my ideas down, without always knowing what would become of them. And this is how *Gros Plan* gradually emerged.

► *So you started with a very concrete situation and you went on to an important problem, that of Niger's society coping with progress and development. Is Gros Plan your first book or have you already written others?*

— This is my first book. But before, as I told you, I was a journalist and I wrote a lot of articles. And as I was also a youth leader at the same time, I had to write one or two plays for Niamey companies to put on. Some of them even won prizes. For example, I wrote a play called *Mariama*. Who is *Mariama*? Well, she's one of those little clerks in the ministries, who doesn't do any work and spends all her time on the telephone and looking after her social life (this is also something I deal with in *Gros Plan*). I was getting at a lack of professional conscience in this play. And I wrote another one which created a lot of fuss at the time as it had a highly political setting. It was called *Le Détournement*. My character was a sub-prefect who started misusing public money as soon as he got his promotion. He is brought to court and an attempt is made to make people in such positions realize what responsibility actually means, i.e. serving your country efficiently and honestly.

I remember another play of mine, *Zébanon*, that was put on in Niamey quite recently, although it dates back a few years. The setting is an imaginary one, with a king living in an indeter-

minate period. His main concern is to get his people to work. He has realized that wars of prestige are far more likely to ruin his people than help them and he decides, overnight, after consulting his advisers, to change his strategy. He says: "we shall still be warriors because we shall not destroy our arms and we shall always have an army. But our main concern will no longer be war. It will be work". And so he introduced some fairly new ideas, like teaching farmers modern techniques and holding exhibitions to get the different parts of his kingdom to emulate each other. I wrote this play five or six years ago, maybe more, and it is put on at the France-Niger Cultural Centre and the Youth and Culture Centre from time to time.

So I had written several plays well before *Gros Plan*. I had a go at novels on one or two occasions but I never had what it took to send them to a publisher.

► *So although Gros Plan is the first novel you have published, you have quite a large body of work behind you. Have you been influenced by other African or European writers, or thinkers, that you were particularly fond of in your youth?*

— I have to say no to that. As I have already told you, when you look at everything I've written so far, you can see that my main inspiration is the social scene. I tend to be a critic of our society. I never had any guiding lights. I remember in 1968 or '69, after a performance of *Mariama*, one of the audience calling out "he's the Courteline of the tropics". But I have to say that I have been influenced by no one at all.

► *I think that was flattering, as Courteline made his mark on literature precisely because of the accuracy of his assessments, which went beyond the picturesque and amusing and became criticism of certain aspects of the society of his time. I thought I sensed you were a little pessimistic about the way African society is developing, and that you had been struck by the meeting of African tradition and other ideas that have been imported from the West but not always properly assimilated or understood.*

— This is undeniably so. Quite recently, I had the opportunity of discussing this with ambassador Messan. I think it is quite legitimate for Africa to seek to catch up its economic lag and undeniably, it must be the ambition of any African state to try to attain a level of economic development such as will

enable the people to leave their present state of poverty behind them. But, culturally speaking, and as far as the traditional way of life is concerned, I am sure that things are going a bit too fast. It is certain that, when society develops as it is doing now, familiar traditions get left behind to be replaced by values that are a bit too far in advance of what we want, and that may well go against what we are doing to promote development.

In *Gros Plan* in particular, there is a passage on drugs. I mention that tourists, who have more or less split with their own society, have come to Africa to seek a greater quality of spirit. What I find a bit paradoxical is that it is young Europeans, who have grown up in materialistic surroundings, who are increasingly anxious to get back to nature and come to seek out societies where life is simpler and more human, whereas young Africans, who have been brought up against a traditional background which is relatively more humanistic, are anxious for material goods. The desire young people have to imitate others often leads to excess which, to my mind, is a considerable brake on the development we are aiming for. Because we no longer want to work to create. We are much more interested in trying to obtain the effects of work without actually doing any. This is serious, because it cuts down

the chances of harmonious development. Personally I am worried. Development is all very well, but at what price? If you have to sell your soul to get it, then it is extremely dangerous. And, unfortunately, bad habits have been formed and it is perhaps going to be difficult for Africa to be wiser in its development.

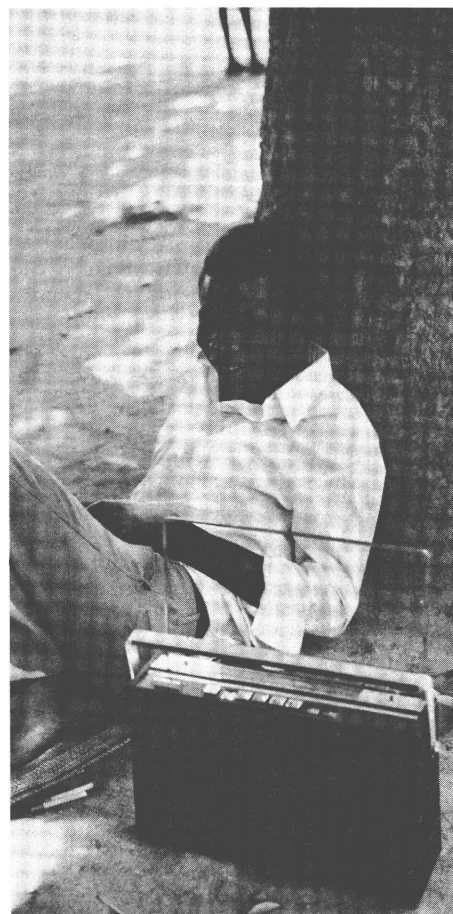
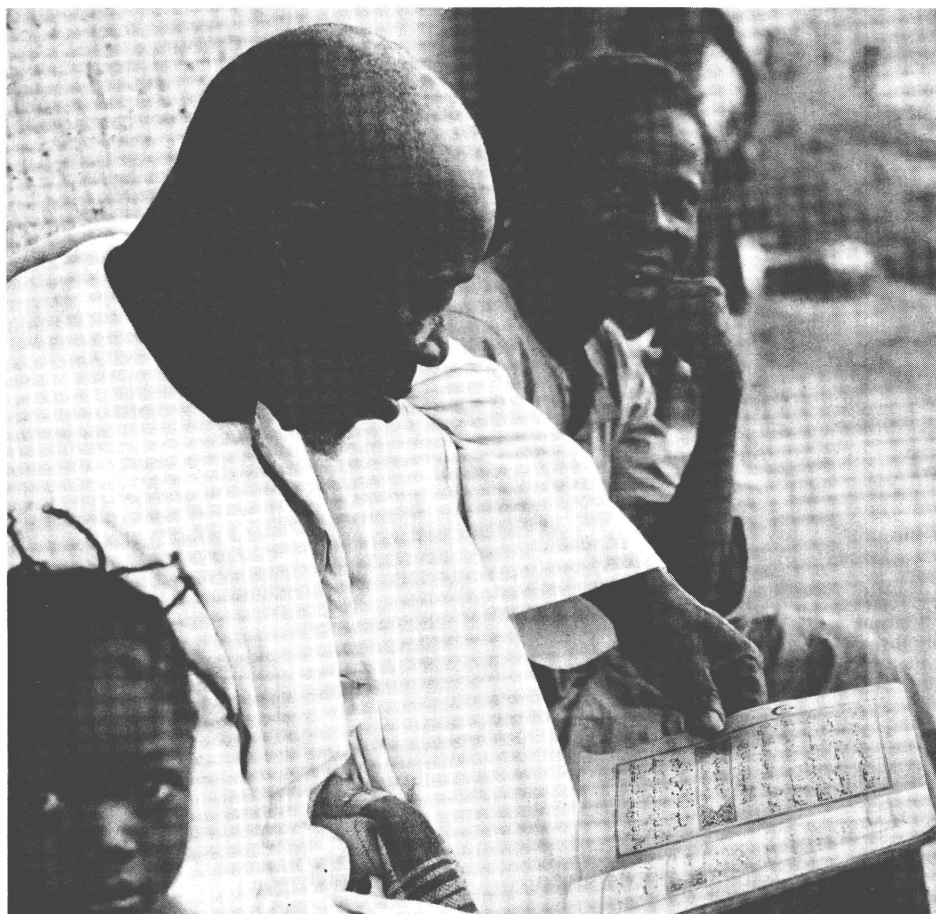
The Europeans are the main ones to be wondering and worrying about the Africans. I think Africans do not always realize just how big the danger is. I think about problems like this. It doesn't make me pessimistic at heart, but I do have reason to worry.

► *I think you are making an important point here. You gave an example just now—tourism. You showed that unless it is properly organized, properly controlled and fairly limited, there are perturbations that result from contact between the societies of an industrialized country and a developing country. But, while I recognize that certain slightly pessimistic views, that you have just expressed, are justified, don't you also agree that there is a contact between different values in Europe and Africa which could be a source of enrichment for both?*

— You know, I think the meeting of Europe and Africa is ineluctable. It

cannot be denied that the world today and the meeting of different civilizations are always a source of enrichment for the peoples concerned. Undeniably, the world today is so small that practically everyone is involved in the same things. Europe's efforts are of benefit to Africa and Africa's efforts are also of benefit to Europe. In this way, there is symbiosis and no one can destroy it.

However, what I say is that the problem is just one of speed. When people say that, economically speaking, we have gone straight from the donkey to the jet plane, this is an image. But perhaps, economically speaking, there is no danger attached to it. There is no danger in staying in your field or your jungle and looking at the television. I think such a thing might well help your education and help you develop an open mind. But, in Niger, our problem is that there are social changes which encourage people not to make an effort instead of doing their best. Just now I used the example of drugs. I am returning to this because it comes into *Gros Plan*. In Europe today, you hear a lot about drugs. There is an extraordinary anti-drug campaign at the moment, but paradoxically, the more you fight, the worse the problem gets. I think the best publicity you can give anything is to ban it. In Africa, we are increasingly finding that contact with



The voice of authority: is it holy writ or the transistor radio?

tourists poses a problem. When they come, they come with their own ideas. They sometimes make friends with young Africans they meet in the market, and so on, and they tend, sometimes in good faith, to want to live as they do. I have seen young Europeans here wearing local dress, eating with our people and really at home here. But what happens is that our people start to imitate the Europeans, instead of doing all they can to stay as they are, something that other people envy. And they tend to copy the bad things.

I should like to be quite clear here. White ways have always appealed to the Africans, rightly or wrongly. Undeniably, to my mind, Africans emulate Europeans in a far simpler way than they emulate us. What the Europeans are attracted by is perhaps another way of looking at the world, our way of living close to nature and retaining certain moral values. But it is a very good thing for the two civilizations to come together. No one can stop the process and the more progress we make, the more it appears that each continent is only a district of the other, like it or not.

► *You have noticed the same thing as we in Europe have noticed. From a sociological point of view, breakneck development, often as the result of technical progress, can create havoc. Short cuts to the development of society are bad and, in any case, they affect different people and different temperaments to different degrees. Society has evolved far more over the last few decades than over hundreds of years in the past.*

— Let me tell an anecdote which will perhaps illustrate the problem. I remember when the first man went to the moon. I had a relation from the country staying in my house. The radio especially was concentrating on this event and everyone knew about it. After the meal, my relation asked me: "what's all this about men on the moon?" And I said, "it's just like going from Niamey to Zinder on the plane, except now men are going from earth to the moon". So he looked at me and said: "impossible". And he went on: "are you sure?" I said I was sure and I believed the man really was on the moon. He said: "so, you don't believe in God?" I said: "of course I do!" And he said: "because if you went to go to the moon, you have to cross seven heavens first. You can cross the first heaven and you can cross the second heaven, and so on... but you never reach the moon". I tried to explain, but he said: "anyway, you can't convince me".

Because if it was true, then everything he had been taught about the Koran was wrong. So I was in an

embarrassing situation. Once he wanted me to choose between his personal beliefs and reality, I was unable to follow him. He wasn't ready for anything like that. I was ready to see that it was possible, but he wasn't. If I had carried on the conversation, I would have shaken his innermost convictions. And what would that have meant? I might have made him an atheist. So I didn't carry on with the conversation.

► *This is a case of exceptional technological progress that could shake the faith of someone who wasn't ready to know about it. Now I should like to ask if you have any plans for more writing?*

— I should say yes, because life is all a matter of doing things, and now I've started, I might continue. I'm often asked if I am writing a novel at the moment. I say no, but I hope one day I shall manage to write something else.

► *You don't intend to write any more plays, or move into another literary genre?*

— I wrote a play last year for a Niamey company. It was called *L'impôt est mort* and it was put on here. But I did this for fun.

► *There is also the fact that your present duties are such that you don't get a lot of time for writing.*

— Exactly. I should like to end our talk with something we mentioned just now. In a traditional society, there are certain values which are inculcated in everyone right from birth. There are nursery rhymes and tales to highlight certain facts about nature and give meaning to them, the sun, the moon, water, rivers, rainbows and so on. Some people say that the rainbow is a serpent that drinks water from the clouds and today, in our villages, the rainbow is still thought to be a serpent which goes up into the sky whenever it is cloudy. Sometimes there are two serpents, a male and a female one.

Everyone in the village, from the youngest boy to the oldest man, believes this. When the day comes when someone who has studied physics tells them that a rainbow is just light, they will laugh, because they will be unable to grasp this fact. There are values they haven't yet acquired and convincing them would mean taking something away, which is extremely dangerous. There are some things that have to be done slowly. Because, once you shake profound personal convictions, undeniably, you force the person in question out of the reality of his own existence. So you must be very careful.

□

Interview by A.L.

“Royal Swazi” takes off

Dwarfed by gigantic Boeing 747s and enormous DC 10s at Jan Smuts international airport, a neatly painted “little” Fokker 28 awaits foreign travellers bound for Swaziland. After the rigours of a long-distance flight and all the formalities and identity checks, passengers are warmly welcomed aboard, relaxed and in good spirits for the last leg of the journey, the 50 minute trip from Jan Smuts to Matsapha, Swaziland's national airport.

But the plane's manoeuvrability makes short work of landing and taking off and this, combined with favourable wind conditions, cuts flying time to 42 minutes, barely enough for the light refreshments served by the blue-uniformed Swazi hostesses. Planes do not usually cut their scheduled flying time, far from it, and the unexpected speed, plus the highly efficient service, makes the traveller want to know more about Royal Swazi, the baby of the airline companies.

Small country, small airline

In early 1978, the government of Swaziland decided to set up its own airline. It had two reasons. First, to develop its tourist trade and second, to provide a series of direct links with the rest of Africa and do something about its geo-political isolation inside southern Africa.

As always in schemes of this kind, national prestige was a consideration, but the tourist potential, the underlying political motives and the economic viability of the enterprise were enough to bring Royal Swazi National Airways Corporation into being. The Swazi nation holds the shares and ex-minister Sishayi Nxumalo is chairman.

The *Courier* talked to William Yeoman, veteran of Aer Lingus, the Irish airline, now commercial director of Royal Swazi. He has held similar technical assistance posts in Nigeria and Thailand and in July 1978 his government sent him to Swaziland, where his experience would prove valuable in setting up the new commercial network. As Yeoman said, there is little likelihood of the company being a

money-spinner in the first three or four years, although it should certainly be possible to break even and only two months after they first began on 1 August 1978, Royal Swazi flights were already 55% full. "Better than we expected and not at all bad for a beginner", said Yeoman.

Intensive training for local staff

At the time of our interview, in late October, Royal Swazi had four crews (four captains, four first officers and eight hostesses). The eight Swazi hostesses were trained by Zambia Airways and then familiarized with standard procedure in the two Swazi Airways planes, the Fokker 28 Fellowship already mentioned and a Viscount 810 (propeller). The planes were chosen to suit the 5 000 ft runway. The F 28, a 65-seater, was bought new and is one of the only civil jets able to operate on such a short runway. The 53-seater Viscount used to belong to the Sultan of Oman and had only 7 000 hours flying time when it was bought. The company falls back on the Viscount when there are any technical difficulties and it can also be used to carry freight.

Only one of the pilots (the chief pilot, in fact) was of Swazi nationality at the time of our report. The rest were from the UK, Sweden, Italy and so on. Dennis Weavers, from the UK, is in charge of maintenance. Initially he had three Dutch engineers from Fokker in the department, but they were replaced by three British engineers who had completed a 12-week course of instruction

on the F 28 in Amsterdam. Accounts are in the hands of Michael McDonald, a compatriot of William Yeoman, who has 15 Swazis working in his department. The airline also has its own commercial service where 25 staff are employed selling tickets and dealing with reservations. The airport itself is run by Swazi personnel, under the Ministry for Communications.

Thanks to an intensive training programme (one year's training abroad and two years in the company), the main posts of responsibility will be filled by Swazis in three years' time. Maintenance courses will take longer, in view of the technical nature of the work and the need for regularity and safety, but the Irish government has offered to train a first batch of engineers in five years.

Setting up the African network

The Swazi nation was anxious to build up an efficient airline operating at minimum cost and a properly balanced network of communications was therefore devised. For obvious geographical reasons, it serves South Africa (Johannesburg and Durban) and the company has an agreement to share profits on this line with South African Airways (which does not use jets on the Matsapha-Jan Smuts run and so takes half an hour longer about it). Direct contact with black Africa is provided by two flights weekly to both Lusaka (Zambia) and Blantyre (Malawi).

Finally, since 1 November, there have

been two Royal Swazi flights a week to Mauritius, with a technical stop in Madagascar. They opted for this, Mr Yeoman explains, because it is a popular tourist spot for holidaymakers and it offers various connections with the Far East.

This initial choice of flight destination was made for reasons of economic viability and to suit the type of plane (itself chosen to suit the runway). The list will be lengthened, probably to include Kenya, although intergovernmental negotiations would be required for this. At first sight, Mozambique, Swaziland's eastern neighbour, seems a strange omission, but Mr Yeoman says there is a simple explanation for this.

"As well as the fact that few people want to travel to Maputo, the operational costs of the flight would be high, as our fixed costs stay high regardless of the short distance".

Exploring Swaziland

Royal Swazi intends becoming one of the mainstays of the country's tourist trade. Since Swaziland is small and the standard of living is modest, the Swazis rarely ever travel themselves and most tourists are South Africans in search of relaxation, particularly in Swaziland's casinos. But the range must be widened and the potential market, in Europe in particular, will be exploited. So Yeoman has linked Royal Swazi to the International Society of Aeronautical Telecommunications to make reservations easier and he proposes contacting European tour operators to get them to include Swaziland in their tours of other countries, Malawi, Zambia, etc., in southern Africa.

"Swaziland has many potential tourist attractions. It has an almost Mediterranean climate, it has lovely countryside, it has history, its cave paintings for example, it has its own culture and unusual traditions and it has game parks. In addition to a comprehensive hotel infrastructure, we must now organize our own tour structures and we must pay particular attention to training our guides", Mr Yeoman said.

So, on present showing, Royal Swazi seems to be a properly thought out, properly prepared idea that has got off to a good start.

The company is ideal for foreign travellers, be they tourists or businessmen, and for Swazi citizens flying in or out of the country and it can go on to contribute to the development of the economy by giving the tourist trade a boost and getting Swaziland out of its geo-political isolation. □ R.D.B.



Royal Swazi has two aircraft: a new Fokker 28 (above) and a second-hand Viscount 810, bought from the Sultan of Oman

SIERRA LEONE

“Despite the overall importance of mining in our economy, we are basically an agricultural country”

President Siaka Stevens

Sierra Leone is best known to many in the outside world for its diamonds, which have been its principal export since independence. But things are changing now as the diamond industry gradually runs down, and the government is seeking to change the balance of the national economy through emphasis on agriculture.

The diamonds will not run out yet, and prices, which have been buoyant in the past few years, could still mean that Sierra Leone has many years ahead as an important diamond exporter. Although the country has great agricultural potential, it also has other mineral deposits to develop. The iron ore mine closed down three years ago, but bauxite and rutile mining has offered new possibilities.

In the following interview with the *Courier*, Dr Siaka Stevens, the President of Sierra Leone, explains his country's new economic priorities, his hopes for the future and the role the EEC relationship can play.

► *With the closure of the iron ore mine at Marampa three years ago, and the steady fall in diamond production in the 1970s, Sierra Leone has seen a contraction of important export production, and therefore in export earnings, which has adversely affected the general performance of the economy. What is the future for the mining industry in Sierra Leone?*

— Let us try and put this in some perspective: first, up to the closure of the iron ore mine in 1975, the mining sector accounted for 16% of our Gross Domestic Product and about 75% of total export earnings. Iron ore alone



President Siaka Stevens

contributed an annual average of about 13% to our total export earnings prior to the closure at the mine. It is also true that diamond production has declined somewhat but this has to some extent been offset by a sizeable increase in diamond prices. In any case the general performance of the economy is not determined by export revenues from the mining sector alone, although this is clearly an important contributory factor. The recent experience of nearly all developing countries is simply that our development efforts are often seriously constrained by circumstances entirely beyond our control; the further increase in the price of oil recently announced by OPEC is a case in point. I need not remind you of the implications of this for the prices of nearly all our imports. At the same time, we have little control over the prices fetched by our exports in world markets.

Turning now to the future of the mining industry, there are now advanced plans for establishing a new bauxite mining and processing complex in the Port Loko district. Sierra Rutile Limited is also expected to resume rutile production this year. As far as diamonds are concerned, the prospects for the future lie in deep shaft mining as against the heavy reliance thus far on alluvial deposits. On the whole the future prospects for the mining industry are still reasonably bright.

► *You are now putting more emphasis on agriculture. How much has been in done this sector and what are the prospects for the 1980s?*

— Despite the overall importance of mining in our economy, we are basically an agricultural country. You must remember that three-fourths of our population depend on agriculture for their livelihood. Accordingly, the main thrust of our development efforts in the coming years will be in agriculture, not only because it is an effective way to diversify the economy, but also because it is a relevant approach for our society. Our strategy in agriculture is essentially based on two main objectives:

- the need to achieve self-sufficiency in food production;
- the corresponding need to increase agricultural exports, especially in view of a more or less steady decline in diamond exports.

There are currently in progress three integrated agricultural development projects, of which two are financed by the World Bank and government and the third by the European Development Fund and government. There are more integrated projects in the pipeline. The main advantage in this type of project is that in the process of promoting crop or livestock development, you also invest in basic infrastructure such as feeder road development, as well as promoting institution building in such areas as marketing and the provision of credit. Of course, we also realise that integrated projects are expensive and that, in any case, it is necessary to take stock of the achievements so far with on-going projects as a basis for deciding upon the future course of action. We have also given a great deal of thought to the question of promoting tree crop development. This is essential both as an additional source of export earnings and also to raise the level of real incomes in the rural areas. In this context we have asked our people to consider undertaking on a

self-help basis plantation agriculture. You probably appreciate that the self-help concept has gained a great deal of momentum in Sierra Leone over the last few years and we are doing everything we can to maximize the benefits that individual communities can derive from these efforts.

I am therefore optimistic that, as our people have done in other areas, they will also take up plantation agriculture in the near future on a self-help basis.

► *Your government believes it is necessary to restructure the economy. How will this be done?*

— An economy that is overwhelmingly dependent on wasting assets to generate employment, government revenues and export earnings must necessarily consider the question of diversification very seriously. In the case of Sierra Leone, the need to restructure the economy has always been quite apparent.

Restructuring the economy is imperative from the standpoint of our national self-reliance efforts. I have already touched upon our efforts to promote more rapid diversified growth in agriculture. There are also plans to promote small-scale and agro-based industries; this is an area the National Development Bank is looking at with the help of a line of credit.

There is still scope for import substitution production and we are looking into all these possibilities. In short we believe it is necessary to restructure the economy so as to increase our flexibility, to enhance the resilience of the economy and to provide a stronger basis for sustained growth and development.

► *The present Lomé Convention will end in February 1980; what is your government's general impression of the implementation of the Convention so far?*

— The Lomé Convention has understandably attracted a great deal of attention, not only from countries like ourselves that are directly involved with it, but also from third parties. It is for this reason that we must have the courage to critically examine those areas where there have been notable successes and others where improvements are clearly called for. There are some aspects of the present Convention, e.g. the Stabex system, which appear to have worked reasonably well so far; my government obtained a transfer of Le 5 million(1) under the Stabex scheme. There are, of course, various proposals to improve the Sta-

bex scheme and there is hardly need to repeat these. In general, however, I think there is a need to considerably streamline existing EDF procedures so as to narrow the gap between commitments and disbursements. Ultimately the best interests of ACP states will be served not so much by the level of commitments as by the funds that are actually spent in implementing projects. We are also concerned about the need for more flexibility in the implementation of indicative aid programmes. When my government agreed with the Commission of the EEC in 1975 on projects to be included in our indicative aid programme, it was with the understanding that the programme reflected our priorities. However it is in the very nature of development that priorities could and probably should change; against this background it would seem to me that changes in individual indicative aid

programmes could be agreed upon between ACP states and the Commission without reference to individual member states of the EEC.

The impression has been created that the Lomé Convention is based on equality between ACP states and the member states of the EEC; and that in the absence of the equality, there can be no cooperation. I think a new convention should go beyond the rhetoric and give more substance and credibility to this question of equality. For example, Europe's approach to the current negotiations for a new Convention should give valuable pointers to the European interpretation of this «equality» in our relationship. It is my considered opinion that in addition to all of the other suggestions floating around about changes in a new convention, the question of attitudes to the negotiations on the part of the part-



Alluvial mining in Eastern Province. Diamonds are still the main export

(1) EUA I: approx. Le 1.28.



Palm kernels (left) ready for export; the rice crop (right) is for internal consumption

ners, but especially Europe, is quite fundamental.

As to other changes, I have already mentioned the need to involve national authorities more directly in the decision-making process on EDF operations in other countries. I have also touched on the need to simplify procedures for making adjustments to indicative aid programmes. We would also like to see in a new convention more effective and positive measures for trade promotion between the EEC and the ACP states.

The European Investment Bank and the Centre for Industrial Development should be made more effective by being provided with more resources for the implementation of the programme on industrial cooperation. Such schemes should emphasize the processing on the spot of our raw materials and the opening up of the European market for their sale.

Finally, we would like to see an increase in the volume of financial assistance under a new Convention realising that world inflationary trends erode the real value of assistance.

► *What role can the EEC play in Sierra Leone's economic development?*

— The present Lomé Convention provides a sound foundation for future

economic cooperation between the EEC and ourselves. Our experience to date indicates that the EEC can play a direct and positive role in our development.

I have already said that we are shifting our emphasis to agriculture. There is a wealth of experience in this area in Europe which we would like to make use of. The EEC can provide increased assistance to our agricultural and infrastructural development. One area that easily comes to mind is the development, in partnership with us and other interested ACP states, of agricultural and other technology appropriate to our level of development. Such technology should be simple and cheap enough for our farmers to purchase.

Like many other developing countries, we have in the past invested valuable resources in technology that have not served our purposes adequately. This is one thing we are trying to avoid in the future.

We would also like, once our agriculture has been placed on a firm footing, to be able to process on the spot our agricultural output, so as to broaden our export base. This is another area where the EEC can be of assistance, particularly in the provision of the necessary finance and the opening up of the European market to these commodities. In short, we are expecting the

EEC to give us the tools to enable us do the work ourselves.

► *The Mano River Union recently celebrated its 5th anniversary. What has been the main benefit of the Union and what in your view are the prospects for the future?*

— The Mano River Union has first and foremost enabled us to institutionalize what has always been an excellent relationship between our two sister republics; but there have also been corresponding material benefits to our peoples. First, in the area of trade, we have already established a Union Commission on Industry and Trade to promote trade between Liberia and Sierra Leone.

Second, we have made a great deal of progress in the harmonisation of our customs and excise, customs administration and procedures and a common external tariff. Third, feasibility studies are in progress for the development of hydro-electricity and irrigation agriculture in the Mano River basin.

There are also pre-feasibility studies for a number of potential union industries as well as the Freetown-Monrovia highway. As to the future, we believe that the implementation of the projects now in the pipeline could come a very long way towards cementing the relationship between our peoples in addition to generating direct and material benefits. □

Sierra Leone

Area:

28 000 sq. miles (72772 km²)

Population:

3 272 000 (1978)

Density:

117 per square mile (1978)

Capital:

Freetown (pop. 276 247)

Other main towns:

Makeni (26781), Bo (39 371), Kenema (31 458), Koidu (75 846)

Official language:

English

Date of Independence:

27 April 1961

Political system:

Presidential, with a national parliament

Political party:

APC (the All People's Congress)

Head of State:

H.E. Dr Siaka P. Stevens

Currency:

Leone (EUI = Le 1.28)

GNP:

Le 726.1 million (at current prices) 1976/77

National income:

Le 590.1 million (at current prices) 1976/77

Per capita income:

Le 228.6 (GNP level) 1976/77

Le 259.1 (GDP level) 1976/77

Main products:

Diamonds, bauxite, rice, cocoa, coffee, palm kernel products

Foreign trade:

Exports (f.o.b.) Le 147 650 000 (1977)

Imports (c.i.f.) Le 186 218 000 (1976)

Main exports (Le '000) (1977)

a) Minerals:

Diamonds 61 574
Bauxite 7 886

b) Agricultural products:

Cocoa 18 100
Coffee 46 048
Palm kernels 1 379

Education:

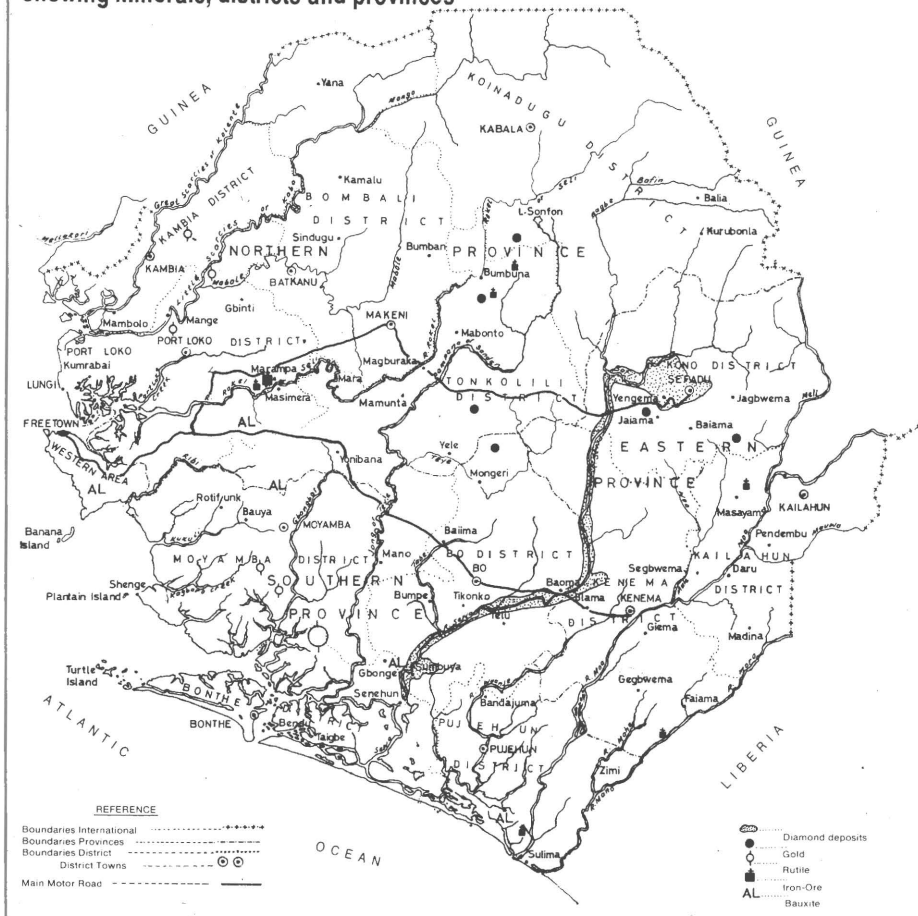
Primary: 218 376 pupils (1976/77)

Secondary & technical: 51 564 pupils (1976/77)

Higher education: 2 985 students (1976/77)

Sierra Leone:

showing minerals, districts and provinces



1977-78 budget(1)

Revenue: Le 143.7 m (US \$ 131.6 m);
expenditure: Le 139.7 m (US \$ 127.9 m)

15.5% is earmarked for agriculture,
14.8% for mining and 14.4% for trans-
port.

Development plan

The 1975-79 plan covers an outlay of
some Le 623 m (\$ 689.1 m), of which

(1) Source: European Parliament, directorate-
general for research and documentation, 1978.

External trade (1973-76)

US \$ '000	1973	1974	1975	1976
Imports from:				
EEC	76 243	92 694	90 820	77 000
other	81 426	129 696	95 670	79 000
Total	157 669	222 390	186 490	156 000
Exports to:				
EEC(2)	105 176	119 473	94 450	80 000
other	26 208	26 769	34 937	32 000
Total	131 384	146 242	129 387	112 000

(2) The exports to the EEC concern principally the United Kingdom and the Netherlands.

From diamonds to agriculture

Despite good prospects for bauxite and rutile mining, Sierra Leone is planning to transform itself from a minerals exporter into a significant exporter of agricultural products. As agriculture minister Dr A.J. Jackson told the *Courier*, "for quite some time we were misled by the presence of diamonds and iron ore, but now we are increasingly becoming aware of the need to concentrate on agriculture". People in Sierra Leone readily admit that this "revolution" is coming a little late, but this is explained by the fact that diamonds, which are still the main export earner, and iron ore, provided exports, government revenue and a certain number of jobs, which meant the country did not need to realize all the potential of agriculture.

Mineral deposits do not last for ever. Three years ago Sierra Leone's iron mine ceased production when it became no longer profitable, and diamonds, for which Sierra Leone had become famous, are slowly running down. The gradual fall in production was offset in part by the rise in diamond prices, but this has simply provided a breathing space in a process which will eventually reduce the importance of the diamond industry in Sierra Leone.

The need to find new export crops is certainly an urgent one, but the plans for agriculture, which will more directly affect the 70% of Sierra Leoneans who live in the rural areas than mining has ever done, have a social aim too. The objective is to create jobs in farming which will slow down, if not reverse, the drift to the towns, and raise the standard of living of the whole rural community.

Integrated rural development

In its efforts to reactivate the agricultural sector, the government has adopted an integrated approach. This involves taking an area and trying to provide farmers with help in raising productivity, coordinating assistance in the form of improved strains of seeds and fertilisers, and providing economic and social infrastructure. So far two such schemes are under way in the eastern and northern areas with assistance from the World Bank, and a third is now under-way with help from the European Development Fund. Two other schemes are also being planned.

For the ministry, these schemes allow greater supervision of agricultural development than can be achieved

though the normal extension services it provides to farmers. However, the integrated programmes are costly and for the moment they only reach a section of the rural community. Despite some resistance to new methods, Dr Jackson is certain the new methods will catch on. He reports a good response from small farmers and demands, from areas not yet covered by integrated schemes, to be included. The main crops involved are the traditional ones in Sierra Leone, rice, cocoa, coffee and palm products, but there are also plans to expand fruit growing and to develop such crops as coconuts and rubber.

The government would also like to get some sugar projects under-way despite world overproduction. The aim is, however, to substitute for imports by supplying the local market, and perhaps at a later stage neighbouring countries. Dr S.S. Banya, the development minister, does not believe Sierra Leone's sugar projects would pose any problems with other sugar producers, since the aim would be a production level of between 40 000 and 60 000 tonnes a year, way below the 100 000 tonne level he believed would be need-

ed to make Sierra Leone a significant sugar producer by world standards.

The new fruit cannery which will start production in a few months will need sugar, but like the sugar projects, it aims to supply the domestic market first and then neighbouring markets, particularly Liberia, in the future. The factory is one of what Dr Jackson hopes will be a series of agro-based industrial projects.

In the 1977/78 financial year government investment in agriculture rose by 21.6%, but the problem will not simply be funds. The pace of transformation has to be speeded up and growth has to be encouraged in the relatively stagnant agricultural sector, and this will certainly mean changes in attitudes and structure.

Dr Jackson does not, however, believe this will involve changing the traditional pattern of land-holding in the country, which he believes is a stabilizing social factor in a country with no social security.

Turning swamps into paddies

The Sierra Leone government's agricultural policies aim at stimulating export crops, but also reaching self-



An extension worker gives advice on the bean crop as part of the effort to be self-sufficient in food

sufficiency in food. Only some 12% of land in Sierra Leone is under cultivation, and of this more than 60% is devoted to rice, the country's staple food. Rice imports have been necessary in recent years, but with new rice projects the government hopes to get back to self-sufficiency once again—before 1985, it is hoped—and to become an exporter. There have been small amounts of food aid, but essentially the country should have no problems in feeding itself. The markets are full and although the main source of protein is fish, and the carbohydrate content of the diet is rather high, Sierra Leoneans consume on average a good level of calories each day.

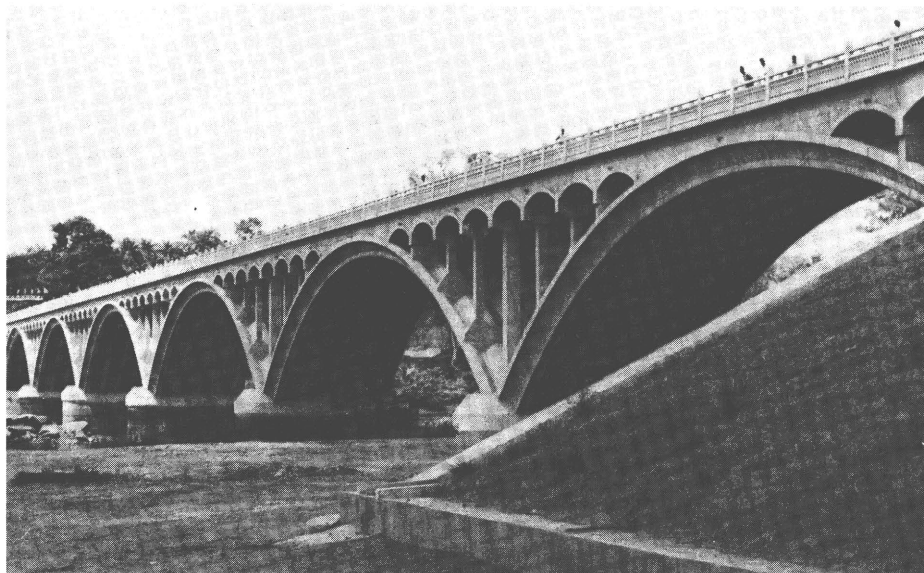
Paying a sensible rate

Recently the prices paid to farmers by the government have been raised in an attempt to stimulate production and lessen the attractions of smuggling across the border into Liberia in search of higher prices, paid in dollars. The government recognizes the need to raise prices for social reasons too, in order to improve rural incomes. The farmers also need the help of the government's extension workers, and this presents a manpower problem. Dr Banya told the *Courier* that, apart from a bad rice harvest last year because of weather conditions and difficulties in getting the oil palm projects working properly, most of the government's new initiatives in agriculture are taking off.

He says that this new emphasis on agriculture has also brought about a change in the government's industrial policy, with a switch from import substitution projects to agro-based industrial schemes. Some agro-projects are also import substitution in effect, and the government is not totally abandoning all non-agricultural import substitution schemes for the future. It is the emphasis which is to change.

Fishing and forestry also have industrial possibilities. The government would like to set up its own fishing fleet and process the catch for both domestic consumption and for export. The potential is quite considerable but again the financing would pose a problem.

The forests, unlike the fishing fleet, are already there, and the government is developing a strategy for using the forests, preserving them, integrating forestry with agriculture where possible, and hopes to go into making boards, plywood and pulp. These plans still have to be turned into actual projects, but they are an indication of the variety of possibilities open to the government once the financial position of the country improves.



The new Kambia bridge provides a link with Guinea which the port of Freetown (below) could take advantage of once new roads are built



Mining will stay

Although the Delco iron ore mine closed three years ago because production had ceased to be profitable, and diamond mining is becoming less attractive as the more commercial deposits are used up, there are two other minerals which will ensure that Sierra Leone remains a mineral exporter. Bauxite is already the fourth largest export earner after diamonds, coffee and cocoa. The government is planning the mining of new bauxite deposits around Port Loko, which could well make use of the railway line to Marampa, site of the now-abandoned iron ore mine. The plans for Port Loko include an alumina plant. There have been

discussions on reopening the iron mine, too, but so far it has not proved feasible. The other important mineral resource is rutile, which was mined previously and is now to be resumed. Sierra Leone has the largest known world reserves of rutile and production, due to start this year, could reach 100 000 tonnes per annum from the mines at Gbani and Matagiama.

New links with neighbours

Although the small railway line to Marampa could be used when bauxite production starts, the main railway link in Sierra Leone, from Freetown, the capital, westwards to Bo, Kenema and

Pendembu, was closed on the grounds that it was uneconomic. The decision was taken on advice from an external donor, but not everyone in Sierra Leone agrees that it was a wise decision.

The building of a modern all-weather road network is moving very slowly, although progress has been made on linking Sierra Leone more effectively with its neighbours. Two bridges have been built giving access to Guinea and the Mano river bridge between Sierra Leone and Liberia has been completed, giving a tangible reality to the Mano River Union (MRU) which last year celebrated its fifth anniversary. The cultural ties between the three countries are considerable and the extension of the Mano River Union is a possibility. The port at Freetown is one of the best natural harbours in Africa and could serve much of the interior, certainly of Guinea and even as far as Bamako if the surface connections were there. The port itself, which was run by a state authority, recently ran into financial difficulty, and the government had to suspend the board and put in a management firm which has put it back into the black. The efficiency of the port has been greatly improved and a new contract awarded to a Dutch firm to build an oil jetty at Kissy. The EDF is involved in one of the major road schemes, the Makeni-Kabala road (see page 36) and among other government road priorities is an all-weather road linking Freetown and Monrovia with the Mano river bridge, which would form part of the trans-African highway.

Tourism — a new departure

Sierra Leone welcomed almost 25 000 tourists last year—not many by international standards, but the industry is still young. The new Bintumani Hotel, opened just over a year ago, will shortly be joined by another and with the existing Cape Sierra Hotel this will give Sierra Leone its first “string” of beach hotels. At present capacity is very limited, less than 800 rooms, but with the new hotel and additions to the existing ones to house the delegates for the OAU summit to be held in Freetown in 1980, the hotel capacity will rise.

Dr Banya, the development minister, is, however, cautious about putting too much emphasis on tourism. “The whole idea”, he said, “is not to make the thing over-ambitious. For example we don’t want to build a whole chain of hotels along the beach, when we haven’t made other facilities available, airport connections, roads, etc. A balance has to be struck and we are going cautiously. We have enormous national attractions, and if we can develop them

according to demand then we are not likely to construct huge white elephants”.

The Sierra Leone beaches are certainly among the best in West Africa, and direct flights to Freetown are now available from London, Paris and Amsterdam. One drawback is that the huge investment needed does not bring an all year round return, since the tourist season is limited. A conference centre at the Bintumani Hotel, which is being expanded for the OAU summit, could attract off-season business.

The constraints on development

Sierra Leone’s five year development plan, which was coming to an end, has just been extended by three years. Dr Banya believes that development must be flexible, especially as Sierra Leone, like many countries, is going through a difficult time economically. The government has been negotiating with the IMF for further credit and rescheduling its debts. The rate of the Leone has been adjusted and is no longer tied to sterling at the rate of Le 2.0 = £ 1.0. The government, however, resists any substantial devaluation on the grounds that it would not stimulate greater exports and would raise import costs and fuel inflation.

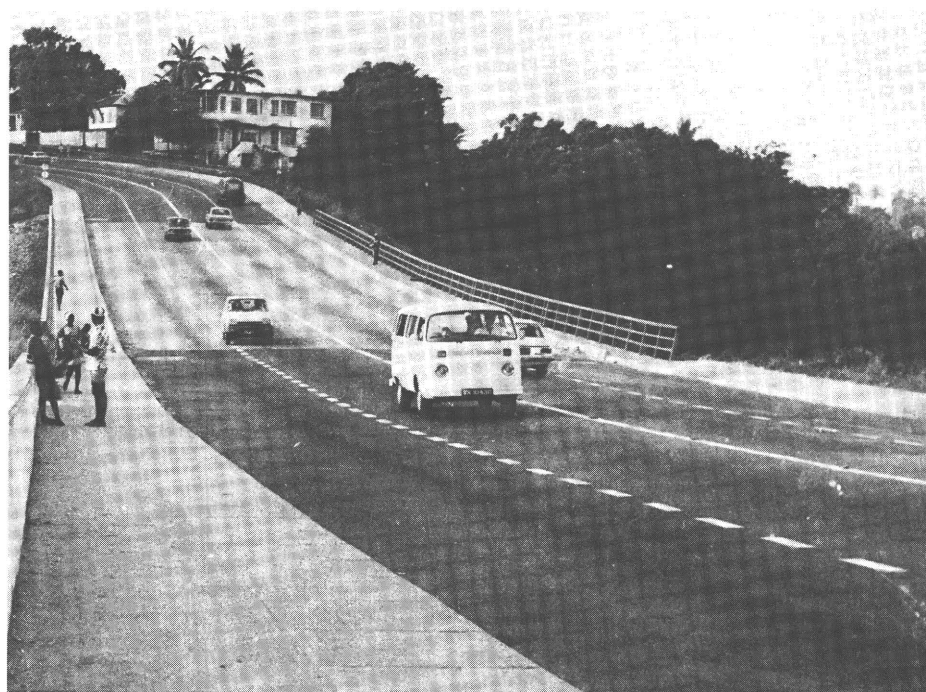
There has also been a tendency, as Dr Banya put it, to be a little extravagant, with the result that there has been overspending on the budget. He believes this is now coming under control. The trade picture has also been difficult, with the rise in diamond pri-

ces unfortunately coming when production was on the decline. This also coincided with the oil price rises, and Sierra Leone imports all its oil. However, the trade gap was lessened in 1977/78 over the previous year.

The EEC is Sierra Leone’s most important trading partner. During the 1970s almost half of the country’s imports have come from the EEC and roughly three quarters of its exports have gone to the EEC. The trade picture in the future will depend on the success in exploiting new mineral deposits and the productivity of agriculture. The volume exported by the Sierra Leone Produce Marketing Board (SLPMB) in the 1970s has been rather static in most products, with a sharp fall in the case of palm kernels, compensated by exports of palm kernel oil and oil cake.

Foreign finance for development

Sierra Leone’s foreign assistance is very diversified. It comes from multilateral sources such as the EDF and the World Bank, and from a series of bilateral donors such as France, Germany, the UK and the USA. Dr J. Funna, the national authorizing officer, believes it has a vital role to play, not simply because it fills a resource gap but, as he puts it, “it acts as a catalyst. Even if we didn’t have a resource gap, and financial difficulties, foreign assistance would still have a vital role to play because it brings in technical know-how, it involves basic institutional reforms which are sometimes neces-



The closure of the railway means a new emphasis on roads

Cooperation between Sierra Leone and the EEC

The indicative programme under Lomé

sary to achieve development objectives, it allows more effective planning—although this can be overdone—and it encourages the development of an order of priorities”.

Dr Funna is directly responsible for EEC aid and he works closely with the Commission's delegation in Freetown. He is glad that the majority of the programme is in the form of grants, but there are some areas, he says, where he would like to see improvements. He would like to see EDF procedures considerably modified to make aid more “relevant”.

He believed that the establishment of a separate national authorizing office by the government to deal solely with EEC aid was an indication of its seriousness in dealing with it efficiently.

The Sierra Leone government also hopes to attract more assistance from the Scandinavian countries, and has recently opened an embassy in Jeddah. There is also scope for foreign private investment in joint ventures in such fields as mining, processing, small-scale manufacturing and tourism.

Educating for development

Sierra Leone has a long educational tradition. Fourah Bay college, now part of the University of Sierra Leone, began in 1827 and the academic standard of Sierra Leoneans is well known. Freetown's literary and academic life still flourishes, and the country boasts a high number of lawyers, doctors, civil engineers and academics of the highest level. However, only some 3% of the school children can expect to get to university, and the demands of development are very varied. The present educational structure has to be changed, the government believes, particularly to ensure that enough middle range, technically qualified people are available.

As Dr Funna put it, it is easy to find a civil engineer in Sierra Leone, but less easy to find someone who can mend a typewriter. Trained people to act as extension officers in agriculture are essential if agricultural productivity is to be increased. Because of the academic tradition, a change in attitudes will be needed, but this is by no means easy to achieve, as the government recognizes. There is also a social aspect since too many secondary school leavers who do not get to university become unemployed and all too often unemployable. So far this has not led to the sort of urban violence and crime which has been seen elsewhere, but the danger remains. Among all its other resources, its people remain one of the most important for Sierra Leone to develop. □ IAN PIPER

The indicative programme for Sierra Leone was drawn up during a programming mission to Freetown in December, 1975. The agreed programme was signed by S. I. Koroma, now first Vice-President of Sierra Leone, and Maurice Foley, deputy director-general for development, on behalf of the Commission. The overall balance of the programme, with its strong emphasis on rural development and training, has stood the test of time, while fully accommodating itself to detailed changes necessitated by changing circumstances and priorities. This is brought out by the following comparison of the original provisions with the currently-agreed composition (see table).

Thus the only substantive changes have been the transfer of the provision for studies of the Peninsular road (for which the government no longer saw a requirement) to the integrated medical education project (for which additional funds were needed), and the allocation of EUA 740 000 from the contingencies provision to micro-projects. In addition, the allocation of the training provision to individual projects was agreed.

Project commitments

Despite the fact that Sierra Leone was one of the “new” ACP states—not one of the former associated states under the Yaoundé Conventions and therefore without an established pipeline of projects for financing by the European Development Fund (EDF)—the first of its projects to be agreed was in fact one of the first under the Lomé Convention. A grant of EUA 2.15 million for the supply of equipment for hospitals, dispensaries and health centres and for training and equipping two maintenance teams, was approved on 22 October 1976, little over six months after the Lomé Convention formally came into effect.

Since that date, six further major projects in the programme have been approved, plus, under the accelerated procedure, seven technical assistance projects of varying size. Altogether, by the end of 1978, approved commitments (all in the form of grants, apart from the special loan of EUA 1 million to the National Development Bank) totalled EUA 14.307 million—44% of the total programme. And decisions on two

other projects—the Makeni/Kabala road (the largest single project for Sierra Leone) and a project for the support of existing educational institutions, accounting together for a further 36% of the total—are expected early in 1979.

Project implementation

Thanks to the arrangements made by the Commission for the commitment of a preliminary global allocation of funds for training for all the ACP states, it was possible to award scholarships to Sierra Leone students from the beginning of 1976/77 academic year. Thus, by the time of the approval of the specific EUA 1.8 million **multi-annual training programme** for Sierra Leone, its operation was well under way. By the end of 1978, under this programme, 34 short and long-term overseas scholarships had been awarded, and 130 students with EDF scholarships were attending the University of Sierra Leone and the Milton Margai Teachers College. This preponderance of local scholarships is a reflection of the long establishment and wide range of educational institutions in Sierra Leone.

Fourah Bay College—now a constituent college of the University of Sierra Leone—was founded over 150 years ago and became a full university college of the University of Durham in 1976. Apart from **scholarships**, a successful programme of **in-service training for primary school teachers** is now in its second year of operation, and a subproject for the **supply of stocks of teaching materials** will enable the training of mechanics and other technicians to be intensified considerably.

The two projects in the **health sector** have also advanced satisfactorily. Following an international invitation to tender, which attracted very competitive bidding, contracts were awarded in the first half of 1978 for the EUA 2 million project for the supply of **equipment for hospitals, dispensaries and health centres**. Most of the equipment was delivered to Sierra Leone in the second half of the year, and installation and allocation to institutions and centres throughout the country is in progress. Under the related provision of EUA 150 000 for training and equipping hospital equipment maintenance teams, the technician/instructor has been appointed and is expected to arrive shortly.

The **integrated medical education and training project** also advanced before the final approval of the project itself, thanks to the approval, in December 1976, under the accelerated procedure, of a grant of EUA 60 000 for the design of the paramedical school at Bo—the centrepiece of the project. This will provide an entirely new category of health service workers for Sierra Leone—medical assistants, who will operate particularly in the rural areas. As a result of the early start of the design work, it was possible for the invitation to tender for the school at Bo to be issued in November 1978, immediately after formal approval of the project and signature of the financing agreement. The tenders were opened on 4 January 1979, and construction will start shortly.

The 1 million EUA line of credit to the National Development Bank Ltd. for the promotion of the **development of small and medium-scale enterprises** was approved in November 1977—one of the first of such projects to be financed by the EDF. The related loan and guarantee agreements were signed in the second half of 1978, and the National Development Bank, which already has a pipeline of suitable projects, is expected to make its first drawing under the credit shortly.

The largest single project so far approved in Sierra Leone is the **Koinadugu integrated agricultural development project** (the "KIADP") covered by a grant of EUA 5.9 million from the 4th EDF. This complex project aims at both crop and livestock development activities among small farmers and herdsmen in the extreme north of Sierra Leone. The project management team was installed and preliminary work got under way early in the second

half of 1978. The area covered is at a higher altitude and with different climatic conditions from those encountered in the majority of the farming areas of Sierra Leone, and offers particularly good potential for fruit and vegetable crops, as well as rice and other staples, and for livestock.

An even larger project, which is directly related to the KIADP, is that for the reconstruction of the **Makeni/Kabala road**, linking the centre for the KIADP—Kabala—to the main road system to Freetown, the port and capital. This project, for which EUA 10 million is earmarked in the indicative programme, is proposed to be co-financed by the EDF and by the financing agency of the Federal German government.

