

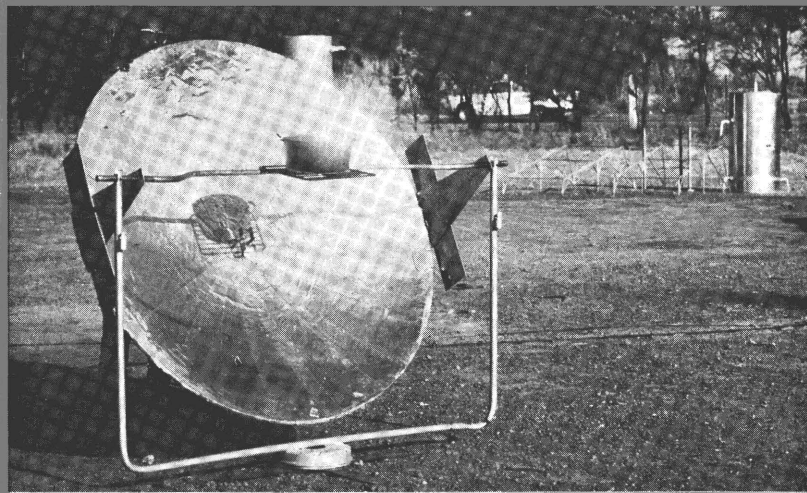
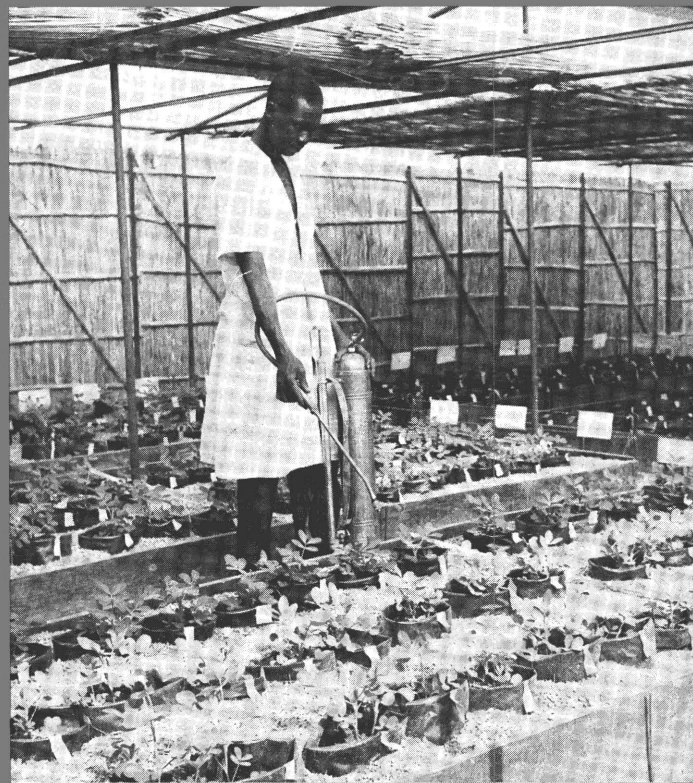


# the courier

AFRICA-CARIBBEAN-PACIFIC—EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

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**SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY  
FOR DEVELOPMENT**

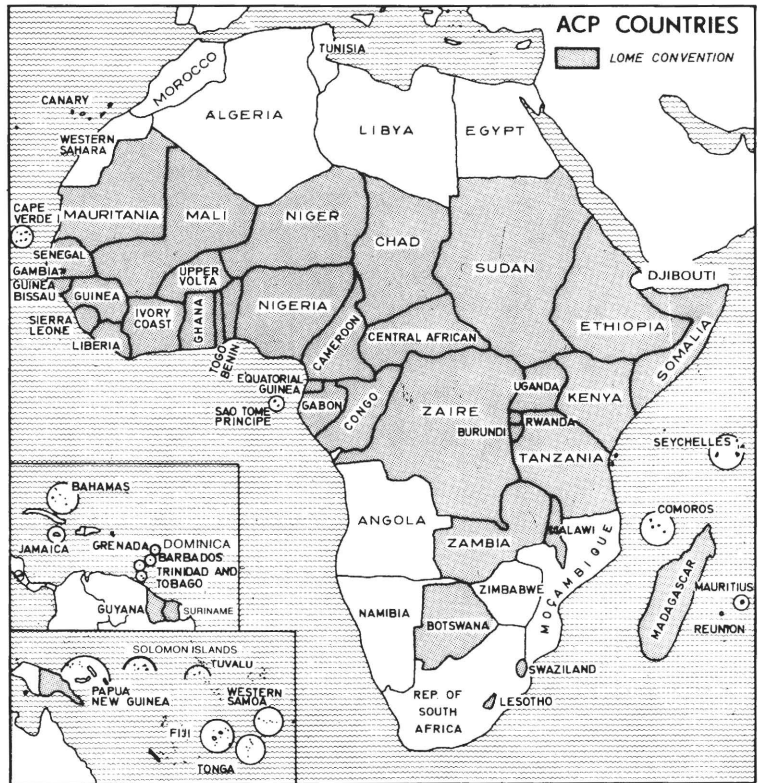


## THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

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GABON	NIGER	UPPER VOLTA
GAMBIA	NIGERIA	WESTERN SAMOA
	PAPUA NEW GUINEA	ZAIRE
	RWANDA	ZAMBIA



Cover: (Left, top to bottom): science student at Cairo University (photo Picou); solar energy for cooking in Niger (photo Wherlin); simple mechanical harvester in Jordan (FAO photo — F. Mattioli). (Right): research on improving groundnuts in Senegal (photo Naud); power station control room in Sierra Leone (World Bank photo — P. Johnson)

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**ACP-EEC**—The negotiations on a new convention between the European Community and the ACP countries have been going on for several months. A “big step” towards meeting some ACP proposals to improve the cooperation pact was taken by the ministers on both sides at their last meeting, in Freeport (Bahamas) on 22-24 March, and a final ministerial session is to be held on 24-25 May. So the new convention should be signed in June. **Page 3**

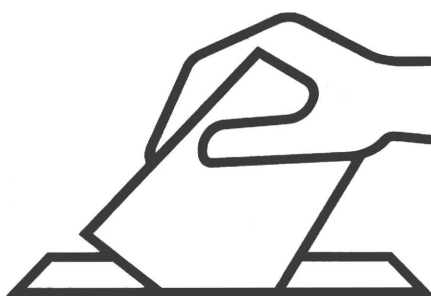


**Zambia**—Landlocked in southern Africa, the Republic of Zambia has faced considerable economic difficulties over the past years, due to the war effort against Rhodesia—Zambia is a front line state supporting the Zimbabwean nationalists—and especially to the continual fall in the price of copper, which makes up about 90% of the country's exports. President Kenneth Kaunda explains Zambia's current economic situation. **Page 7**

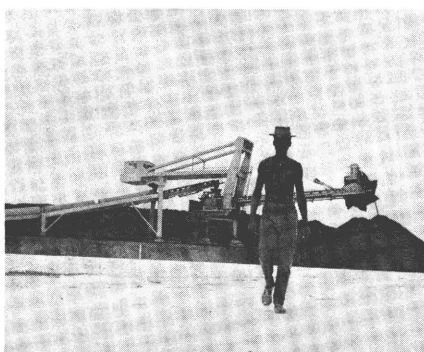
**Bahamas**—The Bahamas are a leading tourist destination, thanks to their climate, their natural beauty and their situation off the coast of the USA opposite Miami. This independent country has one of the highest per capita incomes in the Caribbean region. Nonetheless, the tourist-based economy is shaky without the foundations industry could provide. Joining the Lomé Convention in 1975 gave the Bahamas an additional opportunity of diversifying and industrializing the economy. Prime Minister Lynden Pindling outlines his country's economic policy. **Page 22**



**Europe**—In the early 1950s the European Coal and Steel Community, first of the European Communities, was founded. The Treaty of Rome followed in 1957. A comparable step in the construction of European unity will be the direct election this June of the European Parliament, by 180 million voters in nine countries. Up to now the Parliament, one of the pillars of the Community, has been nominated by the national authorities. On the eve of this important event, the Courier takes a look at the European Community, its problems and its most recent progress. **Page 37**



**Dossier**—The 1970s have been marked by a change in the rich countries' awareness of the poor countries. Public opinion sees development issues more realistically as questions of world-wide interdependence. If this was brought home forcibly by the oil international conferences on such themes as food, housing and the environment. Our dossier introduces the last big UN development conference of the decade, the Conference on Science and Technology for Development. **Page 62**



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## JEAN MONNET

Jean Monnet died on 16 March 1979, three months before the first direct elections to the European Parliament. He was 91.

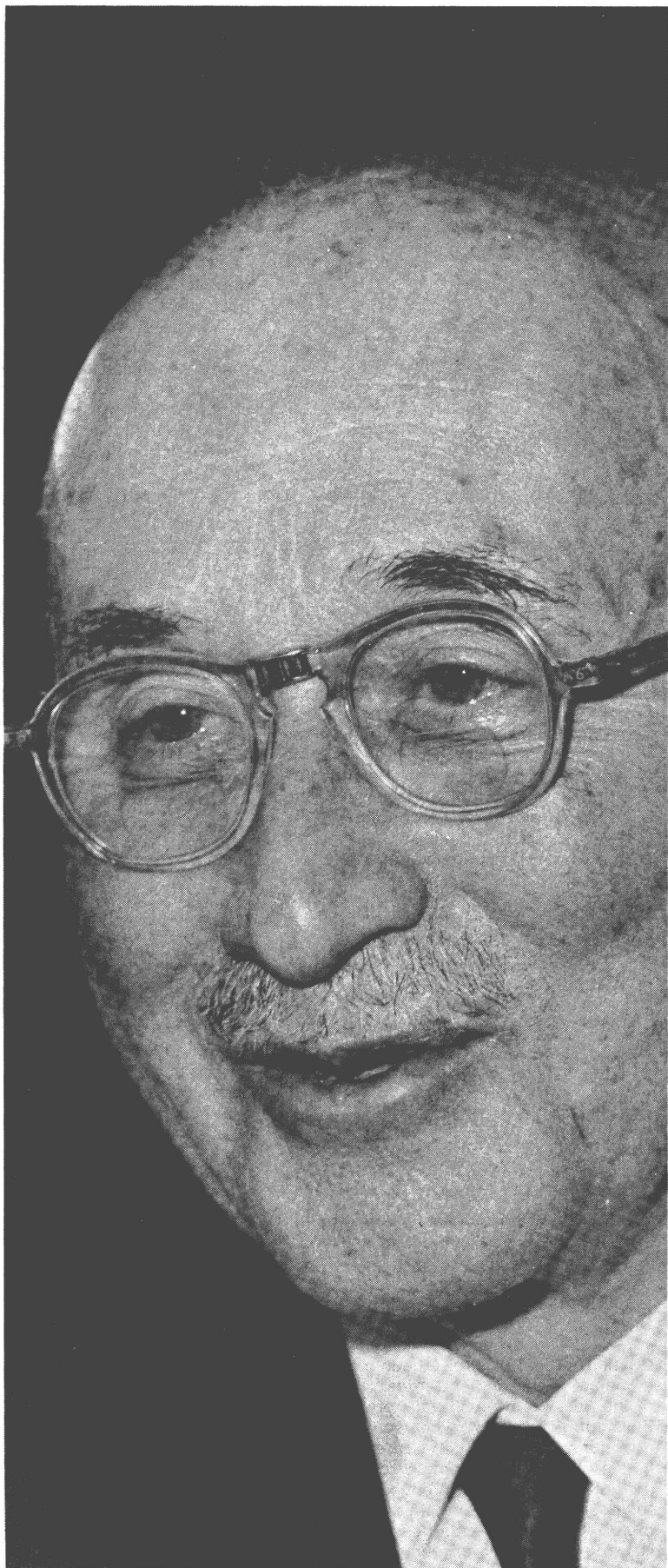
His memoirs were published in late 1976 and although this substantial, 642-page book is the work of an old man, it is for young people; in it they will find the virtues of thought, perseverance, intellectual courage and clarity, and faith in democracy and a better world.

The name Jean Monnet may not mean much to the younger generation. It may not mean much to many people in the ACP countries or even in the EEC. But few men have made such a mark on their time or had so much influence on the development of West Europe.

Jean Monnet was never a figure in the limelight. He never held a top government post, either before or after World War II. "In life you have to choose between doing something or being someone", he wrote. "I chose to do something". And, taking no more than his work for the unification of Europe into account, he certainly succeeded. He was of course helped by the fact that Schuman, Adenauer, de Gasperi, Spaak and others like them were in key positions in the countries of Europe after the war and that recent events and their own experience and thinking led them to welcome Monnet's ideas.

The ideas, the fruit of much reflexion, were simple. A contemporary summed them up by saying that, in Europe in the second half of the 20th century, "nationalism is becoming provincialism and could become a sickness". Jean Monnet thought that Franco-German antagonism should be overcome once and for all. He thought that a large market should be created to pave the way for mass production and lower unit costs, and that "de facto solidarity" should be forged in the countries of a free and democratic Europe. Then came Schuman's declaration of 9 May 1950 and the first European Community, the coal and steel pool, with Jean Monnet as its first president. "We are not forming a coalition of states. We are uniting people. The next part of the story is more familiar. There is still some way to go of course, but the path, thanks to Monnet, has been mapped out for us, since good ideas are also simple ones. As he said, "necessity is the most important partner in the construction of Europe". □

ALAIN LACROIX



## THE NEGOTIATIONS

# A big step forward in the Bahamas

As part of the negotiations for renewal of the Lomé Convention, the ACP-EEC Ministerial Conference met for the third time in Freeport in the Bahamas on 22-24 March 1979.

The ACP chairman was Michel Anchouey, Gabon's minister for planning and development, and the EEC side was led by Jean François-Poncet, French foreign minister. The Conference, at which two new members, Dominica and St Lucia, were present for the first time (Angola and Mozambique were there as observers) was preceded by the fourth joint ministerial session on the management of the present convention. The next Conference, the last before the new convention is signed, is scheduled for 24 and 25 May in Brussels.

**Michel Anchouey:** "We have covered a lot of ground in Freeport... our initial positions were very different... but there is still a lot of ground to cover."

**Jean François-Poncet:** "There were very many, very difficult problems because of the international environment which affects ACP and EEC countries alike... We have helped them progress. When we have been unable to do so, we have clarified all the areas of the convention that we want to sign before the summer."

These two extracts from the speeches the chairmen made at the closing

ceremony are a fair reflexion of the general feeling of the participants at the third ministerial conference of the ACP-EEC negotiations.

There were high hopes that the Bahamas meeting would overcome the stalemate on certain difficult points, and give new directives. The negotiations were in need of a shot in the arm.

No doubt it was these difficulties, aggravated by the gloomy prospects of the world economy, which led the Prime Minister of the Bahamas, **Lynden O. Pindling**, in his opening speech, to urge members of the conference to

guard against failure.

"If this meeting fails, if all our efforts are fruitless, the surviving nations may well remember this conference in the Bahamas as an economic requiem for the departed.

"We have assembled here, in this conference hall, representatives of some 66 countries, the majority of whom can be put into the category of developing or undeveloped or less developed nations. As we meet we must not forget the high ideals which inspired our beginnings. In these difficult times in which we live we need cementing agents. At this stage in the development of the relationship between the ACP and the EEC, all attempts must be made to forge ahead with the implementation of our goals. While it would be unjust for us to disregard any of the problems and difficulties which beset us all individually or collectively, it may yet be necessary for those of the developed nations to make that extra special effort towards reaching a new agreement that would go much further than Lomé.

"Would it not be most gratifying if out of this deliberative process new relationships will have been forged and, for the first time, there will have been developed a greater solidarity and affinity in dealing with the problems of development? I earnestly trust that the

BAHAMAS INFORMATION SERVICES







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*Lynden O. Pindling, Prime Minister of the Bahamas, opens the conference. To his left: Michel Anchouey, chairman of the ACP Council, and Donald Rainford, Jamaican ambassador in Brussels, chairman of the ACP Committee of Ambassadors. To his right: Martin Rekangalt, Gabonese ambassador to the EEC, and ACP secretary-general Tiéoulé Konaté*

spirit of the negotiations which produced the Lomé Convention would also prevail here in Freeport and that the result of our negotiations would lead to a speedy resolution of outstanding problems."

**Mr François-Poncet** welcomed St Lucia and Dominica, the two new states, and Angola and Mozambique (observers) before going on to express the Community's desire to:

"Seal the contract of solidarity between those who have sufficient and those who possess scarcely even the bare necessities. No one can refuse to put his name to this contract once he realizes that the existence of our world in harmony depends on it.

"The extraordinary diversity of the countries represented here today—different peoples, cultures, climates, horizons, economies, standards of living—all this diversity contrasts, at the same time as it merges, with the essential unity of our ideal: to act together for the well-being of all.

"One of the first slogans of the world development dialogue was the famous "trade not aid". And the Community was not the last to show its willingness in the field of trade, despite the difficult changing circumstances with which it is faced. It must be said yet again: in addition to its other efforts the Community, by signing the Lomé Convention, has opened the Community market wide to its ACP friends, wider than any other country in the world has done, and without demanding reciprocal trade concessions. This will continue, and we agree to examine whether, and how, we can go even further.

"The development of agricultural production and aid to underfed peoples has also been one of the most widely debated subjects in recent years. We shall talk of this here in the Bahamas, we shall explain to you what we have already done, and you will propose new measures. And we shall, I am sure, on this subject as on all the others, arrive at a common denomin-

ator of the needs and possibilities."

**Mr Anchouey** emphasized what the ACP group expected of the Freeport meeting. To his mind, "the Lomé approach has, quite rightly, been called exemplary. The content of the Convention has raised great hopes, although we must be careful not to overestimate its advantages to the ACP countries. Caution is all the more justified in that the inadequacies of the Convention become more apparent with use. Our relations must be rejuvenated, given new dynamism and a new capacity for innovation. We must be fully aware that the Lomé Convention has probably been one of the most outstanding political events of the last quarter-century. For the first time, an original experiment has been run and it is up to us to try and perfect it. But perhaps the most important aspect is the reliability which must surround all our relations. Reliable supplies, reliable outlets and reliable income. Is it not clear that this is something we are entitled to? Reliability in space and in time. These are the new dimensions of our contract. Let us make no mistake. Our peoples expect us to draw up a kind of development contract, of which the Stabex would be one of the essential features".

This problem of reliability was one of the topics covered by **Claude Cheysson** when he made the last, off-the-cuff, speech at the inaugural session. He felt the ACP countries were right to insist on reliability, "which must be sought in all ways". He recognized that there had been "problems of implementation" and then stressed the need to "do away with the misunderstandings we have had,..." "give the negotiations a new lease of life" and "progress". "What we 66 countries are doing must be an example that can serve elsewhere".

This was an indirect reference to the UNCTAD meeting, scheduled for Manila in May and which was mentioned more than once at Freeport. There is



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*Jean François-Poncet, as chairman of the EEC Council of Ministers, replies to Mr Pindling. To his left: Mr Luc de la Barre de Nanteuil, France's permanent representative in Brussels and chairman of the Committee of Permanent Representatives (COREPER). To his right: Claude Cheysson with Gonzague Lesort, co-secretary of the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers*



*Jamaican deputy premier and foreign minister Percival Patterson, with Dominica's agriculture minister Oliver Seraphine (to his right) and St Lucian representative C. Cadet with L. C. Suiverloon, economic affairs minister of Suriname*

cooperation, an agricultural sub-committee, and a "technical centre to facilitate the agricultural and rural development of the ACP countries, via better access to information, research and training and via innovations in the agricultural and rural sector.

— The case of the least developed, island and landlocked countries for which "specific and practical provisions... will be adopted" in each of the various categories.

— Financial and technical cooperation, its objectives and principles, management and procedures, cofinancings, etc.

— Extension of the EIB's aid to the ACP countries, particularly via an increase in risk capital.

no doubt that an ACP-EEC agreement will be thoroughly scrutinized in all international circles concerned with defining the principles of a new international economic order.

At the inaugural session, participants remembered Jean Monnet. The Bahamas premier began his speech by paying homage to the "father of Europe" and both Mr François-Poncet and Mr Anchouey referred to him several times. There was then a plenary session, after which the negotiators split up into four groups and a presidential group, as they had done at the previous ACP-EEC Council of Ministers in Brussels on 21 December.

### Some real progress...

On Saturday 24 March, at the end of the scheduled two days of work, the two chairmen commented on the results of the meeting at a press conference. They felt that progress had been made "thanks to the pragmatic state of mind "that had permeated the discussions (Jean François-Poncet) and the "desire to achieve practical, appreciable results" (Michel Anchouey).

In particular, progress had been made with:

— Stabex, especially the objectives and uses of the transfers, and reimbursement (for those countries involved) which will be due only after a "reconstitution threshold" of 6.5% is reached in the reference amount. The period of repayment will also be extended to seven years and the threshold brought down from 7.5% to 6.5% (from 2.5% to 2% for the least developed countries). The EEC also agrees to the principle of a case-by-case examination of a list of new products.

— The creation of a special section in the next convention on agricultural



*The deputy premier of the Bahamas Arthur S. Hanna (left, front row) with (right, second row, r. to l.) Samuel Insanally, Guyana's ambassador in Brussels, and Rual Harris, Barbadian chargé d'affaires in Brussels*



*From (left to right) Teffera Wolde-Semait, Ethiopia's finance minister, B.D. Jobe, Gambian chargé d'affaires in Brussels. Guinea's delegation led by Mr N'Faly Sangaré, and Guinea Bissau's Luis d'Oliveira Sanca, ambassador in Brussels*





BAHAMAS INFORMATION SERVICES

*Senegal's finance minister Ousmane Seck with (to his right) Seydina Oumar Sy, Senegalese ambassador in Brussels, and Rwanda's planning minister M.A. Mulindangabo; (to his left) R. Grancourt of the Seychelles and S.H. Kanu, ambassador of Sierra Leone*

### ... but there are still problems

One of the main problems the negotiators have yet to iron out is the amount of financial resources to be allocated. The ACP countries want to see the amount of the present Convention trebled at least, bearing in mind the need to make up for monetary erosion between 1975 and 1985,

The ACP group stressed the importance of the problems, on which depended the achievement of the agreed aims of financial and technical cooperation. It recommended that the conference instruct the negotiators to make a thorough study of these criteria.

The Community pointed out that the question of fixing the amount of aid was a global problem which, being of a political nature, had to be dealt with in the final phase of the negotiations.

Another difficulty was the rules of origin. It did not prove possible to reach agreement on this point in Freeport, "particularly as far as the least-developed, landlocked and island countries were concerned".

Mr Anchouey said industrial cooperation was the least satisfactory aspect of the meeting, as no progress had been made at all in the Bahamas on this subject. The ACP group wanted to see a special fund set up for industrial development, but the Community did not view this idea with a great deal of enthusiasm.

Agreement has yet to be reached on many other points, such as the stabilization of ore export earnings (the ACP countries want minerals to be covered by Stabex and the EEC wants to set up a parallel system) and free access to

the EEC market for all ACP products (currently at 99.5%). A list of 60 products has been passed to the Community, which has agreed to look at it on a case-by-case basis and reply as soon as possible.

It was for all these reasons that Mr François-Poncet announced at the

final session that some of the difficulties remained to be dealt with. But not for long. There is another ACP-EEC ministerial conference on 24 and 25 May in Brussels. It will be the last council before the new convention is signed in June. □

AMADOU TRAORE

## Fourth ACP-EEC Council

The Council of Ministers held its 4th session on 22 March in Freeport, before the negotiating meeting took place. It was devoted to a discussion of the present Convention and it approved an amendment to the list of least-developed ACP countries (mentioned in art. 48) which benefit from special arrangements under the Convention. The following new members of the Convention have now been added to the list:

- Djibouti
- Solomon Islands
- São Tomé and Príncipe
- Cape Verde
- Dominica
- Tuvalu.

In the trade sector, the Council approved a derogation to the rules of origin to take account of the particular situation of canned tuna from Mauritius.

The Council noted ACP concern about the voluntary limitation of textile exports that the Community had requested of its partners. It invited the sub-committee to keep talking about it.

As far as Stabex was concerned,

the Council, after the two chairmen had used their "good offices" to present the cases, invited the Commission to assess the requests for transfers which Gabon, Kenya and Mali had introduced in 1977 for 1975. This was an exceptional measure to take account of the particular circumstances which were prevailing when the system first started and which had contributed to demands being submitted late in the day.

The Council also decided to add sesame seeds, a product of considerable interest to several ACP countries, to the Stabex list (art. 17)(1).

The Council took note of the annual report presented by the Committee for Industrial Cooperation on its own activities and those of the Centre for Industrial Development (CID). The Council transmitted this report to those responsible for negotiating the new convention.

As far as institutional matters were concerned, the Council approved the accession of St Lucia as the 57th ACP state under the Lomé Convention and welcomed the representative of that country. □

## ZAMBIA

# Short-term crisis, long-term projects

## An interview with President Kenneth Kaunda

Zambia's geopolitical situation has to a large extent determined its development since it gained independence on 24 October 1964. Its underground wealth in minerals, basically copper has led to the development of a mono-economy, since these minerals still provide over 90% of its foreign exchange; its landlocked situation has meant huge investments in infrastructure and communications after the dissolution, in 1963, of the economically integrated Central African Federation which included Zambia, Malawi (then Nyasaland) and Zimbabwe (then Southern Rhodesia). The same situation has made it a front line state, and here Zambia has played and still plays a considerable role in the liberation of Africa, first in the independence struggle in neighbouring Angola and Mozambique, and now in the fight for freedom in Namibia and Zimbabwe. Throughout its decade and a half of existence, these three elements —minerals, communications and political events in southern Africa

—have led to a country which is today in economic crisis, but still potentially rich.

As it gradually recovers from the copper price collapse of the mid-'70s Zambia is now trying to tap its so far under-exploited agricultural potential and, as the most urbanized country in black Africa, to get its people back to the land.

Sworn in last December for a fourth consecutive term as head of state, President Kaunda gave the *Courier* his view of Zambia's evolution so far, explaining his humanist philosophy and his theory of one-party participatory democracy. He also outlined his country's new emphasis on agricultural development for the years ahead and commented on the southern African situation and its implication for Zambia's economy.

That situation will be one of the issues before the Commonwealth Conference to be hosted by Zambia in August—the first ordinary session to be held in Africa.

### Participatory democracy: power to the masses

► *Mr President, what are the main achievements of Zambia's development so far and how do you judge the influence of your own philosophy of humanism on that development?*

— In so far as our achievements are concerned, I would like to look at what we believe, in humanism, to be the five principal areas of human endeavour. It is only when we look at these that we will be able to see what we have been able to achieve. There are the political, economic, social and cultural sides of life, but also a scientific and technological side and, of course, there is in the nature of man's development, a defense and security aspect. Now, how have we ventured in all these five principle areas of human endeavour? Politically, I would say the main purpose of our being is to transfer power from the centre to the masses; this is why we call our society a one-party participatory democracy. We have done quite a lot



President Kenneth Kaunda

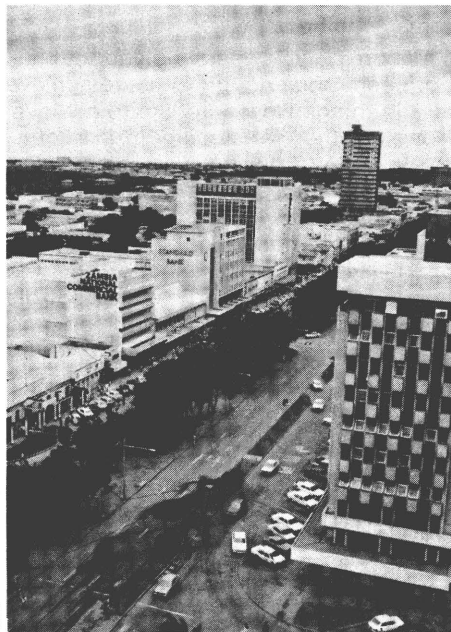
already but much more obviously remains to be done.

We are only 14 years old and that has not been long enough for us to achieve all the things we would like to achieve. However, there is stability in the country, in spite of our many problems, so I would say that politically we are moving along the right lines. Economically, we have put most, if not almost all, the major means of production in the hands of the people. The state controls many major means of development and this is quite an achievement in 14 years. We cooperate in certain areas with private enterprise and in other areas private enterprise goes it alone. So, economically we are doing quite well but let me emphasize that much more needs to be done because I don't believe that state enterprise is really the answer to the problem of industrial participatory democracy. I am preoccupied with the question of power, whether it be political or economic power. I would like to see power transferred to the people and we are trying to organize cooperative societies, rural construction centres etc... all these are

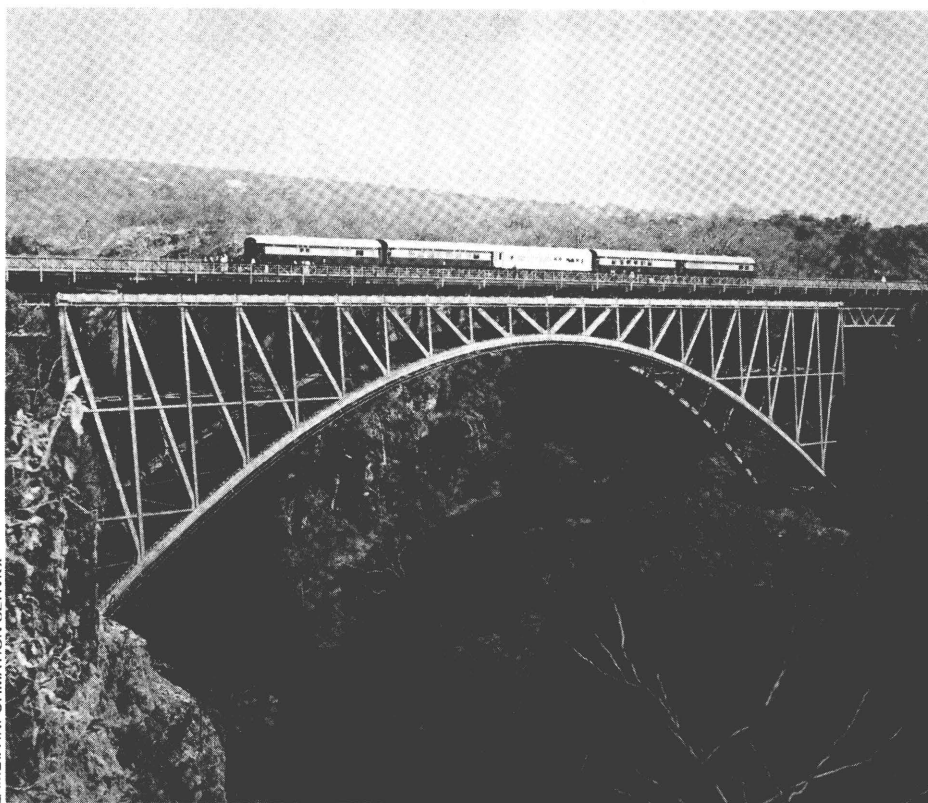


major means of trying to transfer economic power from both private enterprise, as well as from the state, to the people.

It is a major exercise but we have begun and are doing well. I'm now talking only of policies and their implementation, I'm not touching on the problems that confront us as a result of our geo-political position. In the social and cultural field, at independence we had only about 100 graduates and 1 000-odd young men and women who had done their full secondary school education. Today we have thousands of graduates from our own university here in Zambia and what is more, thousands of young people who have done their senior, form 5, education. There are also hundreds of thousands of grade 7 school-leavers. In terms of social and cultural policies we have done quite well, for example hospitals are now free. Admittedly we are having problems in raising funds to man all these free social services. But policy-wise we have done extremely well, we are moving in the right direction and now we are emphasizing more and more our policy of self-reliance so that men and women members of any given community in our country can contribute towards at least the construction of schoolbuildings, teachers' houses, medical orderlies' houses and so on. Every community is going to be organized to participate in this way. The state itself will only contribute towards the purchasing of medicines and the training and paying of staff for the schools and hospitals. In the field of science and technology, again we are training manpower with the help of



Cairo road in the centre of the capital, Lusaka: Zambia is the most urbanized country in black Africa (40% of the population)



ZAMBIA INFORMATION SERVICE

As a front line state, Zambia has played the role of mediator in southern Africa. Here, the famous meeting in no man's land in September 1975 over the Zambezi river between Zambia and Zimbabwe between the nationalists, Mr Chikerema, Bishop Muzorewa, Mr Nkomo and Rev. Sithole on one side, and Mr Smith on the other. South African premier Vorster and President Kaunda were observers

countries like those in the EEC. You can't develop economically, politically, socially and culturally without adequate scientific and technological knowledge. In the field of defense and security we are defending ourselves, not adequately obviously, but there is at least stability in the country. On security we do not take the line that we want to punish wrongdoers in our society, we want to reform them. Our policy is to reeducate people who get into trouble, like thieves, robbers and so on. We don't send them to prison simply to punish them we send them there because we want to reform them. Here success is a long way off, however I think in all the five principle areas of human endeavour we are in general doing well and it is being done within the philosophy of humanism.

### Emphasis on agriculture: a matter of philosophy

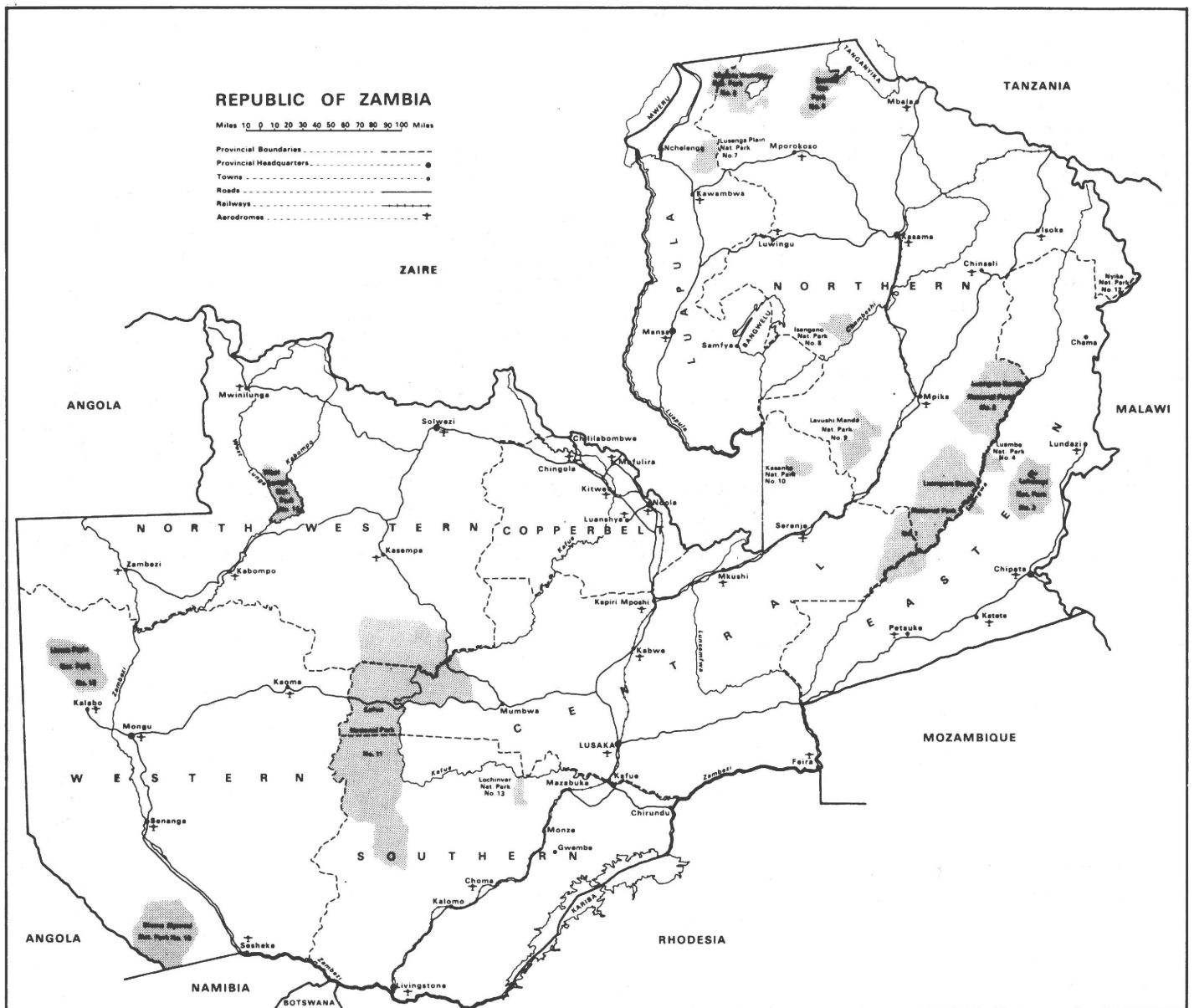
► What will be the basic priorities in the third national development plan (1979-1983) to be launched soon, and what part will agriculture play?

— In fact, the last part of the question gives you the answer. Agriculture is our main emphasis in the third national development plan. It is the key

to the switch over of Zambia's economy. Just now we have many problems with unemployment. We shouldn't have. If we had emphasized agriculture, not only in theory but also in practice, we would not have had so much unemployment. We are trying to reorganize our society so that we can get a number of our young people back to the land, to grow crops and to develop fisheries and forestry etc... All these are part and parcel of our rural development programme. We are emphasizing agriculture very much indeed.

► Does the origin of this emphasis on rural development lie in the copper crisis, and if copper prices were to soar in the next few months would this not create a certain lack of interest again in agricultural development?

— No, in fact, our emphasis on agriculture did not come from the fall in the price of copper. It came out of a basic belief that the land comes first, that it must be exploited first. It produces everything we need and we should therefore be able to utilize it and produce our basic foodstuffs which would enable us to develop agro-industries, and at a later stage export both fresh agricultural products as well as processed ones. This is the way we are going. It is really a matter of philosophy and not a matter of expediency at all.



### Looking for a breakthrough

► *Zambia's export earnings so far have been determined by copper to a very great extent. Now these export earnings have fallen, and your import costs have soared; right now you are facing a considerable shortage of the principle food crop, maize. Do you see a way out of this vicious circle?*

— Yes. I think one must look at this question from two angles, short term and long term. In the short term we have to appeal to the outside world to come to our aid. Indeed your own organization's response to this appeal has been tremendously encouraging and we are most grateful for this. On the other hand, and more for the long term, we are planning now to diversify, and end our great dependence on maize. We are, again with the EEC's help, trying to grow a lot of wheat in the country, both the state as well as individual commercial and peasant far-

mers. This experiment(1) is on just now and I'm glad to say that we are succeeding quite well. We are also looking at rice, since we could grow a lot in this country. The purpose of all this, as I said, is to move away from dependence on maize. One thing about wheat and rice is that you can grow these crops under irrigation. Maize, when covering our shortages, is very expensive on the world market and a balance between these crops is what we should be encouraging. This is not to say that we are not to grow maize as a basic foodstuff. We are going to push the growing of maize both by the commercial and peasant farmers. So the two aspects of this question are that in the short term we are appealing for help from the outside, and in the long term our dependence on maize as a staple food must be reduced by moving into the growing of other crops.

(1) See "The Mpongwe pilot project" page 20.

### Back to the land: the rural reconstruction programme

► *Zambia's high level of industrialization by African standards, and the 40% level of urbanization, have led under the present economic crisis to both social and regional imbalances. How will you cope with this in the future?*

— I referred earlier on to the fact that we have started what we call rural reconstruction centres. These are supposed to be centres around which we will develop the rural areas and become centres for urbanization in the various parts of our country. Each of our 55 established districts has, or will have, a rural reconstruction centre. When we grow more crops and decentralize, these will be the pivotal points where agro-industries will be managed. These rural reconstruction centres are supposed to act as an attraction: the peasant farmers come under them and



they will find markets and places where agro-industries can be established. In this way we will be achieving two objectives in one operation. The first to try and keep as many people as possible in the rural areas and the second, urbanization in those areas. In Lusaka we now have over half a million people, and social services have become a problem. We plan only for so many each time, but when our people rush to urban areas like this they create imbalances which you rightly referred to. So this is one way in which we are coping with this. We also have state enterprises such as canning industries, where we are building small outgrowers' units, in one of our districts, for example, the sugar industry has a programme for outgrowers. We have a pineapple industry which should be able to develop quite fast in one of our provinces with again a scheme for outgrowers. We have the tea and coffee industries, all these have outgrower schemes and now we are launching major cotton programmes with the EEC's help. So in all these areas we are emphasizing state enterprises with small peasant farmers outgrowers' schemes. In this way we hope to recentralize our agro-industries and push development in the rural areas instead of having people rushing to urban areas.

### Joint efforts to overcome the transport bottlenecks

► *Considering Zambia's landlocked position and the present prevailing political and economic situation in southern African, communications are of*



A serious shortage of maize, the basic food, is a grave problem for Zambia



President Kaunda with Commission delegate Johann Wallner (left) and Roger de Backer

*basic importance for your country's economy. What prospects are there of overcoming the present bottlenecks and constraints in the regional transport network? And what role could the EEC play here?*

— Well may I begin with the last part of your question? The EEC has a very important role to play in the regional organization of our transportation system. Already we have had discussions with our colleagues in Botswana, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zaire, Angola and hopefully in the future with Zimbabwe and Namibia, when these are reborn. In all these areas I'm glad to say your organization is involved. To be specific we are thinking of three projects with Angola: two major roads and a railway project. For the two roads we have approached your organization. I saw Commissioner Cheysson here a few weeks ago and we reminded the EEC through him of these requirements. I think the EEC is very responsive to these needs. On the Zairean side we have the old Benguela railway, which caters for three countries, Angola, Zaire and Zambia, and here again the EEC and some individual European countries are involved. We hope that as the security situation improves in Angola the Benguela railway will be used a great deal by Zambia. Before the problem of Rhodesia came up and before the opening of the Tazara railway, about 55% of our copper went through the Benguela railway—and 45% through the Rhodesian railways. Now our railways system is being reorganized with your help. If we look at Tazara, here again we are discussing the possibility of your organization coming to help us by financing proj-

ects to improve the organization of Tazara. In terms of our neighbours Malawi and Mozambique, we are already doing something as far as joint communication links are concerned, both road and microwave links. Canada is helping us with a railway link to Malawi, so we haven't approached the EEC on this. When Rhodesia is free and becomes Zimbabwe I'm sure we will be able to approach you to come and help us organize our communications system. With Botswana you are likely to help us in terms of tarring the Botzam road. This is also very important to us. So all round we are making joint operations with the neighbouring countries with the help of the EEC.

### A continuing role in the Zimbabwean struggle

► *Zambia's situation cannot be divorced from developments in the rest of southern Africa: the accession to independence of Angola and Mozambique; the pending self-government of Namibia and Zimbabwe. How might those developments affect your country's economy?*

— Well they have affected us already very badly. We have here the problem of a rebellion in Rhodesia against the British government and British Crown, but also a rebellion against the whole of thinking mankind. The United Nations declared sanctions against Rhodesia and Zambia as a faithful member of the UN had to join in that struggle. It is still on and we have continued to play our role. As I told you

## Summary of EEC financial assistance to Zambia

(mid-March 1979)

	in EUA '000		
	Indicative Programme	of which finance committed	
<b>1. National programme</b>	<b>47 000</b>	<b>18 165 (38.6 %)</b>	
<b>1.1. Agriculture</b>	<b>29 800 (63 %)</b>	<b>8 475</b>	
— Tea production Kawambwa	3 100	3 100	
— Wheat pilot project Mpongwe	2 650	2 650	
— Cotton production supports	8 000	200*	
— Rice development	5 385	250*	
— Oilseeds production, study	90	90	
— Dairy development:			
• Cattle development areas	1 750		
• Breeding ranch Batoka	1 825	1 825	
• Techn. asst. (see 1.4)			
• Training Institute (see 1.3)			
— Agricultural storage facilities	1 900		
— Feeder roads	4 800	60*	
— Microprojects	300	300	
<b>1.2. Econ. and social infrastructure</b>	<b>6 800 (15 %)</b>	<b>4 080</b>	
— Urban water supply, Mpika	2 100	70*	
— Rural water supply, studies	800	260*	
— Rural health centres	1 350	1 350	
— Site and services schemes	2 400	2 400	
— Reserve	150		
<b>1.3. Education and training</b>	<b>5 800 (12 %)</b>	<b>4 580</b>	
— Multiannual training programme	4 550	4 550	
— Dairy Training Institute	1 250	30*	
<b>1.4. Miscellaneous and contingencies</b>	<b>4 600 (10 %)</b>	<b>1 030</b>	
— Tourism master plan, study	130	130	
— Trade promotion programme	500	500	
— Techn. assist. to ZCDL (1)	400	400	
— Contingencies	3 570		
<b>2. Regional programme</b>	<b>3 800</b>	<b>890</b>	
• UN Institute for Namibia	500	500	
• East African transport system	3 000	90*	
• Coastal links study	300	300	
• Botswana-Zambia road	p.m.		
• Angola-Zambia road	p.m.		
• Railway systems	p.m.		
<b>3. European investment bank</b>		<b>3 010(2)</b>	
• Development Bank of Zambia		84*	
• Cement industry, expansion study			
• Further involvements			
<b>4. Exceptional aid</b>		<b>20 840</b>	
— commodities:			
1976		7 500	
1977		8 000	
1979		p.m.	
— refugees (UNHCR):			
1978 (Angolan)		1 340	
1978 (Zairean)		4 000	
1979		p.m.	
<b>5. Food aid</b>			
	in metric tons		
	Wheat	Milk Powder	Butteroil
1976	1 500	950	300
1977	6 000	900	550
900			
1978	6 000	1 500	—
1978, addit.	(6 000 p.m.) (3)		
1979	(10 000 p.m.) (3)		
			± 3.9 m EUA
<b>6. Non-government organisations (7 projects)</b>			<b>285.4</b>

\* Preparatory studies.

(1) Zambia Cattle Development Ltd.

(2) 2.5 mio EUA as a credit line; 0.51 mio EUA as risk capital.

(3) Probably maize.

45% of our copper used to go through the Rhodesian route, the Tazara is not operating as well as it should and the Benguela railway is closed to us. We therefore have a lot of problems. Economically we have been very badly hit. Recently we have reopened the southern railway through Rhodesia, but it is very limited in its operations, and it is not meeting the challenges of the times at all.

► *A free Namibia and free Zimbabwe will have a positive influence then?*

— Certainly, the same way as Angola has had a positive influence on us, Mozambique has had a very positive influence indeed, so Zimbabwe is bound to have a positive influence on us once the struggle is over.

### Regional integration...

► *Historically European nations used to play the role of a colonial power in this part of the world. What role do you see for a "new" Europe in southern Africa?*

— First of all let me take this opportunity to refer to the European Community as I see it. I think this is one of the most positive moves of modern Europe and I say this because I am a great believer in larger units leading to a world government. The beginning that we see in Europe, even with all the problems that you face, is a very positive move. I therefore welcome this very much. As you said, in the past we had European nations colonizing Africa, but that period is over, fortunately for us. We have problems left in Rhodesia and Namibia but these will be solved soon. We have the problem of apartheid in South Africa, but this too will be over soon. Now how does a "new" Europe affect Africa? I think the Lomé Convention gives us a very good grounding.

We are now negotiating new terms for this agreement. This is a periodic thing, it is bound to be, because we are all developing and as we develop we are bound to renegotiate the basis of our contacts. I would say the EEC has had a very positive impact on African countries in so far as modern Africa is concerned. It is a good thing that colonialism is no longer a reality, but a period to be read about in history books.

### ... and its prospects in southern Africa

► *You say you are very much interested in larger units; does this mean that with a free Zimbabwe and Namibia*



you would conceivably think about greater economic cooperation on a regional level in southern Africa?

— The answer is a definitive yes. In 1974 I had an opportunity to pay a visit to Tanzania and I spoke there of the need for regional cooperation in the area from Dar-es-Salaam to Luanda and Maputo embracing Zambia, Malawi, Botswana and Zimbabwe once it is free, and eventually Namibia and South Africa when they are free. This area here can form one of the most progressive areas of the world if leaders and the peoples themselves agree to this type of unity.

Again it must be unity based on proper understanding, so that the people understand what is happening. It should not be imposed from the top, any imposition is bound to collapse. It must be built from below. That is the way UNIP(1) sections are building Zambia—and I think our neighbouring countries are doing the same—on the basis of participatory democracy coming from the roots up, to the national level, then regional level. I think it is a key evolution in this area and I see it coming myself.

### Stabilizing copper export receipts

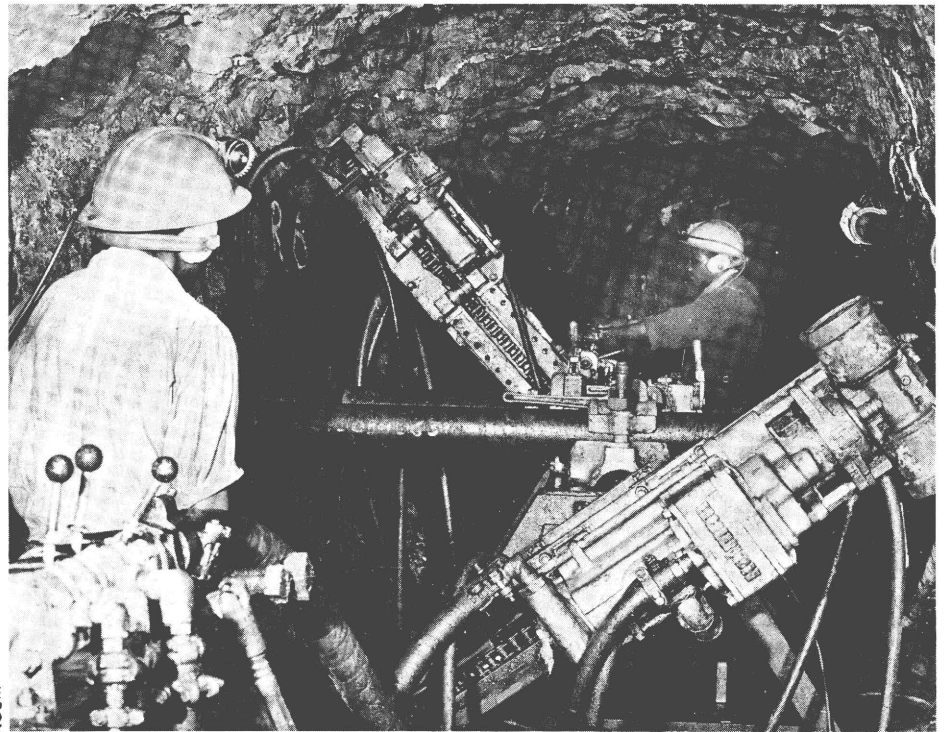
► For a few years now the Lomé Convention has been a new factor in Zambia's international relations. How do you view cooperation so far, and what do you expect from the negotiations for a new convention?

— Well I think there I'll be a bit selfish and say that in terms of the new negotiations, we are very much interested in the Stabex scheme. We would like countries like Zambia, who produce minerals like copper and so on, to be considered in the same way as those who produce agricultural products. After all we are also developing and for minerals we sometimes have prices which fall, as is the case now, so we need assistance.

We would emphasize the point that the new convention should take care of this type of problem, but apart from that I really think the Lomé Convention has proved a very good beginning. We have studied the problems, we are trying to solve them in "Lomé 2", and perhaps "Lomé 3" in the future will bring about even stronger ties between the EEC and ACP. □

Interview by  
ROGER DE BACKER

(1) United National Independence Party.



Mining in the Copperbelt is the key to Zambia's economy

Agriculture is receiving greater attention from the government, with the twin objectives of achieving self-sufficiency in food and encouraging a return to the land



## Zambia: selected economic indicators 1971-1978

Indicators	Unit	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978(1)
Population (growth rate: 2.9%)	000	4 386	4 527	4 675	4 829	4 981	5 138	5 308	5 472
<b>Production trends</b>									
<b>1. Total gross domestic product</b>									
a) at current prices	million Kwacha	1 180.3	1 317.7	1 528.7	1 887.2	1 612.8	1 923.5	2 010.6	2 256.5
b) at current (1965) prices	million Kwacha	825.3	893.0	894.4	1 000.4	997.9	1 028.0	1 000.8	1 001.1
c) at constant (1965) prices adjusted for terms of trade	million Kwacha	850.5	903.3	1 066.9	1 025.8	823.5	869.3	756.8	748.9
<b>2. Per capita domestic product</b>									
a) at current prices	Kwacha (2)	268	290	338	391	324	373	363	412
b) at constant (1965) prices	Kwacha	187	197	191	207	200	198	185	183
c) at constant (1965) prices adjusted for terms of trade	Kwacha	193	199	227	212	165	163	144	135
<b>3. Copper production (volume)</b>	'000 tons	633.4	698.0	681.2	702.1	640.3	713.0	660.0	662.0
<b>4. Maize production</b>	'000 bags (90 kg)	3 773.3	6 850.6	4 259.0	6 284.5	6 204.2	8 400.7	7 527.0	7 300.0
<b>Government Finance</b>									
1. Recurrent revenue	million Kwacha	309.0	315.2	385.2	647.5	448.3	440.4		Sept. 398.8
2. Recurrent expenditure	million Kwacha	350.3	363.1	394.1	440.9	581.0	608.7		389.3
3. Surplus (+) or deficit (-) on revenue account	million Kwacha	- 41.3	- 47.9	- 8.9	+ 206.6	- 132.7	- 168.5		- 9.5
4. Capital account receipts	million Kwacha	179.9	138.5	290.3	150.1	169.8	306.4		—
5. Capital account expenditure	million Kwacha	202.6	160.4	388.1	193.8	245.5	327.5		37.3
6. Surplus (+) or deficit (-) on capital account	million Kwacha	- 22.7	- 21.7	- 97.8	- 43.7	- 75.7	- 21.1		—
7. Combined deficit (-) or sur- plus (+) on recurrent and capital account (3 + 6)	million Kwacha	- 64.0	- 69.8	- 106.7	+ 162.9	- 208.4	- 189.6		27.8
8. Public debt total (as at the end of each year)	million Kwacha	372.3	426.2	581.5	636.4	712.4			17.9
N. internal	million Kwacha	195.5	230.4	264.3	282.1	306.0			+ 34.6
N. external	million Kwacha	176.8	195.8	317.2	354.3	406.4			- 16.7
<b>Balance of payments</b>									
1. Export	million Kwacha	479.2	543.5	733.5	898.2	523.1	705.0	704.0	
2. Imports	million Kwacha	401.3	404.5	349.4	508.5	599.6	565.0	565.0	
3. Trade Balance	million Kwacha	+ 77.9	+ 138.7	+ 384.1	+ 389.6	- 76.5	+ 215.0	139.0	
4. Current account surplus (+) or deficit (-)	million Kwacha	- 176.0	- 148.8	93.4	48.5	- 392.5	- 103.0	- 180.0	
5. Overall surplus (+) or deficit (-)	million Kwacha	- 208.6	- 107.7	- 8.1	18.6	- 250.0	- 136.2	- 204.0	
<b>Price trends</b>									
<b>1. Consumer price index (all items)</b>									
(i) high income group base 1975 = 100		74.5	78.7	84.6	92.2	100.0	116.1	136.0	Sept. 157.7
(ii) low income group = 100		75.1	78.9	81.0	90.8	100.0	118.8	142.3	173.6
<b>Copper price — LME (3)</b>	Kwacha per ton	767	765	1 156	1 327	794	1 007	1 016	1 126

Source: Economic Report 1978—National Commission for Development Planning—Lusaka, January 1978.

(1) 1978 figures are provisional.

(2) Currency unit: 1 Kwacha (100 Ngwee) = 0.93 EUA (February 1979).

(3) London Metal Exchange copper price after March 1978 is in terms of post-devaluation Kwacha.

## Zambia's copper-bottomed economy

"Of all the countries in southern Africa, Zambia never had an opportunity of settling down without being disrupted by wars and revolutions in one country or another bordering on it". This quote from a recent UN report on the state of Zambia's economy describes well the background to Zambia's efforts to develop its copper dominated mono-economy.

Named after the Zambezi river, which rises in the north-western corner of the country, Zambia, with an area of 752 618 sq kms (roughly the size of France and West Germany together) is landlocked in the heart of southern Africa. Since its independence on 24 October 1964, most of its eight neighbours—Zaire, Tanzania, Malawi, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Botswana, Namibia and Angola—have gone or are going through liberation struggles or internal difficulties, with obvious adverse effects on Zambia's export and import lifelines to the coasts.

Under the Central African Federation (1958-1963) Zambia, then Northern Rhodesia, was basically exploited for its rich copper deposits. The transportation system was essentially southern oriented, through Rhodesia and South Africa. Local industry was undeveloped as most supplies came from the south. Little attention was paid to agriculture, although the country was, and is, potentially rich. Rhodesia's unilateral declaration of independence in 1965, just a year after Zambia's own independence, necessitated a re-routing of its communications and trade pattern from the "white" south to the north.

Until 1977, the additional financial costs of applying sanctions against Rhodesia were estimated by the UN at US\$ 744 million.

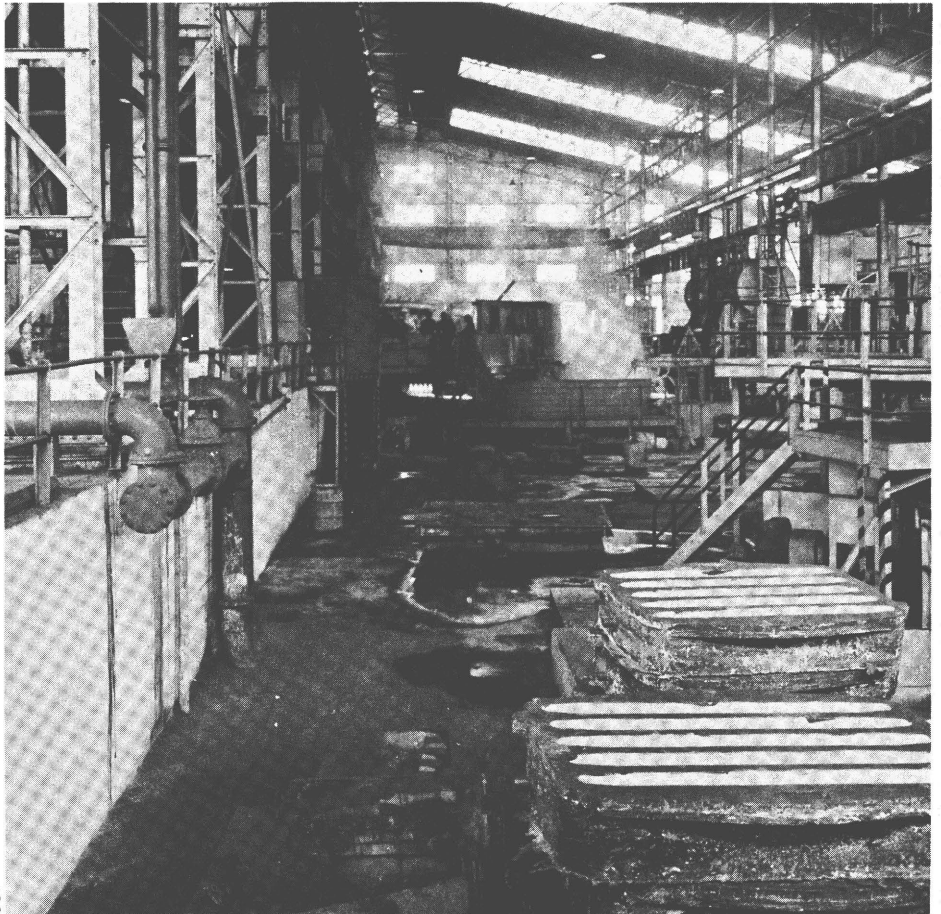
So Zambia's pre-independence legacy and the subsequent political events in adjacent countries have left it with an economy where copper alone continues to provide over 90% of export earnings. It has little control over the price fixing of this vital product, as fluctuations over the past five years have shown. The search for alternative outlets has perhaps played a bigger role than in any other landlocked developing country. Agriculture, despite its potential, still contributes less than 10% of the GNP.

### Diversifying into agriculture

"Experts differ on the matter", agriculture and water development minister Alexander Chikwanda told the *Courier*, "but of Zambia's 75 million hectares—with an average rainfall of 700-1 200 mm—about 60 million hectares of land are arable in varying degrees". At present less than 10 million hectares are under cultivation. Even though approximately US\$ 180 million has gone into rural development since 1972, agriculture still has a poor record (real growth in agriculture was only 0.6% in 1977 and 1.6% last year). "Agriculture has been sluggish in the past because of purely sociological reasons. Irrespective of politicians' aspirations for quick results, agriculture had to gain its own place—which I think it now has—and the government can only try to accelerate agricultural development by promoting services in

rural areas. Agriculture in Zambia is based practically 100% on private initiative. When people in so far non-agricultural areas such as the Northern Province take up farming and do well out of it by having, for example, a better house, sending their children to school, etc., these are the best incentives one can have, because of what I would call their demonstrative effect. The government must now take profit of this momentum by providing financial support to clear the land, to buy seeds and so on", minister Chikwanda explained.

In this respect Mr Chikwanda would like to transform the present Agricultural Finance Corporation into a real agricultural development bank. Also on the institutional side, he wants to improve the functioning of Namboard, the agricultural marketing organization which plays a key role in rural development. So far Namboard has not always been able to cope with the logistical problems arising from the sheer size of the country and a scattered population. "A lot of things have to be done to get more efficient marketing services.



Zambia is the world's fifth biggest producer of copper and has 10% of the world reserves





*Zambian agriculture was little developed at the time of independence, but is now becoming important*

Some departments of Namboard have proved to be weak due to the lack of trained manpower in such fields as accountancy. On the other hand, agricultural inputs have to reach the farmer in time—there are many transport problems—and at a cost bearable to him. Logistics are almost a nightmare here”. Minister Chikwanda is determined to improve these structures’ efficiency but there are limited financial and human resources. On the 1979 budget, for instance, 29.4 million kwacha out of a total of 123.9 million capital expenditure is allocated to agriculture.

### **Back to the land**

Zambia’s strategy for rural development is based on the implementation of integrated projects which would improve agricultural output and close the urban-rural gap. The rural reconstruction programme plays a key role in attaining food self-sufficiency, developing agro-industries, possibly for export, and for getting the people

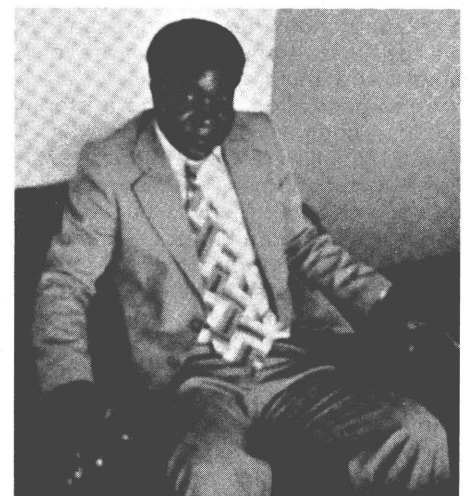
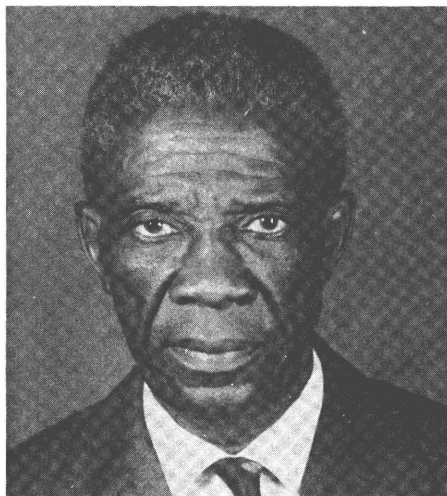
back to the land. Through these centres Zambia hopes to halt its trend to urbanization. Already 40% of the total population live in urban areas, as against only 20% in 1964, which is a cause of social imbalances.

Zambia is normally self-sufficient in certain food items but it is also a net importer for others such as wheat (less than 5% of its wheat requirements are locally produced). This season, however, irregular rainfall could mean that the country will face a very serious shortfall in its production of maize, the basis of the main staple food (mealie meal). Minister Chikwanda estimates the shortfall at a maximum of 4-5 million bags (90 kg) in comparison with 1978, when production reached 7.3 million bags. “This will necessitate huge imports, which weren’t budgeted for and we are already short of foreign exchange” Mr Chikwanda said. This is the reason why, in addition to the EEC’s food aid programme Commissioner Cheysson proposed during his March visit to try and raise funds, within the framework of an inter-African cooperation programme, to pro-

vide Zambia with a further 100 000 tons of white maize, to be bought in neighbouring surplus countries such as Kenya, Tanzania and Malawi.

The EEC’s indicative programme itself is predominantly aimed at rural development (63%) and “this will considerably add to Zambia’s food self-sufficiency and improve its foreign exchange situation in terms of exporting surplus or of substituting imports”, Mr Chikwanda declared. European aid will basically go to wheat, rice and cotton production and livestock development.

Agricultural development in Zambia is largely dependent on the transportation system (the “logistics nightmare”) and even here political situations in neighbouring countries play an important role: last year, in October, President Kaunda decided to reopen the southern railway in order to get the bulk of the fertilizer imports for the next season to the farmers in time. Port congestion and transport constraints aid not allow the use of either the Tanzania or the Mozambique links.



*Mr Mumbuna, minister of mines, Mr A. Chikwanda, minister of agriculture and water development, and Mr L. Sichilongo, secretary of state for finance*

## The transport bottlenecks

Today, in all fields of its economy, be it agriculture, manufacturing or mining, Zambia suffers from serious constraints in its transportation system: the lack of trained manpower; the shortage of foreign exchange, which prevents the purchase of the necessary spare parts or new machinery to keep trucks and wagons running; the congestion of the port of Dar es Salaam and the managerial problems of the ports of Maputo and Beira in Mozambique; insecurity as to whether the southern railway can be kept open; the closure of the Benguela railway (1) (through Zaire to Lobito); the difficulties of using the Tazara railway (1 860 km, from Kapiri-Mposhi to Dar es Salaam) to its full capacity. Each of these problems affects the others and makes it necessary for Zambia to tackle them not only on the national level, but also on a regional level. International assistance is needed, since the financial requirements for the reopening of the Benguela railway, for instance, would be too heavy a burden for the developing countries of the region alone.

As President Kaunda told the *Courier* (see interview p. 7), several railway and road projects are now in the pipeline for the improvement of the existing infrastructure or for building new links.

## Zimco: an industrial giant

From an institutional point of view, the whole of the transportation system is run by para-statal organizations which, for their part, are grouped under Zimco, the Zambia Industrial and Mining Corporation Ltd. At the end of 1978 and early 1979 President Kaunda reformed Zimco, which now covers practically the whole of the Zambian economy, including mining and metal marketing industries, trade agencies, energy and transport corporations, hotels and building societies. Before the reorganization, Zimco as a proper holding company had a turnover of over \$1.9 billion (as of 31 March 1977); now it has absorbed Mindeso, a cooperation which formerly grouped non-copper mining companies, and Indeco which controlled directly operational industries. All these combined make up the Zimco corporation, which ranks among some of the world's biggest companies. As Mr Chileshe, Zimco's executive director for industry and commerce, and his colleague Mr Chisanga, executive director for transport and energy, pointed out, management will be tighter now under the new structure. Parastatal corporations will be independently managed though



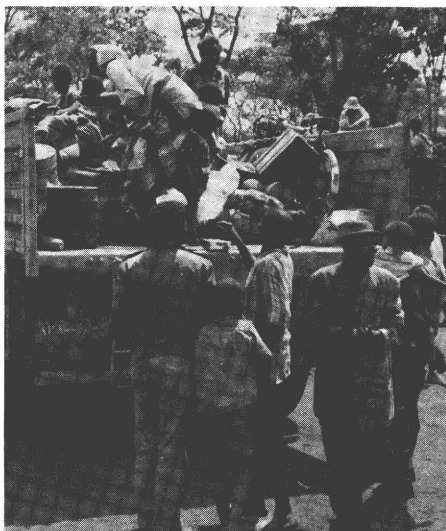
*Women prepare mealie meal from maize*

more directly accountable for their performance. Zimco's board and executive managers will act as watchdogs to monitor the companies' efficiency and profits. The board will also support them in achieving their production and growth objectives and will impose strict budgetary planning in the short and long term. As Mr Chisanga pointed out "some red tape will have to be cut and the decision-making processes will have to be streamlined".

Manufacturing industry in Zambia represented about 10% of GDP in 1978 and in the same year real output is estimated to have increased by 7%, which was a fair performance considering the foreign exchange shortage which prevents many industries getting regular outside supplies.

## The Copperbelt: the world's most concentrated copper-producing area

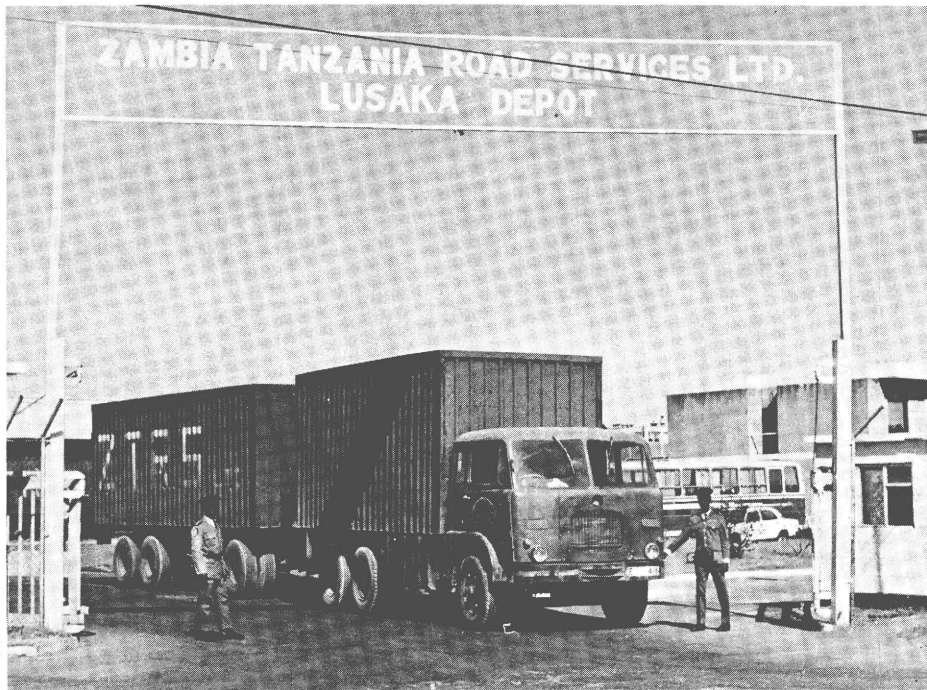
Some 300 km north of Lusaka is the most industrialized area of black Africa, the Copperbelt (approx. 50 km by 110 km). The mineral wealth of this region, bordering Zaire's copper mines in Shaba, makes Zambia on a world level the fifth copper producer and the second largest producer of cobalt—a by-product of copper production. The country also mines lead, zinc, gold and coal, but its economy has always been almost entirely dependent on the performance of its copper mining and the copper price, which is basically fixed at the London metal exchange (LME). Minister of mines M. Mumbuna believes that diversification is not only the leading slogan for the overall economic situation (with the new emphasis on agriculture) but also within the



*Zambia receives a number of refugees from various parts of southern Africa. This Angolan refugee camp (October 1978) received exceptional aid for repatriation from the EEC*

(1) Closed since 1975, the Benguela railway was to reopen on 2 April 1979.





ZIMCO

As it is landlocked, Zambia depends heavily on road and rail transport



ZIS

mining sector itself. Other minerals will gradually become more important, though copper will clearly continue for some years to dominate his ministry's activities.

This diversification of the mining sector, with exploration for new minerals and the regeneration of the copper industry, will obviously require new investments as well as sufficient engineers and other experts. "Zambia is in itself still a country of peace and stability, which has always met its responsibilities", Mr Mumbuna stressed. "For a

realistic development of our yet untapped mineral potential, for instance, uranium, iron ore and manganese—there are even indications that we might find oil in the Western Province and in the Luangwa valley—we are looking for partners who are willing to operate in our country in joint ventures with us, or in any other form of cooperation that meets both partners' interests". As investments in mining are both costly and lengthy—it takes about seven years from exploration to production—Zambia is looking for new outside investors, who can operate

under the Industrial Development Act, and financial assistance to buy spare parts, etc. for the industry. Minister Mumbuna insisted that "no discrimination should be made in the ACP-EEC context between agricultural countries and mineral-producing countries with regard to schemes to stabilize export receipts, and this should be so even if prices for our copper soared".

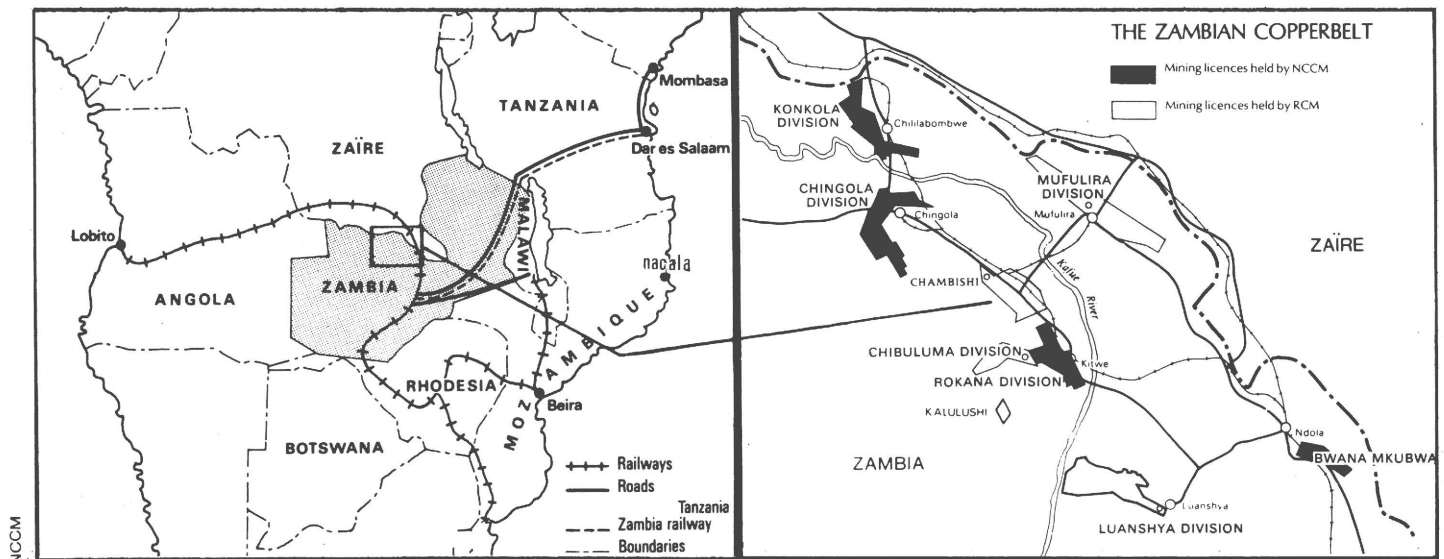
### The mining companies: optimism

Zambia's mining sector is basically in the hands of two major companies: Nchanga Consolidated Copper Mines Ltd. (NCCM) and Roan Consolidated Mines Ltd. (RCM). Both companies have faced serious difficulties, especially since copper prices collapsed and since the Benguela railway closed down in 1975. To get through this period they had to go into heavy borrowing at Zambia's Central Bank and rather than have to repay these loans, they were capitalized so that presently the government holds 60.003% of the shares in each company, the rest of the shares being held by private shareholders. NCCM accounts for about 400 000 tonnes of Zambia's normal total copper production of about 700 000 tonnes.

As Francis Kaunda, managing director of NCCM, pointed out, "the copper market crisis has led on a world level to a serious reduction of production capacities and prices have been low so long that no capital expenditure was possible and subsequently investments were cut back". At the end of 1974 and for about the whole of 1975 prices ranged between £600-700 per tonne on the London metal exchange. Prices have been gradually picking up and in mid-March 1979 they were at about £1 000 per tonne. Mr Kaunda emphasised Zambia's need for a "good" price. "Given Zambia's geographical situation, we need about £900 per tonne, which includes loan interest repayments, to make an equal balance; above that we become profitable. Yet we have to recuperate the continuous losses of the past years, and to start a new copper mine our cost calculation amounts to some £1 200 per tonne".

The foreign exchange situation is increasingly affecting the companies' performances: taking NCCM, the biggest operator, as an example, its production reached 428 000 tonnes in 1977 ("the second highest production ever in the life of NCCM") but in 1978 it fell to 385 000 tonnes which means below the normal production level of 400 000 tonnes and this year's production will be about the same. These reductions, according to Mr Kaunda,





are due to "involuntary production cut-backs, given the foreign exchange and manpower shortage... With a fair price, enabling us to buy spare parts, to attract engineers, to carry out some necessary work we have postponed so far, we could easily increase our production to more acceptable levels".

As far as manpower is concerned, NCCM alone employs some 33 000 people, including 1 800 expatriates (recruiting was stopped in November 1977 and about 2 000 people were "lost"). Intensive training for the industry started at independence; NCCM and RCM together now spend about 16 million kwacha on their industrial training unit, and Zambians now form the basis of the industry, the expatriates being attracted for "their catalytic effect and because they bring in international know-how".

Transport also places serious constraints on the mining companies: "Normally our stock on the Copperbelt is about 1 000 tonnes, but in October of last year NCCM's stocks totalled 44 000 tonnes and RCM's 30 000 tonnes: this really means that even with relatively low low prices, about £70 million of our so badly required foreign exchange was just sitting there", Mr Kaunda said.

### "International copper negotiations are unrealistic"

The NCCM's managing director has his own views on the ongoing UNCTAD talks on copper. "The market situation really dominates the attitude of the parties, be they producers or consumers, to reaching a fair agreement. I would say that Zambia as a founding member of CIPEC(1) doesn't want to take advantage of its geological accident—we have 10% of the known world reserves of copper and we are

discovering practically day by day that our potential for cobalt is very substantial—to form a cartel and take the world for a "ride"; we want to avoid confrontation on this issue and play a moderating role on the world scene", he said.

Zambia's copper is marketed through Memaco (Metal Marketing Corporation), basically at the LME; even if it obtained a premium last year for the high quality of its copper, Zambia is still largely in the hands of this LME system for its copper price. Mr Kaunda has "strong feelings about this. But I have to accept it in the absence of any other price mechanism. Others have been tried but didn't work out", he said.



Francis Kaunda, director-general of Nchanga Consolidated Mines Ltd, the main mining company in Zambia

Since the activity to find substitutes for copper, such as aluminium, stainless steel or plastics, has now settled down—only a technological breakthrough in such fields as optical fibres could "harm" the use of copper—the outlook for the Zambian copper industry is generally good. In fact, in early April, prices at the LME were expected to break through the £1 400 per tonne record, because of mine closures in Canada and overall market shortages.

If Mr Kaunda is generally optimistic about the future of mining in Zambia then this is perhaps mainly due to the outlook for the growth of cobalt production: "Here the future is really bright: in 1979 Zambia will produce some 3 000 tonnes of this highly valuable product". (March '79: 4 000 kwacha per tonne—in fact prices have more than trebled since last year). "Our national potential is very substantial: NCCM alone will raise its production within the next three or four years from a little less than 1 500 tonnes to about 7 000 tonnes".

At present price levels 7 000 tonnes of cobalt represents in value about the same as 700 000 tonnes of mined copper!

### The problem of an open economy

Despite this positive view of the future, the financial experts today are closely guarding the country's finances and are carrying out tight programmes to overcome the crisis. Lloyd Sichil-

(1) CIPEC: Intergovernmental Council of Copper Exporting Countries (full members: Chile, Indonesia, Peru, Zaïre, Zambia; associate members: Australia, Mauritania, Papua New Guinea, Yugoslavia).

ongo, national authorizing officer and permanent secretary of finance, pointed out that "government revenue from the taxation of mining companies has fallen considerably: from 340 million kwacha in 1974 (pre-crisis) to only 11 million kwacha in 1976 and nothing for the last two years. In fact, since 1975 the government has had to resort to deficit financing. However, I am confident that our future is not bleak. The whole of our problem lies in the fact that our economy is so open: our output prices have gone down steadily but those for our imported inputs keep going up".

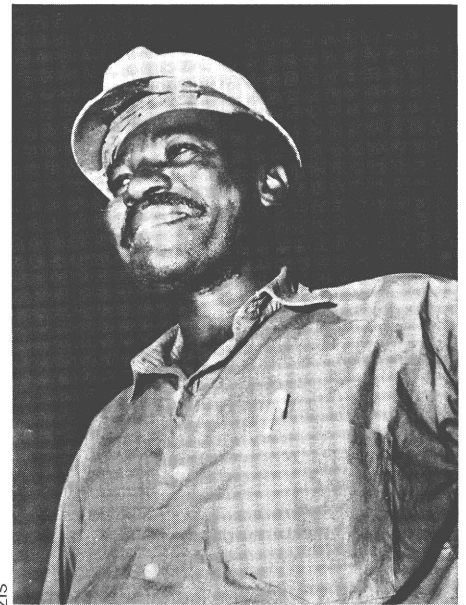
### A UN assessment of the situation

UN assistant secretary-general Gordon Goundry, who is joint coordinator of the special economic assistance programme in the office for special political questions of Mr Waldheim in New York, thinks it will take Zambia quite some time to get over its accumulated and compounding problems. "Last year's assessment of the financial needs of Zambia from mid '77 to the end of 1979 totalled \$1.2 billion: this was what we felt was necessary to carry out the development projects within that period, to meet the balance of payments deficit and to clear outstanding arrears on debt repayments. A total of \$850 million is a more realistic estimate (it would be unrealistic to expect a total inflow of resources of \$1.2 billion) and this after the IMF agreed in April 1978 to provide 250 million in Special Drawing Rights. However, from these 850 million only

\$600-650 million will be provided by ongoing programmes from all foreign donors: the gap isn't covered and this primarily shows in the non-reduction of arrears. The arrears are difficult to ascertain but in mid '78 we believe these reached \$500-550 million. The seriousness of these arrears cuts Zambia off from loaning on normal commercial terms and affects every part of the economy". Thus Mr Goundry sees in the combination of political instability in neighbouring countries, the severe balance of payments problems and the arrears situation ("which puts off foreign investors") a serious threat to Zambia's economic development. Although optimistic that the transport bottlenecks can be overcome, as most donors to Zambia are now in line to cope with these, Mr Goundry is less hopeful as far as the settling of the Namibian and especially of the Zimbabwean "situation" is concerned. "For Zimbabwe there are no grounds for optimism as the problems are so intractable that there aren't even possible solutions suggested", he felt.

### "Learning lessons from the crisis"

To Dr H. Matipa, member of UNIP's Central Committee(1), former minister of commerce and an old Lomé negotiator (ministerial councils in Fiji and in Brussels in 1976) the crisis has taught people not to remain complacent about development" and also "how to tighten the belt". Queueing for such basic items as sugar, salt and soap is not unusual these days in Zambia. While pointing out the influence of external



*Despite five years of crisis in the mining sector, confidence in the future has not gone*

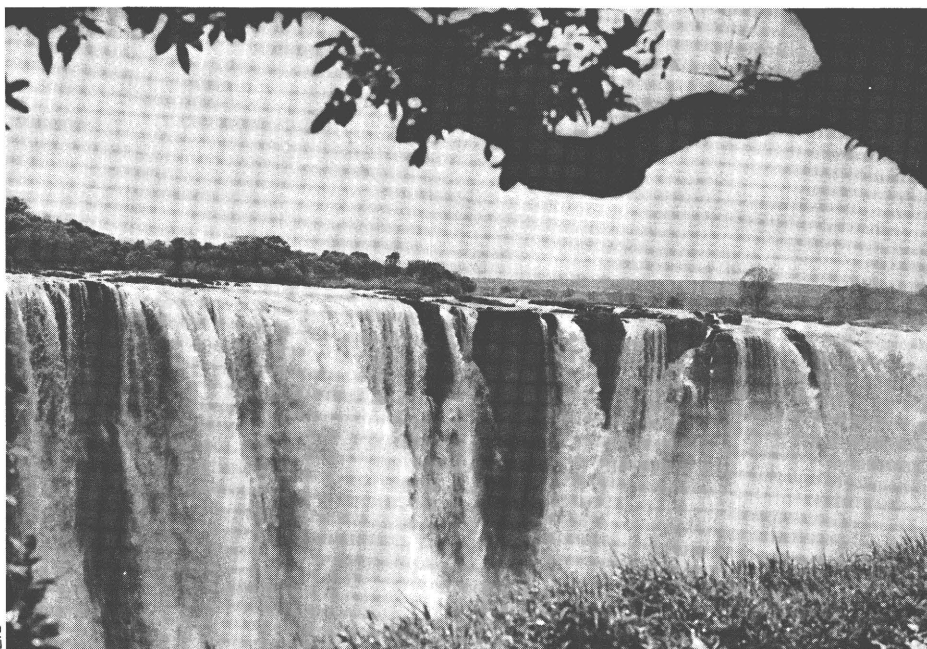
events on Zambia's pace of development, Dr Matipa emphasized the need for peace in this region and enough common sense to prevent a regular war breaking out in southern Africa". Zambia will continue to develop along its humanistic philosophy (the thousands of refugees from neighbouring countries in Zambia are a "proof how peaceful this country is in itself" and Zambia's support for liberation movements is "in line with the fundamental respect of man") but will require aid from "friendly" nations.

### Room for improvement

Dr Matipa views cooperation under the Lomé Convention so far as follows. "Though each country taken individually has different technical interests, I see the ACP group as a real promotion of African unity. ACP-EEC cooperation is in itself something that should be achieved on a world level, because here we work concretely to solve our common problems; if UNCTAD or the North-South dialogue had only achieved one third of that..."

However, Dr Matipa leaves no doubt that within this cooperation there is room for improvement, and this is also how Mr Sichilongo sees it: "something could be said about the red tape, but it is better to solve that as we go along. In general what Zambia is really looking for is an improvement in the transfer of real resources from the EEC". □

R.D.B.



*Victoria Falls on the Zambezi, known as Musi-oo-Tunya (the smoke which thunders), in full flood. It's one of Zambia's major tourist attractions*

(1) In Zambia's political structure, the central committee of UNIP is the policy-making body, the government being the policy implementer.

## EXAMPLE OF AN EDF PROJECT

# The Mpongwe pilot project

by Charles BROOK(\*)

While copper and the mining of other minerals will continue to be the cornerstone of Zambia's economy for many years to come, the overriding importance of agriculture in feeding and clothing the urban population, now over 40% of Zambia's 5.4 million inhabitants, and in diversifying the country's economic base has been increasingly recognised by the government since independence in 1964.

That over 63% of the indicative aid programme allocation is devoted to agricultural development underlines the government's determination to achieve self-sufficiency in foodstuffs and develop export opportunities. Within the programme, the Mpongwe pilot project, for which funding was agreed in January 1978 and which began the following month, is regarded by the government as an almost unique opportunity to immediately implement agricultural development and at the same time plan for a major expansion in farming operations at all production levels.

### The area

Mpongwe is some 250 km north-west of the capital, Lusaka, and 100 km

south-west of Ndola, the administrative centre of Zambia's Copperbelt. Here, in a sparsely populated region, covered by the 20 to 30 metre tall trees characteristic of the woodlands of the Central African Plateau, lies a core of over 50 000 hectares of rich, red clay loam soils, overlying for the most part dolomitic limestone—an area of untapped agricultural potential about which little was known in terms of resources and development possibilities, but similar to the major farming areas of Mkushi to the east and Chisamba, between Lusaka and Kabwe, to the south.

### Aims of the pilot project

Unlike many area development projects, where only after detailed feasibility studies is any execution undertaken on the ground, the Mpongwe pilot project was conceived as a more dynamic approach embodying both study elements and development implementation as essential ingredients of regional planning. The 2.65 m EUA released by the financing agreement of January 1978 covers three separate but inter-related components, which together are designed to provide the required information to justify the short, medium and long-term development of up to 15 000 hectares of irrigable crop land, with possibly a further 10 000 hectares of rain-fed arable farms, excluding areas set aside for livestock.

Primarily aimed at wheat production, the area could eventually produce up to 50% of Zambia's requirement of over 150 000 tonnes per year. Other crops such as soya beans, maize, cotton and vegetables may also play important roles in the cropping pattern. Both the immediate area and the area to the south are free of tsetse flies, offering considerable scope for livestock production as well.

The three components include:

- the establishment of a 200 hectare pilot farm growing wheat and other crops, using various methods of irrigation, with a view to establishing development costs and economically viable farming patterns;
- detailed geophysical and hydrological surveys to determine groundwater resources as the eventual source of irrigation water, in addition to soil surveys;
- specific planning and feasibility studies to define the most appropriate development direction for the area.

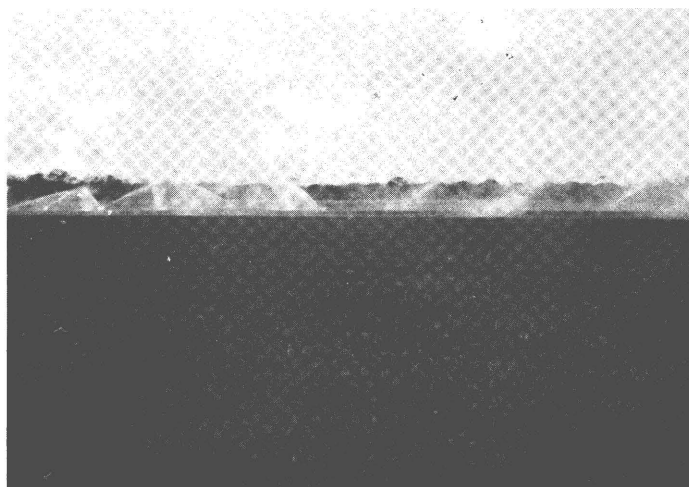
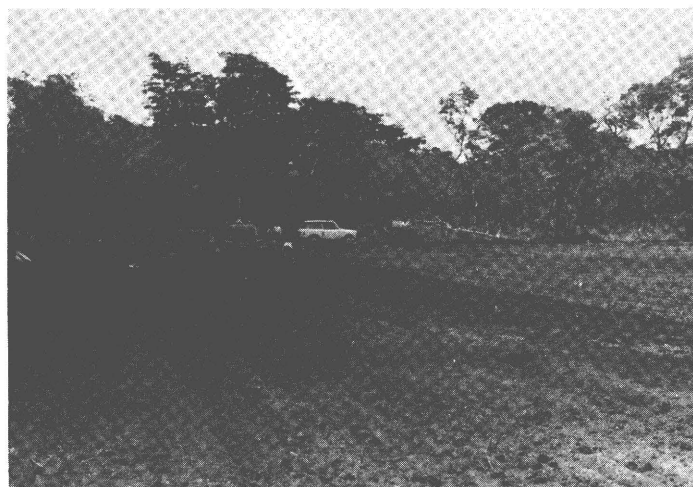
The Mpongwe project is seen as a three year preliminary phase to the broader development of the region.

### Implementation and progress

Under the guidance of the Ministry of Agriculture and Water Development and its Mpongwe Pilot Project Steering Committee, charged with the execution and direction of the scheme, a start was made on the pilot farm in mid-February 1978.

Over 200 hectares of virgin 'bush' was cleared by May, and a start made on clearing and levelling the land for overhead and surface irrigation. A 2 km pipeline was laid to the nearby Nam-

(\*) Agricultural adviser at the EEC delegation in Lusaka.



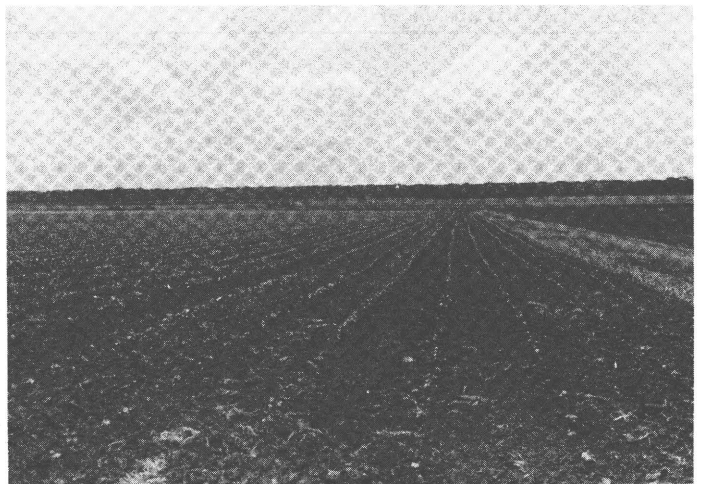
Clearing the bush and levelling the land (May 1978) before irrigation and sowing wheat





*The first harvest in October 1978 (25 ha) yielded 4.5 tonnes per hectare*

pamba sinkhole and pumps installed to deliver irrigation water. Then 25 hectares of wheat were planted in early June, which produced 4.5 tonnes per ha when harvested in October.



*With the first rains of November, 150 ha of soya beans (above), green manures and cotton were sown*

Windrowing and land-planning continued up to the start of the annual rains in November, when 150 ha of soya beans, green manures and cotton were established. Internal roads and

irrigation channels have been constructed and a small house and farm building programme is due for completion in May 1979.

During the year, 33 test and production boreholes were drilled as part of the complex of groundwater studies and the necessary soil surveys completed. Alongside the physical developments and basic resource exploration, wider-ranging studies on agronomy, irrigation techniques, settlement schemes and assessment of potential settlers have been undertaken.

At the beginning of the second year of the project, the government had disbursed 0.75 m EUA of the 1.1 m EUA provided for the capital development of the pilot farm and committed 1.2 m EUA of the 1.47 m EUA allowed for the feasibility studies.

The outline development plan for the region is expected by the end of 1979, and this, together with the practical farming results from the pilot farm, will form the base data for the expansion of the scheme.

### **Some early lessons and the future**

The government's steering committee' approach has maintained the momentum of the project, which is presently on schedule. The pilot farm exists as a positive and physical reflection of the determination to accelerate development, while the parallel conduct of the resource studies and the feasibility exercise emphasises the keenness to ensure sound overall planning.

For the future, the results of the pilot project are seen in the context of an ability to attract funds from public and commercial sources for the integrated development of irrigated and rain-fed agriculture in the Mpongwe region. □



*President Kaunda (right) visiting the Mpongwe pilot project with his agriculture minister, Alexander Chikwanda (left) and project coordinator Guy Scott (centre). Zambia produces less than 5% of its wheat requirements*

## **BAHAMAS**

# **“We want to play our part both as an ACP state and as a member of the world Community”**

## **Lynden O. Pindling, Prime Minister of the Bahamas**

Lynden Pindling has enjoyed solid political support since he took over as Prime Minister from the white minority “Bay Street” government in 1967 and led the Bahamas to independence in 1973.

His Progressive Liberal Party shows no signs of running out of steam, having won 30 of the 38 seats in the House of Assembly in the July 1977 general election. Nor, after 12 years in power, does Mr Pindling, who was 49 on the day of this interview. A confident and approachable politician, he feels he still has a lot to do.

► *Prime Minister, the Bahamas has one of the largest per capita GNPs among the ACP countries. Do you have a formula that could be used by other developing countries?*

— The Bahamas may well have one of the largest GNPs among the ACP countries, but as far as we are concerned it is still not large enough. There is a significant population of well-to-do foreigners living in the Bahamas, servicing offshore companies, and this exaggerates the per capita income. Our efforts must therefore be directed towards increasing the percentage of the Bahamian population which enjoys middle-level incomes. We have requested that the peculiar circumstances of the Bahamas be taken into consideration because we have felt that the use of criteria other than simple crude aggregates, such as per capita income, should be used to determine eligibility for development assistance by international institutions. This has been done and a more realistic figure has evolved, one of \$2 370 instead of \$3 600.

I doubt, however, that there is any Bahamian formula for increasing GNP that could be used by other developing countries. Geography, climate, size, the temperament of the population and the economic system have all conspired together and it would be difficult for other countries to synthetically produce all these necessary ingredients.

► *Tourism is one of your main sources of income: do you think this sector can still expand, taking into account the fact that there is strong competition in the Caribbean?*

— Tourism is the biggest industry in the Bahamas; it is the mainstay of the economy. It has been a reliable “invisible” export for 30 years and is still growing. Tourism is a major earner of foreign exchange and tourism accounts for \$390 million in household income in the Bahamas.

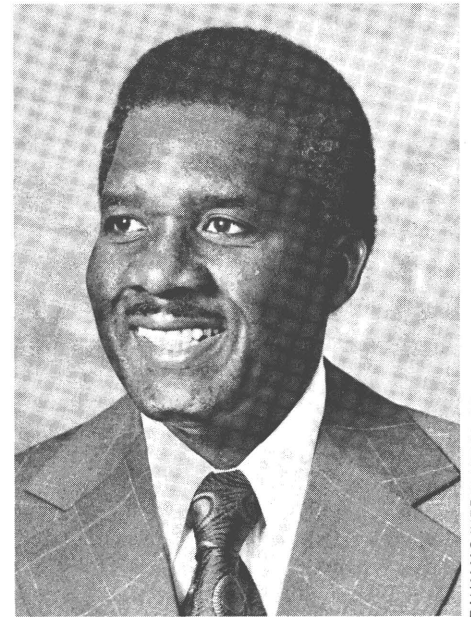
The potential for the growth of tourism in the Bahamas is great. Because we have so many islands, it is the policy of the government to encourage the development of tourism on other islands, thereby spreading economic development and growth more evenly throughout the Bahamas and avoiding over-concentration in any single area.

The Caribbean seems to be changing its traditional attitude towards tourism and now appears to be promoting it vigorously. Our sister islands constitute an attractive destination and so would offer some competition, but not sufficient, I think, to stunt the growth of the industry in the Bahamas.

One and three-quarter million tourists spent \$500 million in the Bahamas in 1978. We may receive two million tourists in 1979. Our target is to increase our gross earnings to \$1 000 million annually from tourism.

► *Tourism has brought little benefit to the southern islands. Is this situation likely to change?*

— Yes, that’s one of the points that I covered there. Tourism is centred more on the northern than the southern Bahamas and now we are endeavouring to provide additional facilities in the south. However, the south is not



Lynden O. Pindling

BAHAMAS INFORMATION SERVICES

likely to be predominantly devoted to tourism, because there are limitations of fresh water in the southern islands. Their economy will be based more on commercial fishing than on tourism. There will be tourist facilities there, but not to the same extent as in the northern islands. It is a policy of the government, however, to try and spread the tourist industry over as broad an area as possible, so that the economic benefits can filter right through on a broad basis.

► *But don't you think there are dangers for a country to rely so heavily on tourism?*

— I suppose there are some dangers; I don't know, however, that there is any greater danger in relying on tourism than there is in relying on any other single industry, whether it's copper, sugar, bananas cocoa or whatever it is. I think the danger is the single crop, whatever that single crop is.

► *Has your country suffered the consequences of this danger in the recent past? For example, a drop in the number of tourists?*

— We had a drop in the number of tourists immediately after the 1973-74 oil crisis. But the drop was in greater growth—we reached the point where we stopped growing and we stayed just about even for a year or so. That affected us in that the economy wasn't able to grow. We had negative or no growth, employment was stagnant and this situation filtered down to other areas of the economy such as con-



struction. It even affected agricultural products, because we were trying to build up the agricultural sector to supply more of the needs of the tourist sector. So we did feel the effects of that, but from the end of 1976 we started to move again and last year we had a 24% growth rate in tourism. This year, we think, will be about the same, so things are beginning to move again.

► *According to some, the Bahamas is no longer the tax haven it once was. Can you comment on this?*

— The Bahamas still continues to be the major tax haven in the world. Had it not been so, we would have seen a shrinkage of international banking business from here. The continuing success of the Bahamas as a financial centre is exemplified in the magnitude of Eurodollar transactions that are booked through the Bahamas. According to international financial statistics at the end of September 1978, the branches of US banks in the Bahamas had total assets of \$86 billion and total liabilities of \$87 billion, as compared with \$44 billion of assets and \$44 billion of liabilities at the end of 1975.

However, it is true to say that the Bahamas is not simply a tax haven as it may once have been. We are now an international financial centre with one of the finest telecommunications systems and business climates in the world, and in five years time we expect to be one of the leading insurance and shipping centres in the world.

► *Your currency is linked to the US dollar. How has fluctuation of the dollar affected the economy of your country? Are there ways of limiting such consequences?*

— The Bahamian dollar is linked to the US dollar and is on a par with it. As the bulk of our central bank's foreign exchange assets is kept in relatively liquid US dollar-denominated assets, the Bahamas has not suffered any exchange loss owing to depreciation of the dollar or to any sale of assets after the US discount rate was raised. On the other hand, some profits have been booked on account of that portion of the assets that are denominated in currencies other than the US dollar. So long as the rate of US inflation continues to be lower than that of other industrial countries, erosion in the real value of dollar assets will be relatively small. Since the bulk of the Bahamas' trade, both visible and invisible is with countries in western hemisphere, the impact of the depreciation of the US dollar on the Bahamian economy will not be particularly adverse. Moreover, the Canadian dollar has depreciated in



*In a cheerful mood with Claude Cheysson after the opening ceremony of the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers meeting*

terms of the US dollar and the adverse impact of any price rise in US food products may be partly met by substituting imports from Canada for imports from the USA.

Several factors, including price, determine the import demand for passenger cars, but a sharp rise in dollar terms in the prices of Japanese and European cars could shift the import demand for cars from Japanese and European markets to the US markets. The prices of luxury goods, china, glassware, perfumes, cameras, which the Bahamian trader imports from Europe for resale to tourists will no doubt go up, but they will be lower than the cif value of similar direct imports into the USA and Canada because of lower import duties in the Bahamas. Bahamian traders in such imported luxury articles will not be at a disadvantage vis-a-vis the US traders in such imported articles. The depreciation of the dollar, on the other hand, could help stimulate the European demand for Bahamas tourist-related services and thus contribute to strengthening its balance of payments. Most of the Bahamas' foreign debt is denominated in US dollars and the depreciation of the US dollar will not impose any additional burden on annual amortization payments.

If, however, the US inflation rate increases beyond that of other countries, that would, I think, have an adverse effect on the Bahamian economy.

► *The Bahamas imports the major part of its food. Are there prospects of growing more food within the country?*

— It is imperative that the Bahamas produces more food and to this end the government has been promoting and planning a programme for self-suf-

iciency. This means growing more of whatever can be grown successfully and economically for our own consumption and to provide a surplus for export, the proceeds of which will help pay for the foods we cannot grow and must import.

Besides just feeding ourselves (which is important enough, because the next world crunch after oil may well be food), increased food production from the land as well as the sea would improve the economic prospects of Bahamian farmers and fishermen, save valuable foreign exchange and further increase the net value of tourism, which provides a ready-made market on our doorsteps.

► *Do you think that the objective of self-sufficiency in food by 1980 will be achieved?*

— I don't think we will do it by 1980. But when we were thinking about encouraging agricultural production, we believed it was psychologically important to set a target, so that all the planning could be channelled towards achieving a certain objective by a certain date. We may not achieve complete self-sufficiency by 1980, but agricultural production has trebled and I think, in due course, we shall achieve self-sufficiency in the things that we produce. We can't grow everything, but there are some things that we can produce for the local market; and we are going into areas of production that will be export-oriented, for instance citrus fruit and avocados, for which we found there was a market both in North America and in West Europe. That's what we are going to do. And besides processing what we need at home, the tourist industry, with a million or more tourists, provides an export market right on our doorstep.





Queen Elizabeth II and Prince Philip visit the Bahamas (1977). Mr Gerald Cash, interim governor-general, with Mrs Pindling (right). Premier Lynden Pindling with Mrs Cash (left)

► *But according to some opinions, the people of the Bahamas are very reluctant to go into agriculture. Is this true?*

— Yes, that is very true. They are reluctant to go into farming or fishing on any large scale, because traditionally we have not been big farmers and big fishermen. So they will need to be encouraged, both financially and psychologically. They've got to be shown that one can obtain decent economic rewards from farming and fishing, as from any other endeavour, and that's the way we are trying to go at the moment.

► *Turning to international cooperation, is there a particular point you would like to emphasize during the current ACP-EEC negotiations?*

— Well, yes, I think as far as the Bahamas is concerned we would wish to know that the items of agricultural products previously agreed to are extended, so as to include things like citrus and avocados.

We've noticed that the amount of rum imports to the Community has been reduced over the last two or three years. That has had an effect on our own rum exports, but we think that that could probably be overcome. However, we also have borne in mind some of the difficulties that our colleagues have had and we would wish to see some minerals included in the Stabex items: copper and bauxite, possibly, because

our brothers in Guyana and Jamaica are bauxite producers, Zambia produces copper and they're having a very difficult time. We would wish to see things like that included in the Stabex list.

► *You have an expanding oil-refining industry based on imported crude. What are the prospects for energy production in your country?*

— At the moment it is difficult to say what the prospects are for energy production in the Bahamas. The sun, the sea, the wind—all have their untapped potential—but I believe you are speaking of fossil fuels.

Since I was a boy I have heard of the possibility of there being oil in the Bahamas. A couple of deep drillings at about 18 000 feet produced suggestive traces of oil and gas at the turn of the decade, but at that time the technology was not available for exploitation at such depths and, in any event, it was thought uneconomic. As the price of crude oil moves upwards to \$20 a barrel, however, it soon will be economic.

We have made our own geological surveys and these suggest that there is a probability of economic quantities of oil in the Bahamas and in the Blake Plateau north of the Bahamas. This plateau will be shared with the United States, of course, since each of us claims the 200-mile economic zone nearest to us.

The Bahamas government will be inviting oil companies to take exploration licences this year over certain areas of the Bahamas. The results remain to be seen.

► *The Bahamas, like most of the Caribbean countries, has an unemployment problem, particularly among unskilled young people. How is your government handling the situation?*

— Our approach to date has been less than satisfactory. We have now agreed to place a great deal more emphasis on vocational and technical education, including the areas of farming and commercial fishing.

► *Don't you think that the unemployment problem has something to do with immigration in the Bahamas?*

— I don't think so to any real extent. It relates to training, re-training and new economic opportunities. I think we have the means by which we could control immigration.

► *Did the decision of your country to host the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers have a particular meaning?*

— Yes. The Bahamas wants to play its part both as an ACP member and as a member of the international community. We are also in the process of developing our conference facilities so that, outside the facilities of the United Nations in New York, the Bahamas would be an important venue for international conferences of all kinds. A new conference centre will be built and become operational in Nassau, our capital city, by the end of 1982. The conference centre will be embodied in a new 700-room hotel and will be equipped with all the necessary features and facilities.

As a conference venue, Nassau will be to the Americas what Geneva is to Europe.

► *You have already achieved a good deal in your time as Prime Minister. Do you feel a point will come when you will have accomplished what you wanted to do?*

— That's very hard to say, but I think that I would like to see full employment restored to the Bahamas, and if we can do that, I would feel distinctly honoured to have been permitted to lead the Bahamas to independence and full employment. And that's about all you could ask any one fellow to do.

□

Interview by A.T.

## Sunshine on the service sector

The Bahamas. No other country in the world is so synonymous with holidays with bathing on long, golden beaches and lazing beneath the palms. And the reputation is still richly deserved, in spite of the fact that the islands are already, and will be increasingly, their leaders hope, something more than a holiday destination. The tourist trade will dominate for some time to come.

What brings the tourists to "the country of 700 islands and 2 000 cays" is its exceptional and reliable climate (23° C in winter and 29° C in summer). And the islands, astride the Tropic of Cancer, are warmed by the Gulf Stream in winter and tempered by balmy breezes in summer. Tourists continue to flock there in ever greater numbers, the one exception being during the bad period that followed the 1973 energy crisis and recession in the USA. There were 32 000 tourists way back in 1949, 1 500 000 by 1973 and 1 750 000 last year. This year they should pass the two million mark, almost 10 tourists for each of the 210 000 inhabitants. In 1972, the tourists trade accounted for 70% of GNP. In 1978, with earnings of some \$500 million (the Bahaman dollar is at par with the American), the figure was 77%. Tourism provides 58% of government revenue and 64% of all customs duties; it is also the country's biggest employer, occupying 44% of the total labour force directly and 22% of workers indirectly.

This influx of tourists did lead to a certain amount of hostility among the local population, although the government was quick to head it off by running vigorous campaigns on the radio, in the press and on posters to point out all the advantages of the tourist trade. Tourism minister Clement Maynard, said: "it is difficult to live in a tourist area, a strong resort area without developing certain tourist habits of living at a high level an expensive way of life. On the other hand too, our children have to be kept pretty well in line so that they will be able to continue their education and follow the pattern that's set aside for them by the Ministry of Education and not look for the easy dollar and neglect their education. But families here are very strong and are influential and are able to guide their children. Another thing to is the drug culture in the western world, it is something we have got to be careful of and we have very strong laws effecting that here."

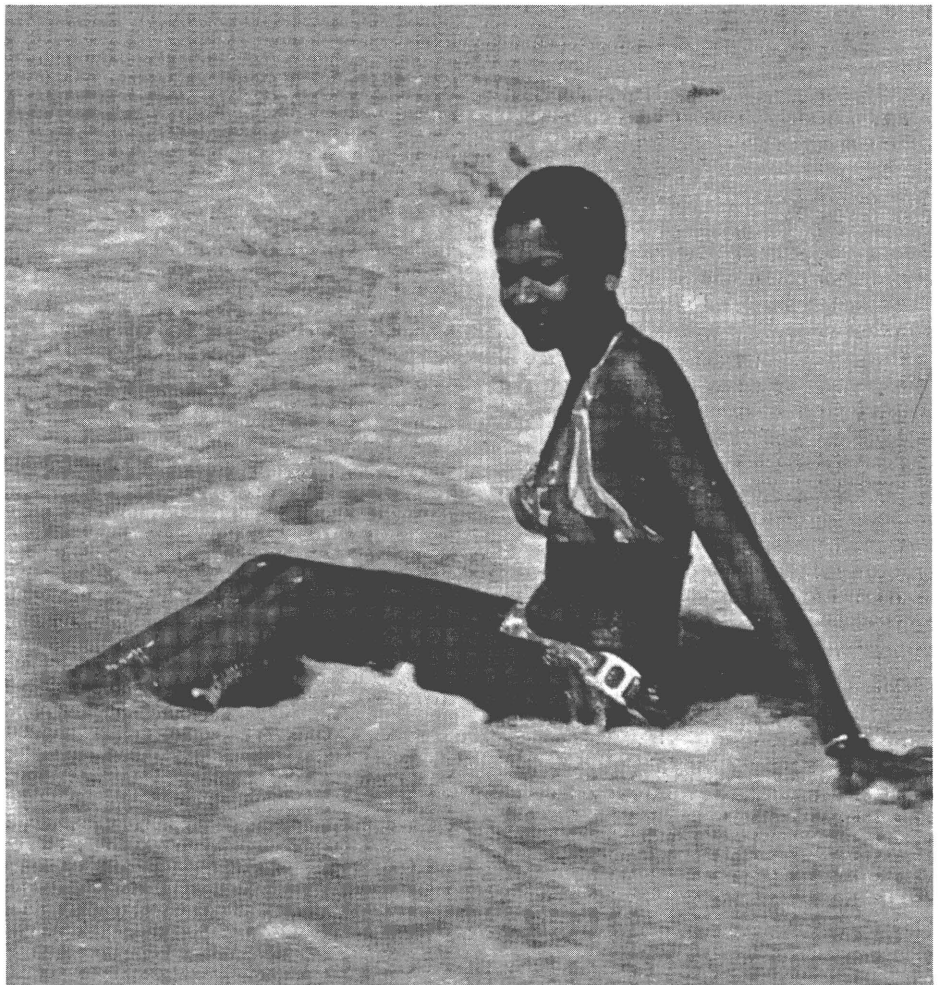
Socially speaking, tourism does have some harmful effects, not least of them alcoholism among young people without jobs and a certain change in outlook, which results in people being attracted to white collar jobs rather than farming or fishing".

### Sea, sun and sand

But the country's leaders have decided to accept these risks. The tourist

trade will remain the basis of the economy and a basis the government wants to build on. Prime Minister Lynden O. Pindling aims to get tourist earnings up to the \$1 000 million mark, twice what they were in 1978. Studies for a 10-year development plan are due to start any day now, but it is already certain, as the tourism minister said, that development will be along three lines. Nassau, the capital, can still take a certain amount of tourist development, but not much. There is great potential on Grand Bahama (especially in the Freeport area) and particularly in the many islands in the group where there are no giant hotels and casinos but deserted beaches that are a decided attraction for the tourists—80% of those who go once go again. Unfortunately, some of these islands, particularly in the south, have a drinking water problem, which may put a brake on mass tourism.

The Bahamas are going to stick to their well-tryed formula of the three'S's, of sea, sun and sand, to attract more tourists. But this will not stop them



*A beautiful climate for tourists — not bad for business, either*

from moving into other fields with enormous potential, like fishing, scuba diving, exploration and sailing, not forgetting cultural tourism. They will also try to establish links with other sectors of the economy, such as agriculture and light industry. As Mr Maynard pointed out, "if, instead of looking far beyond our borders to export commodities if we can have them consumed by visitors to the Bahamas or purchased to be carried away by our visitors we would be in good condition".

### Diversification

Ask the country's leaders whether it is not dangerous to lean so heavily on the tourist trade (in a crisis the leisure budget is the first to go) and they will probably repeat Mr Maynard's and the Premier's feeling that "any single crop industry would be a real danger and tourism wouldn't be any different from any other industry that might be so important in an economy such as the Bahamas. We no longer regard tourism as being so fragile that it will fall apart overnight. However, we are strongly committed to diversifying the economy of the Bahamas".

Since Mr Pindling took over in 1967, and particularly since independence in 1973, diversification has been one of the keys of the country's economic policy and agriculture is the sector on which the hopes are founded. The islands import almost all their food, which creates an enormous outflow of exchange. The government has devised a plan to make the country self-supporting in food by 1980. But George Smith, minister for agriculture and fisheries, made it clear that this does not mean self-sufficiency in the strictest sense. "It would be an illusion to think the Bahamas could produce all they need. We have a population of 210 000 and at times we have tourists to feed as well, 1 800 000 of them this year. What we mean by self-sufficiency is producing larger quantities of what we consume locally and, on some of the main islands where there is an amount of appreciable good farming land, producing food for export so we can earn foreign exchange to buy things we can't grow".

This target, that the government felt it had to fix as a psychological stimulus, will probably not in fact be reached by 1980 in spite of the fact that agricultural production has already trebled. The Bahamas want to concentrate on vegetables, citrus fruit and avocados, for which there is a considerable market in the USA and Europe.

But there are agricultural problems: some of the islands are short of drinking water and the land can be poor. But above all, there is a human pro-



PHOTO MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE

*Clement Maynard, Minister of Tourism*

blem. "Our people", the minister of agriculture and fisheries admitted, "have got very good benefits as is evident in Freeport, from the tourist development and most of our people have a tendency to go to white collar jobs and look on agriculture as menial work".

But this is the sector that perhaps can provide one of the answers to the very serious problem of unemployment that affects 21% of the country's labour force and which persists in spite of all the measures taken to stem it in the past (illegal immigrants from Haiti were repatriated and there was a policy of Bahamanization). Mr Smith hopes his department can create 3 000 or so jobs in agriculture over the next few years and hundreds more in the fisheries sector. There, too, prospects are good (10 million t of craw fish and some 20 million t of shallow water scale fish). But the fishing fleet will have to be greatly expanded and the aim of the ongoing negotiations with the Inter American Development Bank is to get the necessary funds to buy boats and install processing facilities. The government has high hopes of this project, for which Community aid has also been requested.



*The casinos of Nassau and Freeport are always full*





*Agriculture and fisheries minister George Smith*

## The Switzerland of the West

But in spite of these laudable efforts at diversification, the economy (and here the Bahamas differ from most developing countries, which tend to depend on the primary and secondary sectors) will go on depending on services for some time to come. There are two focusses: tourism and finance. The Bahamans are proud of the fact that, in 1977, the New York Times said that their country was probably the biggest offshore banking centre in the world, the one which attracts the most, capital from the London Eurodollar market. In September 1977, there were 283 financial institutions operating in and from the Bahamas, which earned it the title of "the Switzerland of the West".

This success is due, first and foremost, to the fact that the country is a tax haven. There is no tax on capital or on profits, no death duties, no estate duties, no property tax and no gaming tax (the casinos in Nassau and Freeport are always full).

Success is also due to the country's remarkable political stability (Mr O. Pindling has been Premier since 1967) and to the development of its communications (Nassau and Freeport are linked to the mainland network by satellite). Alongside this, the government has made a considerable effort to pro-

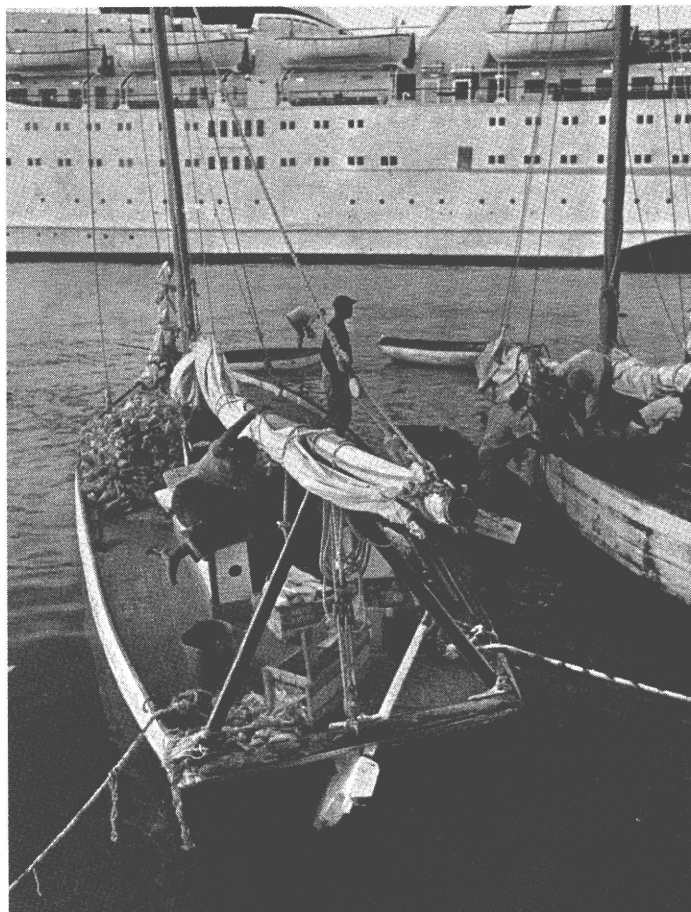
vide training in all sectors, in banking in particular. In 1967, the country had only six chartered accountants, but it is expected to have a hundred next year.

The Bahamas also want to become a world insurance centre and a major maritime base. In 1977, laws on the merchant navy came into force and the country is now well on the way to becoming a competitor for Liberia and Panama as far as the registration of vessels is concerned.

These are the weapons the Pindling government intends using in the fight against unemployment, the most important battle to win. Although the banking sector does not provide many jobs, the capital it attracts could be invested in employment, not just in finance but in industry as well. The Bahamas are in the ACP group and can therefore send some of their exports to Europe free of charge, while an agreement with the USA allows Bahamian goods to enter America free of import charges. These are trump cards and can provide a considerable stimulus. The Bahamas began as a tourist paradise, then became a haven for bankers. Who knows but it won't become an industrial centre next? In any case, if it goes on collecting "firsts", its national slogan "It's better in the Bahamas" may soon apply all along the line. □ A.T.



*The sea also offers good prospects for the fisheries industry...*



*... but the fleet will have to be greatly expanded*

# Some basic facts <sup>(1)</sup>

**Area:** 19 935 sq km

**Population:** 1976: 210 000;  
average rate of increase: 3.77%;  
population aged under 15: approx.  
40%; working population: 80 000  
(1975), of which 7.14% in agriculture

**Capital:** Nassau (pop. 101 500 in 1970)

**Main islands:** New Providence, Grand  
Bahama, Eleuthera, Andros, Abaco

**Official language:** English

**Date of independence:** 10 July 1973

**Political regime:** Monarchy, with an  
Assembly and a Senate

**Political parties:** Progressive Liberal  
Party, Free National Movement, Baha-  
mas Democratic Party

**Head of state:** HM Queen Elizabeth II

**Member of:** Commonwealth, UN, ACP

**Currency:** Bahaman dollar (B \$): US \$1  
= B\$ 1

(1) Source: European Parliament Directorate-  
General for Research and Documentation.

(2) Interview with Prime Minister Lynden O.  
Pindling.

**GNP:** 1976: at market prices: US \$700  
million; per capita: US \$3 310

**Main products (1976):**

*Agricultural:* sugar: 23 000 t (1973);  
cow's milk: 2 600 t; goat's milk: 3 800 t;  
roundwood: 400 000 cu.m.

*Livestock:* 3 700 cattle; 16 500 pigs

*Fishing (1975):* 2 801 t

*Manufactured goods (1975):* sawn-  
wood and sleepers: 1.4 m cu.m.; petrol:  
1.21 m cu.m.; light oils: 1.57 m cu.m.;  
heavy oil: 6.1 m cu.m.; salt: 4 026 m t;  
cement: 463 000 t; electricity: 650 m  
kWh.

**Foreign trade (1976):**

*Imports:* US \$3 559.6 m

*Exports:* US \$2 878.8 m

*Trade balance:* deficit: US \$680.8 m

*Main exports:* mineral fuels and rela-  
ted products: US \$849.7 m; foodstuffs,  
beverages, tobacco: US \$16.2 m; che-  
micals: US \$38.6 m; raw materials,  
inedible, except fuels: US \$13.7 m;  
manufactured goods: US \$7.3 m

*Main imports:* fuels and related pro-  
ducts: US \$3 280.8 m; foodstuffs, beve-

rages, tobacco: US \$82.2 m; machinery  
and transport equipment: US \$48.8 m;  
other industrial products: US \$84.3 m;  
chemicals: US \$56.3 m

*Major export destinations (1974):*  
USA: US \$1 303.5 m (90 % of total)

*Major import sources (1974):* Saudi  
Arabia: (US \$491.3 m); Nigeria: US  
\$319.7 m; Iran: US \$279.8 m; USA: US  
\$233.3 m; Libya: US \$146.8 m; Gabon:  
US \$90.8 m

**Budget (1976 estimates):** revenue: US  
\$147.99 m; expenditure: US \$147.90 m

**Tourism:** 1978: 1 750 000 arrivals<sup>(2)</sup>

**Education:** 1975: 34 900 pupils in pri-  
mary education; 25 100 pupils in  
secondary education; approx. 3 000  
students in higher education (College  
of the Bahamas)

**Health:** 1976: persons per hospital bed:  
471; persons per doctor: 1 594 (1975)

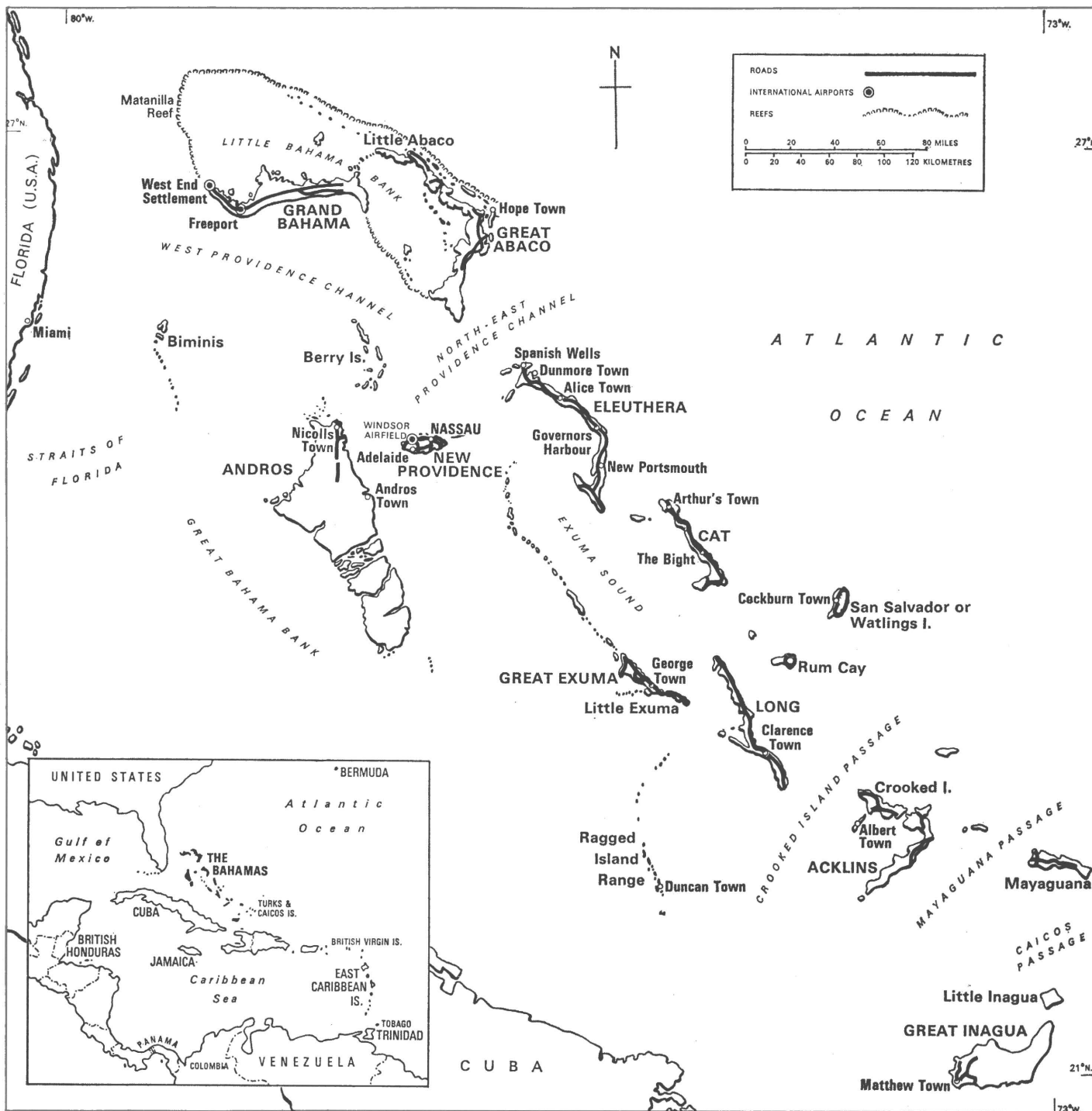
**Foreign aid:** 1976: total net public and  
private aid: US \$498.97 m, of which  
member states of the EEC: US \$19.9 m,  
USA: US \$ 457 m, Canada: US \$7.50 m,  
Japan: US \$ 12.98 m.



*After the dry facts and figures, a more  
living image of the Bahamas*



*Air transport is a very important link between the islands*



## THE EDF AND THE BAHAMAS

	Indicative programme (EUA)	Amounts committed as of 14.2.79
Secondment of two advisers to the Bahamas Development Bank	200 000	200 000
Extension of advisers' tour (deducted from line of credit)		70 000
Establishment of trade unit	171 000	30 000
Animal feed production plant	556 000	55 000
Line of credit to the Bahamas Development Bank	770 000	690 000
Training	43 000	43 000
Total	1 740 000	1 088 000



## GABON

# The Albert Schweitzer Hospital

by Dr Andreas STEINER(\*)

The European Community is joining with NGOs from Switzerland, Germany, France, the Netherlands and the USA to cofinance the programme to build a new Albert Schweitzer Hospital in Lambaréné.

In particular, the Community is financing:

- with Rotary International, the construction of a tropical disease laboratory: DM 350 000 (1);
- with the Deutscher Hilfsverein für das Albert Schweitzer Spital, the purchase of building materials and medical equipment: DM 320 000;
- an annual 3 t of milkpowder for the Schweitzer Hospital.

Other projects being prepared in conjunction with German, Dutch and French NGOs are:

- a small milk reconstitution unit;
- the building of a crèche and a kindergarten for the children of hospital staff.

The new hospital (financing of CFAF 900 million) is almost complete and the buildings were handed over to the donors on 14 January, the 104th anniversary of Schweitzer's birth. The hospital is a modern one which works, as the Gabonese government and President Omar Bongo hoped, in the spirit of Schweitzer's methods.

The Schweitzer Hospital is being rebuilt. For the last two years, new buildings have been going up on the hill north of the old hospital constructed by Schweitzer himself. New buildings were essential. The old ones were very damp and overrun with termites and no longer in line with the demands of modern medicine. Three years ago, the theatre, delivery room, laboratory and radiology facilities were

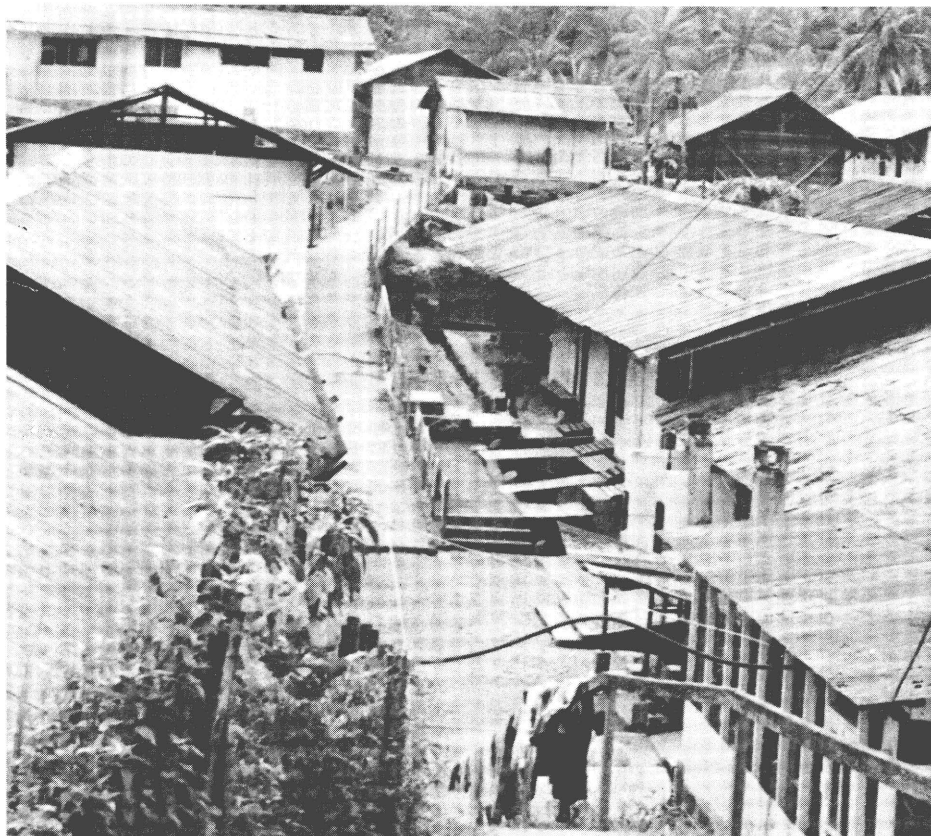
moved into temporary premises where working conditions were better than in the Grande Pharmacie built by Schweitzer in 1927.

Now that the hospital is being rebuilt, its general efficiency and importance from the medical point of view need to be reassessed. The new exterior must be followed by new developments on the interior. Treatment must be improved and the spirit of the hospital community needs rethinking.

We have much the same possibilities of diagnosis and therapy as any district hospital in Europe, but with the difference that we are and will remain the one and only source of medical treatment as far as the sick who ask for help are concerned. So we need to provide more or less all types of specialization and we must be able to solve whatever clinical problems we come up against.

Our medical staff now consists of four doctors, two medical students, one nurse/anaesthetist, one theatre nurse, four registered nurses (two of them African), one laboratory technician, one midwife, one pharmacist and about 55 nursing auxiliaries and orderlies. We have a department of internal medicine, including TB, leprosy and psychiatric units, a pediatrics department (including a mother-and-child welfare service) and a surgical unit (general surgery, traumatology, gynaecology/obstetrics, urology and ophthalmology). Our 200 beds are always full and we have on average 20 000 outpatient consultations, 3 000 inpatients, 1 500 operations and 340 deliveries a year.

In addition to providing treatment, we are also committed to training auxiliary medical staff in the hospital. The young men and women who work here as nursing auxiliaries and orderlies come to us with no medical knowledge at all. They are given a three month trial, after which they work under contract and have to follow a course of general and medical instruction given by a staff nurse in conjunction with the doctors and heads of departments. At the end of each year, candidates can sit for an auxiliary nurs-



The old Albert Schweitzer Hospital

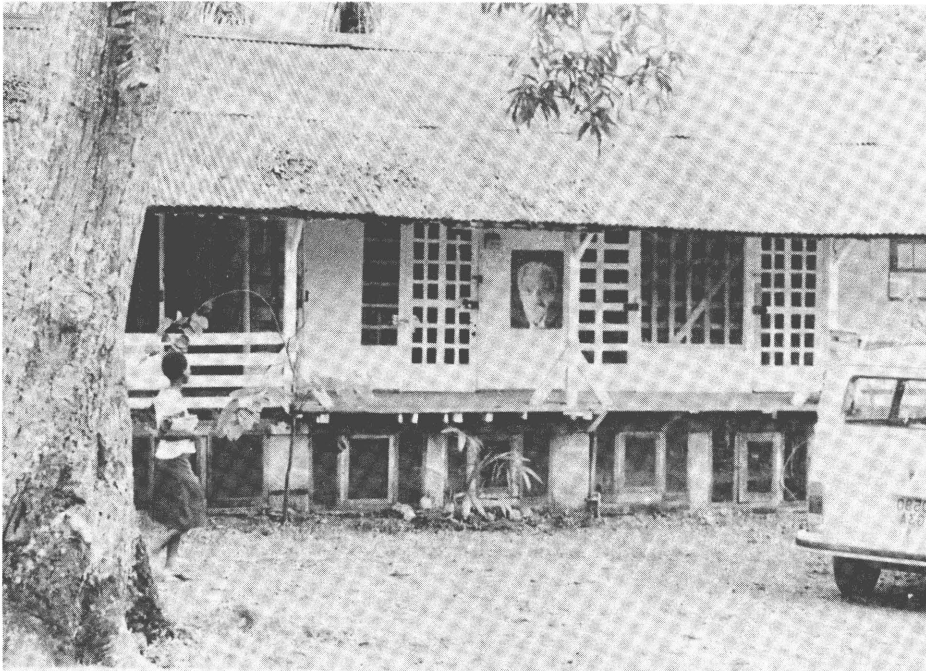
*Poor, but of inestimable value to the sick in Gabon*

(\*) Chief medical officer of the Schweitzer Hospital in Lambaréné.

(1) 1 DM = 130 CFAF.



(Above). The new Schweitzer Hospital is being built with the help of the many people his life inspired. (Below). Schweitzer's hut. He shared the simple life of his patients



**Albert Schweitzer, the founder of the hospital at Lambaréne (Gabon) which bears his name, was born in Alsace at Kaisersberg in 1875.**

**Although known now as a doctor, he was also a theologian, pastor, organist and lover of music.**

**Doctor Schweitzer was awarded the Nobel peace prize in 1952. He died in 1965, but left behind him a spirit of dedication in the service of the sick**

ing diploma (1st, 2nd, 3rd or 4th class) and the responsibility they are then given in their departments depends on what sort of showing they make in this examination.

We have also recently embarked on other projects, in preventive medicine and epidemiological research. We began by teaching mothers who brought sick children to be treated, but now one of our nurses makes regular visits to the surrounding villages to give classes on child nutrition, parasites and hygiene in general.

Aid from the German Rotary Club and the European Communities will mean that we can have our epidemiological research laboratory this year and it will be available to any doctors interested in studying tropical diseases. Various projects, such as the systematization of the diagnosis of bilharzia and sickle cell anaemia, have already been started by doctors currently working here.

The Schweitzer Hospital, a private institution, is in the heart of Africa, but it is known to people the world over and has their support, thanks to the personality and extraordinary achievements of its founder. But since Albert Schweitzer died, there have been many changes in the economic and social structure of the population. Medicine has moved with the times and so has the public health structure of the country. The importance of the hospital as such is no longer absolute, as it was when there was almost nothing else of the kind in the area.

Yet the Schweitzer Hospital is still of great importance to the sick, as is shown by the fact that they flock here from all over the country. Their confidence in the hospital is not just due to the sound, competent medical treatment they receive. They are also attracted by its humanitarian value, something I think that interests the people in Europe, Asia and America who give a lot towards our upkeep, more than the medical side. But the attempt to keep this as it was in Schweitzer's time failed when he died and people are wondering what we stand for today.

I think the answer is that the Schweitzer Hospital has a unique opportunity of proving that it really is possible to build a constructive community of people of different races, colours, creeds and education. I think that we in the world today need this sort of proof more than ever we did before. The hospital has a unique opportunity here. We have no political, ideological, religious or financial standpoint. Our only interest is in helping the suffering, which may mean us all. □ A.S.

## MANO RIVER UNION

### Africa's smallest regional organization

Now just over five years old, the Mano River Union has demonstrated some of the advantages of being small in size. Its two members, Liberia and Sierra Leone, have already made good progress in forming the smallest common market in Africa. The limited size and the fact that the two members share much in common, including language, has enabled them to avoid some of the complexities faced by larger groups. Limited resources are not overstretched by over-ambitious or grandiose schemes, and the manageable nature of the union has attracted outside funds, including a grant from the European Development Fund.

The Mano River Union grew out of several attempts during the 1960s to stimulate economic cooperation between a number of West African states. Larger schemes proved difficult, and in 1967 Sierra Leone and Liberia began bilateral discussions on trade and development which led to the signing of a joint memorandum of understanding. The plan remained dormant until, in 1971, a joint ministerial meet-

ing took place in Freetown and the idea of closer links was relaunched. The joint committee it set up decided to commission a study. The outcome, a UNDP-funded report was submitted to both governments in early 1973, and later in the same year President Tolbert of Liberia and President Stevens of Sierra Leone signed the Mano River declaration at Malema, and the union came into being.



*Ernest Eastman, secretary-general of the Mano River Union*

#### Basic institutions

The structure of the union is uncomplicated. A secretariat was set up in Freetown and Ernest Eastman, a Liberian, is the current secretary-general. The main policy making body is the ministerial council composed of ministers from both countries with responsibilities in the fields covered by the union. The council is served by a standing committee of officials and experts. There are currently five sub-committees, on trade and industry; agriculture, forestry and fisheries; transport, communications and power; education training and research; and finance and administration.

To implement various policies of the union, a number of joint commissions have already been created in the fields of industry and trade (which deals in particular with harmonization of customs tariffs and excise duties) postal harmonization, transport and training.

The meeting of the two heads of state is not part of the union's institutions, but they do in fact meet as often as is needed to discuss union matters.

#### Joint projects

The objectives of the union can roughly be divided into two—the process of harmonization of such things as tariffs, customs regulations, academic qualifications, postal and other services, and secondly joint projects. One of the first projects had a very symbolic nature, the building of the Mano river bridge. This was a concrete expression of the new relationship between the two countries—the river which divided them became a point of contact between them. The road linking the bridge with the two capitals, Monrovia and Freetown, is to be upgraded to a major highway. Some 400 km long, it will be a major factor in bringing the two countries closer together.

Mano river was chosen as the name of the union for obvious geographical reasons, but as Mr Eastman pointed out in an interview with *The Courier*, the Mano river basin is also the site of major joint projects to be undertaken by the two countries. The EDF is financing a feasibility study of a dam across the river which would form part of a major hydro-electric and irrigation scheme. The first aim is to provide power, but agriculture should later benefit from irrigation schemes. There



are plans to develop fisheries on the artificial lake created by the dam, and there is a forestry development component to the scheme as well. All this is still under study, but Mr Eastman believes it will be an important stage in the development of the union when the joint river basin project gets off the ground.

"Initial indications" said Mr Eastman, "are that the cost of the project would vary between \$300 million and \$400 million. It would have an installed capacity of 180 megawatts, and an average power capacity of 143 megawatts. The preliminary indications are that the average power production will be about 845 kilowatt hours per year".

### Cutting out duplication

One of the most important areas as far as joint projects are concerned is the setting up of new industries. These will be for the union as a whole. The granting of union status will ensure that an industry's products will be freely sold in both countries. By cooperating in this way the two countries aim to avoid duplication of industrial projects, and thereby ensure a wider market in both countries for new industries established either in Sierra Leone or Liberia. The secretariat says there has been no disagreement on the siting of these industrial projects.

Over twenty feasibility studies have been undertaken on industrial developments and the first five have been completed. They cover glass containers, fruit and vegetable processing, synthetic textiles sorting, timber and wood processing, and cotton and cotton/polyester blending.

Agricultural implements are another area of joint industrial cooperation, and the secretariat is also promoting joint projects in salt production, sardinella processing, rubber tyre and dry battery production.

### Agricultural cooperation

In the field of agriculture the member states have agreed to harmonize their policies in pricing and marketing, grading arrangements, mechanical processing plants and produce legislation. They will also exchange information and ideas on farm practices, cultivation, harvesting, produce handling, pest control, price and marketing arrangements with third countries, and joint membership in international commodity organizations and agreements.



*President Tolbert of Liberia (left) and President Stevens of Sierra Leone at the opening ceremony of the Mano river bridge*

### Breaking down the frontier

History has divided the people of Liberia and Sierra Leone from each other, and the process of overcoming the colonial barrier is an expensive and lengthy one. Apart from the bridge which now links the two countries, the Mano River Union has a number of schemes to harmonize policies on air and sea transport, telecommunications, and postal services. At the official and political level Sierra Leoneans and Liberians already meet more frequently because of the union and have struck up a good working relationship, but Mr Eastman believes it is not confined to them. Businessmen, traders and others increasingly cross the border, and he believes this will become easier as the union consolidates its common policies in communications and trade.

The effect of harmonization in trade matters cannot yet be seen clearly since it is relatively new. A common external tariff has been established which should reduce the amount of unrecorded trade between the two countries. Mr Eastman has already detected a response among businessmen to the possibilities of expanding trade within the union and confidently

expects the dismantling of barriers to have a stimulating effect on Liberia-Sierra Leonean trade.

### More skills needed

The union has also expanded training possibilities in both countries within the union framework. Concentration has been on middle level skills in the fields of telecommunications, customs and excise, statistics and forestry. There is also a marine training programme. At the secondary school level cooperation has already begun on the curriculum and textbooks, and the union is encouraging the holding of seminars and the provision of in-service training for those who are already at work.