The necessary preliminary studies for the road have now been completed and, in anticipation of final financial decisions, interested contractors were invited in December, 1978, in notices published in Sierra Leone and the EEC, to pre-qualify for a restricted invitation to tender. When completed, according to present plans, in 1982, this road will play a key part in realising the full benefits of the KIADP, and in the development of the whole of the area it will serve.

The Sierra Leone government is particularly interested in the provisions in the Lomé Convention, of which they were a new feature, for **micro-projects**—small self-help projects, mainly in the rural areas, in which local communities, central government and the European Communities can all cooperate and make the contributions for which they are best fitted. The first annual micro-projects programme for Sierra Leone, providing for a grant of EUA 300 000 from the EDF, roughly matching the estimated contribution by

local communities and the government, was approved in July 1977, and got under way very quickly. It has since made excellent progress and should be completed during the next few months, by which time it is estimated that the combined local community and government contributions will have substantially exceeded both the original estimate and the EDF grant.

Meanwhile, building on the success of the first programme, a second and larger annual micro-projects programme was agreed in November, 1978, providing for an EDF grant of EUA 440 000 and, again, a matching local community/government contribution in cash and in kind. As in the first programme, the projects are all in rural areas, and provide a similar mix of health, educational, agricultural, community development, water supply and transport facilities, throughout the country, and of direct benefit to the participating local communities.

The other two principal projects in the programme—for the **support of existing educational institutions** and a **second integrated agricultural project** (in the Kambia and Port Loko districts)—are both in the final stages of preparation. And part of the provision in the programme for **studies** has already been allocated (and more is expected to be) for specific investigations directly aimed at the preparation of projects for the successor to the Lomé Convention now being negotiated between the ACP states and the European Communities. In this way, the government is aiming in a very practical way at minimising delays in starting to make full use of the development resources made available under the next Convention.



Rice is the staple food and is an important crop in agricultural development

Stabex

For Sierra Leone, one of the most serious consequences of the worldwide economic disturbances—in the post-1973 period of sharply-increased oil prices and general rapid inflation in costs and sharp contractions in markets for some raw materials—was the resultant insolvency and closure of the Delco iron ore mining operation at Marampa, which had for many years furnished an important share of the country's export earnings. As a result, iron ore exports totally stopped from the end of 1975, bringing serious unemployment and aggravating the already sharply-deteriorating balance of payments and financial situation.

In such circumstances, the Stabex provisions, which were such a novel and important feature of the Lomé Convention, had an early opportunity to prove their value. In May, 1977, following formal application by the government under the Convention, and agreement between Sierra Leone and Commission representatives on the relevant statistical position, a transfer



Fruit market in Free town

The EDF-backed integrated rural development projects should put a lot more fruit on the market

Sierra Leone — indicative programme (as of 16 November 1978)

(EUA million)

Projects and sectors	Original programme	Revised programme
Rural development		
Two integrated rural development projects	10.00	10.00
Studies	1.00	1.00
Health services		
Equipment for hospitals, dispensaries and health centres	2.00	2.00
Integrated medical education and training	1.00	1.50
Training and education	4.00	4.00
of which: Multi-annual training programme		(1.80)
Training and equipment of maintenance personnel for hospital equipment		(0.15)
Support for existing educational institutions		(2.05)
Roads		
Makeni/Kabala road	10.00	10.00
Studies for the Peninsula road	0.50	—
Promotion of small and medium-scale industries		
Line of credit for the National Development Bank Ltd.	1.00	1.00
Micro-projects		
1st annual programme	—	0.30
2nd annual programme	—	0.44
Contingencies and administration	3.00	2.26
Total	32.50	32.50

was approved in respect of the loss of exports of iron ore in 1976, amounting to EUA 3 977 274. The transfer, in Deutschemarks, was made in May, 1977, and thus provided valuable balance of payments and financial support at a critical time.

Other forms of cooperation between the EEC and Sierra Leone

Sierra Leone has also taken advantage of other forms of Community cooperation, both under the Lomé Convention, and, outside it, in the framework of the wider Community cooperation with developing countries. This has included trade and industrial cooperation under the Convention, and the arrangements by the Communities for food aid and support for the operations of non-governmental organisations, in the developing countries generally.

As an illustration of the importance attached to cooperation between Sierra Leone and the European Communities, the government decided, at the outset, to appoint an officer with the sole responsibility of performing the duties of national authorising officer, rather than to assign this duty to an existing ministry, and to establish a special office for this purpose. And, at a later stage, it was decided to set up an embassy in Brussels, which was established in 1978, to ensure full liaison with the Commission and the Communities. □ CHRISTOPHER COLLINS

CENTRAL AFRICAN EMPIRE

The Prime Minister visits the EEC Commission

After meeting members of the French government in Paris, Henri Maidou, Prime Minister of the Central Africa Empire, visited the EEC Commission in Brussels for talks, primarily with Claude Cheysson, the development commissioner. Mr Maidou was accompanied by various other ministers: Mr Mokodopo (foreign affairs), Mr Epaye (finance), Mr Le Boudier (planning), Mr Lakouma (defence), Mr Alazoula (transport) and Mr Salamaté (posts and communications). The main item on the agenda was implementation of the much-revised indicative programme. This programme earmarks some 40 million EUA for the Central African Empire under the Lomé Convention. Since the talks, five projects, amounting to about 64% of the total amount of the programme, have been approved.

In this interview, Mr Maidou describes the talks and discusses the economic problems of a land-locked country.

► *Prime Minister, a large government delegation from your country is in Brussels at the moment. Why?*

— No special reason. In the world today, I think the leaders of the different countries need to meet each other. Brussels has more or less become the capital of the European Community and of the ACP group and our idea in coming was to meet the Community authorities and look at the particular problems facing the Central African Empire together.

We stopped off in Paris on our way to Brussels and made contact with the French government, once again with the aim of establishing personal relations and of giving a better idea of what our government is concerned about.

► *Are you satisfied with the talks you have had with the Commission leaders in Brussels?*



Henri Maidou

— We, and I speak for the large delegation accompanying me here, are absolutely satisfied with the results. We went over the dossiers we have submitted for fourth EDF financing with Mr Cheysson and we found that 60-65% of what has been earmarked for us under the 4th EDF indicative programme has already been committed. We can't say that we aren't satisfied at that.

► *Are there any of the projects being carried out under Lomé with EDF financing that are of particular importance to your country?*

— I am pleased you asked me that, as it gives me the opportunity to give you an idea of what the Central African government thinks about the help the Community provides for the ACP countries. As far as aid to the Central African government is concerned, we are satisfied. And we are also satisfied with the Community's provision on aid for regional projects. One of these projects has already gone before the EDF without raising any particular difficulties and that is the one concerned with opening up the Central African Empire, which first means building roads. We have a Community project going with Cameroon to upgrade the Bangui-

Douala highway. This involves realigning the road and rebuilding a large number of bridges. It is an important project as far as we are concerned, because ours is a land-locked country and we have serious difficulties with our supplies. Once this project is finished, we will have made a big step towards opening up the Empire.

► *Land-locked countries always have to pay more for their imports, above all energy products, particularly since the oil crisis. Are oil supplies a particular problem at the moment?*

— We have had the same problems as everyone else. I can assure you that we really do have problems with our supplies of hydrocarbons. Our oil comes from the port at Pointe Noire and the frequent loading and unloading en route entails many hold-ups in the supplies. In addition to this, the river varies considerably from one season to another. In the dry season, about now that is, the water is low and there is much less traffic, so we find that the best time for us to get supplies and build up stocks is a fairly short period of three or four months. So between August or September and December, we have to lay in enough stocks for the dry season. But it only needs problems on the river, on the CFCO (Congo-Ocean railway) or with distribution in the Congo, and we are very seriously affected. In saying this, I am deeply aware of the difficulties involved, since, ultimately, the country's economy depends on it. If we can keep to communications for the moment, I should also like to mention one project which we are very keen on: the Bangui-Ocean railway. We expect this project to be implemented now, as the heads of the UDEAC(1) countries are in favour of it and have agreed to have a study of the railway as far as the CAE frontier carried out. This decision, to carry out a project which is of considerable interest to us, is an extremely important one.

► *Obviously, with your geographical position, you are keen on regional cooperation. It is an unavoidable necessity and, as you have just said, in a case like this, a regional organization like UDEAC can be very useful.*

— That is true. Because, ultimately, we have managed to solve the problem of regional projects within the framework of the customs union. From another point of view, it has to be admitted that the customs union is a

(1) Central African Economic and Customs Union.



Hederscheid

The Premier with his entourage of ministers, and ambassador Kombot-Naguémon to his right

market for the countries that make it up and we must recognize that it makes a genuine contribution to the economy. We perhaps still need to promote more integration, but I think that is the job of the various national leaders. This problem of properly integrated industrialization in the sub-region can be dealt with at summits in the various countries.

► *Prime Minister, without going into details, I should you to tell us about the situation as regards your main agricultural products. I am talking about coffee, cotton and timber, of course. Is the outlook satisfactory?*

— The outlook is satisfactory. Coffee is an interesting case as production increases every year and it is fair to say that prospects are good, particularly as the EDF is going to help improve family coffee-growing concerns and as the 1976 price surge attracted a lot of people and new plantations have been set up. All this should bring about a considerable improvement in coffee production in the coming years.

The cotton situation is a bit different. Since the third EDF, cotton has not had the support we would have liked from either the EDF or other sources of financing. Added to this, there is the matter of energy supplies, which affects the production of insecticides and fertilizer. Production today is stagnating, but we have taken steps to deal with this and, in his message to the nation on 4 December 1978, His Majesty Emperor Bokassa I appealed to the peasants to do their utmost to boost production of this foreign-exchange-earning commodity. Not just by acting

on the advice of extension workers from the Ministry of Agriculture, but by trying to increase production themselves.

I hope the Emperor's appeal will bring about a substantial increase in cotton production in the coming years. The ecological conditions are right and we believe that, with the infrastructure we have, we can easily produce 60-100 000 t of cotton.

► *Timber has always been one of your country's resources. Is it still?*

— Our timber trade, too, has stagnated a little because of declining world prices and the problems of trans-

port, which are in turn very much affected by energy problems. So the timber trade has not expanded much over the last few years. This is why the government has decided to try to get it to earn more for the nation by inviting forestry firms to process a large part of what they produce. As you know, most of our exports so far have been in the form of logs, where there is no added value. But the government has now got the forestry firms to cut and process their wood and to export products at various stages of completion.

► *What aspects of the new convention are of particular importance to the Central African Empire?*

— To my mind, there are two things we should be looking at particularly carefully. First, financial cooperation. There are now a large number of ACP countries and money has lost its value to the point where, I think, in the new convention, we must ask the countries of the Community to make an extra effort to bring their aid up to the level of ACP needs.

The second important point, to my mind, is the situation of the land-locked and the least-developed countries. The Central African Empire belongs to both these groups. I would like to see something done about supplies to these countries, that is to say, about their communications with the outside world. Another thing is to pay particular attention to their domestic transport systems.

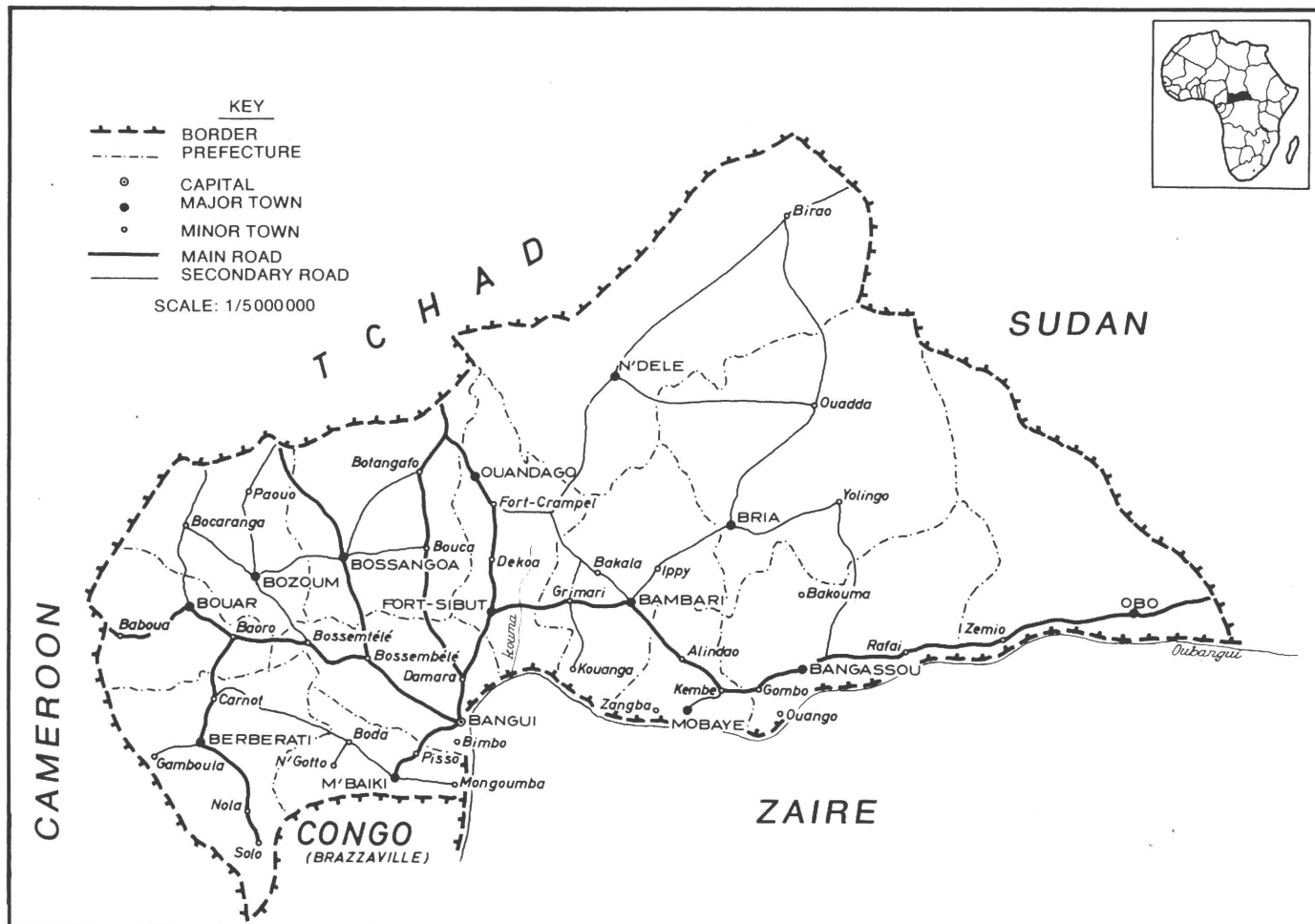
Another real problem facing all the ACP countries is industrialization. They produce raw materials but those they export, alas, are not as profitable as they ought to be. President Giscard d'Estaing has drawn attention to this



Fievet

Cotton in the cooperative

CENTRAL AFRICAN EMPIRE



Area: 622 984 sq. km

Population: (1976) 1 830 000; rate of increase: 2.23%; working population: approx. 1 m, of which approx. 90% in agriculture

Capital: Bangui (250 000 inhabitants)

Other main towns: Berberati (45 000); Bossangoa (40 000); Bambari (35 000); Bouar (30 000)

Languages: French and Sango

Date of independence: 13 August 1960

Head of State: Emperor Bokassa I

Member of: UN, OAU, OCAM, UDEAC, franc area, ACP group

Currency: CFA Franc; US \$ 1 = F CFA 241.95 (February 1978)

GNP: (1976, at market prices): US \$ 420 m; per capita: US \$ 230

Main products (1976):

agricultural: roots, tubers: 911 500 t; bananas: 71 300 t; cereals (total): 93 000 t; millet: 43 000 t; maize: 38 000 t; cotton (seeds): 37 800 t; cotton (fibres): 12 800 t; unshelled groundnuts: 36 400 t; oranges: 11 000 t; coffee: 9 900 t; wood in the rough: 319 607 cu. m

livestock: cattle: 609 800; sheep: 62 100

minerals: industrial and gem diamonds: 286 000 carats

manufactures: sawn wood and sleepers: 72 m cu. m.; electrical energy: 53 m Kwh

Foreign trade (1976):

Imports: US \$ 51.187 m

Exports: US \$ 58.422 m

Trade balance: surplus of US \$ 7.235 m

Main exports: coffee: US \$ 19.7 m; non-coniferous wood in the rough: US \$ 10 m; non-coniferous sawn wood: US \$ 4.1 m; raw cotton not including linters: US \$ 9.7 m; diamonds (20% of total)

Main imports: machinery and transport equipment: US \$ 17.8 m; other industrial products: US \$ 17.3 m; food products: US \$ 8.7 m; chemicals: US \$ 5.3 m

Major export destinations: EEC: US \$ 42.7 m, (France: US \$ 25.9 m; Italy: US \$ 8 m); Japan: US \$ 2.1 m; other countries of tropical Africa: US \$ 2.1 m

Major import sources: EEC: US \$ 35.8 m (France: US \$ 23.9 m; Federal Republic of Germany: US \$ 5.6 m; US: US \$ 1.9 m; Japan: US \$ 1.5 m; other countries of tropical Africa: US \$ 3.8 m)

Budget (1977)(1): US \$ 89.25 m (operating budget): US \$ 71.75 m and capital budget: US \$ 17.5 m

Development plan: emphasis on agriculture, transport and manufacturing

Education: primary education: 221 410 pupils (1975); secondary education: 19 320 pupils (1974); higher education: 320 students (1974)

Health: persons per hospital bed: 529; persons per doctor: 28 831

Foreign aid (1976): total net public and private aid: US \$ 33.65 m, of which: EEC Member States: US \$ 25.29 m; Canada: US \$ 0.09 m; EDF: US \$ 7.77 m; other multilateral sources: US \$ 0.53 m

(1) 1977 conversion rate: US \$ 1 = F CFA 245.67

Source: Directorate-general for research and documentation, European Parliament, Luxembourg (1978)

CAE: indicative programme (May 1978)

	CFA francs(1)	EUA
Production		
1. Improved coffee-growing (family plots)	1 280 000 000	4 600 000(2)
2. Agricultural development in Ouham	1 720 000 000	6 099 000(2)
3. Clearance and development for livestock at Bambari	350 000 000	1 241 000(2)
4. Developing fish-farming, Landjia	55 000 000	185 000
5. Small-scale market gardening, Bangui and Bouar	40 000 000	141 000
Total, production	3 445 000 000	12 266 000
Transport and communications		
1. Road works (rebuilding) on RN 2 and 3	330 000 000	1 195 000(2)
2. Technical studies for bridges on RN 2 and 3	39 000 000	141 000(2)
3. Bridges RN 2 and 3	1 200 000 000	4 255 000
4. Repairs on Bossembele-Garoua Boulai (Cameroon) section, road works	1 200 000 000	4 326 000
5. Relaying of Bangui-Damara road	914 000 000	3 290 000(2)
6. Improvements to river transport	700 000 000	2 500 000(2)
7. Study for Bangui airport extension	30 000 000	106 000
Total, transport and communications infrastructure	4 433 000 000	15 813 000

	CFA francs(1)	EUA
Urban development		
1. Extension to Bangui water supplies	485 000 000	1 179 000
2. Technical assistance to Société nationale des eaux	90 000 000	319 000
3. Addition to Bangui abattoir	416 000 000	1 475 000
Total, urban development	991 000 000	3 513 000
Social sector		
1. Multi-annual training programme	330 000 000	1 170 000(2)
2. Public health and clinical biology laboratory	300 000 000	1 063 000(1)
3. Teacher training and technical colleges, Bangui	500 000 000	1 773 000
Total, social sector	1 130 000 000	4 006 000
Miscellaneous		
1. Small and medium-sized businesses	365 000 000	1 300 000
2. Trade promotion	50 000 000	174 000
3. Technical assistance to Ministry of Planning	50 000 000	180 000(2)
4. Delegation costs	750 000 000	2 700 000
Total, miscellaneous	1 215 000 000	4 554 000
Grand total	11 214 000 000	39 962 000
(1) 1 EUA = 288 CFAF. (2) Work in hand.		

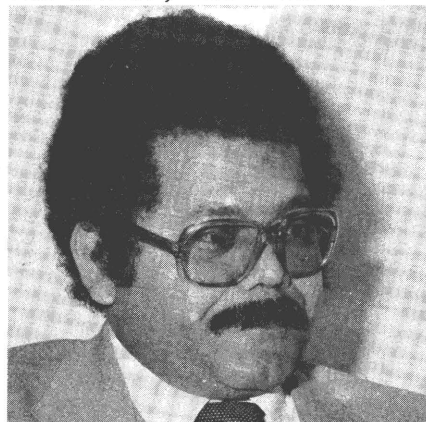
aspect of the problem of the new international economic order and it is one of the points that the negotiators should be concentrating on. If they can devise a formula for transferring industrial knowhow and capital to promote ACP industry faster, then I think they will have gone some way towards reaching the target of a fairer world economic order.

Before ending this interview, I should just like to add that we were extremely honoured to be received by King Baudouin, as this gave us the opportunity to convey the greetings of our Emperor Bokassa I and to tell him how we hoped to see cooperation between the Central African government and the Belgian government develop. He was most interested in everything we said and we should like to take this opportunity of thanking him. Then the outgoing Prime Minister gave us an audience of an hour and we went further into the subjects we had brought up with His Majesty the King. He too was very interested in helping develop cooperation between the Central African Empire and Belgium. We mentioned that we hoped to see private industry take a bigger interest in our country and he promised to see whether special provisions might not be made to facilitate Belgian investments in Central Africa. □

Interview by A.L.

Planning minister's conference

Central African planning minister Jean-Pierre Le Boudier gave a conference at the Royal Institute of International Relations in Brussels on 25 January. He introduced his country, its principal resources and its development prospects and he laid particular emphasis on the fact that the Central African Empire had a national language that was spoken and understood throughout the country, thus making a considerable contribution to national unity. He also emphasized that his was a land-locked country and that the shortest route to the sea was more than 1 200 km long. This obviously meant that the com-



munications infrastructure was top priority (as the Prime Minister also made clear in his interview with the *Courier*). On the subject of mining, the minister said that, as well as diamonds, the Empire had iron near Bangui, copper in the north east and uranium in the east, and that oil prospectation was being carried out in the north. Agriculture was based on coffee, cotton, tobacco, timber and food crops and the emergent industry mainly involved the part-processing of agricultural produce, textiles, brewing and diamond cutting. The future development plan would put priority on anything that would break down the problems attached to being land-locked, increase production so as to increase incomes and place emphasis on training by developing a local university and a number of institutes (primarily of technology). Mr Le Boudier stressed the government's desire to develop stock-breeding and to persuade foreigners to invest by providing an attractive investment code. As far as Lomé II negotiations were concerned, he particularly mentioned his country's interest in seeing the specific measures for land-locked countries improved. □

“ACP-EEC—united we shall overcome”

Fabrizia Baduel Glorioso
Chairman of the Economic and Social Committee

“Over the next two-year period, Europe will be facing three problems on which its survival will depend. Consolidation. Enlargement to include three new members(1). And renewal of the Lomé Convention and relations with the Mediterranean countries”.

So said Fabrizia Baduel Glorioso on her election as chairman of the Economic and Social Committee, a European institution that she sees as being, “a major support for political and economic democracy via the participation of economic and social forces”.

Mrs Baduel Glorioso has a long-standing personal commitment to relations between Europe and the developing countries and she is profoundly convinced that, far more than the other big economic powers,

“crisis-ridden Europe, with its limited resources, is gambling its future not only at the North-North negotiating table but perhaps even more at the North-South negotiating table”.

In this interview, Mrs Baduel Glorioso describes how the Economic and Social Committee fits into the general pattern of European structures and the increasingly important role it plays in ACP-EEC cooperation. During her term as chairman, particular attention will be paid to this subject, bearing in mind the new convention, since “this economic and cultural cooperation between nations is historic and could ultimately provide an answer to a world-wide problem”.

New dialectics

As Mrs Baduel Glorioso sees it, the idea in setting up the Economic and Social Committee was to encourage good social relations. But this can only be the “result of a discussion between everyone involved in the social contract, the employers, the workers and the various interests”.

The Economic and Social Committee, sometimes referred to as “Eco-soc”, is a meeting place where the economic and social forces of Europe can come together and cooperate. During its 20 years’ existence, the Committee has seen a new balance of power gradually emerge between the various groups.

Discussion between these groups has gradually taken the place of a country-country approach and enlarged the scope and the effect of the opinions the Committee has issued on the various problems dealt with so far.

The links between the Committee and other European institutions, i.e. the Council, the Commission and the European Parliament, have been tightened since the Committee obtained the right to issue ‘opinions’ in 1972 at the Paris summit.

The chairman feels that “the consultation of the socio-economic forces is fundamental to democracy in Europe.



Heiderscheid

Fabrizia Baduel Glorioso

The cooperation portfolio is one of her main concerns

Although it is the parliament and the governments that take the decisions, who could fail to take account of the views of these representatives of the socio-economic life of the Community who have the power to bring down any decision taken by either the national governments or the European institutions?”

Now the Committee’s main aim is to strengthen its ties with the European Parliament, mainly with a view to direct elections in June of this year, since, as

Mrs Baduel Glorioso says, it has so far found it extremely difficult to establish contact with the people of Europe themselves. Although Committee members belong to different socio-professional organizations, they are appointed by the Council of Ministers on an individual basis.

But the possibility of exchanges of information and the occasional disagreement between the socio-economic groups is an essential part of the dynamic process of European development.

The socio-economic milieu and cooperation with the developing countries

According to its chairman, the Economic and Social Committee is clearly divided on the subject of EEC-Third world relations. There are those who want a global, world-wide approach for Africa, Latin America and Asia, the three main developing areas, and there are those who put emphasis more on the agreements with the Mediterranean and the ACP countries, and therefore on the Lomé Convention.

“Personally bearing in mind that the main concern of our times is to find an answer to the problem of relations between the developed and the developing world, I am sure that the global approach does not exclude, far from it, the specific framework and preferential inter-regional agreements signed with the ACP states, for example”.

(1) Greece, Spain and Portugal.

The Economic and Social Committee:

its functions and membership

As an advisory body of the European Communities, the Economic and Social Committee forms an integral part of the Communities' institutional machinery. Its functions can be indicated by taking a look at the Community legislative procedure:

- **The Commission** initiates and implements Community legislation;
- **The Council** makes the decisions — but, beforehand, the draft legislation is submitted to two representative assemblies:
- **The European Parliament** which has advisory, budgetary and supervisory powers, and
- **The Economic and Social Committee** which was set up under the Rome treaties (Articles 4 and 193 to 198 of the EEC treaty, articles 3 and 165 to 170 of the EURATOM treaty).

The purpose of the Committee is to involve representatives of the various economic and social interest groups in the establishment of the common market by giving them an institutional vehicle for expressing their views to the Commission and the Council.

Under the EEC treaty, the Council or the Commission must consult the Committee on matters relating to agriculture, freedom of movement for workers, right of establishment, transport, approximation of laws, social policy, the European Social Fund and vocational training. Under the EURATOM treaty, the Committee has to be consulted on certain aspects of nuclear policy: research and training programmes, establishment of schools for training specialists, health and safety, investment, access to skilled jobs and insurance cover against nuclear risks. If they wish, the Council and the Commission may also consult the Committee on other matters. In addition, the Committee has obtained the right to advise on its own initiative on all matters relating to the work of the Community. On average the Committee now delivers over a 100 opinions per year.

The Committee consists of representatives of:

- employers (Group I);
 - workers (Group II);
 - various Interests (Group III),
- such as agriculture, transport, trade, small businesses, the professions and consumers.

The 144 members are drawn from the nine Member States:

— Belgium	12
— Denmark	9
— France	24
— Germany	24
— Ireland	9
— Italy	24
— Luxembourg	6
— the Netherlands	12
— the United Kingdom	24

Members are nominated by the Member States' Governments and appointed by the Council. Their term of office lasts four years and can be renewed.

The last re-appointment of the full Committee took place in 1978. The next one is due in 1982.

The Committee elects its Chairman and Bureau from among its members for a term of two years. The Bureau,

consisting of 21 members, has the job of organizing the Committee's work.

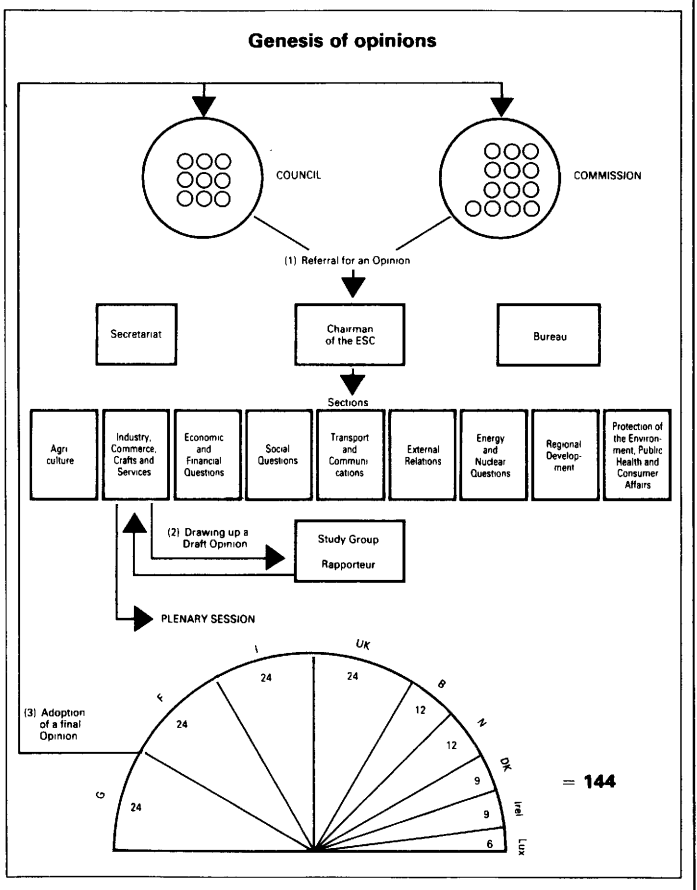
The Committee has set up nine sections, each of which is responsible for one or more of the principal fields covered by the Rome treaties:

- section for economic and financial questions
- section for external relations
- section for social questions
- section for the protection of the environment, public health and consumer affairs
- section for agriculture
- section for regional development
- section for industry, commerce, crafts and services
- section for transport and communications
- section for energy and nuclear questions.

The sections draw up draft opinions on matters which have been referred to the Committee by the Council or the Commission or have been taken up by the Committee on its own initiative.

The Committee adopts its opinions at its monthly plenary sessions. These opinions, which are based on the sections' draft opinions, are then forwarded, together with the relevant section reports, to the Council and the Commission.

The Committee has its own secretariat, numbering about 320 officials and headed by a Secretary-General Mr Roger Louet. Committee documents are drawn up in the six Community languages.





Heiderscheid

The economic and social forces "must be involved... if we want to establish loyal and dynamic cooperation between the ACP and the EEC countries"

But in spite of these links, Mrs Baduel Glorioso was convinced that "the Africans do not understand the Europeans enough and the Europeans do not understand the Africans enough". And, she felt it is in the various economic and social milieux that, in view of the economic and social scope of the agreements, the Committee should fulfil its function as an advisory body.

"Even if, in view of the varying degrees of industrialization, economic and social forces do not manifest themselves in the same way in Africa and in Europe, there are nevertheless representatives in the ACP countries who are able to cooperate with their opposite numbers in Europe. One example of this is the Organization for African Trade Union Unity, (OATUU)".

"As I see it, there has been far too great a tendency for the Economic and Social Committee to be both overlooked and underestimated by the ACP governments, although, clearly, we can encourage and facilitate cooperation and even avoid creating obstacles to it in such fields as trade, industry and agriculture. If we want to establish loyal and dynamic cooperation between the ACP and EEC countries, then more than the authorities, the governments and the parliaments, must be involved. The economic and social forces representing similar interests on both sides, be they workers and the defence of their rights, employers and industrial cooperation, farmers and trade or whatever, all have their part to play," Mrs Baduel Glorioso said.

Helping implement EEC-ACP conventions

The Economic and Social Committee has concerned itself with the Lomé Convention at various times in the past. It has given its views on a number of occasions, most recently in July 1978, when its opinion was based on a report by André Soulat (France, workers' group) which summed up the first years of operation of the Lomé Convention with a view to the negotiations for its renewal.

Groundwork for the opinion was carried out in early 1978 when Ecosoc delegations visited a series of ACP countries (Kenya, Zambia, Mali, Togo, Ghana and Cameroon). The new chairman also intends visiting some of the ACP countries, including applicants like Mozambique herself.

Properly speaking, the legal means of organizing the participation of economic and social forces are two articles of the Lomé Convention. They are Article 74 (6), which is to be imple-

"... this economic and cultural cooperation between nations is historic and could ultimately provide an answer to a world-wide problem ..."

mented by decision of the Council, and Article 80 (5), which can be acted on by the Consultative Assembly. There are also various articles on the role of economic operators in such fields as industrial cooperation.

Although Article 74 (6) has not yet been put into practice, the ACP-EEC Consultative Assembly has complied with the aims and the wishes of the Economic and Social Committee and, to a certain extent, with those of their ACP counterparts, by involving representatives of socio-economic milieux in implementation of the Lomé Convention.

So they have been represented at most meetings of the ACP-EEC Joint Committee. The first real consultation of socio-economic organizations took place in June 1977; there was a further meeting in September 1978 when, for the first time, a specific subject, namely the textile industry in the developing and the developed world, was discussed.

Mrs Baduel Glorioso is now planning a series of measures "to get the Committee more involved in devising and implementing the next convention. Although it is too early to think about a specific ACP-EEC institution, we still want to have an operational unit which

will systematically associate us with the work of the Convention".

She is therefore giving a new lease of life to an *ad hoc* group on professional relations dating back to 1974-76, when Henri Canonge (France) was chairman of the Economic and Social Committee. It could combine 18 members from a variety of backgrounds (external relations, social affairs, agriculture, industry, etc.) and have the chairman of the Committee at its head.

Structural adjustment in Europe

Last September's discussion of the textile industry in Europe and the ACP countries is only one specific example of a general problem that ACP-EEC social and economic representatives could be dealing with. Cooperation is necessary in the overall framework of interdependence, development and the adaptation of industrial structures, with their obvious implications for trade and society, if unplanned developments are to be avoided and the most is to be made of the possibility of "dynamic complementarity based on co-responsibility" (Glorioso).

"We must achieve some sort of logic in industrial/trade relations in a global framework. We cannot, for example, sell textile machinery to the ACP countries and then prevent them from selling textiles to us". This overall approach must be studied dynamically,

"I should like to say personally that the strongest voices on the Committee are against colonialism and neo-colonialism and for cooperation, between equal countries with equal rights but at different stages of experience and development"



Heiderscheid

on a sectoral basis, as "the world market is such that neither Europe nor the ACP countries can establish once and for all precise complementarities for a precise period", Mrs Baduel Glorioso said.

"If everyone concerned makes the necessary sacrifices in Europe, (particularly, as regards level of wages and professional mobility between the different sectors as a means of combatting unemployment), I am sure we can achieve a better economic balance".

A first practical step in this direction would be a meeting between representatives of socio-economic bodies in the EEC and ACP countries, taking advantage of the fact that representatives of ACP employers and unions will be in Europe (Geneva) next June for the annual meeting of the ILO.

This meeting could also think about preparation for further meetings, particularly within the framework of the next meetings of the Joint Committee of the Consultative Assembly.

The social content of the Convention

As a union member, Mrs Baduel Glorioso is directly concerned by the social effect of ACP-EEC relations and particularly by the recent Commission proposal on getting the developing countries to respect some minimum labour standards (see *Courier* no. 53, yellow pages).

"In my view, we must, gradually and in a flexible manner, get the developing world and the ACP countries in particular to commit themselves to, and actually apply, social legislation that is internationally recognized, particularly by the ILO. But this must be done in the light of the fact that situations (i.e. the level of industrialization in the developing countries) vary with full respect for the sovereignty of these countries. After all, these laws are the upshot of several centuries of industrial and social development in the rich countries and the young countries, basically, have barely won their independence. In general, European workers are concerned that the workers in the ACP countries, as their natural allies, should also spontaneously benefit from the Lomé Convention."

Europe the peace-maker

Mrs Baduel Glorioso has a profound respect for ACP independence. She was spokesman for the Italian unions at the conference on the independence of the ex-Portuguese colonies in Rome in 1970 and at the first anti-apartheid conference in Geneva in 1976.

Fabrizia Baduel Glorioso

From trade unionism to the Economic and Social Committee

At her inaugural speech, Mrs Fabrizio Baduel Glorioso, who was elected chairman of the Committee for a two-year period in October 1978, emphasized that she was "an Italian, a woman and a trade unionist".

She was born in Perugia in Italy, one of the founder members of the EEC set up by the Treaty of Rome in 1957. After obtaining the degree of doctor of laws, she joined the research department at the CISL, (Confederation of Italian Workers' Unions) in 1953, when she also began taking an active part in OECD union activity. In 1965, she became head of the international section of the ICFTU (International Confederation of Free Trade Unions) and, from 1965-70, sat on the EEC committees on the social fund, free movement of workers and vocational training.

Since then, Mrs Baduel Glorioso has represented the ICFTU at a number of international European trade union congresses, particularly in 1969 at the ILO and the congresses

and executive committees of the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (of which she was a member of the executive committee from 1969-1974). As well as going on missions to most industrialized countries, she has been active in the creation of the European Confederation of Trade Unions.

Her interest in international affairs is reflected in her membership of the steering committee of the Italian Council of the European Movement, the Institute of international Affairs in Rome and the Institute for Relations between Italy, Africa, the Middle East and Latin America.

Mrs Baduel Glorioso will be seeking greater recognition for and awareness of the role of women in society, in productive activities and in political and trade union representation. She is the first woman to be chairman of the Economic and Social Committee since it was set up by the Treaty of Rome. □

"We must show our solidarity with African political forces that are fighting for independence, against apartheid and for African unity. We at the Economic and Social Committee have never made any political statements about ACP-EEC relations and I should like to say, personally, that the strongest voices on the Committee are against colonialism and neo-colonialism and for cooperation, between equal countries with equal rights but at different stages of experience and development.

"It is politically important for both the people and the leaders in the ACP states to realize that there is this commitment and that, on the basis of this development, we should join together to think about controlled restructuring along rational lines, and not just spontaneous change that is less effective in the long run."

Mrs Baduel Glorioso considered that Lomé is "only the start of cooperation. There has been a certain amount of basic misunderstanding between the two sides. I think that neither had enough confidence in the other, because they each tried to strengthen their own position.

"The Europeans thought up a fairly simplistic division of labour, a relatively complex financial cooperation, a fairly hierarchical industrial cooperation and so on. The ACP countries were constantly on their guard because they felt they were only a market and an outlet as far as Europe was concerned. But, all in all, things have gone far better than I anticipated and it is now up to us to capitalize on the experience".

The chairman of the Committee felt that "the economic and social forces of Europe are ready to make an effort to overcome the crisis. Not just by waiting for an improvement in the economic situation, but by devising structural changes. This is Europe's challenge and it is a serious one, as the present crisis could lead to decadence. Europe is staking its future not just on collaboration and competition in the northern hemisphere, but, perhaps above all, on collaboration with the south. This should be taken to mean that Europe, a great economic power but with limited resources, is not a great military power, but a power that wants to play the role of peace-maker by taking a stand against discrimination in all its forms." □

ROGER DE BACKER

Georges Berthouin

International president of the European Movement

- **The European Parliament: "We must get the Parliament to use its existing powers."**
- **Enlargement: "Enlargement will mean reinforcement."**
- **Interdependence: "The solution we find will decide whether we have war or peace in the world."**

"The European Movement was created 30 years ago after the conference of The Hague, the first major meeting of Europeanists from politics, industry, the unions and cultural affairs. It both mobilizes and provides an institutional shape for the good will of all these people. For 30 years now, this private movement (for it is not a public institution), has been one of the driving forces for European unification. It has not been alone.

Its members are not just from the European Community: They come from eight other countries too. The movement, in fact, groups together 17 national organizations plus a certain number of others, that I call vertical organizations, like the Union of European Federalists, the European League for Economic Cooperation, and so on. It is organized on the basis of the national and the vertical organizations in as decentralized a manner as possible.

The movement also has various international institutions, the most important of which are:

- the federal council, the supreme body of the movement, consisting of representatives of all the member organizations;
- the executive committee, which holds frequent meetings between the (usually annual) meetings of the federal council;
- the international president."

► *Never have people talked so much about Europe before. Because of direct elections to the European Parliament in June, many leading figures and many organizations are giving their opinions and speaking for or against Europe as they understand it. Can I ask you what is being done as regards the European Movement taking part in this election campaign?*

— Our main activities are within the member organizations. We stress the role which the national and vertical organizations should play. At the moment, our international structures are far less active than they usually are or than they will be after the elections for a very simple reason: the voters are going to be made much more aware of what is involved at national level, since the different constituencies are much influenced by national problems. The European Movement has a lot of influence within this framework, varying slightly from country to country in the light of historical, political and other factors.

► *What are the issues you intend emphasizing during the election campaign?*

— The essential issues are the social issues. We have talked about them at international level and the national organizations agree with our conclusions. At the top of the list we shall put unemployment and anything that will help solve that problem. This means new industrial strategies and it means regional policy, regional planning and the European-wide coordination of some social policies. And it also means anything that traditionally affects unemployment, if I can put it like that.

Then there is the problem of protecting the consumer and the environment. Presentation here will vary from country to country, but we feel that these themes are of direct concern to the voters.

Next but not necessarily in order of importance, there is the problem of opening the EEC to the outside world and first, obviously, to the countries associated to it by the Lomé Convention. We have three ideas here. First, we must modify our conception of aid far more. That is to say that we must encourage whatever will help the developing countries find their own way to economic survival and to development, as aid/charity gives rise to a great deal of psychological and political misunderstanding.

The second idea is to pay much more attention than we have done to respecting the social and cultural structures of the countries concerned. Many of us in the movement are struck by the fact that the high-speed development generated by some aid programmes destroys traditional social structures and that we could well, with this human vacuum which breakneck industrial development creates, be contributing to destroying cultures, civilizations and societies that have established their own balance. This is just one of the lessons to be learned from, for example, the crisis in Iran.

And the third idea is that we feel that it is in the genuine interest of the industrialized countries, particularly the EEC, to find ways of redistributing purchasing power, among Lomé and non-Lomé members, that will make some sort of contribution to expanding industry in our own countries.

► *You have just described the European Movement and outlined the problems it will be stressing in the run up to the elections in June. But Europe today is very different from Europe in 1947-48 when the movement began. A good deal of progress has been made, naturally, but there is less enthusiasm. Don't you think it would be a severe blow to the European ideal if there was only a small turnout at the elections?*

— I think there will be a far bigger turnout than people imagine, the reason being, perhaps, one of voting method. Except in the case of the United Kingdom, most countries of the Community have opted for proportional representation, which means that all the traditional political forces have every interest in showing that they are forces to be reckoned with.

► *People in politics are obviously interested in the prospect of elections to the European Parliament. You only have to look at the newspapers. But certain countries have opted for a single nation-wide constituency. Don't you think this method of consultation is unlikely to get the voters moving?*

— I am sorry that some countries have opted to have one constituency that covers the whole land, as this will do nothing to bring the representative any closer to the electors. We are faced with a *de facto* situation here and we have to accept it. But I deplore it and I hope that, once the June elections are over, the European Movement will take a stand on the future electoral law. As you know, the new Parliament we elect will have to propose a new European electoral law. I hope that its proposals will take account of what I have just said and of the fact that I regret the situation.

The UK is an exception here. The method the British have chosen is perhaps nearest to the ideal system. They have opted for regional constituencies, a means of bringing the representative closer to his or her voters. And what I know of the selection procedure leads to me to expect that the people standing in the elections will have been chosen by people in the regions, and not by party headquarters, whereas the selection and the order of candidates on a national list are inevitably the work of party headquarters. The UK has, to my mind, something approaching the best system here.

► *But, on the other hand, in the UK, in a more restricted framework, the system will be a majority one?*

— That is true. And that is why, in view of a certain lack of enthusiasm about one or two of the national systems, it seems reasonable to suggest, broadly speaking, even when the constituency is the same as the national territory, that proportional representation in the first election would lead the parties to do their utmost to get the best results and therefore to attract their traditional supporters to the polling booth. This should help cut down considerably on abstentions. Obviously there are no legal problems if the turnout is too small, but the moral and political authority of the European Parliament could suffer.

► *You said the political and moral authority of the European Parliament. What do you think about the current debate on extending its powers?*

— Personally I think this is a bit extravagant and I am not taking it very seriously. I should like to answer your question by referring to something you



Georges Berthouin

said just now about feeling there is less enthusiasm today than there was 30 years ago or than there was in the '50s when the European Community was in its infancy. I think the public feel that European unity has been partly achieved, and I think that the outside world thinks that Europe is far more united than it really is. But the apparently waning enthusiasm is the result of a success. There's nothing like a successful political project for dampening enthusiasm. If it succeeds, it merges into everyday life and you forget it and think about something else. So one of the reasons for the decline in enthusiasm, to my mind, is the success of what we set out to do 30 years back.

This brings me to what I wanted to say in answer to your last question. We have made considerable progress with our institutions. We have very complex, very sophisticated institutions, with their federal, confederal and intergovernmental sides, which have been operating for a quarter of a century. The problem at the moment is not so much one of fighting to increase the power of the institutions as to decide whether they are going to use the powers they already have. I think the European Parliament, and the Commission, indeed, have been somewhat reluctant to use their powers in recent years.

The European Movement has taken a stand here. Our first battle cry and the subject of all the advice we gave both in public and private was that, before embarking on a discussion of extending the Parliament's powers, the aim should be to get it to use the powers it already has. And the powers it has, as things stand, are considerable. Look at the wrangle there was between the European Parliament and the Council of Ministers over the Community bud-

get. This shows that, without going beyond the Treaty of Rome, it is possible to make political choices (at regional level now and maybe in other sectors later on) without any institutional or constitutional changes. So I think it is bad tactics to be seeking more powers when existing ones are put to little or to bad use. If the existing powers are properly used, then everyone will quite naturally see the need to extend them. But asking for more when the Parliament doesn't use what it has tends to seem (and I don't mean to those who are against Community-type European unity, but to many reasonable people) an exaggerated and unjustified demand. I believe in gradual change in this field, since most of the progress we have made with our institutions has been achieved through hard work, treaties and political negotiation over a period of 25 years.

► *The forthcoming election is certainly a good thing and the first advantage, as we said just now, is that it is making people talk about Europe. But this is only a passing event and it would be a good thing if people went on talking about it afterwards. So what does the European Movement intend doing to help get European ideas and European policy off to a fresh start? Are you interested in trying to go a bit further than the current state of affairs, for example? It is a good thing to bring together large numbers of eminent people and a certain European elite, but don't you want a larger membership?*

— That is a key question that my friends and I are also wondering about. To my mind, the European Movement will have an essential part to play after the June elections. I have already visited 10 of the member countries of the movement, the nine EEC countries and Spain. I have met most of the political leaders and all the heads of government and I can see that they too have reached the same conclusion. Our European institutions must always be the object of requests from outside. This kind of thing will give the movement its second wind. And this is why we are studying a fairly basic reform of the European Movement, which will first give it the chance of greater authority by pushing up membership. The target I have proposed is an ambitious one: one million members in the 17 countries. It is both a slogan and a very specific goal which several countries are already trying to reach and they are using the European election campaign to enlist recruits.

Furthermore, I intend suggesting having at the head of the movement an executive committee that is as collegial as possible. I shall have the help of

leading political figures to select a number of topics and to get the whole of the movement mobilized, and to present them to the institutions just as political movements do to public institutions, so that the rate of European development can be constantly maintained.

So, once the elections are over, the movement is going to be making an even greater effort to ensure that this passing event that you mention in fact has its effect. One of the reasons for the advantages that many people see here is that, in certain countries, the distance between the voter and his or her representative will be so great that an intermediary will be required, and the movement could well be this intermediary.

► *One particular topic that is going to be increasingly in the public eye is enlargement. Nearly everyone is pro-enlargement, although there are one or two exceptions. The majority of the political parties and governments and a large section of the general public desire enlargement at political level. But, economically speaking, there are problems, particularly in some of the countries of the Community. I should first like to ask you whether you think enlargement is a good idea, and then whether it is likely to increase or detract from the internal cohesion of the EEC?*

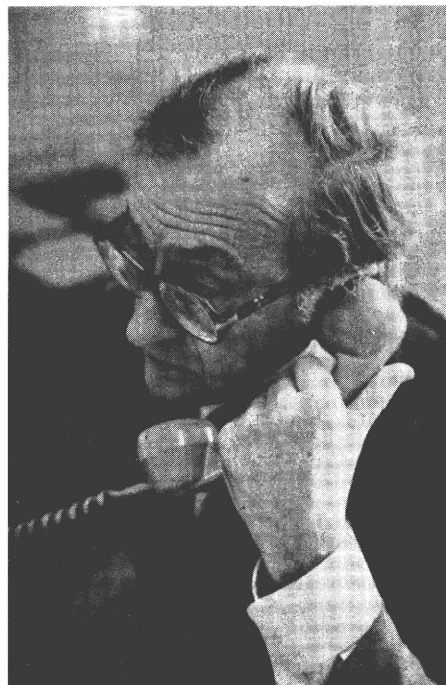
— Undeniably, it is a good thing, and I think that the three applicants and the nine governments have made a clear political choice along the right lines. So politically speaking, I would say that enlargement is a matter of course. But economically speaking, there are problems facing both the applicants and the present members, just as there were when the original six expanded to become nine. The aim of the negotiations that have taken place with Greece and that are scheduled to take place with the other countries is to devise the machinery and define the transitional periods that will enable the problems to be dealt with. The aim of the negotiations is not to decide whether to enlarge or not, but how to enlarge without provoking any economic or social disaster in one or other of the countries concerned.

And personally, I am convinced, contrary to popular opinion, that the jump from nine to twelve will strengthen the Community. For the three new members, joining the EEC is a basic necessity in all fields, far more so perhaps than it was for Denmark, Ireland and the UK. Look at Spain. Compared to the general view in the nine, Spain's conception of Europe and its institutions is much nearer the ideas of the

founders. And my personal conviction is that, once they have joined, they will be among those asking for the Community to be strengthened rather than in the camp seeking to change the EEC into some vague free trade area. From this point of view, I think enlargement will mean reinforcement. There will be a reinforcement of our attitude to development problems too. I think the three new members are perhaps more aware than either the six or the nine of what the problem of development means. This could well mean that, on their behalf, we shall be meeting requests for quite large loans and transfers. But at the same time, it will, I think, lead us to transform the Community's attitude to the problem of development, particularly in Africa, in a very positive manner. Spain, Portugal and Greece will help us avoid having the mentality of a rich man's club.

A third important point is that, for economic, political and social reasons, these countries will help us see certain parts of the world better than we do now. I am thinking particularly of South America here, both the Spanish-speaking and the Portuguese-speaking parts. If we can get a better grasp of the problems of South America then I think we will come nearer to having a positive global conception of the problems of developed/developing country relations.

► *What you have just said about enlargement, which you feel should*



“The target I have proposed is an ambitious one: one million members in the 17 countries”

mean a trend towards reinforcement of the Community, is extremely interesting. You also mentioned the favourable consequences for the developing countries. Do you think the European Movement could bring up a topic like interdependence during the current election campaign and that this is a subject that is likely to be important in the future?

— I don't know whether interdependence will come up much during the election campaign. Naturally, the political parties standing try to deal with the immediate concerns of the voters. But the big topic which everyone will have to discuss after the elections is interdependence. This is in line with what the founders of the European Community meant when they said that the attempts to unite Europe were a contribution towards peace. I think, that unless we can solve the problem of interdependence, we will endanger world peace. I think that today, for the first time since the end of World War II, peace in the world is in danger and the solution we find for the problem of interdependence will decide whether we have war or peace. And I am not just saying this for effect.

I think that in many regions, the structures of the European Community and the Lomé Convention are considered to be perhaps the most effective way of organizing interdependence on a world scale. In our Community, as in Lomé, we have managed to get two principles generally thought to be opposed to exist side by side. On the one hand we have a respect for national sovereignty, a very important thing for the developing countries, as it is often the best political arm in negotiations, and on the other we have the development of a multinational territory. In Lomé, we have found a way of organizing interdependence between the countries of the Community and 56 other countries and, at the same time, we have institutions that respect the regimes and independence of them all. This is where we may find solutions for the whole world. It means, for example, that communist countries should be able to live harmoniously in a system of this kind without feeling that any world-wide cooperation endangers the political and economic choices they have made. We are the only ones to have found a practical and institutional way of getting these two contrary notions to co-exist. I don't know what the movement will decide about this, but it is a matter of priority for both our deliberation and our proposals as far as I am concerned. I should be surprised, in view of what I know about the men who run the European Movement, if this were not generally accepted as a priority. □ Interview by A.L.

What is the Eurobarometer?

Jacques-René Rabier(*) explains how it works and gives it a tap

"The Commission set up the Eurobarometer in early 1974 after repeated requests from the European Parliament to develop opinion polls in Europe, so that the Commission's information policy could be better adapted to the attitudes, expectations and hopes of the European public. Since 1974, therefore, a survey has been run every six months in the nine countries of the Community".

► *Can you sum up the principles underlying the choice of method used in these polls and tell us how they are actually carried out?*

— Our method is the one used in all opinion polls run by political organizations, newspapers and the governments themselves. I can't think of any governments that don't sound out public opinion in their countries. They may or may not publish the results, but that's another story. We publish everything we do. Our method is to contract surveys out to public opinion research institutes in the various countries of the Community and they, under our supervision, carry out the field work. That is to say, they select the samples and run the questionnaire.