After just over five years, the Mano River Union has established its basic machinery, identified areas for common action, and begun to seek the funds abroad, much of it from Europe, which it will need to make its various projects realities. Both countries are members of ECOWAS, but see no conflict in the arrangement, since, as Mr Eastman argued, any harmonization between Sierra Leone and Liberia also reduces the differences within ECO-

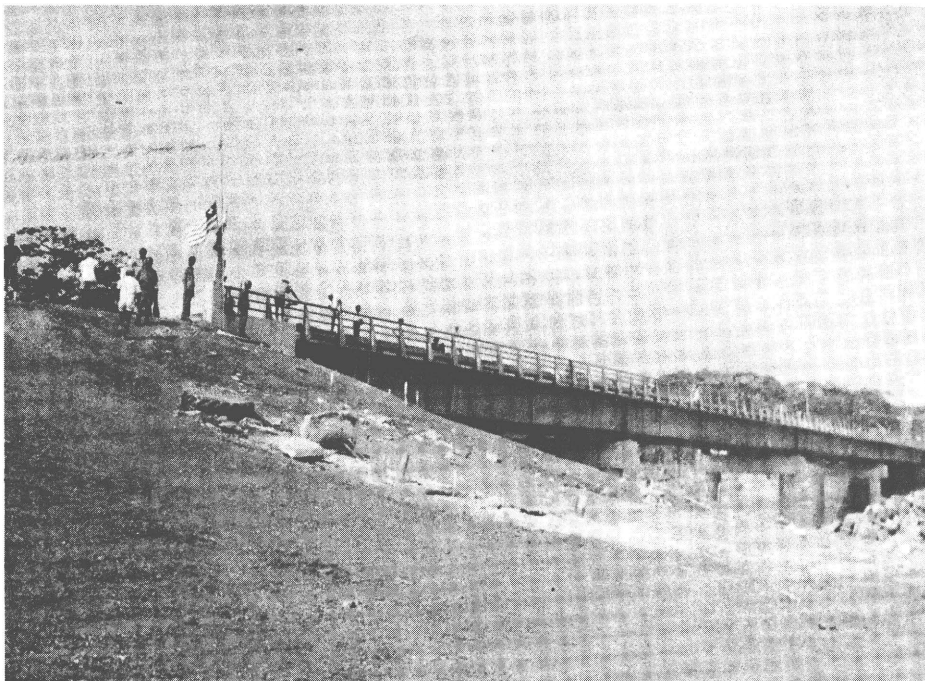


*Mr Eastman (centre) with MRU and EEC officials, and a representative of the SOFRELEC consulting firm, at the signing ceremony which started work on the EDF-financed study*

WAS. Nor is it beyond possibility that the Mano River Union will itself expand, since both members have growing political ties with Guinea, and there are cultural links between the three countries. However, that is for the

future. For the moment Mr Eastman believes the Mano River Union has made a good enough start for the two existing members to continue their experiment in regional cooperation. □

IAN PIPER



*This bridge over the Mano River was, appropriately, the first project of the Mano River Union, which links Liberia and Sierra Leone*

## Greater cooperation between West African development financing institutions

by Roger NIKEMA

Leaders of eight development financing bodies recently adopted a charter on cooperation at a meeting at CEAO headquarters in Ouagadougou.

The idea of the charter is to set up close cooperation between the institutions, increase the exchange of information and experience of all kinds and coordinate plans for general identification studies, assessments and participation in the joint financing of development projects.

It is now up to the higher political authorities of each institution to set their seal on the charter which according to Paul Kaya, administrative secretary of the Conseil de l'Entente, is an exemplary contribution to the development of West Africa.

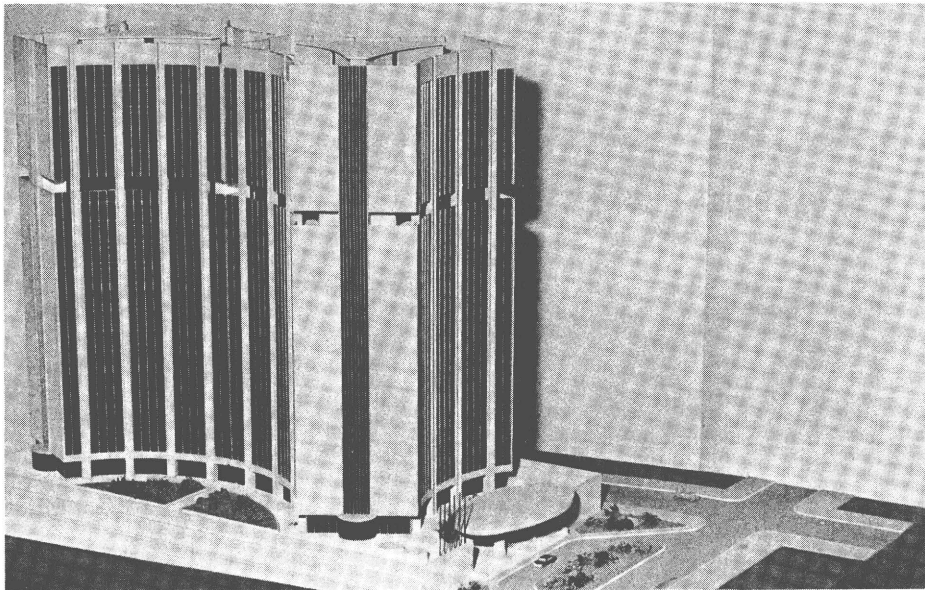
The opening ceremony of the Ouagadougou meeting took place in the National Assembly. The Prime Minister of Upper Volta, Dr Issoufou Joseph Conombo, was in the chair and Gerard Kango Ouedraogo, President of the National Assembly, and all the members of the government and the diplomatic corps attended.

This was the third session in two years, following meetings in Lomé in October 1977 and February 1978.

It was President Lamizana who suggested the meetings at the third conference of CEAO heads of state in

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The following institutions attended the meeting:  
 The African Development Bank (ADB).  
 The West African Development Bank (WADB).  
 The ECOWAS Fund for Cooperation, Compensation and Development.  
 The West African Economic Community (CEAO).  
 The mutual aid and guarantee fund of the Conseil de l'Entente.  
 The OCAM guarantee and cooperation fund (observer).  
 The multinational centre for the programming and execution of projects in West Africa (MULPOC-Niamey) (observer).  
 The African Posts and Telecommunications Union (observer).



Model of the impressive new 24-storey African Development Bank building

Abidjan in June 1977, when he reminded the heads of the African institutions of the need to coordinate and harmonize their schemes, in the interests of their populations, by economizing on means and rationalizing their programmes.

The aim of this new development policy was made clear by CEAO secretary-general Ngom. "It is no longer right for our economic and trade relations to be geared to the developed countries alone. This perpetuates the unfortunate specialization we have inherited, accentuates the open nature of our economies and forces us, we have to admit, into the sort of economic dependence that is prejudicial to our sovereignty. If we have a universal concept of international relations, we must both maintain and moralize these vertical relations and organize our structures and economic circuits in such a way as to increase the solidarity and the interest of our populations," Mr Ngom said.

The other three points discussed at Ouagadougou were practical aspects of Mr Ngom's idea:

- the coordination and harmonization of programmes;
- the implementation of joint projects;
- the identification of new projects for joint implementation.

### What has been achieved so far

The Lomé meeting led to five joint projects being decided. They involve studying improvements, organizing food storage facilities in the region, telecommunication links between Mali,

Niger, and Upper Volta, developing telecommunications in West Africa, organizing the production of selected seeds in the region and running a seminar on regional projects.

Joint implementation of these schemes is proceeding normally.

Participants have been informed that the African Development Bank (which financed the installation of a food product storage unit in Mauritania) has embarked upon a feasibility study covering the whole of West Africa, the conclusions of which will be transmitted to the financing bodies. The ADB has also announced that it has already taken a financing decision on the Mali/Niger/Upper Volta telecommunications links.

The meeting invited the WADB and the CEAO, which initiated the integrated telecommunications development project in West Africa, to get the opinion of the countries concerned as to the conclusions of the study already carried out, and to draw up a programme of joint execution with the ECOWAS fund as soon as the latter has completed research into the countries not covered by the WADB/CEAO study.

The project to produce selected seeds in the region is certainly a priority, being of direct concern to the rural world and a stepping stone to self-sufficiency in food. The three aims are to:

- help set up basic community seed production units;
- expand existing national/multinational research and seed production units;
- help set up such units in countries where there are none as yet.

According to the final report of the

Ouagadougou meeting the seed project, in its various aspects, will be continued along the following lines: The WADB will finance studies on setting up four national seed production centres in the Ivory Coast, Upper Volta, Niger and Senegal. The CEAO will be responsible for feasibility studies on opening a regional seed selection centre, a regional training centre and a regional seed marketing centre. The Conseil de l'Entente will be associated with this.

### The next stage

The progress being made with projects in the agricultural sector to improve and organize food storage facilities and organize and produce selected seed augurs well as far as self-sufficiency in food in the sub region is concerned.

With permanent cooperation in mind, the final report says, the heads of the development financing organizations have adopted a certain number of projects to be implemented jointly in the medium term. These projects involve setting up a multinational sea transport company (which will also operate an offshore service along the West African coast) and promoting sea and inland fishing in the countries of the sub-region.

"Our countries are passed over by the world economy", Dr Conombo said at the third meeting. There is no doubt that a multinational sea freight company would open the way for development in the countries of the sub-region, but it requires careful planning. This is what Mr Ngom called "the third dimension" of the development strategy. It consists of "establishing and anchoring this global, community idea of our joint development for and between the sub-regional organizations and approaching the problem realistically so as to override any sentimentalism or false obstacles".

Captain Kalmogo, Upper Volta's finance minister, who closed the meeting, also insisted on the fact that the countries must have determination. "Cooperation, it is true, is a long-term affair and the path is strewn with difficulties. But our countries and our regional and sub-regional institutions need to cooperate because the same obstacles impede the development of us all".

And in this, Abidjan, the next meeting place of leaders of the bodies financing development in West Africa (who have just come out in favour of the OCAM fund joining them) will be decisive. □



## Europe gives an example

by LUCIEN PAGNI

Europe's strength is its unity. A commonplace enough statement now that the facts and our own good sense have shown it to be so. But it called for political will and it called for a tireless search for unifying factors once the basic socio-political unit, the common core which all member states have always to accept, had been defined. Thanks to the Community, Europe has taken up many a challenge: peace, development and, increasingly, independence in face of the superpowers. And it is one of the most dependable of the partners of the Third World, particularly the ACP group. Europe is making its presence and its influence felt.

On the down-to-earth, practical level, Europe represents security and solidarity for Europeans, the young, the not-so-young and those who, with no real hatred, took up arms against each other not long ago. The unification of Europe is now a sure way to progress for all the citizens of the old continent. Unification has raised the farmers' standard of living faster than if there had been no common agricultural policy. Unification means hope for the Mezzogiorno. And the powerful economies of Germany and the other northern EEC countries will have room to breathe. In general, the permanent quest for Community answers to many of the problems (the energy crisis, the aeronautical problem, information, data processing, telecommunications, pollution of land and sea, the commodities crisis and more) threatening individual member states and the start of the European monetary system, yet another contribution to the common external policy that already extends to so many fields, show that the future of the peoples of Europe will be better assured and better guaranteed in a united, voluntarist community which preserves the cultural differences of its individual member states.



The direct European elections on 7-10 June are a vital step along the path to unification. No one from the ACP countries can remain indifferent to this, as events in the Community have an immediate effect on developments in the ACP group.

But the essential thing is not the consequences in the ACP countries. It is the lessons that Africa in particular and the ACP group in general can learn from other people's experience, in this case the unification of Europe, a fine example of collective success. The countries involved were different, divergent and with varying economic potential and natural resources, but they all had the conviction and the political will to prove that only a united Europe would solve the serious problems generated by the war, by establishing and guaranteeing a political consensus based essentially on the respect for freedom, which was one of the root causes of conflict before.

Because basically — and why not say as much? — if Africa and the ACP countries in general are negotiating and calling for the help of Europe and the rest of the industrialized world with developing their industries (with similar models and results, in that the same causes produce the same effects), it is neither absurd nor

inconceivable in considering some of Africa's main problems (energy, science, exploitation of raw materials, planning, economic structures and, above all, apartheid) to look to the great idea behind the European Community from which African, Caribbean and Pacific countries too benefit today.

This is particularly so in that it has to be admitted that, in 20 years of independence, the themes and design of most ACP development have tended to be influenced by Marxist ideas, whereby "it is economic infrastructure alone that determines cultural superstructure" and even certain intellectual aspirations; but the mobilizing effect of this principle is one of diminishing returns. All the peoples of Africa want improvements in their living conditions, and particularly in their health, housing and food. They also want to live in dignity once more, their place in the history of nations having so long been unenviable. They must have economic progress, of course, but this alone will never suffice as long as the terrible "institution" that is apartheid survives and the people of Africa do not feel committed to an overall plan of things, to what Claude Cheysson called "the great human adventure". This is why it is not always enough to play on economic development to mobilize the peoples and the youth of Africa.

"Europe is hope", as an election campaign poster rightly says. This belief commands respect. But there is a great temptation to ask what the hope is for Africa. Until economic development and EEC-ACP cooperation (in which we profoundly believe) have one objective, one human, cultural and moral aim which is clear to all the peoples concerned, it will be difficult to answer this question. Meanwhile, Africa and the ACP countries would themselves do best to adopt the European election slogan. □ L.P.

# A European currency

by B.L. FOLLIO(1)

The new European Monetary System came into being on 13 March 1979, marking the beginning of a new chapter in the unification of Europe.

Great hopes may well lead to great disappointment. But 'nothing ventured, nothing gained'. The stir caused by introducing the EMS at least shows the full importance of this Franco-German initiative, which the European Council made official on 4 and 5 December 1978.

The first problem was that Italy and Ireland, disillusioned by the amount of financial aid the strong countries were offering the weak, appeared at the Council's December meeting to have decided to delay their entry into the system. But 10 days later, Rome and Dublin had swallowed their disappointment and said yes, even though this meant running serious internal political risks. So the EMS started with all the EEC countries except the UK.

Another difficulty concerned the phasing out of the monetary compensatory amounts for agriculture, something France had made a condition of the entry into effect of the system. France sees the Community as based on triple (monetary, industrial and agricultural) unity, and if agriculture is excluded and agriculture alone is affected by monetary distortion, the whole Community suffers.

No one denies the logic of the French position. But it does pose serious technical and political questions.

## The importance of the EMS

Without going into the details of the EMS, it is nevertheless useful to go over the fundamentals, which are of such importance to the people of Europe.

The EMS is very different from the currency snake that preceded it. It combines the virtues of snake discipline with its own set of rules and material means ensuring flexibility and effectiveness.

## Three advantages

Three points call for particular emphasis.

1. Regardless of how many countries take part in the EMS, the system is a Community one, administered and controlled by the Community and by its institutions. It therefore involves consulting any member states which do not belong to it on all major decisions on the exchange rates. (Neither the Commission nor the Council of Ministers could say anything about the functioning of the snake, which ceased to exist once the EMS started to operate).
2. The EMS keeps the method of intervention based on "instantaneous" differences in the market rates of two currencies (intervention is obligatory and must occur when there is a gap of more than 2.25% in these rates and the pivot rate) and introduces a new factor of fundamental importance, the ECU, representing the weighted average of all the currencies of the Community and indicating the degree of divergence of any given currency. Control of this divergence means that internal and external monetary and economic measures (including changes of parity if need be) can be made and indeed must be made unless the other parties agree to an exception.

So the Community has a genuine means of controlling, and taking day-to-day action on, economic policy. In other words, any Community country can be immediately called upon to take economic measures (Germany, for example, being asked to implement an expansionist policy) to re-establish monetary balance and ensure the "convergence" necessary to maintain it. There were long discussions on whether priority should be given to monetary policy or economic policy, but the EMS avoids the issue and

creates a sort of hinge which makes it possible to keep all measures in line.

3. The EMS is a flexible system. There are no fixed exchange rates, even if they are the ultimate goal. Nevertheless, a certain amount of re-alignment is now necessary if the economy is to develop, but it must be brought about within the framework of obligatory consultations.

## A credible system

The EMS is a "credible" system, both because it is flexible and because it has very considerable intervention and credit facilities. The conditions for using them are more flexible than anything the previous system could provide.

The first innovation is the prolongation of the very short-term financing to which the central banks have recourse (unlimited volume) to back their interventions on the market. These loans between central banks should normally be paid back within 45 days of the end of the month of the intervention, although it is possible to extend the repayment period for a further three months.

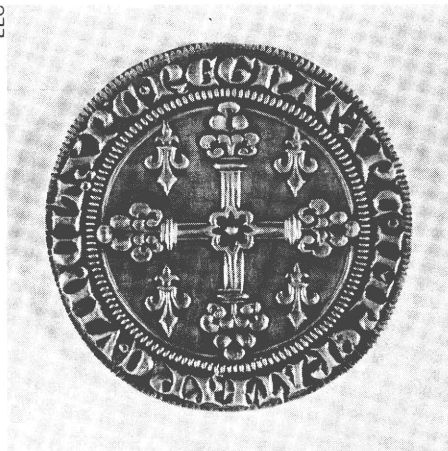
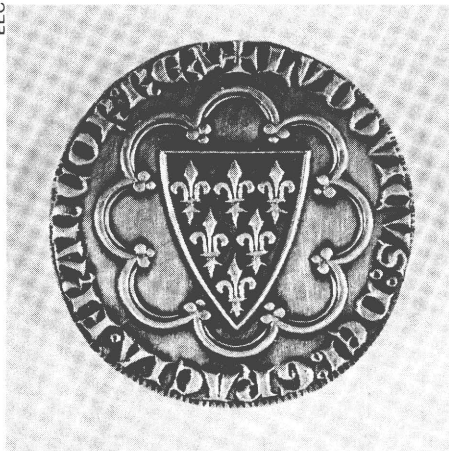
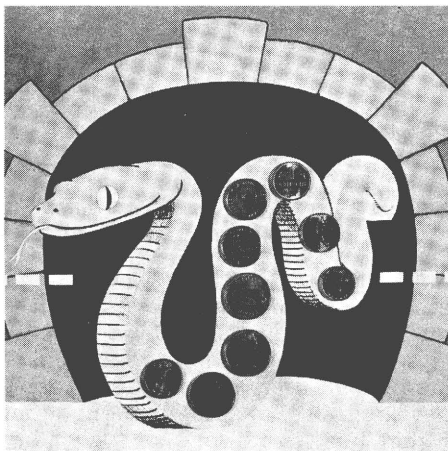
The second basic innovation is the raising of the current amount of short- and long-term credits, from about £7 000 m to the very respectable sum of about £15 500. The bigger they are, the less likely the credit facilities are to be used, since it is the system as a whole that the speculators find more credible.

All short- and medium-term credit will be immediately available provided each central bank deposits 20% of its gold and dollar reserves with the European Monetary Cooperation Fund. In exchange, each central bank gets ECUs which can be used to pay back debts. Over the next two years, the scope of this cooperation fund will be extended and a genuine European Monetary Fund should be created.

## Solidarity

If a community is to develop harmoniously, its members must have the right policies and there must also be a general policy of redistribution and balance. For the vast majority of Europeans, the very word "Community"

(1) From 30 jours d'Europe, n° 247.



From the currency "snake" to the ECU (European Currency Unit). The "écu" was originally a gold coin (see above) first struck in about 1266. The ECU of the European Monetary System is not a coin but a unit of currency, the value of which is calculated according to a weighted "basket" of the various EEC currencies. It is one means of helping the Community to maintain parities within certain margins

## The history of European monetary union

**1958.** The Community was set up at a time when the international monetary situation was stable. The Bretton Woods (1944) system, based on the convertibility of the dollar into gold at \$35 an ounce, stood unchallenged. Only one or two vague and fairly unrestrictive articles of the Treaty of Rome applied to questions of economic and monetary policy. But the Six set up a number of committees, for the governors of the central banks and including the monetary committee and the committee on medium-term economic policy. The invention in 1962 of the agricultural unit of account was necessary if common farm prices were to be fixed, but it looked more like an accountant's pipe-dream than financial reality and it took seven years to harden into a fact of Community life.

**1968.** Raymond Barre, then vice-president of the EEC Commission, came up with the first plan to tighten the monetary and economic links between the six members of the Community.

**1969.** At a summit in The Hague, the Six decided to phase in economic and monetary union. Devaluation of the French franc (12.5%) and revaluation of the German mark led to the creation of the famous monetary compensatory amounts.

**1971.** On 22 March, the Six acted on the conclusions of the Werner report on the gradual achievement of economic and monetary union and decided to reduce the margin of fluctuation between their currencies as from 1 June. But the worsening crisis

of confidence in the dollar and a wave of speculation in May on gold, the European currencies and the yen put paid to the Community's plans. After August, the dollar could no longer be converted into gold, but the system still hinged on it. In December, it was devalued by 8% and a new list of par values of the principal currencies against the dollar was drawn up.

**1972.** Permissible fluctuation against the dollar was now fairly considerable and so the Six (plus the UK and Denmark) again tried to get the gaps between their currencies narrower than the permitted levels. The currency "snake" came into being on 24 April. At the end of the year, the Paris summit confirmed the general desire to achieve economic and monetary union once and for all.

**1973.** The pound and the lira left the snake and all currencies, including the dollar, outside the Community were floating freely. In April, the European Monetary Cooperation Fund was set up, but inflation and, most important, the oil crisis, put paid to all hopes of establishing greater monetary stability in Europe in the short term.

**1974-77.** These were the difficult years. Most Community countries had inflation and large deficits in their balance of payments. They all gradually balanced their foreign accounts and held down prices as best they could. But there was more unemployment everywhere. Moreover, dividing the Community into poorly coordinated monetary zones interfered with the proper functioning of the agricultural common market and fostered protectionist tendencies. It was a dangerous situation and something had to be done about it. At the end of 1977, the Commission decided

it was time to launch the idea of economic and monetary union again, but this time on a fresh basis. It was vital if unemployment was to be brought down.

**1978.** On 7 April, at the European Council in Copenhagen, Helmut Schmidt and Valéry Giscard d'Estaing introduced the idea of a new European monetary system in which all the countries of the Community would take part. Three months later, the other partners gave their official blessing to the Franco-German idea and the European Council of Bremen invited the various ministers of finance to devise a system based on a European currency unit (ECU). It was to have rules as strict as those of the snake and considerable financial means, obtained from pooling part of the central banks' reserves. This work was completed by the end of October, but the UK then decided to postpone its entry, although it raised no objections to the other member states proceeding without it. The EEC Council adopted the arrangements for the functioning of the EMS in Brussels on 5 and 6 December. However, Italy and Ireland, dissatisfied with the parallel financial measures intended to help the weakest countries, only agreed to take part in the system 10 days later. All the problems seemed to have been solved. But, on 20 December, the French government refused to allow the EMS to go ahead unless precise agreement was reached on phasing out the monetary compensatory amounts that had upset the agricultural common market. The unity of the industrial market and the unity of the agricultural market went hand in hand.

**1979.** On 13 March, after the European Council meeting in Paris, the EMS came into effect. □





conjures up an idea of solidarity—solidarity between people and solidarity between nations which, as the Treaty of Paris says, share, or at least should share, their future.

This should be one of the main themes of the European election campaign. The voters need to know whether the parliament they will be electing will be managing some sort of commercial undertaking or uniting people and making them feel they belong to the same society.

This is why the decision taken by the European Councils of Paris and Brussels (and to which the countries which felt they had been short-changed agreed) was such a fundamental one. It marks the beginning of a new chapter rather than the successful completion of an old one, and although the path ahead may be difficult, considerable progress will be made along it.

People are already wondering what institutional reinforcements are necessary. Let us not forget that the European Council has invited a special committee to look into how machinery and procedures need to be adapted to ensure the harmonious operation of the Communities and progress towards European union. The "three wise men" on the committee, Marjolin, Dell and Biesheuvel, will have to make suggestions based on, and in line with, the EEC treaties (including their institutional systems). There can be no question of overturning the present institutions. The idea is to improve the way they function, something that everyone agrees is necessary.

The "three wise men" will draw on their personal experience but also, no doubt, on the ideas put forward by the EEC Commission in its reports on both European union and all the problems of opening the Community to Greece, Portugal and Spain. □ B.L.F.

## Monetary compensatory amounts (MCAs)

Monetary compensatory amounts are paid in respect of all agricultural products covered by a permanent intervention mechanism, and any processed products where the basic agricultural component is preponderant.

They are intended to make up for differences created by fluctuations in Community currencies in the prices of farm products.

The amounts are fixed in cases of trade between two countries with strong currencies, but variable in other cases and therefore have to be altered regularly (weekly checks).

The Commission has been anxious to do away with them for some time and now can. The system was too complex and it involved artificial discrimination for producers and consumers alike. It was also a heavy burden on the European budget. □

## What is money?

### Sheep, shells and tobacco were among the ancestors of today's coins and notes

Money is neither an economic device nor a natural phenomenon. It is just a convention which simplifies trade.

Every time social, commercial or economic structures have changed man has adapted (and sometimes re-invented) the money which makes for easier relations with other people. So the history of money is closely tied up with the history of trade.

We have a debt of gratitude to the first two prehistoric men who each discovered that it was a good idea to forfit some of his goods in exchange for some of the other's goods, Nobel prize-winner Paul Samuelson once wrote.

In contemporary society, with its division of labour and its interdependence, the principle is still the same.

#### From bartering to intermediate commodities

Money has continued to develop and the step from simple bartering to using some form of intermediate object in exchange for purchases and sales was quickly made. Anything could fill the bill, on two conditions. First, everyone had to agree to it (the La Palice principle, whereby money is accepted because it is accepted). Second, it had to be limited (another economic principle whereby a limited supply of money is the vital conditions for demand).

Pebbles or grains of sand would never have become money, but a wide range of things (oil, olives, pearls, rice and tobacco, for example) have been used.

In the early agricultural societies, purchases were paid for in sheep (*pecus ovis*, which gave the word *pecunia*), a standard value of the times. Another commodity with a long history as a medium of exchange is tobacco, which was used particularly in certain areas of America, where it was often the official currency.

#### The first reserve money

In America again, when colonization had only just started, the Indians used an unsophisticated but extremely practical form of tender, called wampums, which were black or white shells. One colour was worth twice as much as the other (which encouraged forgers to paint them all the same colour). Massachusetts adopted the wampum as its official currency in 1641.

It could be exchanged or converted into beaver pelts, a kind of reserve currency, at any time and it was this possibility that gave the shells their value. But as the colonizers spread across the continent, the beavers retreated and their pelts became increasingly rare. One day, no doubt following a proclamation by some great Indian chief, it ceased to be possible to convert wampums into beaver pelts. And so a monetary crisis occurred.



### The primitive form of devaluation

There are many examples of commodities being used as money, but they are limited in time and space. For four thousand years now, the story of money has been based on metal, on copper, silver and gold. In the 20th century, at least until 1971, when President Nixon made a declaration on the non-convertibility of the dollar, gold was the basis of the monetary system, first in trade of all kinds and then just in international trade (what the beaver pelt was to the Red Indians).

Herodotus said that metal coins were first used by the Lydians (end of the 8th century BC), but, if certain Hindi poems are to be believed, coins existed in India several centuries before this.

Minting was the cause of the first big problems. Gold and silver were valuable in themselves and princes and tradesmen had various ways of reducing the precious metal content of coins (i.e. clipping) so as to make the same amount of metal go further. This, which went on for centuries, was the first form of devaluation and it financed wars and it helped solve treasury problems and business difficulties.

By the early 17th century, the situation had got out of hand. A book published in Amsterdam in 1605 gave a list of 341 silver and 505 gold currencies, most of them debased and therefore devalued. It was to put an end to dealings of this kind that the Bank of London, the first big public bank in history<sup>(1)</sup> (there were precedents in Genoa and Venice) was founded in 1609. It called in all the clipped and devalued money and recoined at the old weight and fineness. The idea spread and it became less and less profitable to clip coins.

### The beginnings of credit

A really revolutionary form of money then began to emerge. Banks started to issue notes (representing the precious metal in their vaults) which could be used as a means of payment.

Banks began to develop in the 17th century, but it was not until the 18th

<sup>(1)</sup> Some authorities make this claim for the Bank of England, founded in 1694. The Bank of Amsterdam was founded in 1609. — Ed.

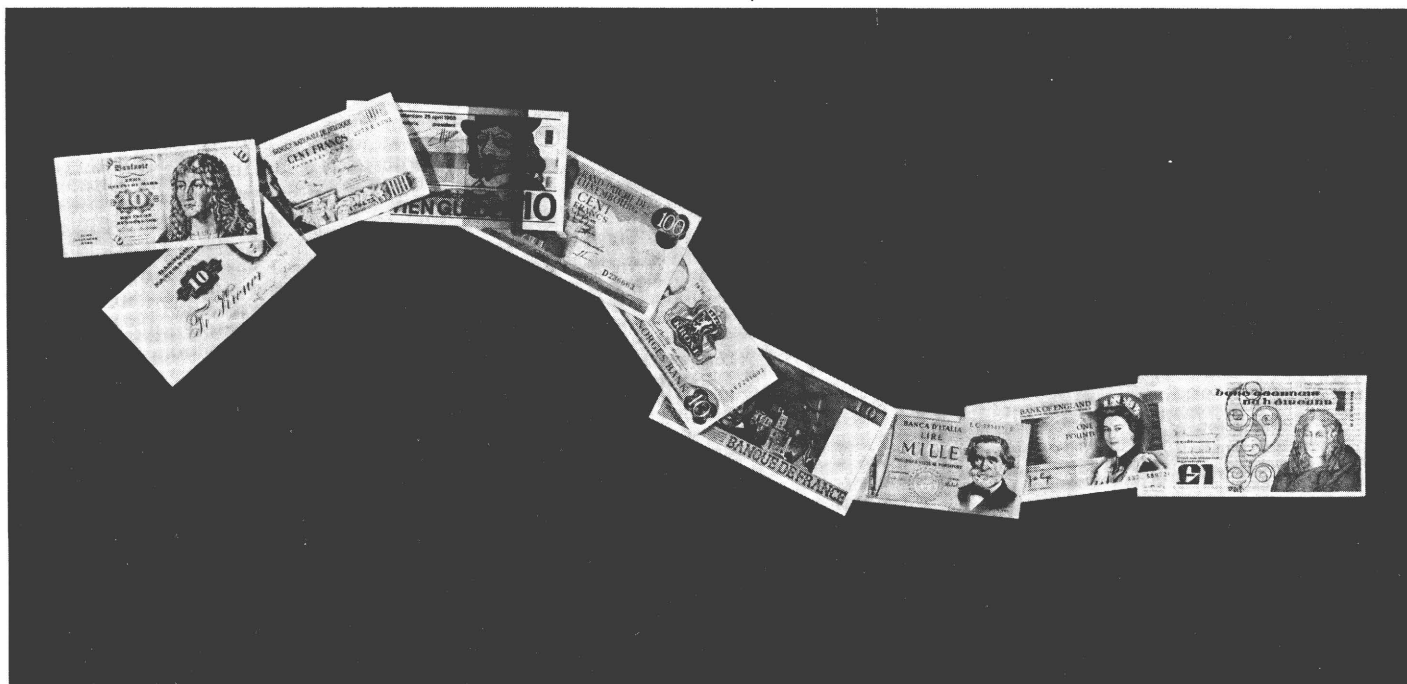
century that they became more than currency circulation bodies and started to give credit and play an increasing part in developing trade and industry by issuing loans. The secret of the banks' success is that all deposits are not withdrawn at any one time, which means that credits can exceed deposits provided that a certain relationship between the two is maintained.



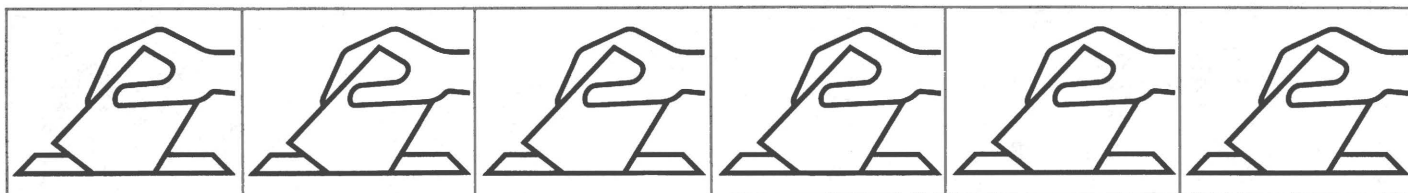
After four thousand years, the story has taken a radical turn and a simple piece of printed paper has become money.

The notes in our wallets are useful for buying things, but they are not convertible. The central banks in each country simply print more notes in accordance with the monetary policy of their own governments. Money and monetary policy are now closely linked. But that is another story. □

CLARA VENDRAME



*This representation of the monetary "snake" was too optimistic in including the pound sterling and the Irish pound. But the latter is now in the European Monetary System and it is hoped that sterling will also join the EMS*



## Europe votes

In June, the world's first international elections will take place. Over 180 million Europeans in the nine countries of the EEC will be able to vote for members of the European Parliament, the first to be elected by direct universal suffrage. The present Parliament of 198 nominated members will be replaced by an enlarged one of 410 elected members. The event will be one of the most important, and perhaps the most far-reaching, in the 28-year history of the European Community. To the Europe of governments and officials will be added a Parliament chosen by the people.

In the run-up to the elections, which will take place between 7-10 June, there will be two separate types of campaign. The first, organized jointly by the European Parliament and the European Commission through their offices in the member states, will be a non-partisan information campaign to make the European public more aware of the elections. The second, strongly partisan, campaign will be by the various parties who are contesting the elections.

### The role of the Parliament and the Commission

In national elections it is the parties which do all the campaigning, so why for the European elections should Community institutions be involved? The answer is partly that this is a new departure, an innovation which many Europeans could find confusing. The Parliament and the Commission are aware that there is apathy, even ignorance, among Europe's electors—although this varies greatly from country to country. They are therefore conducting an information campaign to make the electors aware of the elections and to arouse interest in the Community and its activities. Clearly the authority of the elected Parliament would be considerably reduced if the turnout was very low. Here the aims of the information campaign and those of the political parties coincide, since all will be trying to generate enough interest to make people vote. But the information campaign is not concerned with the way people vote; its message will be strictly non-partisan.

Because of the differing attitudes towards the Community in the various countries, both the content and tone of the information campaign have been adapted to the needs of each individual national audience. In each country a major advertising campaign is being undertaken; the message is the same, but the symbols and slogans vary considerably. Both Italy and Belgium, for instance, have posters showing huge voting pencils made up of the flags of the nine member states, while in Germany the same flags form a cross on a

ballot of paper. Ireland's poster shows an animated ballot box calling on people to vote, while in France and Belgium the idea of Europe taking off is used: in Belgium a multi-coloured bird flies out of an E, in France it is a figure in flight, representing hope.

In Britain and Denmark the central symbol is a ballot box and the tone of the campaign is sober and informative, while in France its tone is more emotional but focussed on the general arguments in favour of closer European unity.

In most countries this information campaign will end well before the opening of the official electoral period, in order to avoid overlapping with the party campaigns. The only exceptions are in the Netherlands and Luxembourg, where the parties themselves have asked for it to run close up to polling day.

### A Europe of parties

All the political groups in the present parliament will be contesting the elections, either as part of a Europe-wide federation of parties or as purely national parties. On the left are the communist and socialist parties.

The communists in the present parliament come mainly from France and Italy, and although the various communist parties will be organizing national campaigns, there will be no common declaration. George Marchais, the French communist leader, will be standing in the elections.

The socialists, at present the largest group in the parliament, adopted a common statement of aims at a congress in Brussels in January this year. This union of socialist and social democratic parties has members in all the nine member states—the only group that has—and its secretary is Robert Pontillon of France. Some important political figures are standing for the socialist group including Willy Brandt, the former German Chancellor, François Mitterrand, the French social-



*The winning poster from a competition in women's magazines in Europe which has been reproduced in all six languages of the Community*




# Kom op voor Europa



**Donderdag 7 juni verkiezingen voor het Europees Parlement.**

The world's first international elections. Will you be voting?



**Have your say on June 7th. Use your Eurovote.**



10. Juni 1979  
**Europa wird volljährig.**  
Erste Direktwahl zum Europäischen Parlament

Above, posters from the Netherlands, Britain and Germany (left to right) and below, from France, Belgium, Ireland, Luxembourg and Denmark

## L'EUROPE C'EST L'ESPOIR



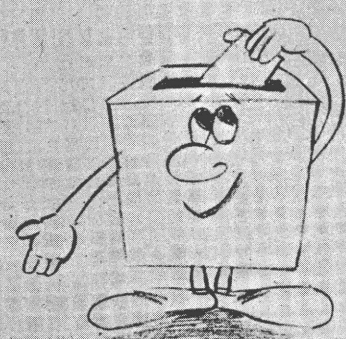
10 Juin 79 Choisissez votre Europe

GEEF EUROPA STERKE VLEUGELS.




10 Juni 1979: verkiezingen van het Europese Parlement.

**On June 7th, do something you've never done before.**



**VOTE! And let someone you know keep an eye on things.**



**MÉI WÄIT GESINN**

## 7. juni får De en ny rettighed: stemmeret til Europa-Parlamentet,

**7-10.6.**

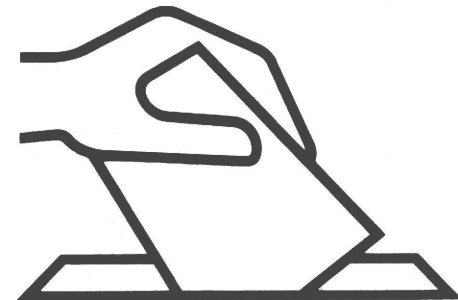


**EUROPA VALG 79**

ist leader, Anne Vondeling, the former Dutch minister of finance, and Barbara Castle, the former British cabinet minister. The socialists expect to win seats in all the nine member states, with their main strength numerically in Germany, Britain and France.

On the centre and right of the political spectrum there are four political groups. The largest brings together the Community's christian democratic parties, under the umbrella of the European People's Party (EPP) led by the former Belgian Prime Minister, Leo Tindemans. It has member parties and expects to win seats in all the Community countries except Britain and Denmark. It has also adopted a common programme for the elections.

The other major group with wide membership is the European Liberals and Democrats (ELD). They too have a common policy and have member parties from every country but Ireland. The leader of the liberals is Gaston Thorn, the Prime Minister of Luxembourg. The liberals hope to win seats in all countries where they have members, although the electoral system chosen in Britain may mean that none is elected there even if they poll several million



votes. The largest group of liberals in the present parliament is from France and Simone Veil, the French health minister, will be heading the UDF list in the June elections.

The two other groupings both have limited national participation. The European Progressive Democrats include the French Gaullists (RPR)—whose leader Jacques Chirac, a former French Prime Minister, is standing in June—Fianna Fail, the governing party in Ireland, and the Danish Progress Party. Finally, there are the European conservatives from Britain and Denmark. On a number of issues the conservatives have identified themselves with the EPP, but there is no formal link between them.

In addition to the multinational parties there are a number of smaller national parties who might stand on the right and left. There will be nationalists in Scotland and Wales and there could also be independents. Lord George-Brown, the former British foreign secretary, for example, is standing as an independent in England.

### Radio and television

Although the main political parties are grouped in Europe-wide federations, much of the actual campaigning by politicians will be at the national level. However, radio and television coverage will give a European flavour to the election by linking up the capitals and allowing politicians of different persuasions and nationalities to debate European issues with each other in front of a multinational audience. The television and radio organizations have already made the network arrangements, and it could well be that this new type of link-up will have the biggest impact of all on the voters.

### Who will win?

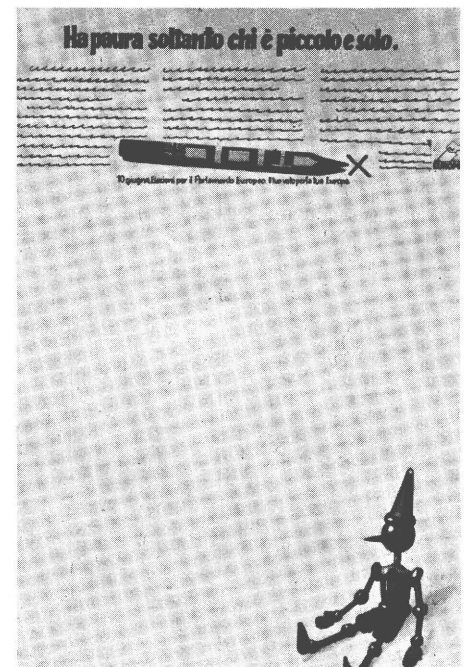
Already opinion polls, both national and Community-wide, are giving some idea of which groups will emerge as the largest, but there is still a long time to go before the election itself, and much can change. The vote for the

various parties in the last national elections in each country gives some idea of past strengths. Obviously people may vote very differently in a European election. The figures were as follows:

Party	Total votes in all 9 countries	
	Number of votes	Percentage
Socialist parties	44.9 m	(30.0%)
European People's Party (EPP)	39.9 m	(26.6%)
Communists	19.1 m	(12.7%)
European Liberals and Democrats (ELD)	15.7 m	(10.5%)
Conservatives	11.0 m	(7.3%)
European Progressive Democrats (EPD)	7.8 m	(5.2%)
Others	11.6 m	(7.7%)
<b>Total</b>	<b>149.8 m</b>	<b>(100%)</b>



A simple message from Britain (above), but from Italy a more symbolic one: "Only those who are small and alone are afraid"

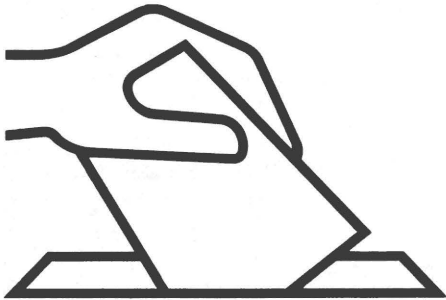




The seats in the old nominated parliament of 198 members were divided as follows: Socialists 66, EPP 53, ELD 23, Conservatives 18, Communists 18, EPD 17, Independents 3.

### Mechanism of voting

Although in the 1984 elections Europe should have a uniform voting system, this year each country has adopted



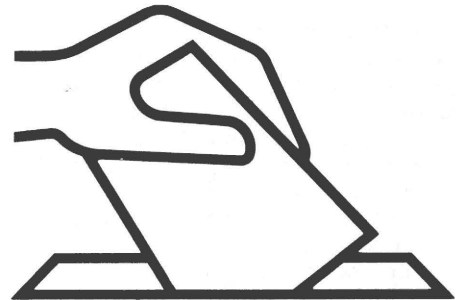
its own system. In France, the national party list system will be used instead of the usual two rounds of voting in single-member constituencies.

Similar national list systems will be used in Denmark, Luxembourg and the Netherlands, where people are used to it. Belgians will be voting on two regional lists for Flanders and Wallonia. Regional lists will also be used in Italy (five huge constituencies). In Germany there will be a complex system of Länder (states) and national lists. Britain will be using its traditional 'first past the post' system in single member constituencies (78 in all), but they will be almost 10 times the size of those for national elections. The three UK seats in Northern Ireland, and all the 15 Irish seats will be filled by yet another system, the single transferable vote in multi-member constituencies.

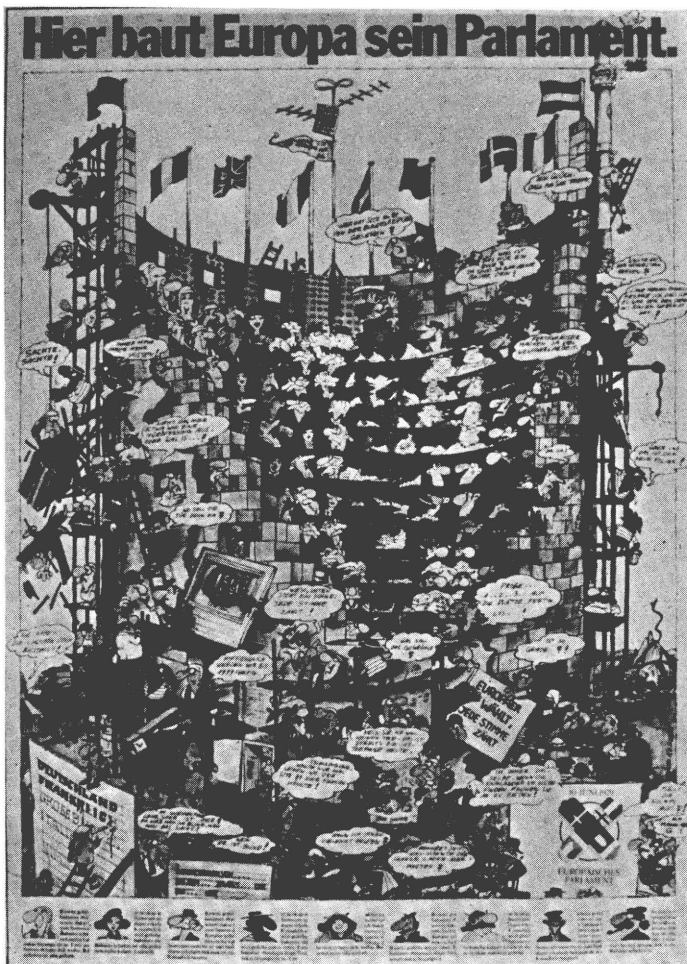
There will also be some oddities in who can vote. The Dutch and Irish will allow all Community citizens resident in their countries to vote. Most of the others restrict the right to vote to nationals only. In Britain, UK, Irish and Commonwealth citizens who are resident can vote, which means a number of ACP nationals will be voting for members of the European Parliament.

Finally, not everyone will be voting on the same day. Britain, Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands vote on 7 June, and Belgium, Germany, France,

Italy, and Luxembourg on the 10 June. But the counting will not begin until all Europeans have voted. In addition to national results programmes, a contin-



ent-wide results service will also be appearing on Europe's television sets after the polls close, and on Monday 11 June Europe will at last know what its first directly elected Parliament will look like. The campaigning will be over, but the life of the Parliament will have only just begun. People will then be asking what effect this new elected institution will have on the development of the EEC and the move towards European unity. □ I.P.



Europeans build their Parliament (Germany)

<p><b>Cittadini italiani,</b> il 10 giugno 1979, per la prima volta nella storia, 180 milioni di cittadini di nove paesi d'Europa eleggeranno insieme, a suffragio universale diretto, il Parlamento Europeo.</p>	<p><b>Deutsche Bürger,</b> Am 10. Juni 1979 wählen die Bürger aller neun Mitgliedstaaten der Europäischen Gemeinschaften gemeinsam und durch allgemeines, direktes Wahlrecht das Europäische Parlament.</p>
<p><b>Nederlanders,</b> Op 10 juni 1979 zullen de Nederlanders, samen met de burgers van acht andere landen, voor het eerst de leden van het Europees Parlement kiezen.</p>	<p><b>Irish people,</b> On 10 June 1979 Irish citizens will vote with citizens of eight other countries to elect the members of the European Parliament.</p>
<p><b>Citoyens français,</b> Le 10 juin 1979, les Français voteront, pour la première fois, avec les citoyens de huit autres pays, les membres du Parlement européen.</p>	<p><b>Danske statsborgere,</b> Den 10. juni 1979 vil danskerne sammen med borgere fra otte andre lande vælge medlemmerne af det Europæiske Parlament.</p>
<p><b>British people,</b> On 10 June 1979 British citizens will vote with citizens of eight other countries to elect the members of the European Parliament.</p>	<p><b>Citoyens belges,</b> Le 10 juin 1979, les Belges voteront, pour la première fois, avec les citoyens de huit autres pays, les membres du Parlement européen.</p>
<p><b>Luxembourgoises,</b> Le 10 juin 1979, les Luxembourgeois voteront, pour la première fois, avec les citoyens de huit autres pays, les membres du Parlement européen.</p>	<p><b>Europei,</b> Il 10 giugno 1979 votano, per la prima volta, i cittadini di nove paesi europei, insieme, per eleggere il Parlamento Europeo.</p>

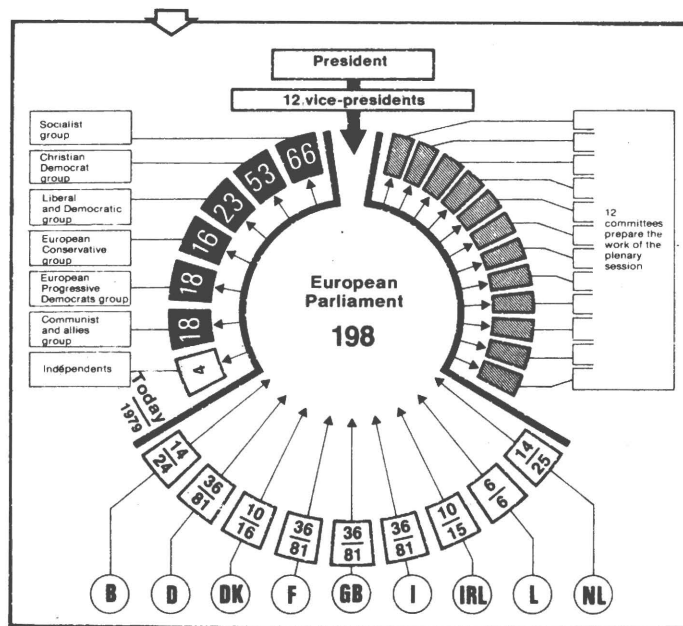
The call goes out to all Europe's citizens (Italy)



The Airbus: European cooperation in action (France)



# Political groups in the European Parliament



## Political organizations for the election campaign (1)

### The European People's Party

**Belgium:**  
Christelijke Volkspartij (Dutch-speaking)  
Parti Social-Chrétien (French-speaking)

**France:**  
Centre des Démocrates Sociaux

**Germany:**  
Christlich Demokratische Union  
Christlich Soziale Union

**Ireland:**  
Fine Gael

**Italy:**  
Democrazia Cristiana  
Südtiroler Volkspartei

**Luxembourg:**  
Parti Chrétien-Social

**Netherlands:**  
Anti-Revolutionaire Partij  
Christelijke Historische Unie  
Katholieke Volkspartij

### European Progressive Democrats

**Denmark:**  
Fremskridtspartiet

**France:**  
Rassemblement pour la République

**Ireland:**  
Fianna Fail

### Conservatives

**Denmark:**  
Det Konservative Folkeparti  
Centrums-demokraterne

**United Kingdom:**  
Conservative and Unionist Party

### European Liberals and Democrats

**Denmark:**  
Venstres Landsorganisation

**Belgium:**  
Parti Libéral (Brussels)  
Parti de la Liberté et du Progrès (French-speaking)  
Partij voor Vrijheid en Vooruitgang (Dutch-speaking)

**France:**  
Parti Radical Socialiste  
Federation Nationale des Républicains Indépendants

**Germany:**  
Freie Demokratische Partei

**Italy:**  
Partito Liberale Italiano  
Partito Repubblicano Italiano

**Luxembourg:**  
Parti Démocratique

**Netherlands:**  
Volkspartij voor Vrijheid en Democratie

### United Kingdom:

The Liberal Party

### Union of Socialist Parties

**Denmark:**  
Sozialdemokratiet

**Belgium:**  
Parti Socialiste (French-speaking)  
Belgische Socialistische Partij (Dutch-speaking)

**France:**  
Parti Socialiste  
Mouvement des Radicaux de gauche

**Germany:**  
Sozialdemokratische Partei Deutschlands

**Ireland:**  
The Irish Labour Party

**Italy:**  
Partito Socialista Italiano  
Partito Socialista Democratico Italiano

**Luxembourg:**  
Parti Ouvrier Socialiste Luxembourgeois

**Netherlands:**  
Partij van de Arbeid

**United Kingdom:**  
The Labour Party

(1) The Communists and other left wing parties in the present Parliament will not be fighting under the same banner in the elections, but on a national level. The existing group is composed of French and Italian Communists, the Danish Socialistik Folkeparti and the independent Italian left.

## The role of the parliamentary committees

How do the MPs in the European Parliament arrive at a unanimous or majority opinion on any given question? To answer this we must first understand the vital role the parliamentary committees play in preparing for the vote.

In all but exceptional cases, a proposal put to the vote in parliament will already have been discussed by a committee that has produced a detailed report on the matter.

The European Parliament has 12 permanent committees, each of them covering a specific field of Community activity. Each is a miniature parliament of 35 members (except for the committee on rules of procedure and petitions, which has only 18).

The committees deal with political affairs; legal affairs; economic and monetary affairs; budgets; social affairs, employment and education; agriculture and regional policy; regional planning and transport; public health, the environment and consumer protection; energy, research and technology; external economic relations; development and cooperation and, as already mentioned, rules of procedure and petitions.

The committees draw up draft resolutions which are then put to the vote in parliament. A committee may be invited to look into, for example, a new draft regulation by the EEC Commission, draw up a report on the matter, criticize it, suggest amendments and even propose a counter-draft to be discussed by the Parliament, which then informs the EEC Commission and Council of Ministers of its final opinion.

Discussions in committee will obviously vary according to whether the subject has already been dealt with in parliament and whether similar or identical cases have been covered by the political groups.

### The political groups

When new subjects come up, the committee work may be over before the political groups have had time to produce a joint opinion. These groups are often hindered by the fact that they only have one or two one-day study

sessions a year and that the meetings they hold at the Strasbourg part-sessions are almost entirely given over to items on the parliamentary agenda. In an attempt to remedy this, those members of a committee who belong to the same political group sometimes meet before sittings for brief exchanges of views—which are usually thought to be inadequate.

The job of the committees seems, in fact, to be to iron out as many points of disagreement as possible when a draft resolution has been produced, so that the Parliament can adopt it without difficulty. This is important. The European Parliament is always anxious to express its opinion with, if not unanimity, as large a majority as possible, so as to strengthen its hold over the EEC Commission and Council of Ministers. So when some draft resolutions get to a plenary sitting of the Parliament, they have already been the subject of a compromise that has rallied people from all over the political spectrum.

But fairly often, on political and social texts at least, committee discussions lead to a majority and a minority opinion being held by the major political groups in the house. In this case, the debate at the plenary sitting will concentrate on the majority/minority bone of contention.

This situation will very probably undergo profound modifications after



direct elections. A directly elected MP will not be so willing to agree to compromises reached by honourable members in private. If he knows he is going to be standing for re-election at the end of his five-year term, he will be forced to make his opinions clearer and political profile sharper.

This is already happening in the election campaign and the differences between the political parties in each country are becoming more clearly defined.

### A permanent role

As well as preparing draft resolutions, the parliamentary committees have another, equally essential, role to play. The European Parliament, unlike the national parliaments, only meets once a month. So, to a certain extent, the committees replace parliament between sittings and control (some would say breathe down the necks of) the members of the executives.

It is to facilitate contact with the EEC Council of Ministers and the Commission (which has to inform them of its plans and policies) that the parliamentary committees meet in Brussels. This ensures that the committees have a permanent means of control over the Eurocrats.

### Dialogue

Although in most of the national parliamentary committees it is the minister or the secretary of state who answers members' questions, at European level it is members of the Commission who defend the dossiers put before the parliamentary committees.

Officials/experts help the committees draw up their reports by giving them all the technical information they need and explaining current events (like the outcome of a European Council or a session of the EEC Council of Ministers).

After direct elections, the parliamentary committees will inevitably be much more politicized and there will be more conflicting opinions in their discussions, which will no doubt reflect national political differences to a greater extent. There will also be considerable technical changes as the committees will be doubling in size (to about 50-100 members) and each will be a mini-parliament in its own right. □

ANNE-MARIE MOURADIAN

(Reprinted from *30 jours d'Europe*).

## A European Community — why?(1)

Factory closures, unemployment, spending cutbacks, declining standard of living, inflation—these have been the subjects of conversation and newspaper and TV reports throughout Europe in recent years and are a sign of the hardship that Europe has suffered. Recent economic indicators show a slight but not necessarily permanent improvement. More and more people have felt the impact of the economic crisis in their everyday lives, a crisis triggered in 1973 which has hit all industrialized countries to greater and lesser degrees.

### The scale of the crisis

□ Unemployment, first and foremost, has increased dramatically. During the first half of 1978 it reached the level of 10% in Ireland, in three provinces of Belgium and in several other regions of Europe. In southern Italy it has nearly reached the 20% mark in Campania and Basilicate. The total number of people unemployed in Community countries stood at six million in October 1978. The average between 1960 and 1970 was only 2.1 million.

□ Economic growth rates in Community countries have fallen. The average growth rate in 1978 was 2.6%, and 1.8% per annum between 1974 and 1977, as against 4.6% between 1960 and 1970.

□ Inflation is still high and in 1978 averaged 7.5% in the Community, after reaching 13% in 1974 and 1975, compared to an average 3.3% per year between 1958 and 1967.

□ Industries in Third World countries are competing more and more with Europe's in sectors such as textiles, shipbuilding, steel and petrochemicals. The 1973-1974 fourfold increase in oil prices, and price rises in other imported raw materials, were the first signs of a significant readjustment in the balance of the world economy.

□ The international monetary crisis has not helped either. The US dollar has consistently dropped in value whilst remaining the principal means of payment in world trade. Variations in European exchange rates are a meas-

ure of the divergences in economic efficiency. They discourage trade and therefore industrial investment.

□ The improvement in standards of living and social welfare, characteristic of the years of prosperity, has been interrupted. Social and regional inequalities have deepened. The limits on funds available have made it more difficult to find answers to new demands for a better quality of life.

The economic crisis was preceded by a veritable moral crisis and the limits of badly distributed and purely quantitative economic growth have been evident to a number of social groups, and most naturally to the young.

□ Large pockets of poverty persist in the least developed or declining regions, even in close proximity to opulence. Things are worse, of course, in Third World countries. Approximately one third of the world's population is hungry.

□ In addition to the problems experienced by workers are those suffered by consumers. The workers in Europe's "programmed" society often have boring and repetitive jobs which demand little skill and which they must perform within a rigid hierarchical structure. Consumer needs are accentuated rather than fulfilled by advertising, waste and the multiplication of personal goods — the paltry remedy for the social isolation felt in large urban and industrial concentrations.

□ Economic growth pushes us nearer to human and natural limits. New progress seems to amount to further attacks on the person—noise, fatigue, insecurity—or on the environment. Pollution is increasing and the dwindling reserves of certain raw materials lead to disturbing forecasts.

These are the principal challenges being tackled by Europeans. Should they approach them together or separately?

### Peace and economic recovery — first Community successes

1951 saw the signature of the treaty setting up the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC), followed in 1957 by the treaties creating the European

Economic Community (EEC) and the European Atomic Energy Community (EAEC or Euratom). Six countries signed the treaties at the outset: Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg and The Netherlands. Three others joined in 1973: Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom.

Their aims were:

□ To lay down in the aftermath of the Second World War the foundations of a European union which could rule out conflict between its members and provide the countries with a voice in a world dominated by major continental powers;

□ To provide economic recovery and then expansion through the creation of a common market, starting with the coal and steel sector—the two basic materials which were the sinews of war—and then extend the experience gained to the whole economy of each member state.

In the first stages, the results exceeded expectations.

□ During the first five years of the ECSC, trade in coal and steel amongst the Six increased by 129%. Between the creation of the European Economic Community in 1958 and its expansion in 1973, trade amongst the Six rose from 7 to 54 billion European units of account(2) for all products. Amongst the Nine, trade reached 168 billion EUA in 1977.

□ Supplementing the increase in trade with the rest of the world, this development enabled consumers to be supplied with a more extensive range of goods. By stimulating competition—for which the Community is the watchdog—it also helped keep down price rises.

□ European industry—with a domestic common market of 192 million people at its disposal in 1972 and 260 million at the present moment—has been able to rationalize production and raise productivity. The same has been the case for agriculture.

□ Europe has consequently seen economic expansion without precedent. Between 1958 and 1972—the year which signalled the beginning of the international economic crisis—the Community's gross national product had increased by 90%, compared to

(1) From the directorate general for information of the Commission of the European Communities.

(2) American billion.

1 EUA = approximately £0.64.



42% in the United Kingdom and 61% in the USA. To take the example of just one of the standard of living indicators, the number of telephones per thousand inhabitants had risen from 80 in 1958 to 216 in 1972 (309 in 1976), and the indicator for cars had risen from 76 to 251 (274 in 1976).

□ Above all, peace was maintained between the old adversaries. Human contacts have multiplied between men, women, leaders, politicians, civil servants, trade unionists, employers and farmers etc. and have helped build up greater trust between peoples who have been divided for too long. "We are not only bringing together countries, we are uniting people" wrote Jean Monnet, one of the founding fathers of Europe. As a sign of the Community's attraction, Greece requested to join in 1975, and Portugal and Spain followed suit in 1977. Negotiations have been successfully concluded with Greece and are still continuing with Spain and Portugal.

### **From the common market to interdependence**

Throughout the last three decades, the work of the common market has helped develop interdependence between Community countries.

□ The free movement of people and services has enabled workers, traders and industrialists to move to and work in the countries of their choice. Migrants benefit from equal treatment over wages, social security and trade union rights. The Community is currently working to extend these rights to the liberal professions, by harmonizing national criteria and qualifications; and to encourage language teaching and the mobility of university students.

□ The free movement of goods has by and large been accomplished. Customs duties were totally abolished for the six founding countries in 1968 and in 1977 for the others. In consequence, trade amongst the Nine has considerably increased and today represents a little more than half of their total trade. This vast domestic European market enables large-scale production costs to be reduced. Countries which decide to turn in on themselves will lose this advantage and will be condemned to decline.

□ European competition rules have been implemented. The objective is to ensure that companies do not reach agreements, form cartels or abuse a dominant position either to the detriment of other firms or at the expense of the consumer.

□ In the agricultural sector, where state aid is an established tradition, a

European policy has been introduced based on common prices and on Community price support: 8.7 billion EUA was spent in 1978 to guarantee the security and the price stability of our food supplies, to modernize farming and assure an acceptable living standard for farmers. New efforts are necessary however, to eliminate the distortions created by exchange rate fluctuations in Europe, to prevent the creation of surplus stocks, to assure the future of farming in Mediterranean areas and to introduce a common system covering fishing.

□ Another consequence of the free movement of goods within the Community has been the common customs tariff applicable to the rest of the world. International trade agreements and the introduction of measures to guard against uncontrolled competition, from third countries are now within Community powers.

The Community has thereby emerged on the international scene as a single body—the most powerful grouping in the world since it accounts for 21% of world trade, excluding intra-Community trade.

The Community has used its weight to:

□ Liberalize international trade. Reciprocal reductions in customs duties have been negotiated. Free trade zones have been set up with other West European countries. A regular dialogue has been instituted with the other major industrial powers.

□ Encourage the development of the Third World, which is our principal supplier of raw materials and our leading export market. Preferential and cooperation agreements have been concluded with Mediterranean countries as well as with the 57 African, Caribbean and Pacific countries party to the Lomé Convention. Community aid within the framework of this convention will amount to 3.4 billion EUA between 1976 and 1980. Other agreements have been concluded with the countries of the Indian sub-continent and certain Latin American countries. Generalized preferences permit all Third World countries to export to the Community finished and semi-finished products, up to a value of about 7 billion EUA, without paying customs duties.

### **From interdependence to solidarity**

Along with the growth of the Community, contacts have multiplied between the economies of the Nine.

Interdependence in some sectors has led to interdependence in others. This is the case, for example, in:

□ The harmonization of norms applied to goods: the differences between national legislation create technical obstacles to the free movement of goods; for mass produced goods the creation of a true common market has required a certain amount of standardization, without which the consumer could not draw benefit from large scale production.

□ Taxation: despite the abolition of customs duties, border controls cannot be abolished until VAT rates applied to different goods are harmonized.

□ Environment and consumer protection: to oblige national car manufacturers, for example, to install new and costly anti-pollution or safety equipment can put them at a severe competitive disadvantage in relation to their European rivals, except when the same measures are obligatory to all car makers in Europe by way of the harmonization work carried out at the Community level.

□ Regional policy: uncoordinated public aid can help "export" unemployment to its neighbours. It can also enable large firms to play off countries or markets against each other.

□ Social policy: the member countries of the Community are increasingly hesitant about taking major and expensive social measures in the industrial field (e.g. the possible reduction of the working week to 35 hours) unless they are applied at the same time by companies in neighbouring and competing countries in the common market.

□ Science policy: investment needed in this sector is increasing. By combining their efforts in laboratories and in industrial research bureaux, our countries could achieve at lower cost results which would otherwise have been outside their reach.

□ Industrial policy: the Community imports most of its raw materials and will import—for a long time yet—most of its energy supplies. We therefore need to remain open to trade with the rest of the world and our industry should be able to resist increasingly sharp foreign competition. Recent examples (aerospace, data-processing, etc.) prove that none of our countries is capable of working alone in the sectors which will determine the industrial future of Europe.

### **Common responses to the crisis**

The economic crisis has imposed new objectives on the Community. The

scope of the challenge we are faced with and the interdependence of Community countries calls for joint responses.

In a troubled world, only the economic and monetary union of Europe can enable our countries to create a zone of relative stability. Whilst guaranteeing the future of the common market, this stability would stimulate investment, create jobs. The Community has already decided to introduce in 1979:

□ a European monetary system to provide exchange stability between European currencies—with the exception as of now of the Pound Sterling—in relation to a common measuring unit, the ECU (European Currency Unit). The system is made up of a "basket" of Community currencies. Community countries also decided to pool 20% of their gold and dollar reserves.

□ More effective coordination of national economic policies. It is difficult to maintain stable relationships between currencies when inflation rates differ by as much as 10%.

□ Joint action to resolve structural imbalances. In the framework of the new monetary system, a sum of six billion EUA will be put at the disposal of the least prosperous countries in five years time.

## Social and regional policy

The need for such joint action extends to a number of other fields, in particular:

□ Social policy. Since the 1971 reform, the European Social Fund has subsidized vocational training and retraining programmes and this has affected more than two million workers. The cost of this in 1978 was close to 600 million EUA. Special programmes exist for the coal and steel sector, for female workers, young unemployed, migrant workers, etc. The Community is also trying to improve working conditions and promote workers' rights, particularly in cases of collective dismissals, mergers or bankruptcies. Action needs to go further than this: there are six million unemployed in Europe and national employment policies have been ineffective in finding solutions to this problem, which constitutes a real human nightmare and a considerable economic waste.

□ Regional policy. Community apparatus has already been set up: a European Investment Bank whose loans—around 8 billion EUA between 1958 and 1977, two billion alone in

1978—have for the most part (75%) helped support investment in the poorest regions. And since 1975, a European Regional Fund, which was endowed with 581 million EUA in 1978 and which should, according to the European Parliament, have had 1.1 billion EUA in 1979.

Increased efforts in regional policy are required to:

□ Put a brake in rural population decline and conversely, help resolve the problems of the large industrial concentrations.

□ Assure a readaptation in the declining regions.

□ Permit all member countries, current or future, to progressively reach comparable economic and social positions;

□ Modernize the Mediterranean regions with a view to the enlargement of the Community with the addition of Greece, Portugal and Spain;

## Reorganizing industry

□ Industrial policy. The Community has been able to negotiate agreements with other countries which offer sectors in difficulty—steel, textiles, etc.—the possibility of reorganizing themselves with its assistance. In the coal and steel sectors, it contributes to investment through loans which totalled 5.6 billion EUA over 25 years. But here again, we need to go further. Europe can never be a hospital for sick industries. Industry has to be redeployed towards growth sectors, as this is the only way to assure new and viable jobs.

Such redeployment has to be coordinated at the Community level to:

● guarantee the optimal use of available resources and avoid a ruinous duplication of effort;

● safeguard the unity of our common market, which could be compromised by divergent national policies;

● develop, on a more solid basis, industrial and commercial cooperation with Third World countries. Rapid industrialization in certain of these countries is causing us problems in a number of sectors. But the rising standard of living in these countries offers us the chance to increase exports, particularly of capital goods.

## Energy cooperation

□ Energy policy. Our dependence on outside countries is heavy: imports

accounted for 63% of consumption in 1973 and 56% in 1977. Energy savings measures need to be stepped up and new energy sources developed. The coordination of national policies is essential in this field. Greater cooperation would permit:

● better exploitation of research investment;

● agreements with oil producing countries to guarantee the volume and cost of our supplies.

## Europe: a choice for Europeans

Europe is no longer a matter for technocrats. It is Europeans themselves—all the people of the Community—who have to answer the major questions of today.

□ Just how far are we prepared to go to reduce social and regional inequalities in the Community and in the countries that wish to become members, to enable all countries to become completely integrated in European economic and monetary union?

□ How can we guarantee jobs—and if possible jobs which satisfy aspirations—for today's unemployed and for our children tomorrow? Should we share out the jobs which are currently available? Should we put more stress on greater competitiveness in industry?

□ What type of economic growth are we looking for, and based on what form of productive system? What objectives for consumption? What degree of intervention by public authorities? What sources of energy, nuclear or not? And are we ready in all these fields to pay the price of our choices?

□ Just how far and at what speed do we want to move on the road to European union? What form do we want this Europe to take, and what type of society and civilization do we want? What sort of relationship do we want to have with the other major powers and with the countries of the Third World? To what extent are we ready to extend our support to the latter?

How Europeans reply to these questions will determine the nature of the Community, our Community. The direct elections to the European Parliament in June 1979 are consequently vitally important. For the Community they are both a factor for democratization and a factor of strength—through these elections the people of Europe will be able to state how they wish to get out of the crisis and what type of Europe and what type of society they want to see emerge. □

## Eurobarometer

75% of respondents say direct elections are necessary if we are to decide what sort of a Europe we want

The last Eurobarometer, run in the nine countries of the Community in the autumn, has just been published. Seven out of 10 (80% and more in Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands, 67% in France but only 54% in Denmark), it says, are in favour of direct elections. In the UK and Denmark, with six months to go to the vote, one person in five was still against the very principle of it.

As to the reasons for the elections,

the commonest argument (on which 75% of the sample agreed) was that they are necessary to decide what sort of a Europe we want. The need for more democratic control over the Community officials got a 63% agreement. The negative argument, whereby direct elections are likely to give the European Parliament too much power, got support from 35% of the sample and was rejected by 43%.

## The institutions of the European Community<sup>(1)</sup>

In June 1979, for the first time in their history, citizens of the European Community—British, Belgians, Danish, Dutch, French, Germans, Irish, Italians and Luxembourgers—will directly choose their representatives in the European Parliament. An explanation about the European institutions and how they operate will help the new European voter understand what it's all about.

The European Community was created by three treaties:

□ the Treaty of Paris, signed on 18 April 1951, which created the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC);

□ the two Rome Treaties signed on 25 March 1957, which set up the European Economic Community (EEC) and the European Atomic Energy Community (EAEC or Euratom).

Within the framework of these three treaties the European Community is managed by six institutions.

### The European Commission: initiator and executive

The Commission of the European Communities is composed of 13 commissioners ("members")—two British, two French, two German, two Italian and one from each of the other countries—appointed for a four-year period by mutual agreements of the govern-

ment of the nine countries. The members of the European Commission act only in the interests of the Community; they may not receive instructions from any national government and are subject only to the supervision of the European Parliament, which alone can force them collectively to resign their responsibilities. Commission decisions are taken collegiately, even though each commissioner is directly responsible for one or more portfolios.

The Commission's tasks are:

□ To ensure that Community rules and the principles of the common market are respected. As guardian of the treaties the Commission is responsible for seeing that they are observed and that decisions of the Community institutions deriving from the treaties are correctly applied. The Commission decides on requests from member states to apply safeguard clauses and can, in exceptional cases, authorize temporary waivers (derogations) from the rules of the treaties. It has investigative powers and can impose fines on individuals, particularly regarding violations of Community competition rules. States which do not respect their obligations can also be taken to the European Court of Justice by the Commission.