You know the principle behind the surveys. With countries such as Germany, France, Italy, the UK or Belgium, regardless of the size of the population we want to cover, the idea is to take a sample that is as representative as possible of the whole population. Statistically, it has been shown that a properly conducted survey of one to two thousand respondents in France, Belgium or the UK will give the same answers as you would get if you interviewed everybody which you obviously can't do. The principle of the survey is just like the idea behind the random checks they do on car or other production lines.

► *So you use a comparable method and a comparable sample in each of the Member States?*

— Comparable samples. This means that every 1 000-person sample in Germany or the UK contains just as many men as women, because men and

women are more or less equally divided in the population as a whole, and the proportions of young to old, farmers to industrial workers or inhabitants of one region to inhabitants of another are the same as those recorded for the population as a whole.

► *What happens to the results of the surveys?*

— They are published in a document of 50-100 pages—the "Eurobarometer".

This contains the bulk of the results, which are communicated to the press in the form of a report and a table. The press, of course, just use the bits that they find interesting, but the Commission works on all the results. The data are also stored in a computer in universities, Louvain for example, which in turn distribute them on request. In other words, the data are used both inside and outside the EEC institutions. The outside users are mainly the mass media, which use what bits they like, and anyone interested in the political parties, the unions, various other organizations and university research departments, which can have unrestricted access to all the data. As far as I know, we are the only public body to give research workers access to the data as soon as they have been published. But they have been collected with public money and this is why we do it.

► *So the Eurobarometer has been going about five years?*

— That is so. No. 10 is due out any minute now. I should make it clear that the name Eurobarometer does not just refer to the surveys about whether people are for or against the Common Market, or how they think things have gone between the different EEC countries over the previous year, or similar questions that are of immediate help with the Commission's information policy.

It also helps other directorates-general to study their problems. Take some of the surveys we have run over the last five years. We have looked at consumer behaviour for the consumer protection and environment service, the perception of poverty in Europe for social affairs, women's status across the Community, how the general European public views science, for DG 12, and so on. And before the end of 1979, we might get the chance to do a Commu-

ity public opinion poll on attitudes to the developing countries.

► *So, in the five years since the Eurobarometer came into being, you have dealt with a wide range of subjects. But perhaps, certainly in fact, you have covered some themes more than once and kept track of changing opinions?*

— Yes, there are some topics we monitor in all Eurobarometers, such as attitudes to the European Community and the Common Market. One matter of particular concern at the moment, of course, is the attitude to direct elections. Since direct elections came into the news three or four years back, all our Eurobarometers have included questions on this to see how the public is taking the idea. Do people know about the direct elections, are they in favour of them and how are they getting ready to vote?

► *I should like to know what trends you have detected in two fields. First, the unification of Europe in general. Has public interest in this waned over the last four or five years? Has it changed, veered to some sectors rather than others or, on the other hand, has it increased?*

— I think we should take a quick look at each of the countries in turn. First the six founder members, and then the three new ones, Denmark, Ireland and the UK. In the founder countries, there has been constant, widespread support for the Common Market and the European Community. Take the question: "do you think the fact that your country belongs to the Community, i.e. the Common Market, is a good thing, a bad thing or neither good nor bad?" This always gets a favourable answer that varies little from one survey to the next. It might vary a bit according to the economic situation, but in the six original members, the attitude stays very largely favourable over a long period. That is not to say that the public has a very lively interest in Community affairs, perhaps because such things are taken for granted and people know their country is in the Common Market. It isn't a subject that normally provokes violent reactions like big national issues do when different parties come up against each other. There are differences in attitude, of course. Some people are more or less for one kind of Europe and more or less against another kind, but in none of the countries is there any burning interest in European affairs.

This is not a parado. Attitudes to Europe are like what I would call

(*) Principal adviser and former director-general for information at the EEC Commission.

articles of faith. I don't mean that they are like religious attitudes, of course, but there is some sort of resemblance in that a lot of people—and I am still talking about the six founder members here—are very deeply attached to the unification of Europe, of which the Community is a concrete manifestation. And this attachment has more to do with faith than with sheer reason. Ordinary people, who know we work with the Community in Brussels, often ask us: "you believe in Europe, in the Common Market—are you getting anywhere with it?" Underneath it all, they are obviously wondering about our chances of success. Faith is not necessarily accompanied by immediate personal commitment, not all the time, at least. You can have such and such a faith in such and such a country without constantly fighting for your beliefs. It's a bit like that in Europe. It's a political belief that virtually no one will question in the six original members of the Community.

Now things are different in the three new members. The Irish, for example, behave towards the Community in much the same way as the first six members. Accession for Ireland was a profound historical change, a way for a small country to assert itself and, let us be honest, a way of asserting itself vis-à-vis the UK. When we talk about the original Six, we should, bearing in mind the similarity in outlook, also add Ireland.

That leaves the UK and Denmark. In the UK, the discussions that immediately preceded and followed accession are still going on. As you know, one of the main parties, the Labour Party, is still divided on the Community. The Conservatives are too, but in inverse proportions. The anti-marketeteers are in a minority among the Conservatives, whereas the split in the Labour Party is fairly deep. Generally speaking in the UK, the attitude to the EEC is not as good as it was when they had the referendum, but it is lot better than it was some time before accession. In Denmark, the situation is much the same as in the UK and at the moment, as far as public opinion is concerned, the pro-marketeteers and the anti-marketeteers are more or less equally balanced. Sometimes one side has a slight edge and sometimes the other. What I call the crisis of entry into this new way of life, the new framework of commitment that is the Community, has still not been overcome in Denmark or in the UK, although it is very largely over in Ireland.

► *So, bearing in mind the differences you have just explained, public opinion is generally in favour of Europe, although not really au fait with the major issues involved or even with*

such things as the European institutions?

— That is so. But you must realize that many people don't know much about their own national institutions either. Ultimately, it is true that European issues have the reputation of being technical, if not abstract. And more fundamentally, when something has been achieved and Europe has helped achieve it, no one even notices. But if there is something wrong in any of the Community countries that can be blamed on the EEC, then it is.

You can't say that the public isn't interested in Europe at the moment. It's just that the keenest interest in the European Community is in the more politically conscious milieux, whatever the party, where people are actually involved in politics, and among the 15% or 20% of the population that reads the papers, listens to the news and takes an interest in what parties, MPs and politicians in general are saying and doing. In political circles, there is an interest in European affairs in all our countries. However, among the general public, who have to grapple with the difficulties of everyday living, there is far less interest in the somewhat remote, more abstract and more technical questions of politics and economics. Broadly speaking, it is fair to say that level of education is one of the best indications of interest in the European Community.

► *But one thing is new and that is that there has never been so much talk about Europe before. Direct elections in June clearly have a lot to do with this. And in your surveys in recent months you have asked questions about these elections. A recent Eurobarometer provoked something of a controversy...*

— As can happen with the press,

someone in one of the capitals, not Brussels I think, was a little indiscreet and one newspaper made too much of a sensation of something which we had mulled over carefully and presented in a very circumspect manner. It was not how people intended to vote, but a first idea of how, in October/November 1978, they said they would be voting in the elections seven months later. I think, like any information, it was a valid indication of how people felt at the time, but we by no means intended the indication to be taken as an accurate forecast of how the vote would go, and even less of how the seats would be distributed. However, the press paid a lot of attention to this subject, which is always a delicate one, and it is clear that, as the June elections get nearer, politicians and those people in our democratic societies who are most interested in politics will be increasingly taken up with the problem. As soon as you tell people they are going to have to vote, they sense the importance of it.

Until recently, we had the impression that the campaign had not really got moving as far as the public at large was concerned. Of course there are always polemical arguments about direct elections in the press and on the radio and on TV, in some of our countries in particular. But, so far, they have been more or less confined to what might be called the political classes and the public as a whole has not been affected. Hence a certain anxiety shared by many members of the political classes in the countries where voting is not mandatory, i.e. in seven of the nine Member States (Belgium and Luxembourg being the exceptions). But I think things are going well now. In any country now, it only needs one of the major parties to get its campaign going and the others have to follow suit. This is democratic competition at work. □

Interview by A.L.

A guide to the elections in June 1979

Europe's first direct elections(*)

This year, 180 million people from the nine countries of the European Community will be voting their representatives into the European Parliament, following a decision of the EEC heads of state and government at the European Council meeting on 12-13 July 1976.

The official texts laying down the arrangements for the elections were

signed on 20 September 1976 (see annex 1) and have subsequently been ratified by all the national parliaments.

7-10 June 1979

These are the official election dates adopted by the EEC Council of Ministers in Brussels on 25 July 1978.

Each EEC country will make its own arrangements for these first direct

(*) From the Paris information office of the European Parliament.

elections, pending the introduction of a standard system across the whole Community. The election period will be the same for them all, but the electorates will vote on either Thursday 7 or Sunday 10 June, according to local practice:

- Thursday 7 June in Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands and the UK.
- Sunday 10 June in Belgium, France, Germany, Italy and Luxembourg.

A 410-member parliament elected for a five-year term

The seats will be shared as follows: France 81; Italy 81; Germany 81; United Kingdom 81; Netherlands 25; Belgium 24; Denmark 16; Ireland 15; Luxembourg 6.

Distribution of seats—almost proportional

The number of European MPs in each country is calculated according to the size of the population, although representation is not strictly proportional and the small countries of the Community will be relatively better represented than the large ones.

An end to the dual mandate

The present system forces MPs to do two increasingly arduous jobs. A plenary session of the European Parliament lasts 60 days and French MPs, for example, then have 100 days in the National Assembly or 86 days in the Senate. Now there will be some MPs who just sit in the European Parliament.

Multinational parties and political groups

A number of multinational parties and groups have been formed with a view to direct elections:

- **March 1976.** The Federation of the Liberal and Democratic Parties of the European Community was set up. Gaston Thorn, Prime Minister of Luxembourg, is chairman.
- **July 1976.** The European People's Party, combining Christian democrats and some social democrats from the various countries of the Community, was set up under the chairmanship of Leo Tindemans of Belgium.
- **Since 5 April 1974.** The socialist and social democratic parties of the EEC have been collaborating within the Confederation of the Socialist Parties of the European Community. Present chairman is Robert Pontillon (France).

Direct elections— a slow process

The European Parliament now has 198 members designated by the national parliaments in accordance with Article 138(1) of the Treaty of Rome.

This arrangement, however, has always been considered as provisional.

- As early as 1951, the treaty establishing the European Coal and Steel Community provided for the Assembly (the European Parliament) to be elected by direct universal suffrage later on.

- Article 138(3) of the Treaty of Rome invited the European Parliament to "draw up proposals for elections by direct universal suffrage in accordance with a uniform procedure in all Member States". But it was up to the Council of Ministers, acting unanimously, to "lay down the appropriate provisions, which it shall recommend to Member States for adoption in accordance with their respective constitutional requirements".

There are three reasons for this emphasis on European elections:

- (1) The Community believes in free elections and parliamentary democracy.
- (2) The right to direct elections to the European Parliament will make the voters feel more involved in the Community.
- (3) Every citizen of the Community will have the means of making a genuine contribution to the unification of Europe and thus has a stake in the Community.

A series of projects were therefore devised in accordance with Article 138(3):

- In 1960, a plan, adopted on the basis of a report from a working party chaired by Fernand Dehousse, a Belgian socialist, provided for the number of MPs to be trebled (2/3 directly elected and 1/3 designated by the national parliaments as at present).

- At the same time, 15 bills on national arrangements for direct elections were brought before the various national parliaments.

- Direct elections began to receive a further boost in 1973, partly due to a new plan produced in the European Parliament by Mr Schelto Patijn, a Dutch socialist, and partly because the heads of state and government gave the green light at the Paris summit on 9 and 10 December 1974 by saying that direct elections should take place as soon as possible.

Parliament adopted the new plan, by a large majority, on 24 January 1975.

On 12 July 1976, the heads of state and government brought 15 years of

waiting to an end. The official texts were signed by the members of the Council of Ministers on 20 September 1976 (see annex).

This only left the Member States to act on the agreements and adopt the national laws. Once ratification was over, there was only the date to fix and this the Council of Ministers did in Brussels on 25 July 1978.

Legal progress report

Belgium. The law on ratification was adopted (122 for, 0 against and 2 abstentions) on 8 December 1977.

The law on ratification was voted in the House (128 for, 1 against and 15 abstentions) on 3 November 1978 and in the Senate (7 abstentions and the rest for) on 14 November.

It is based on the Egmont Agreement of May 1977 whereby 13 seats go to Flemish speakers, 11 to French speakers and the voters in Brussels get a choice of either list. Representation will be proportional (there will thus be two bodies of electors and three constituencies).

Denmark. Both the laws on ratification and the elections themselves were adopted (120 for, 25 against and 9 abstentions) on 2 December 1977. Denmark has proportional representation (national lists) for 15 of its 16 seats and one seat is reserved for Greenland.

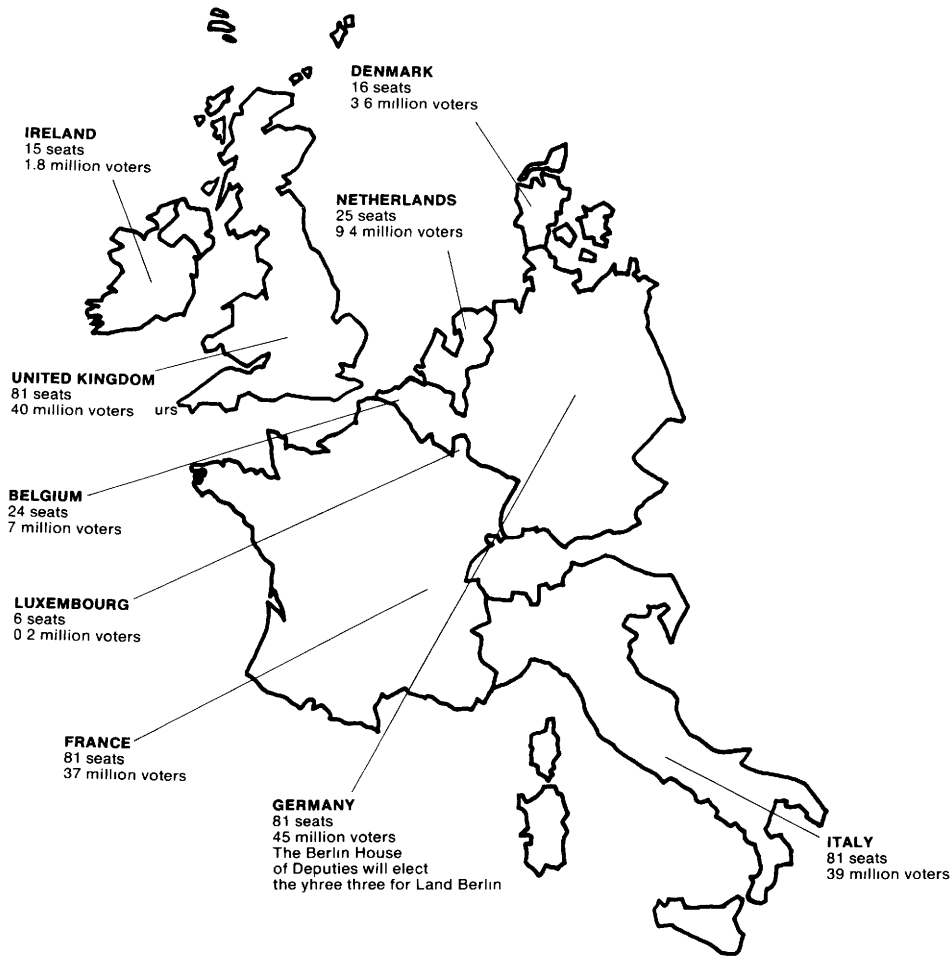
France. The law of ratification was adopted by the National Assembly on 16 June 1977 (without a vote, the government having committed itself and there being no motion of censure, in accordance with Article 49(3) of the Constitution) and by the Senate on 24 June 1977 (220 for, 0 against and 23 abstentions). The President of the Republic signed the law of ratification on 30 June 1977.

The National Assembly voted the electoral law at the first reading on 21 June (474 for and 2 against) and the Senate on 29 June 1977 (256 for, 0 against and 20 abstentions). The final adoption (after inclusion of amendments) was on 30 June 1977. France was the first member of the Community to complete all the legal procedures for direct elections.

The law provides proportional representation and national lists of candidates (one constituency), using the highest average system, without vote-splitting and with a minimal 5% clause.

Germany. The law of ratification was adopted unanimously by the Bundestag on 16 June 1977 and the Bundesrat issued a favourable opinion on 24 June 1977. The electoral law was voted

How 180 million Europeans will elect 410 MPs



(unanimously) by the Bundestag in 16 March 1978. Germany opted for proportional representation and regional (by land or groups of *länder*) or national (common to all *länder*) lists. There is a minimal 5% clause.

Three of the 81 seats will be reserved for West Berlin and, in view of the special situation here, these MPs will be elected by the Chamber of Deputies in Land Berlin, rather than by direct universal suffrage.

Ireland. Both the laws on ratification and the elections were voted on 8 December 1978.

The electoral law provides for proportional representation via a single transferable vote (four constituencies). Any EEC national living in Ireland will be able to vote.

Italy. The law of ratification was adopted on 17 February 1977 by the Chamber of Deputies (384 for and 16 against) and on 24 March 1977 by the Senate (unanimously in favour).

The electoral bill is shortly to be put to the vote in both Houses, with the

agreement of all parties. It provides for proportional representation (rule of the largest remainder). The seats will be divided at national level, but with a preferential vote in five regional constituencies. Any Italians resident in other EEC countries will cast their votes in special consular polling stations set up on the basis of bilateral agreements guaranteeing freedom of election campaigning for all parties.

Luxembourg. The Council of State came out in favour on 3 May 1977, the House discussed the matter on 28 June 1977 and the law of ratification was finally voted on 5 July 1977. The Communist Party was against ratification, but all the other members of the Luxembourg parliament were in favour of direct elections (54 for and 5 against).

The electoral bill is still being debated in the house. It provides for proportional representation and national lists (one constituency), using the rule of the lowest quotient and vote-splitting.

Voting on the bill was scheduled for early 1979.

Netherlands. Ratification was on 23 June 1977 in the Second Chamber (6 against, the rest for) and on 28 June 1977 in the First Chamber (4 against the rest for).

The electoral law was adopted by the second House on 5 September 1978 and the First Chamber was due to adopt it in December. The bill provides for proportional representation and national lists (one constituency).

Any EEC nationals resident in the Netherlands will be able to vote if he or she is not entitled to do so in the country of origin.

United Kingdom. The house of Commons voted the law of ratification on 23 May 1978 (111 for and 52 against). The Queen signed the electoral law on 5 May 1978. Of the UK's 81 seats, 66 go to England, 8 to Scotland, 4 to Wales and 3 to Northern Ireland.

The law provides a single ballot in 79 constituencies (78 in Great Britain and one of 3 members in Northern Ireland). All of the constituencies have now been defined.

All UK, Irish and Commonwealth citizens on the voting lists may vote.

THE CONVENTION AT WORK

Meeting of the joint committee of the ACP-EEC Consultative Assembly

The joint committee met in Bordeaux (France) on 29 January-1 February. It comprised 56 delegates from the European Parliament and 56 representatives appointed by the ACP countries. Its co-chairmen were Gérard Kongo Ouedraogo (president of the national assembly of Upper Volta) and Giovanni Bersani (Italian Christian democrat and vice-chairman of the European Parliament's committee on development and cooperation).

The meeting worked on the assumption that the current ACP-EEC negotiations would be reaching a fairly rapid conclusion and it was, in fact, the joint committee's last opportunity to give its views before the ACP-EEC ministerial conference on 22 and 23 March. Mr Bernard-Reymond, French secretary of state for foreign affairs and current president of the Council, made a speech emphasizing that France, during its presidency of the EEC Council, intended to bring the negotiations to a successful conclusion within the prescribed time limits.

The main speeches

- **Jacques Chaban-Delmas**, ex-PM of France, mayor of Bordeaux and president of the French national assembly, welcomed members of the committee at the inaugural ceremony. In his speech, he compared the Lomé Convention to the North-South dialogue and stressed the complementarities between EEC and ACP countries.

- **Mr Bernard-Reymond**, speaking for the EEC Council, said that France, which had just begun its term as president of the EEC Council, intended to complete the negotiations successfully, improving on achievements so far and perhaps correcting any errors of application or design.

- **Mr Bersani**, EEC co-chairman of the joint committee, stressed that, in spite of all the problems involved, the committee intended bringing up the "human and social dimensions" of the Convention.

- **Mr Ouedraogo**, ACP co-chairman of the joint committee, said that the Lomé Convention was one of the rare agreements to offer its partners "an almost complete range of instruments of development aid". But he also mentioned certain regrettable tendencies, in particular the fact that the EEC countries had "brutally given in" to protectionism in resorting to the quota system. He referred to measures taken in the textiles and steel sectors, adding that "this protectionism has not yet affected the ACP states where there has been little development of these sectors of industry". Nevertheless, similar measures could be taken in respect

of the ACP countries. Lomé made it possible for the Community to take safeguard measures. Although Article 10 had never been applied, it would obviously be very harmful to good relations, particularly in the textiles sector, if it were.

Furthermore, bearing in mind the constant deterioration in the terms of trade, and the general inflation that affected the true purchasing power of export earnings, a new convention should provide measures that would restrict the harmful effects.

"Such actions were", he said, "in line with our interdependent solidarity. The EEC had every interest in sustaining economic and social development in the EEC countries, since our raw materials, like our markets, were vital for the growth and continued expansion of the economies of the EEC".

The two chairmen, Giovanni Bersani (centre) and Gérard Kongo Ouedraogo. On the left, the mayor of Bordeaux, Jacques Chaban-Delmas



Also in the yellow pages

THE CONVENTION AT WORK

I-IV. The ACP-EEC joint committee in Bordeaux

V. New chairman for the ACP committee of ambassadors

VII. New EDF and EIB financings

XI. Nigeria: industrial cooperation

XVI. List of Commission delegates

GENERAL INFORMATION

XVII. Aid to non-associated countries

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XXI. The Commission's programme for 1979

XXII. European Parliament: speech by French foreign minister

CID

XXVII. Business opportunities

This meant that steps had to be taken to restructure the various sectors which felt the effects of the Community's development cooperation policy. When one spoke of a new international economic order, it obviously meant a better international division of labour... The incompatibility of the sugar policies of the Community and the individual member states had been clearly demonstrated in a recent EEC Commission document. The situation in this sector was now cause for concern, bearing in mind the trend in investments in this sector in the ACP countries at the moment. Investments were made with the financial help (often guaranteed by one or more member states) and technical assistance of operators in the Community.

The countries of Europe should rid themselves of the obsessive idea that their markets were flooded with ACP goods. They must understand that, as the ACP countries developed, they became worthwhile outlets that contributed to the economic expansion of the EEC.

Did not the first two years of application of the Lomé Convention show that

70% of Community aid found its way back to the EEC in the form of capital or as fees for services? Mr Ouédraogo asked.

The ACP countries had "no complexes" about dealing with human rights. But the problem had a marked political flavour and the Treaty of Rome, moreover, did not even mention it. The next convention did not therefore appear, Mr Ouédraogo felt, to be the right framework for discussion of this issue, if the spirit of agreement and harmony between EEC and ACP countries was to be maintained. The Europeans must realize that a reference to human rights would be "a two-edged weapon". They must also destroy the feeling that some ACP countries had that the Community was using human rights as a punitive arm against certain of them.

• **Colette Flesch** (liberal, MP, mayor of Luxembourg, chairman of the European Parliament's committee on development and cooperation) was appointed rapporteur on the annual report of the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers at the last session of the Consultative Assembly in Luxembourg in September 1978. The report would not be available until March. Miss Flesch gave a series of comments on the present situation as regards renewal of the Lomé Convention. In particular, she regretted that the ACP-EEC trade balance had been in the EEC's favour since 1974. This was largely due to Nigeria's imports, without which the EEC would have had a deficit of about 1 000 million EUA instead of a positive balance of 43 million EUA. She also felt that it was not a practicable solution to simply include mineral products in the Stabex, although they had to base their ideas on that system. She emphasized that the EEC should be coordinating its industrial policy and its development policy and she called for new ideas on the problems of the rules of origin, which were important for the ACP countries. She thought that an increase in the number of funds would have an adverse effect on "budgetary transparency."

• **Claude Cheysson spoke on behalf of the Commission.** He brought up certain problems which had not yet really been dealt with in this framework. As far as he was concerned, it was time to say how long the new convention would last. Uncertainty as to the permanency of the opening of the EEC market was a factor of instability. On the subject of human rights, commissioner Cheysson confirmed that the Commission would "never propose any constraining procedure" and had never envisaged dealing with the matter on a unilateral basis.

One of Mr Cheysson's main points was the trend in ACP-EEC trade. In 1976/77, ACP exports to the Community had increased regularly, but the figures for the first half of 1978 showed a 10% decrease. Although figures for the first half of the year had to be interpreted with caution, they revealed a disquieting tendency.

However, an analysis of the situation revealed that this decrease was not a general one. In the Pacific and, above all, in the Caribbean countries (+ 60%), there probably was an increase which was all the more interesting in that the Caribbean countries were the only ones where manufactures made up a sizeable proportion of exports (22% as against 4% for the ACP countries as a whole). This showed that the unfavourable ACP export trend could not be put down to protectionism on the part of the Community.

It also emerged that the figures that were the greatest cause for concern were those for East Africa (- 30%) and, within this region, those for Zambia (- 40%). The major problem in fact was the loss in export earnings from minerals due to exceptional circumstances.

As regards the minerals/Stabex problem, Claude Cheysson pointed out the interest of the present system which, as a palliative, enabled employment to continue and the income of the producers of agricultural commodities to be maintained. He then went on to say that there was a need to seek means to cover, in similar conditions, the ACP countries that produced ore.

He said that the Commission "is deeply committed to finding a system parallel to the Stabex with the same sort of trigger mechanism, the same preference for the poorest countries. It is committed to finding a system parallel to the Stabex which will palliate the harmful effects of fluctuations in export earnings, for the ACP countries and for the workers, leaving the multinationals to deal with their strategic problems without being able to take this element into account".

On the subject of industrial cooperation, Mr Cheysson laid particular emphasis on the need to develop private investments. He noted that one of the factors encouraging these investments was the open Community market, but, as the Convention was only due to last for a short period, there was uncertainty as to how long the market would remain open and this was a factor of instability. It was time to say how long the new convention would last. "We should have talked about it before."

But the basic topic was the Community's capacity to absorb the increasing quantities of manufactures from the developing countries, in this case the ACP countries. "If we fail to find the means of avoiding protectionist crises, we shall have failed to deal with the problem of industrialization."

He stressed that the Commission was convinced that the problem could be solved provided the Community could incorporate the increasing quantities of Third World products in its forecasts and economic development policy. But for the moment there were no such forecasts. Nowhere were these data taken into account in industrial restructuring schemes (including those for which Community financing was given).

In the field of financial cooperation, Claude Cheysson reminded them how much of the EDF had been used. Of the programmable aid allocated to each country individually, 62% had been committed by 31 December 1978 and some 30% of the commitments had actually been paid out.

Special problems of the trade aspects of the Convention

The text of the draft resolution on the specific problems and difficulties which emerged when certain provisions of the Convention were implemented, finalized by the ad hoc committee of which Mr Giama (Somalia) was the rapporteur, was adopted with a number of amendments.

Most of the provisions on the Community's trade policy were included in the final declaration. The resolution also contained recommendations aimed at solving ACP problems as regards a certain number of specific products (rum, bananas, sugar, fruit and vegetables and beef and veal).

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The joint committee wound up its meeting by adopting a final declaration and two special declarations.

I. Final declaration

All ACP and EEC countries favoured the conclusion of a convention "to renew, correct and improve Lomé in the spirit of the new international economic order".

A. Size and membership of the convention

The Convention is open and must remain "open on its renewal, to other independent and developing countries and to those which become so in the future and which expressly request accession; this applies to the African countries to the south of the Sahara, particularly Namibia and Zimbabwe, and to the Pacific and Caribbean countries".

B. Content of the Convention and improvements to be made

— The Community can only surmount the present crisis by:

— "stepping up its policy of cooperating in all fields with the developing countries, and with the ACP states as a matter of priority;

— taking account of the dynamic complementarity which must therefore be achieved between their economies and the vital need to reorganize its own economy;

which demonstrates the importance of regular sectoral consultations... involving the interested socio-economic partners directly in negotiations aimed at trade promotion, rather than keeping discussions only at governmental level."

— "The Committee... calls for a review of the organs responsible for implementing the industrial programme under the Convention with a view to making them effective, and the setting up of a supplementary fund for the purpose, to give it the requisite financial support and to make industrial cooperation more meaningful."

— "The Committee proposes that the ACP-EEC Assembly establish, according to accepted procedures, an ad hoc working party to study and promote management training relevant to the needs of the ACP states."

— The Committee requests that "a review be considered of the list of beneficiary countries and the procedure of the system of generalized preferences, when it is renewed in 1981".

— "The Committee recalls, however, that many ACP countries, especially those falling among the least-developed countries, will be unable to reap the benefits of commercial cooperation and Stabex because of their limited export capacity; and that they should therefore be granted advantages in compensation, especially in the field of technical and financial cooperation."

— "The complex system of 'rules of origin' should be simplified and improved with a view to encouraging exports from the ACP countries to the EEC in real terms."

— "The Committee... insists that the concept of establishing an agricultural promotion centre be considered at the appropriate time."

— The Committee urges the Community to devise proposals for the supply on preferential terms of surplus agricultural products to the ACP States.

— "Stabex, while lack of funds has prevented it from achieving in full the results hoped for by its initiators, has demonstrated the originality and effectiveness of the system; in the new convention, the amount set aside for it should take into account the volume of ACP exports, world inflation, and the continuing deterioration in the terms of trade. Further, the list of eligible products should be enlarged to include more agricultural products, particularly processed ones."

— "The committee calls on the Community to commit itself to establishing a scheme similar to but separate from the existing Stabex scheme to cover minerals."

— "The committee recognizes the special problems of the least developed, landlocked and island countries and urges the Community in the next convention to grant increased assistance to this category of countries and to devise specific measures to help them overcome their particular handicaps, and encourage their development."

— "The committee considers that financial and technical cooperation would be made more effective by the increased and effective participation of



Mr and Mrs Ouédraogo arriving at a reception given by the mayor of Bordeaux and Mrs Chaban-Delmas

the ACP states in its supervision and therefore urges that efforts be made to discuss a final solution to this problem in an open-minded spirit."

— The committee notes that the size of the present EDF represents no more than a contribution of 2 dollars (approximately) per year per capita of the population of the ACP countries. It urges that objective criteria be taken into account in calculating the future EDF, viz:

- finance required for the accelerated development of the ACP states;
- growth in gross national product of the member states of the Community;
- monetary erosion and world inflation since the present convention came into force;
- the undertaking by the industrialized countries to devote 0.70 % of their GNP to official aid.

C. On the implementation of certain institutional provisions of the Convention

— The Committee considers it essential that the institutional provisions of the new Convention be decided only after effective consultations between the representatives of the pre-

sent institutions, i.e. the Consultative Assembly and the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers."

— "The committee notes that the Consultative Assembly's opportunities for exercising supervision and obtaining information are restricted in the absence of a decision by the Council on the introduction of procedures for written and oral questions."

II. "Declaration of Bordeaux on the respect for and protection of the rights of students, trainees and migrant workers from the ACP countries residing regularly in the signatory countries of the Lomé Convention"

Having heard the report by Mr Dewulf (Christian democrat, Belgium), referring in particular to the provisions in the agreements and declarations linking the EEC to third countries and concerning migrant workers, and bearing in mind the privileged nature of ACP-EEC relations, the committee:

— reaffirmed the need to ensure respect for the rights and the improve-

Plenary session of the joint committee in Bordeaux



ment of the living conditions, as a matter of priority, of migrant workers and of trainees and students from the ACP countries residing in the EEC;

— asked, within the framework of the negotiations for the new convention, for both parties to undertake to conclude, within a given time limit, an agreement on the protection of these rights and the improvement of these living conditions. The agreement should include a clause on reciprocity.

The joint committee's working party in charge of these matters was invited to produce proposals to improve the situation, not just for workers, but also for students and trainees from the ACP countries.

III. Declaration on the situation in southern Africa

The Joint Committee of the ACP-EEC Consultative Assembly, recalling the resolution of the Consultative Assembly on 29 September 1978 at Luxembourg:

1. Condemns South Africa for its apartheid policy and its present activities in Namibia and Zimbabwe which are tactics aimed at delaying independence to the people of these two countries and for pursuing other activities which run counter to fundamental human rights as laid down in the charter of the United Nations.

2. Regrets profoundly that multinational companies and other businessmen from the EEC still continue to give encouraging support to the apartheid regime in South Africa through their activities and calls on them to support efforts directed at wiping out the policy of apartheid by discontinuing their activities with the government of South Africa.

3. Repeats its formal condemnation of the various forms of economic and military support afforded by certain European countries to the apartheid regimes, in breach of the United Nations' resolutions.

4. Requests the Council of Ministers to report, as it undertook to do, on the results achieved by the code of conduct for European companies operating in South Africa.

5. Condemns the racist policy of apartheid pursued by South Africa and Rhodesia, pays tribute to the courage of the peoples and governments of Botswana, Lesotho, Tanzania, Swaziland and Zambia and urges that the special measures already taken for their benefit be stepped up and in particular that a special action programme be instituted for them.



The joint committee also decided to ask the co-presidents of the Consultative Assembly to ask the nine heads of state and government of the EEC to make a solemn declaration on renewal of the Lomé Convention at the Paris summit in March 1979.

The next meetings of the joint com-

mittee and the Consultative Assembly would be in Luxembourg on 8-12 October 1979.

The CAE representative reiterated his country's invitation to the joint committee. The committee accepted it and the Bangui meeting could be held in January 1980. □ A.L.

ST LUCIA

The island of St Lucia in the Caribbean became independent on 22 February and is likely to become the 57th ACP state. Since 1967 St Lucia has been an "associated state" which involved self rule, but with Britain still being responsible for defence and foreign affairs. Now the island has

become the 40th completely independent member of the Commonwealth.

The government in Castries, the capital, is led by the Prime Minister, Mr John Compton, who is leader of the United Workers Party, which holds 10 of the 17 seats in the house of assembly. The opposition St Lucia Labour Party is led by Mr Allan Louisy.

St Lucia is the second of the associated states to become fully independent, following Dominica last November. The others, Antigua, St Vincent and St Kitts, are involved in independence negotiations.

The country has a population of about 113 000 and the economy is based on agriculture, mainly bananas, tourism and manufacturing. The government also plans to play an active part in the affairs of the Caribbean community, CARICOM. □

ACP COMMITTEE OF AMBASSADORS

Mr Asante gives up the chairmanship to take up politics

A plenary session of the ACP-EEC negotiators, the first since the ministerial meeting of 22 December, was held on 22 January at ACP House in Brussels. Ambassador Asante of Ghana took the opportunity, in his capacity as chairman of the ACP ambassadors, to give a detailed list of ACP demands in the light of the conclusions reached by the ministers in December. He stressed that the ACP countries wanted to make rapid progress towards a new convention.

Klaus Meyer, the director-general for development in the Commission, took note of the ACP position and gave the assurance that the Commission also hoped to see a speedy conclusion to the negotiations.

But the attention of this first contact between the two sides after the long end-of-year break was on more personal matters. It was the last such meeting to be presided over by ambassador Asante, who announced that he was leaving to take up active politics in Ghana.

Mr Meyer, who wished him every success on behalf of the Commission, spoke of his qualities as an ambassador and negotiator, and said that he had greatly appreciated having worked with him. Mr Asante, for his part, said that he regretted he would not be there for the end of the negotiations, as he had wished, but, he said, "when national duty calls, one must obey". But he gave an assurance that, once back in Ghana, he would be an advocate for ACP-EEC relations.

The Jamaican ambassador, Donald Rainford, takes over from Mr Asante as chairman of the ACP committee of negotiators. □



Ambassador K.B. Asante discusses a point with director-general Klaus Meyer (right) and deputy director-general Maurice Foley (left)

Donald Rainford, chairman of the ACP Committee of Ambassadors:

“The Lomé Convention shows up the Community in a very favourable light internationally, but no amount of propaganda will enable this image to survive if the realities of the relationship demonstrate otherwise”



Ambassador Rainford has taken over the important role of chairman of the ACP Committee of Ambassadors at a crucial stage in the ACP-EEC negotiations. The *Courier* took the opportunity to talk to him about his new role and the objectives of the ACP group during the negotiations:

► *What is the importance and significance for you personally of your new functions as chairman of the ACP Committee of Ambassadors during the period of negotiations of a new ACP-EEC Convention?*

— I would much prefer if you had asked me what are the effects of my new functions as chairman of the committee of ambassadors. I have been involved in the negotiations from the beginning last September and what it means at present is a more total commitment. We are committed to a new international economic order and I see the ACP/EEC relationship as a catalyst towards the NIEO. Personally, it is a pleasure to be involved in this type of work but as chairman I have, so to speak, a heavier work load. A great deal of my time will now be spent on strictly ACP matters, consequently resulting in my giving less attention to my own office. But this is being done in the interest of the group effort from which I hope we will all benefit ultimately. I derive no personal advantage from chairmanship of the committee as such. I do not believe, for example, that chairmanship confers status, as some may think.

► *What are the principal objectives of the ACP countries during these negotiations?*

— We have a cooperation agreement with the EEC at present with limited objectives. We would like the new convention that is to be signed at the end of these negotiations to reflect a true partnership based upon the interdependence that characterizes our relations. We have made it quite clear from the commencement of these negotiations that we intend to have a convention with substantially improved provi-

Ambassador Rainford was educated in England, Canada and Belgium where he studied economics, international relations and international law. On entering the Jamaican government service he was first attached to the Ministry of Finance for three years before joining the foreign service in 1966. Since then he has served in different capacities at the Mission of Jamaica at the United Nations in New York, the Jamaican High Commission in Canada, and as minister counsellor at the Jamaican Mission to the EEC in Brussels during the negotiations leading up to the Lomé Convention.

Ambassador Rainford was subsequently deputy high commissioner from March 1975 to August 1976 at the Jamaican High Commission in London. He then returned to Brussels as Jamaican ambassador to Belgium and the EEC.

sions instead of what we have referred to as one with mere cosmetic changes. We regard, for example, the trade cooperation aspect of our relations to be of considerable importance. Our aim in this chapter is to obtain free and unlimited access for all our products into the Community markets free from quotas, customs duties, internal taxes and all non-tariff measures. These include agricultural products, falling under the common agricultural policy, which are now restricted at present.

In order to export we must be able to increase production. To this end we would like the chapter on industrial cooperation to be made to function in a positive way. Here we seek an effective transfer of technology from the EEC to the ACP states, assistance with the processing of our raw materials so that we are not permanently condemned to be exporters of primary products, and adequate industrial training facilities, among other things.

The rules of origin: a fundamental barrier

The terms of trade are always moving against us and we would like to be able to correct this. But in order to do so we must industrialize. A fundamental barrier to this effort is, however, the present rules of origin criteria, that are too restrictive and need to be relaxed. If industrial projects conceived by us are to be implemented then it is hoped that a source of finance can be obtained; in fact, we are endeavouring to have a fund set up for industrial development. Improvement in the stabilization of export earnings scheme is another important objective during these negotiations. We are seeking wider product coverage, an expansion of the present list of products and better coverage for losses. The concept of destination is also important, and although we had at the outset of the negotiations called for exports to all destinations to be taken into consideration, we have now modified this to include exports to the EEC, and for intra-ACP trade to be considered.

Our demand that the concept of products to all destinations be considered for exports from the least developed, landlocked and island countries remains unchanged. We are also seeking a change in the present arrangement for reimbursement of transfers. At present, transfers to ACP countries have to be refunded in full by one payment as soon as that country's production and export capability improves. This we consider to be unacceptable as there is no lending system that I can think of where one is called upon to repay two, five or ten million dollars in a lump sum soon after the loan is made. We are hoping that changes will be made in this and we take the view that these transfer payments should be on a grant basis rather than loans. The question of indexation is also important. The Com-

munity does not like us to talk about indexation, but without the adverse effects of inflation being taken into account, there would be a significant deficiency in this scheme. We believe that in a changing economic situation and without inflation being a factor, financial decisions taken this year would be eroded in real terms next year. We must remember that the convention being negotiated now will govern our relations during the 1980s and if the experience of recent years is any guide, then one can only assume that the real value of money will be considerably eroded before the convention comes to an end. We would also like to see the dependence threshold abolished and the fluctuation threshold reduced. Finally, what is to my mind the most important consideration for the efficient functioning of the Stabex system is for us to have a fund with adequate resources.

Another principal objective to be achieved during these negotiations is an arrangement that will improve the functioning of the financial and technical cooperation chapter. The quantum of financial assistance is crucial and we confidently expect that this will be increased substantially. In order to ensure that this area of our cooperation functions efficiently, there must be greater participation in the management and administration of the EDF. The objective here is to secure improvements in the programming, procedures, and implementation of projects. Here again, if the funds approved for the EDF are to retain their real purchasing power, inflation as an element must be taken into account, bearing in mind that the projects to be financed will not be implemented for another four-five years or so. In order to promote production and marketing of our agricultural products we have also proposed the setting up of joint centre for agricultural development.

I believe that these are some of the principal objectives that we are aiming at, but I should emphasize that what we are seeking is a convention that takes account of our real economic needs. It should be borne in mind that this is not a one-sided cooperation, with the ACP states receiving without giving. Europe needs the ACP countries as much as the latter needs the former. Indeed, some of us are prepared to enter into debate as to where the balance of advantage lies in the relationship. ACP countries provide a ready source of raw materials for the Community—a fact that should not be taken lightly or for granted. The Lomé Convention shows up the Community in a very favourable light internationally, but no amount of propaganda will enable this image to survive if the realities of the relationship demonstrate otherwise.

We do understand that the Community is experiencing its own economic and monetary problems, such as higher levels of unemployment, than is considered acceptable by European standards. But although 5% or 7%

unemployment in Europe is considered very high, it is often forgotten that levels of 20% and 30% are the norm in ACP states. We hope that the EEC will endeavour to appreciate the partnership that we seek to maintain, so that our cooperation, when translated into reality, will reflect positive results.

► *How long would you like to see the next convention last?*

— The ACP states take the view that the duration of the next convention may well be influenced by the provisions of the convention, that is, the actual content. A certain amount of public debate is being given to this very important aspect of our cooperation and it is hoped that when all the factors are considered, the actual duration agreed upon by both parties will be in the interest of all.

► *How do you see the timetable of the negotiations?*

— As you know, it is proposed that a joint ACP-EEC ministerial meeting will be convened about the 22nd March and from the discussions that we have had so far, I gather that it is the hope of the Community that the major issues will be resolved by the end of April. None of us in the ACP group wish to prolong these negotiations, as they are costly and time-consuming, but we are now at the end of February and there is very little to show in terms of progress so far. It is therefore my view that unless some progress can be made between now and the ministerial meeting and a considerable de-blocking of the negotiations takes place at the ministerial meeting itself, we could have little to show in terms of achievement at the end of April. It is hoped that this will not be the case. I do hope that by the end of June we would have seen where we are going but this, of course, depends largely on the attitude of the negotiators on the Community side. □

1979 EEC trade fairs programme (with the participation of ACP states)

BELGIUM

Holiday, Tourism and Leisure Exhibition	Brussels,	23/ 3 to 1/ 4
Brussels Trade Fair	Brussels,	28/ 4 to 13/ 5
MIDEST (International Sub-contracting Fair)	Brussels,	20/11 to 23/11

FRANCE

Paris International Fair	Paris,	28/ 4 to 13/ 5
Bordeaux International Fair	Bordeaux,	19/ 5 to 28/ 5
International Leather Week	Paris,	8/ 9 to 11/ 9
Marseilles International Fair	Marseilles,	21/ 9 to 1/10
International Ladies' Summer Fashion Exhibition	Paris,	13/10 to 17/10

WEST GERMANY

International Tourism Exchange (ITB)	Berlin,	3/ 3 to 11/ 3
International Wood Exhibition (INTERZUM)	Cologne,	19/ 5 to 22/ 5
Frankfurt International Fair	Frankfurt,	26/ 8 to 29/ 8
International Food Exhibitions (ANUGA)	Cologne,	8/ 9 to 13/ 9
Overseas Import Fair "Partners for Progress"	Berlin,	19/ 9 to 23/ 9

ITALY

Milan International Fair	Milan,	14/ 4 to 23/ 4
Trieste International Fair (wood and coffee)	Trieste,	16/ 6 to 28/ 6
Levant Fair	Bari,	7/ 9 to 17/ 9

THE NETHERLANDS

International Wood Exhibition "Hout"	Rotterdam,	16/10 to 20/10
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UNITED KINGDOM

International Food Exhibition	London,	12/ 3 to 16/ 3
London Impo-Expo	London,	23/ 7 to 28/ 7

ACP

International Textile and Clothing Exhibition (SITHA), Abidjan	Ivory Coast,	4/ 5 to 8/ 5
Kinshasa International Fair	Zaire,	14/ 7 to 29/ 7
Nairobi International Fair	Kenya,	25/ 9 to 29/ 9
Lagos International Fair	Nigeria,	/ to /

OTHER COUNTRIES

Algiers International Fair	Algiers,	5/ 9 to 21/ 9
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EDF

After the favourable opinion of the 132nd, 133rd and 134th EDF committees the Commission has taken the following financial decisions on the funds of the 4th EDF, for a total of 82646000 EUA. The overall total has now reached 1710724000 EUA.

Central African Empire

Improvement and development of a stock-farming area in Bambari (Phase II)

Grant: 1 244 000 EUA
(1 EUA = 288 F CFA)

The present project comprises the following:

An effort to increase meat resources by:

- continuing and intensifying the veterinary work;
- conserving and improving the pastureland by rationalizing the use of fodder;
- setting up a structure to ensure the continuity of the work at the end of the current project.

Preservation of the existing trypano-tolerant N'Dama herd by restoring the Bambari Ranch.

Zambia

Breeding ranch, Batoka

Special loan: 1 825 000 EUA
(1 EUA = 1.073 Kwacha)

The project consists of the establishment of a breeding ranch of crossbred dairy heifers that will be sold to emerging smallholder farmers.

For its milk consumption Zambia depends highly on imported milk powder. Therefore, the ultimate aim of the project is to increase the national milk production.

The male crossbred calves that will naturally also be born at the ranch will be destined for meat production.

The contribution from the European Development Fund will consist of infra-structural improvements on the ranch itself, of transport material, of cattle to be provided later and of technical assistance, amounting in total to 1 825 000 EUA in the form of a grant. The EDF participation will be during 4 years.

The government's contribution to the project will consist of making available the already existing ranch of Batoka with its infrastructure and equipment and the initial supply of about 1 050 female animals of the local Zebu breed.

Ethiopia

Fisheries development.

Grant: 1 513 000 EUA

Fouth EDF
(1 EUA = 2.6 Birr)

The project is aimed:

— in the short run, at securing a regular flow of improved incomes to traditional fishermen in lakes area of Ethiopia, through the marketing in the main urban centres of an annual 1 000 tons of fresh fish;

— in the long run, at laying the basis for national exploitation of the national fish resources, to the common benefit of consumers in the lower-income group of the urban population and of producers in rural areas.

The project includes the provision of infrastructure, vehicles, technical assistance, training and credit facilities for the fishermen, in the fields of production, marketing and applied research.

The implementation period will be over three years at an estimated cost of 2 078 000 EUA, to be partly covered by an EDF grant of 1 513 000 EUA, the balance being supplied by the Fisheries Development and Marketing Corporation and by the government under the national budget.

The project is consistent with the national development policy which places emphasis on projects benefiting the rural population and the urban poor as a priority.

Tanzania

Kiltex, Arusha textile mill

Special loan: 6 550 000 EUA
Fourth EDF

(1 EUA = 9.71 TSH)

In accordance with the government's policy of promoting industrialization based on local raw material, the project is to extend the Kilimanjaro Textile Corporation's (Kiltex) mill in Arusha, by processing a higher share of the country's production of raw cotton, to help cover the internal demand for textiles.

The project provides for the purchase of machinery for balancing and increasing the mill's production capacity of cotton and cotton/polyester blended textiles, and the construction of a new shed for the production of cotton/polyester blended textiles. The production will increase by 5.5 million m² per year (from 5.5 million m to 11 million m) of cotton textiles and 3 million m² per year (from 1.5 m to 4.5 m) of cotton/polyester blended textiles. The total production is for the local market.

Benin

Building and equipping a crafts promotion centre in Cotonou

Grant: 1 075 000 EUA

Fourth EDF
(1 EUA = 288 F CFA)

This project involves building and equipping a crafts promotion centre in Cotonou. The aim is to provide the existing centre, currently housed in makeshift quarters, with the infrastructure and equipment it needs to:

— provide basic and advanced training for craftsmen and assistance with technical, commercial and administrative matters;

— set up a tourist centre in the heart of Cotonou as a showcase for the traditions and the artistic and cultural life of Benin.

The estimated cost of the project is 1 075 000 EUA, to be set off against the amount earmarked for this purpose in the indicative programme.

Niger

Fixing of an amount for the financing of a multiannual training programme (1976-1980).

Grant: 1 880 000 EUA

Fouth EDF
(1 EUA = 288 F CFA)

This covers the financing of study grants and seminars in agriculture (rural development, water schemes for villages and livestock), economics (administration), technical subjects (road infrastructure and building), health and education, all of which are priority sectors in the three-year (1976-78) programme and well in keeping with the guidelines of the next plan now on the drawing board.

Technical assistance involves providing:

— two teachers for the IPDR (the practical institute of rural development) in Kolo;

— an engineer to provide on-the-spot training for drillers at OFEDES (the underground water resources board).

São Tome Principe

Fixing of an amount for the financing of a multiannual training programme 1976-1980

Grant: 90 000 EUA

Suriname

Trade promotion

Grant: 500 000 EUA

(1 EUA = Sur. f. 2.234)

The aim of the project is to promote the industrialization of Suriname and at the same time boost exports by setting up an industrial development and trade promotion centre. These objectives are to be achieved in the following way:

— three experts, one each from the fields of industrial development, trade promotion and management and finance; will be attached to the government;

— short training courses will be organized for six managers in the fields of

commerce and industry and for three commercial attachés;

— a market research scheme will be organized;

— trade missions will be set up;

— technical assistance will be given to the Surinamese employers' organization;

— a study will be made of tourism.

Bahamas

Line of credit to the Bahamas Development Bank

Special loan: 690 000 EUA

(1 EUA = B\$1.307)

The government of the Bahamas envisages the Bahamas Development Bank (BDB) taking an active part in the implementation of the overall economic goal of diversification of the economy.

Though the large tourism potential will still remain the major source of growth in the Bahamas, the government intends to support the BDB in developing other sectors, particularly agriculture and fisheries, as well as ancillary industries.

BDB is a government-owned bank with the special function of assisting in establishing or expanding small businesses by providing financing and technical assistance. The bank became fully operational in July 1978 and will utilize an EDF line of credit of 690 000 EUA under art. 13, prot. 2 of the Lomé Convention.

Belize

Assistance to the Development Finance Corporation—line of credit and economic infrastructure

Special loan: 400 000 EUA

Grant: 55 000 EUA

(1 EUA = 2.694 Bz\$)

The project provides for assistance to the Development Finance Corporation (DFC), mainly for the purpose of giving loans to small farmers. For Belize to develop its agriculture, these small farmers need funds, since they are not able to raise these from the usual lending intermediaries.

DFC, restructured in 1973 and fully owned by the government, has a continuing programme of such loans with aid given, up to the present, mainly by the United Kingdom. Further funds are now required so that the programme can continue and expand.

The EDF will make a special loan of 400 000 EUA for a line of credit to be lent to low-income farmers through DFC and a grant of 55 000 EUA for the construction of two small district offices for DFC and the purchase of two vehicles for its officers to supervise the programme.

All the ACP states

Financing for ACP participation in international trade fairs and exhibitions for the period 1979-80: a grant of 6402000 EUA.

Finance for regional trade promotion campaigns (a second tranche of regional cooperation for studies and technical assistance): a grant of 3000000 EUA.

Authorization for a global commitment (by accelerated procedure) for technical cooperation and trade promotion (still to be determined): a grant of 15000000 EUA.

Financing of the Commission's delegations and study offices in the ACP countries and the OCTs in 1979: a grant of 30190000 EUA

Fixing a global amount for the *Courier ACP-EEC* from the 1 January to 31 December 1979: a grant of 524000 EUA.

Zambia

Trade promotion project

Grant: 500 000 EUA

Fourth EDF

(1 EUA = 1.073 kwacha)

The objective of the project is to improve the export promotion capability of Zambia by strengthening the newly constituted Zambian Export Promotion Council (EPC) secretariat through:

— technical assistance in the form of a trade promotion adviser to be attached to the secretariat of the EPC for a period of two years.

— assistance for the execution of selected market research projects for specific products and markets;

— support for trade promotion missions;

— training of Zambian personnel attached to the EPC;

— provision of items of equipment, materials and a trade publication.