□ To propose to the Community's Council of Ministers all measures likely to advance Community policies (in the fields of agriculture, energy, industry, research, environment, social and regional problems, external trade, eco-

nomie and monetary union, etc.). In 1977 the Commission transmitted 609 proposals to the Council of Ministers;

□ To implement Community policies on the basis of Council decisions or derived directly from the provisions of the treaties.

● The Commission thereby has particularly extensive powers in the fields of coal and steel (investment coordination, price control, etc.), competition (control of monopolies and public aid), nuclear energy (supply of fissile materials, control of nuclear installations, etc.).

● In other cases the Commission operates upon a mandate from the Council, e.g. to negotiate trade agreements with third countries or to manage the agricultural markets.

● The Commission also administers the funds of the common programmes which account for most of the Community budget and which aim to:

— support and modernize agriculture (European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund);

— encourage industrial, vocational and regional change (ECSC appropriations, Social Fund, European Regional Development Fund);

— promote scientific research (the Joint Research Centres employ some 2 500 people);

— channel European aid towards the Third World (European Development Fund, food aid programmes, etc.).

The Commission has an administrative staff—concentrated mostly in Brussels and, to a lesser extent, in Luxembourg—of about 8 000 officials working in some 20 directorates-general (this is less than the staff of a good number of national ministries). One third of the personnel is employed on linguistic work to ensure the equal recognition of the six Community languages.

### The Council of Ministers: decision-maker

The Community's Council of Ministers, which meets in Brussels and, less often, in Luxembourg, is composed of ministers from each member state and decides on the principal Community policies. Each country acts as president of the Council for a six-month period on a rotation basis. Attendance at meetings is determined by the agenda; national agriculture ministers, for example, deal with agricultural prices, while economics and employment ministers deal with unemployment problems. The Nine's ministers for foreign

(1) From the directorate-general for information, Commission of the European Communities.



affairs are responsible for coordinating the specialized work of their colleagues. The Council is assisted by:

— a Committee of Permanent Representatives, COREPER, which coordinates the preparatory work of Community decisions and is assisted by numerous working groups of senior officials from members states;

— a general secretariat with a staff of some 1 500 people.

The Council of Ministers should not be confused with the European Councils, which have met three times a year since 1975 (before this they were only occasional) and bring together the Nine's heads of state or government to provide political guidance and impetus—a role which should not be underestimated, even if the meetings do not directly produce legislative measures.

The Council of Ministers held 61 sessions in 1977. All the proposals it deals with come without exception from the Commission, and the Council can only reject them by a unanimous vote.

Unanimity in the Council is also required for certain important decisions. In practice it is frequently demanded by ministers even when not strictly necessary, which tends to slow down the Community's decision-making process. In recent times, there has been more frequent recourse to the use of the qualified majority vote—41 out of 58 votes—as instituted by the treaties. France, Germany, Italy and the United Kingdom each have 10 votes under this procedure. Belgium and the Netherlands have five, Denmark and Ireland three and Luxembourg two.

In the agriculture sector, procedures have been accelerated by the creation of "management committees" composed of representatives from the Commission and national governments: Commission decisions have to be submitted for Council approval only if a qualified majority within the Committee disagree with them.

## The Court of Justice and Community law

The Community's Luxembourg-based Court of Justice is composed of nine judges assisted by four advocates-general who are appointed for a six-year period by mutual agreement of member states and who work independently of them. The Court's function is:

□ To annul any measures taken by the Commission, the Council of Ministers or national governments which are incompatible with the treaties. This can

be done at the request either of a Community institution, a member state, or an individual directly concerned.

□ To pass judgment at the request of national courts on the interpretation or the validity of the provisions of Community law. Whenever a case cannot be resolved by national courts, they can request an interlocutory decision from the Court. Where a national court is the highest court of appeal it must submit an issue involving Community law to the Court of Justice for a ruling.

The Court can also be invited to give its opinion—which is then binding—on agreements which the Community envisages concluding with third countries.

Through its judgments and interpretations, the Court of Justice is contributing to the emergence of a veritable European law applicable to all: Community institutions, member states, national courts and individuals.

The authority of the Court's judgments in the field of Community law surpasses that of national courts. In cases of non-application of Community law by the Council, or member states, the Court has been approached by individuals and upheld, for example, the direct applicability of principles contained in the treaties relating to equal pay for men and women and the free exercise of the liberal professions throughout the Community.

In 1977 the Court dealt with 162 cases (of which 80 were interlocutory) and passed 118 judgments.

## The European Parliament and its constituents

The European Parliament is composed of:

□ 198 representatives of national parliaments, as until June 1979, the date of the first European elections: 36 for France, Germany, Italy and the United Kingdom; 14 for Belgium and the Netherlands; 10 for Denmark and Ireland; and 6 for Luxembourg;

□ 410 members after direct elections: 81 from each of the four larger countries, 25 from the Netherlands, 24 from Belgium, 16 from Denmark, 15 from Ireland and 6 from Luxembourg.

There are no national groups in the European Parliament, only political groups which link the parliamentarians from different countries with the same political leanings. The six political groups are: the Socialists, Christian Democrats, Liberals and Democrats, Conservatives, European Democrats

(Gaullists in particular), Communists and Allies.

The Parliament's secretariat is located in Luxembourg and numbers some 1 400 officials.

The Parliament holds 12 plenary sessions per year in Luxembourg or Strasbourg. These are open to the public. Its 12 committees meet in camera and representatives of the European Commission and of the Council of Ministers may be asked to attend. These committee meetings enable the Parliament to make fully informed pronouncements on the problems of European construction.

The European Parliament does not have the same legislative power as national assemblies. In the Community system, it is the Commission which takes the initiatives and the Council which passes most Community legislation.

Nevertheless the Parliament:

□ Has the power to remove the Commission by a two-thirds majority.

□ Supervises the Commission and the Council, and often addresses incisive written and oral questions to them (there were 1 740 in 1977).

□ Is called upon to give its opinion on Commission proposals before the Council can make its decision.

□ Has budgetary powers which require all major decisions involving expenditure from the Community budget to be submitted for its approval. It is effectively the Parliament which accepts or rejects the budget proposed by the Commission, following the consultation procedures with the Council:

● for expenditure arising from the treaties and decisions taken as a consequence of these (i.e. covering five-sixths of the budget and, in particular, the agricultural part) the Council can reject the modifications introduced by the Parliament if it increases the total size of the budget;

● for non-obligatory expenditure, resulting in new developments in European construction, the Parliament has directionary power within the limits of a margin of manoeuvre which is dependent on the economic situation in the Community and which can be modified by mutual agreement with the Council.

## The budget and the Court of Auditors

The Community budget in 1978 was just over 12 000 million European units of account (EUA)(1) which represents about 2.7% of governmental expenditure.

(1) Or, at the prevailing rate on 5 December 1978, about £8 300 million.

ture in member states and 0.8% of the Community's gross domestic product (or about half of the Belgian budget or twice that of Ireland).

The Community budget is financed by:

Duties and taxes on imports from the rest of the world.

A proportion of VAT not exceeding 1% of a uniform assessment basis. This levy is due to be introduced in 1979 to supersede national contributions.

As a percentage of the total, the principal expenditures met by the budget in 1978 were as follows:

Support for agricultural prices, including compensatory payments resulting from exchange rate fluctuations, and modernization in agriculture: 73.9%.

Social measures, particularly for employment, and vocational training and retraining: 4.5%.

Aid for industrial and infrastructure investment in the poorest regions: 4.2%.

Aid to Third World countries: 3.1%.

Joint action in research, energy, industry and transport: 2.4%.

Operating expenses: 6.2% covering the salaries of the 15 000 officials and operatives in all the various Community institutions, and including buildings, administrative costs, information expenditure, etc.

The operation of the budget is supervised by a Court of Auditors, which was set up in Luxembourg on 25 October 1977. The Court is composed of nine members appointed by the mutual agreement of the Council of Ministers for a six-year period. The Court of Auditors, which replaced the former Audit Board, has extensive powers to verify the legality and the regularity of Community revenue and expenditures.

### **The Economic and Social Committee: consultation with social groups**

Before a Commission proposal can be adopted by the Council it is sent for the opinion of not only the European Parliament but also, in most cases, of the Community's Economic and Social Committee—a consultative body composed of 144 representatives of employers, trade unions and other interested groups in the Nine such as



*The debating chamber in the new European Parliament building*

farmers and consumers. For questions dealing with coal and steel there is an advisory committee composed of representatives of producers, traders, workers and consumers. The two committees adopted 107 opinions and resolutions in 1977, of which many were submitted on their own initiative.

Many specialized advisory bodies help associate professional and trade union interests in the development of the Community. The heads of their European federations set up in Brussels, and their experts, are frequently consulted by the Commission before it adopts proposals in their definitive form.

### **Conclusion**

Throughout the world there are a large number of international organizations to bring together countries that wish to cooperate with each other. The European Community goes much further than this:

In its aim: to build over a period of time a veritable European union.

In its methods: the operation of the Community is not purely inter-governmental; Community institutions have their own powers and the organization of their relationships aims to promote the general interest of Europeans.

In its results: the Council of Ministers and the Commission, wherever the latter has autonomous decision-making powers, take action with the force of law and which in many cases is applied directly to the public.

These actions are termed:

Regulations, which are applied directly as Community laws.

Decisions, which are binding only on the member states, companies or individuals to whom they are addressed.

Directives, which set down compulsory objectives but leave it to the discretion of member states to translate them into their national legislation;

Recommendations and opinions, which are not binding (except for recommendations in the ECSC sector, where they are equivalent to directives).

The application of European law is watched over by the Court of Justice, which is open to complaints from members of the public.

With the direct election by universal suffrage of the members of the European Parliament, the full democratic participation of the public in the operation of Community institutions will be recognized and institutionalized.

In the continuous dialogue which takes place between Community institutions, an elected Parliament will have, by that fact alone, prestige, authority and increased moral weight. For the rest, the extension of the European Parliament's powers presupposes a revision of the European treaties and therefore the unanimous agreement of member states in conformity with their own constitutional rules. This will imply other institutional reforms to improve the operation of the Community, which will be particularly important with the impending entry of Greece, Portugal and Spain.

# Food, farms and population

## A glance at some of the basic facts of Community life



### Another way of looking at food

For a number of reasons more and more people have become food-conscious in recent years. It may be because they are either watching their waistline, their budget—or both.

For one thing, our pop-culture has definitely made slimmest the 'in' look. For another, dieticians have traced a number of diseases, functional disturbances or various ills to too rich a diet. Then there is also the steady increase in the cost of food.

Perhaps we eat too much, perhaps not. But one thing is certain: there is no shortage of food. This partly as a result of the absolute priority given to ensuring against shortage by the European Community. For the past 20 years of the Community's existence, feeding its citizens and giving its farmers a better standard of living has been the subject of a constant policy. But in 20 years a number of things have changed.

In 1958, the Community had 14.4 million persons employed in agriculture; today only 7.5 million remain (in the original six member states) and 8.5 million in the Nine. Again in 1958, farmers represented 20% of the working population and accounted for 8% of the total output of goods and services. Now they number only 10% of the labour force and turn out about 5% of the gross domestic product.

In those 20 years some two million farms have disappeared. Only 5.3 mil-

lion remain and about one quarter of those produce more than three quarters of total agricultural output. Seven million farmers have left the fields, attracted by other jobs with better opportunities—better pay, regular working hours and holidays.

The rural exodus is also the result of technological progress (agricultural machinery, fertilizers, irrigation) which also has led to fewer, better paid workers being required. The small farm has given way to the specialized agribusiness combine and in that period farm production has doubled. The Community has played an important part in this process.

The Community has guided this development (which in the United States began some 200 years earlier) which has tended to draw agriculture out of its isolation and to integrate it into a larger economic system. The guiding policy of the Community has been to enable the farmer to acquire an income comparable to other socioeconomic groups.

The Common Agricultural Policy has been based on a united market, free trade inside the common market and protection against low-cost imports and against external price upheavals.

The benefits of this enlarged system have been generally recognized: a larger market for producers, more choice for the consumer and more regional specialization.

Even so, the Common Agricultural Policy is continuously the target of violent criticism. Many political figures and citizens argue that it costs too much, emphasizing that agricultural spending consumes about two thirds of the total Community budget. In 1977 it cost £4 600 million. Member states in the same period spent £6 700 million for their own national farm programmes. This support of farming cost 0.4% of the total Community production of goods and services. While this figure is low, experts feel that it could be a lot less if the Community had a unified economic and monetary system and border taxes needed to even out currency fluctuations could be abolished. Another criticism, which is wellfounded, concerns the surpluses in certain products, notably milk, butter and sugar, which cannot be absorbed by domestic consumption or exports.

The dairy sector by itself takes up £1 600 million or one-third of the European Farm Fund, which is used to support prices. The dairy surplus is about 14% of the total production, and it is growing by 20% each year. Many feel that the problem could be solved by just cutting down production. But such a move has been rejected vigorously by the two million farmers who depend on this output for their income. There is therefore a social and economic contradiction which is an eternal dilemma for Europe seeking to strike a balance.

Perhaps the answer lies in farmers and weight-conscious consumers compromising—one to grow less and the other to eat more!

### Most EEC food is home-grown

As a group of countries, the Community is remarkably self-sufficient when it comes to supplying the food needs of its inhabitants. This is due to a number of factors, including climate and soil and, to a certain extent, the Community's Common Agricultural Policy (CAP).

Apart from ensuring that our farmers produce enough of the type of food they can grow, the CAP enables the nine Member States to sell freely to one another and thus complement each other's production.

Naturally this self-sufficiency is not spread evenly between the nine countries. For example, the French have almost twice the wheat they need to bake their bread, while Ireland has just over half. Nevertheless, taken as a whole, the Community is more than self-sufficient in this particular product.

Trade agreements with certain non-member countries help bolster our supplies. Some of these even allowed for imports into the Community during 1978, although the domestic market was already saturated. This was the case for butter from New Zealand and sugar from the African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) countries with which the Community has special agreements.

Other methods used to ensure this self-sufficiency in food—a commodity



subject to frequent changes in the weather—include the use of storage facilities to prevent hiccoughs in the market.

As an example of what can happen the Community was adequately provided for from domestic sources for soft wheat in 1977 but it registered an average 20% deficit for other grains, with grain maize in particular being in short supply (only a 40% self-sufficiency rate).

Meat is not scarce in the Nine. Total production is only a few per cent below total needs, while for pork and poultry it is more than enough. This is mainly due to the Dutch and Danes who breed two to three times more poultry and pigs than their domestic populations require.

We also grow almost all the vegetables we need. Yet despite being the Community's most widely eaten vegetable, 4% of our potatoes have to be imported.

Nor are milk and dairy products in short supply. Skimmed-milk powder, cheese, butter and eggs are all plentiful. In fact, for the first two products, Ireland's production is over five times its needs, while the level of self-sufficiency in the Netherlands and Denmark is also more than double. Only in Italy, and to some extent Belgium and the United Kingdom, is there a domestic shortage.

The importance of trade with third countries, however, makes itself felt when it comes to fruit, where Europe's production is more than 20% below its needs, with Italy being the only country to grow more than its population eats.

But it is for vegetable fats, oils and seeds that the Community is most heavily dependent on foreign suppliers, who sell it between 80 and 95% of its needs. Only Italy and France, which between them account for almost three quarters of Community production, are remotely capable of supplying their own needs for these products.

## There is still no accounting for our taste in food

'One man's meat is another man's poison', runs the saying. Perhaps an exaggeration to describe eating habits in the Community, but noticeable differences still exist between the food consumed in southern Italy and northern Scotland, for instance.

As trade expands, the consumer finds it easier to choose between a wider range of foodstuffs. What we eat, however, continues to reflect our different traditions, economic systems, tax policies, health legislation and price controls.

More citrus fruit, cheese, sugar, eggs and meat are now eaten in Europe than five years ago, but on the other hand public demand for fresh milk products, potatoes, vegetables, fruit and wine is less.

Meat has seen the most obvious change in public taste, with pork and poultry consumption continuing to rise, partly because efficient production has kept prices fairly low. France leads the way here with 104 kilos per head consumed in 1977, followed by Germany, Belgium and Ireland—all just over 90 kilos, while in Italy, Britain and Denmark it was a little over 70 kilos.

The average Frenchman consumed a hefty 32 kilos of beef and veal—the equivalent of an 8 oz steak every two or three days. Next came the Belgians (29 kilos), who have made steak and chips one of their most popular dishes. Other countries annually put away 23 to 24 kilos per head, except for Denmark where consumption is a low 15 kilos.

This is more than made up for by the Danes liking for pork (42 kilos) which is second only to the massive German averages of 53 kilos. Mutton, lamb and goat are only popular in Britain and Ireland—7 and 10 kilos apiece.

Given the importance of fish to many regions of the Community, it is surpris-

ing that consumption is not higher. A Dane will eat 21 kilos a year, a Briton 15 and a Frenchman 13. But in all other countries fish seems to be a taste acquired only by the few.

But what do Europeans eat with their meat and fish? The ubiquitous potato is still the Community's number one vegetable. Here Ireland is in a class of its own—111 kilos per head a year, enough for each person to have two average-sized potatoes a day. Consumption is also high in Belgium (98 kilos) and Britain (84 kilos) as can be seen by the frequency with which chips are offered at meals.

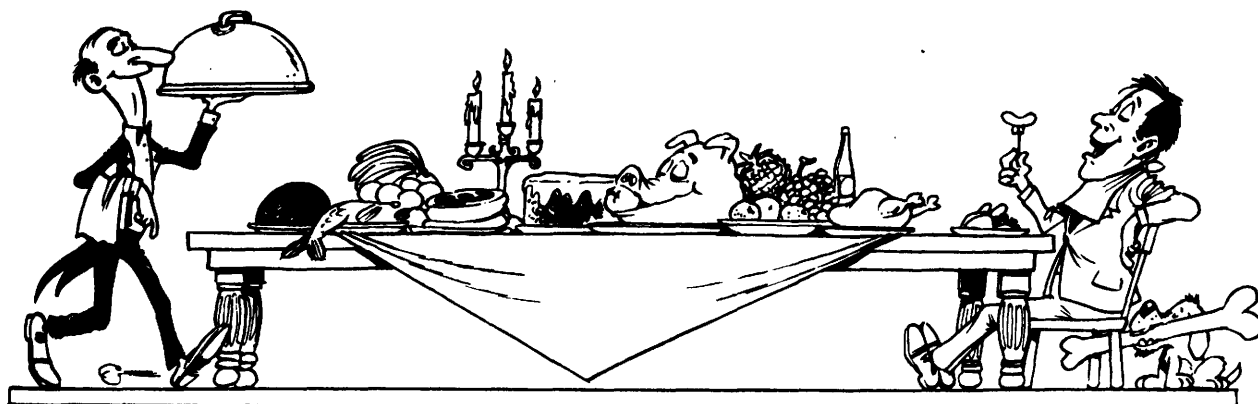
The taste for potatoes in Italy is still underdeveloped. But an Italian bolsters his 34 kilos of potatoes a year with pasta (122 kilos of cereals in 1977). This was more than 50% over the average for the rest of the Community.

Rice still does not appear to have conquered the European palate. The French, Belgians, Dutch and Italians will knock back some 5 kilos a year—more than double their Community colleagues.

The northern countries in the Community seem to be particularly deficient when it comes to vegetables. Denmark (49 kilos), Britain (67 kilos), Germany (70 kilos), the Netherlands (79 kilos), Ireland (81 kilos) and Belgium (82) all consume less than the Community average (94 kilos). Perhaps it is due to the sun which makes it possible to grow a wider variety of vegetables, but an Italian will eat an average of 1 pound of vegetables a day (149 kilos a year).

The situation is similar with fruit. The three most recent Community members, Ireland, the United Kingdom and Denmark munch into 27, 32 and 38 kilos respectively each year. This is less than half the 88 kilos eaten by a German.

But northern Europeans get their body-building energy from other sources. An Irishman will consume over 212 kilos of dairy products a year, a Dane



158, a Briton 144 and a Dutchman 140. Consumption in other countries is below 90 kilos a year.

It is only in France and Italy that wine is drunk to any great extent to wash down the food. Both countries have long and famous traditions as wine producers and consumers. A Frenchman drinks just over 100 litres of wine a year, and an Italian only 10 litres less. In Germany, the only other major wine producer in the Community, consumption is an average 23 litres. In Britain it is only 5, while in Ireland it is a lowly 3 litres.

### Europeans likely to be fewer in the next century

Forecasts of world population by the turn of the century, let alone the year 2050, are hard to comprehend. There are so many noughts in the figures that it is almost impossible to picture the reality involved in trying to ensure adequate employment, food, clothing and shelter for everyone.

In Europe the scenario is likely to be completely different from the world pattern. By the year 2050 the number of inhabitants in the nine European Community countries will have fallen from the present 260 to 243 million and there will be 20 million fewer people of working age.

The main trend over the next 70 years, however, will be a fall in the number of young people. At present 23% of the population, by 2050 they will represent only 18%. Correspondingly, the proportion of old people will rise from 13 to 18%, according to a report on demographic change in the Community prepared by a group of independent experts.

The most noticeable fall in population will take place in Germany—from

61 to 38 million, 20% of whom will be old people. Ireland will be the only country which will still be growing.

The populations of France and Italy will show an increase of between 3 and 5 million on today's figures, while the numbers in the United Kingdom will be roughly the same as now. Denmark, on the other hand, will increase its present number of 5 million by only a few hundred thousands which would place it behind Ireland, whose current population of 3 million will have more than doubled to 7.5 million, Belgium will be just under 8 million (almost 10 million now). In percentage terms, however, the most drastic changes will take place in Luxembourg, where the number of inhabitants will fall by a third from 360 000 to 244 000.

Of more immediate concern for the Community, however, is the medium-term outlook up to the year 1995. Forecasts of population growth will affect many of the decisions that need to be taken by governments.

An increase in the number of young people will mean more teachers and schools will have to be provided. On the other hand, if a large percentage of the population is retired, different facilities will be required.

Between 1975 and 1995 the population of the Community, now around 260 million, will increase by only 0.2%, compared with a 0.75% rise over the previous 20 years, says the report, basing its predictions on an extrapolation of fertility and mortality trend in Europe. In Germany and Luxembourg the population will actually decrease, a tendency that will speed up towards the end of the century.

The highest rate of increase will take place in Ireland (1%), a country which in the past has always seen emigration counter its naturally high birth rate.

But what effect will this have on



### BOOKS

Two brochures have just appeared which will allow the uninitiated to understand some of the mysteries of the European Community.

*The European Community, your future* is a 16 page booklet for those in a hurry. It describes in simple terms the setting-up of the Community, its development over the years, and the importance of the first direct elections to the European Parliament.

The more demanding reader will turn to *The European Community, today and tomorrow*, which contains a more detailed description of the Community's evolution, and the policies it follows. Both publications can be obtained free from the Community's information offices. □

future job opportunities? Between 1975 and 1985, the report calculates that the potential labour force will rise by some 9.6 million, the majority of whom will be women. With unemployment already running at high levels because of the world economic crisis, its conclusions make gloomy reading.

"It is clear that the economic growth achieved in 1976-77 together with the forecast growth up to 1985 will probably be lower than that necessary to accommodate both the stock of unemployed and the increase in the potential labour supply... This is equivalent to saying that some people who would like to work will not find jobs..."

As a result many men and women who would like to go out to work may find they have to stay at home. Whether this will lead to an increase in the size of the average family—now at its lowest level ever in time of peace—remains to be seen.

Reasons for this fall in the birth rate are obvious: nowadays people tend to marry later; the birth of the first child usually does not occur as soon after marriage as it used to; and more time generally elapses between the births of successive children.

The one major exception is Ireland where on average each woman bears 3.50 children during her life. In 1976 there were 1.44 children per woman in Germany. In Luxembourg it was 1.46, Switzerland 1.54, Netherlands 1.65, Sweden 1.69, England and Wales 1.72, Denmark 1.75, France 1.83 and Italy 2.04. □

## Books about Europe

The first direct elections to the first international parliament depend on the votes of 180 million Europeans. The publicity they see for the elections campaigns can only touch on the issues, but a number of recent books provide more solid information. Here is a glance at some that have reached the *Courier*.

**John COONEY — The Community in Crisis** — Dublin University Press, 17 Gilford Road, Dublin, Ireland — £1.95 — 1979

This book, recently brought out by the Dublin University Press, gives a journalist's view of Community development over the last three years. It is by John Cooney, Brussels correspondent of the Irish Times. It can also be obtained from IPA Belgique 20 rue Charles Martel, B-1040, Brussels.

**European Parliament Secretariat — Europe Today** — Kirchberg, Luxembourg — 330 pages — FF 130 or Bfrs 900 — 1979

The European Parliament Secretariat has just published a second edition of *Europe Today* on progress with European integration. This, like the first edition, deals with the structure of the European Communities, the common market, the common agricultural policy and the common economic and social policies.

It is intended as a ready reference for European MPs and a guide for candidates in direct elections. It will also be very useful to anyone interested in European integration in politics, journalism, universities and professional organizations.

**Henri MANZANARES & Jean-Pierre QUENTIN — Pourquoi un Parlement européen? (Why a European Parliament?)** — Preface by Alain Poher — Berger-Levrault — 146 pages — Bfrs 308 — 1979

In June 1979, 180 million Europeans will be going to the polls to vote for 410 MPs in a house about which we tend to know very little. What is it for? Where does it meet? Is it going to get any more power? Is it really a parliament?

This election is an exceptional event. People from different countries do not usually all vote for the same parliament. What is more, the European Parliament is one of the European Community institutions. But it isn't an international organization like the others as it affects everyone living in the member states.

So it is important to know whether these elections will give the citizen more control over decisions which are beyond the influence of the national parliaments. So the question "Why a European Parliament?" goes well beyond the bounds of the impassioned controversies that go on in the forefront of the political scene.

In his preface, Alain Poher, president of the French senate and one-time president of the European Parliament, lays particular emphasis on these facts. "Although the elections of 10 June 1979 cannot fail to give the European Parliament a legitimacy that will reinforce its effect on public opinion, its powers will not be changed in the immediate future. Is it not natural for the peoples of Europe, whose national parliaments no longer have any control over certain decisions (which, of necessity, have been handed over to the Community), democratically to elect a European Parliament to counteract these institutions that are so often accused of being technocratic?"

**Yann de l'ECOTAIS — L'Europe sabotée (Europe sabotaged)** — Rosset Edition, 134, rue Royale Brussels & 73, rue d'Anjou, 75008 Paris — 260 pages — Bfrs 390 — 1976

Twenty years on from the signing of the Treaty of Rome, the construction of Europe was no more than a large-scale building site that some people did not hesitate to call a ruin. Such is the opinion of the author, who wrote this book three years ago, before the present spate of enthusiasm for unification.

The history of the European Community is littered with crises, it is true. There have been institutional crises, British crises, Euratom crises, energy, monetary, Franco-German and many other crises and the book starts by recounting perhaps the worst of them, the violent clash between de Gaulle and the Commis-

sion 15 years ago, which gave rise to a long freeze and was a prelude to the return to egocentric policies and partial accords as an outcome of horse-trading.

So the balance was a negative one in this Europe of lost opportunities, which refused to take on political form and whose lack of calling should by rights have led to failure. But paradoxically, it cannot give up its achievements even (and above all) if they represent a certain form of economic integration, a point of no return that no one would ever dream of contesting. Even if we are faced with a certain return to national economic policies.

But although it is not politically united, the EEC is a political power of the first order. The case of Portugal, Greece and Spain, which broke away from fascism to apply for membership, is adequate proof. The Soviet Union does not recognize the Community, but it is gradually being forced to do so. Communist China has. And as for the Americans, the author thinks their secret plan was to create the Community to dominate it, not compete with it, something they do not hesitate to remind us of.

One might reasonably imagine that the powers (and the parties therefore) will soon be faced with the will of an electorate which will give them the daring they need to break with their restrictive automatism. Direct elections therefore will, as the author sees it, be the last chance of grasping the elusive unity of Europe.

**François BORELLA — Les partis politiques dans l'Europe des Neuf (Political parties in the Nine)** — Editions du Seuil, 27 rue Jacob, 75006, Paris — 242 pages — Bfrs 123 — 1979

Political problems are everybody's problems and everybody's problems are political problems.

The political parties in the Nine—direct elections to the European Parliament tomorrow—a new chapter in the political life of the old continent and each of the countries that go to make it up. François Borella, author of a classic on political parties in France today, traces the history of the political forces of each of the countries of Europe.



This vital book leads us to a dual conclusion. Come what may, the history of Europe will depend on the national history of the nine nations that make it up. Yet from this diversity common problems emerge that point the way to the future.

**Robert LECOURT — Les problèmes institutionnels de la Communauté** (The Community's institutional problems) — Vol. 1.6 — European Cooperation Fund, 60, rue de la Concorde, 1050, Bruxelles (Belgium) — 1978

The European Cooperation Fund has just brought out a brochure on the institutional problems of the European Community. It is by Robert Lecourt, one-time judge and president of the European Court of Justice.

The considerable difficulties of the Community institutions cannot be dealt with in depth in 17 short pages and so Mr Lecourt simply outlines the principal ones. He feels there are a number of major problems inherent in the Community institutions but that they can all be boiled down to one thing. Inadequacy.

Why? Because, says Lecourt, the way the treaties are implemented and followed up is inadequate. Proposed texts are dropped in mid-air and there is not enough reaction to worsening imbalance and perturbation. There is a lack of solidarity in face of the open crises that affect all the member states. Lecourt thinks that monetary troubles, oil problems and soaring inflation are symptoms of what is ailing Europe.

He outlines solutions to Europe's institutional problems. He thinks direct elections to the European Parliament are an important means of giving new stimulus and that the Commission, too, should get off to a fresh start. He says the Council of Ministers is hampered by the short presidential term (six months) and that no organization can expect to be properly administered in this kind of unstable situation. The Court of Justice is the cornerstone of the Community, he says. The Community is a legal entity and its guardian is the Court of Justice.

**Dusan SIDJANSKI — Europe: élections de la démocratie européenne** (Democratic European elections) — Editions Stanké — 381 pages — Bfrs 608 — 1979

This book is a must for anyone wanting clear, easy-to-read informa-

tion about what is involved in the forthcoming European elections which, the author says, are the beginning of citizen and party participation in Community affairs. Dusan Sidjanski, who has already written *L'Europe des affaires* (The European business community) and *Les groupes de pression dans la Communauté Européenne* (Pressure groups in the EEC), has tried to describe what Europe will be like in the future by analysing the European systems of government, the influence they exert on the future institutions and the opinion that European citizens have of their democracy.

A large part of the book is devoted to the role and functioning of the European Parliament and to its relations with the other Community institutions (the Council of Ministers and the Commission). The author also looks at how public opinion is reacting to direct elections and concludes from an examination of the surveys carried out across the Community that the majority of Europeans are in favour.

He then looks at the different parties and political families in the countries of Europe and discusses their ideas and doctrines and the possible groupings and alliances that could be formed in the European Parliament which, he feels could be a forum for the discussion of the plans and options put forward by people right across the political spectrum.

As he sees it, direct elections are the opportunity for Europeans to turn "decadent, defunct and forbidden Europe into a thriving, promised land".

**Rudolf DADDER — Die Parteien in der Europäischen Gemeinschaft** (The Parties of the European Community) — Pontes Verlag, Konrad Adenauer Allee 5 — 5470 Andernach/Rhein, Germany — 248 pages — FF 60 (Bfrs 437) — 1978

What are the parties of the nine member states that are standing for direct elections? No one would have any overall idea of these organizations, which embody and represent the political opinions that will be present at Strasbourg after direct elections on 7-10 June, if it were not for this book by Rudolf Dadder.

Mr Dadder lists and analyses all the national parties of Europe from extreme left to extreme right and goes into great details of the main parties or political tendencies which

are, essentially, in order of importance, the socialists, the Christian democrats and conservatives, the liberals and the communists.

He gives 71 parties in the nine countries of the Community, divided as follows: seven in Belgium, 11 in Denmark, 10 in France, four in Germany, three in Ireland, 10 in Italy, five in Luxembourg, 14 in the Netherlands and seven in the UK.

This is a useful book because it sets out all the parties and party structures and gives tables to show political groupings in the European Parliament as it is today. It will be particularly useful on the evening of 10 June, as a guide to all the different contenders when the results come out.

**Georges BONET, of the Faculty of Law and Economics at the University of Nancy II (France) — La signification de l'élection du Parlement Européen au suffrage universel direct** (The significance of direct elections) — Centre Européen Universitaire de Nancy — 66 pages — FF 22 — Bfrs 160 — 1978

A lot has been said about direct elections, particularly since they are the first in spite of the fact that they were laid down by the Treaty of Rome. But there have been few really thorough analyses of the profound political significance of these elections and this is what the author sets out to do in this short 66-page work. Obviously, he does not claim to deal with all the political aspects of the elections, but he wants to make a contribution by setting out the thoughts of leading French and British figures.

The five chapters contain various analyses dealing with the developments leading up to the elections. They then move on to the present means of action of the national political parties (which play a considerable part here), the prospects for transnational parties and the barriers which member states raise against giving the European Parliament too much power and against altering their own internal political balance.

The decision to hold direct elections would appear to be the result of a long-drawn-out process. For, one of the authors says, the idea of having directly elected assembly was launched for the first time in 1948 (by Paul Renaud from France). But the idea was too daring. It would have meant upsetting national voting habits considerably and so it was

reduced to the claim for a European assembly to which members would be appointed by their national governments. But, in 1962, the assembly, called the European Parliament, started its incessant call for direct elections.

There are about 60 national parties in the present house and one might have thought that their very number would have provoked insurmountable difficulties in the running of this European institution. By thanks to the ingenious idea of parliamentary groupings, these difficulties have been eliminated. Direct elections may well alter these practices, but, one of the authors says, international policy and political balance within the Community, for example, will play an important part in the small countries and the effects of internal politics will be of particular significance in the big countries. Hence the barriers which the member states are raising to guard against any excessive power on the Parliament's part.

The author concludes this political analysis of the significance of direct elections by hoping that the new legitimacy conferred on Parliament by these elections will mean that great strides forward can be made with the unification of Europe in the eighties.

Robert JACKSON & John FITZMAURICE — **The European Parliament: a guide to direct elections** — Penguin Books — £0.95 — 1979

Six years with the Community have done little to make the British less wary of the "faceless Eurocrats" of Brussels. They are, however, very attached to the idea of parliamentary democracy and direct elections to the European Parliament might commit them more enthusiastically to European unification. The election publicity in the UK aims at logic, not emotion, and in the same vein Robert Jackson (conservative) and John Fitzmaurice (labour) have worked together on this factual, objective guide detailing the machinery of the Community institutions, the role of the European Parliament and the background to the political parties of Europe.

Both authors are involved in national and international politics and this has enabled them to set the European elections against the background of developing political models in their own country and in the Community as a whole. The result

is truly a guide. This paperback explains the EEC situation today and the ideas for the future and, most important, it invites the reader to draw his own conclusions.

D. DEBATISSE, S. DREYFUS, G. LAP-RAT, G. STREIFF & J.C. THOMAS — **Europe, la France en jeu** (Europe — France at stake) — Editions sociales, 146 rue de Faubourg-Poissonnière, 75010 Paris — 253 pages — Bfrs 308 — 1979

The five authors are specialists in different fields (economics, law and political science) and have been working on European affairs for several years now, both in the departments of external and economic policy at the central committee of the French Communist Party and the communist group at the European Parliament.

At stake? This means being committed, being interested in something. Yes, France is committed to Europe. Yes, the French are interested in Europe. But why? What for?

So people are even worse hit by the crisis? So that the multinationals can have a hold over an integrated set of areas? So Paris can become a sub-prefecture?

No. But this is what the authors think is happening in ministers' offices and behind the scenes in all the "European" parties. Europe of the people, Europe of the nations must also stand for inflation, supranationality, unemployment and centralization.

There is a new project, however, a new idea of Europe, and this is what this book sets out to define, with an eye to direct elections in June 1979. The position of the French Communist Party is presented as the outcome of thought on the direction the nation must take in the future, on economic, social and political cooperation and on the organization of a better life which is still a new concept in Europe today.

Paul M.G. LEVY — **Sauver Europe** (Saving Europe) — Editions Duculot, Paris-Gembloux — 207 pages — Bfrs 325 — 1978

People are forever trying to find reasons for the successes and failures of the campaign for European unification. But who is interested in the real problems, the human issues? As the first official in the oldest of the European institutions where he spent

17 years, Levy exercised his talents as an observer and a sociologist and when he went back to university teaching, he pondered on his considerable experience.

He agreed to take up journalism again (he had also been a journalist) to tell readers about the pleasures and the pains of his exciting experience in the heart of a Europe that is still finding its way and which, perhaps, is afraid of finding it.

François VISINE — **L'Europe: suite ou fin?** (Europe: the end of a chapter or the end of the story?) Preface by Albert Coste-Floret — Editions Entente, 12 rue Honoré-Chevalier, 75006 Paris — 124 pages — Bfrs 200 — 1979

François Visine is one of the line of founding fathers of Europe, after Schuman, Adenauer, de Gasperi and van Zeeland. From his standpoint in the French Christian democratic movement, he sees Europe as the only way of saving our homelands, in a Community whose future is linked to that of the USA.

In his preface, the president of the French Christian democrats says, "We, with François Visine, are faithful to the heritage of Robert Schuman, and we will say yes, without reservations, to a Europe of humanism and liberty. We will say yes, without reservations, to a European Community as a partner of the USA in the Atlantic alliance. Yes, without reservations, to a Europe that serves peace, the Third World and all mankind.

Is this the end of the story of Europe or is there more to come? That is what is at stake in the direct elections."

François VISINE — **Comment fonctionne l'Europe** (How Europe works) — Preface by Henri Brugmans — Editions Delta, 19, rue Saint-Bernard, 1060, Bruxelles — Editions PAC, 3, rue Saint-Roch, 75001 Paris — 221 pages — Bfrs 377 — 1979

François Visine, an international lawyer and one of France's foremost specialists on European questions, has written many books on Europe. His ABC of Europe, in eight volumes and 3 130 pages, is the first European encyclopedia. He was one of the early militants. In 1970, he set up the Fondation du Mérite Européen (Luxembourg) and he is tireless in his campaign for a united Europe.

This book, which was specially written for the first direct elections, is a valuable guide for anyone interested in the building of Europe. It gives a full, precise picture of all the European organizations, the way they work and how they fit together and it should help the reader find his way through the forest of Europes (the word has so many meanings) and make him realize just what is at stake in the European elections.

There are also useful annexes on the various stages of the institutionalization of Europe, the intergovernmental organizations of East and West Europe, the European Communities, the European parliamentary assemblies and the European courts.

As Henri Brugmans stresses in his preface, "during the European election campaign, much will be said and much will be heard that is not understood. But once again François Visine will have earned Europe's gratitude by serving it with competence, with seriousness and with faith. Let us hope that many of the people of Europe read his guide."

**CERES — L'Enlèvement de l'Europe** (The abduction of Europe) — Introduction by Didier Motchane — Editions Entente, 12 rue Honoré Chevalier, 75006 Paris — 119 pages — Bfrs 231 — 1979

The defence of French independence and the construction of a socialist Europe. This is the dual challenge which CERES socialists are taking up. In their view, it is naive or dishonest to claim that Europe can exist within a capitalist framework. It is not direct elections to the Strasbourg parliament that will change the essence of capitalist Europe, they say. Europe does not exist and capitalism is hampering progress towards it.

Europe and only Europe can enable socialism to win through. But socialist Europe has no chance of coming into being until there is a breakthrough in one of the member states that shows that the path towards socialism is no illusion.

Spoiling the chances of this kind of progress by unconditionally tying one's hands today is counter to the interests of the workers of Europe. Socialist MPs will have to sit in Strasbourg, it is true, in opposition and by building the foundations of an anti-capitalist front in Europe.

**Jean-François DENIAU — L'Europe interdite** (Forbidden Europe) — Editions du Seuil, Paris — 322 pages — 1977

Once a member of the European Commission before taking up governmental responsibilities, Jean-François Deniau wrote this book in 1977. The *Courier* reviewed it then, but its contents still remain valid today. From Dante to Jean Monnet, from Pierre Du Bois to General de Gaulle, for six centuries Europeans have discussed European unity. After 20 years of the common market where have we got with this new old idea? What should and could Europe be in concrete terms for each of us?

To the nationalists, Europe is an inadmissible abandonment of sovereignty. To the indifferent it is an idle dream. To the big companies an element of strategy. To the citizens of each country a vague hope, a special reason for disquiet or an incomprehensible piece of machinery.

Jean-François Deniau, one of the authors of the Treaty of Rome and a former member of the Commission of the European Communities, explains the reasons for failure and for continuing with the venture. He stresses the limitations of the Monnet system, suggesting that a customs union does not automatically generate political unity, and of the Gaullist vision of a Franco-German Europe excluding the United Kingdom and defying the United States.

The past is discussed with a clarity which makes it easily accessible and the author includes a certain number of humorous anecdotes.

"In the early stages (these were the Val-Duchesse negotiations on drafting the Treaty of Rome), a British civil servant attended the work session, Britain having been invited to participate. However, its dignified representative only ever opened his mouth to insert his pipe until one day, at last, to the surprise of all concerned, he asked to speak. He gave the following farewell speech:

'Mr Chairman, Gentlemen,

I sincerely wish to thank you for your hospitality and to tell you that it will be ceasing as from today. I am in fact returning to London. I am a serious-minded civil servant and I do not like wasting my time and not earning the modest sum my government is paying me. I have followed your work with interest and sympathy. I must tell you that the future

treaty you are talking about and responsible for drafting:

- (a) has no chance of being concluded;
- (b) if it is concluded, has no chance of being ratified;
- (c) if its is ratified, has no chance of being applied.

N.B. If it was, it would be totally unacceptable to Great Britain. It mentions agriculture, which we do not like, customs duties, which we take exception to, and institutions, which appal us.

Mr Chairman, Gentlemen, goodbye and good luck."

Jean-François Deniau also explains why the first 10 years of the Common Market were successful ones. "One of the virtues of the Common Market, at least as important as the extension of trade possibilities, has doubtless been the time limits it imposes—precise obligations at precise dates. Then there is the fact that people believed in it. Many economic operators took it seriously, made the necessary effort, particularly in France, and anticipated the results, all of which encouraged its overall chance of success."

The author also finds the right words to denounce what he calls the Greek temptation, referring to Horace's lines on conquered Greece having conquered its fierce conqueror. "Political power, artistic creation and intellectual influence go hand in hand with economic wealth and military force. The subtle charm of decadence may produce some vague ephemera, but moral poverty soon leads to poverty plain and simple in all fields. Everything holds together in growth as in servitude. There can be no question of a Europe that is independent from only an economic, only a military, only a political or only a cultural point of view. The Americans must be told this and the people of Europe must be made to understand."

This is why, in a new approach, the author explains why a "different Europe" should stretch "from Brest to Brest-Litowsk." He proposes to revise the Treaty of Rome, to change the present "misalliance" with the Americans and to pay less attention to the construction of Europe and more to the Europeans themselves. "It is by feeling useful that we will feel different and that a common consciousness will emerge, with a common sense of responsibility." □



# The International Year of the Child

## Living, not surviving

In 1976, the UN General Assembly decided that 1979 would be the International Year of the Child. This was an excellent decision. Children the world over are in a terrible situation, particularly if they live in the underdeveloped countries where, paradoxically, social structures are based on children and the family.

Several years ago, in 1959 in fact, when the UN adopted its declaration of children's rights (see insert), people began drawing the attention of governments to the plight of the children of the world. Only the governments have the power and the material and moral means of action that could put an end to the suffering of those defenceless little creatures whose lot has been worsening in the underdeveloped countries and the poorer classes of the industrialized countries for 20 years now.

What is the point of an international children's year?

The UN cannot force its members to adopt a specific policy. This is its biggest weakness. But nevertheless, it is a great source of encouragement for and participation in practical schemes in many fields, including those concerned with the fate of the world's children. So the International Year of the Child could provide the impetus that will ensure that the care needed by the vast majority of children, particularly those in the underdeveloped countries, is given.

### 80 million children are inadequately fed

Today, an estimated 800 million children live in countries where the per capita income is less than a derisory \$ 100 p.a., and 80 million children suffer from some degree of malnutrition, with its countless effects on their intellectual and physical development. Child deaths make up 30-50% of total mortality in the underdeveloped countries, where little attention is paid to pre- and post-natal diet and medical care. Millions of children, often only a

few weeks old, and their families are in a dreadful situation (see map).

### Awareness of the situation

The International Year of the Child will be a success if it manages to make national leaders more aware of what is involved and get food and medical infrastructure (that is geared to a problem of this magnitude and to the importance of children for the future of the nation) set up in the underdeveloped countries.

One of the best criteria for judging a civilization (or a policy) is an analysis of the status and the care it gives to children. The child reflects the society. □ L.P.



"Sometimes children are too hungry to learn"—Nancy Fullwood, Jamaica



## The ten principles of the Declaration of the Rights of the child

The International Year of the Child coincides with the 20th anniversary of the Declaration of the Rights of the Child, which the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted unanimously on 20 November 1959.

The declaration contains 10 principles and a preamble which says that: "...the child, by reason of his physical and mental immaturity, needs special safeguards and care, including appropriate legal protection, before as well as after birth... mankind owes the child the best it has to give".

Here, in full, are the 10 principles.

#### ● PRINCIPLE 1

The child shall enjoy all the rights set forth in this Declaration. Every child, without any exception whatsoever, shall be entitled to these rights, without distinction or discrimination on account of race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status, whether of himself or of his family.

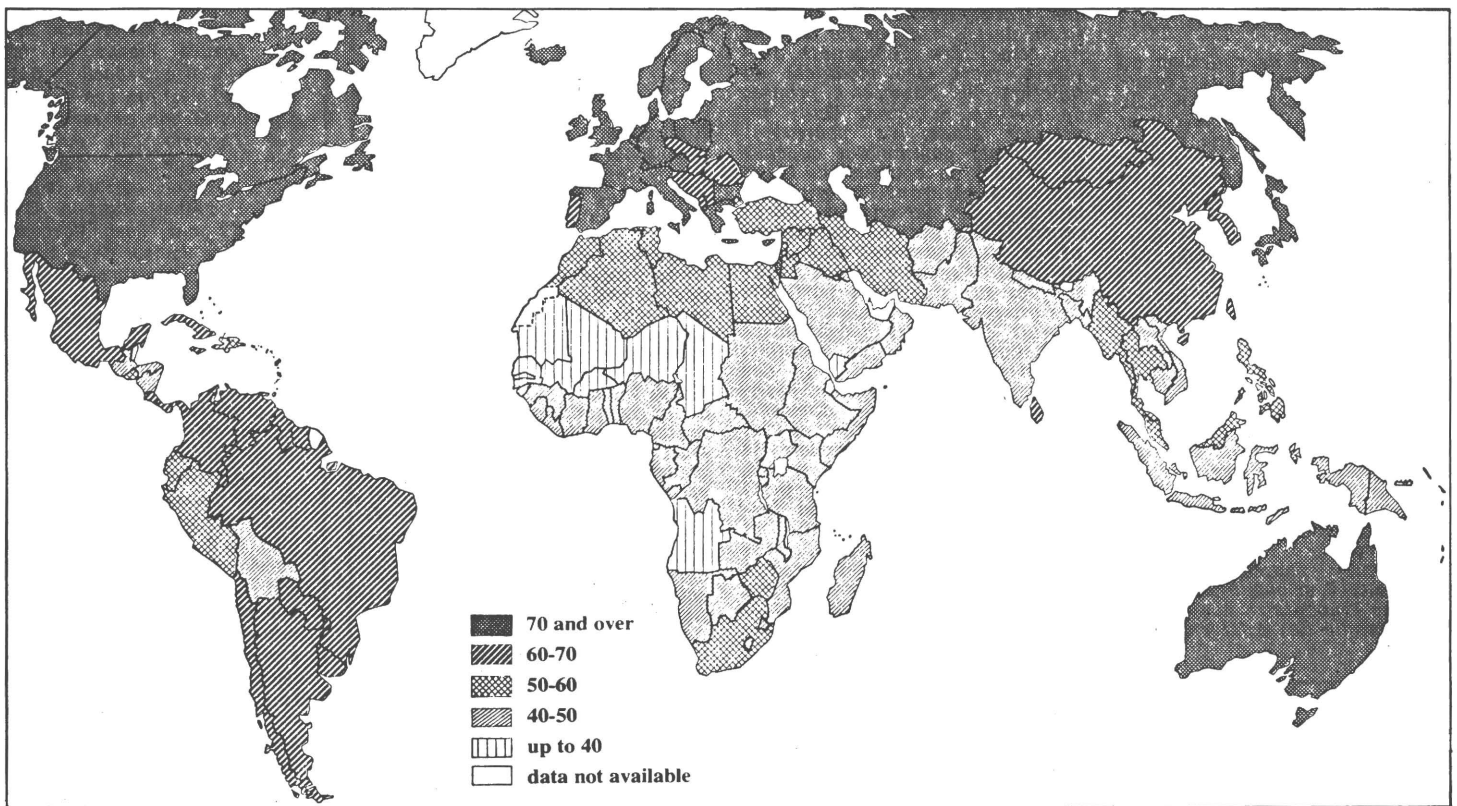
#### ● PRINCIPLE 2

The child shall enjoy special protection, and shall be given opportunities and facilities, by law and by other means, to enable him to develop physically, mentally, morally, spiritually and socially in a healthy and normal manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity. In the enactment of laws for this purpose, the best interests of the child shall be the paramount consideration.

#### ● PRINCIPLE 3

The child shall be entitled from his birth to a name and a nationality.

# Life expectation at birth



Source: World Atlas of the Child, World Bank, 1978.  
The figures represent average expectation of life at birth in 1970-1975.

## ● PRINCIPLE 4

The child shall enjoy the benefits of social security. He shall be entitled to grow and develop in health; to this end, special care and protection shall be provided both to him and to his mother, including adequate pre-natal and post-natal care. The child shall have the right to adequate nutrition, housing, recreation and medical services.

## ● PRINCIPLE 5

The child who is physically, mentally or socially handicapped shall be given the special treatment, education and care required by his particular condition.

## ● PRINCIPLE 6

The child, for the full and harmonious development of his personality, needs love and understanding. He shall, wherever possible, grow up in the care and under the responsibility of his parents, and, in any case, in an atmosphere of affection and of moral and material security; a child of tender years shall not, save in exceptional circumstances, be separated from his mother. Society and the pub-

lic authorities shall have the duty to extend particular care to children without a family and to those without adequate means of support. Payment of state and other assistance towards the maintenance of children of large families is desirable.

## ● PRINCIPLE 7

The child is entitled to receive education, which shall be free and compulsory, at least in the elementary stages. He shall be given an education which will promote his general culture, and enable him, on a basis of equal opportunity, to develop his abilities, his individual judgement, and his sense of moral and social responsibility, and to become a useful member of society.

The best interests of the child shall be the guiding principle of those responsible for his education and guidance; that responsibility lies in the first place with his parents.

The child shall have full opportunity for play and recreation, which should be directed to the same purposes as education; society and the public authorities shall endeavour to promote the enjoyment of his rights.

## ● PRINCIPLE 8

The child shall in all circumstances be among the first to receive protection and relief.

## ● PRINCIPLE 9

The child shall be protected against all forms of neglect, cruelty and exploitation. He shall not be the subject of traffic, in any form.

The child shall not be admitted to employment before an appropriate minimum age; he shall in no case be caused or permitted to engage in any occupation or employment which would prejudice his health or education, or interfere with his physical, mental or moral development.

## ● PRINCIPLE 10

The child shall be protected from practices which may foster racial, religious and any other form of discrimination. He shall be brought up in a spirit of understanding, tolerance, friendship among peoples, peace and universal brotherhood, and in full consciousness that his energy and talents should be devoted to the service of his fellow men.

841st plenary meeting,  
20 November 1959.

# Science and technology

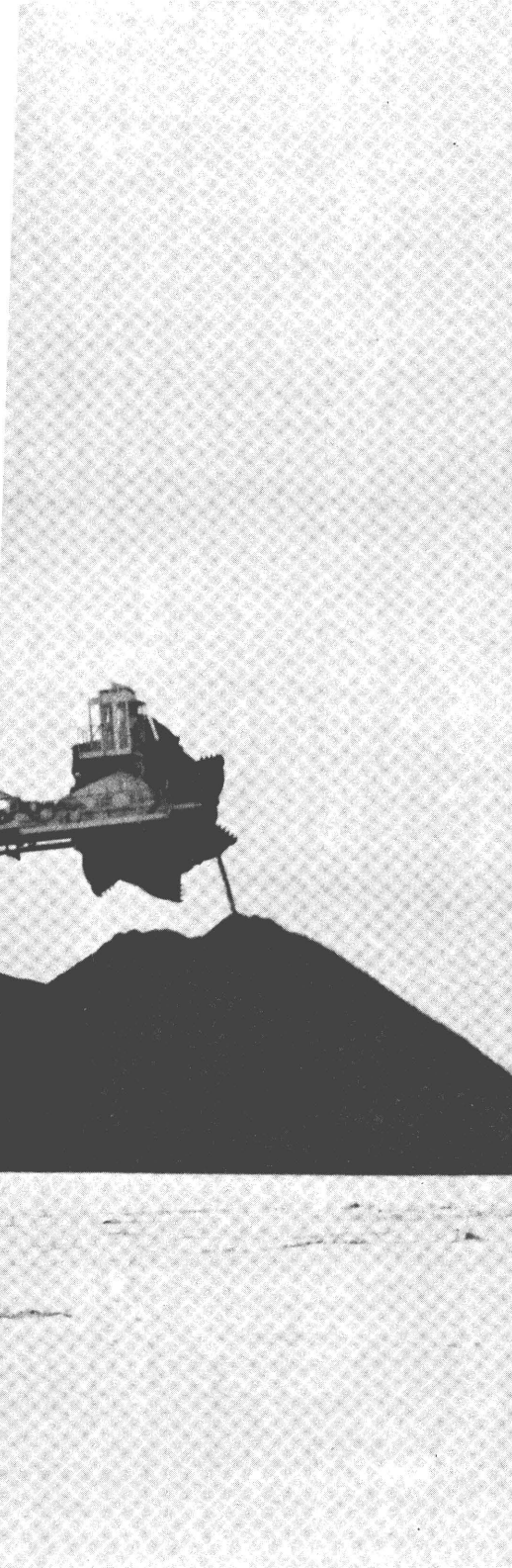
*Manganese mine in Gabon*



AAA PHOTO



# for development



Ten years ago, man first set foot on the moon. It was a triumph of science and technology, but it raised the fundamental question of why so many resources were devoted to space travel when there were so many more down-to-earth problems to solve. Since then, dramas such as the Sahel drought and the oil crisis have awoken the general public in the technologically advanced countries not only to the basic needs of the poor countries but also to the interdependence of the nations of the world. The United Nations Organization is now making the final preparations for one of the most important conferences of this decade, the UN Conference on Science and Technology for Development (UNCSTD), to be held in Vienna from 20-31 August. Behind the mass of reports which will be sifted at the conference is the basic question of how scientists and technologists, before looking for life on other planets, can provide a decent life for the inhabitants of this one.

It is not a question of "whether" but of "how". The conflicts involved in making scientific and technological progress available to everyone are numerous and difficult. Knowledge might be considered as held in trust for the entire human race, but the notion of "intellectual property" is accepted and contained in such restrictions on the transfer of knowledge as copyright, patents and licences. Moreover, science and technology cannot be handed over like a parcel: the recipient must be able to understand and use them. Further, outside the realm of pure science, research is shaped by policies which may have nothing to do with the interests of the developing countries. And in the wider perspective, man's relation with the machine is increasingly wary. A technological environment can be

hostile and tinkering with nature dangerous.

Returning to the safer ground of the admitted benefits of science and technology, how far should the developing countries quarry into the developed countries' stock of achievements rather than relying on their own ingenuity? Technological dependence is incompatible with cultural, economic and political independence, but there is no need for everyone to invent the wheel. For technology, whether derived from home or abroad, to be compatible with development, each country must define the kind of development it wants. To quote the draft programme of action prepared for the UNCSTD: "the government of each country should, as an essential prerequisite for the effective application of science and technology for development, formulate a comprehensive and coherent national science and technology policy designed as part of its national plan to contribute to the achievement of its development objectives."

So this conference is built from the ground up, starting with the definition of needs. Many needs in the Third World might appear obvious, but this approach obliges governments to do their own stock-taking and make their own political commitments. It aims at results. And an evaluation of the needs and aspirations actually felt and expressed by people as they are would do much to counter the uncritical faith in science and technology to which both rich and poor countries have been prone.

It is a vast subject and the UNCSTD may be instrumental in shaping the UN development strategy of the next decade. Our dossier looks at some of the main aspects of science and technology for development.

## Applying science and technology to development

### Interview with Frank da Costa, UNCSTD secretary-general



ONU

João Frank da Costa is a Brazilian diplomat who has been dealing with science and technology, particularly for development, for the last 20 years. Before working for the United Nations he ran the Brazilian Office of Science and Technology



The official emblem of the United Nations Conference on Science and Technology for Development, designed by Rashid-ud Din of Pakistan

► Why did the UN decide to hold this conference on science and technology?

— In 1963, there was a UN conference in Geneva on the use of science and technology in the least developed areas of the world. But nothing concrete ever came of it. Why? Because above all it was one of those conferences that you often get where academics and engineers and so on come and read reports. There was an impressive array of reports. Ten thick volumes of them, that no one has ever read. So this time we thought we ought to do something different and have a conference with the states, a political conference in the best sense of the word, based on the idea that there is no point in the scientists giving their opinions, however relevant they may be, if the political authorities are not involved in getting their recommendations put into practice.

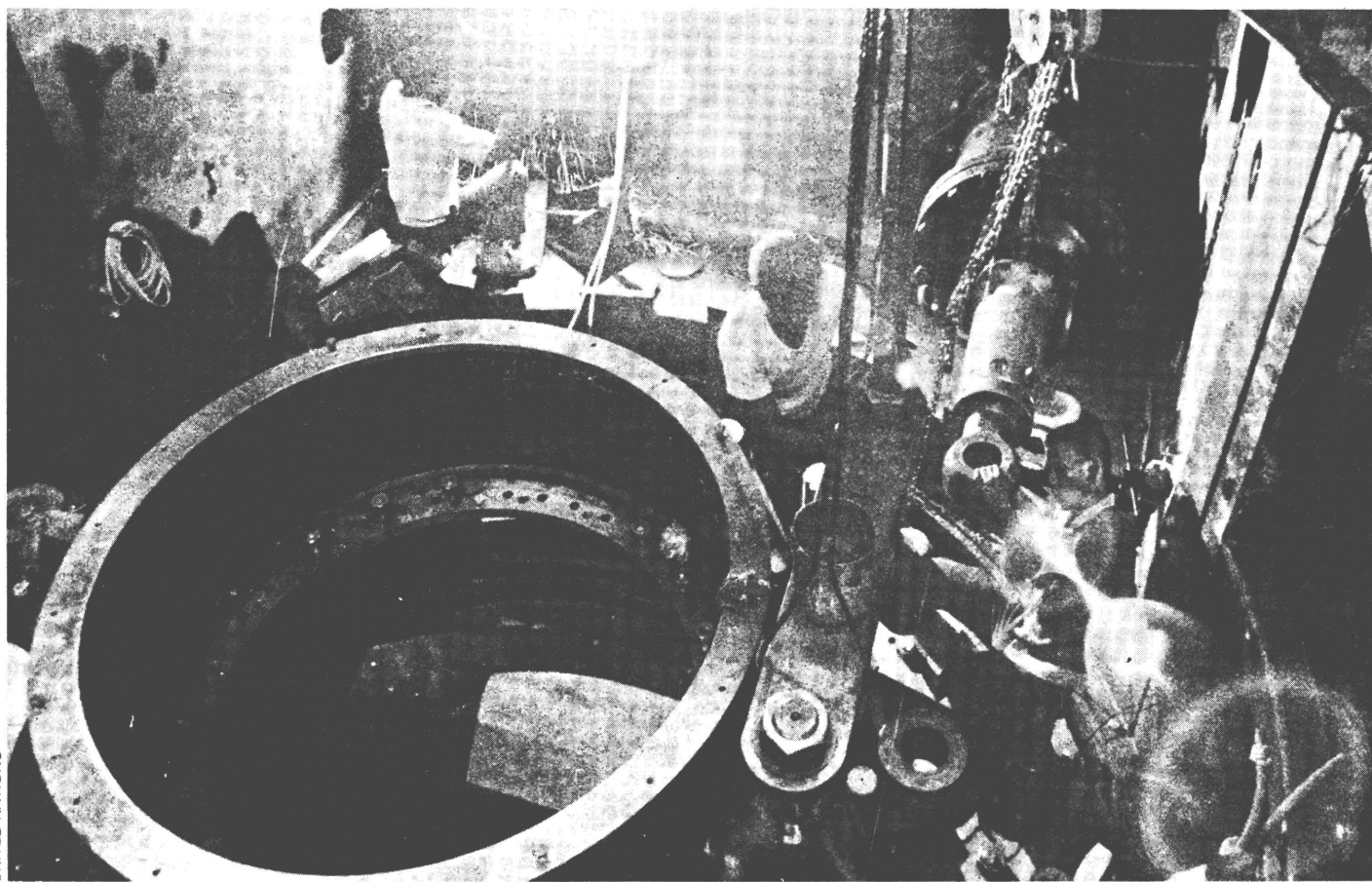
In 1973, the science and technology question again cropped up in the United Nations. The idea came from the secretary-general himself in a report to the UN on the situation in science and technology. He came to the conclusion that things were not going all that well. There was a lack of coordination, some activities were not properly linked up with others, a lack of systematization and a shortage of resources. He suggested holding a conference to look into this and it was this that started the ball rolling. In 1973, the UN Committee on Science and Technology for Development was set up. It was a new UN body of which I was chairman for four years. It looked into the question of how big the conference needed to be. We have since had the 6th and 7th UN special sessions on development problems. Both meetings, but particularly the 7th, dealt with the problems of science and technology and also recommended that the conference be held in 1978, although, for various reasons, it is now to be held in 1979.

The idea behind it is not to carry out a technical study of science and technology as such, but to look at what is involved in applying science and technology to development, which is quite a different matter. Here we are not just dealing with science and technology questions, but with social, political and cultural ones as well and with the problem of why science and technology haven't been used to help development throughout the world, particularly in the developing areas. The first conference dealt with the least developed regions and this one will be dealing with development in all countries, although emphasis will be placed on the developing world.

► So what will happen in Vienna in August?

— What usually happens at this sort of conference? The experts and the secretariats work on recommendations, suggestions and action programmes and then try and sell them, as the Americans put it, to the various countries. The accommodating ones don't hesitate to agree. They stick their stamp of approval on them, but nothing ever comes of it because the recommendations neither correspond to the countries' needs nor to their political desires, at least not automatically. Nothing much happens as a rule. So this time we tried the opposite tack. We told the countries that they all had to look at the conference agenda and give us their comments and, in particular, stress what their genuine needs were and what they wanted from the political point of view. So we gradually got regional concentration going, two regional meetings, one in '77 and one in '78, where regional recommendations were made. In the main, this conference is built from the ground up, like a pyramid.

► It's surely not the first time a UN conference has been prepared in this way?



*"It is a question of making it possible to establish a scientific and technical structure in each country".  
Installing electric power in the Philippines*

— Not the first time, no, but the first time the method has been rigorously followed through. As secretary-general, I thought this approach was so important that I stuck to it throughout and refused any kind of bargaining. Consequently, our only sources are the national and regional documents. Naturally, the secretariats aren't always pleased, any more than the academics or the engineers, as they maintain that the states themselves don't have a clue what they're doing. But to my mind, it is our only chance of having a conference that actually gets results. This tactic has forced the countries to get themselves coordinated and to study the problems. They were often completely ignorant of them. This is not just true of the developing countries. Some of the most developed countries have said to me: "Mr da Costa, this is an extremely useful conference. It is the first time we have had a complete picture of what is happening in our countries and we now have a fair idea of where we want to go. This is something that has never been done before." Consequently, even if for some reason the conference were suspended or postponed, the two years of work have been extremely useful. We have 120 national reports from the 130 members of the UN.

► *What are the main points to emerge from these 120 national reports?*

— They are remarkably similar in that they share a number of important ideas.

First, that there is not just one development model, the old idea of the '50s which was still behind the international strategy of 1970, whereby there was a certain amount of ground to cover in a particular way and it would almost inevitably be covered fairly quickly. That idea has gone. We now realize that every country must have a kind of development that suits its own particular factors of production, its cultural heritage, its vision of the future and all sorts of other

aspects that concern more than just economic considerations.

The second thing is that development is more than just economic growth. It is an overall process that includes political, social, cultural, psychological factors and more.

Third, the idea of a technology gap is losing a lot of its meaning. Naturally it is still with us, it is a leitmotif and the idea of a gap that needs to be bridged is an attractive one. But it no longer means much. Take the potential of the USA, for example. It is fantastic. And a developing country is likely to think it will never get that far itself. But if you remove from that potential everything connected with, say, arms or the quest for development for reasons of prestige, if you remove all kinds of consumer structures which have nothing to do with the real needs of the developing countries, comparison is no longer possible. And consequently, it begins to seem much easier to reach your goals. Things are much more concrete. Each country must have its own science and its own technology.

Another thing that I think is important is that we are not really dealing with aid at the UNCSTD and we are certainly not dealing with charity. The idea is to make it possible to set up a science and technology structure in each country so that it can solve its own problems in its own way.

► *The conference covers a vast range of topics. All material human progress so far might be put down to "science and technology for development." Can you hope to cover all the issues in just one conference?*

— It is true that there is a wide variety of topics on the agenda. Global problems that affect more than one country are covered. We must make knowledge available to everyone. Scientific discovery, in theory, is free. But there are so many obstacles of all kinds: obstacles to communic-



ations, psychological barriers which prevent knowledge from being profitable to all countries; and some knowledge is protected. What we want is to do away with all the restrictive practices, the abuse of monopolies and the industrial property protection system which is based on monopoly.

Another problem is for each country to avoid having a science and technology policy that is merely up in the air and to make sure it is tied up with the country's general development tactics. There are four types of situation in the world today in the respect. First, there are countries which have no policy at all in this field. This is usually the case in the least developed countries, although not only, just there. Second, there are countries which have some vague sort of science policy which has nothing to do with the country's development. Third, there is the case of a science policy that is actually linked to the economic development policy. Finally, at the most integrated stage, science and technology policy is tied in with overall development.

One of the other main themes of the conference is the problem of controlling or transferring technology for development. This is very well covered in other UN circles. Then there is the problem of the infrastructure that every country needs in all fields, not just in R & D. There are such things as quality control and education. Finally, there is the question of the role of the UN and other international bodies in this affair.

*Establishing a new international economic order is the "real reason for" the UNCTSD. Interdependence in Abidjan (Ivory Coast): American wheat is unloaded onto a Dutch lorry while a Russian freighter stands by*



► So the conference is mainly concerned with the application of science and technology to development. This raises the question of "appropriate" technology. Do you agree with those who think this approach is merely a way for the developed countries to hand down a kind of second-hand technology at the expense of the developing countries?

— This is an obvious danger and something which does occur in a variety of forms. These theories of "intermediate" technology, of "alternative" technology or "appropriate" technology are, on the face of it, substitutes for and not complements to the establishment of a new international economic order, which is the real reason for this conference. The aim is to study the science and technology parameters for the establishment of a new international economic order.

► But you emphasized the importance of complementing economic development with overall social and political development.

— Well, I don't much like the term "new international economic order", because what we really mean is just a new international order. But the UN talks about a new international "economic" order. It does not do justice to the truth here because, obviously, the new order also means political change. Not just in relations between different states, but internal changes in both the developed and the developing countries. The new order must be considered as planned economic development that is ordered, coordinated and of benefit to everyone.

So in the reactionary camp you have some developed countries, some developing country governments, international organizations and scientists, and in the progressives' camp you have people who think that society can only survive if it changes and that it is far better for the changes to be planned and organized instead of spasmodic and unexpected as at present.

► What do you think are the key questions that will determine the results of this conference?

— I think the main thing is to show that there is no contradiction between the two interest groups and to make sure this is obvious both during and after the conference. To my mind, there is no difference between the interests of the developing countries and those of the developed countries. I think this is a bad way of presenting things and the reason for the failure of all the North-South negotiations so far. It is in everyone's interest to get the Third World developed. Some people imagine that we have to slow down the growth of the developed countries and speed up the growth of the developing ones, so that we are all equal in X years' time. This is a dangerous theory. On the contrary, the developing countries cannot speed up their growth unless there is a spirit of dynamism, innovation and growth in the developed countries. Without this, how can you expect the developed countries to assimilate the internal changes inevitably entailed by the redeployment of industry required under a new international order? There must be an atmosphere of growth and the change must not be presented as some way of penalizing the developed countries.

Let me end by mentioning my recent visit to the EEC. My talks in Brussels were very encouraging, as the Community is a positive organization which clearly understands that the development of the Third World does not run counter to the development of the economies of the developed countries.

□

Interview by  
BARNEY TRENCH

## Science and life (\*)

Whatever his country and whatever his region, man lives in two different worlds, although the degree to which he does so varies according to whether he belongs to a young nation or an ultra-industrialized one. One world is the natural one he comes from. The other is the world of techniques, of the objects he has fashioned with his tools and his machines according to his wants and his skills.

So we have inherited traditions and techniques shaped by the observations of generations of craftsmen, farmers and fishermen. White houses in hot countries and Amazonian or Polynesian pirogues adapted to the wind and the waves are but two of the thousands of examples of how man has always chosen the best things for his way of life, even before he was able to provide any scientific justification for doing so.

### Associating science and technology

Technical skill is immediately necessary for survival and has often preceded science. Some of the earliest mathematicians were the Egyptian surveyors who redistributed plots of land after the Nile had flooded. But only when science and technology are combined do we get progress.

Science and technology are a means of understanding and action which enable man to alter his surroundings. But, like any tools, they can be used well or badly.

We need to get a proper idea of what science can give the individual, the firm or the country and what the attendant technology can do to help or hinder the emergence or the acceleration of development.

We must avoid things like:

- science that is alien to man, to nature and to human experience;
- any scientific and technical progress that widens still further the gap between rich and poor (individuals, social groups or nations);
- specific actions that ride roughshod over the nature of the scientific universe we live in and which lead, for instance, to the pollution of the seas (as in Japan) or to desertification (as in the Sahel);
- scientific choices that encourage schemes that are ultra-modern, run for prestige reasons or involve arms and neglect schemes as easy to organize as the irrigation of the Sahel.

Obviously, our technological arsenal will become a key to development as it will help man to live better and meet his priority needs for food, clothing and housing, as well as energy, transport and communications.

Furthermore, science does not just help us understand and predict phenomena. It broadens our horizons, it enriches our imagination and it can also stimulate innovation. Scientific method used fully, that is to say, not as a key to

(\*) Taken from a document by FICEMEA, the International Federation of Centres for training in active Educational Methods, in collaboration with UNESCO, setting out proposals to promote integrated scientific and technical education for development.

separation but as an element of relations between things, can give man safer and wiser means of working in harmony with his environment.

### Science for everyone

But the necessary knowledge, the attitude required for a social use of science, comes from training and recognition of skills. Scientific and technical knowledge has long been the province of specialists and it must be opened up to everyone. Science can only contribute to development if people realize how important it is to their lives and start looking at it as a means of improving their surroundings.

There is a need for technical know-how at all levels, from the basic needs of the craftsman and the farmer to the complex requirements of the industrialized world. At every level there is scientific knowledge and there are technological solutions that can be discovered and put to use if the right steps are followed. Transmission of traditional skills is not usually enough, but it is a vital component, as it is an integral part of technological solutions as a whole and it makes progress a richer process.

Only if it takes account of all local resources, be they material or intellectual, and uses information from a wide variety of sources, can science be fully integrated into life. Only then will it enrich the contribution of the individual, ensure a higher standard of living and help the development of the community without stifling its culture.

Science used this way, far from dehumanizing and alienating the individual, will reinforce his traditional culture and dignity.

Scientific thought, the understanding of phenomena and technological action all provide part answers for the philosophical concern all societies have of linking the past with the present and reaffirming many of mankind's moral convictions in their modern context.

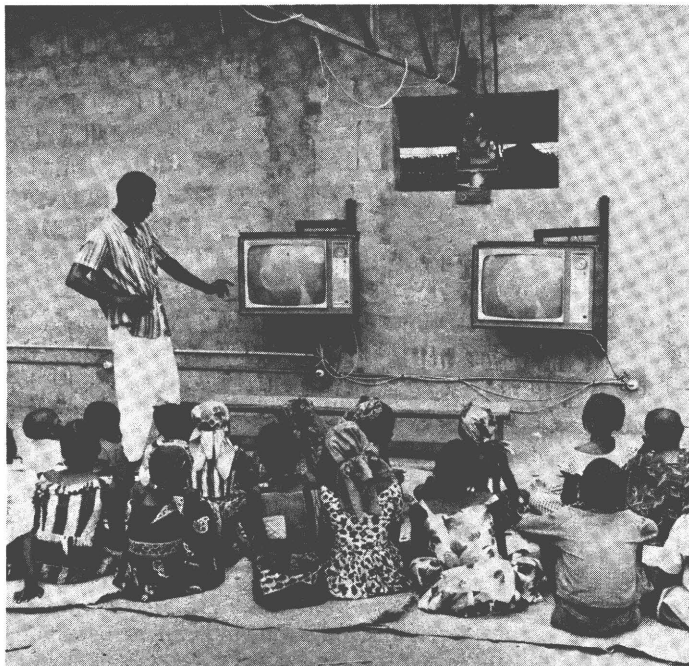
### Scientific and technical education

In countries with advanced economic and industrial development, most scientific jobs require considerable scientific and technical training, for which even specialized courses of education are sometimes inadequate.

In the developing countries, the essential problem is to create an endogenous capacity for innovation at national level, so as to avoid massive imports of foreign technology, which are harmful to development in the long run. This capacity for innovation involves:

- training technologists with a general grounding and enough technical and scientific skills to deal with the interaction between the scientific, technical and social problems they encounter in industry, crafts and agriculture;
- making the whole population aware of what is involved and introducing them to the problem, at various levels.

From the earliest age, the education of the individual should therefore prepare him to take a global view of problems and understand the interplay and interdependence of the phenomena in his technical, scientific, social and cultural environment. Education that is purely analytical and centred on a few subjects isolated from their real context, like a puzzle whose pieces do not fit together, would not



UN/UNESCO

*“The drive on education should be continuous and reach the whole population.” Niger was one of the first ACP countries to use television to educate its widely scattered population*

enable the individual to link the facts in their system of reference (life).

Education, as a public service, should be able to provide pupils and students, and the whole of the population, with the means they need to deal with the main problems posed by the rapid development of science and technology.

Broadening the horizons of a field of study could only improve conceptualization and critical reflection.

- The types of teaching introduced should allow for and stimulate curiosity, reflection, initiative and self-education.
- Teaching will include time for information, assimilation, control and transfer to new situations.
- The proposed structures should:
  - encourage anyone with ideas;
  - facilitate communications and contact with outside sources;
  - enable an objective approach, based on the search for facts, to be adopted;
  - stimulate experimentation with new ideas, regardless of the status of the originator;
  - provide the means of situating what has been learnt in the immediate environment.

The method that seems the most appropriate for this global approach will use themes involving integrated science and technology.

The teaching of science and the acquisition of techniques will be connected with the theme under discussion and dealt with as the subject demands. Knowledge borrowed from other fields will be dealt with in the framework of the theme in question.

The knowledge accumulated during the course of studies of various themes will make it possible to analyse a concept or a law from different angles and in different contexts. It will thus be possible to go back several times (but at different levels) to things that need to be understood and assimilated.

Learning will be based on technically valid technology that is economically profitable, viable from the energy point of view and able to be spread socially, according to local knowledge and perception of situations. At university level, regardless of the field of study, the aim will be to provide general, science-based education that will bridge the gap between society and the specialist.

The drive on education should be continuous and reach the whole population so as to awaken a scientific spirit in all classes.

## Reciprocal information

The practical, technical environment of children, adolescents and young people in general will take on more educational value. The whole of the population will be trained by means of a system of reciprocal information in the community, using the mass media, with the help of, among others, science students acting as development information officers.

By stimulating authentically interdisciplinary research that is in line with local tradition, this education will help provide partial solutions to the problems of the transfer of modern technology. This environment-related process, involving a reciprocal exchange of information, will encourage:

- a better knowledge and awareness of traditional techniques;
- research into cheap, appropriate technology involving low investment costs per job and considerable use of local input (both labour and materials);
- ensuring the suitability of transferred technology.

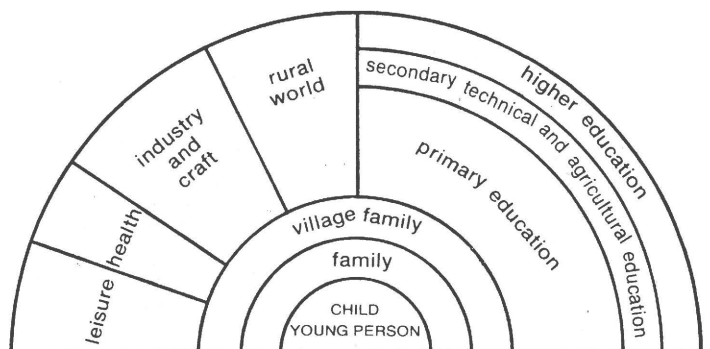
As they develop, the child and the adolescent meet, at different times in their life, adults with different jobs, different skills and different powers who belong to different social classes and different professional categories. By the complementarity of its different components, this human environment, which is functional for the economic development of the country, can play an essential role in the field of education.

In a global project it is important for all age groups to be concerned:

- children: at school, at home and in the village;
- adolescents and young people: at school, in youth clubs, in science clubs and also in craft, agriculture and industry;
- adults: craftsmen, farmers, technicians, teachers and engineers.

A global project must also involve a wide range of activities:

- during study time;
- during leisure time;
- at work in the factory, the workshop, at the stall or in the fields;
- in the family, the village or the district. □





## African aspirations at the UNCSTD

The mass of preparatory work on the UNCSTD has been boiled down at national and regional level over the last two years. One of these meetings, for a small group of African scholars, scientists and educators, was the Arusha Symposium on African Goals and Aspirations in the UNCSTD, held early last year under the chairmanship of Dr W. K. Chagula, chairman of the Tanzania National Scientific Research Council. This five-day "think tank" came up with a list of recommendations which gives a good general idea of the African view of science and technology for development. The main recommendations of the Arusha symposium are as follows.

### Integrated national science and technology policies

Before the African region can develop the capacity to use science and technology effectively for the satisfaction of basic human needs and the fulfilment of man's aspirations for greater human dignity, a New International Scientific and Technological Order (NISTO) should urgently be established within the New International Economic Order (NIEO).

African countries should not expect miracles from the UNCSTD and should first strive to develop the necessary political will to use science and technology effectively for their own development, by formulating the appropriate science and technology policies and establishing the necessary workable institutions for their socio-economic development.

Any science and technology policies in African countries should aim at the sustained application of science and technology to a national development that would be oriented towards basic human needs, endogenous, self-reliant, ecologically sound, and involving the transformation of social institutions and the establishment of new ones.

National science and technology policies should be fully integrated into the overall national development plans which, in turn, must influence and be influenced by the national science and technology policies.

As awareness and appreciation of the need for national science and technology policies is a prerequisite for the institution of measures for integrated science and technology policies, and as national science and technology policies cannot be initiated and/or sustained without such awareness and appreciation, national policy- and decision-makers in the African region should make a conscious effort to study the need for taking urgent measures to formulate such national science and technology policies.

African scientists and technologists should put greater effort into acquainting national policy-makers with the need and measures for formulating national science and technology policies for development.

Policy-makers who are aware of the need for setting up national machineries for the implementation of national science and technology policies should allocate adequate

resources to the establishment and maintenance of such national bodies.

As an integral part of a national policy for better utilization of science and technology for development is the effective utilization of scientific and technological information, policy- and decision-makers as well as scientists and technologists in the African region should actively seek and use scientific and technological information in their work.

As, ultimately, science and technology must be the main tools for socio-economic development, nations in the African region should continually identify and specify their social and economic problems which can be solved through the use of science and technology.

As African countries differ in the stages of their socio-economic, scientific and technological development, each country should decide on the relative significance and weight of a national science and technology policy in attaining the various common objectives of NISTO — human dignity, building indigenous/endogenous capability in science and technology, self-reliance, and regional and international cooperation in science and technology for national development.

For a national science and technology system to become an effective instrument for development, particularly in the solution of problems affecting the majority of the population, political commitment at the highest level of government should be secured in each African country, and this political commitment should then be translated into a viable national science and technology policy relevant to the development needs and priorities of each country.

Any sound national educational system should be geared towards the development of the necessary manpower for

*"Emphasis should be given to the development of technologies for small-scale and agro-based industries, which are essential for rural development"*



national competence in science and technology for development, and access to institutions of higher education should be determined by this national objective.

Each African country should create the necessary mechanisms for actively involving scientific and technological personnel in national development planning as well as in the implementation of various development programmes and projects.

As a means of attaining national objectives in science and technology for development in the African region, the integrated national science and technology policy in each country should include:

- A policy for choice, evaluation, adaptation and transfer of technology.
- A policy for promoting better utilization of science and technology for development, including the development of science and technology information systems.
- A policy for integrating science and technology in economic and social development.
- A policy for new science and technology for development.

As regards new science and technology for development, including the exploration and exploitation of natural resources, each African country should consider not only the current but also the future stage of development of science and technology. This should enable each country to look ahead regarding its priorities and its training and research programmes in the area of new science and technology for development.

## Infrastructure and indigenous capacity development

The building up of an indigenous and endogenous national capability in science and technology for the satisfaction of the essential political, economic, social and cultural needs and a self-reliant infrastructure in science and technology in African countries should be geared towards:

- Meeting basic human needs.
- The optimal development and equitable utilization of natural resources.
- Rural development.
- Industrial development.

In the development of an indigenous capability in science and technology, the existence of a well-built national science and technology infrastructure is most important. This should be followed by the adoption of a national science and technology policy and the availability of mechanisms of regional and/or international cooperation in science and technology. However, the objectives and the means of achieving national capability in science and technology for development, and the relationships between the objectives and the various means of attaining those objectives, should be explored and debated in each individual country.

Human resources represent a very important factor of production in national development. Consequently:

- Every effort should be made by African countries to include adequate science and technology programmes in the early stages of their educational systems, so that science and technology can be made part and parcel of their national culture.
- Each African government should embark on a programme for the establishment of the necessary institutions and the strengthening of its existing institutions for the training of all cadres of scientific and technological manpower at all levels. Such a programme should be allocated



AFRIQUE PHOTO

*“Any sound national educational system should be geared towards the development of the necessary manpower for national competence in science and technology for development”*

adequate resources in each country. Thus, schools, institutions of higher learning and research, experimental stations, laboratories, libraries and information centres, scientific research councils and academies of science must be adequately funded, staffed and equipped. This must, of course, be backed by the necessary political will at the national level.

— In each African country, ways and means of minimizing the misallocation and under-utilization of scientific and technological manpower should urgently be found.

— Each country in the African region should urgently formulate a policy which would give better remuneration and job prospects to its cadre of scientists and technologists, who should also be given the basic working tools and facilities necessary for their work. This step, including that of according the local scientists and technologists the respect and moral support they deserve, should considerably reduce the “brain drain” of this cadre away from the African region and/or from their professions to politico-administrative posts within their countries which are usually more lucrative.

The educational systems of African countries should be urgently re-examined with a view to introducing science curricula and training programmes which are relevant to the needs and priorities of each country. The curricula should also be geared towards the training of a practical and innovative person.

Every effort should be made by each African country to train an adequate number of good quality science school-teachers and to retain them in their jobs by giving them satisfactory and attractive working conditions.

Each African country should urgently formulate a national research policy stating the priority areas in the scientific and technological fields so as to enable the country to build up indigenous competence in research, including the capability to utilize such competence for problem identification, evaluation and ultimate solution.

A national awareness of the role and contribution of research in science and technology for development should be nurtured, with a corresponding increase in the resources allocated for research in each African country. Thus, each government should strive to provide adequate finance, research facilities and manpower for its national research institutions.

After the necessary political commitment to research has been made and adequate resources for research have been allocated, it is necessary for each African country to establish effective extension services so that the results of research can be put into practical use in the field.

As far as possible, research ought to be of the "participant type" so that peasants and workers could be involved in the implementation of research programmes, such as field demonstrations or trial agricultural plots looked after by the farmers themselves.

An effective central administrative body for the running and coordination of all research institutions in each country should be established, as this would help to minimize the duplication of research effort and to maximize the utilization of the scarce research manpower available.

All the institutions at the national operational level (e.g. research councils, universities, research institutes, academies of science, professional associations, etc.) should be strengthened and their activities coordinated through a national policy-making and/or executive machinery.

A national centre for the transfer of technology should be urgently established. In addition, a national registry should be set up to control the transfer of all forms of technology into each African country in the interest of the national environment and the health of the people.

In the African region, emphasis should be given to the development of technologies for small-scale and agro-based industries, which are essential for rural development.

As far as possible, in order to begin developing or strengthening the necessary national institutions for science and technology for development, African governments should make deliberate efforts first to allocate adequate resources for science and technology within their annual national budgets and later to seek additional financial resources through the United Nations system and from bilateral sources.

Finally, as there is no greater "institution" than the people themselves, each African country should mount programmes to enlighten the peasants and workers on the importance of the application of science and technology to development and to utilize appropriate technology at the village level. For this purpose, all forms of mass media — including radio and television — should be employed.

## Regional and international cooperation

The 1979 UNCSTD should recommend a new framework of international cooperation in science and technology which, in order to have an impact, should imply the



AFRIQUE PHOTO

*Mechanical handling technology: labour-intensive solutions are not necessarily cost effective*

establishment of a New International Science and Technology Order (NISTO) as an integral part of the New International Economic Order (NIEO).

Regional cooperation in science and technology should be promoted and supported, and the roles of the United Nations system and other regional organizations in promoting this cooperation should be strengthened in the spirit of collective self-reliance.

African Member States of the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) should expedite the arrangements for setting up a computerized documentation centre for the African region with branches in as many states as may be feasible.

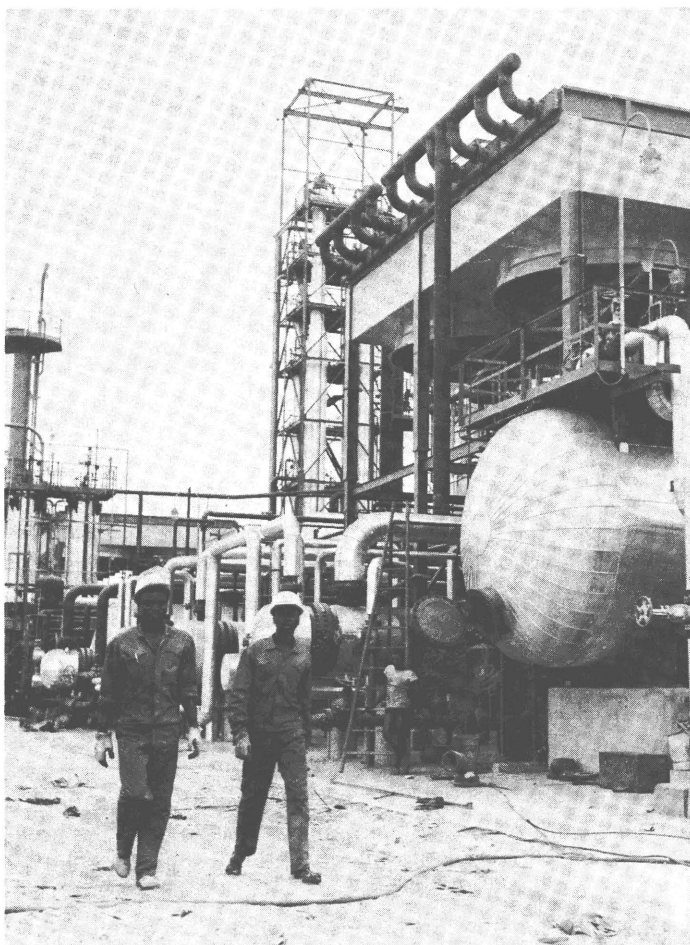
Several copies of every publication (including books, reports of major research work, etc.) in or about the African region must be made available to the proposed Regional documentation centre by the author(s) or publisher(s) free of charge, for distribution to national libraries and for micro-filming and storage in the data bank of the proposed regional documentation centre.

African member states of the UN/OAU, in collaboration with the ECA and other UN specialized agencies, should press for an "International Freedom of Information Act" to enable the proposed regional documentation centre to have direct access to such sources of information as the US Library of Congress, etc.

Regional professional groups in all disciplines should be formed. They should be encouraged by national scientific councils and other government agencies to publish their works freely in journals started by these groups in their respective disciplines. The publications should be of such a high quality as to attract a large international circulation and participation.

African governments should encourage and support professional associations at the national level, and the relevant UN agencies and other international organizations should give such support at the regional level.





*Sophisticated technology, even if it allows such mineral wealth as Gabon's oil to be exploited (above), tends to keep the country dependent on external suppliers*

African national scientific research councils should form an association which could bring them together regularly for symposia, etc., and for the promotion of regional cooperative research programmes.

African universities and research institutions should strengthen their links among themselves as well as with overseas institutions, in order to exchange information, staff and students and to launch cooperative research programmes and dialogues in such areas as solar energy technologies, materials for low-cost houses for rural areas, health, nutrition, etc.

International organizations and government agencies of developed countries should, in general, channel their open research funds through appropriate national bodies in developing African countries (such as universities, research councils, etc.), so that these could allocate grants to local researchers on the basis of the national research priorities rather than on the basis of externally determined research areas, which might be decided on criteria other than the priorities of the African region as seen by Africans.

Developed countries should organize their university systems in such a way as to make it possible to release competent university teachers in certain fields, who could be made available to the African region to reduce the teaching responsibilities of senior African scientists for specified periods, thereby enabling the African scientists to devote sufficient time to research, field work and, if need be, to further study in their areas of specialization.

UNESCO, the ECA and other UN agencies should speed up the creation and strengthening of selected African universities and centres of advanced training and research in certain specialized fields, so that their facilities could be used by students and staff on a sub-regional or regional basis.

The United Nations system should be restructured in such a way as to facilitate the support and promotion of cooperation in the fields of science and technology, particularly in developing countries. This restructuring should be approached from a functional angle and should have in view the creation of a New International Scientific and Technological Order (NISTO) within the New International Economic Order (NIEO).

UNESCO and/or UNICEF, in collaboration with the ECA, should assist African member states to establish science equipment production and development centres for primary and secondary schools as well as for pre-school children.

African member states of the ECA should speed up the formation of African regional consultative groups for regional and urban planning, the construction and building industries and other fields in order to facilitate the exchange of information on common problems as well as collaboration in research programmes in these areas. In addition, national consultancy groups in the same areas should be established in each member state.

There is an urgent need for a change of attitude internationally towards the nature of technology and its application for the welfare of mankind. It must therefore be accepted universally, for a start, that technological knowledge is the common heritage of mankind.

The international community should acknowledge that it is in the mutual interest of developed and developing countries to share the world's technological achievements, and that there is a pressing need to change the existing process of technology transfer to developing countries and to liberalize the conditions relating to the international flow of knowledge.

In connection with the transfer of technology, the Arusha Symposium supported and associated itself with recommendations 2, 3 and 5 in recommendation no. 18 of the CASTAFRICA report, namely that:

— ... International organizations and African countries take all necessary steps to ensure that the grant of patents, licences and trade marks and the acquisition of know-how take place on terms that are most favourable to the African countries.'

— "... Contractual arrangements concerning technology transfer be concluded on an equitable basis."

— "... African states should consider the establishment of inter-African enterprises entrusted with negotiating the terms of the importation of technologies and the purchase of equipment."

## General

Because of the importance and urgency of meeting the basic human needs of the majority of the world's poor, the 1979 UNCSTD should address itself to the role of science and technology in the eradication of absolute poverty, particularly in developing countries. This must be one of the criteria for the success of UNCSTD 1979.

— Developing countries should be actively involved in future studies, and should not be entirely preoccupied with developing indigenous/endogenous capability in the use of science and technology for the satisfaction of their basic human needs. □

## The grass-roots approach to technology for development<sup>(\*)</sup>

Effective utilization of science and technology for development can only take place if environmentally sound and appropriate technologies are used. Lack of suitable institutions to invent, design, study and make use of such technologies is one of the brakes preventing development being a global social change which benefits all strata of society, beginning with the least endowed.

It is obvious that no society has existed without techniques and technology. Different societies and eco-cultures have reacted to their environment and transformed it by developing elaborate techniques, which in some cases they still possess.

These techniques were not necessarily highly productive, nor did the users understand the basic biological and chemical changes which take place in the same terms as we might today. Nevertheless, they were usually particularly well adapted to the specific environment of the group, while assuring its social continuity, and they must be considered as sophisticated, in so much as they used quite complicated processes with considerable control.

Technical knowledge was not necessarily universal as division of labour has existed in lost fields of activity. In many cases also, more specialized knowledge amongst a restricted number of people existed parallel to a more widespread, but less comprehensive folk knowledge.

This more restricted form of knowledge of production techniques is held to be a basic explanation of the power structure of the elders in segmented societies. However, even in such cases, knowledge and practice were rarely separated and scientific theory was not cut off from directly productive work.

### The disappearance of traditional technology

For different reasons in differing situations, many of the techniques have been supplanted or just simply disused and forgotten. In most cases, foreign conquest and occupation was accompanied by the importation of more advanced technologies (or at any rate more mechanically elaborate techniques) which apparently allowed societies who adopted them to respond more efficiently to their members' basic needs.

### The "fetichistic" power of alien science

The substitution of these techniques, however, did not always allow each society to face up to its basic needs more

efficiently. Most of the goods produced by the new techniques were available only through purchase and as societies became more firmly integrated into a monetary economy, the decreasing values of their agricultural produce, as related to prices of manufactured goods, meant a lowering of real income and of access to such goods for a large percentage of the population.

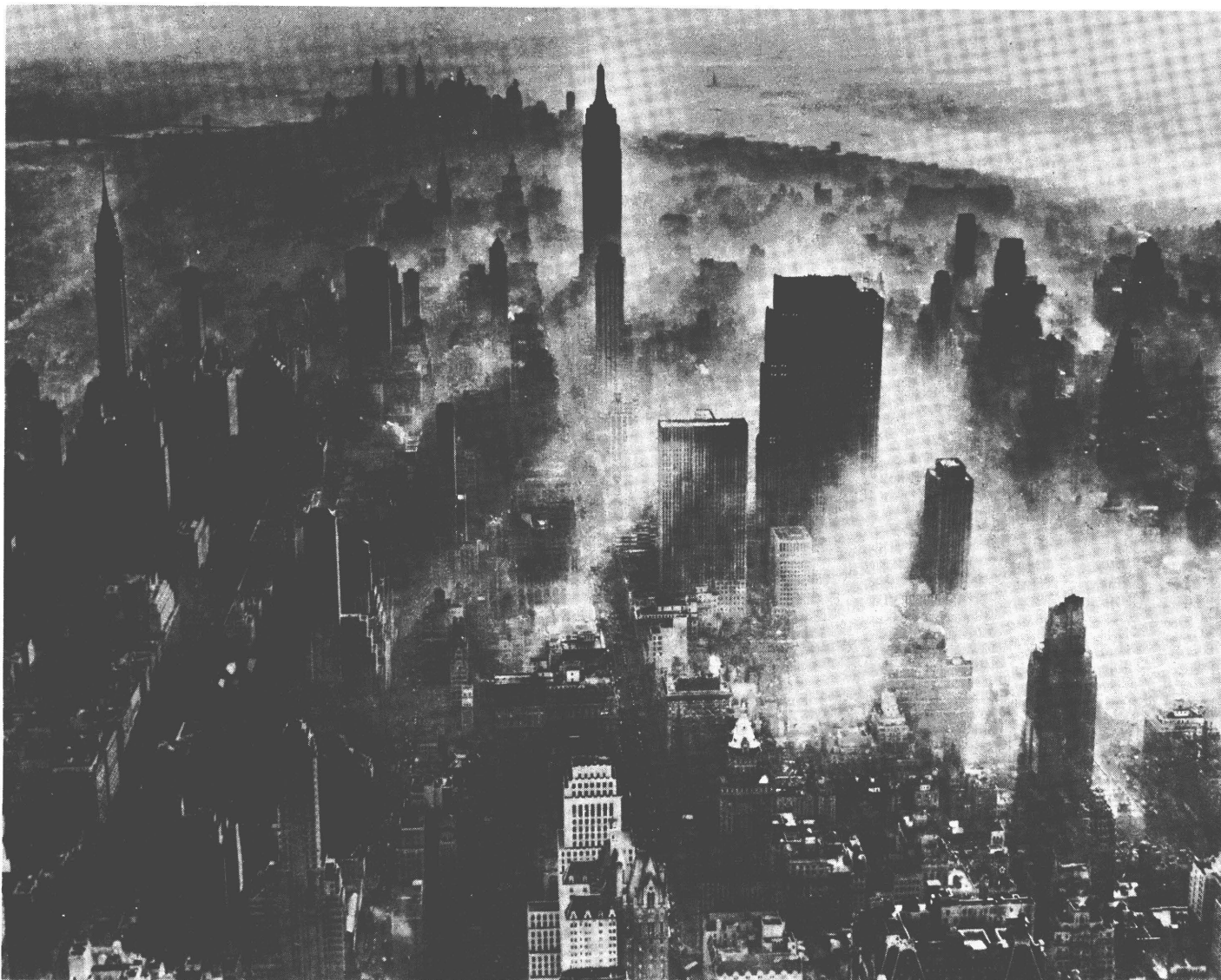
Cultural and economic domination has led to a general ideological context in which endogenous technologies are often regarded as "irrational" or even "uncivilized" and the techniques themselves as "backward" and "primitive". Only those techniques and science which follow the disciplinary structures in European or American schools are regarded as valid, although these disciplines developed at the same time as, and to a great extent because of, the needs of the social groups which control the economies which dominate the world today. In some cases, the belief in the power inherent in large-scale imported machines, the techniques and their accompanying technicians to be able to "develop" society appears almost fetichistic and serves to hide the increased economic dependence which often results.

This ideological domination has led to valid endogenous technologies being ignored or even pushed out of collective consciousness (they may well be recalled if people are questioned) and little or no time has been spent in attempting to improve them. Unless this is done rapidly, will not many of these valuable techniques and the technology disappear with traditional society itself?

*Home-made scooter in a Cameroon village of Bamileke. "Traditional technologies... must be better known, but must be improved upon and not blissfully admired just because they are traditional"*



<sup>(\*)</sup> From a paper presented by the Pan-African Institute for Development and the environment agency ENDA to the African regional conference on the UNCSTD, June 1978.



What's so important about "environmentally sound" development? This picture of New York, home of the United Nations, gives an answer

### **Development today takes no notice of the causes of under-development**

Development policies both before and after independence have not been identical in all countries and have been based on differing analyses of the structure of the world's economy and of the reasons for "under-development". But whether the policy-makers have accepted the present day international division of labour or, on the contrary, have questioned this and tried to create their own basic industries, the policies have largely been orientated towards the acquisition of productive means from abroad in differing forms: agricultural inputs, machines, factories and know-how. This technological choice brings in a concomitant necessity to increase exports of largely unprocessed raw materials and agricultural products. The economic structures which link the countries have, to a large extent, perpetuated the pre-independence situation whereby the resources of African countries were used to serve the economic and political interests of the dominant strata in the developed countries. These dependency mechanisms, reinforced in many cases by the national political structures, result in a steady siphoning off of the surplus value produced by the peasant farmers and herdsmen, the craftsmen and women and the agricultural and urban workers in

African countries, with a consequent breakdown of the ecosystems and a degradation of the natural, physical, built and social environments. The effect of this is a relative pauperization of the majority of rural and urban populations and a lowering of their nutritional status. In order to ensure social stability, an increasing use has been made of repressive political control.

### **Towards an imposed social model**

Even when a policy of autonomy in food production is planned and implemented (Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria...) in order to counter the lowering of nutritional levels of the poor population (notably in urban areas), in many cases it proposes the use of the same type of exogenous technology as above and, through large-scale agricultural and irrigation schemes and the creation of food processing factories, only seems to lead to a further alienation of the poorer rural people, notably by loss of land rights (particularly true for women in settlement schemes) and an increased economic dependence through the need to import vast quantities of fertilizer, agricultural implements and spare parts, petrol for the machines, cement and steel for the silos and factories and the technicians themselves to make the whole thing work.



Is this, then, a failure of development action? If so, it means a failure in the choice of technologies. It also suggests that both the ideology of these technologies and the ideas behind the development decades must be questioned, in that they propose "catching up", by imitation, rather than suggesting a new type of society. In fact, very little popular discussion has taken place in Africa as to what type of society people want to create and what lifestyle they aspire to, and, in consequence, what actions and what technologies would be most likely to achieve these aims.

### **Alternative technologies for development: to restore the inventive and creative spirit of people**

Without a doubt, patterns of development are necessary which will respond more closely to people's basic needs and take into account their value systems and the type of society in which they wish to live. In order to achieve this, alternative development strategies of self-reliance will have to be worked out.

Each community group and the population in each homogenous zone, each country and each region will have to take part in working out its own strategy in accordance with the specific problems of each area, the historical and cultural background and the particular way in which the drainage mechanisms and domination are structured. This on-going process will mean a reciprocal movement of ideas and decisions between the social groups, on a local level, and the regional and national groupings.

Resisting domination and exploitation without support and assistance from outside bodies means that the optimal technological combinations are devised by the most poverty-stricken urban and rural strata and might be likened to a "make do and mend" tinkering for survival.

To go on to a more active stage supposes that people can go beyond tinkering; not only must they find social forms of organization permitting them to formulate and implement solutions to problems which they have analysed together, but they must be able to do so using technologies which enable them to strengthen their autonomy, the regulation of their environment and their mastery of economic circuits.

At the same time, if inventiveness and creative work are to play their full part, the conditions must exist in which creativity can grow. Care must be taken that the creativity of a few is not stimulated at the expense of the majority.

A vastly increased use of environmentally sound and appropriate technologies will not come about by spontaneous growth: the ideas and their applications must be borne in society by different groups of persons. Institutions must be built up to allow techniques, technology and science to be used towards achieving the goal of increased self-reliance: they will have varied aims, different functions and be active at different levels of society.

A first set of institutions—vital to ensuring the effective use of environmentally sound and appropriate technologies—are those necessary at grass roots, community (or sub-community) scale, in order to undertake the practical tasks of replying to the members' needs. Some of them will be concerned with identifying needs and the problems of the people involved, and then in designing and carrying out specific projects in order to solve their particular problems. These will take such forms as a women's group having decided to do market gardening or backyard poultry-raising to earn money and provide better food for their children, or

several of the inhabitants in a village building a dam and irrigating their plots of land.

Other institutions will be more concerned with the overall development problems of an urban ward, a village or a group of villages, integrated health, education, agricultural and livestock production, cottage industry, soil protection and so on.

Who better to reply to these questions than the inhabitants themselves through their own institutions, if need be together with technicians?

### **Making people aware of their technical ability**

Awareness of one's existing technical capacity will probably be a first step to effective control of new technologies. In many cases, therefore, support will consist of helping people to become aware that they already possess a considerable amount of technology (or might borrow it from their neighbours) but this has often been rejected and as a result of global socio-economic changes, it has frequently been impossible to maintain its use.

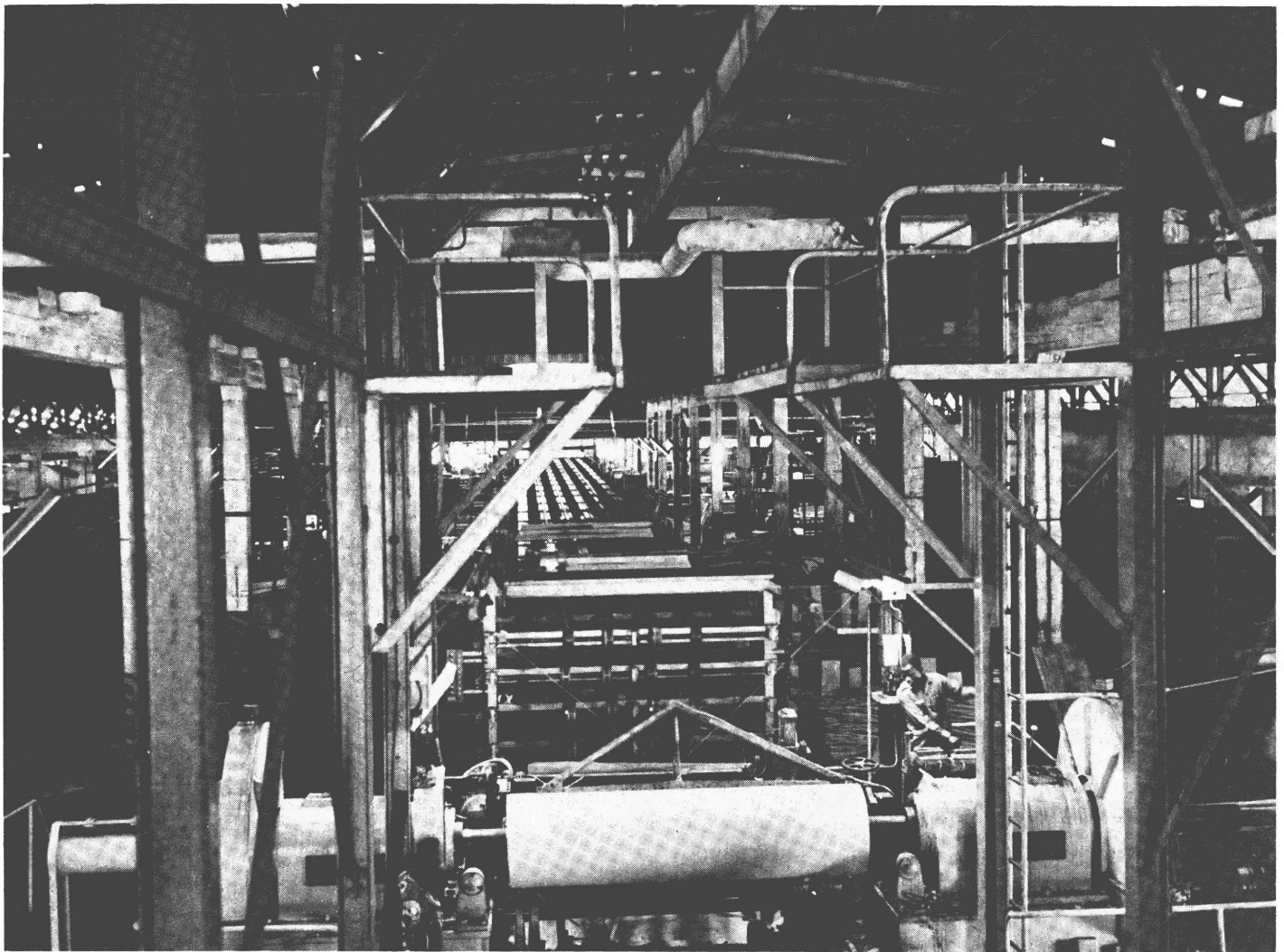
Such support actions, however, must not become mummified by being limited to traditional technology and an ethnological approach. Traditional technologies together with more recent introductions and inventions or adaptations (which we have referred to as endogenous: i.e. coming from within the society) must be better known, but must be improved upon and not blissfully admired just because they are traditional.

Different types of institutions will be needed to reply to this need for information. In following up the creation of awareness of one's own technological capacity, direct exchanges between development groups facing similar problems will become necessary. Such exchanges can be made through a popular newspaper in a national language: a recent rapid survey of the rural press counted 15 such newspapers in Africa.

Another type of institutional structure, which could reply in a different way to the increasing demand for information, would be *technical support units*. These institutions would be charged with assisting village and ward groups and could either be in the form of polyvalent local groups active over a fairly small area (one or several wards; a larger group of villages) in the form, perhaps, of rural polyvalent extension services (agriculture, home economics, community development, health, forestry...) under a unified command, or of more technically specialized units working on a larger scale.

They would have to be mobile and capable of replying to people's requests rather than, as is the actual case with extension services, of telling them what they ought to do (in some cases, without being able to do it themselves). They would in turn need information, reading matter, explanatory documents and communications support material. Nothing is sadder than to see the regular reading matter of rural development staff or primary school teachers: so little exists which is directly aimed at such a readership.

On an even larger scale—national, regional and by *ecological zone*—it will be necessary for institutions to collect and disseminate information on the ongoing use of technology in order to encourage and stimulate existing groups and support units and to reply to specific queries from them. Once again, those institutions could work on the basis of the integration of technical themes, or be more specialized.



*“Emphasis is on a technology which tends to be machine-minded”: plywood factory, and machine-minder, in Gabon*

### **Creating science and technology yourself**

In order to be used effectively, science and technology must be produced. An institutional structure is therefore necessary for research, research-development and technical experimentation in real life situations. However, in order to prevent a disjunction between research interests and development problems, it will be necessary to ensure that control over these institutions is at least partly assured by user groups, or some sort of federation or coordinating body, for user groups. Amongst other things, then these institutions will design and carry out research-development actions in association with small-scale development projects and/or user groups.

Specific institutions for the design and manufacture of machinery will also become necessary and a series of small-scale enterprises orientated toward appropriate technologies will be of vital importance. Encouragement of such manufacturing firms must be considerably increased through management assistance, schemes for mobilizing capital, technical assistance, group purchasing of raw materials and marketing. Above all—and it is here that very little seems to be done—they must be orientated towards appropriate technology solutions for their products and their equipment. Some of these engineering firms might even be built up to work on a different basis from privately owned firms, using a cooperative basis for organization, or sharing their profits with a village development committee, for example.

### **Present structures reinforce a lack of respect for African values**

Training the personnel for the type of institutions described above will, of course, have an important role to play in institution building. The types of technologies discussed must be integrated into the formal and non-formal education system at different levels, both as the content of theoretical and practical training and also as part of the everyday environment.

The layout of the buildings themselves sets an insidious example to trainees which tends to cut them off from popular culture (sleeping habits, meal contents, food preparation methods and eating habits) and, through attachment to modern values, eventually leads them to despise anything which might smack of “bush”. The institutional framework also, by its hierarchical set-up and individualistic functioning, encourages a non-collective attitude to work. Lastly, the choice of materials and technology used and the administrative framework for carrying out the building drags these institutions further into the dominated sphere of the economy.

The aims of these institutions should be towards autonomy of design and execution in technology. However, the overall ideology of technical training is not necessarily geared to this, but rather to a reinforcement of the international concepts of technology. Emphasis is on technical rationality

and a technology which tends to be machine-minded and aimed at increasing process efficiency and capital/labour ratios, rather than producing goods for people's needs. What is wanted, of course, is technical excellence, but aimed at helping people, rather than excellence in technicity for its own sake. This means that technical training must be concerned not only with the techniques themselves, but also with their social control. Exchanges of information on ongoing work in Africa in the field of more appropriate technologies might play an important role here, as many training institutions are not informed of this, even though they may be well up-to-date on the latest gimmicks from the industrialised countries.

### **The social forces needed to set up appropriate technology institutions**

An overall choice of a self-reliant development strategy at country level will obviously facilitate institution-building for the effective use of environmentally sound and appropriate technologies. A political institutional framework which will allow and actively encourage local initiatives (rather than merely tolerate, ignore or even suppress them) is a necessary prerequisite for the effective use of environmentally sound and appropriate technologies on a large scale in any country.

But administrative structures in general have not been geared to development and in their present hierarchical state will not be suitable institutions for undertaking grass-

*The introduction of animal-drawn ploughing in Benin enabled farmers to cultivate three times as much land as before*



roots action. However, many countries are reinforcing the decentralized nature of administration by giving more autonomy to local authorities or creating new, decentralized administrative structures (Algeria, Tanzania...)

It is suggested, however, that the very role of the administration in ensuring production and social control, coupled with bureaucratic habits, will mean a tendency towards solutions to problems of energy, building, social and health services, agricultural implements and systems, processing machinery, etc. being standardized, not as a result of the necessity felt by these grass-roots development institutions, but through centralized technocratic processes, acting from technical rationality and taking away initiative in technical decisions from the people's own institutions.

### **Avoiding political pressures on appropriate technology education**

Although basic political structures (the section or the cell) may be a suitable framework for popular actions using appropriate technologies, they are not the only one. Grass roots institutions may be created in which party members will be active but not necessarily in the majority, nor the leaders. Articulation will therefore be necessary between the communities' institutions and the political structure at different levels. In Africa, no general tendency can be observed whereby such articulations give more political power to grass roots organizations. On the contrary, such organizations as do exist are often gradually emptied of the most part of their democratic contents and are more less integrated into the State or the party structures (cf the cooperative organizations).

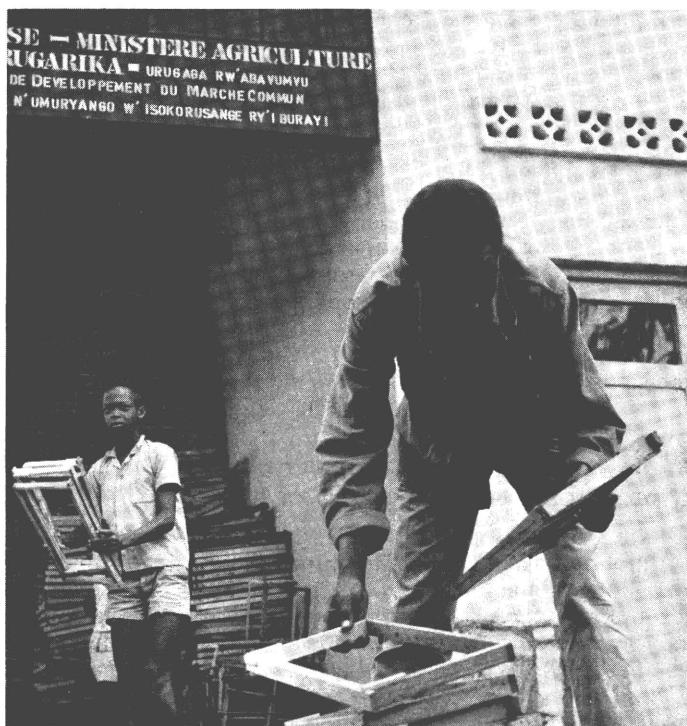
Use of community institutions to advance vested interests must also be avoided. For instance, better-off farmers or small-scale businessmen and traders are often politically active and are influential in a ward or a village. Almost unconsciously they will further their own interests while being convinced that they speak on behalf of everybody's needs. Technologies coming from outside will enhance their influence and power and such persons can be the intermediaries as they are more used to dealing with officials and urban people.

### **Who will bring about change?**

Who then will be the agents of change and start action on the effective use of appropriate technologies? Will it be technical staff themselves working in the area, a village or a ward development group, or outside agents of change? Without a doubt, leaders will appear and will request training and the outside agents will, of course, tend to suggest that their role is primordial. But if society is to act, it must become receptive to such agents, share their ideas and act upon them. What better training ground for the agents of change, then, than helping small-scale development projects get off the ground, or taking a more active part in running them and giving them an institutional framework?

Building these community-based and controlled institutions begs the question as to which social forces will mobilize in their support, and work actively for the creation and maintenance of their growth (growth in ideas and influence as much as in size)? Both on a local and a global level, an alliance between different strata is necessary: farmers, pastoralists and fishermen, craftsmen and women, and the less privileged groups in urban areas on the one hand; university graduates, technicians and white collar workers on the other.





Learning by example at a bee-keeping project financed by the EDF in Rwanda

As regards the former, a general observation is that they have not succeeded in creating autonomous organizations, and a political framework in which local initiatives and institutions are encouraged and not suppressed therefore becomes even more necessary. Neither have they escaped from dominant ideology. Although formal schooling gives a considerable advantage to the more educated and better-off families, to the detriment of the poorer families, it is perfectly understandable that schooling is seen by them as one of the only ways in which they may be lucky enough to have a child well placed as a civil servant or businessman. The ambiguous role of the school—perfectly understood by ordinary people—is then not criticized, as its advantages apparently outweigh its drawbacks, even when the latter include such social changes as cutting children off from their family and their culture and, on a larger scale, ensuring the perpetuation of the ideological support for dominance and exploitation.

On the other hand, the best educated young people are subject to heavy cultural pressure and are often alienated as regards both traditional and popular contemporary culture; it is amongst them that can be found the quasi-fetichistic beliefs regarding modern technology.

Both groups have been the object of generalized cultural aggression, which has affected them in different ways. Subject to considerable pressure both from within and from outside their own society, they will have to change their thinking if an effective use is to be made of environmentally sound and appropriate technologies.

If their thinking (mentality) is to change, institutions must be built up to achieve this in appropriate political, economic and social framework: creating effective communications between the two groups will become one of the major aims of such institutions, in order that they will be able to achieve together more self confidence, a necessary pre-requisite to self-criticism and a change in thinking.

Such institutions might further exchanges on technology between trained people and grass-roots development groups, through radio programmes (in pidgin if necessary),

writing and drama (more accessible than novels), youth and science clubs (cf. "Jet" clubs in Zambia).

The attitude and behaviour of technicians is a particularly thorny problem. It is necessary that technicians be able and willing to "listen to the people". However, the language of a milieu is not only the spoken word. The best way in which the needs of a milieu are expressed, is in the way in which it lives and behaves. Patient observation of the fields, the habitat, the social customs and above all, paying attention to innovation introduced by the farmers themselves show up the needs better than anything else. This then, argues for a *new approach* to a milieu—by identifying initiatives rather than recording spoken needs.

A technician's "job"—such as he is taught it and such as most existing institutions expect him to do it—is to provide technical expertise. Frequently, his attitude to people is that "they don't understand". Progress reports of projects deal with technical matters (number of wells dug, surface cultivated, cash flow, amount of goods produced...) but rarely with relationships between the local population and the technicians or the difficult steps necessary for people to learn to decide for themselves.

Even if the technician believes in the ideology of participation, he may not yet be won over and its practice. He frequently finds it difficult to admit that peasants or craftsmen may know better than he does, and even harder to allow the group to take decisions on the design and technical aspects of a development action when the result is not logical according to his own values. He will tend to use his technical know-how to prevent the power of decision being taken out of his hands, and he is quite likely to do the same with the administrative or political authorities for whom he works, through technical mystification. Worse still, he may unconsciously ally himself, and his own power, to the persons who hold power within the group, while continuing to believe that he has really given people the chance to speak and to decide.

Grass-roots institutions exist, but are often unstable, scattered and isolated. Institution building must therefore be concerned with achieving a stronger footing by helping them to undertake exchanges and to build up coordinating structures and in many cases ensuring that they are not weakened by dominant economic forces. This can only be done through more overall (regional and national) political and administrative institutions ensuring that they are not destroyed.

— Institutions may therefore be mobile: a demonstration exhibition teaching people particular aspects of technology might stay a few days in a village, or a little longer in a market centre, before moving on to another area. This may be one way of avoiding centralized "control" over what is done on a village level.

— Action for building up institutions could be based on the results of peasant workshops convened to discuss particular problems in a specific ecological zone. Such institutions would then remain under the control of the founders.

— Existing community structures should be associated in the building up and the management of such grass-roots institutions.

Knowledge of what is being done by others is an important stimulus to people involved in institution building. Most information networks go through the industrialized countries and there is an urgent need to reinforce exchanges between African institutes in the different fields of more appropriate technologies.

Exchanges with other Third World countries are also important and must be built up by direct exchanges on an East-West basis between personnel of institutions active in different fields of appropriate technology, including leaders of urban and rural grass-roots institutions. □

## THE CONVENTION AT WORK

### GUINEA BISSAU

Luis Cabral, President of Guinea Bissau, visited the EEC Commission in March for talks with President Jenkins and development commissioner Cheysson.

Guinea Bissau was the first of Portugal's ex-overseas territories to take part in the negotiations for the Lomé Convention and to adhere to it from the beginning.

According to government statistics, the EEC was third on the list of external aid donors in 1978, behind the Netherlands and Sweden (which gave exceptionally large amounts).

Guinea Bissau is one of the least developed countries (LDCs) and one of those which the UN has defined as most seriously affected (MSA) by the world economic crisis. So it also benefits from the special arrangements for the least developed ACP countries in Articles 24 and 48 of the Lomé Convention.

The Brussels visit which President Luis Cabral made on 16 March 1979 was the first since independence. Commissioner Claude Cheysson has been to Guinea Bissau twice (1975 and 1977). Guinea Bissau has had an embassy in Brussels since 1977.

#### Lomé Convention

The fourth EDF indicative programme for Guinea Bissau totals 21 200 000 EUA (grants) of which 80% has been committed and 26% paid out so far.

There is a clear preference for rural development. EDF financing meets three of the government's priorities:

- to ensure the self-sufficiency of the economy (production of cotton and food crops) so as to obtain both foreign exchange and a cut in food imports;
- to reconstruct infrastructure (roads and ports) destroyed during the war;
- to provide the country with the minimum social (health and training) infrastructure.

A study of bauxite mining potential in the south west (taking longer-term considerations into account) is also under way.

When the President made his official visit, Dr Vasco Cabral, state commissioner for economic coordination and planning, and Claude Cheysson signed a new financing agreement for the sinking of 50 wells in the Gabu region (400 000 EUA). This project is to be run in the poorest area of Guinea Bissau and is intended to back up the ongoing scheme to develop cotton growing.

#### Regional cooperation

Guinea Bissau will be getting 650 000 EUA for two economic and/or technical studies of road links (Bissau-Gambia-Dakar and Bissau-Conakry).

#### Exceptional aid

The country was granted 467 000 EUA to help combat the effects of the drought in 1977/78.

#### Stabex

As compensation for a drop in groundnut and palm nut export earnings in 1976, an amount of 5 069 313 EUA has been paid over. Since the level of exports in the usual reference period (1972-75) was abnormally low because of the war, the amount was calculated on the basis of quantities exported between 1959 and 1962, using 1972-75 reference prices.

In 1977, 146 839 EUA was paid out for losses of exports of sawn timber.

#### Food aid

Aid totalling 7 270 000 EUA (internal prices) was supplied in 1976, 1977 and 1978. Considerable amounts are planned for the 1979 programme.

#### NGOs

The Commission has participated (57 304 EUA) in two NGO projects.

#### CIEC special scheme

US \$1 000 000 (800 000 EUA approx.) has been earmarked for Guinea Bissau

#### Also in the yellow pages

##### The Convention at work

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- VII ACP-EEC cooperation in the fields of energy and mining

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- XXII. European Parliament
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by the World Bank (IDA) from the Community contribution (US \$375 million in all).

#### Fisheries agreement

Since the end of 1976, the EEC has had sole responsibility in this sector. At that time, France had already negotiated a fisheries agreement with Guinea Bissau and so was authorized to conclude it for a two-year period in order to ensure the rights French fishermen had acquired.

In 1977, the Commission and the Guinea Bissau authorities held talks to look into the conditions under which an agreement (also of interest to Italian fishermen) might be concluded.

A meeting of the Guinea Bissau and French governments and the Commis-



President Cabral with Mr Roy Jenkins during his visit to the European Commission

sion on 13 February 1979 decided that proposals would be drawn up for a provisional agreement with a view to reaching final agreement as soon as possible. □

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## EDF

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### The Commission has taken the following decisions:

#### Montserrat

Trants road

Grant: 360 000 EUA)

(1 EUA = 3.531 EC \$)

The link road between the North Main Road at St John's and the East Main Road at Trants estate ( $\pm 10$  km) is divided into two sections. The project provides for the construction and bitumenisation of the second and southern section from Trants to Bottomless Ghaut (6 km). The first and northern section is being financed by the United Kingdom (236 000 EUA). The cost of the project is estimated at 360 000 EUA (60 000 EUA/km) to be financed as a grant out of the fourth EDF.

The project will provide a ring road around Montserrat and an alternative route to the airport located on the east coast. It will open up over 800 acres of agricultural land and stimulate tourism.

#### Madagascar

Studies on road communications between Sambava and Soanierana — Ivongo

Grant: 920 000 EUA

(1 EUA = 289,7 FM)

In connection with the scheme to improve road transport on the north-east coast of Madagascar, this project concerns economic and technical studies of the region between Sambava and Soanierana-Ivongo and, within this region, a road link between Antalaha and Maroantsetra (about 110 kilometres) which so far does not exist.

The purpose of these studies is to place the government in a position to frame its transport policy on the east coast of the island and facilitate efforts to obtain the funds necessary for the execution of the work, giving top priority to the Antalaha-Maroantsetra road link.

#### Guinea-Bissau

Construction of 50 wells in the Gabu region

Grant: 400 000 EUA

(1 EUA = 46,47 pesos)

A number of schemes have been started under the Guinea-Bissau government's policy to improve the living conditions of the country's rural

population by supplying villages with drinking water. Adequate quantities of good drinking water are to be supplied throughout the year from wells and boreholes.

The aim of this project is to establish 50 priority village wells in areas well suited to this type of water supply in the Gabu region in the north-east of the country.

It is expected that the project will make it possible to meet the drinking water requirements of the priority villages in the region concerned, which covers an area of about 3 500 km<sup>2</sup>. The total population of these villages is about 11 000. It is also anticipated that the general hygiene and living conditions of the population will be improved as a result.

#### Tanzania

Bitumen plant

4th EDF — Special loan: 2 950 000 EUA

(EUA 1.00 = TSH 9.897)

The project provides for the purchase of a skid mounted plant and drum filling, handling and transportation facilities for the production of 30 000 tonnes of bitumen per year.

The cost of the project is estimated at 6.48 m EUA, to be financed as follows: EDF 2.95 m EUA provided as a special loan to the government with onlending conditions and 3.53 m EUA from local sources. Total: 6.48 m EUA.

The project will be implemented by the Tanzanian Petroleum Development Corporation (TPDC). A wholly government owned company with own statutes and accounts will be established for the bitumen plant. A contract for the day to day management will be established with the Tanzanian and Italian Petroleum Refining Corp. (TIPER).

#### Sierra Leone

Makeni-Kabala road

4th EDF — Grant: 10 000 000 EUA

(1 EUA = 1.418 Le)

The project provides for the participation in the construction of a bitumenized road from Makeni to Sambamba (75.8 km) and for the improvement of the Sambamba-Kabala section (41.6 km). This road will, for the first time, assure a reliable and satisfactory all-weather link with the Koinadugu district in the north of the country, which due to the bad condition of the road is hard to reach, and regularly cut off from the rest of the country during the wet season.

The project will greatly benefit agriculture and road users. In particular, its implementation is complementary to the Koinadugu integrated agricultural development project (KIADP) for the financing of which the EDF has already committed EUA 5 900 000.

The cost of the project is estimated at EUA 18 050 000 (exempt of tax) to be financed jointly by the EDF and Federal Germany. The contribution of the EDF amounts to EUA 10 000 000, to be committed as a grant.

#### Wallis and Futuna Islands

Poi-Tuatafa road (Futuna Island)

Grant: 665 000 EUA

(1 EUA = F CFP 105.1)

The project involves opening up a stretch of road between Poi and Tuatafa (8.40 km) in order to complete the circular coast road on the island of Futuna. Gradual improvements have been made to this road over the last 10 years or so, some of the work being financed from the second and third EDFs.

The work will be carried out by the authorities with local labour and equipment used for previous work on the road. Further equipment will be needed for the present project.

At present there is only a footpath, which is interrupted entirely for about 0.5 km by the "Pointe des Pyramides" headland, but once this road has been opened people will be able to move around the island more freely and this will encourage the setting up of new settlements and the development of agriculture and tourism on the island.

#### Turks and Caicos Islands

South Caicos air terminal

Grant: 180 000 EUA

(1 EUA = 1.387 US \$)

The provision of airport infrastructure and facilities in the three major islands, (South Caicos, Grand Turk and Providenciales) of the Turk and Caicos Islands (TCI), is for the government one of the highest priorities in order to stimulate the expansion of private sector investment.

For this reason, reconstruction of the air terminal building (total 4 876 sq.ft., or 453 sq.m.) for the South Caicos airport, which was burned to the ground in 1975, is planned.

The actual absence of adequate facilities constitutes a severe handicap to the development of tourism and other industries on South Caicos.

#### Ethiopia

Geothermal exploration

4th EDF — Grant: 4 120 000 EUA

(1 EUA = 2.5 Birr)

The purpose of the project is to prove the feasibility of using geothermal energy resources for generating electric power. Additional generating capacity of 30 MW will be needed to supply the interconnected system during the mid to late 1980's.

Following a comprehensive programme of geophysical and geochemi-



cal studies which has demonstrated the presence of geothermal fields along the Rift Valley in the region of lakes Langano, Shalla and Abaya, this project will provide the resources for carrying out a drilling programme of 9 holes to depths of 1500 m in order to confirm the nature of the resource; training of Ethiopian personnel, and a feasibility study for a first phase development comprising a 30 MW power station.

The total cost of the project is estimated at 7 550 000 EUA of which 4 120 000 EUA will be provided from the EDF, 1 300 000 EUA by the UNDP, and 2 130 000 EUA by the government.

## Benin

Geologic mapping and mineral prospecting study north of 11°N

4th EDF Grant: 1 640 000 EUA

(1 EUA = CFAF 288)

The aim of this project is to gain a more thorough knowledge of the subsoil in that part of Benin north of 11°N and to enable the Beninese government better to assess the mining potential of the region.

With this in mind the government has decided to obtain the prerequisite for all geologic and mineral research—a geologic map on a scale of 1:200 000.

The geologic survey will be carried out at the same time as mineral prospecting throughout the region in question. Alluvial, geochemical, radiometric and geophysical prospecting methods will be employed, possibly with probes of any anomalies that justify the use of that technique.

The project also includes:

(i) basic and advanced training for a number of Beninese cadres and technical staff;

(ii) the construction in Kandi of premises to serve initially as headquarters for the project and later to house the branch offices of OBEMINES (the Beninese Mining Board), the body responsible for geologic and mineral prospecting.

## Upper Volta

Electricity supply for six regional centres

4th EDF — Grant: 1 154 000 EUA

(1 EUA = CFAF 288)

The aim of this project is to bring electricity supplies to the towns of Kaya, Fada N'Gourma, Tenkodogo, Dori, Dédougou and Gaoua under the aegis of Voltelec, the Voltaic electricity company. The six towns have an average population of 16 000 and are district capitals.

The provision of electricity will have two effects:

— it will allow individuals and groups to embark on new economic and social activities, while improving well-being in general, and

— it will lower the cost of electricity for those consumers who at the moment are producing their own power with generators which are often bigger than they actually need to be.

The project consists of:

— supply and installation of six power stations;

— supply and installation of the corresponding distribution networks;

— installation of a workshop and administrative offices.

## Niger

Building and equipping rural maternity units and dispensaries

4th EDF Grant: 3 270 000 EUA

(1 EUA = CFAF 288)

The main aims of the project are as follows:

— to strengthen the rural health infrastructure, which is particularly disadvantaged in relation to that of the towns, and to reduce rural depopulation by improving the medical facilities in the bush centres;

— to meet the greater need for health care resulting from the increase in the population of the areas involved;

— to improve the quality of the facilities for accommodating and treating patients and of the work of the medical staff;

— to reduce the recurrent maintenance costs, since the present buildings are very old and therefore expensive to maintain.

## Sudan

Higher secondary technical schools

4th EDF — Grant: 6 300 000 EUA

(1 EUA = 0.65 £S)

The project involves the upgrading and extension of four existing higher secondary technical schools. There is a significant deficit of middle level manpower concentrating on graduates from technical institutes, higher technical schools and vocational training centres.

The project will serve to fill a gap at the secondary level in the Southern Region, thereby complementing another EDF-sponsored project, the development of the recently established University of Juba.

The project schools are situated at Torit, Tonj (both in the Southern Region), Karima (Northern Nile province) and Gedaref (Kassala province). The project will rehabilitate the existing facilities and add substantial extensions so that the capacity of each school will be raised from 200 to 324 students.

## Fiji

Rural roads on Viti Levu

4th EDF — Grant: 1 500 000 EUA

(1 EUA = F \$ 1.106)

The project provides for the construction of 37 km of rural roads on Viti Levu. It is a part of a long term road construction scheme consisting of 132 km of rural roads which aims at the development of the almost inaccessible interior of Viti Levu.

The works relating to the project will be carried out by directly employed labour under the responsibility of the Ministry for Works and Communication. The period for carrying out the project is estimated at 30 months.

The project is a prerequisite to create growth and employment as it will break the isolation of this region from the major markets and centres of economic activity, located at the coast of the island.

Thus, the project will in particular contribute to a regionally more equitable income distribution since the project area is one of the most backward in Fiji.

## St. Kitts-Nevis — Anguilla (Caribbean)

Road reinstatement (St. Kitts)

4th EDF — Special loan: 1 200 000 EUA

(1 EUA = 3.646 EC-\$)

The project provides for the resurfacing (64.5 km) and the strengthening (19.3 km) of the existing main roads on St Kitts Island. These works are necessary to prevent the disintegration of the present bituminised road surfaces.

It is intended to carry out the works by private contractor after accelerated tendering procedure.

The supervision of the works will be ensured by a United Kingdom financed resident engineer. A construction period of 24 months is envisaged.

It is expected that the project will reduce the duration and cost of transportation, thus providing a general stimulus to economic development. Moreover, the project will also avoid any increase of road maintenance expenditure.

## Senegal

Building and equipping a theatre block at the main hospital in Dakar

4th EDF — Grant: 1 092 000 EUA

(1 EUA = CFAF 289)

This project involves building and equipping a new theatre block, with four operating rooms, at the main hospital in Dakar. The existing block dates back to 1909.

The aim is to provide the hospital, a 667-bed general one catering for Senegalese and foreign patients, with a functional technical/surgical complex

with high standards of hygiene and large enough both to meet the demand for treatment and to provide better conditions in which to train Senegal's future nurses, doctors and surgeons.

## Somalia

Somali pharmaceutical institute

Grant: 6 000 000 EUA (1 EUA = 8.48 SSh)

This project involves the building and equipping of a pharmaceutical laboratory for the manufacture of medicines from imported basic pharmaceutical products and the packaging of the finished articles.

This laboratory will replace the existing unit which is obsolete and located in premises which are too small.

The new complex will cover an area of approximately 4 000 m<sup>2</sup>.

A sum of 4 000 000 EUA was earmarked for the project in the indicative programme of Community aid. At the request of the national authorities, 2 000 000 EUA was added to cover an initial underestimate. The additional sum will be transferred from the project for developing the Golwein-Mererta area, and the indicative programme has been amended accordingly.

## Botswana

Trade promotion: 692 500 EUA as a grant. (1 EUA = 1.118 Pula)

- This project covers the provision of:
- a senior trade promotion adviser for three years to help establish a central coordinating organisation within existing services for trade promotion;
  - temporary assistance of supportive consultants to carry out specific market development and investigatory exercises for selected products;
  - limited assistance towards training "on-the-job" and by market exposure missions;
  - certain professional promotional materials such as a film, mobile exhibition stand and printed catalogues.

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## SUGAR

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The European Commission has published a communication in the Official Journal concerning the reduction of the sugar quotas the EEC pledges to import from certain ACP countries each year. The countries concerned are the following:

Congo, new guaranteed quantity of 4 957 tonnes (instead of 10 000).

Kenya, new guaranteed quantity of 93 tonnes (instead of 4 000).

Suriname, new guaranteed quantity of 2 667 tonnes (instead of 4 000).

Uganda, new guaranteed quantity of 409 tonnes, (instead of 5 000)

These decisions were taken in accordance with Article 7, paragraph 3 of the

"sugar" Protocol annexed to the Lomé Convention, because these countries did not supply the Community with the agreed quantities of sugar and the Commission has no reason to consider the matter a case of "force majeure". □

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## EIB

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### Ghana and Ivory Coast power networks

Under the terms of the Lomé Convention, the European Investment Bank has lent 12 million units of account(1), to help to finance the interconnection of the Ghana and Ivory Coast power networks.

The amount has been provided in two loans of 6 million EUA, each for 15 years at 6.15%, taking into account a 3% subsidy paid from the Community's European Development Fund.

The borrowers are: in Ghana, the Volta River Authority-VRA (a public body responsible for exploiting the river's resources, in particular the Akosombo dam/hydroelectric station, plus linked transmission network); in the Ivory Coast, Energie Electrique de Côte-d'Ivoire, 78% state-owned, responsible for electricity production, transmission and distribution throughout the country.

The project which the EIB is helping to finance is concerned mainly with the erection of a 215 km high-tension line which should come into operation end-1981 at a cost, including ancillary equipment, estimated at about 28 million EUA.

This will interconnect the two networks, helping Ghana, with its huge Volta hydroelectric potential, and the Ivory Coast, equipped with a major thermal power station and several hydroelectric plants, to make the best economic use of their combined resources.

Calling for economic cooperation of regional importance for West Africa, the project could become in due course the base for a much wider system of interconnections, taking in Togo and Benin (both grids already linked to Ghana), Liberia and also Upper Volta, where studies are already being carried out to this effect.

The African Development Bank is also providing finance for the project.

### Latex processing in the Ivory Coast

Under the terms of the Lomé Convention, the European Investment Bank has granted a loan worth 4.6 million units of account(1) for expanding latex processing capacities in the Ivory Coast.

The borrower is Société Africaine de Plantations d'Hévéas (SAPH); the funds,

(1) 1 EUA = Cedi 3.72, or CFA F 290.5.

have been advanced for a term of 12 years at a rate of interest reduced to 5.95% through the provision of a 3% interest subsidy paid from the Community's European Development Fund.

SAPH (more than 60% state-owned) is the main instrument for developing rubber cultivation in the Ivory Coast. Its estates cover some 14 000 hectares, expected to rise to over 16 600 ha by the end of 1980.

In addition it manages various other plantations and processing facilities on behalf of the state. In 1978 it exported over 15 000 tons of rubber, 90% to Europe.

According to its investment plans in both the agricultural and the industrial sectors over the next four years, involving a total outlay of around 28 million EUA, SAPH should raise its annual production to over 30 000 tons of rubber, creating about 400 extra jobs.

The EIB loan will help to raise daily latex processing capacity by some 38.5 tons by expanding a factory at Bongo and setting up two new plants at Ousrou and Rapides Grah.

The Caisse Centrale de Coopération Economique (France), the Deutsche Entwicklungsgesellschaft, the Commonwealth Development Corporation (United Kingdom) and the Banque Nationale de Développement Agricole are helping to finance the plantations. □

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## 4th EDF

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### Funds committed reach 53% of the sum available

The important point in the programming is that the ACP countries themselves determine the priorities.

— Even before the Convention came into force the preparatory work on setting up financial and technical cooperation had already been completed to a large extent, and this allowed the rapid completion of "programming" Community aid.

— This process of programming for all the ACP countries meant that an indicative programme was drawn up. It was based on the priorities of each country and indicated, within the limits of the total funds allocated to each country, the particular projects that it was proposed to finance from the European Development Fund (EDF).

— This programmed aid did not represent the total available to the EDF since an amount of 825 million EUA was set aside for such things as exceptional aid, regional projects and Stabex.

— The main aim of the programming exercise was to allow the ACP countries to fit Community aid into their own development plans, but it also eased and reinforced the coordination of aid between the Community as such, and its member states.

— The rapid carrying out of programming made it possible to take the first financing decision within weeks of the entry into force of the Convention, and to ensure that during the first phase of operations a satisfactory rhythm of commitments was maintained.

### The role of the least developed ACP countries (art. 48) in the working of the Convention.

The distribution of programmed aid country by country favours the 32 least developed countries. Some 64% of the programmed resources went to these states although their population represents only 42% of that of the ACP countries as a whole. These countries also receive aid on more favourable terms; financings in the form of grants selves are rather vague or poorly drawn up. The particular political situation

selves are rather vague or poorly drawn up. The particular political situation has affected things in some countries and in others the administrative structures have not been adequate for the working of the Convention.

Exceptional aid has reached the level of 55% of that available, while regional projects have only taken up 36% of the funds available (by end 1978) under the first and second tranches.

### Coping with exceptional circumstances from the Sahel to southern Africa

Exceptional aid, for which a total sum of 150 million EUA was set aside, is a flexible element in the Convention.

It allows the Community to help in the case of natural disasters and

high cost of the projects, which often involve transport infrastructure and for which it is necessary to arrange co-financing. □

## JAMAICA

Following the ACP/EEC Ministerial negotiating session in the Bahamas, Mr Claude Cheysson, the European commissioner responsible for development went on to pay an official visit to Jamaica on 26-27 March. Having signed an EEC loan agreement to the Jamaica Trading Export Company, Mr Cheysson went on to discuss with the Jamaican authorities ways of stepping up the implementation of the Jamaican indicative aid programme and the regional cooperation programme. Mr Cheysson had talks with the Jamaican Prime Minister Mr Manley, the Minister of Foreign Affairs Mr P.J. Patterson, and the Minister of Finance Mr Bell.

In relation to the aid programme, the Jamaican authorities emphasised the need to step up the programme. During his stay Mr Cheysson inaugurated the micro dam project for which 1.3 million EUA has been assigned.

### Banana production

Mr Cheysson also discussed the Jamaican scheme to increase the production of bananas. They are trying to promote production by small farmers. Mr Cheysson also pointed out that 8 million units of account has still to be reallocated under the regional programme given that two projects have now been scrapped. Mr Cheysson also discussed with the Prime Minister, the question of food aid for Jamaica. □

Funds available during the Convention* (million EUA)		Commitments by 31.1.79 (million EUA)
European Development Fund	3 067.8	1 624
of which:		
— grants	2 145.2	1 059
— special loans	445.6	234
— risk capital	97.0	44
— Stabex	380.0	173
EIB loans	390.0	223

\* Taking account of adjustments made necessary by the accession of 10 new countries since the Convention was signed.

represent 89% of the commitments for these countries as against 64% for the other countries. As for non-programmed aid these 32 countries benefit from 60% of the regional funds. Of 26 countries which have received exceptional aid, 18 belong to the least developed group. They also received 63% of Stabex payments and have been allocated 69% of the special action programme and 90% of food aid.

### The state of commitments on 31 March 1979

Against the total funds available (EDF and EIB) commitments have reached 53%. However the rhythm of engagements is not uniform. For the EDF as a whole the figure is 52%. But it reaches 57% if only country aid is counted.

For this country aid, the position varies from place to place. More than half the countries already have over 60% of the indicative programme committed one year before the end of the Convention. 40% of the countries have committed between 30% and 60%, and five countries have not yet reached the 30% mark.

The reasons for these delays are various. Sometimes the projects them-

exceptional circumstances, and provides an additional security for countries and people whose survival is threatened by acts of fate.

The 82 millions EUA so far committed has gone to 26 countries of which 18 were among the least favoured.

Exceptional aid is often complemented by Stabex (173 million EUA) and by emergency food aid financed from the Community's budget.