Central African Empire

Agricultural development in the district of Ouham

Grant: 5 600 000 EUA

Fourth EDF

This project constitutes a contribution by the Community to the schemes to boost agriculture in the cotton-growing regions of the Central African Empire. The main area for development is located in the district of Ouham. Schemes supported by bilateral German and French aid are in progress in neighbouring areas, in particular in Ouham Pende to the west and in Kemo-Gribingui and Gribingui Economique to the east.

The project is firstly contributing to the efforts to promote agricultural productivity in cotton-growing regions and secondly providing for two other fields in which priority action appears absolutely necessary:

— improvement of the network of rural tracks;

— and marketing of agricultural food crop production.

Liberia

Port development study — south-east Liberia

Grant: 750 000 EUA

(1 EUA = 1.339 Lib.\$)

The aim of the project is to investigate the port development for south-east Liberia. The recent economic development has given impetus towards the need to either develop the harbour infrastructure in order to provide the ports with handling equipment capable of meeting the additional requirements; or to develop more economical alternatives to ensure the shipping and transport needs.

The present project consists of:

— a feasibility study and preliminary design study;

— a final design study;

— drawing up of tender documents as well as assistance to national port authority (NPA) in selection of the contractor.

New Caledonia

Loyalty Islands drinking water supply project

Grant: 1 100 000 EUA

Third EDF

(1 EUA = 104.3 F CFP)

The purpose of the Loyalty Islands drinking water supply project is to satisfy the basic water requirements of the, entirely rural populations of the Maré and Lifou islands, both of them dependencies of the territory of New Caledonia.

At present the inhabitants of these islands rely for their drinking water entirely on rainwater, which is collected in tanks, and the project will therefore replace this unreliable source by groundwater, thus ensuring regular and good quality supplies. Work will consist primarily of constructing boreholes and then creating small networks based on these pumping points to supply public fountains for the use of the different local communities.

Central African Empire

Clinical biology and public health laboratory

Grant: 1 063 000 EUA
Fourth EDF
(1 EUA = 288 F CFA)

The purpose of this project is to build and equip a clinical biology and public health laboratory in Bangui.

This laboratory, which will be built on the site of the Bangui Hospital Centre, is intended mainly to house the clinical analysis departments of the National Hospital Centre (Centre National Hospitalier), which at present has cramped and unsuitable premises, and also to house a public health laboratory in order to group various departments together (major endemic diseases, water monitoring, urban hygiene department, etc.), thereby ensuring that the activities of these departments are more effectively coordinated. In addition to these objectives, the clinical biology and public health laboratory will also be used to provide students from the Bangui faculty of health sciences with practical training.

Ivory Coast

Bada-Marabadiassa road
Special loan: 1 495 000 EUA
Fourth EDF
(1 EUA = 288 F CFA)

The Bada-Marabadiassa road section (10.3 km) is part of the new east-west link from Bouaké to Man (the old road was cut off by the lake formed when the Kossou dam was built) and of the bypass round the lake.

The purpose of the proposed financing is to improve the longitudinal and cross-sections of the road and to give it an asphalted surface.

An accelerated invitation to tender will be issued for the works.

Ivory Coast is to finance the works supervision.

The work needs to be done in order to maintain good traffic conditions and ensure that the Bouaké-Man highway remains open.

Malawi

National rural development programme — Phase I: Mzuzu management unit, Henga-Kasitu and Ntchisi rural development projects
Grant: 7 900 000 EUA
Fourth EDF

The EDF funds allocated for the NRDP will be utilized for the construction of houses, offices and feeder roads; the provision of vehicles, equipment and agricultural inputs; technical assistance; the establishment of health facilities; boreholes, and a declining contribution to running costs.

The total cost of the NRDP is estimated at 51.1 m EUA over the next five

years, starting in 1979. The total cost of the components which are associated with EDF funding is 9.795 m EUA, to which the EDF will contribute 7.9 m EUA, and the Malawi government will contribute 1.895 m EUA.

Botswana

Services to livestock owners in communal areas
Grant: 1 835 000 EUA
Fourth EDF

The general aim of the project is primarily to increase the number of services available to low-income farmers so as to enable them to raise their agricultural production and consequently their standard of living. Secondly, the project will encourage initiatives of farmers by making available funds that will serve to subsidize structural improvements.

The project consists of the following components:

- improvement of supply infrastructure;
- improvement of livestock marketing infrastructure;
- a demonstration programme;
- a matching grants programme;
- extension of buildings for the department of field services in the Ministry of Agriculture;
- technical assistance.

Malawi

Road construction unit
Grant: 2 300 000 EUA
Fourth EDF

The project provides for the supply of construction equipment for the road construction unit (RCU) charged with the development and improvement of the rural road infrastructure. The RCU forms part of a comprehensive programme for rural development, financed by several donors of foreign aid (national rural development programme — NRDP), for which the EDF has also committed 7 900 000 EUA (see above).

During a first phase of 5 years, the RCU will—under the central management of the national rural development programme—undertake the construction and improvement of approximately 1 800 km of rural roads. Thus the project will directly contribute towards the efforts of Malawi to develop its agricultural potential throughout the country in the coming years and thereby improve the social and economic situation of the rural population.

The purchase of the construction equipment will be subject to an international invitation to tender. The equipment will be supplied to Malawi within 9 months.

Swaziland

Teacher training college at Nhlngano
Grant: 2 500 000 EUA
Fourth EDF

The purpose of the project is to improve the quality and the capacity of primary education in Swaziland. The country is facing a rapid expansion of its primary enrolment figures. At the same time, it has to cope with a high proportion of unqualified primary teachers. The output of the two existing teacher training establishments, including the extension under way, is by far too low to keep up with the required increase in the number of qualified teachers, so that the creation of new teacher training facilities has become a necessity.

The new teacher training college will be situated at Nhlngano, a small town in a rural area situated 140 km from the capital. It will be a fully residential college with a capacity of 400 students, attending a two year course. The built-up area will be 5 700 m². Structures will be of a simple and economic single storey type well adapted to local conditions.

Niger

Building and equipping three colleges of general education (CEGs) at Kolo, Loga and Madaroumfa

Grant: 2 100 000 EUA
Fourth EDF

- There are three aims in this project:
- to cater for the larger intake in the first cycle of secondary education and to complete the major schemes in this field which Niger has undertaken with national funds;
 - to improve teaching standards by making it possible to reduce numbers in the existing, currently overcrowded, CEGs;
 - to reduce the disparity between country areas and the big urban centres and to prevent so many pupils moving to the towns.

Cameroon

Equipping six colleges of industrial technology, 57 rural craft and 35 domestic science departments

Grant: 2 500 000 EUA
Fourth EDF

This is a project to supply equipment for the workshops in six colleges of industrial technology (CETI) and basic hand tools for 57 rural craft departments (SAR) and 35 domestic science departments (SM).

The aim is to complete the range of equipment in existing schools and to improve the level and quality of teaching in general, and of vocational and practical training in particular.

Zambia

Multiannual training programme (1976-1980)

Grant: 4 550 000 EUA

Fourth EDF

The awards concentrate on intermediate courses in agriculture for middle management staff but emphasis is also placed on the formation of accountants (in Zambia and the EEC), health services and airways personnel.

Distribution is as follows:

— agriculture 16.5% (750 000 EUA), economics 11.1% (504 000 EUA), social services 8.4% (382 000 EUA) and communications 6.6% (300 000 EUA). In agriculture and social services training is closely linked with EDF-funded projects.

Where possible, technical assistance and equipment grants complement the awards providing expertise required for local technical, managerial and business courses. So priority is given to the same main categories economics 17.3% (965 000 EUA), agriculture 13.2% (575 000 EUA) and social services 9.2% (470 000 EUA).

ACP States

1979 budget for the Centre for Industrial Development (CID)

Grant: 2 581 000 EUA

Fourth EDF

The amount for 1979 should enable the CID to play an even bigger part in providing information and acting as an intermediary to help the firms concerned in the ACP countries to be fully informed on the possibilities of finding private European partners to strengthen their production and marketing structures and, at the request of the ACP countries, to make contact with such partners. The centre would also be better equipped to inform European business circles on the opportunities for cooperation and participation in the ACP countries' industrial development efforts and to detect the training, study and advice requirements that could be met by the CID itself, the EDF or other public and private institutions.

Tanzania

Fixing an amount for the financing of a multiannual programme (1976-1980)

Grant: 500 000 EUA

The awards concentrate on intermediate training in the technical and economic fields (54%) with special emphasis on the formation of management staff. This is complemented by the technical assistance allotment of 30% which provides experts for Tanzania's on-the-spot adult education seminars.

Zaire

Training centre for the Zaire accountancy board in Kinshasa

Grant: 500 000 EUA

The project covers the following:

— the building of an education establishment (Accountancy Training and Retraining Centre — "Centre FORCO") at the place known as N'Ganda in the Kintambo district of Kinshasa, the supply of furniture, the supply of teaching materials.

Caricom

Technical assistance for the Caricom secretariat as a regional project

Grant: 200 000 EUA

The specific objectives of the project are to develop the capacity of the Caricom secretariat in Georgetown via assistance in the following areas: staff training, short-term expertise, library development, development of printing facilities.

EIB

Three European Community loans in Zaire

Three European Community loans totalling 19.8 million units of account⁽¹⁾ have been made to Zaire to help financial construction of an oil mill and improvements to a section of the Kinsangani-Bukavu road.

The Gosuma oil mill

A total of 5.8 million EUA goes to the oil mill project, in Gosuma (Ubangi region). This mill, together with associated large-scale and smallholder plantations established with other Community financial support, is to be run by the state-owned Palmeraies du Zaire (PALMEZA). The funds are provided in two forms:

— a conditional loan⁽²⁾ for 4 million EUA (term fixed, in principle, at 20 years; interest is at 2%) made available by the European Investment Bank, acting as agent for the European Community, using European Development Fund (EDF) resources set aside under the Lomé Convention for various kinds of risk capital operations managed by the EIB;

— a loan on special conditions for 1.8 million EUA provided as part of financial aid arrangements under the second Yaoundé Convention, by the Commission of the European Communities and the European Investment Bank, acting as agent for the Community; the term is 40 years, the interest rate 1%.

The total cost of the industrial investment is put at the equivalent of 8 million EUA. The government of Zaire will be contributing something like 1 million EUA from its own budget and a further soft loan, for about 1.2 million EUA, is being provided by the Commission under the terms of the Lomé Convention.

The Gosuma agro-industrial complex forms part of the Zaire government's national plan for stimulating production of palm oil and palm nuts and

kernels. The project will have a favourable impact on the country's balance of payments and public finances by adding value to sales of these products.

The Penetungu-Lubutu road

In addition to these two loans, the Commission of the European Communities and the EIB, again acting as agent for the Community, have concluded a finance contract with Zaire for a loan on special conditions amounting to 14 million EUA. Made available for 40 years at a rate of 1% as financial aid under the second Yaoundé Convention, this loan will go towards improving and asphaltting the Penetungu-Lubutu section of the Kinsangani-Bukavu road.

One of the corner-stones of Zaire's economic recovery programme, this road project will link Bukavu, the main town in the agricultural and tourist region of Kivu, with Kinsangani, the main town in Upper Zaire, which in turn is linked with Kinshasa by river.

Loan for construction of an international class hotel in the Congo

Under the terms of the Lomé Convention, the European Investment Bank has provided a loan for 3.15 million units of account⁽³⁾ towards construction of 173-room international class hotel at Brazzaville in the Congo.

This is a conditional loan made available to the state to enable it to finance its majority holding in a new company set up to carry out the project, to which the government attaches high priority. The interest rate is 2% and the term is not to exceed 20 years.

The EIB has granted this loan by drawing on resources of the European Development Fund (EDF), which are set aside under the Lomé Convention for risk capital operations managed by the bank.

The new hotel (to be called the Maya-Maya and due to open in July 1980) will replace an outworn, smaller establishment; as the only international class hotel in Brazzaville capable of giving an appropriate reception to businessmen and official visitors, it will make an important contribution to developing the Congolese economy. About 70 jobs should be created in addition to safeguarding the employment of staff who will be transferred from the existing hotel.

This loan is the bank's first financing operation in the Congo under the Lomé Convention. Finance is also being provided towards the cost of the project (put at about 10 million EUA) by the Caisse Centrale de Coopération

(1) 1 EUA = approx. US \$1.37.

(2) Repayment schedule may be modified according to certain conditions determining progress on the project.

(3) 1 EUA = approx. CFAF 288.

Economique, the Banque Nationale de Développement du Congo, the Banque de Développement des Etats de l'Afrique Centrale and the Société des Hôtels Méridien (an Air France subsidiary), which will be responsible for the hotel management.

EIB financing operations in 1978 up almost 40 %

A rise in last year's financing operations to a total of 2 188.3 million units of account (about \$3 013 m) has been announced by the European Investment Bank, the European Community's long-term finance institution, in presenting its preliminary figures for 1978.

This is 39.2% up on the 1 571.5 million EUA provided in 1977 and confirms the continued growth in the bank's annual lending, which has more than doubled since 1975.

Loans for projects in Community member countries amounted last year to 1 966.5 million EUA, up 40.3% on the total lent in 1977 (1 401.3 million).

In line with the principal task given to the EIB under the Treaty of Rome, almost three-quarters—1 457.6 million EUA, an increase of over 50% on the amount the previous year—went to investment in regions which are economically less developed or confronted with industrial conversion problems.

Development finance provided to countries which have association or cooperation agreements with the Community rose last year by over 30% to 221.8 million EUA (170.2 million EUA in 1977).

More than half of this sum went to investment in African, Caribbean and Pacific countries which are signatories to the Lomé Convention. Loans were also made in Portugal, Greece, Turkey, Yugoslavia and, for the first time, in the Lebanon.

In 1978 financing under the Lomé Convention and OCT decision came to 116.2 million EUA and the countries involved included 12 in which the EIB had not been active previously. Of the total amount, 90.9 million EUA came from the bank's own resources. Loans were made principally to industry, financing institutions, and for energy projects, details as follows:

— **Nigeria:** 25 million EUA in a global loan to the Nigerian Industrial Development Bank Ltd. to finance medium-scale industrial ventures throughout the country;

— **Fiji:** 12.5 million EUA for a hydro-electric scheme;

— **Kenya:** 12 million EUA for a hydro-electric scheme and 0.1 million EUA risk capital assistance for a tourism development study;

— **Swaziland:** 10 million EUA for development of sugar cane plantations and construction of a sugar mill;

— **Papua-New Guinea:** 7 million EUA and 1.9 million EUA in risk capital

assistance, both for construction of a palm oil mill;

— **Liberia:** 7.4 million EUA for extension of a power station and to assist industrial and tourism ventures, via a global loan to the Liberian Bank for Development and Investment, in which the EIB took a 0.3 million u.a. equity participation on behalf of the Community, as a form of risk capital assistance;

— **The Sudan:** 6.5 million EUA in risk capital assistance for construction of a cotton textile mill;

— **Tanzania:** 5 million EUA in the form of a global loan to Tanganyika Development Finance Company Ltd.;

— **Trinidad and Tobago:** 5 million EUA in the form of a global loan to the Trinidad and Tobago Development Finance Company Ltd.;

— **Zaire:** 4 millions EUA in risk capital assistance for construction of an oil mill;

— **Mali:** 3.6 million EUA risk capital assistance for construction of a rice mill;

— **Guyana:** 3.2 million EUA risk capital assistance for development of forestry resources;

— **The Congo:** 3.1 million EUA in risk capital assistance for construction of an international class hotel;

— **Zambia:** 2.5 million EUA in the form of a global loan to the Development Bank of Zambia plus 0.6 million in risk capital assistance for the DBZ (through an equity participation) and for a feasibility study concerning a cement-works;

— **The Caribbean region:** 3 million EUA in the form of a global loan to the Caribbean Development Bank, which will use the funds to finance investment in member countries of the Caribbean community (CARICOM);

— **Niger:** 1.5 million EUA and 0.9 million in risk capital assistance, both for modernisation of a textile mill;

— **The Seychelles:** 0.6 million EUA in risk capital assistance to the Development Bank of Seychelles (in the form of an equity participation) to help finance small and medium-scale ventures;

— **Senegal:** 0.2 million EUA in risk capital assistance for a technical study concerning phosphate deposits;

— **Ivory Coast:** 0.2 million EUA in risk capital assistance for a technical study concerning manioc production.

Apart from finance under the Lomé Convention itself, three loans on special conditions totalling 16.2 million EUA, managed by the EIB as agent for the Community, were signed jointly with the Convention, drawing upon resources remaining from the earlier Yaoundé II Convention and decision extending financial aid to overseas countries and territories (OCTs):

— **Zaire:** 14 millions EUA for road construction and 1.8 million for an oil mill;

— **French Guiana:** 0.4 million EUA for construction of a fishing wharf.

NIGERIA

Ambassador Afolabi stresses industrial cooperation

Clamp-down on import fiddles

Under a new regulation introduced by the exchange control department of the Central Bank of Nigeria, exports to Nigeria are being checked for price and quality by a Swiss agency, before being freighted.

The new regulation came into force on 1 January, with special provisions for goods already at sea.

Nigeria's ambassador in Brussels, Mr Peter Afolabi, told the *Courier* that this «comprehensive import supervision scheme» was meant to «arrest certain malpractices» by both importers and exporters, working in collusion.

«We have noticed a trend for the prices of manufactured goods to be inflated, so the government is employing the services of surveillance agency, based in Geneva, to ensure that imports into Nigeria are of the quality and quantity specified in the contracts, and that only the official price is paid», he said.

Mr Afolabi, who is co-chairman of the ACP-EEC Committee for Industrial Cooperation, pointed out that Nigeria alone provides some 40% of EEC-ACP trade. «The agency has branches all over the EEC and they will inspect all goods bound to Nigeria, at least two weeks before shipment. This is good for the credibility of both European and Nigerian businessmen», he added.

«The regulation will not in any way interrupt the flow of exports to Nigeria, and on this point I would add that we are trying our very best to decongest the ports. Lagos harbour has been considerably decongested and improvements have been carried out. For instance, Tin-Can Island has now become an extension of the harbour.

Industrial cooperation

«Nigeria is the first choice for many EEC firms interested in the ACP countries, because we have the market, the population and the purchasing power. Most European countries must agree that, over the past five years, their trade with Nigeria has surpassed even their trade with South Africa. So in terms of trade and economic cooperation, Nigeria is of particular importance in the ACP group.

«Businessmen will always go where they can get maximum profitability, and Nigeria has all the factors necessary for this: the market, the manpower, the purchasing power, the advantages of being a focus of distribution, and a



Ambassador Afolabi

Industrial cooperation: "there are greater possibilities"

good working relationship with foreign capital. There has never been any case of nationalization—we have joint-ventureships that give the local people participation in industry. We are very pragmatic in our approach to industrialization: we know we don't have the machinery or technology, so we make sure of the technological management, until we are ready to take over, by getting foreign companies involved in these joint-venture schemes. They are an insurance against nationalization," he said.

Mr Afolabi agreed that businessmen want predictability as well as stability. "You cannot stop changes in a developing society, but this new import surveillance measure is within the framework of accepted international business practice", he pointed out.

The Nigerian industrial structure should not be considered a model for other ACP countries, the ambassador felt. "Our approach tends to fit into our particular cultural and historical pattern". Nor would it be true to say that Nigeria was really only interested in industrial cooperation in its relationships with the EEC. "The implementation of the Lomé Convention is of importance to us, even though our

financial allocation is very low. Agricultural cooperation is of major concern. Industrialization affects agricultural development, in that it is necessary when restructuring agriculture to meet modern demands. In the United States, for instance, less than 5% of the population produce the food. We don't need 60% of our population in farming if we can change the mechanics of agriculture to produce more food.

"We can benefit from financial and technical cooperation with the Community, although not on the scale that other developing countries need. And regional cooperation is of particular interest to Nigeria. We belong to a number of regional schemes and the intervention of the Community can relieve Nigeria of a considerable financial burden; we finance the lion's share of all these organizations.

The Centre for Industrial Development

"But to return to industrial cooperation, we have already gained a good deal under this heading. Nonetheless, there are greater possibilities, judging

from the interventions of the Centre for Industrial Development in Nigeria, and we feel that this area holds more for us in the future. Nigeria is one of the very few countries that have utilized the infrastructural advantages provided by the CID.

The centre has had more enquiries from Nigerian businessmen and manufacturers than from any other country and it has been involved in feasibility studies for two or three large industrial schemes in Nigeria, which we have found very useful. We believe the CID is a useful window into the Community, if it is encouraged", the ambassador concluded. □

VISITS

Roy Jenkins in West Africa

The president of the European Commission, Mr Roy Jenkins, recently visited Senegal, Mali and Ghana. This was his first visit to West Africa since becoming president two years ago. During his tour he met the three heads of state: President Senghor of Senegal, President Traore of Mali and General Akuffo, the Ghanaian head of state. Discussions centred on bilateral relations with the EEC, the operation of the Lomé Convention and the negotiations in progress for the new convention.

While in Accra, Mr Jenkins said that "the new convention can be a trailblazer for the wider relationship between the developing countries and the industrialized world". He added that a "historic new impetus" would be needed in order to achieve economic recovery. He thought that such an impetus could come from the creation of monetary union within the European Community. But this alone would not be enough: "a sustained and determined effort to raise world-wide demand by increasing the purchasing power of the developing countries" would also be needed.

Still looking to the future, Mr Jenkins said that the Lomé Convention had provided "a solid basis on which to build further, more imaginative and equal cooperation". He added that despite the fact that the EEC is suffering from inflation and unemployment it is "determined to consolidate and develop the achievement of the first Lomé Convention".

In Senegal, Mr Jenkins reaffirmed that the EEC would continue to keep 99.4% of its market open to ACP exports. He also said that after his talks with the President and Prime Minister he well understood the consideration with guided the Senegalese government during the negotiations, especially in relation to Stabex.

In Mali he said he believed that it was important to preserve and develop the benefits of Lomé and to construct on



President Jenkins in discussion with the Ghanaian head of state, General F.W.K. Akuffo

its foundations a new international division of labour. Before leaving Bamako he stressed that the European Community was determined to avoid protectionism in its relations with developing countries.

Claude Cheysson in Benin...

EEC-Benin cooperation and the outlook on renewal of the Lomé Convention in the light of the ongoing Brussels negotiations were the subject of talks between Claude Cheysson and President Mathieu Kérékou and other leaders.

Mr Cheysson emphasized the fact that the Lomé Convention offered different possibilities in the fields of regional cooperation, trade promotion, micro-projects and financing that the ACP countries would do well to explore in depth.

Mr Cheysson inaugurated a major achievement of the 3rd EDF, the extension and modernization of the water supply system to the town of Cotonou.

Togo...

An important meeting chaired by the minister for planning and attended by several other ministers was held during Mr Cheysson's visit, to discuss the implementation of the EEC/Togo indicative programme. Mr Cheysson also went to Tabigbo to visit the CIMAO regional project.

He discussed the major regional projects in which Togo was involved, in particular the Mango-Upper Volta border road, currently being carried out, and then went on to discuss the various possibilities which the Lomé Convention provided in the sectors of industrialization, co-financing, trade promotion, etc. He mentioned the importance that the Togolese govern-

ment attached to training cadres and to obtaining the technical know-how needed to develop the country, saying that the Commission had helped in this sector by financing an important programme of project-linked training and a variety of vocational training schemes.

Mr Cheysson was received by President Eyadema in his Pya residence, when they discussed the prospects of the new convention and of EEC/ACP cooperation as a whole.

The Ivory Coast...

During an official visit to the Ivory Coast, Mr Cheysson met President Houphouët Boigny. The main topics they discussed were the current EEC/ACP negotiations on Lomé II, the Stabex arrangements in the present Convention (one or two of the Ivory Coast's products are particularly concerned) and the effect on the ACP countries of the trade concessions which the EEC provides for the rest of the Third World in the form of generalized preferences.

And Upper Volta

In his visit to Upper Volta, Mr Cheysson had several talks with President Lamizana. They discussed the present situation in relations between the Community and Upper Volta and looked at how negotiations on the convention for the '80s were going.

Two financing agreements were signed. One, for 1.5 million EUA, was for the development of stockbreeding in the Sahel rural development organization (ORD) and the other, for 2.9

The Prime Minister of Upper Volta, Mr Conombo, and Claude Cheysson open the Ouagadougou-Koudougou road, financed by the EDF



million EUA, was for the development of rice-growing in the Comoe rural development organization.

Mr Cheysson and the delegation of which he was head then visited the Sahel ORD, accompanied by the planning minister, and saw the development potential of the region for themselves. They also saw a number of projects set up by NGOs, in particular at Gorom-Gorom. The NGOs are particularly active in Upper Volta and various of these organizations from five countries of the Community are carrying out 18 projects, which, as local schemes actively involving the population, have received 1 058 000 EUA.

On his return to Ouagadougou, Mr Cheysson also had a working meeting with CEAO secretary-general Moussa Ngom, when they discussed projects which would help achieve the aims laid down by CEAO members and which might get Community help as part of regional cooperation.

Opening of the Ouagadougou-Koudougou highway

Prime Minister Conombo and Claude Cheysson inaugurated this EDF-financed highway, completed in record time, on 3 January 1979. The financing agreement was signed in July 1976 and work began the following December. This achievement, which provided jobs for 600 or so of Upper Volta's workers and technicians, was part of an important 650 km road infrastructure programme which the EDF has carried out. All the asphalted roads in Upper Volta have been financed by the EDF. The World Bank is currently asphaltting the Bobo Dioulassa-Banfora and the Banfora/Bobo-Houndé sections and German aid is being provided for the studies and the invitation to tender for the Houndé-Sakoinsé section.

These schemes are all part of a vast regional project to create a coherent network of roads in West Africa by continuing with the east-west (Niamey-Ouagadougou-Bamako) highway, the Lomé road (improvements to the Mongo-Upper Volta border section) and international road communications across Ghana and Ivory Coast. The 2 million EUA regional project to improve the RAN Abidjan-Niger railway (EDF financing) will help open up Upper Volta. □

ACP EMBASSIES

Sudan's new ambassador to Brussels, Nuri Khalil Siddig, has just presented his credentials to the presidents of the EEC Council and the Commission.

Mr Siddig is 40 years old, married and has one daughter. He qualified in



Mr Nuri Khalil Siddig

the faculty of economics and social science at the University of Khartoum before becoming third secretary at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in 1963. Two years later, he went out as third, then second secretary to the Sudanese embassy in Addis Ababa.

In 1969, he was appointed first secretary in Rome, a post he kept until 1972, when he was recalled to become deputy director of the Western Europe/North and South America department.

In 1974, he became head of protocol ad interim and then director of the economic department. He was promoted to the rank of ambassador in 1976 and represented Sudan in Oman before his appointment to Brussels. □

TRADE PROMOTION

Representatives from EEC member states' ministries (foreign affairs and cooperation) and organizations responsible for aid to the developing countries held their eighth meeting, to deal with trade promotion, in Brussels on 26 January.

It was organized by the Commission with the aim of exchanging information on the projects and aid programmes for the ACP and other developing countries which the Commission and the individual member states (bilateral aid) were planning for 1979.

Delegations from eight member states (Luxembourg was not represent-

ed) reasserted the need for better coordination of trade promotion schemes in the developing countries, so as to increase the effectiveness of what each country was doing and to avoid the occasional competition and duplication.

The Commission and the specialized bodies in the member states had been cooperating on developing country trade missions to Europe and they consolidated and improved upon their work in this sector. □

SEMINARS

Lomé seminar organized by the NGOs

A hundred or so NGOs concerned with development cooperation and a number of opinion/interest groups from EEC and ACP countries attended a seminar on the ongoing negotiations for a new ACP-EEC convention at the Brussels Palais des Congrès on 10-12 January 1979. This was the first such European meeting organized by a group of European NGOs with logistic and financial backing from the Community as part of its development policy.

The NGOs had prepared the seminar at national level in each of the EEC member states. The idea was to get ACP and EEC leaders to inform both the people who shaped public opinion and the economic and social groups and make them aware of the current problems of EEC/ACP relations (in the world as a whole and in the present negotiations) with a view to continuing the discussions within the framework of direct elections.

The NGOs have a twofold plan for 1979:

- to organize national campaigns to inform public opinion in the EEC countries;
- where necessary, to contact their respective governments and the EEC and ACP authorities in the light of developments in the current negotiations.

Many representatives from both the NGOs and the ACP countries (Ambassadors Afolabi, Mathé, Odéké, O'Neill Lewis and Rainford and deputy secretary-general Carrington) and from the Community (development commissioner Cheysson, Belgian development minister Outers, European Parliament vice-president Deschamps, Economic and Social Committee member Soulat and deputy director-general Foley) spoke during the seminar.

Discussions centred on potential improvements to the new convention, primarily as regards trade relations, the Stabex, the EDF, industrial cooperation, human rights, CAP products and the sugar protocol.



The seminar on Lomé organized by the NGOs

The NGOs refrained from making any over-formal statements which would bind them at this stage and go beyond the aim of shaping opinions on development.

NGO-EEC co-financing

By 31 January 1979, the Commission had received applications for co-financing for 33 projects in the developing countries from 21 NGOs, representing 2 850 000 EUA altogether. Commitments totalling 621 000 EUA have so far been made for six projects.

IPALMO conference on the renewal of the ACP-EEC Convention

On 24 and 25 January, IPALMO (the institute for relations between Italy and the countries of Africa, Latin America and the Near East) organized a conference on the renewal of the ACP-EEC Convention, in Rome. IPALMO was the brainchild of a number of politicians and representatives of the socio-economic and cultural groups in Italy and is intended to be an instrument for dialogue and practical cooperation with the developing countries.

As early as 1974, at the Lomé I negotiations, IPALMO (which concentrates on ACP-EEC relations) ran a similar conference in Milan to give the principal negotiators a platform on which to express themselves and to show the Italian public what really was at stake and that there was a need to establish a new kind of relation between the developed and the developing world.

At the Rome conference, IPALMO dealt with the the objective difficulties currently besetting the negotiations.

But it also showed that both economic conditions and political needs were geared to the conclusion of another ACP-EEC agreement.

Luigi Mariotti, vice-president of the Italian chamber of deputies, and Emilio Colombo, European Parliament president, opened the conference and IPALMO chairman Piero Bassetti briefly explained why Italy's political, socio-economic and cultural forces should see the establishment of relations between EEC and ACP countries, as equal partners, as a way of escaping from the crisis and achieving a new international economic order. Giovanni Bersani and Gérard Ouédraogo, co-presidents of the joint committee of the ACP-EEC Consultative Assembly, summed up the negotiations to date.

A discussion then took place between conference participants, representatives of Italian political and socio-economic bodies, various ACP ambassadors and Tioulé Konaté, ACP secretary-general. All the speakers gave their points of view on the main themes of the negotiations and this led to a better understanding of the attitude and approach of the various partners.

On day two, an interested audience heard Mr K.B. Asante, Ghanaian ambassador and president of the ACP committee of ambassadors, and Claude Cheysson, EEC development commissioner. Angelo Sanza, under-secretary of state for foreign affairs, wound up by highlighting the role and the position of Italy, as a member of the Community, in ACP-EEC relations.

Most members (including the chairman, Colette Flesch) of the development committee of the European Parliament attended, having themselves met in Rome on the eve of the conference. □

UNCTAD V

ACP-EEC meeting

Representatives of EEC and ACP countries held an informal meeting in January at the instigation of ambassador Hessel, the French permanent representative in Geneva, for a first exchange of views on the work of UNCTAD in the period before and after the Manila meeting on 3 May-1 June. Mr Hessel mentioned the concerns and hopes of the EEC and said his particular wish was to see negotiations on the common fund proceed unhindered.

He also said that the EEC intended to make as much headway as possible with the code of conduct on the transfer of technology, without getting entangled in arguments about the legally binding nature of that code.

On the ACP side, Senegalese ambassador Alioune Sène emphasized the ACP interest in close cooperation with the EEC on all major issues affecting the developing countries. He particularly mentioned the ACP concern at the threat of renewed protectionism.

There will be informal exchanges of views between the ACP countries and representatives of the EEC at Geneva, within the framework of UNCTAD. □

EDF ON EEC BUDGET

The EEC Commission has adopted and sent the Council its proposal to include the European Development Fund (EDF) in the Community budget. This would coincide with the creation of the 5th EDF after the negotiations for renewal of the Convention with the ACP countries. The separate accounts so far kept for the EDF (with a special scale of contributions for the nine member states to constitute its resources) were an anomaly and removed a considerable part of Community spending from the standard budgetary procedure.

The Commission, with European Parliament support, has been considering the idea of including the EDF in the ordinary budget for some time. □

CORRECTION

The ambassador of Malawi attended the Lomé seminar organized by Trocaire in Dublin last November and not, as reported in the last Courier News Round-up (p. XII), the ambassador of Mali. Our apologies.

EEC Commission delegates in the ACP countries

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(2) Also responsible for Equatorial Guinea
(3) Also responsible for the OCTs in the Pacific.

(4) Also responsible for relations with the Caricom secretariat.

(5) Also responsible for the Comoros, Reunion and the Seychelles.

(6) Also responsible for the Bahamas, Belize and Caymans and Turks & Caicos islands.

(7) Also responsible for Djibouti.

(8) Also responsible for Grenada, Martinique, Guadeloupe and dependencies, Fr Guiana, St. Pierre and Miquelon and the OCTs in the southern Atlantic.

GENERAL INFORMATION

Non-associated developing countries

Financial and technical aid: 1978 programme

Within the framework of the 1978 programme of Community aid to developing countries (70 000 000 EUA)(1), the Commission has just approved a first series of financing decisions concerning 35 projects to be carried out in non-associated developing countries. The total commitment amounts to 65.5 m EUA.

This programme follows those imple-

mented in 1976 and 1977 (20 m EUA and 45 M EUA respectively).

The projects are generally concentrated on an increase in the production and availability of foodstuff commodities and an improvement in the living standards of rural populations, especially the least favoured. The distribution of the projects among economic sectors is as follows:

	EEC contribution (m EUA)	Percentage
— integrated rural development	17.8	27 %
— storage infrastructure	15.4	24 %
— irrigation and flood-control infrastructure	8.7	14 %
— other rural projects	3.4	5 %
— fisheries and fish-processing	3.0	4 %
— agricultural research	3.4	5 %
— studies and technical assistance		
• rural sector	8.3	13 %
• other sectors	2.9	4 %
— post-catastrophe reconstruction	2.0	3 %
— (administrative costs)	(0.6)	(1 %)
Total	65.5	100 %

From the geographical point of view the distribution of the funds may be expressed as follows (except for the 1 % set by for administrative costs):

— Asia:	74 %
— Latin America:	20 %
— Africa:	5 %

The majority of African countries being signatories of the Lomé Convention, only Angola and Mozambique will benefit from this aid.

With a view to coordinating the efforts of the Community with those of the member states and other aid sources, more than half of the operations are co-financed with international organizations or the bilateral aid programmes of the EEC countries.

The beneficiaries themselves are very varied in so far as the programme is designed to meet the needs of thirteen

countries, three regional integration organizations, two regional banks, five internationally important research organizations and one continental federation of non-governmental organizations. □

(1) The sum allocated for 1979 by Community institutions is 110 000 000 UCE.

UNCTAD

UNCTAD V is scheduled for Manila, 8 May-1 June. On the agenda will be most of the problems of the North-South dialogue. The Commission is convinced that Manila will be an important stage in the discussions and has brought out a first document on politi-

cal guidelines to shape the Community's attitude in the run-up to and during the conference.

In a communication to the Council, the Commission stressed that:

— the Community should ensure that significant progress was made with the current pre-Manila UNCTAD discussions on the common fund, product agreements and debt;

— UNCTAD V should also hold a thorough-going discussion on the principal problems which would be facing international cooperation in the future.

□

MAGHREB-MASHREQ

Financing decisions

In the context of the agreements between the Community and the Maghreb and Mashreq countries, the Commission has taken a first series of decisions, after the agreement of the EEC member states, representing 6 200 000 EUA:

— Syria: a grant of 2 100 000 EUA for a study and a global evaluation in the industrial sector;

— Tunisia: a grant of 2 000 000 EUA for studies and technical assistance for a number of water projects in Tunisian towns;

— all the countries: a grant of 2 100 000 EUA as a provisional sum for each country to finance scholarships and professional training in 1979.

In addition the European Investment Bank is approving various projects for Tunisia, Jordan, Egypt and Syria representing some 70 million EUA. □

NORTH-SOUTH DIALOGUE

Plenary committee

The plenary committee on economic questions, the North-South dialogue's UN negotiating committee, considers that the problem of a genuine transfer of resources should be dealt with at world level.

Closing the session of 29-31 January, the committee adopted (by a consensus) a statement of guiding principles stressing that this question in fact included development assistance, trade and the movement of capital, private investments and other international payments which are all interdependent.

This transfer of resources should be organized in the light of the world community's desire to work towards a new international economic order founded on justice and equality for all states. It should reduce and ultimately bridge the growing gap between the developed and the developing countries.

The committee's statement says that the developed countries should be ensuring the bilateral and multilateral movement of funds to the developing countries in a coherent and well-organized manner.

It emphasized that it was up to the developing countries to make an efficient job of using the means which external sources put at their disposal and that these means should be apportioned in the light of the development aims and priorities of the developing countries.

The committee said it was concerned about the fact that the developed countries as a whole were still far short of the UN development decade target of 0.7% of GNP as development aid. It insisted that the developed countries in question should take significant and effective action to remedy this situation. □

CEAO

A training seminar on the techniques of gathering and setting up statistics on fisheries was opened in Dakar on 24 January by Dr M'Baye Ba, representing the Senegalese Ministry of Rural Development, and attended by Cheikh Baïdy Diop, representing the secretary-general of the CEAO.

The seminar, which lasted until 9 February, was designed, run and financed by the CEAO Secretariat-General, with technical assistance from the FAO, and attended by some 30 officials from the member states of the CEAO.

The programme centred on the following:

- a reminder and definition of basic concepts;
- the design of statistical surveys of fish resources, plus case studies;
- a discussion of participants' experience;
- the design of surveys applicable in CEAO countries (in two working committees);
- field work and visits to factories and centres of interest.

The discussions were run by cadres from the CEAO Secretariat-General, FAO consultants and officials from the

Senegalese departments of oceanography, sea fishing, statistics, waterways and forests and the Thiarye oceanographical research centre. □

COMMODITIES

Ample supplies of commodities seen for 1979

Ample supplies of most foodstuffs and other agricultural commodities are forecast for 1979 in a report of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO).

The 1977-79 "FAO Commodity Review and Outlook", issued annually, analyses the market situation and outlook of all major food and agricultural commodities including fishery and forestry products, as well as world trade in these products. This year's prospects for individual commodities largely reflect the size of crops harvested toward the end of 1978 and demand anticipated for 1979. The FAO report provides details for a number of commodities:

Cereals. — Because of large 1979 harvests of all types of cereals, world trade demand in 1979 will slacken a little from its record pace and carryover stocks in exporting countries will soar to new highs. While rice prices, which dropped from high levels late last year, may ease further during early 1979, prices of wheat and coarse grains are likely to hold steady, maintained by high levels of use and the impact of a new US grain reserve which has removed surplus cereal supplies from the marketplace.

Fats and oils. — Supplies of vegetable oils and of oilseed meals used for animal feed could be ample for needs in 1979 following a period of strong demand and high prices. Preliminary production forecasts indicate that world output of oils and meals in 1979 will exceed the high 1978 level, although prospects could still change greatly as the season progresses.

Much of the increase will come from larger soybean production, with record supplies expected in both the United States and Brazil, and larger world output of most other oilseeds.

Meat and milk. — Beef prices, which rose last year, may show some further increase this year with reduced production in the major beef trading countries. Price increases will be limited, however, by consumer resistance and plentiful supplies of pork and poultry selling at depressed prices. Sheepmeat prices, which also escalated in 1978, could hold firm.

Plentiful supplies of feedstuffs will encourage world milk production this year, but with little growth foreseen in demand for dairy products, world trade prices will remain low, surplus stocks will increase, and spending by rich countries to support dairy prices will rise.

Beverage crops. — Coffee, tea and cocoa prices all eased last year, reflecting larger crops, but remain high by pre-1977 standards. FAO expects coffee output to increase further this year, but with rising demand and very depleted stocks, markets may remain unstable.

Cassava. — World production of this starchy tuber, a staple of the tropics and a feed ingredient, increased slightly to a new record in 1978. Exports of feed cassava to the EEC have grown rapidly.

Citrus. — World citrus production has stagnated for several years, resulting in tight supplies and high prices. This situation will continue in coming months.

Fishery products. — Stable prices for cod and other major North Atlantic species, shrimp and tuna are likely during the first half of 1979, owing to large catches or stocks. But upward pressure on fish prices will continue for several years because, while rising population and income stimulate demand, world fish production is increasing by only one or two per cent per year. The enactment of offshore 200-mile exclusive economic zones by coastal countries has restricted deep water fishing by international fleets. It will take time for these countries to build up their national fishing fleets.

Tobacco. — Tobacco production will increase further this year, especially in developing countries. While tobacco use grew slowly or even declined last year in rich countries, reflecting health concerns and higher prices, demand in developing countries continued its strong expansion.

Cotton. — With less cotton planted and adverse weather, 1978/79 cotton production is expected to decline, bringing a better balance of supply and demand than in 1977/78 and stable prices up to midyear. Strong competition will come from man-made fibres, which are low-priced relative to cotton.

Rubber. — Rubber production may increase only slightly in 1979. Demand for both natural and synthetic rubber will be static, with large tyre inventories on hand, slowing automobile output, and greater popularity of long-wearing radial tyres.

Hides and skins. — While smaller cattle and sheep production reduced supplies, demand for hides and skins in leather fashions and in the expanding leather industries of developing

countries held firm, sending prices to record highs in 1978. Production and demand may both decline in 1979, but much easing of prices is unlikely.

Forest products. — Early data indicate that world production and trade in forest products may have picked up in 1978 following slow growth in the preceding year. Consumption of forest products may increase a little further in 1979 because of a more active housing market in most developed countries and sustained economic growth in the developing world. □

TOKYO ROUND

Joint statement by the EEC and the USA

The delegations of the EEC Commission and the United States reviewed the state of progress achieved in the Tokyo round of multilateral trade negotiations at the end of the year and noted with satisfaction the significant progress made both multilaterally and bilaterally across the full range of subjects under discussion.

The delegations reported that they have essentially resolved their differences on non-tariff measures. They noted that the major elements for a final balance in the agricultural sector are now on the table as far as both sides are concerned.

With regard to tariffs, they noted that, while the major elements for a substantial deal were now present, further bilateral negotiations would be needed to reach a mutually satisfactory agreement reflecting a balance both in qualitative as well as quantitative terms.

They reported the following areas of broad agreement thus far:

A series of non-tariff measure codes

These cover the subjects of subsidies/countervailing measures, government procurement, standards (technical barriers to trade), customs valuation, licensing, and an agreement in principle on trade in counterfeited goods. The delegations stated that these arrangements as a group establish the foundation for a more modern, disciplined and fair trading system.

They also noted that these codes as a group make up the keystone of the Tokyo round and represent the first time that non-tariff measures have been dealt with on such a broad scale in the course of multilateral trade negotiations.

Agriculture

The major elements mentioned earlier include four commodity arrange-

ments (covering meat, dairy, and the two grains accords being negotiated in another forum), a series of non-tariff understandings, and reciprocal bilateral agricultural concessions.

Reforms of the GATT and the trading system

They noted that there were no remaining differences between them concerning the series of framework agreements now nearing a full multilateral accord. These set out a series of reforms of GATT practices as well as new provisions of special importance to developing countries.

The elements included in the framework are: an enabling clause covering special and differential treatment and graduation, an understanding on balance-of-payments measures, a clarification of procedures for handling dispute settlements, and an understanding on export restrictions.

In the safeguards sector, the delegations observed that they have developed a basis for an understanding bilaterally on these issues but wish to pursue this topic further in a multilateral context in order to obtain the broadest base of consensus possible among negotiating partners before finalizing their positions.

The tariff work remaining is still difficult and time-consuming and will be carried on in the first part of January. The last steps largely concern achieving a mutually acceptable balance. This balance is not only bilaterally but also multilaterally important since the European Community and the United States account for more than 40 per cent of world trade. □

EEC-PAKISTAN

The third session of the joint commission established under the EEC-Pakistan commercial cooperation agreement signed on 1 June 1976 took place in Brussels on 30 and 31 January 1979. The session was inaugurated by Sir Roy Denman, director-general for external relations in the EEC Commission. The Pakistan delegation was led by Mr Izhar ul Haque, federal secretary for commerce in Pakistan, while the EEC delegation in the working session was led by Mr Edoardo Volpi, director in the directorate-general for external relations.

The joint commission reviewed recent economic developments in Pakistan and the Community. Sir Roy Denman noted the development efforts being made by Pakistan for the diversification of her exports to the Community, to which the commercial cooperation agreement had contributed. He expressed concern about Pakistan's growing trade deficit with the Community and promised that the Community would extend all possible help

to promote Pakistan's exports in order to improve this situation.

Mr Izhar ul Haque described the improvements in the economic situation in Pakistan since the last meeting, held in January 1978. He stated that in 1978 GDP grew at a sizeable rate of 6.5 per cent compared with the average of 3.48 per cent experienced in the years 1973 to 1977. Major gains were recorded in industry and agriculture (except for the wheat crop, which suffered a disastrous rust attack).

A significant improvement took place in foreign earnings, exports increasing by 15 per cent, and the inflation rate was contained to single digit level. While observing that the unfavourable balance of trade with the Community had risen to over US \$400 million during 1977-78, Mr Izhar ul Haque expressed appreciation of the constructive cooperation of the Community and the member states in promoting Pakistan's exports and called for greater efforts in that direction. He expressed the hope that the EEC's generalized system of preferences would be further improved.

The two delegations examined the progress of the efforts being made under the Community's trade promotion programme to develop and diversify Pakistan's exports to the EEC. They agreed on the main lines of the 1979 programme, which will include sponsorship of participation by Pakistan in European trade fairs, trade missions to the Community, the sending of technical experts to Pakistan and the provision of publicity material.

The joint commission also discussed measures to encourage collaboration between European and Pakistani entrepreneurs, particularly in the fields of tanning, fisheries and engineering subcontracting, and more generally in strengthening the industrial development of Pakistan. □

TOURISM

265 million tourists in 1978 — African tourist trade increasing faster than average

In 1978, nearly 265 million tourists travelled to the four corners of the earth, spending 60 000 million dollars on their way. These figures, which Robert Lonati of the World Tourism Organization gave out in Madrid, show a 9% increase in tourists over 1977 and a 15% increase in the income directly derived from tourism.

The liberalization of air traffic standards has a lot to do with this expansion, particularly on lines between Europe and North Africa. The same goes for regular flights and, above all, for the development of charter flights.

Three large markets (Europe, North America and Japan) are currently sharing the major part of the world tourist trade. Europe alone represents 70% of world tourism, although more than three quarters of this 70% are accounted for by trips between the various European countries, which is tantamount to saying that there are no more than 15-20% of non-European tourists on the old continent. Tourist traffic is 8% up on last year and tourist spending up by 25-30%.

There are two other significant changes this year: the increase in long distance trips and the above-average rate of growth of African tourism.

The expanding tourist market of East Asia and the Pacific is 10% up on 1977. But the increase is even more marked in Africa, where three countries, Tunisia, Morocco and Kenya, account for 70% of the continent's tourist trade.

Trips inside Africa are still well down the list, but the WTO considers that, in years to come, the continent will be one of the world's biggest tourist attractions now that traditional resorts are approaching saturation point.

The WTO also considers that the widening of tourist horizons could perhaps also provide an answer to the present problem of concentration whereby tourists all flock to the same place at the same time, which is a bad thing for the holidaymakers themselves and for the various places that have to accommodate them. □

SOLAR ENERGY

EEC to hold international conference on solar energy for development

The conference, to be held in Varese (Italy) on 26-29 March and organized by the EEC Commission, will:

— assess progress with techniques of converting solar energy in the developing countries;

— carry out a critical analysis of the technical, economic, social and financial aspects of this form of energy, with a view to using it in the developing countries, particularly rural areas, in the short term;

— lay down guidelines for a plan of action to make increasing use of solar energy in various sectors of activity.

The terms of reference of the conference were defined at five regional seminars in Nairobi, Bamako, Amman, Caracas and New Delhi and have been set out in a working document.

The programme of the conference comprises five half-day sessions on water, power generators, solar heat, international and regional cooperation, the environment and social implications and there will be the usual opening and closing ceremonies.

A total of 320 people have been invited—70 from the ACP countries, 40 from the non-associated developing countries, 25 from the Arab countries and Israel, 15 from the EEC member states and the European institutions, 15 from financing bodies and organizations, 15 from third countries, 25 from the Commission, 15 from international organizations and 100 experts. □

APARTHEID

Meeting of the UN commission of inquiry into crimes in southern Africa

The first session of the UN International Commission of Inquiry into the Crimes of the Racist and Apartheid Regimes in Southern Africa met at the Palais des Congrès in Brussels on 9-12 February 1979. Sean McBride, ex-UN commissioner for Namibia, Nobel prize winner and holder of the Lenin peace prize, was in the chair.

The meeting was attended by the members of the commission (27 lead-

ing figures), UN representatives and Belgian and foreign personalities, including a number of ambassadors to Belgium.

The aim of the commission, as Mr McBride pointed out at a press conference, was to gather and discuss personal accounts of the violation of human rights in southern Africa, to inform international public opinion about "the crimes perpetrated by" the regimes in Pretoria and Salisbury and to prepare a report for the UN as a basis for setting up an international tribunal "to punish those responsible for the atrocities."

Sean McBride, who has already sat on similar commissions on Vietnam and Chile, said he had never heard such damning evidence. He asked the Western press to break "the wall of silence surrounding the crimes of apartheid" and to quote a whole series of events which had passed almost unnoticed—killing and torture in Soweto, invasions of Angolan territory by South Africa and the massacre of 700 people, and the Smith regime's 449 attacks on the Mozambique provinces of Gaza, Manica, Sofala and Tete, resulting in 1 009 dead and 1 227 wounded.

Sean McBride also said that the exactions of the Portuguese colonial regime in Mozambique and Angola would be investigated. He hoped to submit his report to the UN in about May or June of this year, but there would have to be two more meetings of the commission first. □

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

The Commission's programme for 1979

Roy Jenkins, the president of the EEC Commission, made his annual address to the European Parliament in February, presenting the Commission's report for 1978 and its programme for 1979. On external relations Mr Jenkins had the following to say:

"Recent months have shown us that the Community's international weight and presence is continuing to grow and to grow fast. With the president of the Council I represented the Community at the economic summit meeting at Bonn in July; we further developed the close relationship between the Community and the United States; and we made some progress in establishing a more solid basis for our relations with Japan in the interest of world economic stability. Beyond this we established a new relationship with

the countries of ASEAN; and we concluded a trade agreement with China.

"From this picture of events, I would like to single out two which are, I believe, particularly significant for the Community. First our relationship with the United States: apart from a steady flow of high level exchanges between Washington and Brussels, President Carter visited the Commission early last year and I went to see him in December. These meetings have enabled us to review the main issues which condi-

tion the relationship between the two biggest trading powers in the world, and to explore the possibilities for new fields of cooperation, particularly in the field of science and technology, which represents, I believe, a significant and hopeful field for future work together. Second, I refer to the trade agreement which the Community concluded with China last April. China is the largest of the developing nations. She was not slow to recognize the reality of the Community and when she decided to open up and to increase her international exchanges, the Community was among the first to whom China turned. I am confident that in 1979 we can develop our trade and understanding with China still further, and I will have these prospects before me when I visit Peking later this month.

"Nevertheless as a Community we still face difficulties and dilemmas in our relations with both industrial and developing countries. These have been underlined in two vitally important international negotiations which are now coming to a conclusion. I refer to the multilateral trade negotiations at Geneva, and the negotiations in which the Community is engaged for a successor to the Lomé Convention.

"The Community depends more on world trade than any of our major trading partners. To that extent we wish to see the international trading system strengthened and extended in scope. We have therefore welcomed the emphasis which has been placed in these negotiations on attacking the multiplicity of non-tariff barriers which obstruct the flow of trade. But we have also been bound to recognize that it is not enough to pull down barriers wherever we find them. We have to ensure that the trading system which we are constructing contains its own checks and balances. We must ensure, for example, that it takes fair account of the new phenomenon of the highly competitive low cost producer who can now make a deep and rapid penetration into a particular market in a way that can almost wipe out our own domestic production.

"This phenomenon is only an extreme manifestation of a wider problem of adjustment to which protection cannot ultimately be the answer. Over the past year the Community has found it necessary to take a number of measures to safeguard employment in certain industries, such as textiles, steel and shipbuilding, which suffer acutely from over-capacity and excess labour, nearly always as a result of the growing ability of other producers outside the Community to produce these goods more cheaply. But these measures will only be acceptable to our trading partners if they are accompanied by active and responsible policies to adapt our economies to new circumstances. The Commission, which has had to take the lead in working out measures to provide a temporary shield for those industries which are under severe pressure, is fully conscious of the need, in the

coming years and at Community level, to shift the emphasis to the elaboration of that longer-term framework within which industrial change can take place as well as to the promotion of growth sectors.

"This need for adjustment is one of the main elements underlying both the multilateral trade negotiations and our own domestic industrial policies. It also concerns us in our negotiations for a new convention with the countries of Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific. It would make little sense to offer generous aid and trading benefits to these countries if we refused to prepare ourselves to accept an increasing volume of those products which newly industrializing countries inevitably begin to produce and sell. Although the Lomé Convention has only been in operation for some three years, I believe that the process of negotiating a new convention is in itself valuable in acquainting us with the aspirations of the ACP countries and in acquainting the ACP countries with the Community's political and economic difficulties. For its part, the Commission will do all it can to see that the negotiations are concluded in good time for ratification well before the expiry of the present convention."