### Stimulating regional cooperation

In order to give particular support to efforts at regional or interregional cooperation the Lomé Convention has reserved 10% of its funds for that purpose.

The working of this part of the Convention up to the end of 1978 shows that some 107 million EUA were committed, which represented 36% of the available funds (207.8 million EUA for the first tranche and 90.7 million EUA for the second).

This low percentage of commitments is the result of special problems with this type of project, in particular the difficulties of coordination but also the

## TEA

### International promotion association starts operating

The first meeting of the governing board of the International Tea Promotion Association (ITPA) was held in Geneva from April 2-6 and a work programme drawn up for 1979-80.

The object of the association is to coordinate efforts among tea exporters to increase world demand for tea and halt the downward trend in prices.

The idea to set up the ITPA dates back to 1974 but its launching was delayed by disputes over voting rights, financial contributions and the role it should play.

### Falling prices

Some consuming countries are concerned that the ITPA could turn to supply control measures should pro-



motional measures not prove sufficient to safeguard prices. According to a recent FAO study prices will continue to fall in real terms over the next few years.

Demand in industrialised countries is only likely to grow by 1.3% per year compared with 4% in developing countries. The latter will account for half world demand by 1985. □

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## EXCEPTIONAL AID

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### Rwanda

An epidemic of meningitis in the north of Rwanda has stricken over 3 000 people in the last few months, and claimed 190 victims. A million doses of vaccine are needed to immunize children and adolescents, who are particularly vulnerable to the disease. The Community is providing 55 000 EUA for the purchase and transport of 240 000 doses of vaccine, possibly in conjunction with Caritas Belgica. (In addition, France has announced that it will contribute 100 000 doses, Belgium 15 000, and the World Health Organization 100 000.)

#### 2 300 000 EUA in extra aid.

The war between Tanzania and Uganda interrupted the flow of essential supplies to Rwanda and Burundi, since such goods normally come by land via Kampala. Over the next three months, 7 500 tonnes of fuel and 17 000 tonnes of other products will have to be airlifted in. The additional cost of this operation (in excess of the cost of surface transport) is put at US \$8.5 million.

The Community is making 300 000 EUA available immediately towards the cost and the EEC member states may also make a contribution, for instance by providing aircraft for the operation. If it turns out subsequently that more is required, additional aid could be granted; exceptional aid of 419 000 EUA, made available on an earlier occasion and as yet unused, could be reallocated for this purpose.

### Burundi

#### 2 000 000 EUA.

This sum was awarded to Burundi for the same reasons.

### Fiji

#### 1 500 000 EUA.

At the end of 1978, cyclone "Fay" hit Fiji, causing considerable damage to add to that resulting from the drought and cyclone of 1977/78.

Some 800 dwellings destroyed or damaged have to be rebuilt. The Com-

munity is making an immediate contribution of 1 500 000 EUA following examination of the Fiji government's request of a sum of 5.5 million EUA.

### Mali

The Commission's exceptional aid of 220 000 EUA for Mali is for the purchase of medicines.

The drought which occurred in certain parts of the Sahel, particularly the north of Mali, in 1977-78, and the malnutrition which followed, has resulted in a serious outbreak of parasitical and infectious diseases.

The cost of the medicines needed has been estimated at 865 000 EUA by the World Health Organization (WHO).

The Community's contribution will allow the WHO to buy medicines for a three month period.

### Ghana

The Commission has agreed exceptional aid for Ghana amounting to 300 000 EUA under article 59 of the Lomé Convention.

The aid is for the purchase of medical supplies to ease the health problems in certain areas created by the drought of 1978.

Emergency aid is essential to prevent an epidemic of yellow fever and the spread of other contagious diseases.

### Southern Africa

Exceptional aid to UNHCR for refugees in Botswana, Zambia, Lesotho, Swaziland and Tanzania, 4 700 000 EUA.

There has been a recent sharp increase in the number of refugees in southern Africa, imposing a heavy strain on the resources of the host countries and leaving the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) in urgent need of additional funds. In response to an appeal by UNHCR, supported by the governments of the host countries the Community is making an overall contribution, under Article 59 of the Lomé Convention of 4 700 000 EUA to UNHCR's 1979 programme of assistance to southern African refugees in Botswana, Zambia, Lesotho, Swaziland and Tanzania.

### Eastern Africa

Exceptional aid for the fight against locusts in East Africa

Recognising that for the first time for some years the desert locust was posing a serious threat to the countries of East Africa, the FAO launched a general appeal in July 1978 for 3 500 000 dollars to purchase insecticides, spraying equipment, radio sets, vehicles and aircraft to enable the Desert Locust Control Organization for Eastern Africa

(DLCO-EA) to step up locust control operations in the area. This sum was raised by the end of December 1978, after the Community had decided to contribute 1 300 000 EUA to the appeal, as an exceptional aid to the five ACP countries most directly concerned (Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia and Sudan).

● Since this action there has been a renewal of desert locust activity and, depending on which way the winds blow, locust swarms could invade countries like Tanzania and Uganda, which were not covered by the FAO operation.

There is also a serious risk of the desert locust invading West Africa as well, as evidenced by OCLALAV's recent request for Community emergency aid to build up stocks of insecticide.

● So that it can do everything possible to prevent the desert locust from spreading to other areas, the DLCO-EA, whose own financial resources are now inadequate, has just submitted a request for Community emergency aid to cover as much as possible of its operating costs.

The Community is therefore providing the Desert Locust Control Organization for Eastern Africa with exceptional aid of 300 000 EUA, under Article 59 of the Lomé Convention, to help cover the costs of aerial and ground spraying operations over the next six months. □

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## STABEX

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### Cape Verde

The Commission has decided to make a non-repayable transfer of 347 712 EUA to Cape Verde for the 1977 financial year.

This decision illustrates the Community's flexible approach to the implementation of the Stabex system, and its desire to act in accordance with the spirit rather than the letter of the Lomé Convention.

Since 1971 Cape Verde has been suffering the effects of an exceptional drought, including a disastrous fall in its only export production, bananas. Since there have been no exports throughout this lengthy period, there could be no transfer under the normal Stabex rules, which allow compensation for loss of earnings by reference to the average level of such earnings over the preceding four years.

At the meeting of the EEC/ACP Council of Ministers held in April 1977, the Community said that it was prepared in such circumstances to try and interpret the Convention in the most favourable way possible.

Indeed, in 1976, in the similar case of Guinea-Bissau, it had arrived at a reference level by excluding that country's

thirteen exceptional years and basing the figure on preceding years' exports.

In the present case the reference period has been worked out on the basis of exports for the normal years 1967-70, at 1973-76 unit values.

The transfer to Cape Verde brings the total amount transferred for the 1977 financial year to 31 472 921 EUA.

## ACP EMBASSIES

The new Kenyan ambassador to the EEC, Japheth Gideon Kiti, has just presented his credentials to the presi-

dents of the EEC Council and Commission. After taking his degrees in education and political science at Makerere University (Uganda) and St John's (New York) he entered the diplomatic service in 1965 as deputy cultural attache in the Kenyan mission to the UN. In 1967 he became cultural attache and in 1970 counsellor/under secretary. In the following year he left New York for Paris where he was, until 1974, first charge d'affaires then ambassador. 1974 saw him back in New York as deputy permanent representative in the Kenya mission to the UN.

From 1975 until his appointment to Brussels he was in Nairobi as deputy secretary (political) in the foreign affairs ministry. Ambassador Kiti is 44.



Ambassador Kiti with Mr Roy Jenkins

## MINING AND ENERGY

In connection with the current negotiations between the Community and the ACP countries for the renewal of the Lomé Convention, the Commission intends, by means of a communication to the Council, to draw attention to the need to step up cooperation in the fields of mining and energy.

Recalling to mind the facts that make it important to develop the ACP countries' mining and energy potential, both in their interests and in those of the Community, and the worrying trend of investments, notably in Africa, the Commission has produced a consolidated and more detailed text covering proposals made earlier.

Reference should be made in particular to the communication to the Council of January last year on the need to encourage European investment in developing countries and that

of July 1978 on cooperation with the developing countries in the field of energy.

Although these proposals are put forward in the context of strengthening ACP-EEC cooperation, they nevertheless form part of a policy which should embrace other developing countries. Such a policy is justified not only in order to develop mineral and energy resources, but also because it meets the need, stressed by the OECD, to increase the financial flows to the Third World with a view to boosting world economic growth.

### Energy—a heavy burden for the ACP countries

— Although certain ACP states are producers and exporters of energy products (oil, uranium), most of them are heavily dependent on external sources of supply: more so than the Community, they have to rely on oil (80% of energy consumed).

— The level of energy consumption in the ACP countries is very much lower than the average for the countries of the Third World, namely 85 kg of oil per head per year as against 300 kg in the rest of the Third World. The corresponding figure for the United States is 7 800 kg, and for Europe 3 100 kg.

— Any economic development—notably of industry in the ACP countries—entails higher levels of consumption. The cost of this might be impossible to bear if no relief can be found through the development of the ACP states' potential in the areas of traditional and renewable energy.

### Mining potential — a trump card for industrial development

Mining is already a basic factor in the economic life of several ACP countries, in terms of export earnings(1), budget revenue and employment and it will gain in importance with the development of industries based on the local processing of raw materials. But this potential has yet to be developed, expenditure on exploration must be encouraged, projects identified and investment in exploitation promoted before more ACP countries can benefit more systematically from the resources of their subsoil.

### Mineral exploration in Africa has plummeted

Although 40% of known reserves of the main ores are in developing countries, in 1976 only 10% of the mining companies' total expenditure on exploration was disbursed in those countries. Africa is particularly badly off, since the European mining undertakings have virtually ceased expenditure there (except on uranium prospecting) since 1974.

### Considerable investment is needed

According to studies by the United Nations, for production to be able to cope with the probable growth of demand for the period 1977-80, investment in mining to the tune of \$ 158 000 million (1975 values) would be required, of which \$ 55 000 million in the developing countries, meaning a sum of \$ 4 000 million to \$ 5 000 million per year. European mining undertakings, however, invested only \$ 120 million in 1977 and the drop in their expenditure on exploration is an indication that this figure will probably be even lower in the future.

### The Community's increasing vulnerability

The degree of the Community's dependence for its supplies of industrial raw materials has been estimated at an overall 75% (as against 15% for the United States).

In respect of eight essential minerals (cobalt, chromium, copper, mangan-

(1) Papua New Guinea, Zaire, Zambia (copper) — Senegal, Togo (phosphates) — Guinea, Guyana, Jamaica, Surinam (bauxite) — Gabon (manganese) — Niger (uranium) — Liberia, Mauritania (iron).

ese, nickel, phosphates, tin, tungsten) there is total or virtually total dependence and the developing countries provide a large proportion of the Community's supplies.

The EEC is bound to become even more vulnerable if:

— its mining undertakings invest less in the developing countries and generally allow themselves to be outdistanced by American(2) or Japanese firms;

— efforts to develop production become concentrated on a smaller number of countries.

### Proposed instruments

#### To develop exploration and prospecting

Besides stepping up technical assistance to the ACP countries for the purpose of cataloguing geological and mineral features (EDF and bilateral aid), new ways must be found to encourage investment in intensive exploration—which is much more costly—for this is the only way of identifying feasible exploration projects. With this in mind the Commission proposes:

- that the Community help set up in the ACP countries national or regional mineral exploration funds, to which the Community could make financial contributions together with other backers;
- that the Community participate by providing risk capital for investment in prospecting.

#### To promote investment in production

Public financing bodies—especially those in the Community—must be catalysts of direct investment by European mining concerns in the ACP countries.

So that more systematic use may be made of existing facilities the Council should acknowledge the principle that it is in the Community's interest to ensure that the sources of the Community's supplies of certain minerals are diversified further. Moreover, the EIB would be invited to play a more active part in financing energy and mining projects. It would be given the possibility of committing its own resources beyond the level stipulated in the Convention and the restrictions the present Convention imposes upon the granting of interest rate subsidies in the mining and energy sectors would be removed.

Two ways of neutralizing the non-economic risks are proposed:

- by making it easier for the host country to acquire a holding in the capital of the mining company to be set up; for this the Community would provide quasi-capital assistance;
- by rules of conduct written into standard agreements on the protection of investment, the precise terms to be drawn up with the host country on a case-by-case basis by reference to the specific features of the project.

(2) Since 1970 European investment in mining—even in the developing countries—has been only half that of the United States.

#### Stepping up financial cover against certain non-economic risks

Any European investors that cofinance mining or energy projects with the EIB in the ACP countries are at present covered, to very different degrees, by the various national guarantee systems.

The Commission proposes, therefore, that, when it is acknowledged that such projects are in the interest of the Community, they should be given a Community guarantee to cover all the risks not covered by the national systems.

This guarantee would be operated via the relevant national agencies. It would be financed by a guarantee fund to be constituted at Community level from the premiums paid in by the companies being insured and to be guaranteed by the Community budget. The guarantee would be decided when, on the initiative of the host country, specific protection agreements are concluded. □

## NGOs

### Cooperation between the Commission and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) becomes fully operational

The 1979 annual assembly of the European NGOs specializing in development cooperation was held in Brussels on 22 and 23 March.

It enabled the NGO representatives numbering about 80 and Commission staff to take stock of their cooperation—established in 1976 at the initiative of the European Parliament—in cofinancing development projects, educating European opinion in development issues, and providing food aid and emergency aid in exceptional situations, and also to examine the prospects for 1979.

The "Report on relations with non-governmental organizations (NGOs) with special reference to the cofinancing of projects for the 1978 financial year" presented by the Commission to the Council provides confirmation that this new form of cooperation has now become an important complement to

the operations being conducted by the Community in this sphere:

#### Growth of appropriations:

1976 — 2 500 000 EUA  
 1977 — 4 000 000 EUA  
 1978 — 12 000 000 EUA  
 1979 — 12 000 000 EUA (estimate)

Most of these funds have been, or are being, used for cofinancing schemes with European NGOs in developing countries throughout the world, including the ACP countries.

The "general conditions" for cofinancing adopted in conjunction with the NGOs enable the Community to finance 50% of the cost of projects carried out by NGOs, the ceiling being 100 000 EUA per project per year.

#### Sharp increase in the number of projects, countries and NGOs involved

Since 1976 the European NGOs, in close conjunction with the authorities and local populations, have made increasing use of the cofinancing opportunities which they were offered three years ago. A total of 364 projects (76 in 1976, 113 in 1977 and 175 in 1978) have been cofinanced with 84 NGOs in 76 developing countries, involving a total amount of 18 500 000 EUA.

The multiplier effect of Community cofinancing is remarkable: in 1978 the total investment made through NGOs in 175 cofinanced projects was 35 million EUA, the Community share (12 million EUA) representing only 34%.

#### The experience of 1978

The Community's cooperation with the NGOs in the development field evolved in a dynamic, positive and diversified way in 1978. After the experience of the first two years, 1976 and 1977, this cooperation has now taken on more effective dimensions and is producing more profound effects, partly as a result of the substantial increase in the funds available. This encouraging development has therefore produced satisfactory results and opens up new prospects, thereby making the "unofficial European Community" more integrated in the Community's development policy.

Breakdown by sector of projects cofinanced in 1978

Sector	Number of projects	Amount in EUA	%
Agriculture	61	3 374 579	28.5
Education	54	2 714 115	23
Health	47	2 362 764	20
Economy	17	516 631	4
Communications (means of transport)	21	474 893	4
Migrants and refugees	2	42 385	0.5
Welfare	29	2 376 372	20
Total		11 861 739	100%



As regards the cofinancing of NGO operations in the field, a number of projects represent a good deal more than one-off operations and in fact constitute an appreciable contribution to development; opportunities are also emerging for directly involving the NGOs in certain EDF projects in food aid or emergency aid schemes, in agreement with the populations and governments concerned.

NGO cooperation in the field of development education in the Community has been started on an efficient basis and substantial progress can be expected in 1979.

### Operations throughout the world, but predominantly Africa

The projects cofinanced with the NGOs also enable operations to be conducted for the benefit of all developing countries, and particularly the poorest, without any account being taken of the nature of their relations with the Community (i.e. associated or non-associated), the part of the world in which they are situated or the political slant of their regimes:

The Commission is providing technical and financial assistance for ACP countries taking part in trade events on the programme and will be taking particular responsibility for booking space, building and decorating stands, supplying brochures and leaflets for visitors from the trade and paying flat-rate reimbursements and transport costs for each ACP country taking part.

**The Berlin international fair (3-11 March 1979)** was the first event on the Community programme, and more than 100 000 people visited the ACP stands. Seminars for the trade, run by the Berlin fair management, were the occasion for a thoroughgoing discussion of the problems of developing European tourism in Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific.

The International food fair was held in London for the first time on 12-16 March. Six ACP countries took part, with Commission assistance, as did the African Groundnut Council (an organization combining the continent's six main groundnut producers).

18 000 people from the food industry had the opportunity to contact ACP representatives and the commercial results of this first appearance on the British market were well worth having.

The Brussels holiday/tourist fair opened at the Palais du Centenaire on 23 March. There were 15 ACP stands (Community programme) providing information, presenting craft objects and tourist documentaries and offering free samples of coffee, cocoa and tea.

The Brussels fair management can press conferences and sessions for international tour promoters who were thus able to talk to ACP representatives and discuss the current problems of tourism overseas. □

Breakdown by continent (EUA)

	1976	1977	1978	Total
Africa	1 145 740	1 855 145	6 593 042	9 593 927
Asia	634 704	1 523 099	3 251 321	5 409 124
Central and Latin America	719 556	506 453	1 796 033	3 022 042
Middle East	—	115 303	221 343	336 646
	2 500 000	4 000 000	11 861 739	18 361 739

## TRADE PROMOTION

The Community programme of ACP attendance at international trade events in 1979 has been drawn up with

the cooperation of the ACP secretariat in Brussels and in liaison with the Commission delegations in the ACP countries. It contains 12 general and nine specialized fairs, three of them in Africa, three in Belgium, five in France, four in Germany, three in Italy, one in the Netherlands, and two in the UK.

*The Malian and Kenyan stands*



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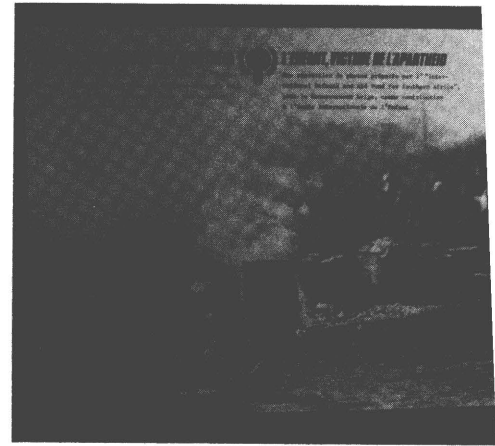
## GENERAL INFORMATION

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### Belgium

**Henri Simonet, foreign minister:**

**“We must be unremitting in the fight against Apartheid”**

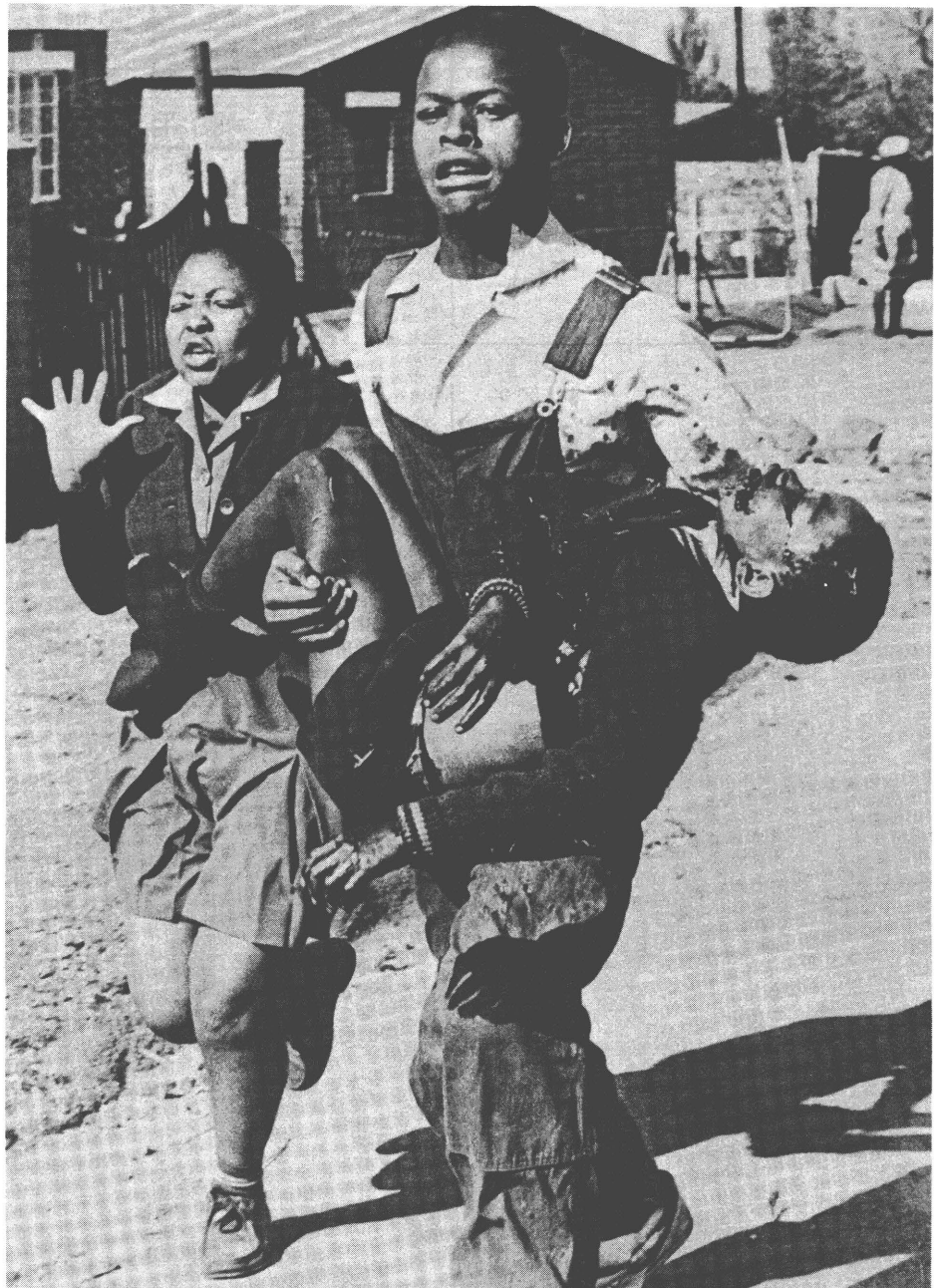


An exhibition on racialism and the crimes of the South African government was organized in Brussels on 21 March by the Belgian government. The International Defence and Aid Fund for Southern Africa (London) and the Brussels office of the UN took part. This is the first time that a government in western Europe has organized anything of this kind, giving shocking, disgusting illustrations of apartheid, South Africa's humiliating doctrine of negation of the black man.

This anti-apartheid exhibition was inaugurated by socialist Henri Simonet, Belgian minister for foreign affairs and one-time member of the EEC Commission.

After listening to a message from Leslie O. Harriman (Nigeria), head of the UN special committee against apartheid, read by Thérèse Gastaut, head of the UN office, Henri Simonet expressed his sympathy and solidarity with the victims of apartheid. He considered that racialism in South Africa and other countries in the area was the only threat to peace and that it bore all the hallmarks of a situation which could lead to war in Africa and even beyond its frontiers. He said that the only worthy thing for a democratic country to do was to fight apartheid. Such a fight must be a constant one, as exhibitions and other, occasional schemes would have no lasting effect. Simonet called for continuous action against apartheid.

Apartheid is a vice, which, if not wiped out completely, could appear normal. And the South African régime has indeed made it appear normal with its battery of sophisticated racial policies which are beyond the powers of a healthy imagination. These establish racial segregation in all walks of African life. Africans are confined to permanent residence in small areas of the national territory (87% for 4 300 000 whites and 13% for 21 000 000 blacks), their sexual relations are restricted by the Immorality Act, they are discriminated against at work, at school, in their leisure time and their sporting activities, when they want to travel (there is a system of passes) and if they need medical care (see photos). □



**Hector Petersen, in his brother's arms. The first child to be shot by South African police at Soweto in June 1976.**

***The means of fighting apartheid are nothing compared to the means of supporting it.***





## Apartheid and children

"Apartheid and racialism are particularly odious when children are the victims. We must focus our attention not just on the brutal, inhuman massacre of children at Sharpeville in 1960 and Soweto in 1976, but also on the death and infinite suffering brought about daily by being deprived of equal access to food, education and health care and by being humiliated because of the colour of ones skin. These evils must go if we want to build a new international order based on freedom and human dignity". Leslie O. Harriman, in his message to Henri Simonet.

UPI

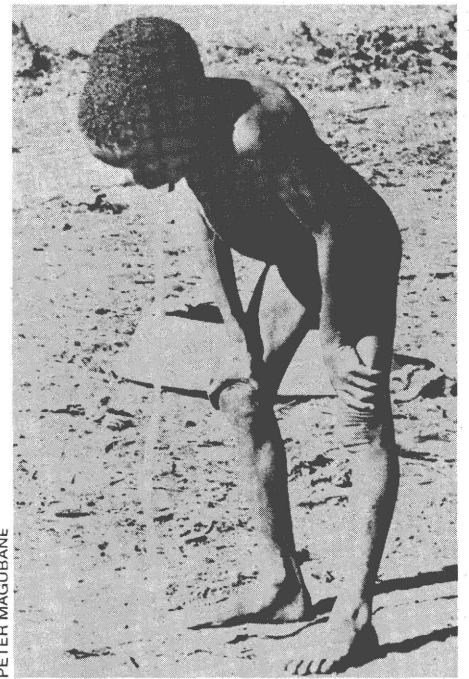


Soweto (from the top): Another child killed by the police. Students come to the aid of the wounded child.

(Above): Thousands of Africans in Cape Province have nowhere to live and are forced to take shelter on waste ground where they are often attacked by police and police dogs. (Below): Refugees in Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) suffer the same fate.







PETER MAGUBANE

**South Africa is considered to be one of the “best developed” and “richest” countries in the world. The poverty and desolation of the majority of the population can only be blamed on the racist policy of the government.**



TONY MCGRATH

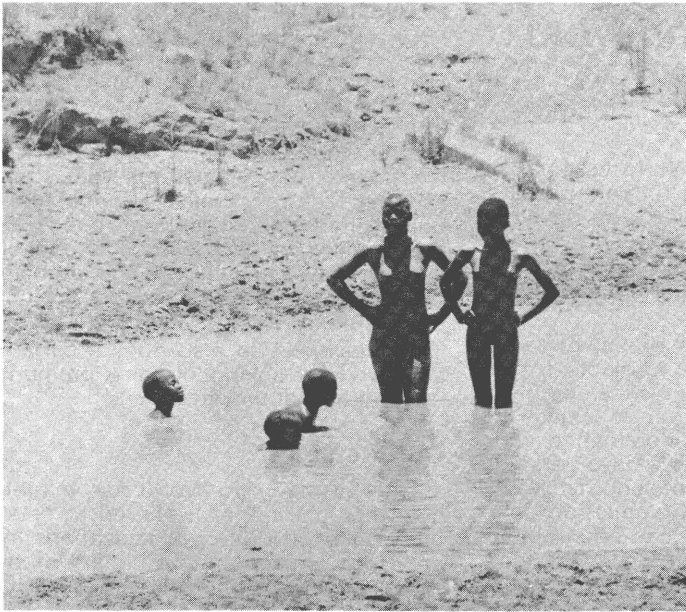
EVE ARNOLD



PETER MAGUBANE



1312 TONY MCGRATH



1313 TONY MCGRATH



1315 PETER SANDEN

**The whole aim of South African policy is to generate and feed racial hatred. (Above left): Students demonstrating against being taught in Afrikaans.**

**(Right): Kassinga refugee camp where 600 people were killed in 1978. The children are no longer afraid.**

**How much longer can South Africa get away with its defiance of Africa and the international community?**



1314 PETER MAGUBANE



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## MAGHREB-MASHREQ

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For the second time since the Maghreb and Mashreq agreements came into force, the Commission of the EEC has taken a series of financing decisions involving these countries. On 12 March it allocated funds for the following projects:

### All the Maghreb and Mashreq countries

Grant under the accelerated procedure for technical cooperation: 3 000 000 EUA.

In order to get the cooperation agreements underway as quickly as possible, the Commission has set aside 3 000 000 EUA for use only on technical cooperation projects costing less than 500 000 EUA. The areas covered are those which are complementary or preparatory to investment projects planned by the countries involved, and training.

### Jordan

Credit for small scale farming—special loan of 3 700 000 EUA.

The Community's funds will provide credit for individuals or groups of farmers in isolated areas to enable them to develop their agricultural production. The object of the project is to reduce the amount of food and other agricultural produce imported.

### Egypt

Study for a land improvement scheme: grant of 950 000 EUA.

The study will involve the development of 65 000 acres of salt flats in the Nile delta (Hamoul district) which would mean an increase of 1% in cultivable land. The study will be followed by an execution phase, with the financing assured under the EEC-Egypt financial protocol.

### Egypt

Study of ways to improve agricultural storage installations—grant of 500 000 EUA.

The study will mean a classification of existing storage facilities in villages, districts and governorships, and proposals on ways of improving them.

### Tunisia

Multiannual training programme (1979-81) for the national sanitary office;

Grant of 500 000 EUA. This state body is responsible for all sanitary improvements in Tunisia, and the Community's funds will allow it to overcome the training problems it has faced since it began. □

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## EUROPE-THIRD WORLD ASSOCIATION

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The Europe-Third World Association has just celebrated its 10th anniversary. It supports small projects on developing countries and is financed by individual private contributions. It has just produced a report on its decade of activities.

The Association has already provided aid for fifty different projects in ten years, thirty-eight in Africa, eight in Latin America and four in Asia. One reason for Africa's predominance is the fact that many members have personal ties with the continent; another is the help given by many Commission delegates. Concentration has been chiefly on rural development, which is a reflection of the Association's desire to help the poorest. Twenty projects involved agriculture and the organization of rural communities (extension services, various kinds of farm equipment, equipping of cooperatives, etc.), with water supply projects coming in second place (eleven). Three projects involved the improvement of transport infrastructure (construction of bridges on tracks). Eight projects were aimed at developing artisanal activities (practical training, equipment and facilities), three of these being in villages. Lastly, training accounted for eight projects, mainly of a technical nature.

The success rate of the projects is high: only three out of fifty projects have failed. In some projects, the services of extension workers, often an essential element, have disappeared and have not been replaced and so the Association's contribution has had to be reconsidered and stopped.

Very often projects are financed which have already received aid from the Association. Eleven out of the twenty commitments entered into in 1977 were for projects in which the Association had already been involved—this is evidence of the desire for a continuing relationship.

If a project involving the provision of equipment does not go hand in hand with structural and social change its impact on the spot will be very small. Hence the importance of finding project leaders who give priority to the social development of man. Although extension work has been carried out almost exclusively by Europeans in the past, there are increasing numbers of nationals doing such work now. The Association encourages contacts with project leaders from the recipient country itself via an exchange of information, correspondence and direct contact in Brussels or on the spot, while taking every care to ensure that the funds are properly used. The assistance and advice given by many Commission delegates in the countries themselves is extremely valuable for assessing certain dossiers and monitoring certain operations.

## Providing information and arousing interest

In order to involve the officials of the Community's institutions more closely in its activities and to increase membership the Association organizes various kinds of events every year such as films, lectures, social evenings, tombolas, gift shops, exhibitions, concerts, distributions of poems and, as part of its day-to-day activity, participation in its committee meetings by the project leaders themselves.

The Association also does a certain amount of lobbying of the Community's political authorities.

## Contacts

The Europe-Third World Association does not act alone. It started to establish links with other organizations by approaching Belgian voluntary non-governmental organizations and the magazine "Agenor" in 1969, and the European Movement in 1970. In 1973/74 it acted as an international clearing house for private projects to help the Sahel. The Association has been cooperating since 1976 with Femmes d'Europe and ATD-Fourth World, and since 1977 with Fast for a Change. Close contacts have been established over the years with two other private development aid organizations, with which we have co-financed several operations. These are Oxfam, which carries out projects (in Niger, Vietnam, etc.) and provides disaster relief (Guatemala, India, etc.) on the spot and the OECD's "Comité de lutte contre la faim et pour le développement" whose aims and activities are parallel to ours. Cooperation with these bodies has enabled us to participate in projects whose scale was beyond our means, and to extend our activities outside Africa. Femmes d'Europe has on several occasions taken over from the Association in financing projects outside our natural scope (schemes involving health, children, etc.).

## Prospects

The Association's committee came to realize that these aid-based operations were not enough in themselves to fulfil the aspirations of all those who are concerned about the Third World.

One weekend in 1975 some twenty members took part in a think tank to evaluate the Association's activities in the past and work out guidelines for the future. This is still bearing fruit.

More and more members are feeling the need to back up concrete aid and short-term information drives with a sustained effort to change ways of thinking and political structures; there is little point in going to great trouble to raise funds, only to see the efforts of those benefiting from the projects wasted because of fluctuations in the world prices for their products. There is little point in helping people to live while governments are delivering to others the means to kill.



## List of projects

### Ten years of ETWA activity

(Financing completed - excluding current commitments)

			Bfrs
<b>1. Africa</b>			
<b>Burundi</b>	Imbo	Rural motivation centre	100 225
<b>Cameroon</b>	Batobo	Student scholarship fund	150 318
	Galim	Irrigation	70 289
	Doumé	Lorry for housing cooperative	631 719
	Alindao	Agricultural training centre	182 730
<b>Central African Empire</b>			
<b>Ethiopia</b>	Angar-Gutin	Agricultural cooperative	350 000
<b>Gambia</b>		Fishing cooperative	389 833
<b>Madagascar</b>		Agricultural credit, equipment for welfare centre	46 535
<b>Mali</b>	Koni	Pig farm	200 432
	Bandiagara	Irrigation	57 000
	Bamako	Equipment for the manufacture of artificial limbs for young disabled people	306 812
	Dogons	Irrigation	170 930
	San	Irrigation - market gardening	78 254
<b>Morocco</b>	Tata	Promotion of artisanal activities	50 260
<b>Niger</b>	Tin Telloust	Promotion of agriculture - Irrigation	590 000
<b>Rwanda</b>	Rutengo	Water supply	83 659
	Ngarama	Farming small animals	127 222
<b>Senegal</b>	Faoune	Promotion of agriculture and motivation of rural communities	247 398
	Taiba	Solar apparatus for drying cashew nuts	44 002
	Nioumoune	Wells and promotion of artisanal activities	135 341
<b>Uganda</b>	Gougnang	Promotion of agriculture	14 258
<b>Upper Volta</b>	Ibo	Promotion of agriculture	141 746
	Imansgho	Training centre	152 340
	Bobo-Dioulasso	Training equipment for young people	143 945
	Ouahigouya	Equipment for young farmers' association	1 182 767
	Dedougou	Village wells	281 988
	Goundi	Agricultural centre - wells - agricultural and artisanal equipment	246 762
	Zorgo	Village wells	100 000
	Tenkodogo	Agricultural equipment	36 201
	Oudelan	Promotion of agriculture	55 169
<b>Zaire</b>	Djuma	Promotion of agriculture	186 068
	Bukavu	Equipment for artisanal activity centre	100 000
	Odiofa	Construction of rural bridges	131 819
	Kinshasa	Moped repair workshop	63 863
<b>2. Latin America</b>			
<b>Brazil</b>	Igarape-Grande	Water engineering installation	72 705
	Japarotuba	Aid to minifundios	628 939
<b>Chile</b>	Santiago	Aid to welfare centre	17 377
<b>Ecuador</b>	Chamaca	Construction of rural bridge	186 973
<b>Guatemala</b>	Huehuetenango	Library for secondary school	35 078
<b>Peru</b>		Artisanal activities	142 380
		Mill	57 171
<b>Haiti</b>	Tortuga	Landing stage	75 000
<b>3. Other</b>			
<b>Korea (republic)</b>	Hayang	Selected livestock	52 131
<b>India</b>	Panchgani	Agricultural unit	18 545
	Sevapur	Promotion of agriculture and welfare	90 000
<b>Lebanon</b>	Choukine	Vocational training centre	225 600
		<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>8 451 784</b>
		Grant for student of veterinary medicine	314 000
		Grant for student	36 000
		<b>GRAND TOTAL</b>	<b>8 801 784</b>
		<b>Emergency aid</b>	
<b>Peru</b>		30 000	<b>Vietnam</b> 400 000
<b>Bangladesh</b>		280 000	<b>Eritrea</b> 200 000
		892 777	<b>India</b> 200 000
<b>Sahel</b>		139 471	<b>Burundi refugees</b> 5 000
<b>Ethiopia</b>		150 000	
<b>Guatemala</b>		350 000	<b>2 647 248</b>

The Association is hampered in setting up such a reflexion group by the voluntary nature of its activities and the fact that its members can afford to spend only a limited amount of time on the work. On the other hand, it has plenty of material to draw on, for voluntary organizations that have a firmer base have already reached a very advanced stage in their thinking on many subjects, at both national and international level.

The association will continue to honour its specially European commitment towards the Third World, while respecting the different opinions and political ideas of its members. □

## FOOD AID

**The Commission has adopted its proposals to the Council on the food aid programmes for 1979.**

**Programmes totalling 540 million EUA**

The programmes proposed relate to quantities covered in the 1979 Budget, namely:

720 500 t cereals  
150 000 t milk powder  
45 000 t butteroil.

The cost of these programmes is put at 540 million EUA, including about 57 million EUA for transport and distribution costs.

**The Commission will propose an increase in the amount of cereals and butteroil aid for this year**

In the case of cereals, the Council had not agreed to provide in the 1979 budget sufficient funds to cover the increased aid (1 135 000 t) proposed by the Commission, but had undertaken to raise the Community's direct contribution(1) to this level when the food aid convention was renewed in connection with the negotiation of the international wheat agreement.

As these negotiations have been adjourned, the Commission intends to propose that the Council nevertheless make provision for the intended increase and include the relevant appropriation in a future supplementary budget. For butteroil the Commission reiterates its initial proposal that the programme be increased to 55 000 tonnes.

### 10 m tonne objective

These increases would go further towards meeting the growing needs—particularly in the poorest countries. The international community is still a long way from achieving the objective

(1) This would raise the total contribution from the Community and the Member States from its present level of 1 287 000 t to 1 650 000 t.

of 10 million t cereals set in 1974 by the World Food Conference.

The Commission has noted a sharp increase in the amounts requested: 3 226 000 t this year, as against 2 680 000 t last year.

There is also growing demand for butteroil, largely as a result of the importance assumed by projects for developing the dairy industry, such as the project being undertaken in India (Flood II).

#### Allocation of aid

The proposed allocations are based on a combination of three criteria: level of food requirements; level of per capita income; balance of payments deficit.

Cereals: 140 000 t allocated to international organizations or institutions (World Food Programme, UNRWA, UNHCR, etc.) and 524 300 t to countries, the largest quantities being sent to the South East Asian countries and Egypt. There is a reserve of 56 200 t.

Milk powder: organizations 66 800 t (of which 30 000 t to the WFP and 25 000 t to non-governmental organizations). Direct allocations 78 500 t (of which 31 000 t to India).

Butteroil: organizations 13 200 t. Direct allocations 31 300 t, the largest quantities going to South East Asia and the Middle East. □

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## ROADS

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### African highways conference — Nairobi

The fourth conference is scheduled for Nairobi on 20-25 January 1980. It will be attended by top representatives of the African governments and highways experts from all over the world.

The main items on the agenda will be international road links between Europe, Africa and Asia, road construction and maintenance; materials and equipment, little-used roads, road organization and management, financing, haulage, town traffic (safety, signals, signposting and lighting).

The conference is being organized by Kenya's ministry of public works and the IRF (the International Road Federation), with the cooperation of the Economic Commission for Africa, the Organization of African Unity and various specialized international bodies.

To register or to obtain details, write to:

International Road Federation,  
63, rue de Lausanne,  
CH 1202 Geneva.

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## CLUB OF DAKAR

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Mr Diawara, chairman of the Club of Dakar, announced on 1 March to the press, suggestions to strengthen cooperation between Europe and Africa, under the new ACP-EEC Convention. He pointed out the club which was formed in 1974, represented open and frank "North-South dialogue" since it involved no commitment on the part of governments.

Mr Diawara, the former Planning Minister of the Ivory Coast, said that the Club intended to organise two Community-backed meetings this year between European economic circles in Europe and African leaders. The first of these would be held in Hamburg in April and would discuss mining problems in Africa, whilst the second, he said, would be held in Lyon in June. □

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## EURO-ARAB DIALOGUE

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The Euro-Arab dialogue committee dealing with questions relating to trade met in Tunis in March under the chairmanship of Mr Ismail Khélil (Tunisia), with the European party being led by Mr H. Anderson, a director in the departments of the Commission, to discuss the two aspects of the dialogue which directly concern trade:

— the setting up of a Euro-Arab office for trade cooperation, whose task it would be to promote the development and diversification of trade;

— establishing institutional links between the two parties for questions of trade. The Arab party stressed that the dialogue should come to some concrete agreement in this particular question, by concluding an overall region-by-region Convention. From the Arab point of view these institutional relations should be of a preferential nature.

The Community already has preferential relations with eleven Arab-League countries (four within the Lomé Convention, seven under Mediterranean agreements), and with the rest it has "generalised preferences" agreements.

The Arab countries which do not enjoy bilateral preference relations with the EEC are basically Persian Gulf countries and Libya, which, due to oil exports have a largely positive trade balance as far as Europe is concerned. Recently, these countries have cut back on imports from the EEC, and at the same time, new increases in the price of oil are going to boost their surplus.

The two delegations have been looking into the question of what might be included in a possible Euro-Arab Convention. □

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## SOUTH EAST ASIA

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Following the visit on 15 February by Mr Poul Hartling, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, the Commission decided to make a substantial contribution to the UNHCR programme in aid of refugees in South East Asia.

This contribution is to total 5 million EUA, 1 million to be paid immediately from available budget funds and the remaining 4 million to be handed over as a second instalment once a supplementary budget has been adopted.

This money will assist the UNHCR in financing a relief programme to cope with the rapidly increasing flood of refugees, recently swelled by a further 79 000—30 000 from Laos, 47 000 from Vietnam and 2 000 from Kampuchea—who have fled to neighbouring countries: 32 000 to Thailand, 36 000 to Malaysia and 11 000 elsewhere.

This programme, expected to cost \$47 million, will be concentrated mainly on providing emergency relief (shelter, medical supplies and treatment, and so on) until the refugees can be transferred to host countries able to give them a permanent home.

For some years the Community and the member states have contributed to the financing of UNHCR activities. In 1978 such assistance amounted to nearly \$54 million out of the organization's total income of \$138 million (i.e. approximately 40%), including over \$14 million in the form of a specifically Community contribution. □

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## COCOA

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The EEC and its Member States took part in the conference to negotiate the third international cocoa agreement in Geneva on 29 January-23 February 1979. On the community's side, the negotiations were based on the Council directives, following the Commission's January 1979 statement.

All the main exporters and importers were represented, as was the USA, a non-member of the 1975 agreement that expires on 30 September next.

Cocoa was the third largest agricultural export (after coffee and sugar) from the developing countries in 1978.

In spite of progress on many of the economic and administrative provisions in the draft agreement (essentially based on international buffer stocks), it did not prove possible to reach a satisfactory conclusion because of prices, which determine recourse to the buffer stocks. The producers based their demands on a minimum price of US \$1.86 per lb (costs of

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## UNCTAD V

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### Common fund — third session of the negotiations

The 3rd negotiating session on the common fund, held in Geneva from 12 to 16 March and extended until 20 March, resulted in overall agreement on the fundamental points.

The common fund will be in two parts. Part one, \$400 million, will be financed from the balance of flat-rate contributions (\$1 million per country), once the \$70 million for part two have been deducted, and by direct, scaled payments.

If 150 countries are involved, there will be \$80 million flat-rate contributions and \$320 million scaled contributions.

On top of the direct contributions, part one will also have the resources arising from international product agreements and arrangements, i.e. deposits (1/3 of maximum financial needs), stock holding certificates, available capital and guarantees from countries belonging to the product agreements.

Part two will have \$70 million from the flat-rate contributions plus voluntary contributions which should amount to \$280 million, giving the target figure of \$350 in all. There will be an advisory committee (responsibilities and composition yet to be defined) for part two.

There will be a single voting system and two qualified majorities (75% for decisions of a constitutional nature or where there are considerable financial implications for the member countries and 66% for other major questions). According to geographical area, the Group of 77 would get 47% of votes, group B 42%, D 8% and China 3%.

Certain countries in group B (not the Community) and the Group of 77 have expressed reservations. An interim committee is due to meet fairly quickly so that a final negotiating conference can be held before the end of 1979.

The Community, as the group B spokesman made quite clear at a press conference, has played a constructive part in the negotiations. Several elements in the agreement are very like Commission proposals (on the deposit-/credit balance, target for voluntary contributions, list of applicable measures for part two, advisory committee).

In conclusion, the agreement reached in Geneva in March could go a long way to improving the climate of the discussions at UNCTAD and in the continuation of the north-south dialogue.

### EEC Council satisfied with progress

The Council held a general exchange of views at the beginning of April, on

the progress made in the preparation of the common position of the Community and the Member States for the UNCTAD V.

The Council expressed satisfaction at the recent agreement in Geneva on the fundamental aspects of the Common Fund. The exchange of views also enabled the Commission and the delegations to emphasize a number of topics which they hoped would be given special attention during the further preparation of the Community position.

Finally, the Council approved a series of preliminary guidelines which covered virtually all of the items of substance on the agenda for the Manila conference. It instructed the permanent representatives committee to continue finalizing the common position so that it would be ready in good time for the beginning of the conference. It agreed to confirm this common position at its next meeting on 8 May and if necessary to take decisions at that meeting on the outstanding problems. □

### Main items on the agenda in Manila

The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development has finished the groundwork for the fifth UNCTAD conference which will be held in Manila from 7 May to 1 June. The first UNCTAD conference was held in 1964 in Geneva, and successively in New Delhi, Santiago and Nairobi at four year intervals.

During its meetings the Committee discussed questions of procedure (in particular it decided that the chairman of the Conference should be Asian) as well as the agenda. Furthermore, the decision was made to invite Cuba to hold UNCTAD VI in Havana.

As to what is going to happen in Manila, the Chairman, **Mr Castellanos** stressed the importance of introducing structural changes into economic and trade relations to ensure that the longer-term development targets which the United Nations Organization has set itself can be achieved. **UNCTAD Secretary General Corea** suggested that the secretariat's role should be modified in order to be able to face up to the increasing burden of its work. Mr Corea was happy with the progress made by the Common Fund for raw materials, which he thought had improved the general climate greatly.

**The spokesman for the industrialised countries, Mr Matthias** (West Germany) also said that he was pleased with the progress made by the Common fund and that he hoped the articles of the agreement could be adopted by the end of the year. The spokesman for the 77, Mr Xuto (Thailand), stressed the need for long-term structural changes, referring to the conclusions the 77 had come to in the Arusha meeting in February.

The main issues on the agenda for Manila, which will largely be discussed in negotiating groups, will be as follows:

production in Ivory Coast), whereas the consumers had fixed their basic price in the light of the probable price levels in 1980-81, assessed at an average 90-95 cents, bearing in mind probable trends in production and consumption, the shortage and very high prices of recent years having provoked an increasing use of substitute products as well as a resurgence of investments in cocoa production.

There will be consultations between exporting and importing countries, at the instigation of the chairman of the conference and with the help of the executive director of the International Cocoa Organization, with a view to asking the secretary-general of UNCTAD to fix a date for reopening of the conference. □

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## MOZAMBIQUE

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Mozambique has been granted 80 000 EUA in emergency aid by the Community to provide a relief programme for the victims of a recent cyclone. The programme will be undertaken by an intermediary, the non-governmental organization Caritas Germanica, in cooperation with its sister organization Caritas Mozambicana. The aid will consist of the rapid provision of essential material, in particular foodstuffs, agricultural equipment and blankets. □

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## YUGOSLAVIA

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In preparation for the resumption of negotiations with Yugoslavia on a new agreement, the EEC Council held an exchange of views on the volume of financial aid to be granted to Yugoslavia under the financial protocol to be concluded at the same time as the new agreement with that country. □

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## TURKEY

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The EEC Council continued the exchange of views concerning the development of the association with Turkey.

In view of the importance which it attaches to relations between the Community and Turkey under the association, it asked the permanent representatives committee to expedite its discussions on all aspects of the matter so that it could—at its next meeting on 8 May 1979—adopt the position to be held by the Community at the next meeting of the EEC-Turkey Association Council. □



- World trade and economic situation, and the need for structural change
- Developments in international trade
- Commodities
- Manufactures and semi-manufactures
- International financial and monetary issues
- Technology
- Shipping
- Least developed, land-locked and island developing countries
- Trade relations between countries having different economic and social systems
- Economic cooperation among the developing countries. □

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## CODE OF CONDUCT

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### Second session of the UN conference on a code of conduct for the transfer of technology

UNCTAD ran its second session of the UN conference on an international code of conduct for the transfer of technology in Geneva from 26 February to 9 March 1979.

Progress was made with the drafting of the various chapters of the code and, in particular, with designing international observation/revision machinery to monitor and, where necessary, correct the practical operation of the code (which will not be obligatory).

The negotiations on this system will probably be continued at UNCTAD V. However, in view of the complex and technical nature of the drafting procedures, the code itself will only be able to be finalized by a third session of the conference in question.

Representatives of the relevant Commission departments were at the conference on 26 February-9 March as observers and coordinators of the Community position, given that the negotiations on the code face the Community with certain problems, particularly as regards compatibility of the future code with Community law. □

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## SOLAR ENERGY

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### EEC holds international conference

The international conference on solar energy for development organized by the EEC Commission at Varese (Italy) on 26-29 March was, by most accounts, an outstanding success.

International and regional organizations and 82 countries were represented at the conference by some 270 delegates, who examined the possibilities offered by solar energy in meeting

the developing countries' energy requirements, particularly in rural areas. Solar energy research scientists and technicians exchanged information and held discussions with specialists in rural engineering, agronomics, hydraulics, power, industry, telecommunications, education, finance and regional and international cooperation.

Preparatory meetings held last autumn in East Africa (Nairobi), West Africa (Bamako), the Arab countries (Amman), Latin America (Caracas) and South-East Asia (New Delhi) led to the definition of five main issues for the Varese conference: water, power, heating and cooling, international and regional cooperation, and environmental and social questions.

Leading figures at the conference included Sir George Porter (Nobel Prize for chemistry), EEC energy commissioner G. Brunner and the Italian minister for the coordination of scientific and technological research, D. Antoniozzi.

The introduction to the main conclusions of the conference is as follows.

Solar energy appears to be among the most promising energy options for developing countries, especially in the rural areas. This is due to:

- particularly favourable conditions in terms of solar energy input, either in the form of direct radiation or biomass or wind, etc.;
- decentralized needs not involving the infrastructures of conventional energy networks;
- consistency with some existing technological capabilities: some solar energy techniques, such as passive or biomass uses, have been extensively used for ages and only require improvements.

In the medium and long-terms, the main impact of large-scale utilization of solar energy in the developing countries will be the achievement of the following objectives:

- to promote as much as possible their energy self-sufficiency, allowing them to reduce their energy dependence;
- to be a vehicle for further development of the country in the fields of living conditions and food production, development of labour skills and employment.

There is general agreement that regional and international cooperation is highly desirable to develop solar energy.

Hence, developing countries should cooperate on an equal basis among themselves and with the industrialized countries.

Cooperation should include joint design of projects, complementary production in the developing and industrialized countries by using existing capabilities, and the development of indigenous skills.

Developing countries should not become just consumers of solar energy

technology but should be involved at all stages of its development and use. Only in this way will it be possible for solar energy to help create a technological attitude in rural areas.

In any case, developments should be based on an analysis of the site-specific needs and conditions of use which may exist in the various regions and also inside particular countries. □

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## YEMEN ARAB REPUBLIC

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The Community has agreed emergency aid of \$100 000 (approx. 75 000 EUA) for people affected by the conflict between the two Yemens.

The aid request came from the non-governmental organization Catholic Relief Services and is destined to help provide the essential needs of some 45 000 people who fled the area of conflict in the interior.

Total needs, which are estimated at \$355 000, of which \$75 000 is at present being provided by the United Kingdom and Catholic Relief Services. □

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## GREECE

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The European Community will shortly sign up its tenth member state. The treaty of accession for Greece to join the Community will be formally signed in Athens on 28 May.

The present nine countries will each have to ratify the treaty before Greece's accession to the Community becomes properly effective, as from 1 January 1981.

A transition period will then follow to allow the Greek economy to get into line with the others.

Greece has had an association agreement with the Community since 1962. □

### Conference

The centre for tropical veterinary medicine in Edinburgh is organizing a conference on intensive stockraising in developing countries from 12 to 14 November 1979.

It is being held for all those involved in the rearing of animals in developing countries and will cover a number of fields such as feed, improving herds, intensive meat and milk production, financial problems, training and marketing.

In 1974 the centre held a conference on beef production which was attended by 230 participants from 35 countries.

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# EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

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## European Council in Paris

**The heads of government defined a number of policy guidelines at their meeting on 12 and 13 March**

The European Council session ended with the "conclusions of the Presidency", which replace the final communiqué, as follows:

"The European Council had a broad exchange of views on the situation in the Community in the light of the latest developments on the world political and economic scene. It noted that these developments involved new risks and considerable uncertainty. The Community must face them resolutely. By further strengthening its cohesion and improving its internal equilibrium, it will be able to make an effective contribution to international economic development and the consolidation of world peace.

### Economic and social situation

The European Council noted that although there were several positive factors, the economic and social situation in the Community remained unsatisfactory in various respects.

Owing, in particular, to the concerted action laid down by the European Council in July 1978, which should be continued unflinchingly, a resumption in growth has been observed in most member states. It should continue during the coming months unless the world economic situation is disturbed by a continuation of the tensions now being experienced on the oil market. In

this respect, the European Council asked the Council (Ministers for the Economy and for Finance) to examine the possible consequences of these tensions on the Community's economic prospects.

While the rise in prices slowed down in 1978 and the differences between the rates of inflation in the various member states were reduced, further tensions have become apparent in the first months of 1979. The fight against inflation must therefore continue to be the first objective of economic policy in the member states, and primarily of those where prices are still rising fast. Its success is an essential condition for establishing the basis for stable and lasting growth. The European Council also noted that growth is currently strong in those countries with the lowest rates of inflation.

The balance of payments situation has improved in several member states. However, there are still excessive differences between the various countries, which will have to be reduced. It is also likely to be compromised by the deterioration of the world oil situation.

In this context, the European Council noted that trade relations between Japan and the Community continue to be seriously out of balance, to the detriment of the latter. It expressed the wish that the consultations which the Com-

mission has started with the Japanese government should lead this year to substantial progress towards opening up the Japanese market to imports of manufactured goods from the Community. The European Council also acknowledged the importance of the implementation of the Japanese government's expressed intention to increase its official development aid significantly.

In spite of the resumption in growth, the employment situation continues to be a cause of anxiety. The continuation of the efforts made to improve economic structures is an essential factor for increasing employment. These efforts will have to be supplemented by specific measures designed to help to reduce unemployment.

### Employment and social policy

The European Council devoted a large part of its proceedings to employment and social policy. It acknowledged that priority should be given to improving the employment situation, which continues to give rise to concern.

The European Council emphasized the importance of consultation with both sides of industry at the national and Community levels. It welcomed the contribution by the Economic and Social Committee. The European Council noted with satisfaction the intention of the Ministers for Social Affairs to take the necessary measures to improve the work of the Community tripartite meetings between worker's representatives' organizations, employers' representatives' organizations and the Community. It invited both sides of industry to take the appropriate steps to develop their dialogue at Community level, where appropriate on a sectorial basis.

The European Council confirmed the importance it attached to improving youth employment and its wish that the Council keep the new aids from the Social Fund in favour of this category under review. It instructed the Council to study the following measures which should help, along with others, to improve the employment situation:

- to make training better adapted to employment by developing staggered training schemes, i.e. by coupling practical training obtained through the exercise of an occupation at the place of work with theoretical training in a training establishment, body or department;
- to limit the systematic use of overtime;
- to improve the employment of women by encouraging diversification of the jobs open to them and giving women greater access to vocational training.

The European Council stressed the importance of social measures taken by the Community in favour of workers in the iron and steel industry and other sectors in difficulty.

The European Council requested the Commission to continue its efforts to

**In the front row the heads of government. From left to right Mr Jørgensen (Denmark); Mr Callaghan (United Kingdom); Mr Thorn (Luxembourg); Mr Lynch (Ireland); Mr Giscard d'Estaing (France); Mr Andreotti (Italy); Mr Van Agt (Netherlands); Mr Vanden Boeynants (Belgium) and Mr Schmidt (Germany)**



improve the effectiveness of the European Social Fund's action by directing its assistance more selectively in order to meet the current employment difficulties better.

The Council also noted the importance of a coordinated contribution by the various Community financial instruments to the intensification of the fight against unemployment.

The European Council requested the Council to report back to it at its next meeting on the practical measures which have been carried out following the guidelines given above.

The European Council asked the Commission to submit a communication on the social and economic implications of concerted work-sharing.

## Energy

1. The European Council observes that the current state of the world oil market confirms the urgent need to implement the decisions taken by the Community to reduce its dependence and contribute to an improved world energy balance.

The Community must accordingly continue and intensify its action in order to reach its medium-term objectives and to improve its immediate situation.

2. The Member States renew the undertaking given in Bremen in 1978 to reduce the level of the Community's dependence on energy imports to 50% by 1985. By that date the Community will limit its oil imports to the level reached in 1978. In 1979, the Community and the Member States will pursue a policy designed to reduce oil consumption to 500 million tonnes, i.e. around 25 million tonnes less than estimated.

The Community and the Member States will step up their efforts to make the best possible use of Community hydrocarbon and coal resources. The programmes for the production of electricity from nuclear sources must be strengthened and speeded up whenever conditions so permit. The use of solar and geothermal energy must likewise be further developed.

With regard to energy saving, the new measures taken at national or Community level must not adversely affect the level of economic activity in the Member States and will therefore be aimed particularly at the consumption of energy by government departments and public authorities, heating of business and residential premises and at a more rational use of energy by motor vehicles. The price policies of the Member States must be designed to contribute to the attainment of these objectives.

The Council (energy) will initiate an examination of the energy policies of the Member States. As regards production, it will ensure that these policies are convergent and will adopt joint objectives to support this convergence. It will adopt the necessary provisions at Community level to pursue the devel-

opment of oil technologies, promote the use of coal and nuclear energy and make use of new sources of energy through an increased research and development effort and through demonstration projects.

As regards energy saving, the Council (energy) will ensure that the Member States' policies are comparable, with particular reference to the efforts which they make to contribute to the solution of the current difficulties.

It will carry out the desired harmonisation and will determine any additional means of intervention which might be applied at Community level.

3. To enable the Community and the Member States to face crisis situations: (a) the competent institutions of the Community must finalise the Community crisis mechanism, the principles of which were adopted in 1977; (b) the Council (energy) will regularly take stock of national measures;

4. The European Council affirms its conviction that the present tension on the oil market creates a worrying situation. Any worsening in this situation would constitute a serious danger of the world economy.

Maintaining the balance of the world energy market presupposes major efforts by all countries: by importing countries, in particular the United States, Japan and the Community, which must slow down the growth in their requirements, and by producer countries which are responsible for the balanced management of their resources, thereby enabling the development of the world economy to continue.

In addition, the Community emphasises the necessity of the dialogue with the producer countries. It supports the statement in which the Government of Saudi-Arabia calls for rapid consultations between consumer and producer countries. It also supports the proposals recently made by the President of Mexico, Mr Lopez Portillo, regarding world-wide consultation on world energy problems.

The European Council emphasises in this connection, the need for the Community to supplement urgently its approach towards supply problems, particularly by as extensive and accurate a knowledge as possible of the quantities of oil and petroleum products imported into the Community, together with their prices, so that a full dialogue may be undertaken with the producers on the real state of the market. The European Council invites the Council (energy) and the Commission to adopt, as a matter of urgency, all the necessary measures, particularly with regard to monitoring of the market.

## Convergence

The implementation of the EMS, which will constitute an important contribution towards the development of stable and lasting growth in the Community, must be supported by increased convergence of the econom-

ic policies and performances of the Member States.

The European Council invited the Council (economics and finance) to strengthen the means of coordinating economic policies, on a proposal from the Commission. It took note with interest of suggestions which the Netherlands delegation made in this connection.

Achievement of the convergence of economic performances requires measures for which the Member States concerned are primarily responsible, but in respect of which Community policies can and must play a supporting role within the framework of increased solidarity.

The European Council took note of the communication which it had requested the Commission to draw up on this subject. It had an exchange of views on the means for arriving at improved convergence.

It emphasised the need for the Community institutions to ensure more efficient use of existing instruments in order to attain this objective.

It invited the Council and the Commission to examine in depth how the Community could make a greater contribution, by means of all its policies taken as a whole, to achieving greater convergence of the economies of the Member States and to reduce the disparities between them.

To this end, it asked the Council to examine, in the light of the above guidelines, what action should be taken on the proposals contained in the above communication from the Commission and to submit a report at the next meeting of the European Council.

## Common agricultural policy

The European Council had a detailed exchange of views on the Common agricultural policy, in the light of a communication from the Commission. It confirmed the importance which it attaches to the fundamental objectives of this policy, which is one of the achievements in the building of Europe.

It noted that growing imbalances on agricultural markets have led to an increase in expenditure on agricultural support.

It considered that a prices policy suited to the situation and a search for measures adapted to each type of production are likely to correct the imbalances which have become apparent on certain markets and to avoid the build-up of surpluses.

The European Council expressed its interest in the improvements of the agricultural structures policy, particularly in favour of the least favoured regions of the Community, and invited the Commission to submit additional proposals in this sector.

Also, with a view to enlargement, the Council hoped that the efforts to improve structures undertaken in favour of the Mediterranean regions would be continued so that the inter-



ests of all agricultural producers in the Community received equal consideration.

The European Council invited the the Council (ministers for agriculture) to examine those improvements which are necessary for the proper functioning of the Common agricultural policy with due regard to the objectives laid down in the Treaty of Rome."

## EEC Council

In the light of the conclusions of the European Council meeting on 12 and 13 March 1979 and on the basis of the analysis of the world and Community energy situation carried out by the Commission in its communication of 20 March the Council has agreed:

- to implement the specific measures needed to attain the objectives of limiting oil consumption in 1979 to 500 million tonnes and of limiting oil imports in 1985 to their level in 1978;
- to give urgent priority to examining the other measures already proposed by the Commission which are necessary for attaining the Community's medium and long-term energy objectives;
- to examine the development and application of effective and convergent energy policies in the Community;
- to examine, on the basis of proposals to be made by the Commission, new Community objectives for 1980 with a view to their forthcoming adoption;
- to discuss the best means for improving the Community's relations in the energy field with producing countries and other third countries.

## Implementation of the conclusions of the meeting of the European Council on 12 and 13 March 1979

### — Guidelines for the Community energy policy

The Council,

- noting that the Member States have in many fields undertaken measures whose objectives are comparable and that it would be desirable to highlight these convergent efforts;
- noting also that an examination of national policies and measures might contribute to the approximation of the measures adopted by the Member States and to greater consistency at Community level, in particular by establishing overall objectives and common indicators;
- being of the opinion that it is essential to itemize the means employed in order to co-ordinate them and, where it seems useful to harmonize or supplement them at Community level;
- has to this end requested the Commission to carry out a comparative study of national policies, including pricing policies and transparency of the market, and to submit to it on that basis new guidelines and proposals in time for its next meeting;

• has agreed that the following matters should be examined as a matter of priority:

- energy saving;
- development of Community resources (coal, hydrocarbons, alternative energy sources);
- production of electricity of nuclear origin;
- use of coal in power stations and industry. □

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## EUROPEAN MOVEMENT

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### The following manifesto has been adopted by the European Movements of the EEC countries:

The elections to the European Parliament by direct universal suffrage, in June 1979, are a historic event. It is the first time in the history of mankind that all the citizens of nine independent sovereign nations will directly elect together their representatives of the same Assembly.

The 410 legitimate representatives of the people of Europe will subsequently exercise the powers conferred in the Treaties which set up the Community to control, strengthen and develop the European Community for a term of five years, in the name of every citizen.

This is an important right which can at last be exercised by all the citizens of the European Community. To this right there is a corresponding duty: to participate in this election and to go and vote for those candidates whose party programme responds best to each citizen's preferences, thereby expressing their will for the next five years.

The European Community deserves these votes given by the citizen, for it alone is capable of fully ensuring their destiny. And the Community needs their participation in order to be complete and end up as a new model of a democratic society.

1. No matter how great or glorious it has been in the past, none of the states which make up Europe, now possesses either sufficient resources or is of sufficient size to ensure that its people of whom it is but the servant, have freedom, economic development and social justice as well as internal and external security, which are the signs of real independence. All states know this, even when they pretend the contrary.

The European Community was born from their irrevocable renunciation of the often bloody confrontations which were caused by their former conflicting national interests, and also from the necessity to bring together their resources, capabilities and ambitions to attempt to have the sort of responsibility in the world of which each state is incapable on its own.

2. The Community has already brought about the exercise of this responsibility by properly organising its

commercial relations with the rest of the world, whether it be other free-market countries like the USA or Japan, countries with State-run economies like the Soviet Union or developing countries. For the latter and particularly those of Africa and Asia with which certain member states have historical ties, the Community has shown its solidarity with substantial aid for development.

3. The Community has also contributed to the economic progress of the peoples of Europe through the creation of an entity of continental dimensions: a common market of 250 million people, and through the beginning of common policies in the areas of agriculture, industry, competition, energy, transport, research, regional aid, social policy, foreign trade, aid for development and money.

4. But these common policies are as yet only rough outlines. And it is on the people that the unfinished state of the Community bears down. They are now beset by actually serious problems: unemployment, inflation, a deficit of energy sources, the increasingly unfair imbalance between rich and poor regions, the problems posed by agricultural policy and industrial structures.

They are also aware of general problems like hindrances to free circulation within the community, damaging the environment and pollution of all sorts, and the influence of multinational companies.

5. All these problems require extremely urgent solutions which no state alone is capable of supplying. Only all embracing, dynamic, common policies will succeed, arranged and carried out together. This is the role of the European Community. Even so, the citizens have to press their rights more energetically and oblige the governments to cut in concert.

6. The European Community is the result of the undertaking made by its members to set their relations in the future, together with those of the people they represent, into the framework of a democratic system comparable to that existing between citizens within the same state. It is based on a common civilisation, characterised by the genuine exercise of human rights, by the sovereignty of law, by pluralist representative democracy and by active solidarity among its citizens, its regions and its member states.

7. It follows from this that the European Community can only be made up of democratic countries. It also follows that it is open to all European countries which, in conformity with its principles want and can join it.

Today this is the case with three countries which have long been deprived of their liberty. Spain, Greece and Portugal, which have finally returned to a system of representative democracy.

8. The European Community has, as its constitution, the Treaties which founded it, freely worked out and

agreed to by the member states themselves, then ratified by the people and their representatives. It is being progressively built up on a specific balance of powers and competences expressed by its institutions, among which there is a continuous dialogue the result of this producing rules and directives which form the laws of the Community and to which the states are accountable, as are the citizens.

There is the Parliament, which represents the people, the Council which represents the states, and the Commission, which speaks for the whole of the Community together under the arbitration of the Court of Justice which lays down the law and interprets the Treaties.

The Treaties must be respected and applied in all their provisions including those concerned with increasing competences, and the powers and the democratic character of the institutions.

9. In this regard, the incomplete character of the Community is not only obvious but even a threat to the rights of the citizen. The voting procedure especially within the Council of Ministers must revert to a strict respect of the Treaties.

10. The main purpose of the direct elections to the European Parliament is to reinforce democracy. Already it controls through its right of censure, the exercise of those powers conferred by the Treaties on the Commission with which it is in permanent dialogue.

It contributes, through this dialogue with both the Council and the Commission, to the legislative power of the Community, as well as the approval of the Community budget, on which it has the last word.

11. In the future, the Parliament made up of the directly elected representatives of the people, will have a greater influence and will bring more weight to bear on determining the overall policy of the Community even if its powers and competences are not increased.

It will exercise the people's general power of control over the public powers of the Community. It will make its legislative role clearer. It will increase its rights concerning the budget.

It will be able to intervene in the nomination or confirmation of the members of the Commission. Above all, it will be able, more so than in the past, to get its opinions accepted in the areas of common policy and economic and monetary union. It will have to inspire a more vigorous rhythm with regard to taking decisions by both states and their heads of government and also with the institutions of the Community. It will equally have to oversee the application of these decisions.

The Parliament will have increasingly to ensure that the competences of the Community are progressively enlarged in particular in the sphere of foreign affairs and defence.

12. The directly elected European Parliament will ultimately be the privileged place of all debates deeply affecting public opinion. The citizens, who today are ignored or, worse, dealt with by teams of officials and administrators, will be able to make their voices heard and to participate in the shaping of their destinies.

The European Movement has grouped together for thirty years, and in ever increasing numbers men and women from every country in Europe, sharing different political philosophical and religious convictions, belonging to every economic and social level, having all manner of jobs, but who are above and beyond their differences, united by the same conviction.

They proclaim that a real political union in Europe, that is the putting into practice of their sovereign rights, which they can no longer exercise effectively if they remain separate, is the only way to save our continent from grave dangers, both actual and potential, which, by continuing to threaten it, also threaten its peoples in their dignity, their independence and their hope.

The European Movement, convinced that the European Community must be strengthened, enlarged and deepened in order gradually to reach a real political dimension, appeals to each citizen of the European Community, to go and do his civic duty and exercise his sovereign rights by going to vote on the 7th or the 10th of June, 1979.

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## EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

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### Developing policy

There was an extremely full agenda for the two meetings of the committee on development and cooperation, which were held in March with Mrs Colette Flesch (Lib. Lux) in the chair. In addition to a fruitful exchange of views with Mr Dieter Hartwich, director of external financing, on the role of the EIB in the field of development cooperation, the committee members dealt with a wide range of subjects: development of the North/South dialogue, new international development strategy, food aid, certain agricultural prices, the situation in Ethiopia, conciliation with regard to the non-associated developing countries, etc.

However, it was undoubtedly a further chapter in relations between Europe and southern Africa which provoked the most lively discussion.

In September 1977, the foreign ministers of the Nine meeting in political cooperation adopted a code of conduct for Community companies with branches or representation in South Africa. The code, which is not binding, is aimed principally at countering

apartheid legislation in the employment sector. The purpose of the report submitted to the committee by Mr Pierre Lagorce is to analyse the origin and content of the code, to consider its application and to suggest possible additions.

The motion for a resolution, which was adopted, reiterates previous condemnations of apartheid, rejects the establishment of the Bantustan homelands and describes the code as "a decisive initial step" towards eliminating South Africa's racial policy. It also makes a number of appeals and proposals aimed at strengthening and extending the application of the code of conduct:

- the need to amend the text to take account of the fact that South African society is made up of four population groups. Like others, this amendment should be drafted in close cooperation with the employers' and workers' organizations,

- the launching of a general information campaign to explain the code's objectives to the citizens of Europe,

- guaranteed uniform application in each of the Member States, in particular through the centralization of reports drawn up in accordance with a common formula and submitted annually to the European Parliament,

- introduction of similar measures by the other industrialized countries, particularly within the OECD,

- embargo on arms supplies but rejection, at this stage, of any economic boycott, since this form of sanction is relatively ineffective, difficult to supervise and, moreover, penalizes in particular the poorest sections of the population,

- denunciation of bilateral cultural agreements,

- maintenance of and increase in the special aid granted to ACP states particularly hard hit by South Africa's racial policy.

The resolution concludes with two warnings:

"...by adopting the code of conduct, the Community should not purely and simply pass on its responsibility for the abolition of apartheid" and therefore calls on the Community to evolve a strategy which establishes and guarantees the right of existence of all ethnic groups, this being an indispensable condition for a peaceful solution to racial conflict, not only in a divided South Africa, but also in some new type of federation".

### Cobalt exports from Zaire and Zambia

In reply to a written question by Mr Osborn (Brit. Cons.), the European Commission has given various details on the effects of the recent events in Kolwezi on the EEC's supplies of copper and cobalt from Zaire and Zambia. The parliamentarian requested information on two other strategic materials—vanadium and chromium—but the

Commission said that these two metals are in fact produced by South Africa and have not therefore been affected by these events.

The Commission gave the following figures on copper and cobalt:

**Stocks of copper in the member states of the EEC.** The "world metal statistics" are not complete and cover refined copper only. Stocks were as follows: 103 800 tonnes in Germany on 30 June 1978 (of which 32 000 were held by producers, 63 700 by consumers and 7 900 by dealers); 48 000 tonnes in France (consumers only) on the same date; 44 800 tonnes in the United Kingdom (also consumers only) on 30 October 1978.

There were also stocks held by the London Metal Exchange (LME) but these are not necessarily available for Community users. On 30 October 1978, they amounted to 402 000 tonnes, of which some were in warehouses in Hambourg (182 600) some in Rotterdam (116 300), London and other towns (80 700), Antwerp (20 500) and Genoa (1 200).

**Stocks of cobalt in the EEC.** Cobalt stocks have been affected by the suspension of American sales since 1977—which thus occurred well before the events at Kolwezi. This, together with the stagnation of Zairean production since 1976 led to a progressive drop in Community producers' stocks and was behind the decision by Zairean producers before May 1978 to adopt supply shares calculated on the basis of shares in previous years.

**Balance between supply and demand in 1977.** Supply balanced demand for both copper and cobalt in 1977.

For copper: average imports from all origins amounted to 129 000 tonnes per month (of which 51 380 were from Zaire and Zambia); average exports were 9 000 tonnes per month; production averaged 92 000 tonnes a month which gives: an average of 212 000 tonnes available each month for an average consumption rate of 187 000 per month. For 1978, the demand for refined copper in the EEC (about 196 000 tonnes per month) will be met by Zairean and Zairean production and by the use of existing stocks.

For cobalt: in 1977, average imports were 500 tonnes per month of which 420 tonnes per month came from Zaire and Zambia. The Commission adds that it has received confirmation from an "authorized source" that Zaire's cobalt production increased from 10 200 tonnes in 1977 to 12 000 tonnes in 1978 with the prospect of capacity reaching 15 000 tonnes in 1980. Zambia's production will go up over the same periods from 1 750 to 2 600 and then to 3 000 tonnes.

The lead-times for deliveries to Europe of copper and cobalt from Zaire and Zambia are two to three months, which is average.

**Consumption in 1979.** The Commission does not have any forecasts but

agrees with the estimates for all OECD countries: increase of 3.5% for copper and increase of 5% for cobalt.

## Food aid

In reply to a question by Mr Verhaegen, the Commission gave the following information on enriching milk powder.

It is not necessary in every case to enrich skimmed milk powder supplied by the EEC as food aid with vitamins A and D, for the following reasons:

— Skimmed milk powder is vitamin-enriched only when it is sent for free distribution or sale to consumers in countries where vitamin deficiency constitutes a public health problem. A list of such countries has been drawn up by the World Health Organization (WHO).

— Where skimmed milk powder is for sale to dairy or food industries (for instance, for the reconstitution of whole milk or the manufacture of food-stuffs) it need not be vitamin-enriched. However, where the beneficiary country in such a case is on the WHO list, the Commission asks it at the time of the official exchange of letters to enrich the liquid milk reconstituted by the dairy industry.

The cost of vitamin enrichment is approximately 90 EUA per tonne.

The vitamins should keep for six months, and are undoubtedly beneficial to the health of the consumer.

## Caillavet report adopted

The European Parliament's committee on agriculture recommends new guidelines for the common agricultural policy (CAP) in a report by its chairman, Henri Caillavet (France, Lib and Dem Group), which was debated at the April part-session of the European Parliament in Strasbourg. These new guidelines were discussed for the first time at a seminar organized by the committee on agriculture from 25 to 27 October 1978 in Echternach (Luxembourg). The Caillavet report was adopted at the meeting of the committee on agriculture on 22 and 23 March 1979 in Brussels. This report summarizes experience and proposals which the Committee on Agriculture wishes to pass on to the European Parliament to be elected in June 1979.

No attempt is made to alter the fundamental principles of the common agricultural policy (CAP), i.e. unity of the market, financial solidarity, common prices and Community preference. Regret is expressed, however, at the fact that the regional disparities in farmers' incomes are steadily growing and that, in their present form, the market instruments benefit primarily major agro-industrial undertakings but do not ensure a reasonable income for small family farms in certain sectors. Regret is also expressed at the Community's failure to ensure a reasonable income for certain agricultural produc-

ers in the southern regions and, in particular, at the fact that it places at a disadvantage those farmers whose products do not enjoy guarantees comparable with those provided for certain products in the northern regions of the Community. The Community authorities are therefore urged to give greater attention to the products grown in the southern regions (fruit, vegetables, wine).

The Caillavet report puts forward the view that support for producer prices has not on its own made it possible to guarantee a reasonable income for all farmers in all regions and that pricing policy alone cannot regulate the supply of agricultural products. The CAP must therefore be incorporated in an overall policy, within the framework of which agricultural production targets and commercial strategy will need to be reconciled. The report also points out that agriculture can be assisted not only by support for producer prices but also by quota arrangements and by the provision of direct incomes support, where necessary, on a selective or differentiated basis.

In view of the fact that surplus production is threatening to undermine the CAP, the organization of markets should be modified so as to encourage farmers to adapt their production methods and targets to the requirements of domestic and export markets. The Caillavet report puts forward the view, therefore, that the price and incomes support measures should be more geared to the specific features of each sector. For obvious economic reasons and for even more obvious social reasons, consideration should be given without delay to the establishment of a system of direct incomes support for those agricultural products, where consumption can be increased or where it has even dropped sharply on account of current price levels, where there is a low degree of self-sufficiency or where production should be encouraged in the interests of a balanced overall production structure.

As regards Community structural policy, the report notes that this policy has far from attained its objectives. The original aims were a comparable income for farmers, farm modernization to ensure that agriculture became a competitive sector of the economy and the elimination of the gap between rich and poor regions in the Community. A rigidly uniform structural policy is clearly unable to do justice to the specific requirements of the various regions in the Community. The Committee on Agriculture is therefore prepared to support measures tending towards a regional structural policy. The Community share of financing should be staggered according to the level of prosperity of the respective Member State. Structural policy should not further exacerbate the problem of surpluses. It must promote the various forms of production in those regions with specific natural advantages, thus ensuring a genuine division of labour between the regions of the Community.



The Caillavet report also contains reflections on the important relationship between the common agricultural policy and the Community's external relations. In this connection, it warns against the dangerous notion of free trade as proclaimed by the USA and, at the same time, against the myth of a new international division of labour whereby the developing countries, in view of the fact that they possess the crucial advantage of lower comparable costs, would become the preferred suppliers of cheaper agricultural produce.

The report advocates an agreement between the Community and the developing countries on the prerequisites for optimum agricultural trading conditions.

It recognizes that only increased agricultural exports to the industrialized countries will create the purchasing power in developing countries needed to set in motion the process of economic development.

The hope is expressed that the measures to counteract the falling value of the dollar and the establishment of a European zone of monetary stability will reduce the trade discrepancies between the Community and the USA and will contribute to the balanced development of agricultural production and the unification of the common agricultural market.

The report also points, however, to the dramatic evolution of the deteriorating world food situation, particularly in Africa.

The Community's potential production capacity in the food sector must therefore be utilized as fully as possible in order to overcome the major food problems facing the world. □

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## CHARLEMAGNE PRIZE

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The International Charlemagne Prize of the town of Aachen for 1979 has been awarded to Mr Colombo, President of the European Parliament, former President of the Italian Council and Minister in various departments.

The prize, worth 5 000 DM is awarded each year to someone who has worked towards European unification and the jury wanted to award Mr Colombo the prize as recognition of his commitment to the European elections by direct universal suffrage. Among the prizewinners are Robert Schuman, Jean Monnet, Winston Churchill, Konrad Adenauer, Leo Tindemans, Roy Jenkins and Walter Scheel. Mr Colombo is the third Italian to be awarded the prize, following in the footsteps of Alcide de Gasperi and Antonio Segni, both eminent figures in Italy's European policy.

### Mr Colombo has been reelected president of the European Parliament

The 1979 session of the European Parliament started in Strasbourg in

March, chaired by the oldest member, Mr Brégégère, who, after a short speech stressing the European Community's and more especially the European Parliament's role and tasks during this time of crisis and change, moved on to the vote on the President. At the proposal of Mr Pintat, on behalf of the Liberal group, Mr Colombo was unanimously reelected by cheers.

The Parliament also reelected the Vice Presidents and the chairmen of the parliamentary committees and their members. □

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## BELGIUM

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### New minister appointed

The new Belgian cooperation minister, Mr Mark Eyskens was previously state secretary for the budget, for the Flemish regional economy and territorial planning. At 46, Mr Eyskens, who is married with 5 children, is a doctor of law and economics from the Katholieke Universiteit van Leuven (KUL—the Dutch-language Catholic university of Leuven) where he also obtained his

B.Phil. He also has an M.A.(Econ.) from Columbia University in New York.

Mark Eyskens became professor of economics at KUL where since 1972 he has been chairman of the board of directors. He has also been president of the Belgian section of the Hoover Foundation since 1972. From 1973 to 1977 he was a member of the Trilateral Committee (USA/W.Europe/Japan).

From July to December 1977 he was president of the EEC Council of Ministers (for budgetary questions).

In 1977 he was elected to the Belgian parliament as a member of the christian people's party (CVP), and served as committee chairman, vice-chairman and chairman at numerous party conferences.

Mark Eyskens has written a number of articles and books on economic affairs, principally *Micro-economische theorie I en II* (Micro-economic theory, parts I and II), *Economie als tijdverdrijf* (Economics as a passtime) and *Bouwen van de gemengde economie* (Foundations of the mixed economy).

For several months before his new appointment as cooperation minister, Mark Eyskens had been developing a theory on complementarity between developing and industrialized countries. □

Mr Mark Eyskens



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## ENERGY SCHEME

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### First scheme for cooperation with certain developing countries in the field of energy

The Commission has approved a programme for cooperation in the field of energy, involving, in the main, specific schemes for Latin America. The proposed projects were discussed when Mr Brunner, Member of the Commission with special responsibility for energy, paid an official visit to Ecuador and Venezuela recently.

In its communication of 1 August 1978 the Commission had already sketched out the possible guidelines for a policy of cooperation with the developing countries in energy matters. It had laid particular emphasis on the fact that such a policy was in the interest of all parties, both industrialized and developing countries, producers and non-producers.

The European Council which met in Paris confirmed this viewpoint, stressing the responsibilities of importing and producing countries and urging the latter to achieve balanced management of their resources so that the world economy can continue developing.

The Commission, which has drawn up an inventory of international cooperation schemes, including bilateral ones run by the Member States, feels that practical proposals should now be formulated to set in motion true cooperation on energy.

The first concern must be to help the developing countries to take account of energy problems when drawing up their economic development plans and to assist them in the systematic prospecting of their resources, both conventional and new. It is in these two areas that the Commission intends to concentrate its efforts, working with countries or organizations that have already expressed interest, namely Ecuador, Nigeria, Venezuela—all three members of OPEC—and the Latin American Energy Organization (OLADE).

The Commission feels that the necessary funds must be allocated to this kind of scheme in order to underline the Community's resolve to pursue a policy of systematic cooperation and exchange of information on the subject of energy. □

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## HUMAN RIGHTS

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### Community accession to the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR)

The Commission has decided to present a memorandum to the other Community institutions on the possible accession of the Community to the

European Convention on Human Rights.

The European Community has an increasing number of direct legal relations with individuals. Its activities no longer only concern a certain number of economic categories—such as farmers or professional importers and exporters—but also, each individual citizen.

It is therefore not surprising to see today a demand expressed for the powers which belong to the Community to be counterbalanced by their formal subjection to clear and well-defined fundamental rights.

The Commission believes that the best way of replying to the need to reinforce the protection of fundamental rights at Community level, at the present stage, consists in the Community formally adhering to the European Convention for the protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms of 4th November 1950.

The Commission in proposing this, does not disregard the fact that, in the longer term, the Community should endeavour to complete the Treaties by a catalogue of fundamental rights specially adapted to the exercise of its power. It does not, however, appear possible to achieve this objective in the short term because of the differences of opinion which exist between the Member States on the definition of economic and social rights.

In order to reinforce the legal protection of the citizens of the Community immediately and in the most efficient manner possible, one should rely, in the first place, on the fundamental rights inscribed in the ECHR. In other words, the Community should adhere as soon as possible to this convention and to the protection mechanisms which it contains.

The elaboration of a catalogue for the Community itself would in no way be held up. Accession to the ECHR would constitute on the contrary a first step in the direction of that objective.

The Commission's memorandum will be published shortly. It gives, first of all, an outline of how the question of fundamental rights has been treated until now at Community level. It describes how the ECHR functions and the position of Community acts in relation to the ECHR in the existing legal context. It contains the arguments which can be advanced "for" or "against" accession and deals with different problems of legal technique.

The memorandum reaches the conclusion that the accession of the European Community to the ECHR seems desirable for a whole series of reasons. None of the difficulties which have appeared in this context seem insurmountable.

Given the dimension of the action to be undertaken and its complexity, the Commission considers it necessary, before setting in motion the appro-

appropriate institutional mechanisms, to encourage as profound a discussion as possible with all interested bodies. □

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## CENTRAL AMERICA

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A meeting was held on 4 April 1979, between a Commission delegation led by Mr Manfred Caspari, deputy director-general for external relations, and the ambassadors to the European Communities of the five member countries of the Central American Common Market(1) and of Panama, plus the representative of SIECA(2) in Geneva, under the chairmanship of Mr Fajardo Maldonado, the Guatemalan ambassador.

The participants had a wide-ranging exchange of views on relations between the Community and the countries of Central America, attention being paid to the various instruments the Community had at its disposal for development cooperation (food aid, financial and technical assistance for non-associated developing countries, export promotion, technical assistance for regional integration, generalized preferences system).

The participants were unanimous in stressing the usefulness of this meeting and agreed to hold regular meetings in order to place the dialogue between the Community and the countries of Central America on a more systematic basis.

They were convinced that this would help to strengthen relations between the Community and all Latin American countries. □

(1) Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and El Salvador.

(2) Permanent Secretariat of the General Treaty on Central American Economic Integration.

### CORRECTION

Mr Moussa Bako, public works, transport and urbanism minister of Niger has pointed out a confusion in our issue no 54, for which we apologise:

"The Courier No 54 of March-April 1979 did me the honour of quoting me in the introduction to the dossier on road projects in Africa. However, could I point out that certain attributions in the article on the rebirth of trans-Saharan trade could cause some confusion. After the same quotation as at the start of the dossier my name appears, but with the word "by" added which may lead people to believe that I had written the article.

"I would be grateful if you could rectify this especially since I found the article particularly interesting."

## Death of Jean Monnet

### "It is difficult to imagine Europe without him"

Jean Monnet, who was known as the "father of Europe" died in France on 16 March in his 91st year. In a statement on behalf of the Commission, the president, Mr Roy Jenkins praised his contribution:

"It is difficult to imagine Europe without Jean Monnet. His death is a great sadness for the European Community and for all those who over a generation and more have sought to give effect to the European idea. No-one contributed more than Jean Monnet to the founding and construction of the Community.

No-one shared his unique combination of imaginative thinking and practical creation. He had moments of frustration and disappointment, but he never lost his faith or hope in Europe, his resourcefulness in finding new routes forward.

In the last few months the Community has once more been on the move; and Jean Monnet himself was well aware of it. That we should have recovered a sense of momentum is the best tribute we could have paid to the ins-



Jean Monnet

piration and impetus which he gave our endeavours for more than thirty years. A great father of Europe is dead. But the Community is very much alive and will remain his greatest memorial."

The funeral was attended by many who had been inspired by the vision of Jean Monnet. The service was conducted by his personal friend, Dean Caro. In the congregation were the French President, Mr Giscard d'Estaing, the German Chancellor, Helmut Schmidt, the Dutch Prime Minister, Mr Van Agt, the Luxemburg Prime Minister, Mr Gaston Thorn, the foreign minister of Italy and France, Mr Forlani and Mr Poncet and ambassadors from member countries.

Also present were the presidents of the European Parliament, Mr Colombo, and of the Commission, Mr Jenkins, and two commissioners, Mr Cheysson and Mr Ortoli. Two former presidents, Mr Hallstein and Mr Rey also attended as well as Sir Christopher Soames, Mr Marjolin, Mr Coppé and Mr Spierenburg. Mr Alain Poher, René Pleven, Christian Pinau.

A number of people very close to Mr Monnet also attended including Mr Noel, Mr Rabier, Mr Berthoin, Mr Wallenstein, Mr Mayne, Mr Kohnstamm, the president of the European University in Florence. George Ball came from the United States, as well as Mr Cloy and the US ambassador Mr Hartmann. The closest also attended his burial in the cemetery of Bazoches-sur-Guyonne. □

### Readers letters: Is the *Courier* too popular with its readers?

Is the *Courier* perfect? This is a question we often get from students visiting Community headquarters or from other people who write in to find out why we never print readers' letters.

The answer, obviously, is no. But we do get large numbers of letters from the ACP countries and Europe. And even from north and south America, eastern Europe, the middle east and China and Japan. The aim in most cases is to praise the technical quality of our journal and the mass of information it contains. The writers also ask to receive the *Courier* because they think it is useful to them in their work, because it is educational, or in many cases, particularly in Africa, because it is a unique source of information.

A research worker at the **New York** political studies centre writes: "I have been reading the *Courier* regularly for several years now and I think it is the best source of information on EEC/ACP relations... Your journal is a great help to me with the book I am writing, under contract, on the European Community, the Lomé Convention and the Third World and in preparing the lectures and seminars I give on this subject".

A reader from the **CAE** considers that the *Courier* only shows, "the desolation and poverty of the African peoples", without giving, "the principal causes". Yet he does feel it is "a

good source of varied information".

A reader in the **Solomon Islands** says that, "the *Courier* is an educational publication" and that they would like to have several copies, out there, including one for the PM's secretariat.

From **Cape Verde** we hear that, "the minister of foreign affairs very much appreciates the *Courier* which is a useful journal and an important source of information".

The **Swiss** technical cooperation coordinating office in Cameroon says, "... we have studied your journal which is of considerable interest because of the wealth of information it provides on some of the main themes of development".

Young college students in **Mémé** (Cameroon) have started a *Courier* club.

The secretary-general of one of **Guyana's** ministries wrote this to one of our editorial team: "The minister has asked me to convey his profound appreciation of your accurate reporting of the interview he granted the *Courier*".

A Fokolona leader in **Madagascar** tells us that, "certain numbers have been particularly useful in our work in the village communities (Fokolona)".

From **Peking** (China) a group of African students writes: "We have discovered your journal. It is just

what we need as it tells us about Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific".

An information officer from **ABEDIA** (the Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa) in Khartoum says he has, "cited the *Courier* as a good example of its kind in a note we wrote for a meeting of Arab funds in Khartoum".

There have also been two radio programmes (one from **Mauritius** and one from **Cologne**, Germany) on the importance of the *Courier* as a means of informing everyone interested in economic cooperation between the ACP countries and the European Community.

We do not get many letters from the general public in **Europe** but we do hear from specialists who, once again, write to praise the quality of the *Courier*.

The main purpose of the numerous letters received by the editorial team is to express warm appreciation and encouragement and to ask to be put on the mailing list.

The *Courier* is pleased about this. But it should be noted (and regretted) that we rarely get the sort of suggestions and criticism that will help us comply with certain of our reader's wishes or make more progress. That is why we rarely print reader's letters. □

L.P.



# The transfer of technology

by André HUYBRECHTS

The transfer of technology has become one of the major issues of development cooperation, an issue which has recently found its way from the theoretical discussions onto the agenda for negotiations on specific cooperation agreements between developed and developing countries. At the same time, the transfer of technology has become a slogan, an international pious hope. But its real content and operational nature have all too often not been grasped. The innumerable speeches and publications on the subject have provided little elucidation. The term itself, by its very simplicity, increases the confusion, since those who know feel it is an inadequate way of describing a very complex phenomenon.

I personally am uneasy about both the term "transfer of technology" and the proliferation—I was going to say stage-management—of debates, diplomatic texts, speeches and academic publications that go with it. I wonder where the truth lies. Maybe I just do not understand this aspect of the development problem and am unable to grasp the size, technical aspects, profound justification and far-reaching implications of it, in which case it is up to me to fill the gaps in my knowledge, take my analysis further and thus remedy the situation. Or else the debate on the transfer of technology is falsified by errors, confusion, and exaggeration by some, and by oversimplification by others, in which case the fact should be stated as clearly as possible so as to clarify a discussion which, it has to be admitted, has been largely sterile so far.

So do not be surprised if I repeat a certain number of self-evident facts and simple, even elementary, findings. They will put the discussion in focus and make it more practical. I shall attempt to:

- briefly go over what is involved and say just what the transfer of technology means;
- state three errors which falsify both the debate itself and the very behaviour of the people taking part;
- stress the constraints on all interventions;
- draw conclusions (an overall assessment and an outline of what international cooperation can do to help).

## What is the transfer of technology?

The transfer of technology (or, more properly, the transfer of industrial skills) covers all action whereby developing countries obtain theoretical and practical knowledge and industrial knowhow from the industrialized countries with a view to creating and actually using new production capacities.

Note that the debate has crystallized around industrial techniques, but that the subject of course encompasses skills in industry, agriculture and other areas of production as well. And it is even more important to realize that it is not just the physical side of production, but the whole economic process, particularly management and marketing, that is involved.

## Three sources of confusion

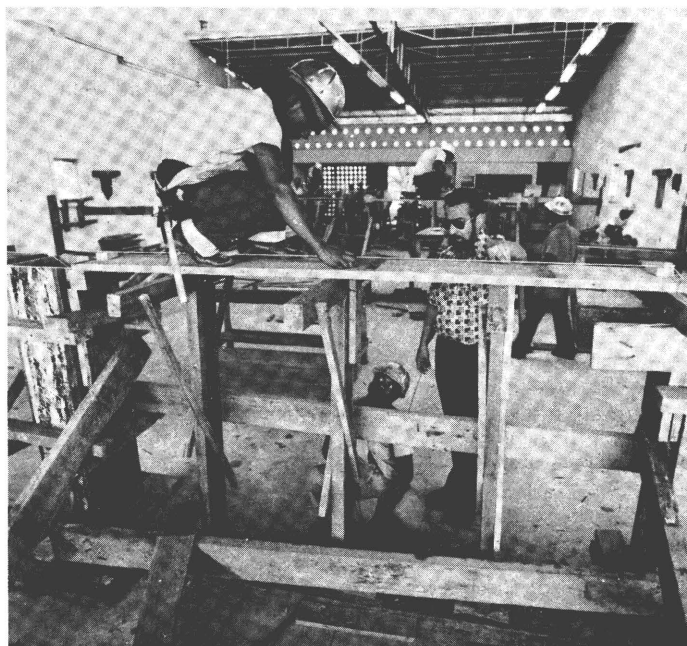
### An oversimplified view of the transfer of technology

The first thing that creates confusion in any discussion of this issue is the oversimplified idea which people have of the transfer of technology. The term may be a simple one, but the reality it describes is far less so. The difficulty has nothing to do with any shortage of supply. Techniques are available and they are available in quantity. The problem is that the transfer is really a complex and varied process that the developing countries find difficult to master. This illustrates, in this particular field, the enormous problem which underdevelopment can create.

(a) Difficulty first arises from the fact that the transfer is a gradual process and that different problems occur in successive stages spanning a long period of time. These stages involve:

- identifying needs and alternative technology, i.e. collating information, keeping it up to date and distributing it to make it genuinely accessible;
- selecting the right technology for the economic/technical questions posed, i.e. processing, assessing and selecting information;
- negotiating for and obtaining technology, i.e. deciding on the best methods of obtaining the technology and doing so on the best possible terms;
- adapting the imported technology to the host environment (a problem to which we shall return later);

*Students learning to build housing frames in Panama. Technology is transferred by the step-by-step acquisition of skills*



- assimilating the knowledge by the most suitable methods of training;
- developing the techniques further and gradually gaining autonomy in this respect by innovating and devising techniques based on skills that have already been mastered.

The constant problem in the first three stages is the developing countries' inability to make a proper choice. External cooperation could certainly help them overcome this.

The last four stages, the most important ones as far as genuine assimilation is concerned, are the most difficult. They lead to the vital technological self-reliance (another fashionable term) which is achieved when the developing country is able to make its own policy decisions and choices and to take the necessary steps, largely by its own means, to implement them. External cooperation and the transfer of technology are only complementary factors here.

(b) Difficulty also arises from the fact that the transfer of technology uses complex means. It is not just a case of delivering an inanimate object like parcel. What is transferred is a product which is mainly abstract, of indefinite shape and difficult to describe. There is more to it than installing equipment or sending a recipe. The acquisition of a technique is a varied operation in which both supply and demand (which must be clearly linked) are actively involved and the whole process must be designed to suit the context. In the interests of efficiency, the following conditions must be met:

#### **There must be a proper supply**

As we have already said, there is a considerable stock of technical know-how and it is generally cheaper to come by this than it would be to go in for autonomous innovation (which would in any case be out of the question). Much of it is in the public sector and easily accessible (although this by no means detracts from the problem of proper assimilation that we mentioned above). Other knowledge, that is to say modern industrial techniques, is the exclusive property of firms which have often invested heavily (in terms of manpower, capital and time) in it and whose patents therefore represent considerable sums of money. In this case, the owner's agreement on acquisition, specific methods of transfer and fees has to be negotiated.

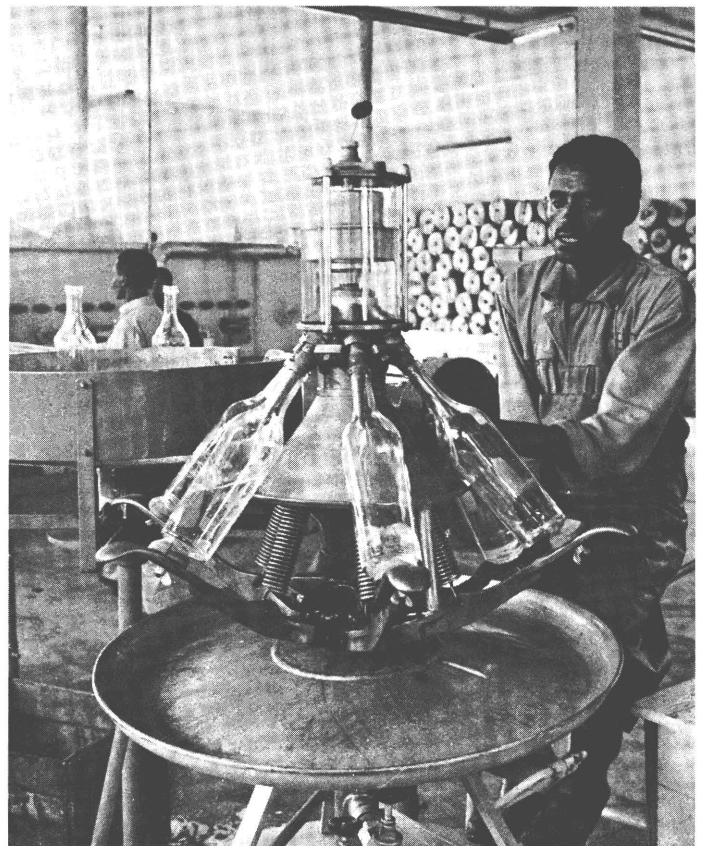
But the supplier must be able to transmit his knowledge properly. This educational side of the question is sometimes overlooked and the need for adaptation is almost always neglected since it is generally only well-tried techniques that are being transferred. There are no grounds for complaint if the industrialist is merely asked to supply know-how, but there are if he himself has taken the initiative.

The supplier should also be in a position to guarantee that the transfer is followed up, ensuring maintenance and repairs if necessary, as well as training in the use of equipment supplied or even assistance with the marketing of products.

#### **Demand must be able to assimilate techniques**

The demand has to come from firms, since it is they and not the authorities that create industry. The firms must be able to select the right techniques, assimilate and implement them, and adapt them to their needs and financial and technical possibilities as well as gradually develop and improve them in an increasingly autonomous manner.

The main obstacles to an effective transfer of technology are situated at this level. Either a latent need fails to be transformed into an actual demand because of inadequate



**Brewery in Addis Ababa**

*If only technology could be bottled for distribution*

purchasing power or poor formulation. Or else technology is transferred where there is no scientific or technical infrastructure to receive it or industry to capitalize on it. It is all a question of how far the host country can absorb technology and what its human and economic environment is like, i.e. of how underdeveloped it is. This is the vicious circle of underdevelopment.

#### **There must be a link between supply and demand, constituting practical support for the transfer**

There are now many different ways of transferring technology and several of them may well be combined in particular cases. They are:

##### *Direct investments, the vehicle for knowhow*

The first thing that comes to mind here is direct investments, whether in the form of a fully-fledged branch of the parent company or a joint venture with a minority or a majority holding.

##### *Transfers of knowledge transfer techniques*

Vocational and technical training at all levels of the firm are at the top of the list. But technology can also be transferred directly in the form of information and via the granting of patents and licences. It should be noted here that the traditional system of licences is unsuitable where relations are unequal and does not have the same effect in industrial as in developing countries. The transfer of technology between developed and developing countries should be within the framework of broader schemes, particularly when (as in the majority of cases) the recipient countries are very underdeveloped.

Assistance with R & D in the developing countries involves creating or consolidating local capacity and providing external scientific and technical capacity.

### *Trade is a carriage for technology*

The flow of imports into the developing countries inevitably involves a certain transfer of technology (in the form of maintenance and repairs, for example), particularly in the case of industrial equipment.

Direct investments, training and trade (in that order, more or less) have always been and are still the best supports for the transfer of technical skills. Others have gradually been added and, most important, cooperation schemes combining capital, know-how and exchanges have become more complex.

So a wide range of cooperation agreements and schemes have emerged. There are agreements on sub-contracting, co-production, trade and technical cooperation, contracts on company management, project engineering and implantation.

Finally, financial and/or technical cooperation schemes aimed at developing small and medium-sized firms in the developing countries are also a carriage for a transfer of technical skills and management techniques.

### **A bad choice of technology at the outset**

The second factor falsifying the debate is the fundamental error which most developing countries and (inevitably those which have substantial incomes from oil and minerals) commit when they opt for the most modern techniques. There are many examples of developing countries systematically opting for up-to-the-minute versions of the most recent, most expensive and most elaborate techniques for which there is absolutely no justification on economic grounds. And the consequences of this choice quickly make themselves felt.

There is no shortage of explanations. Demonstration has the same effect here as in other fields. The suppliers of equipment in the industrialized countries, which have every interest in encouraging this tendency, fail to propose any alternatives and the developing countries do not have the time to wait for hypothetical adjustments. The buyer also has something to do with the bad choice of technology. The industrial process conditions the look, quality and standard of the product and it can be difficult to substitute local manufactures for imported ones as the producer is trapped by the established consumer habits. And industrialized markets are in a strong position when it comes to imposing their constraints on developing country exports. The economic policies of the developing countries have a similar sort of effect when they concentrate on bringing in foreign exchange rather than creating jobs and when they provide imported capital investments with rock-bottom rates of interest and an artificially high exchange rate. Prestige also counts for a lot.

It is obviously essential, if costly errors or complete failure are to be avoided, for both techniques and products to be adapted to the genuine needs and the socio-cultural and economic conditions of the host country. These conditions (the natural resources, available industrial and scientific infrastructure, human resources, input cost structures, development policy and official regulations) are often completely different from those in the country of origin. Such considerations should, of course, lead the developing countries to give priority in principle to procedures that save capital and provide as many jobs as possible by taking adequate profitability (private and, above all, public) into account. The exception to this rule would be where capital-intensive techniques are clearly cheaper and more effective, or where the characteristics of the product demand that they be used.

Unfortunately, the fundamental need for adaptation takes second place to the acceleration of the simple transfer of products and production techniques which are bound to be unsuitable because they are mere carbon copies of what goes on in Europe and the USA. These industrial products and production techniques have been designed and perfected in the industrialized countries to suit their socio-cultural environment (behaviour, needs and tastes), their industrial expansion models and policies and their means (plenty of capital, shortage of albeit expensive and highly qualified manpower and few natural resources).

The mistaken choice of technology is linked to another error of choice which it reinforces. This is the choice of development policies, which tend to be geared to a modern type of economy rather than a traditional one, to export instead of the domestic market and to urban centres instead of the traditional rural areas which are in the majority. This priority accentuates both the dualism and the lack of coherence of Third World economies and nothing that is done to cut the cost and improve the conditions of the transfer of modern industrial technology can prevent the initial choice from having unfortunate results.

The important thing to do is to opt for the right sort of technology, techniques that are original in that they make the best use of the factors of production and the capacities that the country has available and that they respect its socio-cultural environment. These adapted techniques make a convincing list:

- they are compatible with tradition;
- they make maximum use of local materials;
- they create the maximum number of jobs;
- they demand minimum training and maintenance;
- they are adapted to the possibilities of local firms whose capacity, technical ability and management potential are poor, which only produce small amounts and can only expand and adapt very gradually;
- production units can be decentralized, mainly to rural areas (thereby evening out imbalances and putting a brake on the move to the towns);
- they are in line with the basic requirements of the poorest people in particular.

Adapted techniques do not necessarily need to be new ones. They may be the result of adapting existing techniques to different conditions and for different purposes, and they will often (although not necessarily) be "intermediate" techniques.

### **Confusion between technical progress and development**

The third source of error is the fundamental confusion which certain people make between technical progress (and of course the transfer of technology which is supposed to bring it about) and the transfer or redeployment of industry (and the development which results). This is confusing one aspect of the phenomenon with the whole.

"Transfer of technology" has become a handy way of describing actual industrial development, i.e. diversified and self-perpetuating industrialization considered as the main component of high-speed socio-economic development. This is all wrong. Technical progress is not development. Although it is, undeniably, the driving force behind economic progress, a certain number of other components are also necessary. In other words, technical progress is itself a response to factors within the economy (supply, demand, price levels, the existence of natural resources or advantages already acquired, the right policy, etc.) and not a phenomenon in isolation. It is only one aspect, complementing many others, at the heart of a much broader reality of which it is an intrinsic part and it should have its rightful



place in a specific context. Technology alone, however modern and however well adapted, is clearly not the panacea for all development ills.

So policies aimed at developing the transfer of technology must be closely harmonized with all other policies, particularly those concerned with development and development cooperation. Take, for example, the developing countries' policies on industrialization, official investments or training and the industrialized countries' structural adjustments and scientific research policies.

## Two constraints

### (1) The technology market and multinationals

The features of the market and the role played by the multinationals make it extremely difficult to exert any pressure on the supply of technology. Everyone is affected by this but the developing countries are particularly badly hit.

Most of the supply of industrial know-how is concentrated in the hands of a small number of firms, many of them multinationals, which are in no hurry to transfer their techniques and often have what amount to monopolies on them. Demand, however, is spread out. Its powers of

negotiation are weak because it is ill-informed and unskilled and it is motivated by a need to industrialize at any price.

It is difficult to get a clear idea of the technology market as it is difficult to assess the type and number of transfers and the conditions and arrangements involved. The market is also full of imperfections. Prices tend to be fairly high and terms abusive, both of them varying widely from one case to another according to the powers of negotiation of the parties involved and the intensity of competition.

This is obvious justification for certain official interventions, at both national and international level, aimed at influencing the choice of the best techniques and boosting the negotiating powers of the developing countries.

Multinationals are a very good way of transferring modern technology and they are of considerable importance in the field. It is closely connected with the phenomenon of the internationalization of industrial production for which multinationals provided practical support.

In the closely integrated framework of a multinational company, where know-how is distributed almost exclusively within the group, the parent company has a more or less absolute monopoly, particularly as far as R & D are concerned. It is entirely responsible for all decisions and it tends to maintain production units on the periphery in a situation of subordination or specialization.

### Bicycle factory in Upper Volta

*Are production-line methods the answer to African industrialization?*



The result is that the seat of the multinational company imposes homogeneous production models (both processes and products) and does little to generate further activity when it sets up peripheral production units, except as regards training and certain kinds of sub-contracting.

## **(2) What the developing countries want**

The industrialized countries have to listen to the increasingly urgent demands of the developing countries and they will be forced to take up position one way or another.

The transfer of technology is of great importance for the industrial development of the developing countries and poses difficult problems in some cases where it has an excessive effect on the balance of payments (1).

Five or six years ago, one or two Latin American countries initiated a radical rethink of the present system of transferring technology and the whole Third World followed suit. What it wants (now one of the key components of the new international economic order), recognizing that the transfer of technology is a major instrument of development cooperation, is for the conditions of the transfer from the industrialized to the developing countries to be improved.

The developing countries have a series of complaints about the present system of transfer:

- transfers are slow and there are not enough of them; this puts a brake on industrial development;
- transfers cost too much. This also holds back industrial development and has adverse effects on the balance of payments in the short term;
- restrictions (tied purchases, limits on the volume of production and exports, non-contestation agreements, the right to check on product prices and quality, compulsory use of certain brand names, etc.) may be attached and this tends to maintain or aggravate the dualism which is characteristic of the economic structures of these countries and increase their technical and financial dependence on the industrialized countries. It also tends to adversely affect their industrial structures, compromise their competitiveness and sabotage the complementarities of different regions and of neighbouring countries.

They object to:

- the harmful practices of multinationals which, because they dominate the market, ensure most of the transfers of technology via their branches;
- the constraints arising from external financing which lead to techniques being chosen by financiers and foreign suppliers;
- the general tendency for engineering firms in the developed countries to steer the choice of industrial strategy and processes, mostly in close collaboration with the owners of these processes and the manufacturers of the equipment on which they usually depend.

Certain developing countries have made a critical analysis of their national policies and begun to introduce restrictive or defensive legislation. But these measures are of only minimal effect, largely because they occur at the end of the selection/negotiation process and have no impact on the internal relations of the multinationals.

At international level, in UNCTAD and WIPO (the World Intellectual Property Organization) in particular, the developing countries have taken up a joint position aimed at

getting the present system of patents, etc., changed and an international code of conduct on the transfer of technology adopted. The extent to which international laws on patents and licences hampers the transfer of technology to the developing countries should not be underestimated. In any case, even without this, levels of production and technical knowhow would still be glaringly unequal. The developing countries' demand for a code of conduct is aimed at getting transfers covered by a certain number of principles and rules of international public law instead of by just one law on private contracts, as at present. Here too we are extremely sceptical. These codes, drawn up without the active collaboration of the main direct suppliers of technology (i.e. American, Japanese and European firms) are very likely to be legal illusions that will probably not have any great impression on the balance of power or change the present conditions of the international transfer of industrial skills.

— Even if a certain convergence of interests did lead to a code being adopted, it is highly unlikely that it would have the mandatory character that the developing countries want but which is such anathema to the industrialized world and its businessmen.

— The idea of a fair price no longer has any real economic meaning.

— Our industrialists feel that the restrictive clauses that the developing countries want to see removed from the contracts are reasonable and even necessary inclusions, in that they have a commercial significance tied up with the price. That is to say, they have a commercial value. If they were excluded, the flow of transfers might be held back and there would be a price rise that would inevitably put the developing countries at a disadvantage.

— There is an obvious link, as the industrialized countries see it, between the discussions on the transfer of technology and those on their system of investments in the developing countries. This is because transfers figure large when foreign firms set up and any negotiations and agreements necessarily involve a balance of obligations and rights.

The developing countries have realized what is wrong. They want to move on from the present system of free exchange and regulate transfers. But they want to do so before setting up the sort of environment (scientific, technical and industrial knowhow, capacity for innovation) that will enable the most to be got out of the transfers. As we have seen, technology cannot be despatched in handy parcels and its transfer is a complex and continuous process. So the problem is less one of regulating the international distribution of a set of technical data than of extending technical progress and the attendant industrial development to the developing countries. The main (and perhaps the only) merit of the discussions on the code of conduct will be to have clarified the issue, thereby giving people a clearer idea of what the technology market is all about, helping even out the chances of the partners and making it easier for the countries involved to make decisions on economic policy. There is therefore a need for some sort of follow up and a relative moralization of the transfer of technology. The exact terms have yet to be defined, but they will in any case involve a balance between the concessions the industrialized countries make on the terms of the transfer and greater guarantees of stability for international industrial cooperation.

## **Conclusions**

### **A clearer, realistic view**

We have attempted to go beyond the leitmotif of international discussions and clarify the issue without losing sight

(1) Transfers in the late-60s are estimated to have absorbed 5% of their export earnings (not including oil) and to have been equal to private foreign investments there.

of reality. This has revealed five facts about the transfer of technology.

First, three statements on the nature of the transfer:

— The transfer of technical know-how is a complex, gradual, lengthy, many-faceted and difficult process.

— The transfer mainly covers modern industrial techniques which are by no means always in line with the genuine needs and possibilities of the developing countries or with the problems there are to cope with. Almost everyone ignores the most important part of the issue—the need for the right sort of technology.

— Transfer of technology should not be confused with industrialization and even less with development. It is just one aspect and must be properly integrated in the cooperation and industrial development policies.

Then there are two constraints on both partners:

— The industrial technology market is, inevitably, full of imperfections.

— The Third World insists that things should change.

So is there any point in laying further emphasis on the fact that the transfer of technology is not really an operational process in itself and more a special way of looking at the problem of development (industry in particular) than a field for actual cooperation schemes?

The authorities in the developing countries, and to a lesser extent in the industrialized ones too, have little control over a phenomenon which is, for the most part, the province of private firms in the industrialized world and which does not make a decisive contribution to industrial development. This means that international cooperation cannot make anything but a small contribution either.

But the Third World is tireless in its demands. The ACP countries in particular are applying to the EEC, with which they are negotiating cooperation relations. They want to know whether the Community will be willing, as part of industrial cooperation, to assure them free access to the wealth of knowledge and experience in this field. Some people would find both the question and either a positive or a negative answer meaningless. There is an obvious need to go beyond this, even if more is involved than a mere dispute over words, and make an objective, open-minded examination (with the aim of taking practical action) of how the Community really can help solve the question it is being asked.

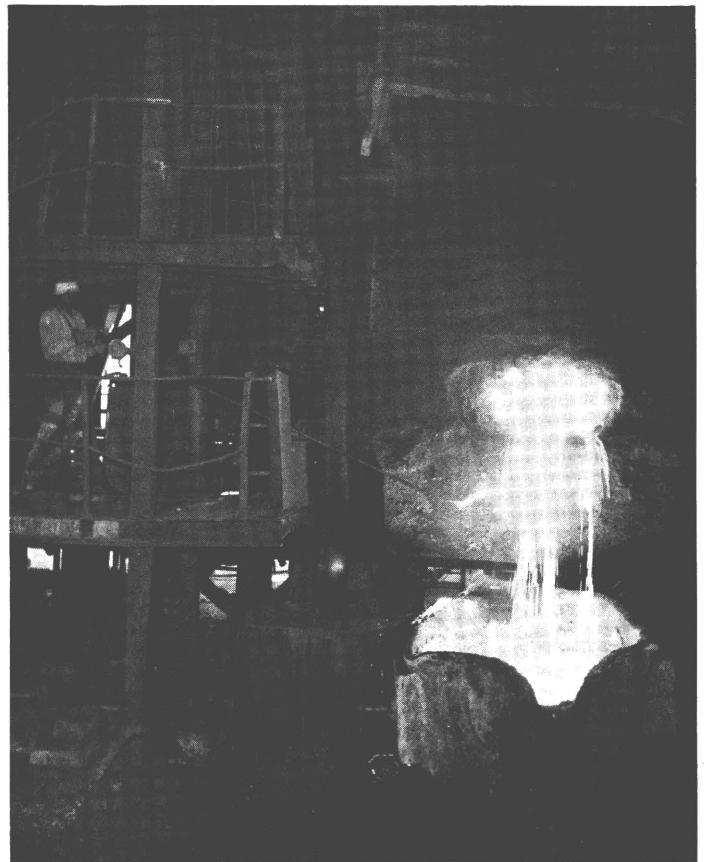
#### **What can international cooperation do?**

The albeit modest contribution of development cooperation can help get favourable trends under way and make it easier to find solutions to particular aspects of the question.

Industrial cooperation, involving financial and technical cooperation, could, for example:

— Boost and improve the flow of industrial and technical information in the broadest sense of the term, i.e. macro-economic information (on industrial policy, industrialization plans, investment codes, input costs), micro-economic information (project profiles and technological alternatives, and information on firms and suppliers of technology, patented and otherwise). It ranges from the simplest facts (statistics, names and addresses) to the most complicated details of the characteristics and techniques and the conditions of their transfer.

— Promote, in as many ways as possible, all types of contact between industrial partners, so as to lead to a variety of cooperation agreements which, however different, will all involve transferring technical knowhow.



**Copper foundry in Uganda**

*At the heavy end of the technological mix for developing countries*

— Contribute to setting up the industrial, scientific and technical infrastructure the developing countries need to expand their industry and getting the system working so that they have the capacity for information, assessment and technological selection they currently lack.

Research and technological adaptation units must be set up, as must technology distribution centres (particularly for small and medium-sized businesses), national engineering concerns, patent offices, standards offices and quality control boards.

R & D units in the industrialized countries could play an important role here and consolidate the corresponding institutions in the developing countries. Twinning schemes, involving some sort of contract of solidarity, could be particularly useful.

— Put a priority on all types of industrial training at all levels.

— Carry out applied industrial research in line with developing country needs (in Europe because of the urgency of the situation and because we have the means). This would also provide a considerable measure of help for the developing countries and be useful to European industry too. It would be a further manifestation of solidarity.

— Community cooperation could help any developing countries that so desired to formulate their industrial and technological development strategies and policies.

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The suggestions which follow the somewhat discouraging but realistic conclusions are in line with the ultimately converging interests of both industrialized and developing countries. Time will tell what reception they get and how far they help achieve the aims of development. □ A.H.



# Patents and technology

## The work of the European Patents Organization

by J.F. MEZIERES(\*)

The European Patents Organization (EPO) was set up in 1977 as a result of active cooperation on industrial property in 20 countries of Europe.

The idea behind it is that a system of patents is a fundamental factor of innovation and scientific and technological progress. Industrial expansion is 75% new techniques, and if these new techniques are properly protected by a reliable patent, inventions are bound to stimulate economic expansion.

The EPO is an international organization. It has a specific technical job to perform, it serves the public directly and it works in contact with those, in industry in particular, who use its services.

Since 1978, a simple request to the EPO has been enough to obtain a patent (issued after investigation) for most of the countries of West Europe. This is the main function, but as well as this the EPO provides a whole range of services in the field of technological information.

### Patents — a useful means of spreading technology

Patents are a remarkable means of spreading technical information and a vital means of transferring technology.

Anyone owning new technology will seek to obtain patents as protection against theft or unauthorized use. But this temporary monopoly may be balanced out by the publicity given to the invention. Anyone can consult registered patents. It seems reasonable to suggest that if patents were ended there would be less encouragement to research — indeed, the main effect would be to cloak knowledge in secrecy and limit the spread of its industrial applications.

Patents are the legal support for the transmission of a technique. The holder of a patent can sell it or concede it. And competitors are encouraged to seek even better technical solutions. So industrial property, far from creating a fixed, sterile situation, is in fact one of the most powerful means of speeding up technological exchange within the framework of greater international cooperation.

### Cooperation is a necessity

Bearing in mind the developing countries' many needs, it was obvious that the EPO would have to take an active part in development cooperation. This is why the Administrative

Council of the EPO, convinced that the organization could do a lot for the developing world, particularly the ACP countries within the framework of their industrial and scientific policy, has adopted a resolution on technical assistance.

Since the ACP countries have no sure means of protecting inventions and EEC-ACP cooperation on industrial property have so far been inadequate, there are a number of difficulties:

- The developing countries are often called upon to issue patents to foreign applicants who do not really contribute anything to technical progress or industrial development locally.
- Inventors and industrialists in the developing world do not have patents which inspire confidence and can stand up to attacks or market penetration by foreign competitors.
- Businessmen in the industrialized countries with patented technology often fail to transfer it (by selling it or granting licences) as they have no proper protection in the developing world.

A special effort therefore needs to be made and it is the EPO's intention to participate fully in this.

### The EPO's potential

The assistance which the EPO could give many ACP countries depends on its potential, which we shall briefly outline below.

**Hundreds of high-level engineers:** There are currently more than 500 highly qualified engineers working at the EPO, researching and examining whether inventions are patentable or not. There are specialists in all fields and, particularly as far as issuing patents is concerned, they are able to provide all the data available in the world on specific items of technology and on the legal means of protecting them.

**“Industrial property... is one of the most powerful means of speeding up technological exchange”**

*Italian packaging machine in a Tunisian ceramics factory*



(\*) Head of the development cooperation service, EPO.

**Universal documentation:** A properly organized patents information system is a very good means of access to technical information. All inventions patented the world over are published and easily accessible thanks to an international classification system (with about 60 000 subdivisions).

The EPO has upwards of 30 million scientific and technical documents on its files, essentially patents documents published all over the world over many decades and articles taken from several hundred technical reviews.

More than 12 million documents dealing with all fields of technology have been systematically classified so they can be directly consulted by computer.

The files are constantly kept up to date and tens of thousands of new documents are added every month.

### The different types of assistance the EPO can offer

An action programme has been defined and this is being implemented in close collaboration with the European Communities, particularly within the framework of the Lomé Convention provisions on industrial cooperation.

The EPO welcomes people from the developing countries for courses on its various activities, in particular:

- the different means of access to technical information;
- interpretation and analysis of patents documents; the various uses of documentation on patents;
- the practice of documentary research;
- the analysis and use of documentary opinion on the state of the art;
- patent issue procedures and the attendant administrative organization.

The EPO runs seminars to train nationals from developing countries with a view to giving a concrete, practical introduction, over a short period, to the use and possibilities of a patents system and patents documentation.

When projects are set up by the developing countries, or in collaboration with WIPO (World Intellectual Property Organization), the EPO can provide experts and consultants with experience in both technical and administrative matters.

The EPO supplies its own publications on patents as well as copies of any documents it has on its files.

It researches into the state of the art in all fields so as to be able to supply information on all technical alternatives and the existing legal means of protection.

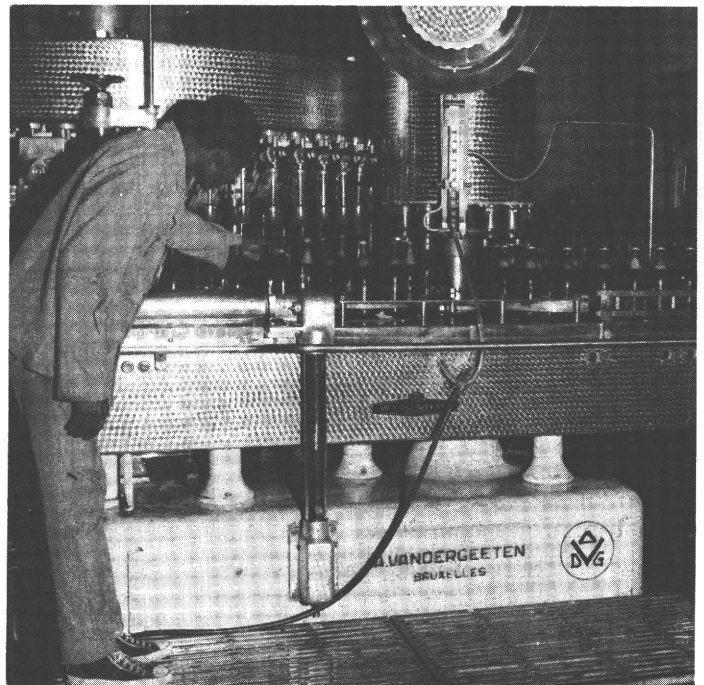
Any requests for information connected with the above activities may be made direct to the EPO or via the relevant European Community authority.

In most cases, it will be possible to finance the services requested.

### The EPO and implementation of the Patent Cooperation Treaty (PCT)

This treaty offers a clear and simple solution to the problems that many developing countries encounter with setting up and using a system of patents in the light of their industrial targets.

**What is the principle behind the PCT?** Many countries find it difficult, if not impossible, to secure the services of highly qualified technicians to establish the novelty of inventions. The PCT's answer lies in the fact that research



Belgian bottling machine in a Central African brewery

and an examination of patentability are carried out by an international authority. The developing countries can, on the basis of the reports they then receive, issue dependable patents, which means that their investors and their industries get solid protection and that transfers of technology via the granting of licences are greatly facilitated.

**What the EPO contributes to implementing the PCT.** The PCT is administered by WIPO, which is a specialized agency of the UN.

The EPO, together with a certain number of national patents offices, is responsible for research and preliminary international examination. It is the only intergovernmental organization to do so and it has officially stated that it will respond favourably to requests from any developing countries for this.

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It has only been possible in this article to outline the problems of and the prospects for patents in the field of industrial cooperation between the developing countries and Europe. There is no doubt that innovations will have to be made and new paths opened.

The EPO will carefully examine whatever requests it gets for assistance and it will do its utmost to reply to them in a spirit of international cooperation and effectiveness to further the aims of development. □ J.F.M.

#### European Patents Office

Development cooperation service  
Rosenheimer Str. 30  
8000 — MUNICH 40 (West Germany)  
(as from the end of 1979:  
Erhardstrasse 27  
Postfach 202020  
D — 8000 — Munich 2 — West Germany)  
Telephone: (089) 41211  
Telex: 523656

# Technology and industrialization

## UN agency's "appropriate" approach(\*)

After years of direct activity in 120 or more developing countries to spread the benefits of scientific progress and technology, a new dimension has been added to the work of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) based in Vienna. This is the need to ensure, as far as possible, that mistakes made in advanced countries since the Industrial Revolution are avoided by those now turning to industry.

Despite the fact that industrial production is greater almost everywhere, the prosperity gap has widened so that the majority of the world's population lives in comparative poverty.

To bridge the gap, the 1975 Lima Declaration and Plan of Action called for developing countries to be granted access to technological know-how and advanced technology. UNIDO's job is to see that commercial conditions are fair to all, and that conditions in recipient countries are taken into account.

The last of these has brought the new dimension in UNIDO's work, with a concentration on science and technology, and investigations into how far modern methods can reconcile labour economy with the need to provide work for millions of people. The problem has led to the study of "appropriate technology" and to a cooperative programme of action to develop national and international strategies. At

the recent International Forum on Industrial Technology held at Anand, Gujarat (India), the general conclusion was that the pace of industrialization in developing countries could be accelerated, and life in them bettered, through the judicious selection and application of a broad spectrum of appropriate technology.

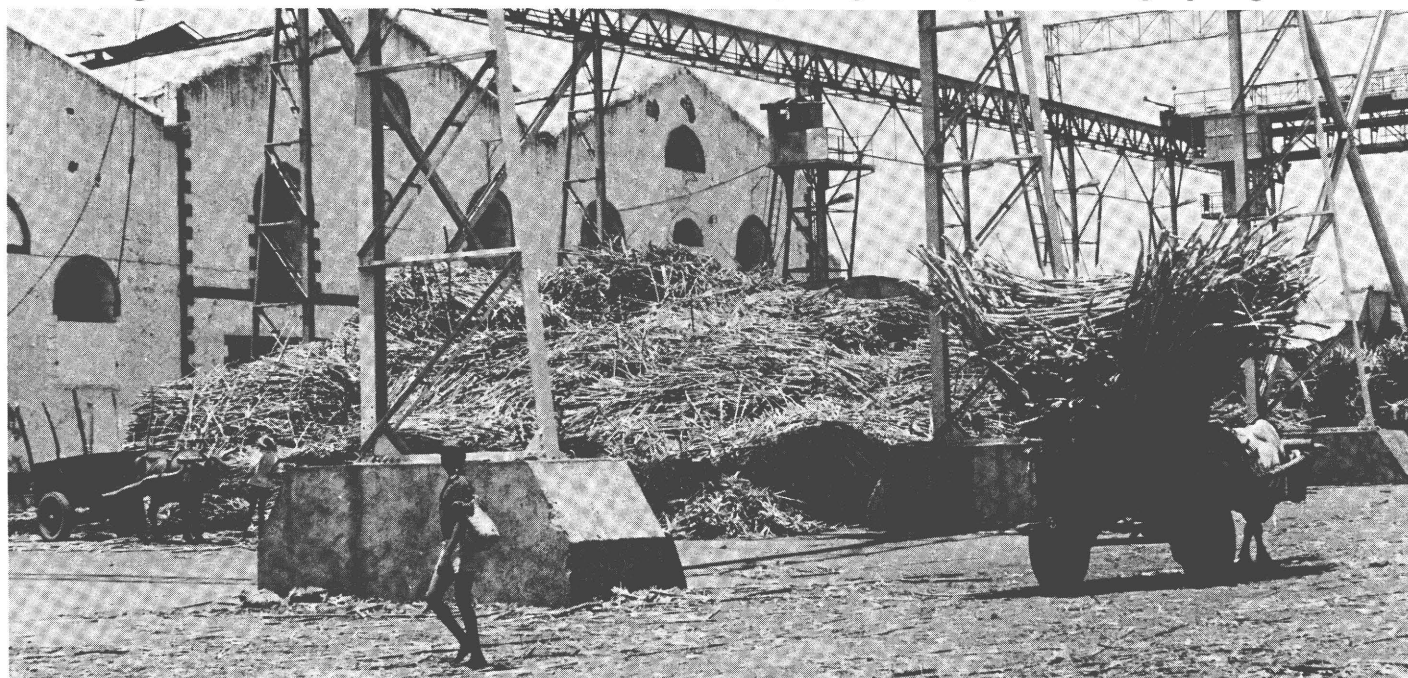
Papers prepared by experts at the forum are to be incorporated in monographs as a significant contribution from UNIDO to the United Nations Conference on Science and Technology for Development in Vienna this year. Besides analysing the effects of technological imports on developing countries, they also give many examples of beneficial results of work in which UNIDO has taken part. One example, from Thailand, is that the adaptation of technology to food processing and the adoption of quality standards has led to a multiplication by thousands of the numbers of small and large factories engaged in the sector, and to the capture of a large part of the world's market for pineapple preserved in various ways; prospects are that housewives will soon be using dried pineapples requiring only water to bring them back to the original condition.

### Putting brain-power to work

Brain-power and technical knowledge throughout the world have been enlisted by UNIDO both for its daily activities and for specialized meetings to keep abreast of all scientific and technological developments. More than 80 of these meetings, among them expert groups, symposia, training workshops and courses, were held last year, among those taking part being scientists, industrialists, engineers, senior government officials and others able to draw attention to advances, to speak about experiences in promoting industry, to discuss national or regional problems and to make recommendations for actions by governments or agencies. Subjects included the manufacture of agricultural machinery, ways of increasing exports, use of natural and artificial materials, environmental effects, marketing strategies, production of medical drugs, woodworking machinery, synthetic fibres, petrochemicals and many others.

(\*) From the UNIDO information service.

*From agriculture to industrialization: for a number of ACP countries, the sugar industry was the first big step along the road*





Projects during 1978 of the Cooperative Programme of Action on Appropriate Industrial Technology included the adaptation of modern technologies in metalworking; strengthening and modernizing the performances of small and medium-sized industries by creating a technological services delivery system; development of a low-cost rice bran stabilization unit to save protein; technical memoranda on rice and sugar processing, and studies of both imported and indigenous technologies in developing countries.

UNIDO's dissemination of information through publishing technical reports, advice to developing countries on selected techniques, and on all factors affecting industrial prospects, has been reinforced by the creation, at present as a pilot scheme, of an industrial and technological information bank (INTIB) as part of an international network with other agencies and with national information centres. Operations began in the summer of 1977 and a review of the pilot phase will be made in April this year by the Industrial Development Board, which every year meets to frame UNIDO policies. Work to date has embraced iron and steel, fertilizers, agricultural machinery and agro-industries.

Technical assistance, on a scale of 2 000 or more projects a year, has provided experience in the techniques of making technology available. Included in them have been schemes for using hides and skins to make leather goods in Fiji, India, Mongolia and Yemen; for producing pollution-free pesticides in Swaziland and neighbouring African countries; for encouraging standards of quality to improve exports from Brazil, Ecuador, Ghana, Indonesia, Malaysia, Nepal, Nigeria and Thailand; for building up knowledge of the use and production of fertilizers in Egypt, Ethiopia, the Ivory Coast, Jamaica, Syria and Togo; for developing the textiles industry in Egypt, Indonesia, Mongolia, Pakistan and Thailand; for improving land and sea transport for Bhutan, Costa Rica, India, Iran, Mauritius and Peru; and for food processing in Afghanistan, Bolivia, Madagascar, Morocco and Romania. In agriculture, UNIDO has helped countries of Asia and Africa to produce agricultural tools and machinery and seven countries of the Sudano-Sahelian zone to improve irrigation.

Instances of projects in metal industries include a pilot mechanical workshop and foundry in Somalia and the Sudan, a research and development centre in the Philippines and large-scale tool and die production in Trinidad and Tobago. Projects covering all aspects of electrical machinery and apparatus have been implemented in Bulgaria, Hong Kong and the Republic of Korea. A boat-building facility is being established for Tanzania to encourage fisheries. Large-scale efforts to ensure sources of metallurgical technology have been undertaken in Chile, Egypt, India, Mexico, Pakistan, Turkey and Yugoslavia. Chemicals, petrochemicals, pharmaceuticals, woodworking, ceramics and printing are other industries being promoted.

## **The target: 25 % of world industrial output**

Technical assistance may be seen as UNIDO's muscle; the brain is the International Centre for Industrial Studies, where concepts are developed and action-oriented studies and research undertaken. A coordinated approach brings the United Nations regional commissions into the effort which, like all other UNIDO activities is designed to implement the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action, to help reach its target of a 25% share of industrial output for developing countries by the year 2000, and to assist in establishing a new international economic order. A study has been completed and is to be published of the process by which industrial priorities were selected in Brazil, India, Mexico, Korea and Turkey. A complementary study of the institutional background of decision-makers, their aims, and the nature of

constraints influencing their decisions has also been completed in cooperation with the World Bank. Technology is the subject of a special chapter. A major effort by the centre has been the completion of world-wide studies of the key issues selected for international consultations.

The application of appropriate technology is now seen as being in the interests of the whole world, a theme which has emerged from the system of international consultations implemented as a result of the Lima Conference. The system is unique in that it enables views from industrialists, workers, financiers and government authorities to be heard in global assessments of prospects, requirements and methods of spreading industrial capacity to the best advantage for basic industries. Iron and steel, fertilizers, leather, oils and fats and petrochemicals have so far been subjects of these consultations and in each case the opinions of those engaged in the industries have insisted that factories should not be built unless the materials, labour, transport facilities, infrastructure and technology are all suitable.

Infrastructure implies not only services such as roads, rail, water, power and other physical requirements, but the intellectual bases—institutions providing both technology and the manpower trained to use it. Without the institutional basis, the long-range aims of industrialization become almost impossible to achieve, a fact which motivates UNIDO in laying particular stress on technological information, research, training in new techniques and cooperative arrangements when promoting industrial institutions.

A practical method of transferring technology has been the organization of in-plant training programmes, enabling engineers and technical personnel to bring themselves up to date with advanced knowledge and to apply the theory to working conditions. Countries with experience in the sectors concerned cooperate by providing facilities, instruction and sometimes the finance.

The conditions of normal commercial life, and the fact that much know-how has been developed through both private and public research, govern the transfer of technology through private foreign investment, including contracting and turn-key arrangements for complete plants, licensing agreements, consultancies and supplies of equipment. These are aspects which can lend themselves to partnership arrangements and on which one of UNIDO's multiplier-effect programmes has been devised.

Investment promotion is carried out by the Investment Cooperative Programme Office as part of joint UNIDO/World Bank activities, and advantage is taken of special events such as consultation meetings or industrial fairs to bring together businessmen of developed countries and their counterparts from developing countries to discuss ways of cooperating for their mutual benefit. Investment promotion offices opened in Brussels, Cologne, Zurich and New York are the nucleus of a system which can provide considerable information useful to both sides, the recipients and the investors. The European Management Forum and the Overseas Private Investment Corporation of New York have collaborated, and the Belgian, Federal German, Swiss and United States governments have assisted in setting up the offices.

The UNCSTD, a landmark in the work of the United Nations, will assemble an impressive array of world intellectual power in Vienna to analyse whether the world has taken full advantage of its knowledge. At the beginning of next year the nations of the world will send representatives to the third general conference of UNIDO in New Delhi for an equally important assessment of progress in adapting technology to achieve the Lima targets. The findings of both events will determine the path UNIDO must follow thereafter. □

# Science, technology and food

by Gabriel De SABATINO(\*)

The vital role that science and technology can play in alleviating hunger and malnutrition in the world has long been recognized by economists and planners.

It forms an essential part of virtually all planning for development. One of the basic aims of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), as stated in the first article of its constitution, is to promote and recommend "action with respect to scientific, technological, social and economic research relating to nutrition, food and agriculture".

This emphasis on science and technology stems from recognition that only through the proper application of science and technology can developing nations, in particular, hope to achieve agricultural and economic development and improved human nutrition. And agriculture, which produced the plough and other early inventions, is a highly fertile field for technological advances and applications. The greatest challenge to modern science and technology can be said to come from agriculture and its related activities, namely, the elimination of hunger and malnutrition from the earth.

## More mouths to feed

It is a challenge that, as agronomists and population experts know, becomes more pressing as the next century nears. World population by the year 2000 is expected to reach more than six thousand million people as against approximately four thousand million today, according to UN estimates. Thus, in the space of little over 20 years, world food production must be increased to meet a rise in global population of about 50%, most of it in the Third World. Such a phenomenal rise calls for annual increases in food production that are greater than are at present being attained in most developing countries, especially in Africa, where food production continues to lag behind population growth.

The problem, however, is not simply one of producing more food for extra mouths. Nutritional standards must be improved, particularly those of small children and nursing mothers. It is estimated that, at present, some 450 million people in the Third World countries suffer from chronic malnutrition. And this is going by a conservative definition as to what constitutes malnutrition. The problem, in essence, is one of boosting food production not only to keep up with increasing population but also to assure people everywhere dietary standards that will enable them to lead healthier, happier and more productive lives. Moreover, since agriculture is the predominant economic activity in developing countries, its development will serve to stimulate other sectors of the economy and contribute greatly to national advancement.

(\*) Gabriel De Sabatino is an information officer with the FAO Division of Information.



PAM/WFP — F. MATTIOLI

*Improved rice seed is produced at Babougou (Mali), with the help of the FAO, the WFP and the UNDP, for the EDF-backed Ségou Rice Operation*

## The green revolution

Science and technology have already shown that they can meet the challenge. The most celebrated example is development of the high-yielding varieties of wheat and rice which led to spectacular increases in food production in Asia and other areas during the 1960s. Success of the new varieties gave birth to the so-called "green revolution" and rekindled hopes that humankind's age-old battle against hunger was about to be won. Though the green revolution's benefits proved to be limited, since the new seeds require abundant use of fertilizers, which are costly and not always available in developing areas, it demonstrated what science and technology can achieve in agriculture when put to the test.

The search for new and better ways of producing food and enhancing nutrition continues. It embraces virtually every aspect of food and agricultural production, from seed development to final harvesting and storage, processing, packaging, preservation and distribution of food. There is hardly any area which has not developed its own particular technologies. This includes the various disciplines, such as soil and water management, plant protection, animal husbandry, the production and use of fertilizers and pesticides, and agricultural engineering, in which entire sciences have evolved.

As science produces new discoveries, they invariably find an application in food and agriculture. Atomic radiation is used to combat crop pests by radiating them so as to render them sterile and unable to reproduce. Radiation is also used to keep fish and other perishable foods from spoiling. Remote sensing, utilizing space satellites, is helping to

monitor ground and weather changes and to report on agricultural, geological and forestry conditions, including pollution. Electronic communications permit the information to be swiftly transmitted to all parts of the globe.

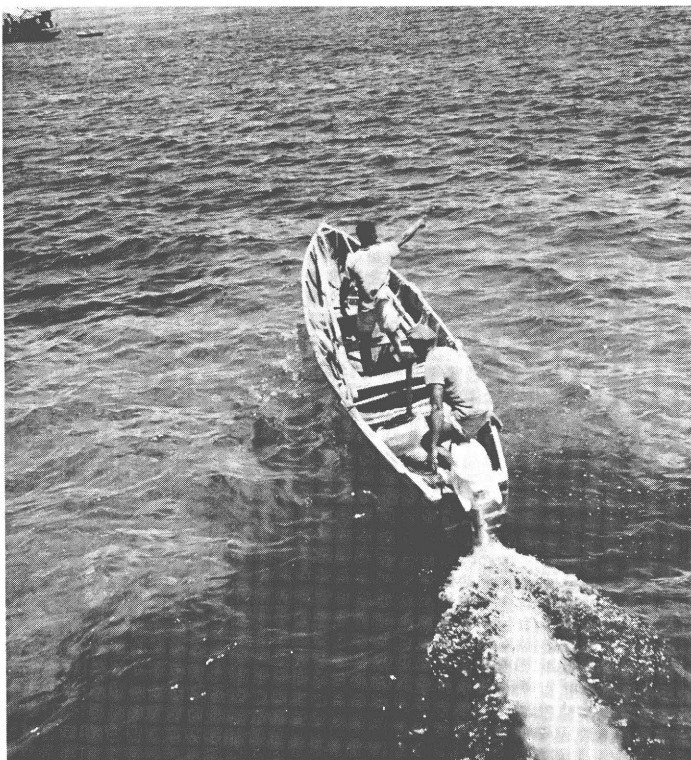
## World fish catch tripled

Technology has made it possible to more than triple the world fish catch to over 70 million tons in a little more than 20 years. This was possible thanks to the design and construction of large stern trawlers and factory ships and to the development of electronic acoustic aids for locating fish in the sea, and to vast improvements in shipboard machinery and equipment including mammoth nets which can operate at great depths. Meanwhile, fish farming has evolved into the new science of aquaculture which offers exciting prospects for increasing the supply of fish through cultivation in ponds, lakes, lagoons and other land-locked bodies of water.

Future prospects include the widespread use of synthetic proteins for animal feeding. The growing science of microbiology has great possibilities for agriculture. Research is being done in the biological processes of photosynthesis and nitrogen fixation with a view to aiding plants to make better use of sunlight and nitrogen, possibly obviating in the latter case the need for nitrogen fertilizers. Studies are also under way into cell culture technology, opening the way to genetic engineering for improved plant and animal production. This research, which is being conducted in scientific institutions around the world, offers promising breakthroughs in agricultural science and technology.

However, for all these discoveries to be truly beneficial they must be made available to those who need them the most: the rural peoples of the Third World, who constitute the overwhelming majority of humankind and for whom poverty, hunger and malnutrition are the normal way of life.