External policy in 1979

The report on policy in 1979 included the following points on external relations:

In the external relations field the Commission will continue in 1979 to be guided by two objectives:

- the maintenance of free and expanding world trade,
- the consolidation of relations with the developing countries.

Two priorities will help meet these two objectives in 1979:

- the conclusion of the multilateral trade negotiations under GATT,
- the conclusion of the negotiations with the African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) countries for the renewal of the Lomé Convention.

On the basis of the political agreement achieved regarding the overall objectives of the GATT multilateral negotiations, the Commission will make every effort to get the political decisions reached put into practice. This will apply in particular to the field of non-tariff barriers, where it is planned to set up within the GATT framework a number of new procedures, for example for public invitations to tender and technical standards.

The Commission will do everything in its power to bring the negotiations with the ACP countries to a successful conclusion before the end of April so that the new convention can enter into force as anticipated on 1 March 1980. The Commission will speed up work on the implementation of the financial

protocols with the Maghreb and Mashreq countries and with Israel.

In May 1979 the Fifth United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) will be held in Manila. The Commission attaches great importance to this meeting, the success of which will depend in particular on the way the Community manages to define and defend constructive common positions. The Commission will be presenting its proposals in due course.

The Commission hopes that concrete progress will be made in 1979 in the establishment of commodity agreements under UNCTAD's integrated programme. It will continue to press for agreement on the common fund and for the conclusion of the agreement on rubber.

The Commission will take whatever steps are necessary to ensure that its proposals to improve the management of food aid and to extend the use of such aid as an instrument of development policy are adopted before the end of the year.

The Commission will make every effort to achieve greater coherence between the Community's and the member states' internal and external policies. The Commission intends to present further communications to this effect, as it has recently done in the case of sugar.

The Commission will give details of its assessment of the effects the developing countries' economic growth will have in sustaining demand for exports from industrialized countries, particularly the Community. In the light of this assessment it intends to submit to the Council the broad lines of an action programme aimed in particular at promoting a substantial increase in transfers of resources to the developing countries.

The Commission will continue its action to promote and protect European investment in the developing countries. It expects its proposals in this field to find their first practical expression in the future agreements with the ACP and ASEAN countries.

Following the meeting of the foreign affairs ministers of the Community and ASEAN in Brussels on 20 and 21 November 1978, the Commission will apply itself to translating into reality the mutual political desire for closer cooperation between Europe and South-East Asia. To this end, it plans to complete the exploratory talks and subsequently conduct negotiations for the conclusion of a cooperation agreement between the Community and ASEAN. The Commission hopes that such an agreement can be concluded before the end of the year.

India and Brazil wish to renew the present commercial agreements on a broader basis; the Commission intends to present the Council with proposals for negotiating directives during the first half of the year.

In the spirit of the trade agreement concluded in 1978, the Commission plans to intensify relations between the Community and China.

In Europe, work will be concentrated on the following points:

— Within the framework of the present association agreement with Turkey the Commission will attempt to find solutions to Turkey's economic problems that are satisfactory to both parties.

— As soon as possible the Commission will start negotiations on a cooperation agreement with Yugoslavia, which it hopes to complete in the first six months of the year.

— In relations with the EFTA states the operation of the present free-trade agreements needs to be further improved, in particular by reducing non-tariff trade barriers while at the same time establishing closer cooperation in various fields.

— The Commission will continue its efforts towards normalizing relations between the Community and the countries of Eastern Europe.

In relations with the industrialized countries two points deserve special attention:

— the continuation of the Commission's efforts to achieve greater equilibrium in trade between the Community and Japan;

— the negotiation of a cooperation agreement with Australia and the proposal for negotiating directives in respect of Canada, aimed at guaranteeing Community supplies of uranium.

In 1979 the Commission will endeavour to make further progress in defining a common export policy. To this end, it will:

— negotiate with the Community's main partners on the world market with a view to improving the present arrangements on export credit terms;

— attempt to bring to a successful conclusion the discussions on a Community mechanism for financing exports, on which it presented proposals in 1975-76.

Enlargement

In the Commission's opinion, the main objectives for 1979 are the following:

— Greece: conclude the negotiations and sign the Treaty of Accession;

— Portugal: undertake a substantial part of the negotiations, beginning with the customs union and external relations;

— Spain: start work, within the Council, on defining the common negotiating basis for the actual commencement of the negotiations.

To this end, the Commission will present all the proposals required to find solutions that are satisfactory to the present Community and the applicant countries.

The Commission will, furthermore, bear in mind the prospect of enlargement in pursuing existing Community

policies and preparing new proposals. It is clear that effective concerting of action with the acceding countries is indispensable in order to do this. □

EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

French foreign minister: "priority to ACP-EEC talks"

France started its six-month presidency of the EEC Council on 1 January. Mr François-Poncet, the new minister for foreign affairs, inaugurated France's term of office by presenting the projected programme to the European Parliament in Strasbourg. He had the following to say about relations with the developing countries:

"Over and above enlargement, there is one sector of the Community's external relations which should be given priority and on which, as time is running out, we should concentrate. This is the close and original relations established right from the Treaty of Rome with a certain number of African countries and since extended to more than 50 states of Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific.

"This particular aspect of Community policy is not just important for historical reasons and because of the common interest which Europe and these regions have in cooperating closely. It is also important because of its exemplary character as far as North-South relations are concerned. The Lomé Convention, from many points of view (freedom of access to markets, the Stabex, the amount of money involved, the establishment of joint institutions) is a model for relations between the industrialized countries and the Third World.

"This originality must be preserved and our present achievements consolidated, and we must also examine the possibility of making the adjustments that will improve this instrument of cooperation.

"France's aim will be to make a successful job of completing these negotiations during its term of office. The ministerial conference of 21 December augured well in this respect. It remains only to speed up the work at technical level and to ensure that the desire to reach a successful conclusion, which both EEC and ACP countries share, finds practical expression at political level.

"But the Community does not intend confining its development aid ambitions to just one or two areas of the globe, even if Europe has special reasons for an original and exemplary association with them.

"Although it has not so far proved possible to adopt the outline regulation

on financial aid provided for non-associated countries from the Community budget, various arrangements have in fact enabled this aid to be granted.

"Furthermore, and with a view to continuing the North-South dialogue, the Community will be called upon to define a common position for negotiation of the common fund scheduled for further discussion on 12 March 1979. The Community will also have to define a joint position for UNCTAD V in Manila on 4 May-1 June 1979. France will ensure that the Community's position is as generous and open as possible," Mr François-Poncet said.

Exploiting the sea bed

In answer to a written question by Mr Damseaux, the Commission made the following points on sea-bed resources:

In view of its heavy dependence on raw materials, the Community has a special interest in the exploitation of sea-bed resources, in particular the polymetallic nodules containing nickel, copper, cobalt and manganese, of which the Community is a major importer. Many European industrial companies are interested in exploiting these resources, some of them in conjunction with US, Canadian and Japanese companies.

The Commission is taking an active part with the member states in the negotiations being held in the context of the United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea, which began in 1973.

After the sixth session in 1977, an informal composite negotiating text was drawn up; this text is the subject of the current negotiations which are to lead to the adoption of a convention on the law of the sea. As regards the arrangements for the exploitation of sea-bed resources, the negotiating text provides for the establishment of an international sea-bed authority made up of all the parties to the convention. The authority would be responsible for organizing and monitoring sea-bed exploitation activities and its main organs would be an assembly, in which all the members of the authority would participate, and a council of 36 members. The authority would also have an operational organ, called the enterprise, whose role be to exploit sea-bed resources on behalf of the authority under a 'parallel' system whereby mine sites would be shared equally between the enterprise and private or state operators.

The Community accepts the principle of the creation of the authority and the enterprise, on condition that a system is set up excluding privileged treatment for this organ and guaranteeing acceptable economic conditions for all firms, whether they be private or belong to the EEC member states.

The Community has agreed that means of enabling it to be represented



Jean François-Poncet at the European Parliament

in the assembly, on the council of the international sea-bed authority and in any operational organ set up by the authority should be studied, as the negotiations progress.

The conference will resume its work on 19 March 1979 in Geneva. Among the major questions still outstanding in connection with the sea-bed issue are the conditions and guarantees governing access to the exploitation of the sea bed for private or state companies, the matter of limitation of the production of metals extracted from sea-bed nodules, the financial arrangements concerning the international authority and the enterprise, and the financial clauses of exploration and exploitation contracts for private or state companies.

Political affairs committee

"We want to change the system of apartheid in southern Africa. How can we make an effective contribution to altering the system in the short or the long term, or gradually or rapidly?" This new approach to the question is that of British liberal Russel Johnston, rapporteur on the political aspects of the southern African situation for the European Parliament's political affairs committee, which met in Brussels on 22 and 23 January with Alfred Bertrand (Christian democrat, Belgium) in the chair.

Mr Johnston's approach, which won the approval of the members of the committee, shows a desire to bring about an improvement in the lot of individuals who live in inhuman conditions and to do more than just produce "theoretical" resolutions condemning apartheid.

With the collaboration of Claude Cheysson, the members of the com-

mittee attempted to define the procedure which the new approach would lead them to adopt. So Mr Johnston was invited to produce a draft report on the internal situation in southern Africa. The committee, within the framework of the motion by Mr Fellermaier (socialist, Germany), wanted to have an exchange of views in the near future with representatives of European oil companies on the problem of respecting the economic sanctions imposed on the illegal regime in Rhodesia.

Debate on enlargement

On 17 January, Jean-François Pintat (liberal, France) presented his report on the political and institutional aspects of enlargement to the European Parliament. A report on the sectoral aspects is scheduled for the April session.

The Pintat report stresses a series of important political and institutional issues and lays down a series of demands implicit in enlargement:

- All the applicant countries, like the Nine, must undertake to respect pluralist democracies.

- All the signatories of the accession treaties must respect and consolidate Community achievements.

- The decision-making machinery must be improved upon (and the European Parliament must be regularly consulted).

- Time limits and appropriate measures must be laid down for the transitional period, so as to avoid political, economic and social difficulties (in both the applicant countries and certain agricultural areas of the Nine, which have legitimate fears in this respect).

Lorenzo Natali, EEC commissioner for enlargement, spoke during the discussion that followed the report, stressing that the accession of three more countries should not have a prejudicial effect.

"Enlargement should not be harmful. On the contrary, in our economic situation it should be a great advantage, perhaps not immediately or for everyone, but overall.

"The motion is in line with this", he continued, "and I am most pleased that we agree. But this choice means that the applicant countries, the Community itself and the member states must all make a considerable effort. It also means that the applicants, and Portugal first and foremost, must start taking, or be more energetic in taking their economic policy in hand, reduce their rate of inflation, counter unemployment, cut down their external debt and, above all, reduce their often enormous regional disparities. It also means that, in the run up to accession, the applicant countries must cooperate with us in the field of industrial policy and other sectors to avoid developing in different ways and to enable us to make an early start on devising converging economic policies.

"Another important thing is for the applicants to realize that the purpose of the negotiations is to find solutions to the problems that accession may raise for them, for the Community and for the individual member states.

"For the Community, deciding to demand that enlargement must be economically advantageous also means making considerable efforts. Take agriculture, for example. Enlargement will increase the number of farmers in the Community by something like 50% and the number of farms and the total area of agricultural land will go up too. But the value of agricultural production, i.e. the main income of these farmers, will only increase by about 25%. This means two things. One, our common agricultural policy will be unable to ensure that producers in the new countries get an income that is comparable to incomes in the Nine. Two, production per head among farmers in the three applicants is about half what it is in the Nine".

The formal negotiations with Spain opened in February. □

EUROPEAN ELECTIONS

European Peoples' Party

To mark the start of the new year, Mr Klepsch, the chairman of the Christian democratic group in the European Parliament, gave a press reception at which several leaders of the new European party were present, including

Leo Tindemans, the former Belgian Prime Minister and leader of the EPP, Lorenzo Natali, a vice-president of the European Commission, and Garret FitzGerald, former Irish foreign minister. Mr Klepsch recalled that 1978 had ended with two "electoral successes" in Belgium and Venezuela, and reminded his audience of the main themes of the group in the run-up to the European elections in June 1979.

He spoke, too, of the budgetary problems of the Community and assured his audience that the EPP group would be energetic in tackling the problem. During the elections the group will stress the delegation of powers, freedom of action by the European Parliament and the possibilities for extending its influence.

The group would also concern itself with the organization of the Parliament's work, the information campaign that was to be waged, and the Europe-wide presentation of the European Peoples' Party programme. In a speech, Mr Tindemans pledged himself to the electoral campaign.

Socialists

The 10th congress of the Union of European Socialist Parties ended in January with the adoption of an appeal to the electors of Europe. While deploring the "obvious weakness of structures which Europe presents in facing the threat of unemployment and the trend to less international solidarity and equality", the socialists said they would present a common programme to the electors covering the right to work, the democratic control of economic and social changes, the fight against pollution, the end of all discrimination and especially where this concerned women, the protection of consumers, the promotion of peace, the advance of security and cooperation discussions, especially those involved in the CSCE, and the defence of the rights of man throughout the world.

The socialists also agreed that any further transfer of power from national parliaments and governments to the Community level should be done with the full support of those governments and parliaments.

Liberals

At its meeting in January, chaired by Mr Gaston Thorn, the executive committee of the federation of European democratic liberals elected Mr Willy de Clercq, Belgium's former finance minister, who gained increased support at recent elections, and Mr Martin Bange-mann, member of the German Bundestag and the European Parliament and member of the FDP praesidium, as its vice chairmen. They replace Mr Hans-Dietrich Genscher, chairman of the FDP and Mr Hans de Koster of the VVD (Netherlands).

The executive committee of the federation has prepared a big election

rally, which will be held in Luxembourg on 7 April 1979, and which will be the climax of the European democratic liberals' campaign for the elections to the European Parliament in June 1979. □

AGRICULTURE

The official publications office of the European Communities has just published the 1978 report on the agricultural situation in the Community.

This report is unique in giving a complete view of agriculture, food and the agricultural markets in 1978, the developments which led up to the situation of 1978 and the outlook for 1979.

Drawing on a wide range of material, much of which was previously unpublished or scattered through specialized documents, it collates the most relevant into a succinct text of 150 pages supported by 250 pages of key statistical indicators. Its size—only a little larger than a pocket book—helps to make it an indispensable tool for all those concerned with the many facets of agriculture and agricultural policy.

This report, the fourth published, contains a number of improvements. The most significant improvement is the treatment in greater depth of the regional aspects of agriculture. For the first time, it has been possible to present and analyse the regional results of a Community-wide survey of farm structures based upon common concepts. □

ECONOMIC TRENDS

The Commission has published its latest analysis of the Community's economic situation, the main conclusions of which are as follows:

— Firmer trend in demand and economic activity.

Economic activity continued to stage a modest recovery in the closing months of 1978. At the same time, the situation on the labour market became more stable, as did the conditions governing internal and external equilibrium.

— Growth trends in 1978 more encouraging than in 1977.

The growth in the Community's real gross domestic product in the third quarter showed that overall activity was still moderately buoyant (compared with the previous quarter, real GDP or GNP was 0.7% higher in Germany and 0.5% higher in Italy and the United Kingdom but remained unchanged in

Belgium; the figure for France is not yet available). The rate of growth for the Community as a whole was put at 0.6% in the first quarter and at 1% in the second quarter while, for the countries mentioned above, the estimate for the third quarter was 0.6%.

In October, the index of industrial production in the Community was 3.7% up on a year earlier.

— Overall rate of unemployment stable.

The seasonally adjusted unemployment rate for the Community as a whole held steady in November at 5.6% (fall in Germany, the United Kingdom, Denmark and Ireland, no change in France and the Benelux countries, and increase in Italy).

— Community inflation rate virtually unchanged.

In the Community, consumer prices rose by 0.6% in November and were 7.2% higher than a year earlier. The rate of inflation, which thus showed little if any change from October, has remained very stable since the slight spurt recorded in July.

— Trade balance in virtual equilibrium.

After closing with a combined surplus of almost 1 000 million EUA in September and October, the Community's trade balance (fob/cif) seems to have been in virtual equilibrium in November. In the past year, it showed some rather irregular fluctuations even though the marked tendency towards improvement discernible in 1977 had clearly come to an end.

— Dollar revival giving way to renewed fall.

On the exchanges, the dollar's recovery against the European unit of account which had got under way in November was followed by a fresh decline in December. Between the beginning and end of December, the EUA gained some 6% against the dollar. Member states' currencies fluctuated against the EUA by less than 1% on a monthly basis (November/December). □

ENERGY

Community foreign policy in energy supply

The Commission has accepted a proposal from commissioners. Guido Brunner and Wilhelm Haferkamp giving a general outline for a foreign policy which should help to stabilise and diversify the Community's supplies of energy from third countries.

The proposals will now be submitted to the Council for discussion at their next meeting in March. They will also be sent to the Parliament and to the Economic and Social Committee.

The proposals draw particular attention to the energy gap which is expected to open in the late '80s when supplies of both oil and uranium will probably become scarce and more expensive.

Emphasis is laid on the need to limit the Community's dependence on imports, to diversify supplies, to increase stability, to step up cooperation with the developing countries. The new policy paper is meant to be read in conjunction with the paper on energy objectives for 1990 and the comparison of member states' programmes agreed last November.

In the two sectors in which external initiatives are of greatest significance in view of the fact that it is therein that Community dependence is greatest—oil and uranium—the governments and companies have taken effective measures which should not be called into question. However, in the wake of a crisis which has revealed the fragility of the system, it may now be considered necessary to go further in the direction of Community action.

As regards oil, the main feature of the period to come is the possibility of tension on the oil market between 1985 and 1990 because production will be somewhat out of step with consumption. This tension will mean that oil prices will be increasingly fixed in line with the free play of supply and demand on a seller's market.

The Community must therefore put itself in a position to cope with these market conditions: the establishment of objectives such as net oil imports not exceeding 500 million tonnes in 1985 is a step in this direction.

The Community should endeavour to establish regular contacts with producer groups and include examination of energy problems in its bilateral talks with all the producer states, and in the agreements it will conclude. The Community will further attempt, by appropriate means (subsidies to be repaid in the event of success, and possibly a system of credit guarantees), to encourage the oil companies to increase prospecting throughout the world; it will encourage the exchange of technology and the training of experts from all the countries interested by means of the instruments at the disposal of the member states.

As regards uranium, the negotiations under way with most of the producer countries show that, apart from commercial and financial aspects, the political considerations assume increasing importance and require the intervention of the public authorities as the only body capable of ensuring proper use of this product.

The Community should attempt to find a solution within the Euratom Treaty to the problems raised by the supply of natural uranium to users in the member states: in this connection, the conclusion of agreements under

which the operators would sign the necessary supply contracts appears to be the best means for reconciling commercial interests and political imperatives.

The Community should do all in its power to defend the export interests of the member states within existing international organizations or as part of discussions on various aspects of the nuclear cycle: enrichment of uranium, reprocessing of fuel, export of nuclear techniques and material. □

ANNUAL REPORT 1977/78

The European Commission has published the annual report on the Community's and member states' development cooperation policies covering 1977. This is the first of a series of reports which are to appear each year, as agreed by the Council in its resolution of 8 November 1976 concerning the coordination and harmonization of development cooperation policies in the EEC.

The report is divided into two sections: the scope of Community action and policy, with chapters on the EEC in the North-South dialogue, the EEC's contractual relations with the ACP and south Mediterranean countries and the EEC's working relations with other developing countries; the instruments connected with Community cooperation, including chapters on the EEC's trade with developing countries, the transfer of resources and the member states' bilateral operations.

The introduction looks beyond the limited horizon of 1977, noting that there is little to be pleased about when one examines recent trends in relations with the Third World, a subject which brings certain fears to the fore as regards the future.

However it notes some encouraging signs from the difficult past few years of the North South dialogue: the negotiations for a new ACP-EEC convention which will allow the Community's development policy to be reinforced and consolidated; the Tokyo round negotiations have stayed on course despite some resistance to the idea of trade liberalization (the developing countries are also directly involved); a number of developing countries have changed from protectionist policies to an approach based on exports; there is a real and firm desire to intensify regional cooperation among the developing countries, and finally the industrialized democracies are more aware of the role that development in the Third World could play in the growth of the world economy. □

MINERALS

The European Commission has just sent to the EEC Council a communication on guaranteeing ACP mineral export receipts. It would be a system parallel to Stabex and would take account of the particular characteristics of the mineral markets.

However, the Commission, which would like the ministers of the nine countries to give their view on the communication at their next meeting in Brussels on 6 March, has not included a list of minerals that might be concerned under such a system. □

EEC-TURKEY

The Commission has adopted a communication to the Council on the development of relations between the Community and Turkey under the Association. This communication sets out what the Community's response could be to the requests submitted by the Turkish delegation during the exploratory talks with the Commission which took place in Brussels in October 1978. At the same time it is part of the overall effort of international solidarity currently being undertaken to help Turkey overcome the serious economic and financial difficulties facing it.

The Commission considers that the Community should support Turkey by all the means at its disposal, notably trade measures and special medium-term financial commitments. In addition to action within the scope of the Association proper, the Commission intends to continue its endeavours to ensure that the Community and the member states unite their efforts in other fora (OECD, IMF, Guadeloupe Summit, bilateral measures). □

FRANCO-GERMAN SUMMIT

After the Franco-German summit, the French President, Mr Giscard d'Estaing, made the following statements on European questions:

— France and Germany have reaffirmed the importance they attach to effective implementation of the EMS, but realise that the outstanding agri-monetary decisions must be taken in a Community context.

— The two parties agree on the rules which have to be respected in future when drawing up the Community budget and the way in which a solution to the question of the 1979 budget must be found.

— France has confirmed that it will include energy questions on the European Council's agenda for 12 and 13 March. Chancellor Schmidt said he was pleased with this, stressing the need for the general public to be aware of the efforts needed to conserve energy.

— The two parties will examine, in collaboration with their Community colleagues, how a dialogue between Europe, Africa and the Arab world can be organized. □

EMS

The European Parliament's liberal and democrat group has called on the Community Council to comment on entry into force and other aspects of the European monetary system (EMS) at the next plenary session of the European Parliament (Strasbourg from 12 to 16 March). The Council will be questioned on the matter by means of an oral question by Mr Damseaux, followed by a debate. The parliamentarian is asking in particular whether the EMS comes within the context of several monetary zones in the world, whether it is a step towards the economic and monetary union, whether it will involve a common policy as regards the dollar and if the European currency unit will be further developed (especially for loans by the European institutions). As regards monetary compensatory amounts, Mr Damseaux is asking why the Council is allowing a question which comes under sectoral policy to block entry into force of the EMS. □

PETROLEUM

The Community's oil supply situation following the recent events in Iran (which was showing a daily loss of some five million barrels of crude, three million of which were however being compensated by increased production on the part of other supplier countries) was the subject of a detailed examination between the Commission and groups of oil experts from the nine member states in February. The examination showed, as Mr Brunner has stressed on several occasions, that there is no need for panic in the short term. The examination is being carried out in the framework of the mechanisms set up by the Community following the oil crisis in 1973 and 1974; the group of experts has met since November last for its fourth meeting.

The campaign to make Europeans aware of the first direct elections to the European Parliament has begun. Below are two examples of the message being put over, from France (top) and Belgium.

LA FEMME EST L'EGALE DE L'HOMME. SI ON PASSAIT DU PRINCIPE A LA REALITE.

A travail égal, salaire égal. Le principe est admis. C'est déjà ça. Il est même inscrit dans le traité de Rome (art. 119). C'est déjà mieux. Il reste maintenant à le faire entrer dans les faits. Partout. Tous les jours.

C'est là justement un des rôles de la Cour de Justice des Communautés européennes. En cas de manquement à cette règle d'égalité, un recours devant elle est possible. Un tel recours a d'ailleurs déjà été exercé. Avec succès.

Ce n'est qu'un exemple. Ce n'est qu'un début. Ce combat, aussi, il faut le continuer. Et le gagner. Ensemble.



10 JUIN 79. CHOISISSEZ VOTRE EUROPE.
L'Europe c'est l'espoir.

Communauté Européenne.

Courier translation:

WOMEN ARE THE EQUALS OF MEN. HOW ABOUT PUTTING THE PRINCIPLE INTO PRACTICE?

Equal pay for the same job. It's accepted in principle. It's even written into the Treaty of Rome (art. 119). That's better than nothing. It just remains to be put into practice, everywhere, every day.

And that's a matter for the Court of Justice of the European Communities. A case of failure to comply with the equal pay rule can be brought before the Court. It's been done. Successfully. That's just one example. It's only a beginning. We've started something, so let's see it through. Together.

10 June 1979. Choose Your Europe.
Europe is hope.

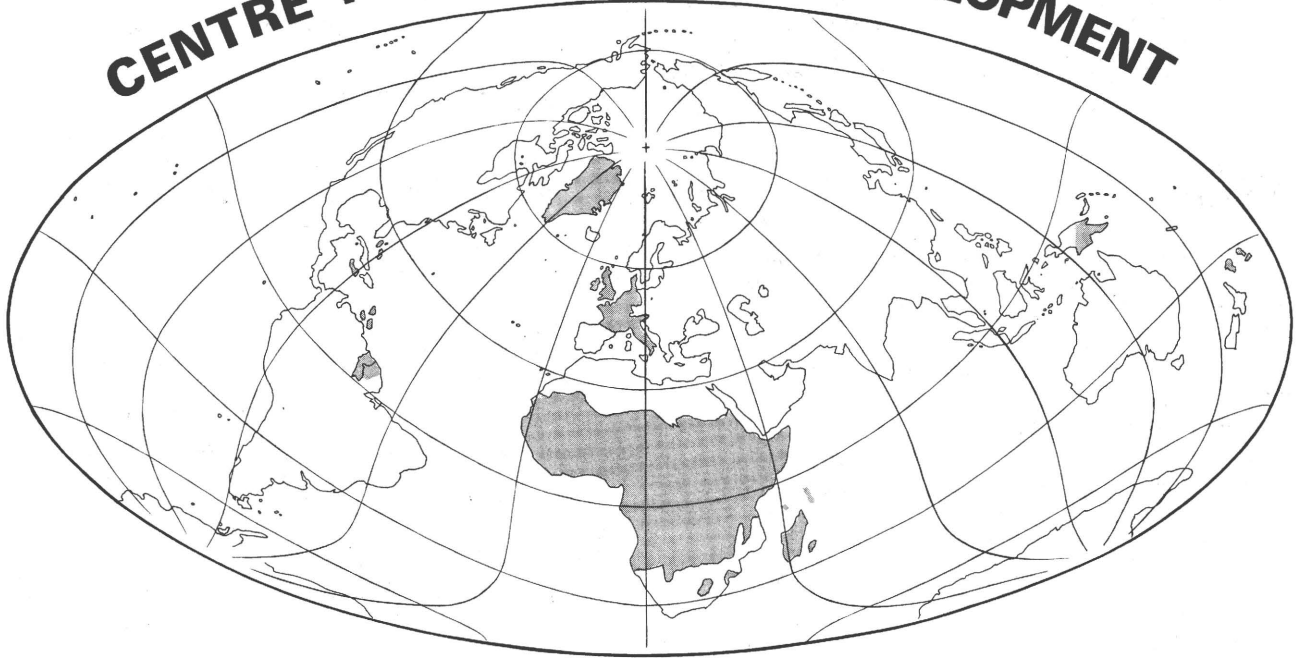
European Community.

L'EUROPE PREND UN NOUVEL ENVOL.



10 juin 1979: élection du Parlement Européen. PE et CEE

CENTRE FOR INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT



BUSINESS OPPORTUNITIES

The ACP-EEC Information Service

A free service to public sector and to established industries. Free copies of the brochure can be obtained from the EEC delegate in your country or post-free from:

ACP-EEC Information Service
451 avenue Georges Henri
1200 Brussels, Belgium.

You are free to reprint and distribute this periodical.

The majority of the industrial proposals in this document come from countries in which a leading journal reprints them in whole or in part.

Editors are invited to reprint them in their journal and to send one copy to the Centre for Industrial Development:

Content:

- 1 — Opportunities in the ACP States
— EEC Investment partners needed
- 2 — Industrial opportunities in the Pacific
- 3 — New industries in West Africa
- 4 — EEC firms looking for ACP partners
- 5 — The Caribbean: a special issue
- 6 — Training.

Opportunities in ACP States

Brick industries in the ACP

Ref. 79/1

The Centre has now received from EEC industrialists a number of offers to participate in joint venture brick-making plants and is receiving from ACP principals many enquiries for partners or for advice on the economics of new brick plants.

It is obvious that a lot of interest exists in the ACP for brick plants to meet local requirements. The local market may often be for plants with a somewhat lower capacity than is conventional and the lower cost of labour will usually justify a plant with less capital equipment and a higher

labour content.

To those Community industrialists who have expressed an interest, the Centre is sending details of the ACP requirements: other industrialists having an interest are invited to contact the Centre.

New mini factory techniques are bringing the cost of the brick plant down to very low levels, with an offshore cost of below £ 50 000.

ACP principals and public authorities interested in this industry are invited to contact the Centre with full details of their requirements: market to be served; market size; raw material availability.

Glue

Ref. 79/2b

Following publication of an item in Business Opportunities, the Information Service has received a number of enquiries from ACP States, mainly Nigeria.

The Centre is passing these enquiries to the industrialists who have expressed an interest and would like to hear from other industrialists who would like to look at joint venture possibilities for this product. We would particularly like to hear from industrialists with a technology suitable for economic production in the ACP at a rate of about 1 000 tons/year.

A recording industry in ACP States

Ref. 79/3

The Centre is receiving enquiries as to economic factors affecting the practicability of establishing record industries in the ACP States.

Typical questions include:

- is this an industry likely to be viable in a fairly small market?
- is an industry based on imported blank discs feasible?

The Centre would like to hear from industrialists in this field. It may be that true joint venture is not appropriate in this field and that what is needed is technical assistance.

Polyethylene sacks

Ref. 79/4

The Centre has published a profile describing the manufacture of polyethylene sacks for the packaging of fertilizers, polymers, peat moss, coal, milk powders, etc.

The profile describes a manufacturing facility with a production capacity of 8-18 million sacks (typically 890 mm x 575 mm) a year. The raw material is polyethylene granules.

The Centre has now received a number of enquiries from Nigeria and is passing these enquiries to interested manufacturers.

The Centre would also like to hear from EEC industrialists who would be interested in a joint venture at a lower level of production.

Bakery

Ref. 79/5

The Centre has published some outline information on the economic aspects of bakeries and a number of proposals have been received from ACP States: some proposals include the manufacturing of biscuits.

Many proposals are small and perhaps under the limit of viability.

One of the proposals from Onitsha, Nigeria, envisages the production of 10 000 loaves daily. The Nigerian partner suggests a 2:1 debt/equity ratio and proposes to contribute 33.3% of the equity from his own resources. The promoter suggests an equity investment of 66.6% from the European partner [22% of total finance]. Another project from Ilkeja, Nigeria, proposes to start operations of 1 ton of bread and 1/2 ton of biscuits a day: production is envisaged as increasing to 4 tons of biscuits daily. This enquirer also proposes a D/E ratio of 2:1 but does not ask for equity participation from the foreign partner.

There is also a proposal for the daily production in Owerri of 60 tons of bread. The sponsor is not asking for an equity investment from EEC. A market survey was conducted and a copy of the report is available.

The Centre would like to hear from EEC industrialists interested in any of these projects.

Ginger

Ref. 79/6

Mauritius produces an annual crop of about 343 metric tons of ginger, nearly all of which is exported green to the RSA and the UK. The value fob Port Louis is 1.2 million rupees.

Mauritius seeks expertise to help to produce at lower cost and to add value to the green ginger before export.

Interested parties are invited to contact the Centre.

Flour mill: Burundi

Ref. 79/J60

A major industrial organization in Burundi has government approval for the establishment of a flour mill.

The planned annual production is:

- 6 800 tons of wheat flour;
- 2 140 tons of wheat bran;
- 1 200 tons of maize grits;
- 3 300 tons of maize flour;
- 780 tons of maize bran;
- 720 tons of maize germ.

A detailed feasibility study is available from the Centre.

The promoters wish to establish contact with a company with extensive experience in this field and interested in a management contract.

An equity participation is not essential although it would be welcome.

Interested industrialists are invited to contact the Centre.

Ignition coils & starter motors

Ref. 79/J65

A company in Mombasa would like to assemble ignition coils and starter motors/solenoid switches. The scales of production are small (500 coils and 500 starter motors/solenoid switches a day), but the enquirer has existing factory space and is not demanding joint venture.

Interested parties may write direct to Mombasa, P.O. Box 80127, Kenya.

Furniture manufacture in Jamaica

Ref. 79/J144

An established company in Jamaica wishes to expand its operations in the manufacture for export of products in local timber. The company is stated to have a long experience in this industry but to be having to come to terms with a cutback in local housebuilding.

Jamaica qualifies under the generalized system of preferences for the US trade on specific manufactured items. Knocked-down furniture in general draws only 8.5% duty. Production would also qualify for preferential entry to the Community market.

The CID would like to hear from industrialists interested in making an investment and cooperating with this company.

Ready-made female garments: proposal from Nigeria

Ref. 79/J165

Following import restrictions, in Nigeria, on the import of female garments, the Centre has received a proposal for the establishment of a manufacturing facility to produce 12 000 dresses in the first year and 24 000 dresses a year thereafter.

The proposal is based on dresses of a quality equal to those previously imported.

Interested parties are invited to contact the Centre.

Assembly of refrigerators

Ref. 79/J168

A company in Somalia is interested in starting production of refrigerators up to a capacity of 345 litres. The scale envisaged is a starting rate of 30 units monthly but increasing to 120 units monthly.

The company needs technical assistance.

Interested parties are invited to contact the Centre or to write directly to Mogadishu, P.O. Box 1804.

The Centre would appreciate being advised of progress.

EEC investment partners needed

Pineapple production for export to the EEC—Liberia

Ref. 79/7b

The CID, jointly with firms in Liberia and the UK, has prepared a preliminary study for the establishment of a

plantation of initially 200 ha of pineapples, including some ha for tree crops such as avocados and mangoes. The report shows that the project is viable, and expressions of interest from banks in Liberia and the EEC for financing the project were received.

Investment would be US \$1.8 million.

We would like to establish contact with EEC companies interested in investment, management and marketing.

Brewing and agricultural hand tools— Central African Empire

Ref. 79/8b

The CID, at the request of the CAE government and with the assistance of a CAE expert posted temporarily with the CID, is helping the CAE to promote two projects:

- a second brewery with a capacity of 100 000 to 200 000 hl per year;
- a small unit to make simple agricultural hand tools.

EEC investment and management partners are needed for these projects. The CID will help to conduct the necessary project studies and to arrange for project finance.

Industrial opportunities in the Pacific

The Deputy Director of the Centre, Dr I. Akinrele led a mission to the Pacific in 1978. Arising from that mission are a number of project opportunities.

Japanese mint

Ref. 79/9

Papua-New Guinea, has proposed a project for the growing of Japanese mint on a plantation of 500 hectares. The dry yield is estimated at 4 000 tons of dry material from which 80 + tons of oil will be derived. The CID invites industrialists to write directly to the Department of Labour & Industry, Industrial Development Division, P.O. Box 5644, Boroko, and correspondence to be marked "for the attention of G. Reynaldo".

The CID would appreciate a copy of the correspondence.

Rubber products in Papua-New Guinea

Ref. 79/10

Current production of natural rubber in Papua-New Guinea is below 10 000 tonnes per annum but plans exist to raise production to this figure.

The Government would like to envisage the development of local industry to use the natural rubber and supply products for the local market and for export. Most rubber products would have tariff entry to Australia and to the Community. Government offers various incentives, including tariff protection, for the development of this industry and has invited the CID to seek Community industrialists who are interested in such a project.

The CID has a small report on this project and will make it available on request.

Interested parties are invited to contact the CID or to write directly to National Investment Development Authority, P.O. Box 5053, Baroko, Papua-New Guinea, attention J. Magalu.

Pinus Caribae in Fiji

Ref. 79/11c

The lumber species Pinus Caribaea was introduced to Fiji

in 1955 and the first planting of any consequence took place in 1960.

Since that time, 22 000 hectares have been established and it is intended to expand this area to a total of some 54 000 hectares. Under Fiji conditions, a plantation of this extent is expected to sustain a timber yield in excess of 800 000 cubic metres a year.

Fiji now seeks industrial development based upon this resource. The chairman of the Fiji Pine Commission (FPC) invites written proposals for the purchase and utilisation of wood from the FPC forests.

Preference will be given to proposals which provide for:

- complete utilisation of all materials to a small end diameter of 10 cm under bark,
- the development of joint ventures,
- a wood processing plant or plants which provide(s) for the maximum conversion and utilisation of wood and is capable of processing no less than 200 000 cubic metres per year; such plant should also be capable of expansion to process and export any additional volumes of wood which are likely to become available.

Interested industrialists are invited to make direct contact with:

the General Manager
Fiji Pine Commission
P.O. Box 521, Lautoka, Fiji Islands.

Copra

Ref. 79/12c

The Centre would like to make contact with EEC firms in the general field of copra processing, with a view to possible future projects in the entire Pacific area.

Handicrafts

Ref. 79/13c

The Centre would like to receive applications from firms or agencies prepared to help develop the national wood-carvings industries in Western Samoa and the Solomon Islands. Advice is required on handicraft design, quality control and market outlets.

Tonga—proposal for establishment of cannery fruit/vegetables

Ref. 79/14

The Central Planning Department, Government of Tonga has asked us to print the following text:

"Wanted—joint venture with Tongan interests to establish a cannery for fruit and vegetables processing including dehydration of tomatoes, etc. Production level approximately up to 4 000 tonnes per annum. Please contact Ministry of Labour, Commerce & Industries, P.O. Box, 110 Nuku' Alofa, Kingdom of Tonga".

New industries in West Africa

The economic community of West African states is planning to establish a number of new industries to serve the entire region. There are 16 member states of Ecowas and the population is about 250 millions. This is an area of growing economic importance and with a large domestic market.

The regional plans make provision for the reduction of tariff barriers between Member States and, where necessary, for the erection of an external tariff barrier to protect the new industries.

To be eligible for the favourable tax treatment, the industries must meet two important criteria.

— 50% of the value of the product should be of Ecowas origin

— a maximum of 50% of the equity of each company may be foreign owned.

These criteria will pose no problem for factories making use of local raw material.

An Ecowas/CID workshop is scheduled to be held in West Africa in April to agree on a number of candidate industries. These industries will then be the subject of feasibility studies. Industrialists who propose industries for consideration will reap the considerable advantage of having these proposals studied in depth and of participation in those studies to the extent they wish.

Industries based on the use of local raw materials

Some preliminary analysis suggest that there is economic justification for a number of industries in this field.

Glass containers

Ref. 79/E1

It seems likely that about four new glass container plants are economically justifiable. The CID invites proposals for the establishment of all or some of these new facilities. No restrictions are placed on the proposals but clearly they should be appropriate to the local environment.

Ceramics

Ref. 79/E2

A preliminary desk study has been made of three ceramic industries in West Africa: tableware; sanitary ware; and tiles. The import statistics show that in 1976, ceramic goods in these industries were imported to the value of \$ 42 Millions.

- tiles: 4 million square metres;
- sanitaryware: 602 thousand pieces;
- tableware: 16 million pieces.

From these figures, the consultant suggest that there is probably economic justification for:

1. Tiles:

- 2 plants producing 700 000 m² each per year;
- plus 1 plant producing 600 000 m² a year;
- plus 1 plant producing 350 000 m² a year.

Sanitaryware

- 3 plants producing 200-300 000 pieces;
- each a year.

Tableware

- 3 plants producing 5 million pieces each a year;
- 1 plant producing 2 1/2 million pieces a year.

2. Working at smaller but viable levels:

- 7 tile plants;
- 7 sanitaryware plants;
- 14 tableware plants.

3. A large number of small plants purchasing ready mixed guaranteed quality raw materials from central beneficiation plants.

The Ecowas secretariat would like to see the development of the ceramics industry planned and conducted in a manner appropriate to the region. There exists much flexibility in the possible approach and the CID invites industrialists to discuss the development of this industry by joint venture.

Furniture

Ref. 79/E3

A number of the Ecowas states have large reserves of high quality timber, e.g. African walnut; obeche; mahogany; afara; white seculia; gedu; mansonia; abura; agba; dahoma; iroko, etc.

Costs, delivered to the factory, range from £200 m³ to about £80 m³ for hardwoods and £70 m³ for soft woods.

For example, we are quoted £180 for furniture grade mahogany, walnut, and sapele FAS, and down to £100 for shorts.

Logs are quoted as £35 m³. Typically 12" × 12" × 1" sawn is quoted as £6.5, high quality hardwoods.

Skilled and semi-skilled wood machinists and carpenters are available.

Two types of industrial proposals are welcomed:

• Manufacture for export

One or more factories to manufacture furniture primarily for export to the EEC. The product would enter the EEC duty free. In this case, it is hoped that design, specification, and quality assurance would be the responsibility of the EEC partner. The products of this factory could also be marketed within the Ecowas region. It should be noted that Liberia has special trade relationships with the US and industrialists wishing to enter that market are invited to consider this approach.

• Manufacture for local consumption

One or more factories to produce high quality furniture for the Ecowas market. Interested industrialists are invited to contact the Centre. Proposals may be confined to the manufacture of furniture or, if you prefer, may include a comprehensive facility to use the byproducts also.

The Centre for Industrial Development is planning to hold a briefing seminar on wooden furniture and similar wooden products in Brussels during April 1979.

Industries based on assembly operations

Ref. 79/E4

Ecowas is also interested in the establishment of industries which would for some years consist of manual

assembly operations. In this case, care will have to be taken to meet the criterion of 50% Ecowas content. This perhaps may be achieved by using some local component. For example, garden and horticultural implements could be assembled from imported metal parts and use local handles. A diesel engine facility could be based both on the assembly and imported parts and on the re-conditioning of diesel engines within the region. Proposals are required across a whole range of products. The Centre will try to obtain market information for you if you require it.

Debt/equity ratios in the ACP States are frequently 2:1 or even higher. It is not anticipated that difficulty will be experienced in the finding of the debt finance. Equity participation by the EEC partner should be in the range of 20%-50%.

The CID will be happy to discuss any projects with you if you so wish.

Proposals will not be binding upon the proposer.

Proposals

At this stage, the Centre would like to receive outline proposals which would include:

- description of the product;
- the raw materials required;
- the capital investment required;
- the amount of equity which would be considered.

Insurance

The Centre has published a brochure describing current provisions for the insurance of investments; the brochure is available free upon request.

EEC firms looking for ACP partners

Drop forging of heavy nuts & bolts

Ref. 79/J46

An EEC company is interested in the possibility of a joint venture in an ACP State in the field of drop forging — especially the fabrication of heavier nuts and bolts.

The firm also suggests the possibility of cooperation on heavy steel structures.

Interested ACP principals are invited to contact the Centre. Replies should provide the following critical information.

- What is the size of the local market for these nuts/bolts?
- Is there any local production?
- Are import statistics available?
- Is the raw material available locally?
- Do you have an existing factory in the engineering field?

Give details

- Would this subject be in-line with your government's plan?

The Caribbean: a special issue

Island economics may be characterised by such factors as: small domestic markets; a limited range of local raw materials; the existence or prospect of a tourist industry. These conditions apply in the Caribbean as in other areas of the ACP.

A special issue of Business Opportunities is to be devoted to the problems of industrialisation in the Caribbean. Some of the topics which we hope to cover will be ceramics, wood

processing, refuse treatment, recovery of energy from waste, poultry, recording for the entertainment industry, glass re-inforced cement, lime bricks, etc.

Business Opportunities invites public and private sectors in the ACP to contact the Centre with statements of their interests.

Similarly, EEC industrialists are invited to contact the Centre with proposals for appropriate industries.

Training

In 1978, the CID was requested by the Industrial Study and Promotion Centre of Mali to organize, for its executives, practical training periods in agro-industries projects evaluation and in the organization and management of enterprises.

These training periods, sponsored and financed by the general Belgian administration for cooperation and development (AGCD) and by UNIDO should stress on supply problems, identification of export markets and on the technical and economic aspects of projects.

The Centre dealt with the drawing up, implementation and follow-up of training programmes involving short training

periods and study visits to various specialized Belgian institutions and firms: national and regional development organizations, faculties of agronomic sciences, ministries, industrial exploitation societies, consulting engineer agencies.

— The aims of the training periods were achieved to everyone's satisfaction.

The Centre is willing to assist industrial organization and firms of the ACP with training problems of their executives mainly by organizing specialized practical training in appropriate ACP and/or EEC factories and institutions.

The use of waste materials

Agriculture and forest waste may be a valuable raw material. Throughout the world, research has been under way for years to determine the value of each type of waste.

The results of the research indicate that most waste products have a value as fuel: by compression and direct firing or by a process of gasification. Other research has considered the fibrous nature of the waste product and demonstrated its use in paper making; textile weaving and

the manufacture of building boards of various qualities. Yet a further avenue of research has dwelt on the value and suitability of the waste as an ingredient of animal and poultry feedstuffs. There are, in addition, a number of other more exotic uses but in general these require a large capital investment and a very large supply of raw materials.

Some of the waste materials for which uses have been studied are:

Ground nut oil mills (UNIDO source)

Peanut Shells

This is 20%-30% of the initial product and its use should not be neglected. The shells have a low heat value (40% less than that of fuel oil) but are commonly used as industrial fuel in oil mills. The boilers need to be adapted to this type of fuel. In non coal-producing countries, the shells may be compressed into blocks and sold as household fuel. In an alternative process, the shells are burnt to obtain charcoal.

Gasification is also possible although the gas has a low heat value.

Research indicates additional uses:
as feed for livestock—mainly as roughage as there is little energy giving value;

as fertilizer—providing a considerable increase in the organic content of the soil and improving its moisture retention;
to make building boards—combined with gum can make a serviceable product which is nevertheless inferior to wood.

In addition, the shells can be used in the manufacture of furfural and the skins may be used as cattle feed or in the production of soapstock.

This is not a complete list but serves to show the wide variety of use to which the product can be put.

Enquiries may be made to the Information Service by the ACP public sector or by investment banks. Enquiries should state the monthly quantity of the waste product available.

Sugar cane

The by-products of sugar production have, perhaps, the most extensive use of all agricultural 'waste': direct firing of boilers, gasification, production of alcohol, furfural, building board, paper, and as animal and poultry feed. One process is based on the use of a composite resulting from the reaction of urea with free molasse and to which minerals and vitamins are added.

The basic composite mixed with free molasses and sugar cane heads is a complete food for cattle, carrying no risk of poisoning and containing qualities equal to those of other classical foods. Its qualities are equally advantageous in the production of milk and meat.

The basic composite may also be used as complement for the rearing of pigs and poultry. Its cost price defies any competition from other sources of protein: for example, the cost price for soya, which is at present the least expensive source of protein, is 4 times higher.

Public sector authorities and investment banks are invited to write for information on animal feed from sugar cane by-products. Enquiries should be addressed to the ACP-EEC Information Service Ref. 79: and should give the following information:

1. The quantity of molasses, bagasse, froth, and sugar cane heads available and the price collected and delivered to the proposed feed mill;
2. A brief description of existing or planned cattle feed plants;
3. The availability and cost of water;
4. The direct and indirect costs of unskilled labour per year and the normal number of working days in a year.

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Rainer Steckhan^(*)

The World Bank is a “development institution”

The World Bank — more correctly, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development — is one of the most widely known of the major international institutions, but many people only have a vague idea of what exactly it is. Its work for the development of the Third World, and particularly the ACP countries, is of great importance and is often done in cooperation with other aid donors, notably with the European Community in the case of the ACP countries.

Rainer Steckhan is the director of the World Bank's European office. In this interview he gives a picture of the Bank's activities and of its increasingly important role in Third World development.

► *Could we start with a general outline of what the World Bank is and what it does?*

— The World Bank, like Gaul, is divided into three parts. First, there is the Bank itself (more formally known as the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development) with resources consisting of its own borrowings (to the tune of some \$4 bn(1) a year), its 134 member countries capital subscriptions (about \$33 bn, of which 10 percent has been paid in) and its retained profits or reserves (about \$2.2 bn). The Bank lends long term (typically 15-20 years) at an interest rate which is currently 7%.

Many poor countries need external funds for their economic and social development on much easier terms than the Bank alone could give. This is why our second arm, the International



Rainer Steckhan

Development Association (IDA), was set up in 1960, some 15 years after the Bank itself began operations. It lends on a 50-year term (including a 10-year grace period) at a nominal charge of 0.75% p.a. Its resources come from our richer “Part I” member countries (supplemented by transfers from the Bank's profits) and go to our poorest member countries, generally those with a per capita income below some \$500 per year. If you like, IDA is our softwindow. Its lending runs to about \$2.3 bn a year, in contrast to lending by the Bank itself of around \$6 bn in 1978.

Both the Bank and IDA lend only to governments or with their guarantee. Obviously this limits our capacity to support projects in the private sector. Hence, we have a third arm, the International Finance Corporation, which aims at stimulating development by promoting private enterprise. Its operations are currently running at a level of about \$3-400 m a year.

We lend for sound development projects — not for general balance of payments support (you go to our sister organization, the International Monetary Fund, for that). There is a long cycle that follows the identification of development projects, jointly with the authorities of the recipient country. National planning priorities must be considered, and then the various phases of preparation, in which the World Bank can provide technical assistance, have

to be completed before a financing decision is made. The World Bank finances foreign exchange costs in the first place, but increasingly, in the poorer countries, some local costs as well. We are active in agriculture and rural development, education, energy, population planning, industrial development and finance, infrastructure, urban development and a number of other sectors. It's often said that what's important about the World Bank is not only the magnitude of its lending but also our “institution-building”. I mean, in the broadest possible sense, a better managed railway or agricultural credit bank, to take just two examples.

Finally, I should say that we are more than a bank, we are a “development institution”. Our concern is not only to finance economically and financially sound projects which will raise productivity and living standards. Our concern is to help promote growth as well as to help the absolute poor, the bulk of whom live in rural areas. This is why our lending for agriculture and rural development has greatly increased over the years (last fiscal year almost \$3.3 bn or 39% of total Bank/IDA lending). Moreover our lending to the poorest countries (last fiscal year almost \$3.1 bn or 36% of total Bank/IDA lending) has greatly risen.

► *The World Bank's activities are naturally limited by the funds at its disposal. How much of a problem is this, and to what extent might the Bank's capital be increased?*

— Yes, there is a provision in the statutes of the World Bank proper that our outstanding loans, which currently stand at about \$26 bn, cannot exceed our subscribed capital and reserves. What this means, in practice, is that in future years, on our present capital base, our new commitments cannot rise above roughly speaking last year's level of commitments in nominal terms. Even without inflation, this means complete stagnation in the lending volume of the Bank — and with inflation, of course, it means a real decline despite the increasing financial requirements of developing countries and the increased ability of many of these countries to effectively use more resources. We attach great urgency, therefore, to a decision by our member governments to increase the capital of the World Bank, hopefully to around double its present level. We hope for a decision in 1979. As far as the demand of the poorest countries for IDA assistance is concerned it has always exceeded the supply of available

(*) Rainer Steckhan (43), who is West German, was appointed director of the World Bank's European Office in August 1978. Previously he was head of the IBRD Programmes Division in central Africa (Cameroon, Congo) and, before that, deputy head of the Bank's team in East Africa. He studied law, economics and business in Germany, Switzerland and the USA — at Columbia (New York) and Harvard (Boston) — before joining the World Bank in 1964, where he became personal assistant to the then president of the Bank, Mr Woods, and to his successor, Mr McNamara.

Married with two children, Mr Steckhan looks back with affection at his time in Africa, where he has spent the greater part of his career.

(1) American billion = '000 m.



(L. to r.) Rainer Steckhan, World Bank president Robert McNamara and Congolese Prime Minister Louis-Sylvain Ngoma

“We could play a significant role in ‘mopping up’ excess liquidity in the North and lending it for development projects in the Third World”

resources. Existing IDA resources will only last us through mid-1980 and we have just started negotiations for a substantial replenishment of IDA funds.

► The EEC development commissioner, Claude Cheysson, has pointed out that billions of dollars are tied up in private Western banks when they might be usefully invested in the industrialization of developing countries. This would increase their buying power and thereby help the Western countries out of their present economic stagnation. What do you think of this point of view, and how could the World Bank help bring about this massive transfer of available funds to the developing countries?

— The prosperity of both “North” and “South” is intimately tied up with their capacity to do business with each other. Their economies are interdependent. Since the World Bank mobilizes most of its resources by borrowing on capital markets, we could play a significant role in “mopping up” excess liquidity in the North and lending it for development projects in the Third World. But this presupposes an

increase in our capital, to allow us to commit a stepped-up volume of loans. Co-financing is another way of channelling funds from the rich countries to high priority projects in the Third World and the World Bank plays an important role in this respect. Thus, last year, other donors, public and private, provided an additional \$2.5 bn to the \$8.4 bn worth of Bank/IDA lending for some 70 to 80 co-financed projects.

► You followed the Lomé Convention closely when you were working in Nairobi and I imagine you still do, since you recently visited the European Commission in Brussels. What real innovation do you think the Lomé package has brought to economic cooperation between the industrialized and the developing countries?

— A more comprehensive approach to the ACP countries’ development problems, I would say. Lomé, while unlike the World Bank, non-comprehensive in a geographical sense, is comprehensive in the sense that it offers a combined trade, aid and technical assistance package to each ACP/OCT country.

Among the highly original features of the Lomé Convention are an agreement to stabilize export earnings and free access on preferential terms to the EEC market in addition to financial and technical cooperation.

► Does the Lomé Convention offer more possibilities of joint EEC-World

Bank development aid action, particularly in the 56 ACP countries?

— Yes, the World Bank and the EEC are very active partners, particularly in Africa, and also in the context of the Community’s growing aid for non-associated countries.

Thus, the EEC and the World Bank have — at the request of the governments concerned — jointly financed projects such as a port expansion in Cameroon, a railway realignment in the People’s Republic of the Congo, a regional clinker project for Togo, Ghana and the Ivory Coast, a power dam in Ghana, a livestock project in Botswana and a rural development project in the Yemeni Arab Republic, to cite only a few recent examples.

► The World Bank is criticized for attaching political conditions to its aid and for privileging developing countries which adopt the Western model. Is this a fair criticism?

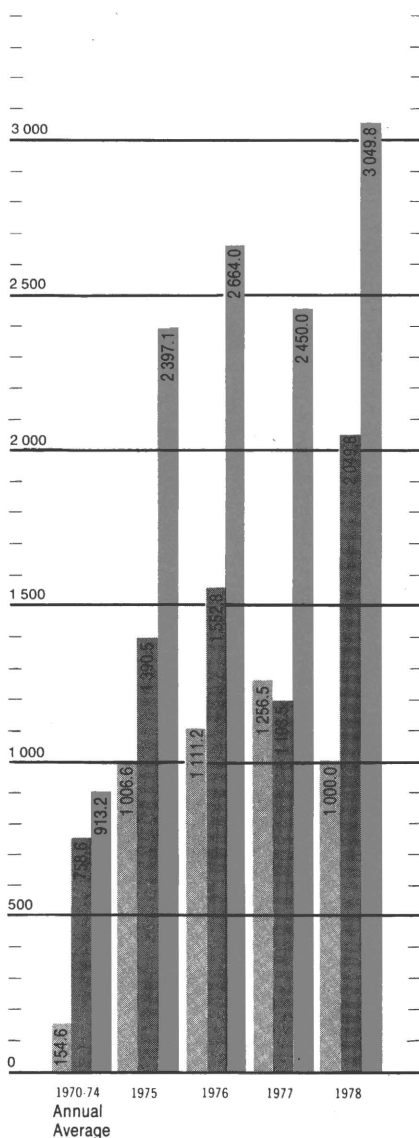
— There are no political conditions attached to World Bank lending. Our statutes specifically enjoin us to take only economic factors into account. We have followed this rule scrupulously. We have learned to effectively assist developing countries regardless of the “model” they have adopted.

Thus, we are active in virtually all our developing member countries — almost 100 of them. You find all kinds of political philosophies in them, but

**Bank and IDA:
Lending to Countries with
Annual per Capita Income
below \$280, 1970-78**

(US \$ millions. Fiscal years)

Bank ■ IDA ■ Total ■



The record for ten years — 1969-78

Amounts in US \$ millions

	Fiscal Year									
	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978
World Bank										
Operations Approved	82	69	78	72	73	105	127	141	161	137
Loan Amounts(1)	1 399	1 580	1 921	1 966	2 051	3 218	4 320	4 977	5 759	6 098
Countries	44	39	42	40	42	49	51	51	54	46
Disbursements(2)	762	754	915	1 182	1 180	1 533	1 995	2 470	2 636	2 787
Total Income	410	504	578	646	758	929	1 157	1 330	1 617	1 947
Net Income	171	213	212	183	186	216	275	220	209	238
Total Reserves	1 254	1 329	1 444	1 597	1 750	1 772	1 902	1 916	2 026	2 245
Borrowings: Total	1 224	735	1 368	1 744	1 723	1 853	3 510	3 811	4 721	3 636
Borrowings: Net	698	299	819	1 136	955	990	2 483	2 530	3 258	2 171
Subscribed Capital	23 036	23 159	23 871	26 607	30 397	30 431	30 821	30 861	30 869	33 045
Member Countries	110	113	116	117	122	124	125	127	129	132
Professional Staff	961	1 170	1 348	1 516	1 654	1 752	1 883	2 066	2 203	2 290
IDA										
Operations Approved(3)	29	50	51	68	75	69	68	73	67	99
Credit Amounts	385	606	584	1 000	1 357	1 095	1 576	1 655	1 308	2 313
Countries	28	33	34	38	43	41	39	39	36	42
Disbursements	256	143	235	261	493	711	1 026	1 252	1 298	1 062
Usable Resources cumulative	2 176	3 182	3 343	4 204	7 019	7 433	11 608	11 514	11 789	18 062
Member Countries	102	105	107	108	112	113	114	116	117	120

(1) Excludes loans to IFC of \$100 million in FY1970, \$60 million in FY1972, \$40 million in FY1973, \$110 million in FY1974, \$50 million in FY1975, \$70 million in FY1976, and \$20 million in FY1977. Includes amounts in FY1976 and FY1977 lent on Third Window terms.

(2) Excludes disbursements on loans to IFC.

(3) Joint Bank/IDA operations are counted only once as Bank operations.

Source: World Bank Annual Report 1978.

this is not our concern. Our concern is helping finance economic and social development in partnership with the government. For example, one of the Bank's largest borrowers is Yugoslavia to which we have lent almost \$2 billion over the last 2 or 3 decades. We are supporting development projects in Romania and Vietnam as well as in the Ivory Coast, Kenya, Thailand and Brazil, to give only a few examples.

Hunger, health and education

► *Good management involves looking ahead. Could I ask you to do a bit of crystal ball gazing and describe how*

you see the role of the World Bank over the next development decades, up to the end of the century?

— Our task will not be completed by the year 2000, I'm afraid. According to projections in our *World Development Report* there will still be 600 million people living in "absolute poverty" at the end of the century. These are people who do not have enough to eat, who have no access to health or educational facilities, who have no shelter either. This is intolerable and our first responsibility is to try and see it does not come true. Governments of developing countries will have to take special programmes to provide wider

access to public services and to general employment in rural areas. Obviously increased development assistance flows have a role to play here, although they will not do the trick alone. We hope, therefore, that governments will give increased support to the World Bank family, as indeed to all international as well as national bilateral programmes. And the trend already evidenced in our lending — more and more help for the poorest countries and the poorest segments of society — is likely to continue as the aid effort is focussed increasingly on eradicating absolute poverty from the face of the earth. □

Interview by LUCIEN PAGNI

The main African road

Building a new road in Mali



projects

“There must be a judiciously planned communications network before African trade can be reorganized” (Moussa Bako)

The 32nd session of the UN General Assembly (September-December 1977) proclaimed 1978/88 African Transport and Communications Decade. This decision was the culmination of the work which the African countries have patiently put in to developing this sector within the framework of organizations like the ECA, the ACP group (Declaration of Suva) and international conferences like the Paris North-South dialogue. It was also the result of failure, on two counts:

- 1) In spite of all the attention that this sector has been receiving for many years now, Africa's communications network is still far too limited and of generally poor quality.
- 2) As far as trade is concerned, the two development decades have not come up to expectations, partly because of the weakness of the communications infrastructure.

The close link between the development of transport and communications and economic expansion was emphasized in the Paris conference's conclusions, stating that infrastructure in many of the developing countries was unsatisfactory, that this was a major obstacle to development and that, among other things, infrastructure should boost the overall productivity of the socio-economic system and be directly or indirectly concerned with promoting welfare by satisfying basic collective needs for such things as food, drinking water, housing, health, education and employment.

The aim of the decade is therefore to help the countries of Africa obtain an extensive, modern and reliable communications network. Aims have been defined for each branch of transport (road, rail, sea, inland waterways and air) and communications (telecommunications, broadcasting, TV and postal services). The substantial resources required to achieve them must first be sought at national and regional level. But, as for both economic and financial reasons the countries of Africa are unable to provide enough money from their own resources, they are having to call on the developed countries to help them. At its 18th session in May 1978, the executive committee of the UN Economic Commission for Africa proposed that the UN secretariat call a meeting of plenipotentiaries, in 1979, with a view to obtaining resources from the international community to implement communications programmes and projects in the first part of the decade.

With this meeting in view, the *Courier* presents a dossier on the main Africa road projects, one of the most important aspects of the African Transport and Communications Decade.



The inadequate African road network

by E. CARRON DE LA CARRIERE (*)

"Africa wants to keep up with the times, with trade and with all kinds of solidarity within and beyond national frontiers. Its belief that there can be no worthwhile country, no possibility of bettering the lot of the people and no point in belonging to any regional organization without good roads, has and will continue to cost Africa a great deal". So said President Houphouët-Boigny in his message to delegates at the 3rd African Road Conference in Abidjan in 1976, and this neatly sums up the situation and the needs in the road infrastructure sector over the continent as a whole.

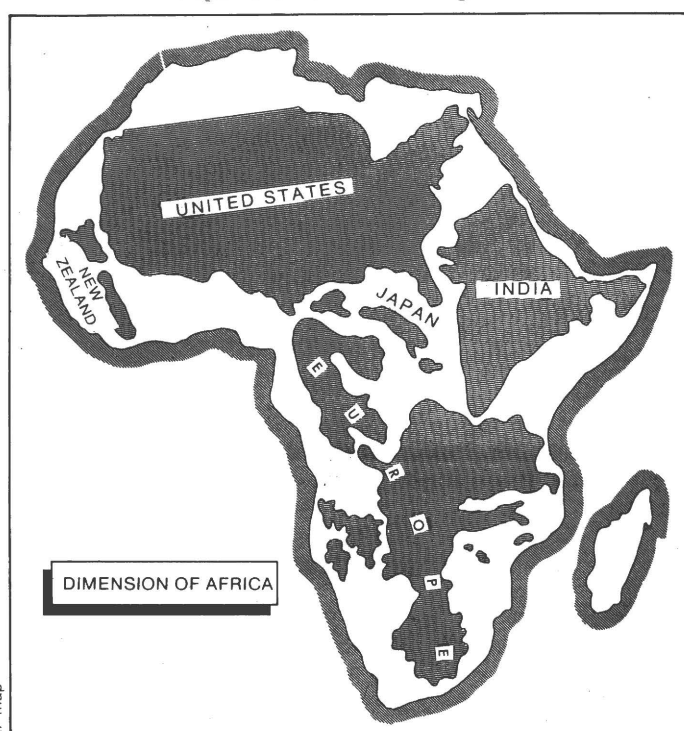
Unequal situations

Massive and inscrutable, Africa, for all its size, is like an island. Or two islands, perhaps, if the Sahara is seen as a vast internal sea of sand. Few people realize just how big Africa is. The whole of the USA is less than a quarter of the size of Africa and would easily fit into the Sahara desert.

Although the terrain poses no great problems as far as road building is concerned, the different types of climate and vegetation (and the lack of vegetation in some places) are a major obstacle to both construction and maintenance.

(*) Deputy director-general of the International Road Federation.

A photographic montage gives a better idea of the size of the African continent, greater than Europe, the United States, India, Japan and New Zealand together



So the networks in the different countries vary considerably in length, density and quality. Countries north of the Sahara, along the Mediterranean, are only 14 km away from Europe across the Straits of Gibraltar and they are linked to Asia by the 170 km Isthmus of Suez. They have a fairly dry climate and Mediterranean-type vegetation. They have always had a natural tendency to trade with their neighbours and therefore have a fairly dense road network that is in keeping with their needs.

Country	Area (km ²)	Total length of road network (km)		Density of total network (km per km ²)
		surfaced roads	tracks	
Algeria	2 381 741	53 000	24 000	0.03
Morocco	459 000	23 000	4 500	0.05
Tunisia	164 150	17 000	4 500	0.13
Libya	1 749 000		5 200	0.002
Egypt	1 002 000	12 320	14 200	0.02

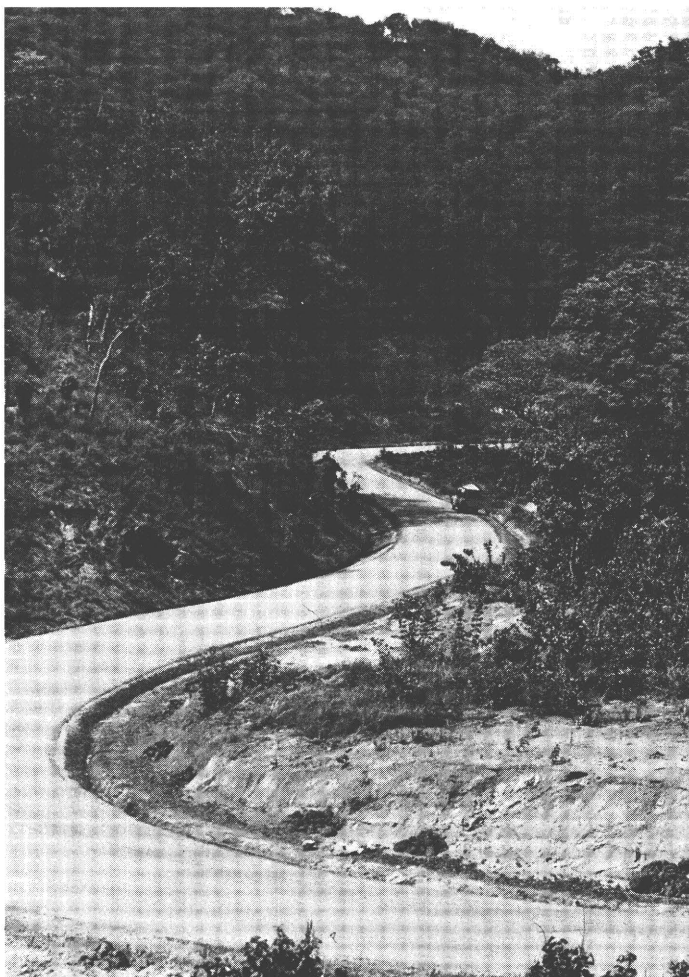
Note the relatively high proportion of surfaced roads.

There is a completely different picture in the countries of the Sahara and the Sahel. This is why the networks in Algeria and Libya are of very low density.

Country	Area (km ²)	Total length of road network (km)		Density of total network (km per km ²)
		surfaced roads	tracks	
Senegal	197 160	2 590	12 100	0.14
Mauritania	1 030 000	680	5 500	0.007
Mali	1 240 000	1 654	11 350	0.01
Niger	1 267 000	1 750	5 250	0.006
Chad	1 284 000	815	7 325	0.002
Sudan		330	15 000	
CAE	623 000	280	21 930	0.003
Upper Volta	274 000	600	20 400	0.019
Ethiopia	1 220 000	3 400	7 525	0.009

Further south, in the tropics, the situation varies considerably from one country to another. The following table gives details of most of them.

Country	Area (km ²)	Total length of road network (km)		Density of total network (km per km ²)
		surfaced roads	tracks	
Angola	1 246 700	7 300	60 000	0.06
Benin	115 000	900	6 100	0.06
Botswana	581 730	250	9 900	0.02
Burundi	27 830	570	1 430	0.14
Cameroon	465 510	2 155	38 000	0.048
Gabon	267 000	315	6 600	0.02
Ivory Coast	322 000	2 000	32 000	0.11
Congo	342 000	535	4 000	0.013
Gambia	10 689	220	830	0.09
Ghana	238 533		32 000	0.13
Kenya	583 000	4 050	51 000	0.09
Lesotho	30 350	200	2 536	0.09
Liberia	111 400	520	7 200	0.006
Madagascar	589 586	5 000	27 500	0.05
Malawi	94 290	1 600	11 025	0.012
Mozambique	786 763	390	3 073	0.05
Nigeria	923 800	27 000	67 000	0.10
Rwanda	26 338	800	5 700	0.25
Sierra Leone	72 326	1 080	6 000	0.1
South Africa	1 221 038		185 031	0.15
Swaziland	17 364	200	2 500	0.15
Togo	56 600	1 120	6 330	0.14
Uganda	241 139	2 000	2 800	0.02
Zaire	2 400 000	2 000	14 300	0.06
Zambia	751 000	3 500	35 000	0.05



This road, upgraded by the EDF, is the only one which links the Adamaoua central plain with northern Cameroon

With these figures, it is easy to see that the networks in most countries could be very much longer and, above all, that they do not contain enough major highways that are practicable throughout the year.

Obstacles

But these figures do not show the geographical layout of the highways.

Before the various countries became independent, most of Africa's roads penetrated the interior from the ports and there were almost no coherent networks offering comprehensive regional coverage. Independence came in the '50s and '60s and each newly-formed government rapidly awakened to the urgent need to set up a coherent national road network. This was an essential stage of development and, for countries with no access to the sea, it was a vital one.

There were many obstacles. They were short of cadres, engineers, technicians and other qualified staff like topographers, plant operators, mechanics, breakdown men and so on, and they had problems in getting and learning to use equipment. But above all, they were short of cash to carry out their road infrastructure programmes. But they bravely set to work.

Over the same period a number of international bodies were formed. Some, like the UN Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) and the Organization of African Unity (OAU), were concerned with the global picture, and others, like the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development

(IBRD) and the African Development Bank (ADB), provided financial aid. And, when the EEC was founded, the European Investment Bank (EIB) and the European Development Fund (EDF) were also set up. The industrialized countries also realized the point of providing these young countries with financial backing and many bilateral aid organizations were formed. Finally, various non-governmental organizations, particularly the International Road Federation, have given their aid.

Fortunately, most African countries were quick to produce and start gradual implementation of national road programmes at this period, although, curiously enough, it was some considerable time before many political leaders tried to go a step further and plan, first on the drawing board and then in the field, any of the major international highways that could one day form a continent-wide network. It was also during this period that Europe began its international system of E roads (adopted by a convention in Geneva in 1950), that America decided to build the Pan-American highway from Alaska to Tierra del Fuego and that the Trans-Asiatic saw the light of day.

A comprehensive system

Only 50 years ago, Henry Ford I said, of the USA: "we don't have so many cars because we are rich. We are rich because we have so many cars".

A similar argument, but the other way about, applies to Africa. It will only be rich when it has cars and, therefore, when it has proper roads for the cars to use and there are more and more cars in Africa today. The continent is generally poorly served by the railways, which demand huge investments from the word go, and, in comparison with rail, roads have the great advantage of being able to be built gradually. They can range from semi-usable tracks and dirt roads that are practicable throughout the year to asphalted roads and motorways, which provides a great deal of flexibility as regards investment and the design of national networks. There can be a basic framework of surfaced roads plus secondary laterite roads (that can be surfaced later) and agricultural tracks linking villages and markets. A comprehensive system can be created and developed in this way.

Roads are a foundation on which the life and work of the state, the economy and society itself are built. They are an essential part of territorial improvement schemes and economic development and one of the main means which today's society must have if it is to maintain its standard of living, its consumer habits and its conditions of production. They are a vital factor in the development of young nations.

Any society needs communications, mutual understanding and personal contact if it is to stay united. It is primarily the development of communications, and in Africa of roads in particular, which is likely to bring about rapid changes in the basic image of society. Africans, like everyone else, have an increasing need for individual freedom, a growing desire for mobility.

African governments are well aware of all these needs. They do not hesitate to devote a large percentage of their limited revenues, and even incur debt, to give their countries the roads that will satisfy these needs.

The cooperation they get with financing, technical aid and training is perhaps one of the finest examples of the international solidarity that is increasingly apparent and increasingly necessary, in a world which is constantly shrinking with the development of communications. □

E.C.

Roads and traffic in Europe and Africa

Are the figures suspect?

by R. JONEAUX(*)

When comparing road networks in different countries, a common method of calculation is to correlate total length of roads with population or with surface area. For Europe and Africa, this gives:

	Europe	Africa (excluding deserts)
Total length per inhabitant	7 - 15 m	2 - 7 m
Total length per km ² of the territory	800 - 1 600 m	40 - 100 m

(*) Public works engineer at the technical cooperation division of the French Ministry for the Environment (Paris).

These are interesting criteria. They suggest that the average African has two to four times less road than the average European and that each km² of Africa contains 10 or 20 times less road than each km² of Europe.

Population density, of course, affects the issue, particularly in the latter case.

Imagine how much investment would be required to bring Africa up to European levels! A lot in the first case and an enormous quantity in the second.

But these criteria are far from being watertight. It is, in fact, fairly difficult to produce a homogeneous definition of the total length of any given road network, as it will contain a variety of different and differently equipped types of roads.

A rural track and a motorway carry very different amounts of traffic (1:1 000), the costs of building and maintaining them are very different (1:50 or 1:100) and the costs to the user are different and in the other way round to the first two figures (3:1).

It should also be noted that the total length of roads per unit area in heavily populated industrialized countries will tend to reach a ceiling. In all but the conurbations (where the same limits apply), it is better to increase the capacity of the roads rather than the density of the network, which is why there has been so much development of motorways and express ways in Europe since World War II.

The proportion of surfaced roads in Africa is generally between 5 and 10% compared with 70 to 80% in Europe



	Average traffic daily (vehicles per day)	Investment	Annual cost of maintenance for stated amount of traffic	Cost of running the vehicles
Standard width asphalted roads (7 m)	2 000 - 4 000	100	100	100
Narrower asphalted roads (5.5-6 m)	300 - 1 000	80 - 90	60 - 85	100
Good dirt roads	80 - 200	45 - 75	20 - 30	120 - 150
Basic dirt roads	20 - 50	25 - 35	10 - 20	150 - 200
Tracks (variable practicability)	1 - 10	10 - 20	2 - 5	200 - 300

N.B.: Costs are based on those for standard width asphalted roads: base 100. Maintenance costs include whatever work is required to maintain average conditions (including complete replacement of the carriageway).

Resources and requirements

Comparisons based on these criteria also omit important considerations of resources and requirements.

Per capita income in Africa is 10-40 times lower than it is in Europe(1), which means that there are less resources to spend on infrastructure and the running of vehicles, but fewer transport requirements as well.

As to requirements, it will be found that the average European "consumes" some 3 000 vehicle-km p.a. but the African 10-30 times less. The vehicle-km in Africa no doubt includes more heavy traffic than in Europe, although the European consumes more of other types of transport than the African.

Daily traffic, on the other hand, is far heavier in Europe than in Africa, being around 500-700 vehicles per day on average in the former (and several thousand on the motorways), as against only about 100 in the latter.

The lighter African traffic means that investment and maintenance costs may be lower than in Europe. So, apart from the very special case of motorways (primarily around the big urban centres), Africa contains the following main categories of road:

- standard width asphalted roads (7 m);
- narrower asphalted roads (5.5-6 m);
- good dirt roads;
- basic dirt roads;
- tracks in various states of practicability.

The table above gives a rough idea of comparative traffic and costs in the various categories.

Furthermore, only 5-10% of African networks are paved roads, as against 70-80% in Europe. This means that the normal per capita cost of upkeep is an estimated five or 10 times lower than in Europe.

Of course, although roads in general are lower grade in Africa, the unit cost of running a vehicle is higher (by about 30-40% on average). This means that the overall cost of running a car is only 8-12 times lower than in Europe. But outlay on running the vehicles (including depreciation) represents something like 15% of the national income in Europe. This shows just how great a burden these costs are on the African economies.

It is difficult to see how any substantial cuts can be made in this expenditure without introducing drastic measures(2), to restrict the use of vehicles, which might be considered an intolerable brake on socio-economic development in these countries.

Some people would say "all that needs to be done" is to surface all the roads. But this means not just putting down

solid roads on top of the good dirt ones, but more or less building completely new roads over the poorer dirt roads and tracks which make up more than 50% of the networks.

The investment would pretty well amount to a developing country's national income over a year and would not be feasible even over 10 or 20 years, either financially or from the point of view of the material means of implementation. And even supposing it were feasible, it would only cut traffic costs by about 30% and the network would cost six or eight times more to maintain.

The problem of road maintenance

Although traffic costs are a considerable burden on the African budget and difficult to reduce, opinion is far less sensitive about them than about the much lower costs of road maintenance.

In Europe and Africa alike, it costs 30 or 40 times more to run vehicles than the total sum that would be required to cover proper upkeep (maintenance and modernization) of the infrastructure. A small (about 3%) increase in the former would easily cover the latter, but as it would mainly be obtained via an increase in fuel prices, of which it would account for 15-25%, the measure would be an unpopular one(3).

However, in many African countries, particularly those with the lowest per capita incomes and the most scattered populations, spending on road maintenance often falls a long way short of what would be required just to safeguard the capital investment.

But the capital is still made available, new roads are built every year (many of them with foreign aid) and they are doubtless justified by a real or potential increase in traffic or by the development of new production zones. These new roads are a substitute for existing ones (with the same or similar alignment) and so tend not to involve any extension of the overall network. This is particularly the case for the main roads, which account for 70-80% of the normal total maintenance bill. They may thus carry 80% of the traffic (vehicle-km), in spite of the fact that the various layers of the carriageway are in poor repair, a factor which sometimes pushes up vehicle running costs by an amount that is difficult to calculate. And the situation as regards the secondary and tertiary networks is often alarming.

(1) Per capita GNP in 1970: \$ 2000-\$ 3400 in Europe, \$ 60-\$ 400 in Africa (with the notable exception of oil-producing countries).

(2) Such as moving people and goods by rail or river transport wherever possible and establishing communities accordingly in the long term.

(3) In Europe, 60-70% of the price of fuel is usually tax which covers far more than just upkeep. In certain African countries, fuel prices contain a variable, generally far smaller, percentage of tax.

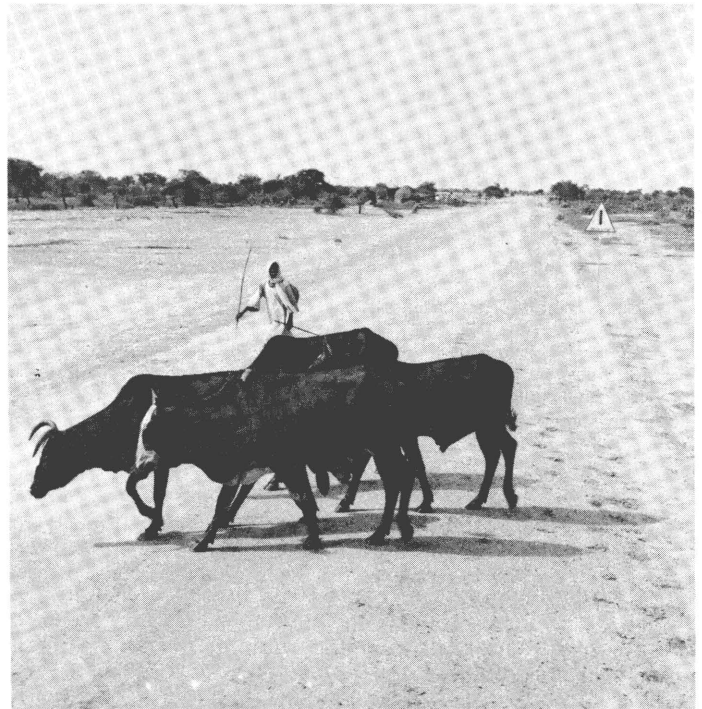
Nevertheless, if African roads were in a full state of normal repair (including resurfacing where necessary), everyone would be better off.

As has been mentioned, the length and the state of development of the roads gives a per capita figure in Africa that is five or 10 times lower than in Europe. These are, of course, expressed in the same currency, since if they are expressed in terms of unit of income, it emerges that the African has to work three times longer to pay for road maintenance than the European. The output of maintenance staff may be at fault here, but the situation is primarily due to the fact that the mechanical equipment and main products (asphalt mainly) make up 70% of expenditure on both paved and mechanically maintained unsurfaced roads.

Mechanized or manual maintenance?

This brings us to the question of mechanized maintenance services in Africa. Without wishing to reopen the debate, let us say that it must be recognized that manual maintenance techniques cannot be generalized, but they can be useful for small, local communities. They are also the only means, if the job is to be done properly, of dealing with the tertiary network. Budgets should make adequate appropriations for the primary and secondary networks. But credit may well be restricted because finance departments doubt whether it will be used efficiently. The situation as regards asphalt roads is not so bad, as credit is more easily granted for surfacing (which has spectacular results) by individual firms. This confers a certain amount of efficiency and relieves the road administration departments of many problems. The system is, however, an onerous one and only viable while the paved network is a small one.

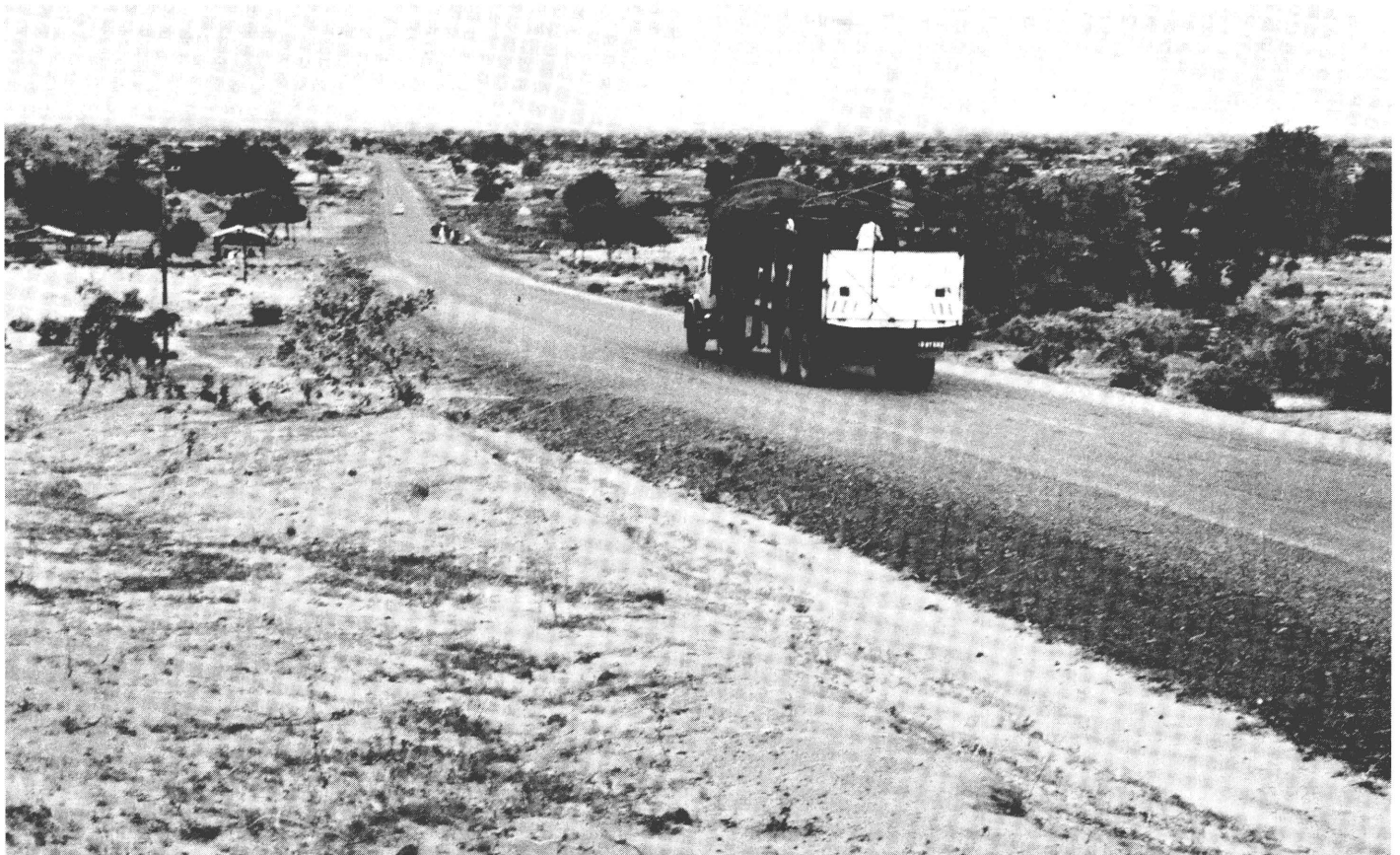
The network of mechanically maintained dirt roads, on the other hand, raises difficult problems to do with work

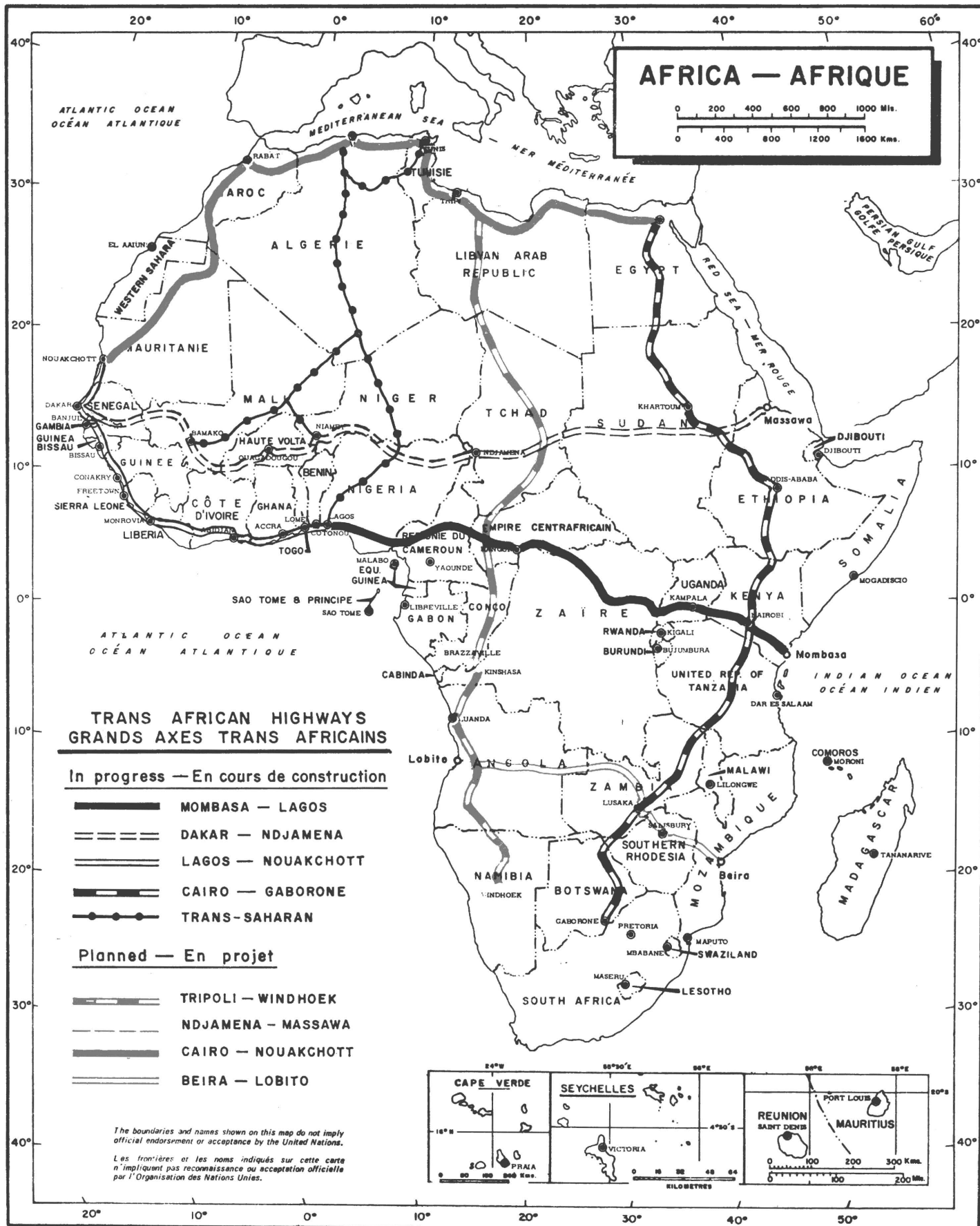


In many countries, too little is spent on maintenance to preserve the initial investment

brigades, equipment and quality of staff. They are very different from those occurring in European road maintenance, but they are still an urgent matter in Africa and must be overcome if the African countries want road transport to play a perhaps even greater role in their development without any exaggerated increase in expenditure on infrastructure. □ R.J.

When lorries cross from one country to another they face many legal and administrative barriers





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The trans-African road projects

by Ousmane GUEYE(*)

It is not easy to analyse Africa's transport infrastructure unless it is seen in the context of colonial policy. Roads outside the areas where colonialists actually came to settle (North Africa and southern Africa) were designed by the colonial powers to move out tropical products, not to further any socio-economic integration of the countries concerned.

For example, until independence, although Dakar was the principal port for both Mali and Mauritania, there were no tarred roads between it and Nouakchott or Bamako. There has, of course, been a Dakar-Bamako railway since early this century, but it does not serve the whole of Mali's vast territory.

This is the general picture as far as roads are concerned. If each of the independent countries of Africa (except the islands—Cape Verde, the Comoros, Madagascar, Mauritius, Sao Tomé & Príncipe and the Seychelles—and Lesotho and Swaziland, which are land-locked in South Africa) had just one road link with its immediate neighbours, there would be 84 inter-state links altogether. At the moment, there are only 25 such links (asphalted roads and improved dirt, laterite or gravel roads) which are practicable all the year round; 33 more are unimproved roads and tracks that are unusable in the rainy season. Six of the roads still have not been built at all.

This situation obviously hampers the integration and development which the OAU and the ECA are aiming at, and it led them, in July 1971, to launch the Lagos-Mombasa Trans-African Highway project. As the ECA is a pan-African organization, this was only a beginning, a test case which would reveal the principles and methods whereby the countries of Africa could cooperate effectively on the construction and exploitation of international roads.

The principles

Tracing new routes between various points of Africa would have meant building new roads from scratch, and this would certainly have involved long delays, as the Trans-Sahara, from Algeria to Mali/Niger, shows. So it was decided to base the new highway **on existing international roads** in the different countries (Nigeria, Cameroon, the CAE, Zaire, Uganda and Kenya) that the Lagos-Mombasa was to cross. The idea was to join them up and gradually upgrade them, as demand rose, to international standards, and in any case to produce a road, not necessarily asphalted, that could be used in all weathers, as soon as possible.

Another principle was to **provide each section with its own administrative structures**. At the outset, a coordinating committee (secretarial services provided by the ECA) was set up, but it soon became apparent that this would have to



A good road linking two countries is not enough in itself to generate traffic immediately

be replaced by a legally and financially autonomous authority. Ultimately, when other trans-African roads with similar structures saw the light of day, there would be coordination between the various management boards, leading to the establishment of an African international road authority and an African road fund.

These are still the ECA's guiding principles in this sector.

Ongoing projects

The Trans-African was a conclusive experiment in that it resulted in the design and establishment of suitable institutions in which African governments, industrialized countries (France, the UK, Japan and Italy mainly), African intergovernmental organizations and the UN have been able to work together, in harmony, to define the ways and means of solving the many problems posed by the creation of a trans-African road.

So following this, the ECA launched other trans-African road projects which, once they and the numerous feeder roads are finished, will form a pan-African network.

Five trans-African road projects have so far been launched:

— The Trans-Sahara, started by the ECA but now in other hands. It mainly concerns Algeria, Mali and Niger, but will be extended as far as Nigeria;

(*) Ousmane Gueye is head of transport at the UN Economic Commission for Africa. This article is taken from his report to the Bangui Conference on Transport and Communications (June 1978).

Trans-African highways network: summary of current status

Project	Road surface condition (km)				Countries covered
	Bitumen	Gravel	Earth	Total	
a) Highways in progress					
1. Trans-Saharan	4 761	481	3 024	8 266	Algeria, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Tunisia.
2. Mombasa-Lagos	2 519	757	3 037	6 313	Kenya, Uganda, Zaire, Central African Empire, Cameroon, Nigeria.
3. Dakar-Ndjamena	2 595	738	1 300	4 633	Senegal, Mali, Upper Volta, Niger, Nigeria, Cameroon, Chad.
4. Lagos-Nouakchott	3 099	920	708	4 727	Nigeria, Benin, Togo, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Gambia, Senegal, Mauritania.
5. Cairo-Gaborone	5 365	1 980	1 805	9 150	Egypt, Sudan, Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania, Zambia, Botswana.
Total a)	18 339	4 876	9 874	33 089	
b) Highways planned					
1. Tripoli-Windhoek	4 377	659	4 001	9 037	Libya, Chad, Central African Empire, Congo, Zaire, Angola, Namibia.
2. Ndjamena-Massawa	762	266	2 661	3 689	Chad, Sudan, Ethiopia.
3. Nouakchott-Cairo	6 188	183	1 612	7 983	Mauritania, Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, Libya, Egypt.
4. Beira-Lobito	2 314	558	513	3 385	Mozambique, Rhodesia (Zimbabwe), Zambia, Angola.
Total b)	13 641	1 666	8 787	24 094	
Total a) + b)	31 175	6 542	18 661	56 378	(Excluding common sections)
c) Feeder links to:					
1. Mombasa-Lagos	2 889	3 564	4 983	11 436	Burundi, Rwanda, Chad, Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Sudan.
2. Dakar-Ndjamena and Lagos-Nouakchott	5 757	3 386	3 096	12 239	Benin, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Ivory Coast, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Togo, Upper Volta.
3. Cairo-Gaborone	8 471	3 083	4 652	16 207	Libya, Djibouti, Somalia, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, Rwanda, Burundi, Uganda.
4. Trans-Sahara	190	—	1 201	1 391	Libya
5. Tripoli-Windhoek	208	304	600	1 112	Botswana
6. Beira-Lobito	593	130	2 436	3 159	Zaire
Total c)	18 109	10 467	16 968	45 514	
GRAND TOTAL	49 284	17 009	35 629	101 222	(Excluding common sections)
Per cent	48	17	35	100	

Intercountry road links : summary of current status

Country	Status of link			Road surface condition (km)			
	All weather	Dry weather	Total	Bitumen	Gravel	Earth	Total
1. Algeria	2	4	6	4 864	—	1 950	6 814
2. Angola	1	1	2	1 510	304	638	2 452
3. Benin	3	1	4	490	841	—	1 331
4. Botswana	—	1	1	309	381	243	933
5. Burundi	—	3	3	97	110	179	386
6. Cameroon	1	4(a)	6	1 508	915	1 725	4 148
7. Central African Empire	—	5(a)	5	165	253	2 316	2 734
8. Chad	—	5(a)	5	237	895	3 616	4 748
9. Congo	—	4(b)	4	515	860	656	2 031
10. Djibouti	1	1	2	334	—	31	365
11. Egypt	1	1	2	1 684	—	320	2 004
12. Equatorial Guinea	1	1	2	120	110	150	380
13. Ethiopia	2	2	4	1 838	993	428	3 259
14. Gabon	—	3	3	85	1 132	139	1 356
15. Gambia	1	—	1	41	—	—	41
16. Ghana	2	1	3	1 364	—	94	1 458
17. Guinea	—	6	6	439	502	1 435	2 376
18. Guinea-Bissau	1	1	2	244	—	200	444
19. Ivory Coast	3	2	5	634	1 274	75	1 983
20. Kenya	3	2(a)	5	1 404	822	689	2 915
21. Liberia	1	2	3	140	434	—	574
22. Libya	2	4(c)	6	3 123	—	1 916	5 039
23. Malawi	2	1	3	486	148	545	1 179
24. Mali	1	6	7	1 023	364	2 247	3 634
25. Mauritania	1	2	3	859	183	1 802	2 844
26. Morocco	1	—	1	1 344	—	342	1 686
27. Mozambique	2	2	4	2 570	141	1 437	4 148
28. Niger	1	6(a)	7	2 003	807	2 216	5 026
29. Nigeria	1	2	3	3 044	180	351	3 575
30. Rwanda	—	4	4	94	306	266	666
31. Senegal	3	2	5	1 007	145	327	1 479
32. Sierra Leone	—	2	2	289	147	53	489
33. Somalia	—	3	3	1 671	—	1 144	2 815
34. Sudan	—	8(b)	8	764	195	6 465	7 424
35. Swaziland	1	—	1	—	141	—	141
36. Tanzania	2	5	7	1 867	2 454	191	4 512
37. Togo	2	1	3	488	238	43	769
38. Tunisia	2	—	2	1 297	—	—	1 297
39. Uganda	1	4	5	1 166	392	—	1 558
40. Upper Volta	2	4	6	355	640	488	1 483
41. Zaire	1	7	8	1 409	334	6 999	8 742
42. Zambia	2	4	6	2 725	254	113	3 092
TOTAL	25	59(d)	84	45 606	16 895	41 829	104 330
Per cent	30	70	100	44	16	40	100

(a) 1 link missing.
(b) 2 links missing.

(c) 3 links missing.
(d) Of which 6 links missing.

Assistance required for construction

Project	length km	Cost est. US \$'000
a) Trans-Saharan Highway		
i) Algeria: Tamanrasset-Point Y	70	10 500
ii) Algeria: Point Y-Niger front.	350	61 250
iii) Algeria: Point Y-Mali front.	400	70 000
iv) Niger Arlit-Algeria front.	177	30 975
v) Mali: Kidal-Algeria front.	200	30 000
vi) Mali: Kidal-Gao	360	54 000
Total a)	1 557	256 725
b) Mombasa-Lagos Highway		
i) Uganda: Mityana-Fort Portal	241	28 920
ii) Uganda: Equator Road-Kasindi	40	4 860
iii) Zaire: Kisangani-Kasindi	828	161 000
iv) Zaire: Kisangani-Banalia	125	37 991
v) Central African Empire: Bambari-Sibut	195	23 400
vi) Central African Empire: Bangui-Bossembélé	147	14 700
Total b)	1 576	270 871
c) Dakar-Ndjamena Highway		
i) Upper Volta: Fada N'Gourma-Foetchango	169	16 900
ii) Niger: Foetchango-Niamey	120	12 900
Total c)	289	29 800
d) Cairo-Gaborone Highway		
i) Egypt: Aswan-Wadi Halfa	320	50 000
ii) Sudan: Gedaref-Gallabat	155	25 000
iii) Kenya: Moyale-Marsabit	250	15 000
iv) Kenya: Marsabit-Isolio	257	18 500
Total d)	982	108 500
Grand total	4 404	665 896

— The Lagos-Mombasa Highway, east across Nigeria, Cameroon, the CAE, Zaire, Uganda and Kenya;

— The Dakar-N'Djamena or Trans-Sahelian Highway, across Senegal, Mali, Upper Volta, Niger, Nigeria, Cameroon and Chad;

— The Nouakchott-Lagos Highway, across Mauritania, Senegal, Gambia, Guinea Bissau, Guinea, Sierra Leone, Liberia, Ivory Coast, Ghana, Togo, Benin and Nigeria;

— The Cairo-Gaborone Highway, across Egypt, Sudan, Ethiopie, Kenya, Tanzania, Zambia and Botswana.

The five highways total some 33 000 km, 18 000 km of them asphalted. In addition to these, the ECA secretariat is now studying four more trans-African roads: Tripoli-Luanda, to go on to Windhoek once Namibia is independent; Nouakchott-Cairo; N'Djamena-Massawa, to be linked to the Dakar-N'Djamena highway; and Beira-Lobito, once Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) is independent.

What are these roads like at present? Some sections are asphalted, multi-lane highways and others are still no more than tracks barely suitable for cross-country vehicles (see table).

However, the ECA is convinced that it takes more than good international roads to increase traffic. For one thing, the various countries will have to harmonize their transport laws (driving regulations, axle loads, etc.) and introduce simplified, standardized rulings for customs and frontier formalities.

Franco-British financing has enabled the ECA to make a study of customs and administrative barriers along the Lagos-Mombasa route. And the study of the harmonization of transport in ECOWAS, currently being run by the ECA, will cover this aspect, so that the relevant administrative and legal measures can be adopted when new roads are built. □

O.G.

Summary of assistance required

Project	Length km	Feas. study		Engr. study		Construction		Total cost estimate US \$ '000
		km	US \$ '000	km	US \$ '000	km	US \$ '000	
a) Highways in progress								
1. Trans-Saharan	8 266	—	—	897	3 860	2 454	391 275	395 135
2. Mombasa-Lagos	6 313	—	—	2 038	13 861	3 614	527 333	541 194
3. Dakar-Ndjamena	4 633	—	—	895	3 118	1 184	122 440	125 558
4. Lagos-Nouakchott	4 727	636	128	636	2 863	636	74 720	77 711
5. Cairo-Gaborone	9 150	947	95	1 841	3 943	2 823	341 790	345 828
Total (a)	33 089	1 583	223	6 307	27 645	10 711	1 457 558	1 485 426
b) Highways planned								
1. Tripoli-Windhoek	9 037	2 655	266	3 930	19 650	3 930	489 970	509 886
2. Ndjamena-Massawa	3 689	1 707	171	2 027	10 135	2 027	302 450	312 756
3. Nouakchott-Cairo	7 983	1 612	161	1 612	8 060	1 612	233 040	241 261
4. Beira-Lobito	3 385	—	—	513	1 539	513	67 260	68 799
Total (b)	24 094	5 974	598	8 082	39 384	8 082	1 902 720	1 132 702
Total (a) + (b)	56 378a)	7 557	821	14 389	67 029	18 793	2 550 278	2 618 128
c) Feeder links to								
1. Trans-Sahara	1 391	780	156	780	3 900	780	156 000	160 056
2. Mombasa-Lagos	11 436	2 585	517	5 168	20 672	5 168	852 720	873 909
3. Trans-West African Highway	12 239	459	70	1 615	6 460	1 615	242 250	248 780
4. Cairo-Gaborone	16 207	600	60	1 027	3 081	1 027	154 050	157 191
5. Tripoli-Windhoek	1 112	600	60	600	1 800	600	72 000	73 860
6. Beira-Lobito	3 159	2 402	240	2 402	9 274	2 402	288 240	297 754
Total (c)	45 544	7 426	1 103	11 592	45 187	11 592	1 765 260	1 811 550
Grand total	101 922	14 983	1 924	25 981	112 216	30 385	4 315 538	4 429 678

(*) Excluding common sections.

The rebirth of trans-Saharan trade

“There must be a judiciously planned communications network before African trade can be reorganized”

by **Moussa BAKO(*)**

Trade between the Mediterranean civilizations of North Africa and the West African kingdoms south of the Sahara goes back some 3 000 years, to 1 000 B.C. (see map). For centuries, merchants have braved the desert in horse-drawn chariots and camel caravans, taking silk, ornamental stones, mirrors, daggers, swords and dates from Mediterranean Africa to exchange for cloth, bronze-ware, gold and silver jewelry, grain, ivory, kola nuts and ostrich feathers from the countries south of the Sahara. The most important item was salt. It was plentiful in North Africa, but to the peoples south of the Sahara, it was as precious as the gold they traded it for.

Trans-Saharan trade reached a peak in the 14th century. According to Ibn Battuta, the great Arab traveller of the period, who noted down his impressions of journeys in the desert, just one caravan trail in Mali alone was used by 12 000 camels every year.

There was a considerable amount of trade and it brought great wealth to Mali and Songhai, thriving kingdoms in the 14th and 16th century in what are now southern Mali and central Niger. Timbuktu and Gao, the main towns of these kingdoms, were known to be two of the greatest centres of culture and learning in the world.

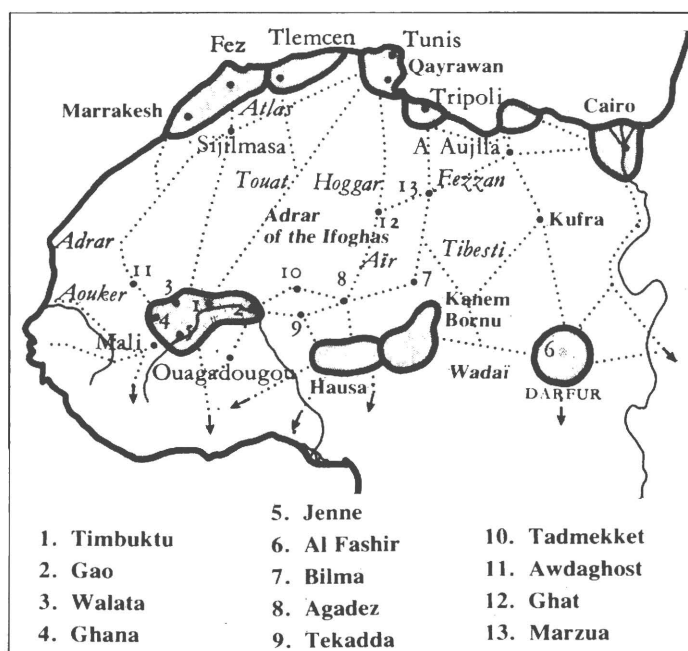
Continental trans-Saharan trade has in fact never stopped altogether and Land-Rovers and trucks have joined the camels for the still precarious trip across the desert. But, in the 20th century, ships and planes are the main means of transport for both people and goods, not just between the various countries of Africa, but, of course, between them and the rest of the world as well.

Coastal trade and continental trade

The present situation is mainly the outcome of practices established during the colonial era, when intra-African trade was limited by restrictive agreements brought in by the colonizers, who were much more interested in trading with their homeland than with other colonies. This led to the coastal regions gradually replacing the inland centres as the focus for trade and very little attention was paid to improving the roads.

The fact that no one built or maintained a suitable network of roads between the different countries of Africa has held back the development process in more ways than one. The

(*) Minister for Public Works, Transport and Urban Planning in Niger. Speech made in September 1977 — 22nd session of the coordinating committee of the trans-Sahara highway.



African nations are in particular need of cheap and efficient transport routes, since most of them depend on exports of one or two basic products for the bulk of their foreign earnings and have to import large quantities of food and basic manufactures.

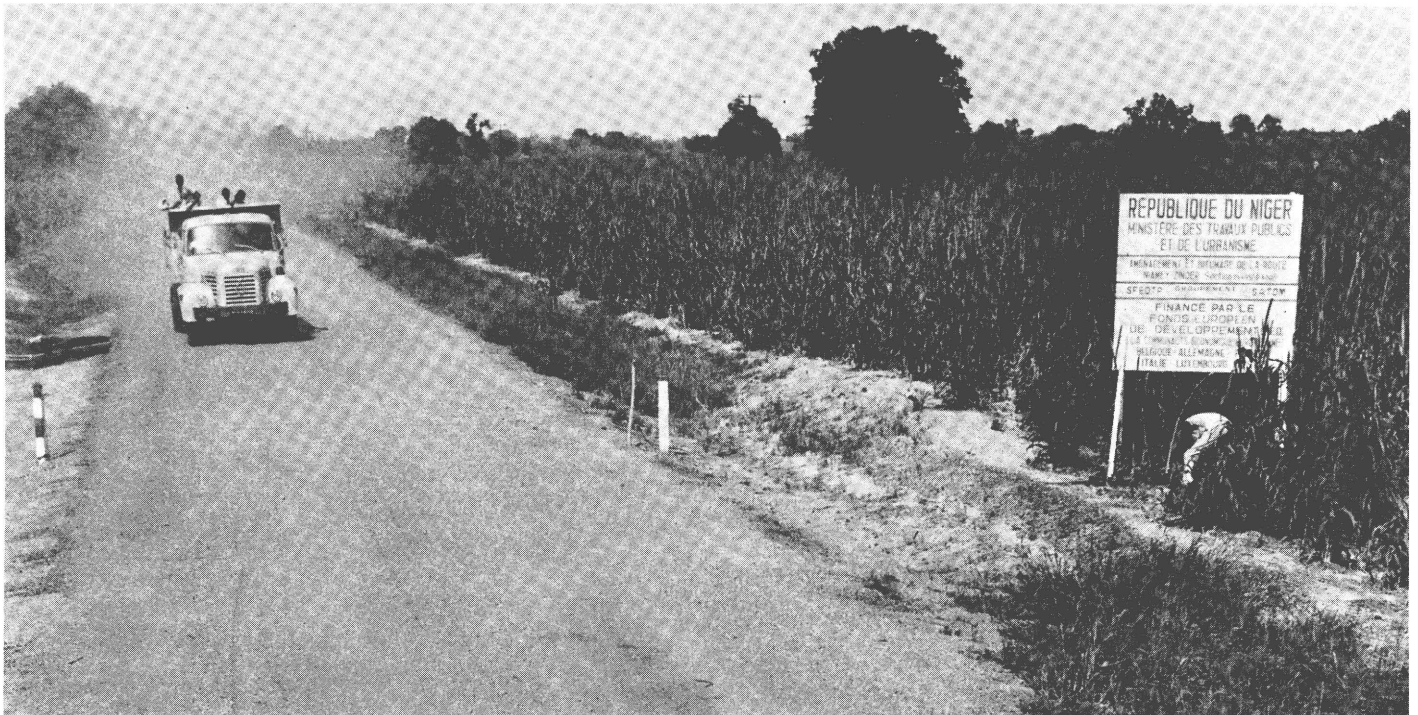
As there are no good roads and air freight costs are high, they have to use maritime transport, which was introduced during the colonial era. So Africa's ports have been stretched far beyond their proper capacity and they are now congested and overcrowded. Vessels often have to wait to berth, so food rots because it cannot be loaded or unloaded in time, and both equipment and manufactures are very late reaching their destination.

The continent's 13 land-locked countries are the worst hit by the lack of any proper inter-African road network, as the transport cost of their imports can be as much as 25% of the value of the goods themselves.

In addition to the drive for national development, the African countries have also embarked on joint schemes, which they realize are often hampered by the inadequate roads. Trade between African nations suffers because of it and the cost of sustaining contact between the states, which could lead to a pooling of development methods and techniques, is prohibitive. There are no easy means of contact and the countries are not in a position to launch mutually profitable enterprises that make use of the raw materials, technical expertise, capital and potential markets that none of them has individually but which they can provide together.

Changing tracks into roads

Some 83 inter-state roads would be needed to link up all the countries of Africa that are now independent. Although there are 76 international roads, only 21 of them are usable throughout the year. The rest, often no more than dirt roads or desert tracks, are flooded right from the beginning of the rainy season or disappear when there are sandstorms.



The Niamey-Zinder road, Niger

Until recently, this was the regular fate of a 2 800 km track across the Sahara from El Golea to Tamanrasset in the Hoggar in Algeria, branching off to Gao in southern Mali and Agadez in central Niger. There are plans to replace this by a surfaced road, usable in all weathers, crossing this desolate area to Lagos, in Nigeria, by the '80s.

For the first time, motorists will have a modern road from the Mediterranean ports of North Africa all the way across the land-locked countries of the western Sahel to the West African ports on the Gulf of Guinea. Even now that the Algerian section of the road is finished, Algiers-Lagos still takes something like a fortnight.

Although the idea of a north-south road across the Sahara dates back to 1913, the actual plans were only drawn up in the '60s when the governments of Algeria, Niger, Mali and Tunisia joined together to create a coordinating committee for the trans-Sahara highway. This committee asked the UNDP to help finance studies to determine where the road would actually go, to look into the technical considerations and to analyse the effect of the road on the economic development of the countries concerned. The first studies, completed in 1968, were carried out by SUDOP, the central institute for road construction planning in Prague, and SETEC, the Paris-based technical and economic study company, in accordance with a contract signed with the UN Bureau of Technical Assistance Operations (as an implementing agency of the UNDP).

The UNDP later financed studies for the Mali and Niger sections of the road. The route (from El Golea via Ain Salah and Tamanrasset to Gao and to Agadez) is very similar to the one the trans-Saharan merchants used to take.

Finance, trade and new villages

Algeria is financing all of its part of the trans-Sahara highway. Young people doing national community service supply the labour and the road is being surfaced at the rate of 1 000-1 500 m per day. By April 1978, surfacing had been completed to just north of Tamanrasset.

Various financial institutions, including ABEDIA and the Islamic Development Bank, have been approached for contributions to the Mali and Niger sections and have said they would be favourable towards financing the project.

In 1976, Nigeria, which wanted to link its road network to the trans-Sahara, joined the coordinating committee. This section will go from Agadez, probably via Tanout, Zinder, Matamey, Kongolam and Kano, to Lagos.

As there will be another highway between Lagos and Mombasa (Kenya), there will then be a road link from the Mediterranean to the Gulf of Guinea and then right on to the Indian Ocean as well.

Once complete, the road will have a major effect on development in the countries of northern and western Africa, particularly in the trade and tourist sectors. It will be easy to transport food by lorry and this will help improve the diet of the Sahelian populations. Minerals, cattle and other products from countries south of the Sahara can be sent to markets in northern Africa and Europe quicker and more cheaply than they can now, and there will be no problems attached to transporting materials and manufactures to destinations in the interior of Nigeria.

The road will also act as a stimulus to the rural centres, which will be linked to the main highway by feeder roads. And if wells are sunk along the route in Niger and Mali, the road will open up new areas for settlement.

When he inaugurated the first section of the road, completed in 1973, President Boumedienne of Algeria summed up the project as follows: "The road is important not just to Algeria and its neighbours. It is important to the whole of Africa, because it is a firm link between the African governments and because it very much affects all their peoples".

The trans-Sahara is part of the master plan for an international road system in Africa which the Economic Commission for Africa produced some years back. Once completed, the nine main highways now under construction will form a network covering the major part of the continent.

□

M.B.

Complementarity, competition and specialization in transport

Africa's road network is far from adequate. Not only is there not enough of it but the general state of both asphalted and dirt roads leaves much to be desired. Are there other, better developed means of transport to make up for this? Is there a viable alternative to roads?

Transport facilities at variance with distances and needs

Road, rail, air, sea, lake and river transport. Africa has all of these and some it has had for hundreds of years.

Railways

Africa's railroads are like the road network: very sparse. According to the African Union of Railways, there are 95 000 km of ill-assorted track. There are a variety of different gauges which makes it very difficult to join up the different sections, with the main and most expensive result being that consignments have to be loaded and unloaded en route. Only 15 000 km are the standard 1.435 m gauge used in the big developed countries of the world.

There are about 56 000 km with the British gauge (1.067 m) and 15 000 km with the French system (1 m) and a further 10 000 km have gauges varying from 0.95 m to 0.60 m. Ten countries (Gambia, Niger, Somalia, Chad, Rwanda, Burundi, the CAE, Lesotho, Guinea Bissau and Equatorial Guinea) have no railway at all.

Almost all the African lines were built to penetrate the interior. Those in the tropics date back to the start of this century and those in northern and southern parts to the end of the 19th century.

Airlines

Planes have become an essential factor of development in Africa, but one which is far from being used to the full. The service between the various countries is poor and, even today, the quickest way of getting from A to B is often via London or Paris. Senegal may have regular flights to 21 other states in Africa, but Guinea Bissau only has two, Mauritania three and Malawi four. Some countries, particularly certain land-locked ones, only have sporadic services, so it is often impossible to get there at short notice.

And African airways are poorly equipped and vital improvements to installations and services are required. As things stand, less than half the facilities required by the ICAO (International Civil Aviation Organization) air navigation plan have been installed. Another big brake on the development of airways is the exorbitant cost of both air freight and passenger transport.

Rivers and lakes

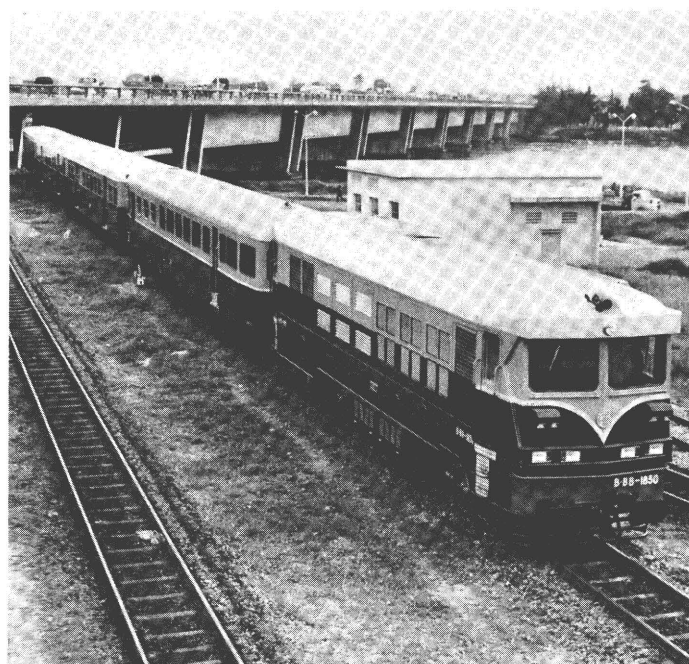
The great lakes and rivers of Africa have always been used for communication in the countries that border them. The rivers, many of them thousands of miles long, are particularly useful in this respect. But African waterways often contain falls and rapids which make navigation impossible whatever the season and various projects have therefore been started up (on the Senegal, the Niger and the Mano and on the great lakes) to deal with this.

Sea transport

At the moment, almost 90% of goods and merchandise from the countries of Africa are transported by sea, but 97.5% of this trade is in the hands of non-African shipping companies. They have what amounts to a monopoly and they decide on freight tariffs and shipping conditions without (or with very little) reference to African countries or African national shipping firms. A few years ago, the African countries decided to do something about this and set up shipping companies of their own and there are now about 25 such companies in Africa south of the Sahara.

But their capacity and the proportion of the international African traffic with which they deal is insignificant. The African governments must have effective control over the movement of goods so the interests of the African shippers are protected. This is one of the aims of the transport decade.

Another urgent problem to be dealt with is the congestion in the ports (there are more than 80 of them in Africa and 35 are international ones). Recent studies by the ECA and UNCTAD suggest that this is more often due to inefficient utilization of port facilities than to a shortage or absence of berthing wharfs. It is the land-locked countries that get the worst deal here.



Railway gauges vary enormously which makes it very difficult to link up the networks



Air transport has become essential to the development of African countries

The search for complementarity...

Although the various modern means of transport are known and in everyday use in Africa, the networks are inadequate, ill-assorted and lacking in complementarity. Of course, there are the occasional rail/road or road/lake combinations that do work, but they are exceptions and the African transport network as a whole is far from being a closely woven web. To make it one would mean developing the roads and all the other means of transport as well. There are plans to do so, all of them stressing the need to coordinate the different means of transport.

The African Union of Railways, for example, has a programme which includes not just unifying Africa's railways, improving services and joining the various networks up, but coordinating train services with other means of transport too.

Similarly, the system of "turn-table towns", which the ICAO put forward as a way of improving inter-African air services, involves a system of good overland communications between the towns chosen (which would have at least one flight per day between them).

... does not exclude competition...

The search for complementarity does not mean that there is not and there will not be any room for competition between the different modes of transport, particularly road and rail. In *Rail and Road in East Africa* (1964), Arthur Hazlewood looks at competition in Uganda, Kenya and

Tanzania. He says, for example, that the railways lost 287 000 t of freight (£840 000 at the time) to the roads in 1958. More recently, Djibril Diallo, head of Mali's railways, pointed out (in *Afrique Industrie Infrastructure* n° 148) that Mali would save MF 630 million if the 47 million litres of petrol which the forecasts suggested would be used in the Bamako region in 1977 were taken by rail, from Dakar, instead of by road from the port of Abidjan.

For some years now there has been competition from another quarter, the airlines. Peugeot, the French car firm, sends out spare parts (more than 20 000 t of freight p.a.) by air to Kaduna in Nigeria several times a week, a contract that neither Nigerian Railways nor the road haulage firms were able to obtain.

And since the ports are congested and some of the roads are in bad repair, this is probably only the beginning of a trend.

... or specialization

At the moment, African transport firms seem to specialize, as the result of different tariffs, much as they do on other continents.

Nothing can rival the railway when it comes to transporting minerals or other very heavy goods over long distances. And what better than the plane to take cut flowers to Europe? Road haulage, much of it by small local firms, requires relatively little capital and should continue to develop. It should get a boost when the trans-African highway system is complete. □ AMADOU TRAORE

The World Bank and road-building in Africa

by Christopher WILLOUGHBY(*)

The World Bank has considerable experience of financing road-building in Africa. Mr Willoughby gave his views on the matter in a paper at the first ACP conference on transport and communications, held in Bangui in June 1978. Here are the essential points (translated from French).

When the World Bank considers a project, we attach a great deal of importance to evaluating its degree of priority and its relative contribution to development. Similarly, when we reassess the project after completion, we try to pay particular attention to these same aspects, to determine what may be called the economic balance sheet of the project. We have already assessed 36 African road projects. On the basis of these criteria, the vast majority of the operations, which involved building 75 different sections of road, can be considered satisfactory, with a rate of economic return often above 10%, in spite of the many difficulties that occurred during implementation. However, a few of these projects (10-20%) have had, as has happened in other parts of the world too, disappointing results in that the returns were far smaller than anticipated, all too often well below 10%. The important thing, however, is that almost all the disappointing projects are to do with **access roads, road maintenance and international links**, all of which still occupy an important (and, in the last two categories, an increasingly important) place in World Bank operations. Post-assessment studies show that, in Africa, the inter-

urban road projects of purely national interest have practically always come up to expectations. On the other hand, judging by current data, 30-50% of projects in all three categories have failed to contribute as much to development as we expected.

What goes wrong?

So what happened with these three types of project? The poor results of the maintenance schemes can be put down to a variety of causes: inadequate budgetary provision for current expenditure on staff and equipment, local staff who failed to live up to expectations, not enough training programmes, priority given to other aims and no effective control over loads. On the other hand, when some access and international road projects which the Bank financed did not yield the anticipated results, it was generally because traffic did not increase as forecast. In the case of access roads, the main reason for this was the inadequacy of measures taken and/or investments made in complementary sectors, with a view to developing (directly or indirectly) agriculture. As far as international roads were concerned, the inadequacy of traffic was due to the fact that trade was declining, for other than economic reasons, or that the neighbouring country failed to improve the corresponding section of its network in time.

This is why, while developing its schemes to improve access roads and maintenance operations, the bank also pays great attention to whatever will avoid a repetition of the more disappointing results.

I should like to give one or two thoughts and suggestions derived from my experience with the World Bank.

The importance of trade

In the first place, I should like to take up an old observation, which is particularly applicable to international transport, and that is, that transport is only a service. It can satisfy but not create the demand from other sectors that enables it to be profitable itself. In other words, the creation of first class transport facilities alone is very rarely enough to stimulate trade between two countries that have never traded. The development of trade and the development of transport must go hand in hand. Of course, the fairly slow development of international transport in Africa over the last 20 years is largely due to the fairly slow rate at which inter-African trade has expanded. UNCTAD figures suggest that the African developing countries exported goods worth \$40 000 million in 1974, but only 3.5% of them went to other African developing countries. This was less than half the 1955 figure of 20 years earlier. The fact that there are so many regular freight services between Algiers or Tunis and various other towns south of the Sahara, down to Lagos, when the trans-Sahara is nothing like finished proves that, if the demand exists, then transport will follow, even with conditions as bad as they are in the Sahara. Those international projects we have contributed to and which have failed to help development—not just in Africa but on all the other continents as well—have primarily been affected by the decline or slower growth of trade between the countries concerned. I can think of no case where the completion of an international road has produced an effect



Too many sections of Africa's road network are little more than impassable tracks in the wet season

(*) Head of transport projects at the World Bank.

(i.e. a sharp increase in traffic) comparable to what can be achieved by other projects like the installation of an automatic inter-city telephone system, or the improvement of access roads in rural areas.

The Declaration of Suva rightly attaches considerable importance to more general aspects of trade cooperation in the ACP states, but I do not wish to discuss these here. I shall confine myself to questions of transport. However, let there be no misunderstanding here. I am not saying that the development of transport should wait for trade to expand first, nor that the outlook for trade is not really promising.

It has, of course, become commonplace to say that the structure of many African economies is so similar that they offer few possibilities, in the immediate future, of fruitful trade. Yet studies devoted to trade potential in such and such a region often find interesting possibilities that are not just based on forthcoming industrial development. The agricultural sector, too, is concerned. We must be thankful for the attention which ECOWAS and other bodies are paying to these matters.

In Latin America, where trade between South American countries is more developed (thanks to the growth of manufacturing industries and to 15 hard-working years of trade cooperation) a recent study by the UN Economic Committee for Latin America showed that the percentage of trade sent by sea rather than by road is greater than purely economic criteria would demand, even taking the present unsatisfactory state of the road network into account. The study also shows that more frequent use of road transport could stimulate trade.

These conclusions clearly prove, to my mind, that passivity is ruled out in trade and transport. In these two fields, a constant effort must be made to keep one step ahead. Transport services must improve in order to create further possibilities of trade, and the various sectors of production and trade must discover and exploit new comparative advantages to increase the demand for transport.

Coordinating the planning and implementation of international projects

In second place, the improvement of transport facilities between two countries may be more effective if it is designed within the framework of integrated projects, that is to say with coordination either side of the frontier, so that both sections of the road can be completed within the prescribed time limits and coordinated, in certain cases, with investments planned in other sectors which will be providing part of the traffic using the road infrastructure.

Surprisingly enough, a number of the international road projects that the World Bank has financed have posed problems simply because of a lack of coordination in building sections in two different countries. Take a project in West Africa, for example, which involved building a road to a frontier. This part had to be dropped two and a half years after the loan to pay for it was approved, as the government in the neighbouring country had failed to make any official commitment as regards continuing the road on its territory. What is more, that neighbouring country concentrated on improving a road to another point on the frontier (which took a large percentage of the traffic) and the completion of the international road that was originally planned, although economically justified, had to wait another five years. Here is another, fairly similar example of a borrower in East Africa. After building a road as far as the frontier, it discovered that the neighbouring country had decided not to upgrade the continuation on its territory, but instead to improve some other road. Our borrower was left with a road which had few users and a poor rate of economic return. In a third case, improvements to two national sections in two different countries were to be covered by World Bank projects. But things turned out better than this and joint financing was able to be obtained for the most technically difficult section, near the frontier. But the work on the main section lagged behind in one of the countries and the measures required to enable transport firms to use this international road have still not been taken.



Rural buses, overflowing with people, are a common feature of the African countryside



*Transporting timber on wet roads can be very dangerous
(Ivory Coast)*

Much greater integration, i.e. the inclusion of major programmes for other sectors, would be a solution not unlike the one often adopted to handle a problem I have already outlined, one which often occurs in rural schemes, namely the absence of any complementary schemes in the agricultural sector. Most of our loan operations for rural roads are far better tied up now with broader-based agricultural/rural development schemes, often in the same project. This has enabled the bank to provide coordinated aid in various sectors. Such integration, i.e. a combination of all the elements in a single project, will only materialize in exceptional cases in international and multisectoral development programmes. Nevertheless, the planning, preparation, financing and implementation of the various components of this programme could be closely coordinated. At the moment, the World Bank and a number of other co-funders are taking a very active part in an important international project to build a cement works at Tabigbo in Togo, which will enable cement production to be maintained in the three countries involved. The World Bank is also concerned with other, allied schemes in the transport sector. We are also studying a possible project for a cement works in the Great Lakes region of East Africa, which will provide possibilities of better coordination of the road networks in several countries.

Haulage and international transport

Thirdly, I should like to consider transport services and, more particularly, two questions that are closely linked. The development of reliable, competitive transport firms in each country, and the reduction or total elimination of non-material obstacles to inter-urban and international transport. In this case, too, it seems to me to be vital to advance simultaneously on both fronts.

In Africa, trucks driving from one country to another come up against many obstacles of this kind, and in increasing number, it would seem, in certain cases. For example, the non-validity of one country's insurance in another country, the diversity of highway codes and regulations on motor vehicles and the attendant inspections, the levying of non-official dues, the complexity of exchange regulations, the diversity of customs regulations, the variation in opening hours in banks and customs offices, and the impossibility of travellers obtaining information. In early 1973, the UN Economic Commission for Africa requested what proved to be a most interesting and useful study on the legal and administrative barriers to vehicles driving along the trans-African highway from Lagos to Mombasa. This study(1) revealed many problems of this kind and proposed solutions that the states could adopt in many cases. The coordinating committee of the trans-African adopted this study at its fifth meeting, in Kampala in April 1975, and some of the governments at least seem to have accepted most of the suggestions concerning them. However, the recommendations do not seem to have had that much effect. Nor has this inactivity had any serious repercussions, since there is only a little cross-frontier traffic at the moment. The important thing, to my mind, is that this study somehow anticipated future events and, even more important, that the legally and administratively highly complex measures needed to remedy the very many problems (which will continue to occur) will rarely be taken without the many interested parties in each country exerting constant pressure on the authorities concerned.

Developing individual firms

However, as long as there are all these regulations and complications, international transport will be too much of a problem for all but the biggest and most powerful haulage firms. Major foreign companies have, in fact, cornered most of the market in Africa. We have also found that many countries have an increasing tendency (partly to compensate for the complications of international transport and partly also to solve their hauliers' other problems, such as excess capacity and poor services due to excessive tariff control or incompetent management on the part of small haulage firms) to set up semi-state companies owning their own vehicles or to grant monopolies to haulage cooperatives.

These groups may be powerful, but it is by no means clear that they are in the best position to make an efficient job of solving the management problems in the haulage sector (so well adapted in many ways to an owner/driver system), and they are pleading for their profession to be rid of the complications and regulations which tend to strengthen monopolies. We must decide whether it might not be better to encourage the development of individual firms and small local businesses by simplifying the regulations on routes and tariffs, by providing training in management and accounting and by ensuring a more regular supply of spare parts. Transport management companies, able to take charge of sending goods from door to door in other countries of Africa and overseas, would be a great asset to their countries if they specialized in organizing and coordinating all the services, including the haulage, involved here.

The World Bank feels it does not provide its member states with enough assistance far as the questions of haulage and the development of road transport companies are concerned. It proposes to increase its capacity here and also to encourage the development banks to which it lends money to take a greater interest in financing haulage and allied services, such as vehicle maintenance. □ C.W.

(1) ECA: *Trans-African Highway: study of legal and administrative barriers* — T.P. O'Sullivan & Partners and BCEOM — 2 volumes — September 1974.

Trans-African highways and the EDF

by A. BERRENS(*)

The road networks in Africa, and in the ACP countries in particular, should be seen in comparison with the population (density generally low), the number of vehicles (small) and the tonnage to be transported (increasing every year).

The networks were begun when motor vehicles first arrived on the continent, and developed in the light of the needs and estimates of the old colonial powers, concentrating on some areas and often neglecting to link up with certain other regions and countries where transport infrastructure was good.

The networks were of varying quality, ranging from rudimentary tracks to dirt roads surfaced with some suitable sort of material (asphalt was a rarity). Some sections were practicable all year round and others could only be used in the dry season. Other differences had less to do with design than with technical problems and available funds. Some bridges were permanent and some were provisional.

The aims and functions of the ECA

As soon as independence came to the African countries that had so far been colonies of Europe, it was apparent that the road networks no longer satisfied the needs for communications and transport as they were in the new political situation. It was much less a question of extending or expanding the networks built under colonialism than of defining which were the priority sections, thereby making a new division into main roads and secondary roads, and of deciding what sort of improvements could be achieved bearing in mind the technical difficulties and transport involved.

The principal network now had to:

- enable certain countries to consolidate their national unity better by joining up areas that were isolated but which often had links with neighbouring countries;
- link up the new capital cities to develop better relations and facilitate economic cooperation;
- open up countries in the interior by giving them access to other means of transport, such as railways and inland waterways, and to the sea.

So it is not surprising that this situation and these new needs led the UN Economic Commission for Africa to reflect on the problems and launch the idea of major trans-African highways which would constitute a network of main, priority roads. These would be the foundation for all future development of Africa's road infrastructure.

(*) Head of road infrastructure at the development directorate of the EEC Commission.

Faced with a problem of this magnitude, the ECA lost no time in adopting a pragmatic approach, based on the definition of the trans-African highway (as a road linking several countries usable by ordinary vehicles throughout the year, and of varying dimensions according to the amount of traffic on the different sections) and on the principle of creating these highways by joining up the roads that already existed in the various countries.

But it would not have been enough just to encourage the realization of these trans-African highways. The problem of legal and administrative barriers also had to be dealt with, since their continuing existence would be a constant brake on inter-state traffic. The aim was to simplify and harmonize laws on traffic and vehicles, driving licences, insurance and road signs and lighting and on customs procedure, goods in transit, foreign exchange, etc. Finally, services (filling stations, repair workshops, exchange facilities, etc.) had to be thought of.

The plan was therefore to:

- fix on the main east-west and north-south routes;
- decide, with the agreement of the countries concerned, exactly where the roads would go;
- plan the access roads;
- seek and implement financing for the general and specific studies of the works and maintenance schemes.

In 1971, when the first cross-continent road was started, the Lagos-Mombasa trans-African highway, the ECA set up a trans-African road office and coordinating committees to take charge of implementing the highways programme.

Main roads and secondary roads

The following roads have been included in the programme and work on them is now in progress:

- the trans-Sahara, Algiers-Gao-Arlit;
- the trans-African, Mombasa-Lagos;
- the trans-West African, Dakar-N'Djaména;
- the Coast Road, Lagos-Nouakchott;
- the trans-East African, Cairo-Gaborone.

These five roads cross 41 countries and total about 31 519 km. There are something like 47 000 km of access roads (not described here) to feed them.

It is planned to expand the main network by including the following roads:

- N'Djaména-Massawa, an extension of the Dakar-N'Djaména highway;
- Cairo-Rabat-Nouakchott, along the Mediterranean and the Atlantic coast;
- Tripoli-N'Djaména-Kinshasa.

Of course, work on the primary and secondary roads is far from being completed. Some sections have been modernized and surfaced and others are little more than tracks that are barely usable in some parts of the year.

The overall plan of routes, chosen only after close cooperation on the part of the countries concerned, gives a clear picture of what is going on and means that road investments can be continued methodically over the coming years.

EDF schemes

The European Development Fund has been financing road projects since it first started, in the old associated states, in



Most of the roads financed by the EDF form part of a trans-African network, such as the N'Gaoundéré-Garoua road in Cameroon, seen here under construction...

1958. It has always had to cope with the problems outlined above. As far as road transport is concerned, it was quick to concentrate on the main highways and it has done its best to meet the needs of the moment, as the following examples show.

— **Strengthening national unity.**

Example — The Niamey-Zinder road, more than 900 km long. The last section is currently under construction.

— **Linking the capital cities.**

Example — Financing the St Louis-Dosso (Senegal) and Dosso-Nouakchott sections to link Dakar and Nouakchott.

— **Opening up countries in the interior.**

Example — The construction of the Bougouni-Sikasso-Zagoua (Mali) road gave access to the Abidjan-Niger railway.

Of course there are many more examples. They show that, from the outset, the EDF tried to establish a policy with the following main features:

- seeking the basic framework of the road network;
- improving this framework, making the most of existing roads to do so;
- only improving it when there is enough traffic to warrant asphaltting the section under consideration.

So it is not surprising that most of the roads financed by the EDF were incorporated in the trans-African highway system when it was planned.

The tables in the annex outline the main trans-African highways and the sections financed by the EDF.

In addition to contributing to the main highways, the EDF has also financed many kilometres of access roads.

Money, time and means

A great deal of money, time and means is obviously required to produce this large network of A roads (like the E roads in Europe). And finally, there is more to it than modernizing an existing road. A road must also be maintained, strengthened if traffic increases and even rebuilt in

parts if, for example, the carriageway deteriorates through lack of upkeep.

The current cost of road works of this kind varies between 100 000 and 180 000 EUA per km. The exact price will obviously depend on what technical improvements are planned and on the situation in the individual countries, where conditions of competition and psychological factors may have very different effects on prices. However, the figures in this paragraph and the distances mentioned earlier show that large amounts are needed to finance the investments.

The cost per kilometre cannot, unfortunately, be reduced (except in cases of obvious over-calculation). The main cost components in road construction are energy (fuel and energy-producing machinery), asphalt and, to a lesser extent, labour. These factors cannot generally be influenced by either the financing bodies or the recipient governments which, if their social policy is fair, will have to ensure that the minimum wage for the labour force is in line with the general conditions in the country.

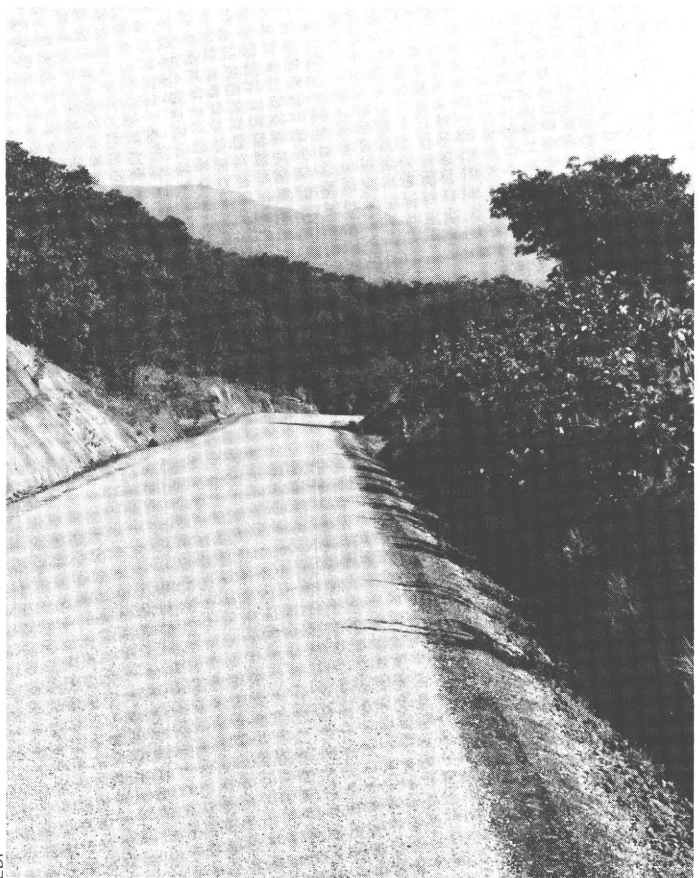
And these vast projects take time. In many countries, the effects of the climate make it impossible to work for more than 10 months of the year.

At the risk of pushing up costs still further, firms should be given all the time they need. Otherwise they have to overequip because there is either no current or long-term programming or what there is is subject to too much modification and prevents them establishing plant investment programmes that stretch over a number of years.

Generally speaking, it should be possible to build 40-50 km of road p.a. and a firm should be able to manage a monthly turnover of 700 000-1 000 000 EUA.

This imposing road improvement programme calls for experienced, properly equipped firms. This is not to say that the firms must be European ones. It is to be hoped that this

... and now completed. This 315 km stretch links the north of the country with the Mombasa-Lagos trans-African highway



EDF

programme will make it easier to set up firms in the ACP countries and that they can then submit successful tenders, thus representing one aspect of industrialization in these states. But this means that it would be a great mistake to get the public works departments (i.e. the authorities) to implement the programmes.

Contrary to popular opinion, public works (warranted in some cases) are not cheaper and, before making a comparison, the taxes and charges which firms have to pay should be added to the state price. Furthermore, and this is a well-known fact, public works departments do not always

have the same output as private firms, which balances out part of the higher cost of private enterprise. The important things for the authorities to keep are the studies, the works supervision and the maintenance.

When performing these tasks, some of which still could, according to the situation in the individual country, be handed over to the private sector, the authorities will be able to develop thorough technical knowledge of the road infrastructure sector in their countries, thereby creating a "public works tradition" which will yield, we hope, this great network of trans-African highways. □ A.B.

ANNEX:

1. Trans-African highway: Mombasa-Lagos

Country	Sections	Km	EDF aid		Km
			Section	Progress	
Kenya	Mombasa-Nairobi-Malaba	921	—	—	—
Uganda	Malaba-Kampala-Kasindi	660	—	—	—
Zaire	Kasindi-Kisangani-Bangassou	1 547	—	—	—
CAE	Bangassou-Bangui-Garoua Boulai	1 306	Sibut-Bangui	work in hand	165
Cameroon	Garoua Boulai-Ekok Mfum	1 040	Bafoussam-Marucuda	work in hand	85
Nigeria	Ekok Mfum-Lagos	833	—	—	—
	Total (surfaced: 2 519 km)	6 313		surfaced roads	250

Grain in the storehouses along the Massaoua-Zinder road, which is being developed with EDF help, can be easily sent to Niamey now that the road is finished



2. Trans-West African highway: Dakar-N'Djaména

Country	Sections	Km	EDF aid		Km
			Section	Progress	
Senegal	Dakar-Tambacounda-Naké	635	Ngatch-Birkelam	work in hand	21
Mali	Nate-Nioro du Sahel-Bamako-Bougoumi-Koloko	1 209	Bougoumi-Sikasso	work in hand	182
Upper Volta	Koloko-Bobo Dioulasso-Ouagadougou-Foetchango	877	Sacoince-Ouagadougou-Koupela Koupela-Foetchango	work in hand study (171)	218
Niger	Foetchango-Niamey-Maradi-Jibya	887	Foetchango-Niamey Niamey-Maradi	study (116) work in hand	665
Nigeria	Jibya-Kano-Maiduguri-Gambaru	923	—	—	—
Cameroon	Gambaru-Kousseri-Bridge on the Niari	102	—	—	—
	Total	4 633		surfaced roads	1 086

3. Trans-West African coast road: Lagos-Nouakchott

Country	Sections	Km	EDF aid		Km
			Sections	Progress	
Nigeria	Lagos-Idiroko	100	—	—	—
Benin	Idiroko-Cotonou-Hillacondji	164	Igolo-Porto Novo-Cotonou-Hillacondji	study, work in hand	160
Togo	Hillacondji-Lomé-Aflao	55	Hillacondji-Aflao	study	50
Ghana	Aflao-Accra-Bridge on the Tano	610	Axim-Mpataba-Elubo	study	99
Ivory Coast	Bridge on the Tano-Abidjan-Blay	873	Rivière Tano-Aboisso	work in hand	60
Liberia	Blay-Monrovia-Mano River	574	—	—	—
Sierra Leone	Mano River-Freetown-Pamelap	489	—	—	—
Guinea	Pamelap-Conakry-Sansale	506	—	—	—
Guinea Bissau	Sansale-Bissau-Mpak	457	—	—	—
Senegal	Mpak-Senoba	152	Koulikan-Senoba-Bridge on the Casamance	study, work in hand	78
Gambia	Senoba-Farafenni	23	—	—	—
Senegal	Faralenni-Kaolack-Dakar-St Louis-Dosso	606	St Louis-Dosso	work in hand	93
Mauritania	Dosso-Nouakchott	203	Dosso-Nouakchott	study, work in hand	203
	Total (surfaced: 3 124)	4 812		surfaced roads	743

4. Trans-Sahara

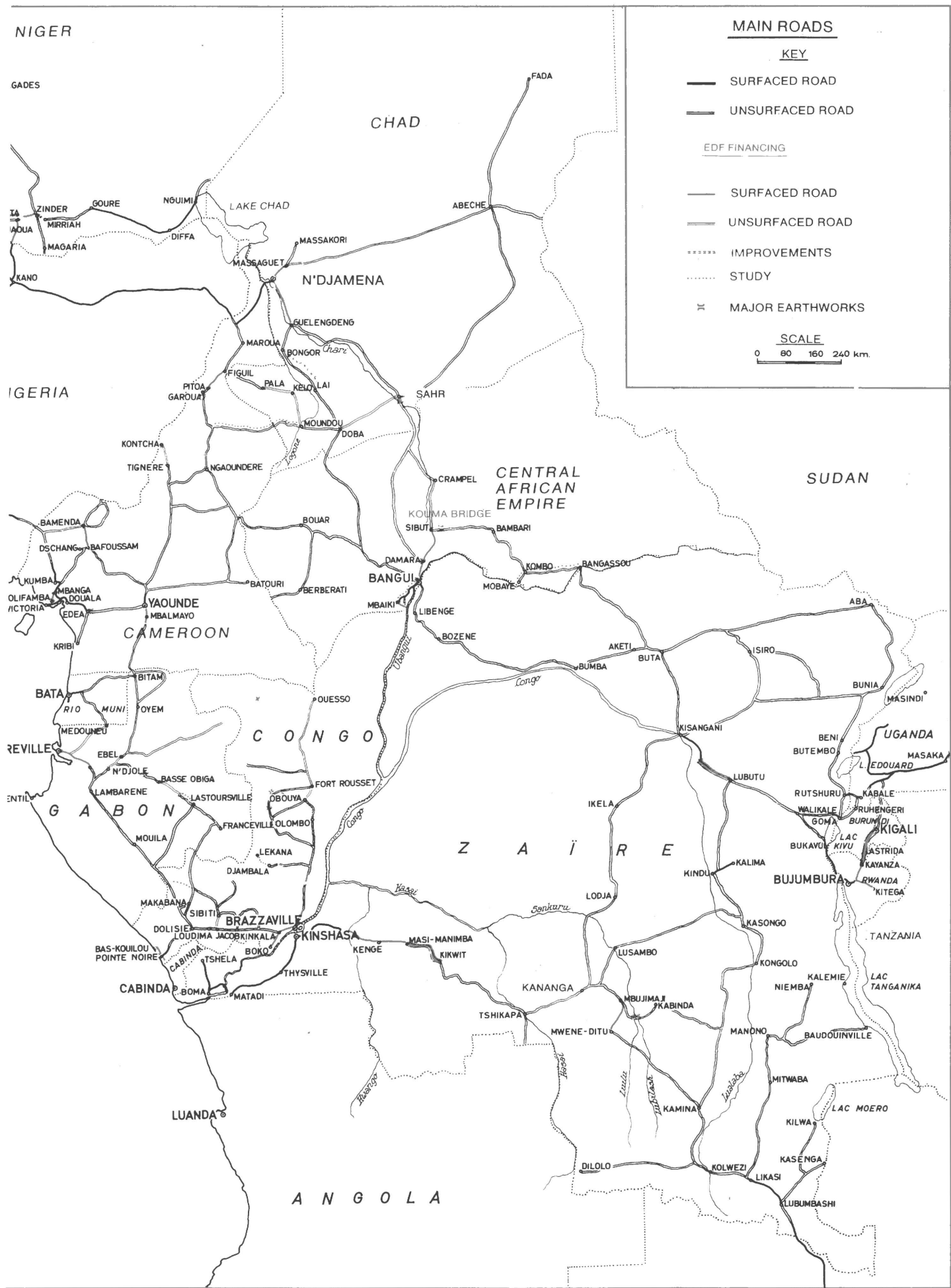
No EDF contribution to financing.

Country	Sections	Km
Algeria	Alger-Tamanrasset-Point Y	2 045
	a) Point Y-frontier Mali	400
	b) Point Y-frontier Niger	350
Mali	a) Frontier-Gao	560
Niger	b) Frontier-Kongolan	979
Nigeria	b) Kongolan-Lagos	1 299
	Total (surfaced: 3 039)	5 633

5. Trans-East African highway: Cairo-Gaborone

Country	Sections	Km
Egypt	Cairo-Aswan-Wadi Halfa	1 265
Sudan	Wadi Halfa-Khartoum-Gallasat	1 516
Ethiopia	Metema-Addis Ababa-Moyale	1 721
Kenya	Moyale-Douama-Tunduma	1 234
Zambia	Tunduma-Lusaka-Kazungula	1 547
Botswana	Kazungula-Nata-Francistown-Gaborone	923
	Total (surfaced: 5)	9 150

The Kazungula-Nata road (299 km) in Botswana comes under the EDF regional programme.



The socio-economic impact of road access

A study of the Andapa Basin, Madagascar

by Birgitta MITCHELL (*)

If progress comes through the spread of ideas, communications, and roads in particular, are the principal means of bringing people and their ideas together. The importance of mobility to development needs no demonstration, if only in the case of mineral resources that remain unexploited for lack of access. A new road brings changes in all sorts of ways — and it is just because of this that it is difficult to assess the effect of a new road at the planning stage.

Birgitta Mitchell takes the example of the effects of a road on a peasant community, with a long tradition of subsistence farming, in north Madagascar. The economic and social possibilities opened by the new road could be measured with some degree of accuracy because the conditions in the community were well defined and contained within particular natural limits.

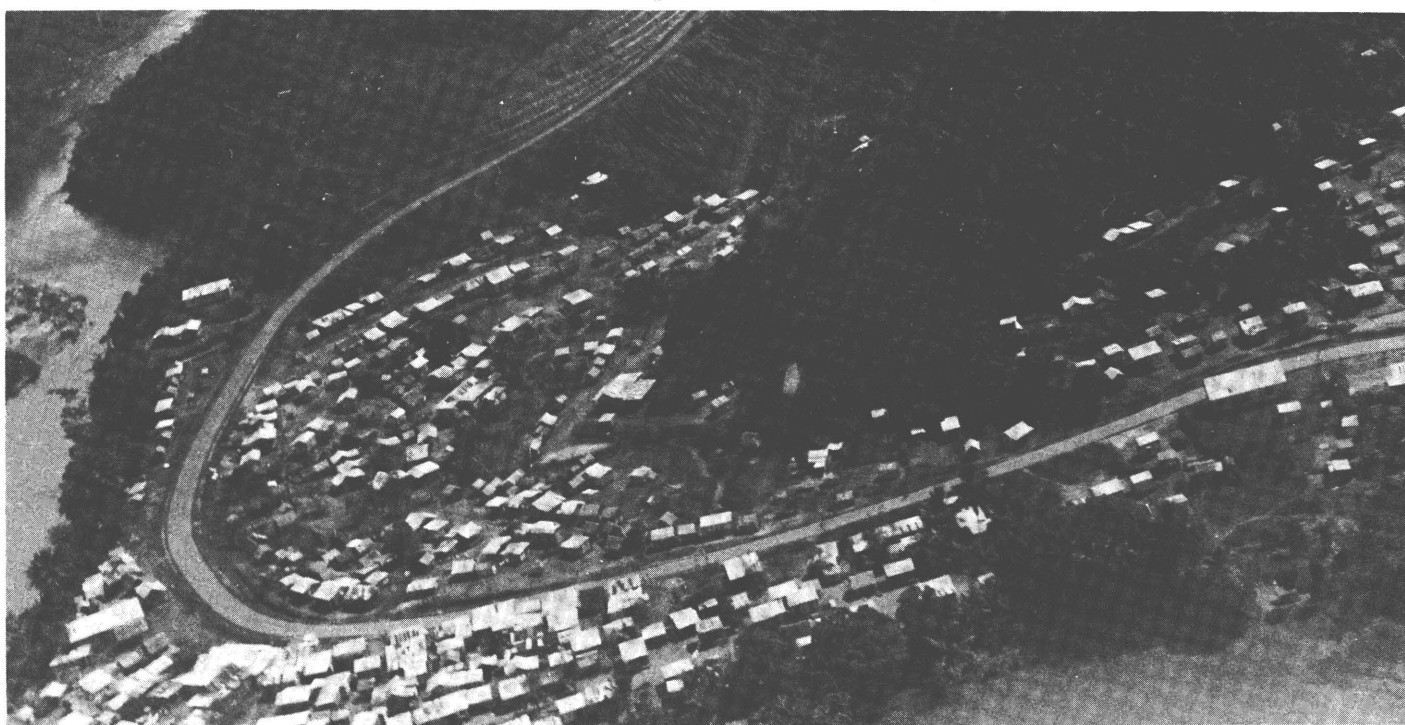
(*) World Bank expert.

“The methodology commonly used for evaluating major highway investments—the road user savings approach—has not always proved a satisfactory measure of the project’s contribution to regional economic development,” she writes. “Researchers at the World Bank and in other organizations have worked towards developing alternative methodologies which would allow a more complete measurement of the economic benefits of assured access and low cost transport services in previously isolated rural areas”.

The Andapa-Sambava road in north-east Madagascar is a typical example of a feeder road and the first one for which an impact analysis has been completed. When it was opened in 1970, the road provided a first all-weather link between the seaport of Sambava and the town of Andapa, administrative centre of a fertile basin area inland, where 10-15 000 families cultivate mainly vanilla and coffee for cash, and rice and manioc for subsistence. Before the road was constructed, piston air transport was the only connection between the basin and the rest of the country. The construction of the 107 km, two-lane asphalt road was financially assisted by the European Development Fund; the same agency is also implementing an agricultural project (extension, irrigation/drainage) in the region.

At the time (1964/65) as road construction was initiated in Sambava, a detailed regional survey was carried out in the Andapa Basin; it was financed jointly by the EDF and the French government agency, the Fonds d’Aide et de Coopération (FAC). The study assembled detailed information on the region’s physical characteristics, population, infrastructure endowment, land tenure and cropping patterns, exports and imports, as well as on area household incomes and expenditures. Although initially planned, no post-project study had been attempted until, with the cooperation and support of the Malagasy authorities, a World Bank-financed follow-up survey was carried out in 1975.

Aerial view of the Andapa-Sambava road in Madagascar



The comparative analysis of the two surveys focussed on four major aspects: a descriptive comparison of regional infrastructure, administrative organization, social service facilities and use; a comparative estimate of volume, composition and value of regional agricultural production for the market and for subsistence; a comparative estimate of household and per capita incomes both by occupational group and by distance of household location from the road; and a comparison of consumption expenditure patterns and levels before/without and after/with the road.

The main purpose of the descriptive comparison of various aspects of the regional system was to sort out the impacts attributable to the road proper from those due to other intervening factors. Chief among the latter were changes in local administrative organization, the introduction of extension services for coffee producers, and the existence, throughout the region, of centrally administered prices both for the major crops produced (vanilla, coffee, rice) and for road transport services.

Higher incomes

The economic analysis employed both the road user savings and a "producer surplus" approach to estimate the road benefits. The former measure indicated that the road was a marginal investment (economic rate of return = 6.3%). The producer surplus measure, by contrast (since it covers the substantial benefits on self-consumption as well as on marketed production), showed the road to have been an acceptable investment (economic rate of return = 11.4%). Interestingly, both results are highly sensitive to the smooth phasing of the road and agriculture projects. A "hypothetic" estimate that assumed a normal road construction period (3 years) and the concurrence of the opening of the road with the first significant rice production for export from the region almost doubled the economic rates of return for the combined road and agriculture project package.

While the economic analysis established the contribution of the road investment to the Malagasy economy as a whole, the comparison of local household income levels with and without the project more concretely reflects its impact on the regional level of living. The study shows that farm incomes in the follow-up survey period have increased substantially. As producer prices of major local crops have risen, farmers have responded to the opportunity of earning better returns on their crops. They market somewhat less vanilla and greater amounts of coffee, a traditional local cash crop on which extension efforts have centred to date. They also now export rice, traditionally grown for subsistence only, and for which there was only a negligible local market without the road. Prevailing patterns of land ownership—mostly families on their own land—have contributed to equitable sharing by area residents in overall income gains: income differentials between the highest and lowest income groups are narrower in 1975 than in 1965. Interestingly, respondents living within five kilometres of Andapa and the new road on average had higher incomes in 1965 and gained almost 50 percentage points more than less centrally located area farmers in 1975.

A more varied diet

In analyzing area consumption expenditure patterns for 1965 and 1975, the study reaffirms the validity of Engel's Law⁽¹⁾: the poor spend a greater part of their income on food than the rich. However, although incomes of all groups rose in real terms over the 10-year study horizon, the proportion spent on food did not decline for any of them: it rose from 71% to 79% of total income for farmers, and from



Etablissements Murr Feres

A further view of the Andapa road

31% to 41% for traders. This seeming suspension of Engel's Law over time reflects both different price movements for different types of goods over the study period (the price of rice, the region's staple food more than doubled between 1965 and 1975) and a change by area residents to different types of food products, as a more varied supply of non-local items has become available and affordable in Andapa after completion of the road.

The quality of shelter for area residents also has improved considerably: three-quarters of the houses had metal roofs in 1975, compared to one quarter in 1965. Furniture is owned by a larger proportion of respondents; lighting used is better and safer (storm lamps) than 10 years earlier. Piped water is available in the urban areas, but sanitary facilities remain basic and a continued source of debilitating diseases. Per capita expenditures for transport and travel have changed markedly. In 1965, transport services were used almost exclusively by people in the top two expenditure deciles: air travel was a luxury available to few. In 1975, respondents in all deciles report expenditure for travel: the road has extended mobility to all income groups.

Area residents were also asked about their personal goals and about development priorities for their communities. Individual priorities are better housing and larger farm operations; all-weather local roads, improved health care and more schools head the list of community goals. Based on their past responses and present aspirations, Andapa farmers can be expected to respond well to future opportunities which will open up to them with the full implementation of the EDF-assisted agriculture projects in the region. □B.M.

(1) A law of economics stating that, with given preferences, the proportion of income spent on food diminishes as incomes increase. Formulated by Ernst Engel in a paper published in 1857.

Strait road to Africa?

Will it really be long before we can go from Mombasa to Lisbon via Lagos, Niamey, Algiers or Rabat over proper roads, or go from Lusaka to Madrid via Cairo, Tripoli and Tangiers without the journey seeming a dangerous expedition? It would be difficult to put a date to it. But is it really so utopian to think that such mammoth expeditions will be commonplace in the not-so-distant future and that they will not require special vehicles or involve a variety of means of transport?

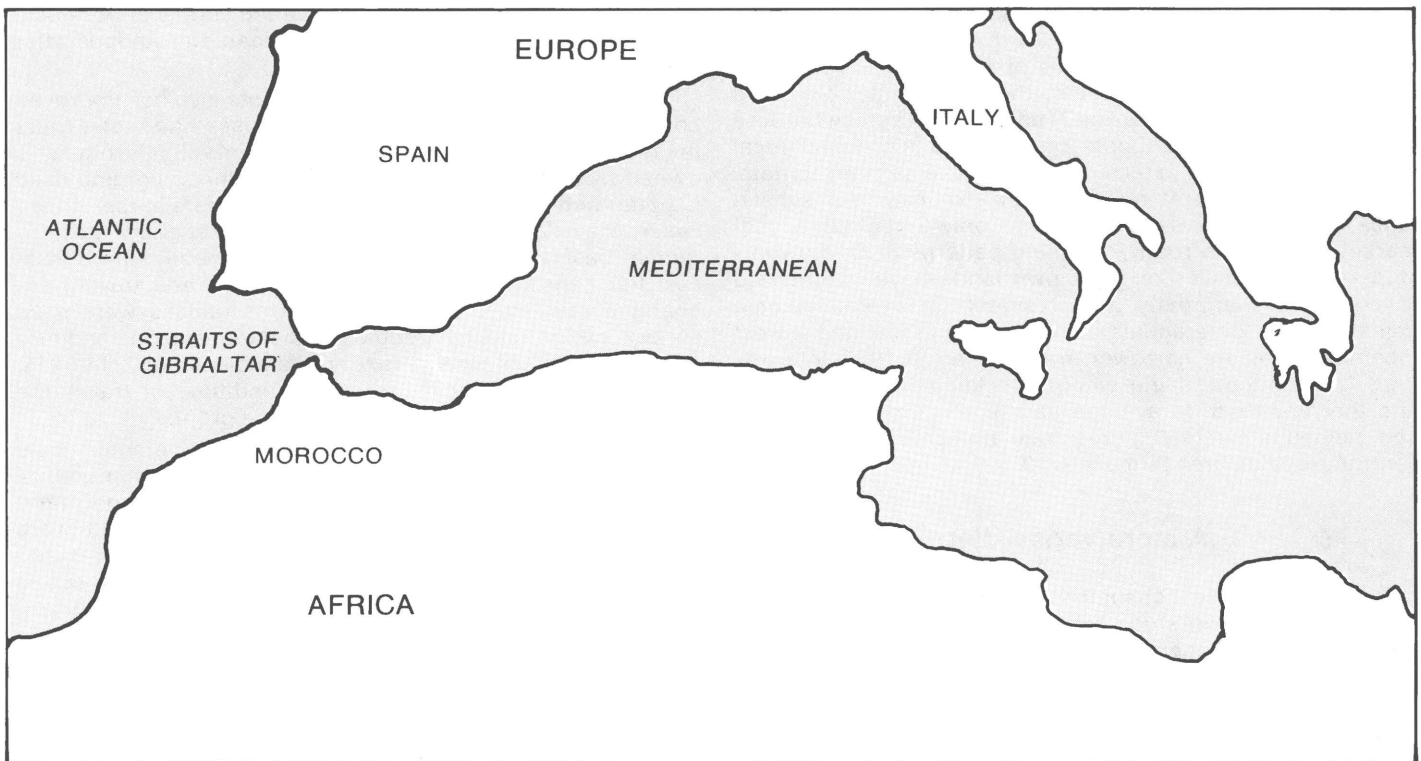
The desert looks as though it is beaten. On 19 June 1978, Algerian President Houari Boumediene inaugurated the Algiers-Tamanrasset road. Once the main transcontinental roads now being planned and built are finished, it will be easy to travel between any two points in Africa. There is no doubt that the next step will be to break down the continent's isolation and build a permanent road link with Europe. And what better place to build it than across the Straits of Gibraltar?

The idea of a Europe-Africa road has been with us for some time. It was Pena Bœuf, a Spanish engineer, who, struck by the fact that Morocco and Spain were only 13 km apart at the narrowest point, first studied the possibility of linking the two across the Straits of Gibraltar. In April 1972, the idea was taken up by another Spaniard, Mr Arespacochaga, then chairman of the Spanish Road Association and mayor of Madrid, who discussed it in a paper at the second African Road Conference in Rabat. But Arespacochaga analysed the volume of trade both ways across the Straits and concluded that the amount of traffic, the most important basic factor, was not enough to warrant building the link.

But, since then, traffic has increased steadily, largely due to the development of the tourist trade. And it will increase further once the trans-Sahara is finished and carries some of the trade from the countries it serves (Mali, Niger and Upper Volta) to ports in Algeria and Morocco. Moreover, a road of this kind would encourage more traffic. There are many examples of supposedly uneconomic roads that turn out to be very judicious investments once they are built.

When the decision to build the Africa-Europe highway has been taken, there will be a choice to make. A tunnel under the Straits? A tube on the sea bed? A fixed bridge? Or a floating bridge? They all have their advantages and their drawbacks. The Spanish government investigated the matter and has a series of studies on the different options, but, for some time now, it has looked as though the Spaniards have handed over to the Moroccans, who are very interested in the venture. Understandably so, as it would mean that anyone going to or from Europe would have to go through Morocco. The situation would be similar to the one in the Suez Canal area, with the same kind of economic implications. So the Moroccan government does not want the plans for the future road to be put aside and it was with its encouragement that the third African Road Conference, at Abidjan in October 1976, decided in principle to study a fixed link between Africa and Europe. The Moroccan delegation told the conference that there was a depth of 350 m to cope with at the narrowest point, but only 100 m at the most a little further to the west, although, of course, the Straits are wider (21-22 km) here. But this is where the Moroccans feel the route should go.

Undeniably, the idea of joining Africa and Europe across the Straits of Gibraltar made great strides between the second African Road Conference in Rabat in 1972 and the third in Abidjan in 1976. The fourth is in 1980... □ A.T.



The British Council: from cultural diplomacy to educational aid^(*)

Diplomacy is not only a matter of politics and trade. There is also cultural diplomacy, through which countries learn more about each other's way of life and artistic or intellectual achievements. The two EEC countries which have most influenced the ACP countries in this sphere are Britain and France, both of which have specialized bodies whose job is cultural diplomacy.

The French were the first off the mark with the Alliance Française, founded in 1883, and the UK followed with the British Council, which was established some 50 years later as an independent body responsible to the government, and is basically funded through the Foreign and Commonwealth Office and the Ministry of Overseas Development.

Why the latter? Because the uncertain dividing line between "culture" and "education" has shifted further, to include "aid". The British Council, now represented in 83 countries, is a major

provider of education and training for the Third World.

The British Council has always been involved in teaching English. Last year it was running or supporting courses for 122 000 foreign students learning the language. In developing countries, the Council was involved in education from an early stage, first through English teaching in the Middle East and Latin America, and then through assistance to teacher training and library development in Asia and Africa.

Then, because it was already providing services to overseas students in Britain and had a network of overseas offices, it became the natural agency to use in placing and looking after trainees under the Colombo Plan agreement in 1951. As major development aid programmes began, a process marked in Britain by the creation of the Ministry of Overseas Development in 1964, so the Council was called upon to administer more and more educational aid programmes—training schemes for more than 5 000 people a year, teacher recruitment (over 800 a year), education seminars, consultancy visits, book presentation schemes (over £2.5 worth so far), media development and so forth—until today more than

half the money the Council spends comes from the Ministry of Overseas Development.

The multilateral dimension

Not all the aid and training money which the Council spends comes from the ministry in Britain. The Council looks after 1 400 United Nations students a year (it has been handling them since 1947) besides Council of Europe and OECD students.

And since the signing of an agreement with the EEC in 1975, the number of European Development Fund students sent to Britain from the ACP countries and placed under the Council's wing has risen steadily, so that there are now 250 on courses in Britain with another 150 expected in the coming year. The EDF students' courses, carefully chosen for them by the Council's own professional advisers and with the help of British educational institutions, cover fields of study ranging from applied entomology to welding.

The primary producers take off

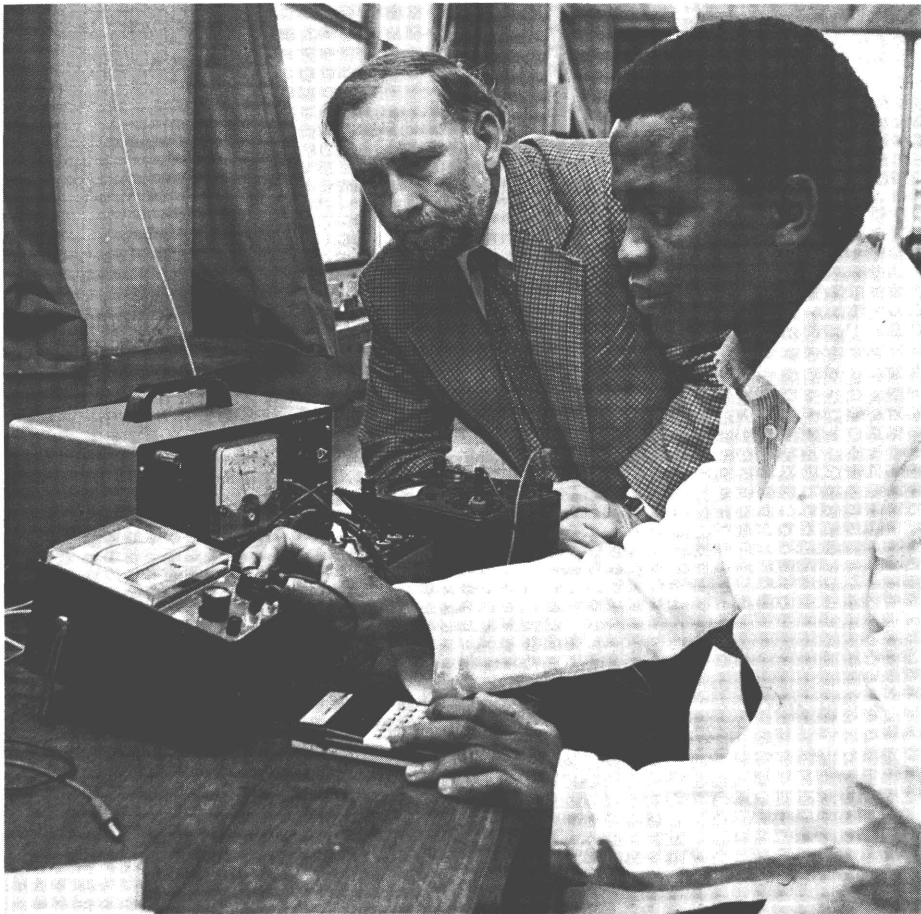
Since 1975 it has been the objective of British policy to concentrate aid on the poorest people and poorest countries, as designated by the United Nations. This has meant that there is less money available for the richer developing countries. Some of them, the OPEC countries, have moved altogether out of the aid category since the rise in oil prices in 1973. But because a country has more money it does not necessarily mean that it has ceased to require services previously provided from aid funds. So for the last five years the Council has been engaged in selling educational services. The work involved is the same as the Council's traditional work; the only differences are that the costs are recovered from the client and the work is managed as a project, not as a series of routine schemes.

Just as the Council has traditionally organized training in Britain on behalf of the Ministry of Overseas Development and United Nations agencies, so increasingly it is doing so for overseas governments. Examples are 220 students placed for the Nigerian government in 50 different technical and education colleges around Britain; a two year programme to train veterinarians from Iran; and another, on behalf of the Kuwait Ministry of Health and

(*) From British Council staff.



A Jamaican horticulture student really gets into his work at Kew Gardens, London



Sponsored by the British Council, a Zambian student learns laboratory techniques at Paddington Technical College, London

Planning, which covers not just one regular course but intensive English language training, computer programming and practical industrial attachments.

Looking after people

Operations like these on behalf of the EDF, the British aid programme, the UN agencies, or richer developing countries require the maintenance of a great range of contacts in Britain. Council staff have to establish which course is the right one for each individual student's needs, what preliminary English training will be necessary and where to arrange it; to sort out the payment of fees and the multiplicity of personal allowances; to provide a guide and perhaps an interpreter to meet new arrivals; and to help them find accommodation and settle down in Britain. It would scarcely be possible to arrange all this from London, and the Council accordingly has a network of 25 offices around the United Kingdom.

The full treatment

Training arrangements are, however, only one part of the range of services

in education which the Council offers to overseas governments and multilateral agencies against payment. Paid educational services already taken up by overseas clients have included consultancy visits from Britain; full scale feasibility studies; the design and implementation of manpower development programme and the development of training institutions.

In handling such projects the Council is now well practised in collaborating both with teachers from universities and colleges and with private consultants such as architects and engineers.

Not all paid educational services are provided to the richer developing countries. Where a government is to get a loan from a multilateral donor agency for, say, a manpower development plan, there will often be a need for the services of a specialist organization to provide the technical assistance component.

The Council is now registered as a project implementing agency with the EEC, the World Bank, Inter-American Development Bank and Asian Development Bank.

Under the World Bank-funded technical education project in Egypt, the

Council is collaborating with three ministries in projects aimed at improving technical education. The Council's involvement consists of the provision of some 125 man-months of consultancies in curriculum design, equipment specification and installation, and the provision of 720 man-months of training for Egyptian instructors and senior personnel in Britain in a wide range of technical subjects.

Working with the BBC and the Independent Broadcasting Authority, and using its own educational technology specialists, the Council sent out a team of consultants to advise the Lesotho government on the facilities, equipment and staff necessary to set up their new educational broadcasting service. Once again, the World Bank backed the project.

With 44 years' experience in English teaching and educational cooperation, the Council has a sure foundation from which to provide such "paid educational services". The concept of these services is still only five years old but the Council confidently looks forward to big developments in this field before another five years are out. □

A Guyanese girl shows that welding needn't be a man's job at Chesterfield College of Technology



Evaluation of health projects

Meeting of ACP and EEC experts

For the first time within the framework of the technical and financial cooperation set up by the Lomé Convention, the Commission has called upon EEC and ACP experts to discuss the conclusions of the ex-post evaluation of development schemes in a particular field of activity. (see *Courier* no. 53, pp. XIII and XIV).

At the invitation of the Sierra Leone government, this first meeting, on health, was held in Freetown on 11-13 December 1978.

Both ACP and EEC countries were keen on the idea of top civil servants and other leaders from the health sector discussing the subject and the meeting was attended by 47 people—31 experts representing 31 ACP countries, eight experts representing seven of the Member States of the Community, two observers from the EEC Council of Ministers and six Commission officials.

The discussions took place in a atmosphere of frank and constructive cooperation. They were marked by their high technical and professional level and a considerable measure of mutual understanding.

The meeting was a success, as was emphasized by the ACP motion of thanks to the Commission, applauding it for having called such a meeting and encouraging any similar meetings in the future.

The success and the constructive results of the meeting pave the way for more such consultations.

Next year, the Commission intends organizing meetings to discuss the results of other assessments, particularly in the sectors of drinking water supply and integrated rural development.

The aim here is to help the joint ACP-EEC institutions gradually to evolve some sort of operational method that will increase the effectiveness of financial and technical cooperation.

The aim of the Freetown meeting was to:

- compare the results and conclusions of health project assessments carried out by the Commission with the experience of the relevant ACP authorities;

- see whether the conclusions drawn from health projects run by ex-signatories of the Yaoundé Convention could be applied in the wider context of the ACP group and, if so, how;

- jointly draw conclusions from completed schemes with a view to making future action more effective in this sector.

This joint effort is a practical manifestation of the spirit of close cooperation between ACP and EEC partners under the Lomé Convention (Article 50(')).

Gaetano Speranza, head of general development policy at the Commission, was in the chair. He was assisted by two vice-chairmen: Dr Belmont Williams (Sierra Leone), representing the ACP group, and Dr Ernert (Germany), representing the Member States of the

Community. The meeting lasted three days and dealt with the following:

- health policy as part of general development policy;
- health policy—aims and priorities;
- health schemes—intersectoral coherence;
- staff training;
- general design of infrastructure;
- technical design, operation and maintenance of infrastructure and facilities.

A number of conclusions on operational matters and policy were reached at the end of the discussions. Both ACP and EEC experts wanted these sectoral guidelines to be submitted to the joint ACP/EEC institutions so that the partners to the Lomé Convention could themselves decide together, on such a basis, future guidelines for cooperation in this sector. The definition of joint sectoral policy ensures feed-back right to project design stage. It is still obviously up to the ACP countries to choose their own development aims, but the strategies involved and the means of reaching the targets with Community aid can be shaped jointly.

The full text of the Freetown policy statement follows on the next two pages.



Health minister Mr H. Williams of Sierra Leone opens the meeting, with, on his right, Commission delegate Christopher Collins and Charles Van der Vaeren, head of the evaluation of EDF operations; on his left, Gaetano Speranza, a director at the Commission

EDF health projects

Basic principles drawn from ex-post evaluation (*)

Integration of aid to the health sector in economic and social development

Direct improvement in the well-being of the population of developing countries can be achieved in particular by (a) promoting living conditions that are conducive to healthy life, both physical and mental, and (b) enabling the whole of the population to have access to the health services, without discontinuity or geographical obstacles, and at an acceptable cost.

Improving health conditions thus directly contributes to the whole process of national development. Consequently, any policy for the development of health facilities, any investment in health infrastructure and any other action in the field of health, together with any external aid, should be woven harmoniously into the socio-economic fabric of the country and into its general development plan. All activity in the health field—curative and preventive medicine and health education—should be integrated into a coherent system and programme, comprising all the health services in the country, both public and private. Health education schemes, measures to combat malnutrition, programmes for the protection of mother and infant and vaccination campaigns are aspects of this system which are as essential as investment in health infrastructure and constitute one of the prerequisites for its effectiveness.

The effectiveness of health projects in general depends largely on other development operations in the fields of food production, water supply, drainage, communications and housing, as well as in education, in training and in applied research, preparing concrete operations. Programmes for laying in water supplies and disposing of refuse and waste water are particularly impor-

tant since they help to improve the biological environment, the quality of which is a prevalent cause of disease in the developing world.

Such activities are made more effective if the beneficiary communities are involved in organizing and carrying them out at local level, and if the health manpower to be trained is drawn from the communities themselves.

A priority aim—meeting the requirements of the underprivileged groups and areas

An examination of the utilization of the projects evaluated reveals, in many countries, imbalances in the distribution of funds, equipment and staff in favour of the large towns and curative medicine, to the detriment of both rural areas and preventive medicine. One of the results of these imbalances is that the health infrastructure in rural areas is frequently under-utilized. Aid in the health sector should, therefore, first be directed to the people who have little or no access to health services, especially in rural areas and in rapidly expanding centres of population on the outskirts of big towns. The priority needs can be met:

(a) by improving the network of basic structure (including support facilities such as transport and staff housing) from which it would be possible to operate integrated health schemes down to primary health care services: curative and preventive medicine, social medicine, health surveys and education, mother and child care, general and mental hygiene campaigns, and so on;

(b) by giving direct support to mass health protection schemes: campaigns against endemic diseases, disease prevention and detection campaigns, etc.

Aid directed along these lines would strengthen the overall effectiveness of all the national health systems, through a more balanced and more rational use of the existing structures, the financial resources available and the medical and ancillary medical staff on the spot. It would thereby increase the rural

population's access to, and acceptance of, health facilities.

Choice and design of public health projects

Experience gained in the implementation and utilization of health projects financed from EDF resources has led to the following guidelines being evolved, which determine the effectiveness and viability of capital projects of this nature.

In order to guarantee the best choice and basic design of a project, it is essential to:

(a) take into account the needs and aspirations of the population and determine the various possible ways of meeting them;

(b) ascertain whether the project selected respects the criterion of rationality within the country's health policy;

(c) check whether the declared health policy is backed up in reality by the funds and staff required to run the health services;

(d) utilize to the full regional resources in materials and skilled manpower;

(e) obtain assurance that any necessary inputs complementary to those to be provided by EDF are planned and will be secured, when required, from national sources (in any appropriate form) or from external sources.

If a health investment project is to be as useful as it ought to be and operate rationally and economically, it has to be integrated into a coherent, well-balanced health service infrastructure. To avoid distortions or imbalances at national level, the health services should be built up in accordance with two basic principles:

(a) appropriate regionalization and devolution; the organization of facilities and the devolution of responsibilities on a regional basis should reconcile the population's health needs with the availability of staff and operational financing;

(b) the hierarchical organization of the various levels of health facility from the angles of specialization and capacity; the kind of equipment installed at each level should follow the same pattern.

In order to guarantee appropriate use of all units in the health system, rules should be laid down to ensure that the appropriate channels are in fact followed when patients are referred from one place or level to another.

(*) In 1974 the Commission evaluated the state, utilization and effectiveness of 24 public health infrastructure projects and projects involving temporary operating aid. These projects were located in six African states and Madagascar and were financed from the resources of the European Development Fund.

The characteristics of the health infrastructure, its installations and equipment, should be carefully adapted to the country's capacity as regards funds and staff; a long-term programme should be drawn up to increase this capacity coherently, and the funds and staff thus built up should be deployed in such a way as to fit in with the regionalized and hierarchical organization of the health services as a whole.

Before deciding a new capital investment provision should be made for an annual budget sufficient to maintain the investment and replace equipment after a normal period of utilization.

Training

Staff training schemes should be arranged to suit the requirements of infrastructure and the various health projects so as to ensure that, when needed, there is an adequate number of:

- (a) medical and ancillary medical staff and instructors for these staff,
- (b) maintenance, management and administrative staff, at all levels. These schemes must be complemented by appropriate organization of management and maintenance work.

In order to ensure that medical and ancillary medical staff are suitably qualified, training should be carried out, preferably in universities and training establishments in the ACP states, according to a syllabus which is adapted to local health requirements, with particular emphasis on the special needs of social medicine and health schemes in rural areas.

Personnel in charge of health services or units should also have been trained in management and supervi-

sion, and should also be able to train subordinates.

Staff must be prepared for the specific conditions in which they will work and live. To this end, the best staff could, depending on actual needs, go on to specialize only after a few years of practice in favour of the least privileged groups.

Provision must also be made for refresher and in-service training, in the home country whenever appropriate.

Maximum support should be given to regional training units, where units at the national level are found to be uneconomical. Exchange of training staff between countries should also be encouraged.

General and technical design of capital projects in the health sector

As regards the **general design** of a capital project in the health sector, experience suggests the following principles for project selection:

- (a) priority should be given to projects which are likely to increase the efficiency of the health services while keeping the increase in recurrent costs to a minimum;
- (b) the renovation (adaptation, modernization, extension) of existing establishments should have priority over the construction of new facilities.

In view of the constant changes in the socio-economic condition of the countries concerned and in treatment techniques, the essential requirement for a health project is flexibility of **technical design**; this means:

- (a) the possibility of extension, for example by choosing a system based on hospital pavillions;

- (b) interchangeability, through the use of suitable multipurpose structural units;

- (c) transformability, so that changes which prove necessary can be made.

In order to provide effective and continuous medical services using limited resources, the technical design of a health project should be adapted not only to the environment and climate but also to the standard of living and customs of the population concerned, the ability of local staff to run and maintain the project and the experience of the users. The various technical solutions that are possible should be examined in the light of these imperatives.

As a rule the technical design should aim at simplicity and standardization, while still taking advantage of technical progress. This applies to the architectural design, the structure of the buildings, the choice of building materials and, especially, the fixtures and equipment (refrigeration, electrical, heating and telephone installations; lifts, electric pumps, air-conditioning systems, etc.) and medical apparatus (X-ray equipment, sterilizers, etc.). There should be more support for research into equipment appropriate to health units in developing countries.

To avoid prolonged breakdowns—which occur very frequently—when the project gets under way, account should be taken of the need for easy maintenance in the choice of fixtures and medical apparatus. Suppliers should be obliged to guarantee a regular supply of spare parts; those which also provide a breakdown service for complex installations and equipment should be favoured when contracts are awarded.

For health infrastructure projects to run smoothly and be used effectively it is important that there be an adequate supply of water and, in the case of hospitals, electricity. A great number of precautions should therefore be taken before considering siting such projects in centres without regular water and electricity supplies.

Extended aid for health projects

As far as the Community is concerned, an operation to provide technical assistance or to cover a share of the running costs of any part of the health infrastructure, such as a hospital, can be considered only as an exceptional and temporary starting-up



Child care clinic in Chad

operation, it being understood that the beneficiary country undertakes gradually to cover the running costs itself.

Experience has shown that such aid can help develop the country's health facilities in as much as it contributes:

(a) to the starting-up of the new health activity under the best technical conditions;

(b) to on-the-job training of national doctors and ancillary medical staff, which can reduce brain drain;

(c) to the preparation under the best possible conditions and in as short a time as possible for the replacement of expatriate by national staff.

It would, however, be of questionable value if external aid relieved the beneficiary country of its responsibility for bearing the burden of managing the capital project; in this case there would be a danger that aid would merely defer and aggravate the problem of running the project or lead to wastage and distortion of the capital resources available for development.

Conclusions and recommendations

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.

Since it is widely recognized that development problems should be tackled in an integrated way, special attention should be given to the desirability of including, into every integrated action, a socio-sanitary 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, including aid to establish health programmes, 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 express 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.

□

EDF PROJECTS

The University of Botswana and Swaziland

Both Botswana and Swaziland are in great need of qualified staff to maintain their rate of economic expansion. And both countries are cutting down on their foreign cadres and increasing local control over the main sectors of the economy.

Both countries have small populations (Botswana 600 000, Swaziland 500 000) and, since 1975, they have had a joint university, the UBS, where their qualified staff can be trained in the two countries.

They applied for Community aid (regional cooperation, Article 47 of the Lomé Convention) and, in 1977, received a grant of 3.5 million EUA to be shared equally between the two establishments.

Professor S.M. Guma, rector of UBS-Swaziland, described how his university contributes to the country's development and outlined one or two of the problems and prospects facing a university in this part of the world.

Distribution of tasks

The story of UBS began back in 1964, when the University of Basutoland, Bechuanaland and Swaziland (UBBS) was set up.

When Botswana and Lesotho became independent, in 1966, UBLS was created and this lasted until 1975 when Lesotho withdrew to set up its own national university.

The two remaining countries had to adapt to the new situation, but they felt that the regional association was worth continuing.

Both establishments take students with 'O' level (corresponding to European 'A' level) diplomas for four-year courses of high-level training. There are three UBS campuses, one in Botswana, at Gaborone, and two in Swaziland, at Kwaluseni and Luyengo (faculty of agriculture).

Courses are generally in two parts, with degree examinations at the end of part two. The various faculties are as follows:

	Botswana	Swaziland
Part I (two years)	Human science Economics & social science Education Agriculture Science	Human science Economics & social science Education Agriculture Science Law, commerce & accountancy
Part II (two years)	Human science Economics & social science Education Science	Human science Agriculture Education Law, commerce & accountancy

Students wishings to study subjects, such as engineering, medicine and geology, which are not offered at UBS have to go to Europe or other parts of Africa. There are already close links with some departments in European universities (e.g. law at Edinburgh). Professor Guma is anxious for a "considerable extension of our cooperation with European universities".

Community financing

As Professor Guma sees it, EDF aid geared to increasing the numbers which the various campuses can house (by providing lecture rooms, hostels, laboratories, offices, refectories, improvement works, etc.) would be the best way of handling the rapid expansion of the student population. In Swaziland, for example, there were only 460 students in the 1975/76 academic year, but there are 785 now.

The professor regretted "that Community aid procedures were slowed down by the fact that this was the first time they had cooperated with a new donor and by there being only one Commission delegation to deal with projects in Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland". But progress had certainly been made and the completion of EDF-financed projects was eagerly awaited, he said.

This regional aid from the EDF fits in with a general programme to expand UBS, which already has considerable facilities, for which bilateral contribu-

tions from Canada, the UK, the USA, Denmark, the Netherlands and other donors have already been received.

Universities as small as this usually have high running costs, but, in view of the geo-political situation, other equally important criteria have to be used. As well as having the advantage of making it possible to share certain facilities, UBS, as a regional association, has played a political role by accepting students (including some refugees) from Zimbabwe and South Africa and enabling students from Swaziland and Botswana to be taught in a non-racialistic atmosphere.

Problems

In addition to the extension projects being financed by the EDF and other donors, there are still a number of other problems of design to be solved. As Professor Guma said, "we have to adapt all our teaching structures to the rapid development of our societies and we must adjust the present system which the colonialists left us".

So greater attention will be paid to teaching agriculture at pre-university level and to technical and scientific subjects. Students tend to be fairly weak in mathematics, chemistry, physics, biology and so on. Pre-part I preparatory classes had to be put on to bring down the present unacceptably high rate of failure in these branches. Some 60 students attended the course, which lasted four months and was partially financed by the EDF.



Rector of UBS, Professor S.M. Guma

The government also intends asking the university to do more research proper.

But the government is sometimes its own worst enemy, as students who train to be teachers, for example, find plenty of better paid jobs in the ministries and other departments.

There is also the problem of the shortage of local teachers at UBS. The vast majority of staff are foreigners and a stringent programme has therefore been introduced to phase them out.

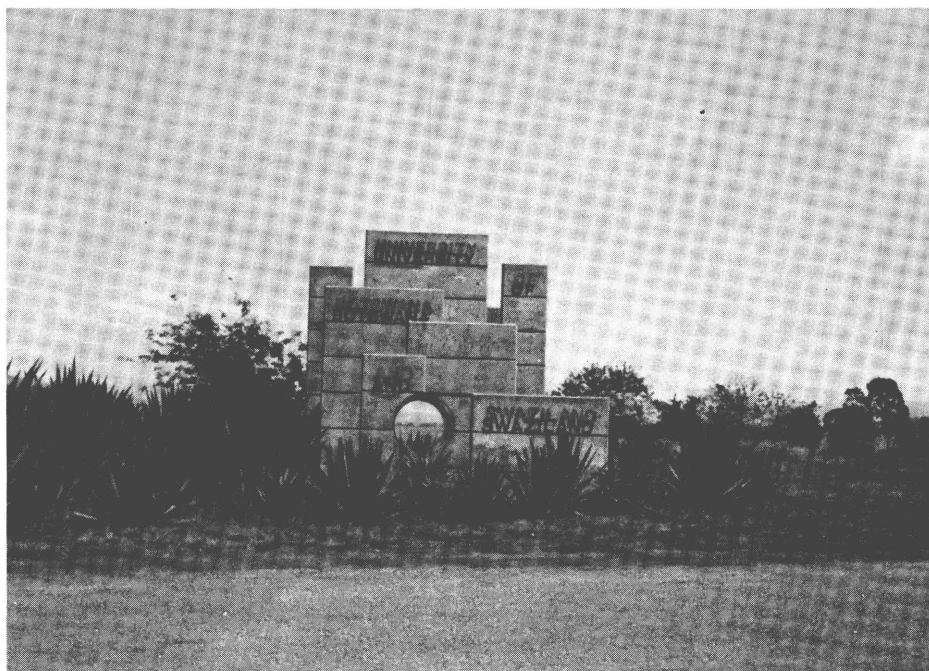
The most promising graduates can now become teaching assistants for a year after qualifying and then go abroad for a two-year stint of advanced training. Steps are taken to prevent a brain drain.

Direct links have been established with private industry, where students can go on courses.

However, UBS is still unable to meet the demand for people with specialized knowledge (in mining for example) from this sector, or indeed from the country as a whole.

Finally, regional cooperation brings problems as well as advantages. Professor Guma said that "the unexpected and regrettable breakaway of Lesotho in 1975 clearly showed the need for complete frankness and honesty between partners.

"Bearing in mind how isolated we are in this part of the world, the advantages of regional cooperation are inestimable." □ R.D.B.



The removal of Lesotho's name has left traces on this slab at the entrance to the university

A campaign for the repatriation of works of art

Works of art have been much sought after as possessions since time immemorial. Museums, churches and private connoisseurs have always collected them for love, and in times of inflation and speculation, others have collected them for money, as a hedge against the erosion of their fortunes.

There is a third motive that inspires other art collectors. They are the national authorities who wish to reassemble their countries' cultural heritages, scattered by the hazards of history, war and foreign occupation. A recent example of such a national work of art was the ceremonial breastplate of the kings of Benin, which the Nigerian government tried vainly to obtain from the British Museum for the FESTAC arts festival in Lagos.

Now UNESCO, the United Nations Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization, has launched a long-term campaign for the repatriation of works of art considered to be part of a national heritage.

Last June, Amadou Mahtar M'Bow, the Senegalese director-general of UNESCO, launched an appeal for certain works of art to be returned to their countries of origin. This provoked considerable reaction, as witnessed by a large number of articles in the press. But UNESCO was only referring to certain works of art, those that were the "most representative" of the culture of their countries and those to which these countries "attached the most importance and found it psychologically intolerable to do without". The people who now have the works of art are asked to share them with the countries that created them. A solemn appeal, to be sure, but a moderate one which reflects UNESCO's desire not to offend the present owners, the national museums, art galleries and private collectors. And there are signs of embarrassment too. Most UNESCO member countries are involved one way or another. Either they have such works of art or they are asking for them back.

The former colonies of Africa are not the only ones to have lost part of their

cultural heritage and the museums and private collectors in France, the UK and Belgium are not the only ones with works of art from abroad. This is a universal and age-old problem. More than 2 000 years ago, the Greek historian, Polybius, wrote about Roman pillaging. "I hope that future conquerors will learn not to found their national glory on the misfortunes of others" he said. But his wishes, alas, were never fulfilled and war continued to mean pillage. And when the fortunes of war changed and the vanquished became victors, they could often recover their property.

But this did not always happen. It was war and other vicissitudes of history that brought Mexican masterpieces into American museums and private collections. They brought the death mask of the Ashanti King Koffi and the Parthenon friezes into the British Museum, Easter Island treasures and Alaskan Eskimo and British Colombian art to the Leningrad museum of ethnography, Papuan masks to Australia and New Zealand, Benin bronzes to the UK and the USA, an ancient Egyptian obelisk to the Place de la Concorde in Paris and Leonardo da Vinci's Mona Lisa to the Louvre.

Problems

But how can some of these works of art be returned to the places where they were created several decades, or even several centuries, ago? Although it is difficult not to agree with Mr M'Bow, it has to be admitted that it is not always easy to get works of art sent home, particularly as they have sometimes come to be part of the national heritage of the host country. Various arguments are used against returning them. Here are some of the commonest:

Art is universal. Works of art belong to all mankind and they reflect man's creative genius wherever they are. "Yes, but," says Mr M'Bow in his appeal, "surely works of art gain in beauty and truth when (put back) in the natural and social surroundings in which they were created?"

Works of art must be available to visitors and research workers. This is the argument used (and sometimes quite rightly) by the British Museum. It has two million visitors a year, main-



Teke religious statuette from the Pool region of Zaire, one of many (see next two pages) which have been returned to Zaire by Belgium

From the appeal made by Mr Amadou Mahtar M'Bow, director-general of UNESCO

On behalf of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization which has empowered me to launch this appeal.

I solemnly call upon the governments of the Organization's Member States to conclude bilateral agreements for the return of cultural property to the countries from which it has been taken; to promote long-term loans, deposits, sales and donations between institutions concerned in order to encourage a fairer international exchange of cultural property, and, if they have not already done so, to ratify and rigorously enforce the Convention giving them effective means to prevent illicit trading in artistic and archaeological objects.

I call on all those working for the information media—journalists of press and radio, producers and authors of television programmes and films—to arouse worldwide a mighty and intense movement of public opinion so that respect for works of art leads, wherever necessary, to their return to their homeland.

I call on cultural organizations and specialized associations in all continents to help formulate and promote a stricter code of ethics with regard to the acquisition and conservation of cultural property, and to contribute to the gradual revision of codes of professional practice in this connection, on the lines of the initiative taken by the International Council of Museums.

I call on universities, libraries, public and private art galleries and museums that possess the most important collections, to share generously the objects in their keeping with the countries which created them and which sometimes no longer possess a single example.

I also call on institutions possessing several similar objects or records to part with at least one and return it to its country of origin, so that the young will not grow up without ever having the chance to see, at

close quarters, a work of art or a well-made item of handicraft fashioned by their ancestors.

I call on the authors of art books and on art critics to proclaim how much a work of art gains in beauty and truth for the uninitiated and for the scholar, when viewed in the natural and social setting in which it took shape.

I call on those responsible for preserving and restoring works of art to facilitate, by their advice and actions, the return of such works to the countries where they were created and to seek with imagination and perseverance for new ways of preserving and displaying them once they have been returned to their homeland.

I call on historians and educators to help others to understand the affliction a nation can suffer at the spoliation of the works it has created. The power of the *fait accompli* is a survival of barbaric times and a source of resentment and discord which prejudices the establishment of lasting peace and harmony between nations.

Finally, I appeal with special intensity and hope to artists themselves and to writers, poets and singers, asking them to testify that nations also need to be alive on an imaginative level.

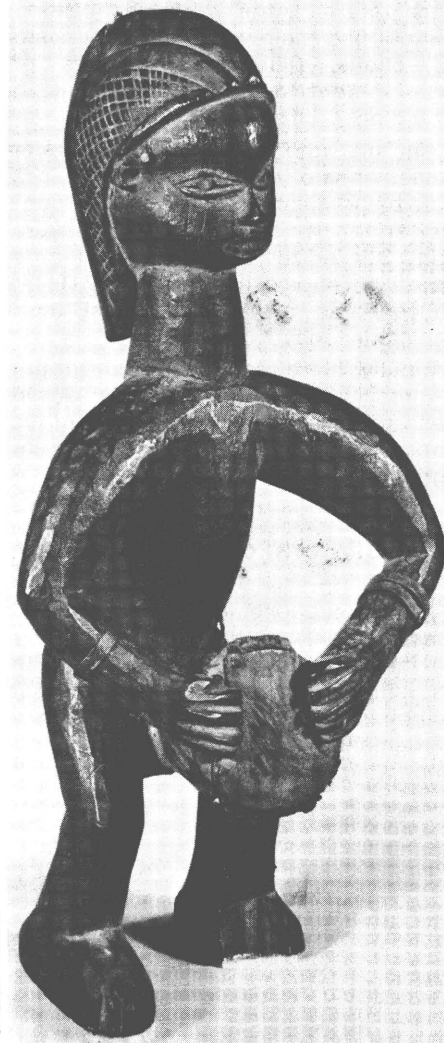
Two thousand years ago, the Greek historian Polybius urged us to refrain from turning other nations' misfortunes into embellishments for our own countries. Today when all peoples are acknowledged to be equal in dignity, I am convinced that international solidarity can, on the contrary, contribute practically to the general happiness of mankind.

The return of a work of art or record to the country which created it enables a people to recover part of its memory and identity, and proves that the long dialogue between civilizations which shapes the history of the world is still continuing in an atmosphere of mutual respect between nations. □

Amadou-Mahtar M'Bow

tains it is vital that the works should be shown to as many people as possible and claims to be able to do this better than any African museum could. True. But how many Africans are able to go and admire what their ancestors produced? And how many generations will be deprived of seeing high-quality examples of their national craft objects and works of art for themselves?

Then there is the lack of proper structures in some of the countries that have lost their art treasures. Huguette Van Geluwe(1), from the ethnography department of Belgium's royal museum of Central Africa, feels that "the main thing is to form collections and to provide proper facilities. Buildings, of course, but also qualified staff, specialists in restoration, conservation and so



Tervuren Museum

Mbala drummer, Kwilu region, used in investiture ceremonies for chiefs

on". The countries concerned admit this is true. They have been unable to develop this sector, although they are anxious to do so, because top priority must go to the economy. This is why they are asking the developed countries to help them set up the relevant infrastructure.

And there is a further argument. These works of art have yet to be inventoried. "Some countries are claiming back works of which they already have several examples themselves", Miss Van Geluwe said, taking down an art book from the crowded shelves in her Tervuren office and displaying photos of two statues, one in an African and one in a German museum. "We must have a full inventory of what each country still has", she said "and I am sure it will be full of pleasant surprises".

(1) Miss Van Geluwe sat on the committee of experts on setting up an intergovernmental committee to deal with returning or restoring cultural objects (March 1978, Dakar, Senegal).

Then there is no guarantee that, once returned, the works in question will not find their way to exile in private collections, filling the pockets of unscrupulous dealers on the way. It would not be the first time.

And just who are the legal owners of these works of art? Many of the pieces now being claimed back were the subject of bona fide sales and others were gifts. But did the sellers or the donors have any choice in the matter? Their descendants may well contest their decisions today.

Finally, there may be several rightful owners in cases where frontiers have been redrawn. But surely the countries concerned can reach some sort of agreement?

Bilateral cooperation

Let us suppose that, in spite of all these obstacles and barriers, a country decides to return the works housed in its national museums. In some cases it will be impossible and in most others a parliamentary vote will be called for. And what about private collections?

There is no legal way the government can force collectors to give back foreign works of art, since expropriation is virtually impossible. It can encourage them to sell, but the countries of origin tend to be poor and in any case refuse to buy back things that the present owners got for a song. In this case, Miss Van Geluwe says, they have to rely on getting them back as donations or legacies.

Fortunately, in spite of all these difficulties, many works of art have found their way back to their countries of origin following bilateral agreements. The USA has given much back to Peru, Guatemala, Syria, Hungary and Mexico. The Netherlands have returned works to Indonesia, the UK has returned them to Burma, and New Zealand and Australia have returned them to Papua New Guinea. France has concluded agreements with Laos and Nigeria with a view to returning some pieces. Italy has done the same with Ethiopia, and Belgium is working on an agreement with Zaire, undertaking to return a representative collection of the country's art to its national museums. The royal museum of Central Africa in Ter-

vuren has already returned 40 such works and has undertaken to train curators from Zaire.

Since legal and other obstacles make it difficult just to hand back the works of art in question, they could be returned to their countries via renewable, long-term loan agreements like the one between the Peabody Museum at Harvard and Panama's national authorities concerning a pre-colombian (8th-12th century) pot(1).

It is bilateral cooperation of this kind that UNESCO is trying to develop. But it has another aim in view in the current campaign—to put an end to the trade in works of art, by making all countries aware of the problem and getting them to bring in laws against it or to be more stringent in applying such laws as already exist. It is high time we took a firm stand against art trafficking and saved what remains of the depleted national heritage of many countries. □ A.T.

(1) Example quoted by Georges Fradier in "Cultural treasures in exile" *UNESCO, Courier*, July 1978.



Ceremonial Songye stool, Lomami (Zaire)

BOOKS

Albert TEVOEDJRE — **La Pauvreté richesse des peuples (Poverty as an asset)** — Foreword by Jan Tinbergen (Nobel prize winner). Preface by Dom Helder Camara — Collection Développement et Civilisations. Les Editions Ouvrières, 12 av. Sœur-Rosalie, 75621, Paris, Cedex 13 — 207 pages — Bfrs 308 — 1978

This book develops the apparently paradoxical theme whereby poverty may be a valuable asset.

The author gives a very critical analysis of the attitudes and opinions generated by a harmful imitation of industrial societies, which lead to a neglect of the needs and hopes of developing nations to the point where what he calls "counter-development" occurs.

He attempts to define new policies which form a blueprint for society in the political, economic and socio-cultural sectors.

A proposed "contract of solidarity" is the ultimate expression of this and the specific applications of it follow the ethical imperatives set out at the beginning of the work.

Briefly, the main alternatives that emerge as the book progresses are:

- well-being based on a mastery of needs, integrating all cultural values, rather than an accumulation of material goods promoted by a race for maximum profit and stimulated by a permanent desire for more;

- harmonious trade that is in keeping with the autonomous capacity of each partner, rather than mimetic transfers of technology;

- a cooperative republic that combines freedom of thought with social discipline, where experience of solidarity and poverty becomes a source of personal and collective fulfilment;

- creative autonomy of the people within a new balance of international trade rather than an international division of labour.

Dom Helder Camara views such proposals with "great joy" and Jan Tinbergen feels that the book "throws down a challenge of great complexity and makes us aware of the absolute priority of it".

ooo

Pierre ERNY — **L'enfant et son milieu en Afrique noire (The child and his milieu in black Africa)** — Petite Bibliothèque Payot — 106, Bvd St-Germain,

75006 Paris — 306 pages — Bfrs 154 — 1978

An ethnographical study of traditional education is of obvious interest in the search for teaching methods that are right for black Africa.

It can give a comprehensive idea of traditional society and it can help explain what happens to the child outside the school and what he learns from his milieu, things that logically should be taken into account when organizing a school.

The author reviews, in succession, education in early childhood, the education that situates the child vertically as a present member in a line of ancestors and horizontally as a member of a society formed of others like him, relations with society as a whole, the way the child assimilates technical know-how, approaches words, adopts moral values and, finally, experiences the great spiritual event of initiation.

Only rarely can such influences now be observed distinctly in themselves. Traditional teaching methods everywhere are losing ground and fragmenting, since the society on which they were founded is changing its way of life and its values and setting up new educational institutions.

But, even in the most acultural of milieux, considerable evidence survives and is apparent to anyone seeking to understand how the personality gradually takes shape.

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Philippe GLOAGUEN and Michel DUVAL — **Le guide du routard (Travelers' guide), 1978/79, Africa** — Hachette — 238 pages — Bfrs 223 — 1978

Everything the traveller in Africa needs to know is covered in this book, and in considerable detail. The authors bring their own experience to bear on their discussion of various methods of travel, some orthodox, others less so.

They cover charter flights and the regulations governing them, motoring, tent-trailers, motor-cycling, rail travel and hitch-hiking, and they offer useful tips on how to deal with administrative formalities and customs officers, clothing, travellers cheques and poste restante facilities.

Specialists also give advice on such things as vaccinations and there are chapters on the particular travel problems of women, the disabled and people unfamiliar with city life.

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Albert MEISTER — **La participation pour le développement (Participation for development)** — Collection Développement et Civilisations — Les Editions Ouvrières, 12 av. Sœur-Rosalie, 75621 Paris Cedex 13 — 176 pages — Bfrs 277 — 1978

A country's development is not just a matter of purely economic measures such as investment, planning or transfers of technology.

It will probably fail if the majority of people feel unconcerned and remain passive. Popular enthusiasm is the key to success — hence the importance of getting as many people as possible involved in the development process.

This approach can take many forms, from literacy campaigns to adult education and from social work to community development and supervision in rural areas.

Albert Meister's wide experience enables him to assess the methods used and attempt to make an overall judgement of them. Not an easy task. But the Meister approach has the advantage of being empirical.

First, he studies different types of participation in Africa, the community development which is more typical of the countries that have been influenced by the Anglo-Saxon way of life and the rural development favoured by the old French and Belgian colonies.

Participation in Latin America is very different, since these countries have far greater potential wealth and Latin influence predominates.

After this round-up, the author looks at the problems of methodology and tackles an assessment of participatory development.

At a time when many people are questioning not just the point of sending aid to the Third World and providing financial and technical cooperation, but the very aims and content of development itself, Meister's study is an important contribution to our understanding of this problem that is so vital in the world today.

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Michel SHIRAY — **Tiers monde et monde industrialisé (Third World and industrialized world)** — La Documentation Française, 31 Quai Voltaire, 75340 Paris, Cedex 07 — 175 pages — Bfrs 180 — 1978

This study by Michel Shiray, a research worker at CIRED, the interna-

tional environmental and development research centre, has been produced by a team working on the Dag Hammarskjöld Project (1975) on Development and International Cooperation, for which CIRED formed an ad hoc research unit at the Maison des Sciences de l'Homme.

Within this framework, social science research workers and leading figures from all over the world have contributed to the present discussion of the new international economic order.

The project was prepared at the 7th special session of the UN assembly and culminated in the publication of the report entitled *Que Faire?*

From the mass of statistical data and economic analyses collected for the project, Shiray has chosen those which best convey an understanding of the structural imbalances of trade between the Third World and the industrialized countries. He develops three fundamental aspects:

— The transfer of goods, which poses the problems of a fair price for raw materials and of the international division of labour.

— The transfer of capital, which forces people to think about what sort of contribution aid and foreign investments really make to development.

— The transfer of firms and the whole problem of multinationals.

These analyses, providing a selective coverage of the main aspects of North-South trade and trends over the last 15 or so years, are backed up by copious statistical data, most of which comes from international bodies such as the UN, the OECD and UNCTAD.

The work is therefore a mine of information on developed/developing country economic relations and a most useful aid to understanding what is at stake in the current discussions.

The conclusion provokes profound thought by revealing the inadequacies of development structures to date and by outlining the main proposals of the Dag Hammarskjöld Project for a new style of economic development, more in keeping with the cultural, social, economic and ecological demands of each society.

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Gert CHESI — **Les derniers Africains (The last of the Africans)** — Arthaud — 1978

Cut off from the Mediterranean by the desert; hidden behind its inhospitable coasts, black Africa has lived alone for thousands of years. The first Western travellers went round it, pausing for no more than the occasional, short-lived incursion.

Right up until modern times, Africa was a mysterious continent, a fantasy world for the Westerners. It had the gold they coveted and it had something mankind had not renounced for all its civilization.

Gold, and slaves, the two great discoveries that the West made in Africa. But all Africa, like America, saw of the West was the conquerors.

In the 19th century, colonizers, missionaries and soldiers built the colonial system. The defects and the contradictions of the regime, of the imperialism and the racialism (sometimes mixed with clear-sighted and generous intentions) have been exposed.

It was poor preparation for independence, but the colonial system at least helped establish contact between different civilizations. It was in colonial times that Western artists discovered the African art that was to have such influence on the development of contemporary art.

Can the recognition of Africa's contribution to world culture set an African renaissance in motion? This is the question posed by Gert Chesi. His book does not set out to reply, but simply to examine the issue in as objective and authentic a way as possible.

Young Africans are in a precarious position today. They have lost part of their culture and they do not know what to put in its place. Many African leaders are engaged in a relentless pursuit of development for their countries. Progress, in the Western meaning of the term, fascinates them more than their own traditions.

They are probably right. Development has its price and Africa's sharp change from one civilization to another will not be without sacrifice.

New roads open up the last of the remote areas and progress will put an end to the simple, humble lives of the few peoples who are still free of the shackles of technology and consumer economies.

This book is dedicated to the last of the Africans, who will perhaps learn how to retain their originality as they progress.

Gert Chesi is a journalist and explorer who, on his journeys, is learning to

be an ethnologist too. Africa is his love. For 18 years now, he has travelled the continent seeking out the last ethnic groups whose culture is intact. This book is the fruit of that long, fervent and honest quest. The fine illustrations and the original notes he took there, in Africa, constitute some of our most valuable evidence of these cultures that are fast disappearing.

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Ola BALOGUN — **Nigéria du réel à l'imaginaire (Nigeria real and imagined)** — Photographs by Bruno Barbey — Editions J.A. — 1978

"I have gazed upon the foaming waters of the Atlantic... I have seen the rising sun pierce the mangrove forests... And still I hear the music of the breeze, the sensual sibilance of the insects and the carefree lowing of the cattle off to graze in the savannah... I have seen flowers of dazzling hue, violet evenings and the myriad green of leaves kissed by the golden sun..."

Ola Balogun, film-maker, visionary and poet, conveys the magic of his homeland in a style that irresistibly recalls the chants of Africa. But he also describes towns in Nigeria today. He gives us the great names of his country's past, shows us a people at work and the birth of a new nation.

The headings of the work are:

— A journey through time;

— A thousand faces;

— Journeys;

— Lights of the past;

— Birth of a nation.

ooo

Alfred GROSSER — **Les Occidentaux — Les pays d'Europe et les Etats-Unis depuis la guerre (The Westerners — the countries of Europe and the United States since the war)** — Editions Fayard — Paris, 75, rue des Saints-Pères — 438 pages — 1978

The West means the governments of western Europe in harmony or in conflict with the American leaders. It also means firms, communist parties, unions and churches, de Gaulle, Roosevelt, the defence of Berlin, the French war in Indo-China, the American war in Indo-China, Europe the ally and Europe the rival, the supportive dollar and the unsupportive dollar and the agreements and disagreements over the Soviet Union and the Third World. It

means student unrest at Berkeley, Berlin and Nanterre. The USA is there, as an active participant or as an example in almost everything that happens in Europe.

Does the author show what is permanent and what has changed? Does he take account of national situations yet put enough emphasis on joint political, strategic, economic and psychological data?

Does he recognize chance happenings and reveal the basic components of multiform relations? The reader must see for himself.

As ever, Grosser takes an unusual approach, trying to show the reader various unfamiliar aspects of reality and force him to review his own way of looking at things.

As the book is being published simultaneously in German (Munich) before coming out in New York, the French reader had to be shown that his anti-Americanism overlooks certain essential aspects of the truth, the American that French anti-Americanism is not just psychological and the German reader that the situation in Germany makes him considerably less critical of the USA than he might be.

The author takes these contradictory demands as a stimulating challenge.

Grosser (54) is a university teacher and a journalist and, in the words of the selection committee that awarded him his peace prize in Frankfurt in 1975, "a mediator between the French and the Germans, between believers and non-believers and between Europe and other continents".

In 1951-55, he taught German at the Sorbonne before transferring to political science at the Paris Institute of higher studies in 1956 and becoming director of doctoral studies at the National Foundation for Political Science. For 12 years he taught at the Bologna Center School of Advanced International Studies at Johns Hopkins University.

He was Kratter visiting professor of modern European history at Stamford University (California) and vice-chairman of the International Political Science Association.

He has been a political columnist for some years, first on *La Croix* from 1955 to 1965 and with *Le Monde* since 1965 and *Ouest France* since 1972.

HOW TO GET "THE COURIER"

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Michael LEIGH — **Nine EEC attitudes to Enlargement** — Nicholas van PRAAG — **European Political Cooperation and the Southern Periphery** — Sussex European Research Centre — 1978

This 100 page work contains two studies of enlargement of the EEC. The first deals with a survey which the EEC ran in the Member States to find out what the European public thought about enlargement.

Switzerland is the country most citizens of the present Community would apparently like to see join, followed in order of preference by Spain, Austria, Greece, Portugal and Turkey.

The survey also examines and explains national attitudes in each of the Member States.

In part II, Nicholas van Praag describes the Community's Mediterranean policy as expressed in economic cooperation and bilateral agreements, giving precise details of the economic agreements which link some of the Mediterranean countries to the Community.

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Michel HUET — **Danses d'Afrique (Dances of Africa)** — Text by Jean Laude & Jean-Louis Paudrat — Editions du Chêne — Paris — 1978

Dances of Africa is first and foremost an album of photographs. Michel Huet has selected some 250 exceptionally interesting ones from the thousands he has taken during 30 years of photography round the world.

They illustrate African dance, not Africa itself, and they do not aim to satisfy a desire for the exotic. There are none of the inevitable sunsets, nor beasts or other bathers splashing about in the streams. There are none of the frenzied Bamboulas so dear to colonial literature.

Dances of Africa may well be the first book to deal with the interaction of art and ritual in their cultural context over such a large area (Guinea coast — Sudanese savannah — equatorial Africa) and over such a long period of time (end of World War II to the present day).

So the important thing is not just dance or music or masks. It is the way all three fit into a more comprehensive whole, the culture of each individual tribe. It is not negro art as exhibited and sometimes distorted in museums and collections. It is the artistic expression of the moving body, one of the most important aspects of the aesthetics of the civilizations of Africa.

Masked bodies, painted bodies and bodies dressed in finery are not presented as something strangely fascinating, but as part of institutions and attitudes that express the life, art and thought of the cultures of Africa south of the Sahara.

Jean Laude, who teaches the anthropology of art at the university of Paris I provides ethnographical notes situating dance in relation to the ritual or ceremony of which it is part.

In his introduction, Jean-Louis Paudrat, a teacher of the history of art at the University of Paris I, who has written several studies of the art of black Africa, emphasizes the link between dance and other aspects of culture.

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