*Factory ships and fish-farming have dramatically increased the world fish catch. On a simpler level, an outboard motor can make all the difference, as here in Jamaica*



*Testing cattle-fattening techniques: workers at the Beef Industry Research Station at Nakuru (Kenya) spray molasses on a food concentrate made of maize and cottonseed*

## Agriculture and economics

This leads to the question of the transfer of technology, a key aspect of development. Basically it involves the transfer of knowledge and expertise from the better endowed to the lesser endowed countries, although it also concerns the exchange of information among developing nations themselves. It is a fundamental question, for without such transfers the developing countries cannot obtain the knowledge for their development. Implicit in these transfers is the need for international action and cooperation and vast economic and financial aid to developing countries, to enable them to avail themselves of the tools for development. As experience shows, the problems of agricultural and economic development are distinctly inter-related and directly concern the entire international community, both on a North-South and on an East-West scale.

One problem in the transfer of technology is exemplified by the failure of the green revolution to reach the poorer farmers in developing countries. What was lacking were credits, training, supply of inputs and other assistance to enable the farmers to make use of the new discoveries. In almost any developing area, the introduction of new technology must be preceded by studies to determine its feasibility and by preparations so as to render the new methods and systems viable; that is applicable and relevant to local needs and conditions. This requires extensive national programmes providing for extension services, education and training, financial aid and other measures aimed at assuring the effectiveness of the new technologies. One example is the introduction of power machinery in remote rural areas, which involves considerations such as the need for training in its proper use and maintenance and assurance of a steady supply of fuel and spare parts. Experience records many disappointments with development projects because of poor planning and lack of foresight.

Another aspect of the question is the choice of appropriate technology. Obviously a diesel tractor is of no use to a



farmer with very little land and no means of operating and maintaining such equipment. In his case a draught animal might be more appropriate. Technology that is capital- and energy-intensive and labour-saving is hardly suitable to developing areas where capital and energy are in short supply and labour is abundant. Appropriate technology also implies making effective use of available resources as sun and wind energy, which have the added advantage of being renewable and which can often be easily harnessed for various local uses.

As it is, technology need not be highly sophisticated or expensive to do what is required. Very often, simple or intermediate technologies, based on locally available materials or inputs, can be effective. One example of a small-scale but effective application of technology is the equipping of artisanal fishing boats with outboard motors to widen their operating range. It is a question of selecting the proper methods and systems, whether simple or sophisticated, and of adapting them to local requirements.

Many technical problems transcend national boundaries and require wider cooperation for their solution. From 1975 to 1977 the FAO spent about \$144 million through its regular and field programme activities on research, development and technology transfer, including the strengthening of national institutions for research and manpower training. The areas covered include crops, animal production, fisheries, postharvest technology, irrigation, fertilizers, aquaculture, tropical forests, nutrition and other disciplines.

## Local circumstances

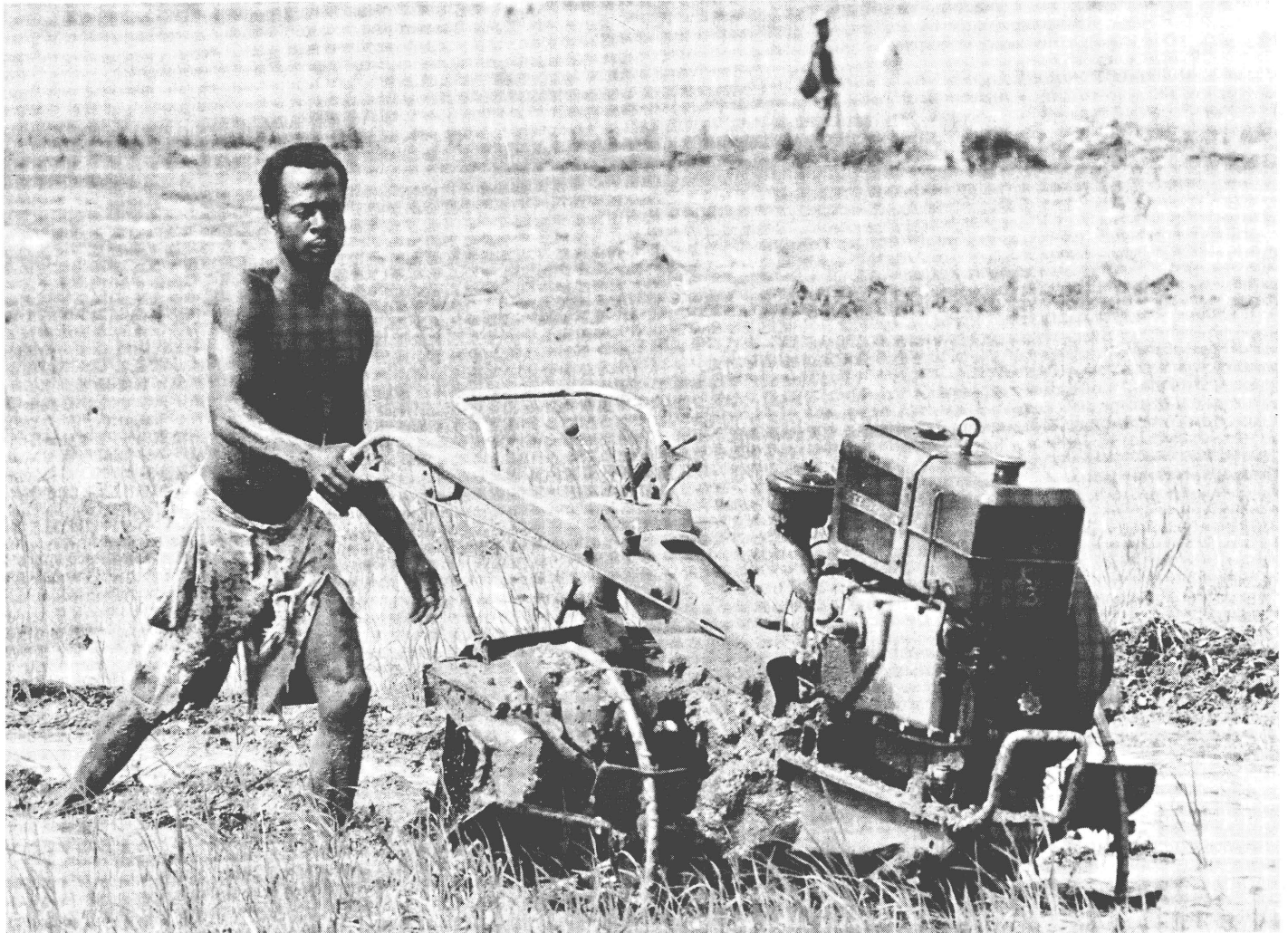
FAO planners stress the importance of national and local research efforts in agricultural development, including fisheries and forestry, since circumstances vary from area to area, requiring different technological adaptations. Practically all of the FAO's activities, it is said, involve choice and transfer of appropriate technology, since the main objective is to find the appropriate means towards increased self-reliance in food production, creation of a self-propelling economic base and overall development.

Among its efforts, the FAO has prepared a regional food plan for Africa which emphasizes the role of technology in aiding African countries to improve their self-sufficiency in food. FAO country perspective studies for Egypt, Tanzania, Zambia and the seven countries of the Sahel, among others, have aided them in establishing a basis for agricultural planning and the programming of research. In addition, several countries have received and are receiving assistance in reviewing existing research organizations and in formulating proposals for reorganization and expansion.

The FAO is also assisting developing countries through its Technical Cooperation Programme, which provides quick, direct aid for short-term development projects, including training, and which is carried out and financed entirely with the Organization's own resources. The end aim in all these efforts is to put science and technology at the service of the Third World in its struggle for freedom from hunger and from want. □

G.D.S.

*More mouths to feed means that more land must be farmed more productively. Mechanized agriculture, although costly, is essential to meet rising demands for food*



UNITED NATIONS — F. BOTTS

## GERMANY

# A helping hand for Third World ingenuity

The Federal Republic of Germany recovered from the ruins of war to build the EEC's strongest economy in less than one generation. How would Germany apply science and technology to the development of the Third World? The German approach is summarized in this resume of the national paper prepared by the FRG for the UNCSTD.

The intensified application of science and technology can contribute essentially to tapping natural resources and to developing production in LDCs(1), to a level enabling them to find better solutions to their economic and social problems and to participate in world trade as equal partners. On the other hand, growing reliance on technology not only solves problems but also produces new ones. Besides the ecological limits to growth, economic and social bottlenecks are becoming increasingly apparent.

For this reason, the assumption that the technological gap between DCs and LDCs can be bridged by the more or less wholesale transfer of technologies developed in DCs oversimplifies the situation. The key role is played not so much by the transfer of technology as by the innovation system in LDCs. The innovation system in LDCs has to find appropriate solutions to the problems of the physical and social environment of these countries, and to pass them on to the production system. The strengthening of the innovation system in LDCs and its bridges to the indigenous production system in each case, therefore, takes priority.

### Strengthening the innovation system in the developing countries

This does not mean that LDCs can dispense with importing technologies until they have their own efficient innovation system. Rather, it is important that — in addition to the commercial transfer of technologies which leads directly to the production system in LDCs — other forms of cooperation be introduced which involve the innovation system in LDCs, strengthening it and paving the way for solutions geared to the specific requirements and conditions in LDCs.

**Four complementary fields of action in cooperation in science and technology for development** should, in the opinion of the Federal Government, be distinguished.

**Strengthening the innovation system in LDCs and its bridges to the production system in these countries** is to be regarded as the most important task of medium-term planning, to be executed chiefly by LDCs themselves. The

Federal Government is prepared to give intensified support to these countries' endeavours in this respect. Priority tasks seem to be:

— the establishment and development of an indigenous scientific and technological infrastructure in LDCs, enabling them to evaluate and select foreign technologies and to plan and execute their own R & D activities, in particular:

- training and advanced training facilities,
  - research establishments,
  - technology centres;
- integration of the scientific and technological infrastructure in the production system of LDCs:
- scientific and technological advisory services,
  - measuring, standardization and testing institutions,
  - information and documentation centres.

**Cooperation between the innovation system in DCs and the innovation system in LDCs** carried out by R & D institutions on both sides has the effect of strengthening directly the innovation system in LDCs. Such cooperation also stimulates indirectly the production system in these countries. The LDC partner's familiarity with the problem in question facilitates cooperation, in that technological solutions are selected which are oriented to the needs of the population, to the resources and the manufacturing conditions in LDCs.

The Federal Government gives priority support to this form of cooperation by:

— Advising LDCs on the establishment and development of their innovation systems.

— Introducing institutional promotion measures, e.g. twinings.

— Introducing problem-oriented promotion measures, namely by offering LDCs the possibility of engaging in cooperation projects for which the R & D potential in the Federal Republic of Germany can be used. In the opinion of the Federal Government, the sectors of food and agriculture, energy, natural resources, water and health are of special importance in this connection.

• Use will be made of both the government-supported research establishments and of the R & D potential of universities and industry in the Federal Republic of Germany. Funds are provided, inter alia, within the framework of "scientific and technological cooperation" under the various national R & D programmes in the individual scientific sectors.

• For the purpose of rationalizing and optimizing these measures, the Federal ministries concerned with development and R & D policy are engaged in close cooperation, including joint R & D projects for the benefit of LDCs. This cooperation is to be expanded further by the intensified involvement of science organizations.

— Promoting cooperation also below government level, in order to contribute towards the integration of the international scientific community.

**Cooperation between the innovation system in DCs and the production system in LDCs** is probably expedient only in cases where the indigenous innovation system alone is

(1) LDCs: less developed countries.  
DCs: developed countries.

not yet capable of meeting the urgent technological requirements of LDCs.

For the purpose of promoting this form of cooperation, the Federal Government has introduced a number of measures, the major objectives of which are as follows:

- Reducing the information gap between existing R & D results and the knowledge available to LDCs for solving specific problems
- by establishing a technological inquiry and information service in the Federal Republic of Germany for LDCs,
- by opening up national information systems in the Federal Republic of Germany, for the use of LDCs, as a contribution to the international efforts to utilize the fund of existing scientific and technological information for development.
- Promoting R & D projects in the Federal Republic of Germany for the adaptation of existing technologies and the development of new technologies to correspond with needs and conditions in LDCs.
- Facilitating access to the results of its own R & D activities.

### **Cooperation between the production system in DCs and the production system in LDCs**

The commercial transfer of technology influences the technological development of LDCs to a greater extent than the other forms of cooperation. The industries the establishment of which was made possible by such transfer of technology have become important pillars of growth in many of these countries. In some cases — particularly with regard to the transfer of capital-intensive technologies — it has, however, contributed little to solving the employment problem. Thus, the innovation system in LDCs is faced with making a critical choice of technologies. In most cases this choice will not result in the selection of one specific kind of technology, because only a combination of different kinds of technologies will prove appropriate for the conditions of economic dualism.

The commercial transfer of technology is effected via private enterprises, on the individual decisions of which the Federal Government has no influence. The Federal Government does, however, promote the commercial transfer of technology by a number of measures:

- by granting loans, guarantees and tax relief;
- by participating in the financing of institutions for the promotion of cooperation with LDC enterprises;
- by constructive cooperation in international endeavours aimed at intensifying the commercial transfer of technology.

These measures on the part of the Federal Government should, wherever possible, be supplemented by complementary measures introduced by LDCs with the aim of:

- creating a good atmosphere for cooperation;
- establishing attractive conditions for the transfer of technology;
- protecting intellectual property;
- not restricting unduly the freedom of contract of cooperation partners.

Within the framework of **economic cooperation**, financial cooperation in particular contributes to the establishment of the physical infrastructure in LDCs, thereby supplementing

the commercial transfer of technology, which as a rule requires the prior establishment of an initial infrastructure. Besides this, financial cooperation also promotes manufacturing enterprises, which in most cases are designed on a large-scale basis and which — as with the commercial transfer of technology — display a preference for capital-intensive solutions. In contrast, technical cooperation promotes agricultural and small-scale manufacturing enterprises in particular. The technologies transferred by this form of cooperation are more labour-intensive and better adapted to the traditional sector. It should be emphasized that the direct promotion of the production system by providing advisory services only accounts for part of this technical cooperation.

The Federal Government is prepared, inter alia, to:

- provide funds under economic cooperation, in individual cases, for the acquisition of patents and licences by LDCs;
- finance domestic currency costs within the framework of financial cooperation if such a measure is necessary in order to promote less capital-intensive projects;
- continue its policy of providing untied loans.

### **Training**

The measures for training and further training carried out under all forms of cooperation are specially important. The Federal Government therefore:

- promotes on a priority basis the development and expansion of well-balanced training and further training systems in LDCs for skilled workers, technicians and university graduates;
- endeavours to make better provision for meeting the desire of LDCs for qualified staff in the training and further training sectors, including research;
- supports both the development and dissemination of teaching technologies specially designed to meet the requirements of LDCs;
- attaches particular importance to special training and further training measures accompanying projects to be implemented whenever possible in the respective LDC itself, in order to avoid the brain drain;
- counteracts the brain drain by executing reintegration programmes.

In the opinion of the Federal Government, its measures to tackle the brain drain problem need to be supplemented by endeavours on the part of the developing countries to provide skilled staff, particularly by the better orientation of training to their requirements and to the employment possibilities.

In order to be effective, international cooperation in science and technology requires flexible mechanisms. At the national, regional and global levels it therefore has to take into consideration the interdependency of both national and multilateral activities. It should focus on improving living conditions and standards of living. The Federal Government therefore regards activities oriented to actual local and regional requirements as the priority area of cooperation with LDCs on a partnership basis. In this connection, particular importance is attached to technological cooperation between LDCs. The promotion of such cooperation is primarily a task for the international organizations. The Federal Government will continue to support this cooperation on a bilateral basis. □



## FRANCE

# The transfer of skills through sociotechnology

by Marc BULLIO(\*)

In France, as in most industrial nations, there are many institutions dealing with development and the transmission of skills. Some are public departments and others are state-subsidized or completely private companies.

Many of them run important theoretical studies, some are specialized in training and others carry out the practical work in the field, very often using one-off schemes.

If all these efforts seem to have had some positive results so far, they have been unable to prevent the widening of the gap between the high standard of living in the industrialized countries and the increasing poverty of the poorest regions of the world.

The problems have become mass problems, calling for specific methods of analysis if an attempt is to be made to find mass solutions that take account of all the relevant technical, economic and social and psychological factors.

This is the first task of CIARD, the French Committee for Inventions Adapted to the Developing Regions.



We started with a simple observation: all too often, industrialists try to sell equipment designed for their own country, and instructors to use methods that have proved successful with their own workers, without giving any thought to adapting them to the conditions in which they were to be used or the outlook of those they were to be used by in the developing countries.

CIARD therefore aims to:

- help ensure that equipment, material and techniques supplied to the developing countries are properly adapted to their needs and specific constraints;
- help these countries solve the practical problems identified by their own authorities and other specialists, by coordinating the action of economic operators who are potential innovators (experts, inventors, consultancy offices, manufacturers, organizers, etc.);
- transmit know-how by adapting to all the socio-cultural aspects of the communities being developed.

Mr Gabriel Ventejol, president of the French Economic and Social Committee, is head of CIARD, which was set up by various public and private organizations working with the developing countries.

CIARD groups together all sorts of people concerned with development matters and is in a position to ask questions of the institutions that set it up, to ensure that there is communication between them, coordination of studies and

construction, and to inform them of any difficulties that arise with adapting equipment and techniques to particular constraints and uses. It is able to call on France's inventive potential in this way.

It treats all information in the strictest confidence. It receives many requests, on needs and problems, and criticisms in respect of materials, equipment, technology, about things that are going badly or that could go better in the field.

It picks out the most remarkable inventions, innovations and adaptations made with these needs and problems in mind. And to do this, CIARD runs a continuous kind of competition.

### Guiding principles

CIARD's methods are formally set out in the code of conduct which it has produced to describe its relations with both the developing countries and the inventors and manufacturers. The guiding principles are as follows.

— The Committee has the very specific aim of contributing to finding solutions to suit the developing countries' needs as regards equipment, materials, products, techniques, methods of use, etc. The Committee does not therefore encroach on either the public authorities or the technical organizations dealing with design, development schemes or scientific and university questions.

— The Committee is a disinterested, non-profit making body that serves these countries with a view to promoting their development. It must take full account of their possibilities, problems and constraints.

— Comments, information and proposals are treated in the utmost confidence, so as to protect the rights and the culture of all concerned.

— In view of the gravity and urgency of the situation, the Committee's action is flexible and pragmatic. The competitions are always open. All specialists, research centres, consultancies and manufacturers are always encouraged to try to solve problems. Prizes are awarded for inventions or innovations as soon as the specialized judges have deemed them useful and practicable.

— All suggestions and proposals must provide for on-the-spot production.

— Any countries and public or private departments expressing a need or a problem are entitled to be told of innovations and solutions as a matter of priority. They have, if they so desire, the privilege of spreading this knowledge with or without CIARD support.

— Any countries, departments or experts detailing all the characteristics of these needs and problems and participating in experimenting and perfecting solutions in the field may be entitled to part of the patent or licence.

— The Committee suggests that the inventor or innovator provides favourable arrangements for these countries as regards transactions concerning licences, patents and know-how.

— The Committee will usually defend this position towards these countries and is willing to act as an intermediary to facilitate such agreements.

This code of conduct has inspired confidence and brought CIARD a great many requests. The Committee began by dealing with the questions referred by public departments and specialists in the countries in question. For example, we were asked to find apparatus and equipment to meet the daily needs of the families or whole communities in low-income villages. We consulted technical historians to find out what had been used in villages in other countries

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over the years. These traditional techniques are a stage of technology which can accelerate development and the expansion or creation of small and medium-sized businesses, such as maintenance or mechanical workshops, and metal workshops to produce spare parts, a lack of which often immobilizes very important equipment.

### Priority competitions

"Priority competitions have been introduced to help deal with requests.

Every year, CIARD runs a priority competition so that a problem of particular urgency to the developing countries can be settled.

Priority in 1978 went to wells. Assistance was threefold:

- collection of suggestions and criticism by the users on current methods;
- proposals of innovations by inventors;
- presentation of equipment by industrialists.

The judges in this case did not assess the inventions and innovations just for the purpose of putting them in order. They also offered the inventors support and help with getting their equipment right. This is what singles out CIARD.

At the end of December 1978, CIARD had already received hundreds of replies, first of all on problems from observers in the field. The technical and practical difficulties were transmitted by the relevant departments and specialists in the developing countries, and by ministries and major organizations with experts permanently posted in the tropics.

The judges discard, from the many replies submitted by inventors, any suggestions which lack precision and would not enable prototypes to be produced quickly. They also rule out anything involving too much finance. They have advised many inventors to try to perfect original designs that they have already started on. Many inventors have realized what difficulties there are in the developing countries and have proposed that manufacturers or other inventors work with them to improve whichever part of the pump is within their scope.

CIARD has received many replies from manufacturers. The judges have singled out certain constructors whose products are already known in the tropics and others who looked as though they would be suitable and were willing to do all they could to continue adapting their equipment (and the explanations of how to use it) to conditions in the developing countries, pointing out the need to train utilizers to set up, run, maintain and repair the boring equipment. This last point is extremely important in most tropical countries.

The competition does not end with 1978. The specialized departments in the developing countries, the inventors, research workers and manufacturers are continuing their joint effort to design properly adapted techniques and equipment.

In 1979, the subject of the priority competition is housing for the poorest people in the developing countries.

Various ambassadors, who honour CIARD by their active collaboration, have suggested this subject. They insist that their countries need to have both an overall view of work already begun and the existing solutions for the specific needs of their countries adapted as soon as possible. Ideally, they want plans for houses and villages which combine modern facilities with the best aspects of traditional housing. They hope people will propose prototypes which can be used for rural houses and others which avoid the regrettable errors apparent in the suburbs of big towns today.

The priority housing competition will be divided into a number of categories:

- overall architectural design of houses and their surroundings;
- materials for supporting and non-supporting walls and foundations;
- roofing, drainage, traditional methods to be improved or combined with other materials (new ones may need perfecting);
- doors and windows, interior fittings, kitchens;
- building techniques and processes; training of those responsible for putting the facilities to use and teaching the users. This includes the transmission of techniques and the problems the UN relates to "human establishments";
- possible methods of financing and any legal questions they may raise.

The closing date of the competition is the end of September 1979.

In 1980, the priority competition will be on the adaptation of agricultural implements for small and medium-sized farms and the adaptation of equipment made with local means and resources, with a view to meeting the essential everyday professional, social and family needs that the populations themselves express.

### A catalyst

The result of these priority competitions is obviously to bring out something now. But, more important, it is to make manufacturers want to adapt to different conditions of use and understand the outlook of their future customers.

CIARD therefore triggers off activity. It acts as a catalyst, enabling others to overcome the barriers to economic and social progress.

It uses simple ideas that emerged 30 years ago from the experience of the transmission of techniques brought about by the Marshall Plan. Then came the principles of what became sociotechnology, thanks to the work of the team on which CIARD is based.

They have always approached problems in a practical manner, using first critical information, then the combined efforts of everyone concerned and, finally, constructive imagination.

There is no longer anything unusual about these ideas. They have been espoused by those responsible for transferring technology, to the point where one might well ask whether it is not time to move on to the next stage in this particular sector and perhaps try to organize at European level what has already been organized in one of the nations of the Community.

### When will a European CIARD see the light of day?

This is something the EEC could do. It could try to get a kind of European CIARD set up under its guidance so as to follow up the action begun by general colloquia like the one just held in Varese on solar energy.

We must compare the solutions individual countries propose for specific, clearly defined problems. An exchange of experience and a comparison of methods would be useful to all concerned and it would avoid wasting time reinventing something that had already been invented by one's neighbour.

An organization such as this would have considerable impact by giving formal existence to something that is on the way to existing informally already—the European technical community.

It is by giving the developing countries practical help with overcoming their difficulties and enabling them to obtain modern techniques that Europe will make an effective contribution to creating a new international economic and moral order. □

M.B.

## ACP-EEC

# Scientific and technical cooperation

One obstacle facing all developing countries, however different they may be, is their limited scientific research and level of technological development. This is both a cause and an effect of their economic and social underdevelopment.

Clearly, for centuries, material progress in the industrialized countries has been based on increasingly systematic research into science and technology.

Although the evident relationship between scientific and technical progress and economic and social development has been recognized for a long time, scientific and technical cooperation with the developing countries has so far had only a minor role to play in cooperation as a whole. This is mainly because it is particularly difficult to achieve anything in this field, where very long-term human and financial commitments are required.

If the developing countries are to be helped out of this vicious circle (little scientific and technical progress because there is no tradition, means or outlets and little development because there is no scientific support), the industrialized world must give far greater encouragement than it has in the past to research in the developing countries, particularly in applied science (until such time as the scientific and technical infrastructure has been adequately extended), and back this up with research programmes designed to meet their specific needs.

Aid for increasing research in the developing countries is therefore a vital complement to the classic instruments of cooperation, since the lasting effect of cooperation policy will depend to a large extent on how far the developing countries are able to adapt and devise new techniques.

It is, therefore not surprising that the problem of scientific and technical cooperation has lately become a major topic in discussions and negotiations between the industrialized and the developing countries. Nearly all the international and inter-regional organizations, and those in the UN group first and foremost, are now paying particular attention to it.

One of the most important aspects of international activity here is the appearance of international programmes and organizations that have been specially set up to run R & D projects on Third World problems. These bodies, designed to concentrate human and financial resources and to avoid duplication, make it possible to carry out programmes that the UN and the specialized institutions are generally unable to handle themselves. This movement, launched by American foundations when the International Rice Research Institute (IRRI) was set up in the Philippines in 1960, has since led to 10 other similar centres being created to deal with other food products under the auspices of the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR), which is itself sponsored by the World Bank, the UNDP, the FAO and various other donor countries and foundations.

More recently, another programme on certain tropical diseases was established under the patronage of the WHO, the World Bank, the UNDP and various donor governments and foundations.

Meanwhile, the concept of appropriate technology has gained ground in both developed and developing worlds, and people are increasingly on their guard against proposals to use the scientific and technological solutions of the developed countries in the developing ones. The emphasis is on perfecting equipment and techniques of an "intermediate" nature that are right for Third World conditions, where there is a lack of capital and experience but plenty of unskilled labour. These technologies have taken on more importance since the developing countries have become independent.

### The EEC approach

The Community and its member states are some of the biggest generators and suppliers of technology in the world; for many years now they have tried to both implement and strengthen technical cooperation with the developing countries. The member states have run large-scale programmes of technical training, creation of research structures and installation of production units, all intended to make it easier for these countries to master modern techniques.

Both the Community institutions and the member states feel that the key to scientific and technical cooperation with the developing countries is to step up these countries' own scientific and technological capacities. The current inadequacy of infrastructure and capacity in almost every field of science and technology (agriculture, craft and industry) prevents the developing countries, and particularly the least developed of them, from:

- adapting and using rationally-imported know-how;
- themselves developing the techniques which they need and which would make them less dependent on foreign countries;
- protecting themselves against malpractice in technological transactions (ultimately based on a lack of information and skill).

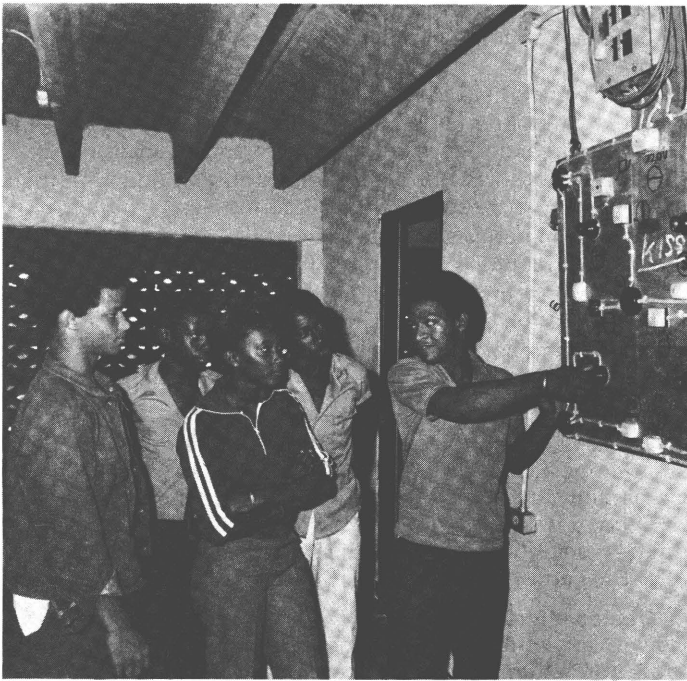
Righting this situation seems, in the long run, to be the best way of promoting, regulating and improving the transfer of scientific and technical know-how to the developing countries.

On the basis of experience already acquired, the EEC and its member states are joining with the developing countries to explore the possibilities of cooperation and to support any programmes and specific schemes that will back up what the developing countries themselves are doing.

Here the Community and the member states are particularly thinking about specific training schemes, as they feel, in the longer term, that the way to remedy the poor scientific and technical capacity of the developing countries is primarily to give appropriate training to enough people. They can then become the driving force of the countries' development in this field and deal competently with anyone who offers them scientific and technical know-how from abroad.

The Community feels that another practical field of application for this aid could be created with the opening of technical transfer and development centres at national,





*Electricity class at the Servol technical school in Trinidad, which is aided by the EDF*

sub-regional and regional level, to provide a better answer to the interdependent needs of these countries in this respect.

The cooperation which the EEC and the member states give to such centres could involve a whole range of activities: from specialized technical training programmes: specific and modern technology, technological management (patents), planning, organization of technical research, etc; through various forms of technical cooperation (studies, sending out experts, etc); to financial help with scientific (national and regional) programmes and projects.

### **Scientific and technical cooperation under the Lomé Convention**

The Lomé Convention is a framework for close cooperation between more than 50 developing countries and the European Community. It commits the Community to facilitating the transfer of technology to the ACP countries and promoting its adaptation to their needs particularly by developing ACP research capacity and adapting technology and industrial training at all levels in these states.

Title III of the Convention, on industrial cooperation, says the aims are to "facilitate the transfer of technology to the ACP states... for research, for adaptation of technology and for training in industrial skills at all levels in these states" (article 26).

In article 31, the Community says it is ready to "contribute to the establishment and expansion of industrial research facilities in the ACP states with particular reference to the adaptation of available technology to the conditions and needs of these states".

With a view to reaching these targets, the Community agrees to help carry out "by all the means provided in this Convention, programmes, projects and schemes submitted to it on the initiative or with the agreement of the ACP states in the fields of... technology and research..." (article 27).

According to programming at end 1978, the 4th EDF (1975-1980) will be spending something like 40 million EUA on scientific and technical cooperation projects for which payments started in 1977 and will be continuing after 1979. The essential feature of these programmes are scientific and technical infrastructure projects in the fields of rural, urban and health development.

It should also be noted that major scientific and technical cooperation projects are now being implemented or programmed under the Community's agreements with the Mediterranean countries, or as part of cooperation with developing countries outside the ACP group.

### **Cooperating with the ACP countries on energy**

Energy projects have so far occupied a relatively small place in cooperation with the ACP countries. There have been a whole series of schemes destined to be a basis for more extensive cooperation in the future.

The EDF has provided financing for the following alternative energy schemes:

Mauritania: project to irrigate small rice plots in the Senegal valley—a 10 kW pump (heat storage for 10 hours out of every 24) has been installed to irrigate a 20 ha plot—cost = 475 000 EUA.

Malawi: project to build an equip hospitals in the Mangochi and Nsahje districts—solar energy to be used to heat water for health purposes—scheduled to come into operation at end 1979—cost = 100 000 EUA.

Togo: two 0.9 kW solar pumps to be installed on boreholes as part of a village water engineering scheme—scheduled to come into operation at end 1979—cost = 80 000 EUA.

Comoros: ongoing study for radio relay electricity supply via system combining photo-electric cells and wind turbine—cost = 200 000 EUA.

Barbados: plans for study on air-conditioning for agricultural research centre in the indicative programme.

Niger: plans for water heating system for rural housing in the Badiguischeri department.

Upper Volta: ongoing feasibility study for processing molasses from the Banfora refinery to produce fuel alcohol as a substitute for firewood—cost = 80 000 EUA.

Cameroon: project to set up irrigated plots in the Logone and Chari departments—should involve installing 5 kW solar pumps to irrigate 10 ha of rice fields—scheduled to come into operation at end 1979—cost = 311 000 EUA.

Niger: (one of several projects)—installation of two medium-power (5 and 10 kW) solar pumps in rural areas—scheduled to come into operation in September 1979—cost = 550 000 EUA.

The Niger project, it is worth noting, involves a national body, Onersol, which will be responsible in particular for manufacturing solar captors and supervising the mounting of the whole installation.

The EDF will then be contributing 550 000 EUA to developing an Onersol-designed solar motor.

Alongside all this, there is one last form of aid, mainly for the development of rural areas, to which the Lomé Convention pays particular attention. This is the system of micro-projects, that are so well suited to the use of alternative energy.

Experience has shown that small, one-off projects can be of great importance to development:

- They enable the basic communities to find a solution to their particular problems that big projects often leave aside.

- They get the local people to participate in both the design and implementation of development schemes.
- Small projects are easy to adapt and can therefore be extended gradually.
- They make it easy to involve a large percentage of the local labour force and national goods and services.

In our view, micro-projects, applied to various types of intervention, should make it easier to get the rural communities to use alternative energy.

Recent studies have shown that, by 1985, we will have even more problems with our oil supplies. At the moment, the ACP countries as a whole import a considerable percentage of their energy requirements in the form of oil. In a tighter energy market, this situation could put a considerable brake on ACP development, reducing the financial resources available for development, worsening balances of payments and reducing the possibility of implementing projects requiring a high energy input.

If no effective cooperation is organized, the non-oil producers, be they ACP or EEC countries, are in danger of finding themselves up against greater competition for a rare and essential commodity. This would be prejudicial to all concerned. So everyone has an interest in promoting research and the use of additional or alternative sources of energy.

The Community feels that it could make a useful contribution to developing ACP energy potential.

Cooperation of this sort could involve the Community in assisting the ACP countries, with the various means available on both sides, to identify and exploit their existing and potential resources and enable them to attain a higher degree of self-sufficiency in energy.

- Such cooperation should be based on:
- assessing energy supply and demand by country and/or by region;
  - establishing lists of energy resources;
  - identifying energy projects and types of projects and weighing up experience with such projects so far;
  - mobilizing efforts in energy research and adapting them to the particular needs of the ACP countries;
  - Applying energy-saving techniques;
  - Increasing efforts to train staff for the energy sector;
  - developing investment potential as regards prospection and exploitation of potential energy resources;
  - developing scientific, technological and industrial capacity in the ACP countries so that they can meet their own needs better in all these fields.

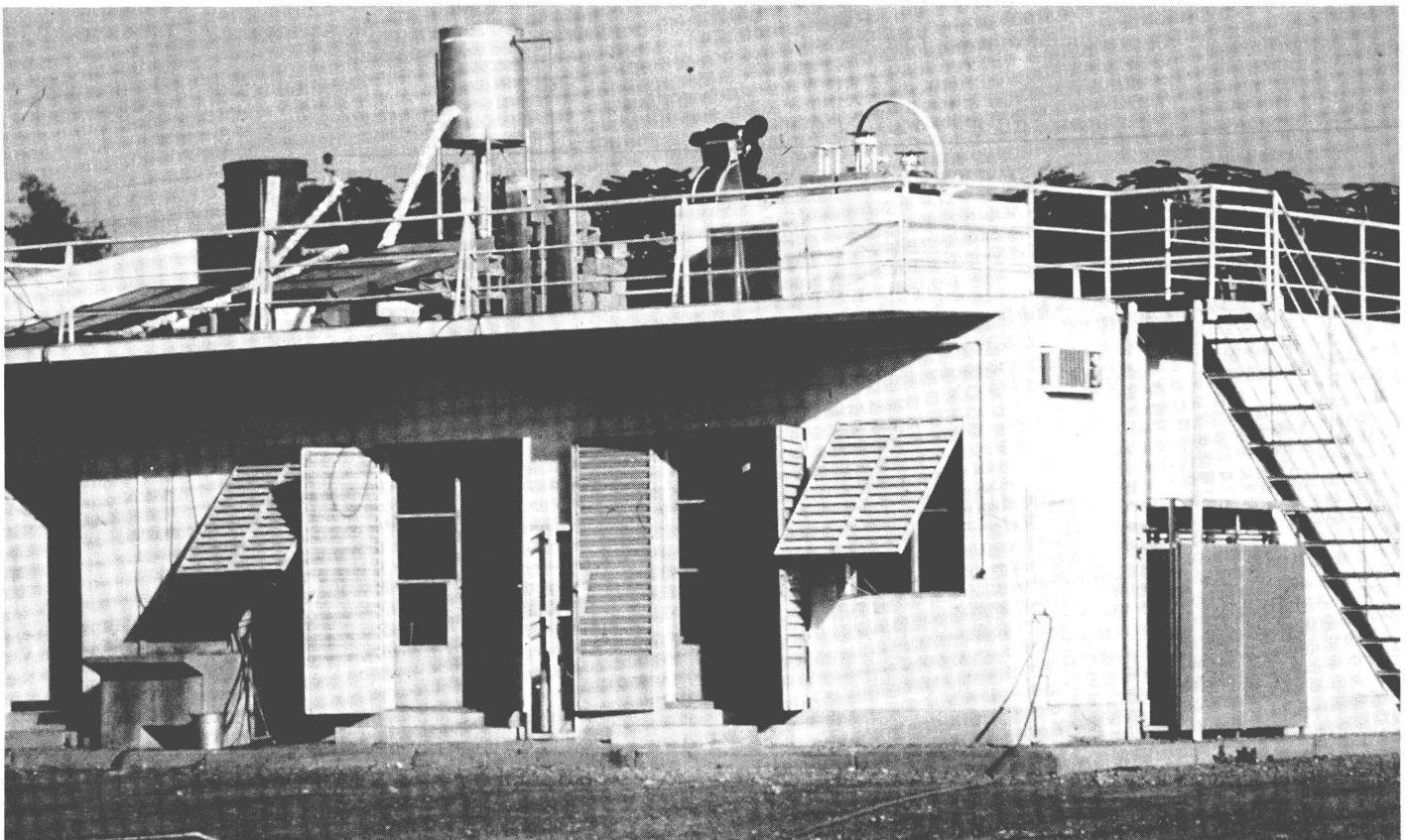
In this way, joint action in the field of energy, which is of such importance to our ACP partners and to us in the Community, could become a very important sector of ACP-EEC cooperation in the future. It obviously demands more intense scientific and technical cooperation in the next ACP-EEC convention.

Greater efforts in this field will, of course, be made with a view to solving the no less urgent problems in the sectors of food, agriculture, health and commodity supplies.

In the face of all these problems, the Community and its member states are ready to make greater use of their research capacities for the specific technological needs of the ACP countries. They are currently looking into ways of better organizing cooperation between EEC and ACP scientific and technical research bodies and seeing how certain scientific and technical research themes of interest to the developing countries in general, and the ACP group in particular, could be included in their own R & D programmes. □

R. BATTI, P. LEQUEUX, A. REITHINGER

*Working on an Onersol solar water-heater in Niger. The EDF is putting 550 000 EUA into an Onersol solar engine scheme*



## Cheysson spells out food situation to young farmers

Summary of remarks made by Mr Claude Cheysson at the second World Congress of Young Farmers, organized by the European Council of Young Farmers and the French Council of Young Farmers in Paris on 5 March.

### The world food situation is deteriorating

Despite good harvests in 1977 and 1978, the world food situation is still deteriorating. In six years, the percentage of the world population suffering a shortage of essential calories rose from 15 to 18%. The self-sufficiency of the Third World in food fell from 95 to 73% and the food deficit nearly doubled between 1972 and 1977, to reach a cost equivalent of £2 000 m. Production is expanding by only 2.5% per year, although an improvement in the situation can be achieved only if the rate of increase is twice as high.

### The Lomé policy is a rural policy

Any development model in the Third World must be based on the rural economy: most Third World inhabitants are born in the country, grow up there, learn their modes of life there, found a family there and die there. But approaches differ: they range from Lenin's workers' soviets to the peasant communism of China, from subsistence farming in the Nile delta to nomad pasture farming. The original feature in the Lomé policy is that those on the European side leave it to those on the other side of the table to decide how they will handle the resources made available to them through the European Development Fund. And it is most interesting to note that our ACP partners channel 40% of these funds to rural activities, especially through "integrated" operations which range from the improvement of crop farming to final marketing, and include training and infrastructure. As regards marke-

ting, three years' experience of using the Stabex in an amount totalling nearly £100 m shows that this insurance scheme, set up by the Community to cope with cases of bad harvests, has curbed the inevitable tendency for those affected to crowd into the towns whenever there is a bad year.

### "Flood" and food aid: Flood II

The Community's food aid scheme is well known. It involves each year 1 287 000 tonnes of cereals, 150 000 tonnes of milk powder and 45 000 tonnes of butter oil, for an amount of over £200 m per year. It is a big programme, but still falls well short of the US programme.

Flood II merits particular attention: the Community will contribute 50% (IBRD 36%, India 14%) to the £235 m being made available between 1978 and 1985.

In the first stage of Flood II, milk products will be distributed in 142 towns in India. In time, the scheme should enable India to account for its needs through its own production, employing 10 million families.

### The lack of a Community external agricultural policy and the implications of the enlargement of the Community

Mr Cheysson greatly regretted that the Community so far had no external agricultural policy and added that a "long-term contracts policy" should be seriously contemplated.

"It is unthinkable", he said, "that the Community should go on covering only 30% of its imports (\$31 000 m) by its exports (£10 300 m), whereas the rate of cover in the United States is 250% (\$25 000 m for exports, as against \$10 000 m for imports). The facilities needed for an active export policy (medium-term credit, stocking capacities on certain markets, advance refunds, etc.) must be established".

The failure to conclude a five-year contract on agricultural sales to Egypt (300 000 tonnes of cereals, 100 000 tonnes of sugar, 30 000 tonnes of milk powder per year) had prevented the Community from doubling its exports to the southern Mediterranean. Now that trade with China had become such a burning issue, "I do not see why we should open our market to Chinese products if China, in exchange, does not open its market to our cereals exports".

Soon Greece, followed by Spain and Portugal, would be joining the Community. Their agricultural production would be added to that of the Nine and new surpluses would build up, while in respect of other products the Community will remain a heavy importer. Fifteen million tonnes of maize, 12 million tonnes of soya represent FF 33 000 million of imports from non-member countries. The question arising, therefore, was: "how can our needs be better covered by our own production? Any binding commitment under GATT preventing the EEC from changing its agricultural trade must be rejected". □

## EEC-NGO cooperation in food aid

by J. VAN GENNIP(1)  
and E. TEIXEIRA  
DE MATTOS(2)

Since the early 1970s Jos van Gennip, executive director of CEBEMO, has been negotiating with the different instances of the Commission of the European Communities, first with the director-general of agriculture and commissioner Lardinois and then with the director-general of development and commissioner Cheysson, to obtain food aid for European NGOs with proved distribution capacities in the Third World. Mr van Gennip has always stressed the long-standing experience of many of the

(1) Executive director of CEBEMO (central agency for joint financing of development programmes), The Hague, The Netherlands.

(2) Part-time CEBEMO adviser.



European-based NGOs in the handling of food aid in the Third World, which is greater than the experience of the EEC in its bilateral food aid agreements.

These European NGOs have long had a good track record in handling food aid, received through their national governments and bought on the local market.

After years of negotiation and frustration, a breakthrough was achieved at a meeting with commissioner Cheysson and a number of European NGOs led by Jos van Gennip in July 1976. At this meeting it was agreed that the EEC would provide skimmed milk powder for the three main European NGOs, namely the World Council of Churches, the Catholic Group of European Caritas Agencies and the non-denominational Oxford-based international relief organization Oxfam.

Later, a number of other European NGOs joined the programme of 12 000 tons of milk powder under the EEC 1976 food aid programme.

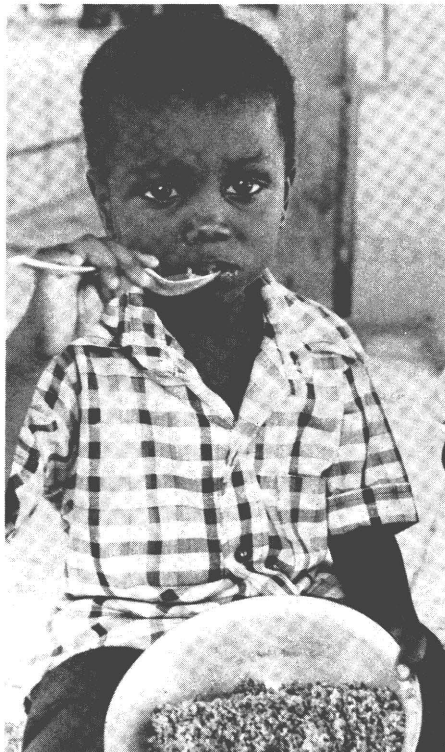
Furthermore, the EEC provided the NGOs with a lump sum contribution towards transportation and distribution costs, which are very high indeed. In order to negotiate the best shipping rates, the NGOs named a shipping expert, retired navy commander Pieter Siegers, to coordinate the supply of vitaminized milk powder to the ports of loading and the shipping agencies concerned.

The agreement was consolidated later and the execution of the first programme took place in 1977. The NGOs, however, looked to the future and again knocked on the EEC's door for continuation of the programmes. The Commission agreed, on three conditions:

- That the NGOs should name one spokesman to speak on behalf of the NGOs concerned.
- That the transport should be handled in an efficient way.
- That the distribution in the Third World should be to the satisfaction of the EEC.

In July 1977 representations of the three main groups receiving food aid from the EEC, the World Council of Churches, the European Caritas groups and Oxfam, chose the part-time CEBEMO adviser Jonkheer E. Teixeira de Mattos to speak for them at the Commission.

At to the second request of the EEC—the satisfactory handling of the



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*Inadequate food is one of the main causes of backwardness at school, besides leaving young children vulnerable to fatal illnesses*

transportation problem—Mr Cheysson gave a positive answer to Mr Jos van Gennip's plea for more food aid (letter dated 17-7-'78) and said that he was satisfied with the way in which the NGOs were working together with the EEC and with the way in which transport was being handled. He agreed to continue this kind of support to NGOs in the future.

At the same time the distribution reports were coming in, showing that the counterparts of the European NGOs in the developing countries were doing a good job of getting the food from the ships to warehouses and to projects and distribution points, some many thousands of miles away from any seaport, to feed the hungry and sick. The 1978 programme of 20 000 tons of milk powder has now been almost entirely transported (see next page).

The Commission has already proposed to the Council a quantity of 25 000 tons of skimmed milk powder for the NGOs in the 1979 programme. We hope that the decision of the Council will be reached soon.

### **Advantages and disadvantages of food aid**

Now let us have a look at some of the advantages and disadvantages of food aid.

The organizations that deal with food aid are well aware of the objections that can be made to some forms of it. For instance, dependency can be increased, home food production can be discouraged instead of encouraged, needs can be created that can only be satisfied by imports and not by local production and there are quite a few situations where the food does not reach the poorest. Unhygienic preparation can cause illness and non-vitaminized milk powder can cause complications. The lasting effect on development can be small and hungry people can become and remain beggars.

### **The quality of aid**

The non-governmental organizations should be aware of the criticisms levelled at food aid since World War II, but there is a lot to be said for it. In the first place, a number of objections to food aid are objections which can be made against development aid in general. All forms of development aid are a sort of intervention and may have very bad effects. It is the quality of the aid that determines whether or not the aid is detrimental. That applies also to food aid. When it is well distributed, going far into the slums and out into the countryside of the developing world, reaching the most needy, then food aid can be one of the most valuable forms of development aid. But there is more: according to some studies it has become clear that lack of certain types of foodstuffs in the first years of life can cause lifelong deficiencies in the development of young people, physically as well as psychologically. The situation is clearly seen in many hospitals, clinics and schools where milk products are very difficult to replace in the function of healing and nutrition. Those who know the situation in the Third World are aware that education may have only marginal effects simply because lessons are given to pupils with empty stomachs. This is without mentioning extreme situations where the availability of food makes a difference between life and death. When Jos van Gennip pleaded with commissioner Cheysson to start a food aid programme with non-governmental organizations, he mentioned the fact that there may be 99 reasons for voting against food aid but that there was one reason to start: namely that the demand from overseas for the most essential aid for people to stay alive must not be answered negatively. After food aid, one can start talking about other forms of aid, but he who is weakened, he who is hungry or undernourished, has no point of departure for further development.

There is something else: in whatever manner one evaluates the studies that

## Allocation of 20 000 tonnes of milk powder (1978 programme)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Country	Total	CAFOD	CRS	Caritas Belgica	Caritas Germanica	Caritas Italiana	Caritas Neths.	Secours Catholique Français	WCC	Oxfam Belgium
Algeria	150			50					100	
Angola	200						200			
Benin	50				50					
Botswana	5								5	
Burundi	330		250	50	30					
Cape Verde	170			50			120			
Chad	100							100		
Comoros	50							50		
Congo	100							100		
Djibouti	135				35			100		
Egypt	105				105					
Ethiopia	850				350	200	100			200
Gambia	5								5	
Ghana	820		800						20	
Guinea-Bissau	20				20					
Kenya	300		250						50	
Madagascar	200		200							
Malawi	15								15	
Mauritania	100							100		
Mauritius	15								15	
Niger	100				100					
Rwanda	80			50	30					
Senegal	965		250		500	115		100		
Sierra Leone	6								6	
Sudan	350					200			150	
Tanzania	350						300		50	
Tunisia	16		16							
Upper Volta	749		649					100		
Zaire	850			550	200		100			
India	4 533		2 186	420	600		1 177		150	
Indonesia	1 200		1 200							
Pakistan	160		160							
Philippines	105						105			
Bolivia	100						50		50	
Brazil	183						183			
Chile	1 266			70	1 130				66	
Dominica	50		50							
Jamaica	100		100							
Nicaragua	60		60							
Paraguay	54		4	50						
Peru	175						175			
Dominican Rep.	125		125							
Uruguay	300		300							
Cisjordan	65		65							
Jordan	510		500		10					
Lebanon	630				500			100	30	
Portugal	1 408		800		500			100	8	
Other NGOs	1 790									
Reserve										
<b>Total</b>	<b>20 000</b>		<b>7 965</b>	<b>1 290</b>	<b>4 160</b>	<b>515</b>	<b>2 510</b>	<b>850</b>	<b>720</b>	<b>200</b>

CAFOD: Catholic Agency For Overseas Development.  
CRS: Catholic Relief Services.  
WCC: World Council of Churches.



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*Milk powder supplied to Latin America under the food aid programme of a non-governmental organization*

have been made about the availability of food in the coming 20 to 30 years compared with the increase in world population, it will be clear that at least in the overlapping phase, the demand of the poorest in the Third World will surpass the available food aid: food aid in emergency situations and in certain development projects, in hospitals and schools, will be a necessary element in development aid for many years to come. It is thus essential not to consider this aid as something worthless but to take it seriously, to diminish the bad effects and guarantee the advantages.

One condition for executing the food aid programme well is, in the first place, the presence of professional and devoted organizers. That is to say that those who deal with food aid should do so with their hearts and minds. It would be difficult without personal devotion to solve the so often hopeless situations and to overcome the difficulties of setting up a fully-fledged food aid programme. With intelligence and professional ability, the execution of well-organized food aid programmes demands a great deal in the area of the organization of distribution, safeguards

against misuse, transport to what are very often far-away places, warehousing, processing in the harbours, ocean transport and the coordination of the delivery from the factories. The available funds must be used as economically as possible. Only when these conditions are met is a basis created for an efficient food aid programme.

But we have not reached our goal simply by satisfying organizational conditions. We must always realize that food aid is only part of a process and that, where possible, sooner or later, food aid should become superfluous. Therefore food aid must find its proper place in feeding programmes. Can local food production be increased? Can food aid improve mother and child care, and health in general? Can substitutes be found for external food aid with local products? The food aid group is thinking along these lines with the EEC and that is why they consider it responsible to ask for milk products and cereals from the EEC.

One consideration is foremost: a responsible programme and the organizational conditions for success can only

be guaranteed when the programme continues over a number of years within the context of the decision-making process of the European Communities. If multi-annual programmes, covering three, four or five years, can be established, occasional aid actions can be replaced by a continual effort. The fact of being able to command an infrastructure of warehouses and transport, but still more the mobilizing of groups and communities for longer periods, demands a multi-annual food aid programme. We hope that this will be held in mind by the different decision-making groups. European food aid is not simply a means of getting rid of surpluses in European agriculture. This point of view is shared not only by the NGOs but also by the Commission of the European Communities. Food aid is an integral part of the EEC's development aid policies and programmes. Food aid can be of vital importance in the development of those who are reached by these programmes and it would be very sad if this instrument should ever be withdrawn from the total package of development aid. □

V.G. and E. TdM



## APPROPRIATE TECHNOLOGY

### A fuel-saving family cooker

Cooking in the developing countries is very often done over an open fire. It may look cheerful, but the smoke causes irritation and sometimes infection, especially of the eyes, and it is very wasteful of fuel. With firewood becoming increasingly scarce and expensive in many regions, few families can afford to waste heat in this way. Here is a design for a family cooker which saves up to 75% of the fuel compared with an open fire.

The basic idea of the family cooker is to keep the fire and smoke in a flat metal box. The fire is at one end and the chimney at the other. The hot gases from the fire have to pass through the box on their way to the chimney, and cooking pots placed on the box will be heated up before they go on the fire. Because the fire is enclosed, except for air inlets, it burns more slowly, a higher proportion of the fuel is consumed completely, more of the heat is used and there is no smoke to pollute the house.

Further advantages are that the cooker leaves very little ash; it heats pots to boiling point quicker than if they were put on an open fire with the same amount of fuel; all sorts of fuels can be used in it, provided they are dry; and it is portable, lightweight, easy to dismantle and keep clean, and can be set at the desired height for cooking. It is

cheap to manufacture and requires materials that are found in all developing countries.

Here is a basic description of the family cooker. A detailed instruction booklet, explaining exactly how to make it and operate it, is available from the inventor, Mr J.C. Overhaart, at the address given below. Incidentally, the family cooker has won a special award from the International Council of Societies of Industrial Design.

The cooker is made of sheet metal about one millimetre thick. The metal box is 630 mm (2 ft) long, 330 mm (1 ft 1 in) wide and 40 mm (1 2/3 ins) deep. It has three holes in its top surface, one for the firebox, one for the chimney and one in the middle for preheating a cooking pot. These are respectively 180 mm (7 1/4"), 110 mm (4 1/2") and 130 mm (5 1/4") in diameter. The chimney fits into the 4 1/2" diameter hole and is simply as long as is necessary to get the smoke out of the house. It can be closed or opened by turning a flap-valve.

The firebox is the only part that is at all complicated. It consists of an outer cylinder 200 mm (8") in diameter and 175 mm (7") high, and an inner cylinder, closed at the bottom, which is 130 mm (5 1/4") in diameter and 140 mm (5 1/2") high. The outer cylinder sits on top of the big hole in the flat box. Its top rim will support the cookpot. The inner cylinder is fixed inside it, with its rim 15-20 mm (about 3/4 in) below the rim of the outer cylinder. Now for the

complication. The inner cylinder is held inside the outer cylinder by four little horizontal tubes, which go through the walls of both cylinders. They let air into the bottom of the inner cylinder. The tubes should have an inner diameter of about 6 mm (1/4 in), and they go in halfway down the wall of the outer cylinder.

Only two more things. A perforated disc on legs goes inside the inner cylinder, to act as a grate. The legs are high enough to let the air come in underneath the grate. And a handle goes on the side of the outside cylinder, to enable the ash to be emptied.

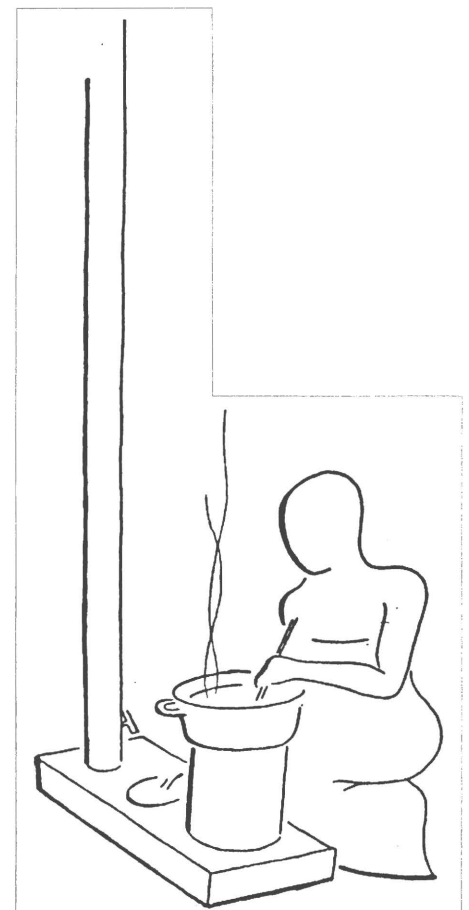
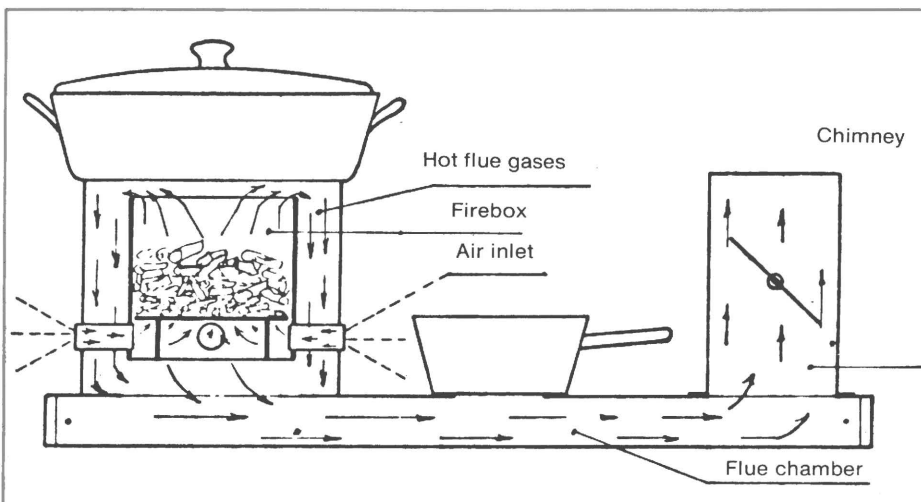
These measurements are those of a successful prototype. They can be different, provided the proportions are respected; the main point is that the cross-sectional area of the flat box (the "flue chamber") should be close to that of the chimney. Operating the family cooker is self-evident. Note that the heat of the fire, and therefore the speed at which the fuel burns, is controlled by the flap-valve in the chimney.

For full details, write to:

Mr J.C. Overhaart,  
Dept of Appropriate Technology,  
Technische Hogeschool Eindhoven,  
EINDHOVEN,  
Netherlands.

□

B.T.



# Learning at a distance

## Time-free, space-free and age-free education

by Tony KAYE(\*)

Historically, as well as at the present time, most organized, formal education is carried out in classrooms or lecture-halls, with an individual teacher, in person, imparting knowledge and skills to a group of pupils or students. Such a system, given sufficient funding for experienced and well-trained teachers, appropriate teacher-pupil ratios and adequate individual study and group work facilities, can be excellent. And for younger children, for example in primary schools, the physical organization of teachers, learning resources, and pupils in one and the same place (i.e. a school) is probably the only viable solution for providing formal educational facilities for the learning of basic literacy, numeracy and language skills.

However, the large-scale use of "intra-mural" solutions of this sort in, for example, secondary and higher education, in the training of teachers, and in vocational, technical and non-formal education, can, under certain circumstances, pose a range of problems:

**Cost** — for large numbers of learners the money needed to provide sufficient numbers of trained teachers, and adequate back-up resources, can result in prohibitively high unit (per capita) costs.

**Inflexibility** — the conventional "intra-mural" model generally implies the bringing together of teachers, resources and learners—often in pre-defined age groups—in one place at one time. These three constraints—of place, time and age range—can impose quite severe limitations on the number and nature of the students served by the system. For employed people (e.g. for in-service or "refresher" courses) it means arranging special classes at times suitable for them; for full-time students, it may mean provision of residential accommodation or transport facilities to bring them from their homes to the institution. In other cases, the numbers that can be adequately catered for are directly proportional to

the numbers of trained teachers and to the available physical facilities. And in countries where provision of some educational facilities (e.g. higher secondary schools and colleges, universities) is scarce and concentrated in urban areas, problems of urban drift and acculturation can be exacerbated by the very existence of these institutions.

### Distance learning

These types of constraints, often in the context of defined needs or pressures for increased enrolments in specific educational programmes and courses, have led in a wide variety of countries and contexts to the adoption of what are called **distance education** methods.

These are found in countries all over the world and cover an enormous variety of needs, using varying combinations of methods and techniques. However, what most of them have in common is a combination of a **relatively dispersed student population** and a **minimal reliance on face-to-face**

**teaching** (or a significant change in its role). These two principal characteristics are associated in many of the projects with one or more of the following features:

#### Concerning **students**:

- a degree of independence on the part of the learner as to the timing and location of study activities;
- an enlargement of educational opportunity by providing new target populations with access to education.

#### Concerning **learning materials and methods**:

- a flexibility in the content and curriculum of the learning materials (for example a modular structure, or a credit system);
- the use of a variety of media (print, TV, radio, kits, face-to-face teaching);
- the provision of learning materials specially designed for independent study and containing features for the provision of feedback from students to teaching staff and vice versa;
- the bringing together of learners and skilled practitioners at the local level.

#### Concerning **logistics and economies**:

- the centralized production of learning materials (printed texts, broad-

(\*) Mr Kaye is the deputy director of the Centre for International Cooperation and Services (CICS) at the Open University of the United Kingdom. Enquiries should be addressed to him at The Open University, Walton Hall, Milton Keynes, MK76AA, England.



*In Niger a radio club enthusiast tapes an interview with a fisherman*

casts, other audio-visual materials, kits);

— an optimal use of locally available resources (teachers, libraries, meeting rooms, "animateurs", communications infrastructure, business enterprises);

— a significantly lower recurrent unit cost per student than that obtainable through conventional (classroom or equivalent) teaching arrangements, and also, potentially, a considerably lower capital cost per student.

## Distance education in the EEC

Since the early 1960s, several European governments have taken a strong interest in distance education and have funded a range of projects of varying degrees of complexity and coverage.

In **France** one finds the Centre National de Télé-Enseignement (about 200 000 students), Télé-CNAM, and the Entente des Universités de l'Est.

In **West Germany** several Länder run *Quadrige Radio Colleges*, and one Länd (North Rhine Westphalia) has just established a distance teaching university—*Fernuniversität*—with 11 000 students currently enrolled.

In the **United Kingdom**, the government-sponsored Open University, established in 1970, provides a very wide range of university level and continuing education courses for part-time adult students (98 600 current enrolments), using printed course texts, TV and radio broadcasts produced by the BBC (60 hours transmission weekly) and evening and weekend classes. Also in the UK is the National Extension College—Britain's only non-profit making correspondence college—which provides functional and pre-university level courses for, currently, about 11 000 students.

In **Holland** plans are now being prepared for an "Open University" institution, and many other European projects could be cited, for example, Spain's *Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia*.

## Distance education in the ACP countries

The use of distance education methods is, if anything, even more varied in the ACP countries than in Europe. This can be understood, given the need for a rapid and relatively economic provision of education and information of the type foreseen by national development plans, in support of both formal and non-formal educational aims.

Amongst the variety of distance education projects found in the ACP countries, one can identify four major categories of aims and target groups which are being served.

The first, and perhaps potentially the most important for developmental purposes, is in the area of functional education and sensibilization, often aimed at dispersed rural populations. Examples that can be quoted here are the rural radio forums or radio clubs of **Senegal** and **Niger**. The principal elements of these are listening groups at village level, each with a local "animateur", centrally-produced radio broadcasts and supporting print materials, and facilities for feedback and dialogue between village groups and central producers. In Senegal this feedback from village farmers was used to help change and influence central government policy concerning agricultural development. Topics covered in these listening/discussion clubs include crop care, infant nutrition, national geography and culture, and so on. A different tactic, this time using short and occasional radio campaigns on a national level, with group leaders specially briefed for each campaign, has been used in **Tanzania** for subjects as diverse as political education and basic health care.

A second area in which distance education methods have been used is at secondary school level. The **Mauritius** College of the Air was established in the early 1970s to help improve the quality of secondary education in private schools on the island, using specially prepared printed texts and radio and TV broadcasts. Pupils in schools, and the teachers, can use the system as a valuable direct support for classroom work and independent study. And in southern Africa the **Botswana** Extension College (established in 1973) provides correspondence courses at Junior Certificate and GCE "O" level for adults who had left school without being able to complete their secondary education.

The third area is that of in-service teacher training, where use of distance education techniques can help develop and up-grade teachers' skills without the need to take them away from their schools and classrooms. Thus, in the **Ivory Coast**, all the primary school teachers follow a regular programme of in-service training based on TV broadcasts, correspondence, and special 24-page supplements which appear every two weeks in the national newspaper *Fraternité Matin*. This "formation continue" forms an integral part of the country's nation-wide primary level educational television project.

In **Kenya**, the Correspondence Courses Unit of the University of Nairobi has 10 years' experience of providing courses for serving teachers, leading to a secondary school certificate, and to a qualification for unqualified practising teachers. In **Nigeria** the National Teacher's Institute in Kaduna is now preparing distance education courses for in-service support and training for primary school teachers throughout this vast country.

Another example from Nigeria serves to illustrate the fourth main area of application of distance education methods: that of university-level teaching. The Correspondence and Open Studies Unit (COSU) at the University of Lagos provides courses for working adults (eg. practising teachers, businessmen, administrators) who wish to obtain a degree. Radio, correspondence texts and meetings at study centres are the principal means used by COSU. Finally, to round off this short selection of projects, there is the example of the "multinational" University of the South Pacific, which serves 11 different **Pacific** countries and in eight of them has branch campuses equipped with radio transmitter/receiver facilities linked by an ATS-1 satellite to one another and to the university headquarters in Fiji. Thus students following the university's extension courses can communicate with their teachers over an area the size of the USA—and which contains five time zones!

## Looking ahead

Distance education methods can serve a wide range of applications and can be very flexible in catering for needs in diverse contexts. These methods can also be much less costly than conventional solutions to problems of education and training, especially when large student groups are being served, or when students are spread over a wide geographical area. It is evident that the use of these methods has developed considerably since the early days of "correspondence study". This is partly due to the use of new media—broadcast and non-broadcast—and of new techniques for providing feedback and interaction between learners and central course production staff. But distance learning is still a relative newcomer to the educational field, and in the future we can hope to see further developments, and new applications, as more is learnt about modern communication techniques and technologies, and as the demand for learning facilities for adults becomes even greater. □ T.K.



# Cooperation and African education

by SEBASONI S. MANZI(\*)

Producing an exhaustive list of all the problems facing African education at the moment would be an impossible task. And it would be equally impossible to produce a miracle recipe to solve them all. It is not because one is African that one has infallible views on Africa. Africans who criticize the education system inherited from colonial times should not lose sight of the fact that they themselves are the products, the beneficiaries and the victims of it.

My aim is the modest one of trying to start up a discussion from which everyone can take out as much as he puts in. I shall try to take an overall view, as there is a tendency for people with first-hand knowledge of specific situations to wallow comfortably in anecdotes.

The subject is boundless but may be brought down to three points which seem to me essential: a critical analysis of the present situation, suggestions for a specifically African education system and the part played by European cooperation.

## Critical analysis of the present situation

African education must be seen against the background of the world crisis in education in general and teaching in particular. In this world unified by the media, which distribute the dominant culture, Africa's post-colonization identity crisis is heightened because it is forced to live through all the crises of the ex-colonial powers of the West.

Education in the West is faced with four paradoxical questions. Should it prepare people to create the world or to understand it? Should schools be de-institutionalized and made the affair of the community? Should schools (which used to be a pleasure and have now become a grind) reintroduce the leisure dimension now that society is more concerned with the quality of life

and having the time to live? And finally, is an education born of a civilization that prizes profitability and output the only hope for rich and poor countries alike? But what is profitable and what isn't? Is poetry profitable? Africans, like everyone else, are still trying to reconcile these contradictions.

Another factor is that African education has been imported by the currently dominant culture. Whether consciously or not, Western culture is trying to replace the set of meanings on which the life of traditional societies is based by another set of meanings that now dominate. There are a number of implications.

For example, there is the (previously obvious but now more discreet) desire for the school to sort out the potential Westerners in African society. In the 1900-style missionary, in the tireless quest for "advanced" status in Belgian Africa, and in the French journalist of today who thinks the best thing about Senghor is that he was the first negro to get the agrégation (a post-degree competitive examination) in French, the process is the same and the outlook, although somewhat more polite, remains unchanged.

Hence the deplorable gap between teaching and life in Africa, to the extent where school is the best way of escaping from traditional society rather than improving it. Indeed it would be surprising if there were not this dichotomy between schools and the changing way of life we call development.

So it is not surprising that the cooperation officer has little interest in a culture when those whose culture it is are ashamed of it. The Westerner feels he is in possession of the truth. He comes to show the Africans how to be, what to do, how to behave and how to talk.

Knick-knacks from ages past, so revered as to be culturally inoffensive, do not signify a great respect for culture. Obviously, some owners of (real or false) African masks are genuine culture vultures. But no doubt most of them just like flying about in jet planes.

There is still considerable disparity between educational facilities in the town and in the country in Africa today.

Access to all things European is symbolized by living in the town. And people move to the towns because they find rural areas pointless rather than urban life attractive. Some of them are uprooted, ill-at-ease and disappointed at being unable to realize their pipe-dreams of the town and others, from the country, vegetate and vainly seek a meaning to life.

Finally, in Africa as elsewhere, there is no clear-cut choice between general education and the minimum practical grounding, between a school which develops the individual's faculties and enables him to choose his job freely and the one which prepares him for a specific job by supplying him with the appropriate instructions. We are expected to opt for one or the other, although both are necessary and complementary. A synthesis has still to be found.

What is school for? No unanimous answer has yet been found in Africa or anywhere else. And it is in this climate of uncertainty that a specifically African education system has to be devised.

## A specifically African education system

The search for a specifically African system of education presupposes that there will be no sterile imitation of Western models. This banal statement gets unanimous approval provided no action is actually required. But as soon as it has to be translated into specific reforms, the spirit of invention wanes and vested interests and the routine that serves them surreptitiously return. And the average cooperation officer resists, afraid of the idea of doing something different from the folks back home. But nevertheless, there are signs that the search for a specifically African system is starting to interest even financing bodies, which feel Western-style teaching is a pointless waste of money.

As far as the theory is concerned, everyone agrees that uniformity is a bad thing and would make it impossible to reach the stated aims of growth and development. But in practice, certain groups and certain nations (and not the smallest ones either!) think that the standardization of languages and outlooks makes life in all its aspects very much easier. Ultimately, everything depends on the design behind the cooperation. Is the idea to conquer

(\*) Mr Manzi is a Rwandese teacher working in Brussels.



A school in France (above) and another in Madagascar (below): even the style of the school buildings represents a total break with African values



or to cooperate? Until cooperation has been rid of the desire to conquer, it will remain an advanced form of domination over spheres of influence, satellite national and so on. Colonization turned Africans into Europeans without the Europeans' help. Cooperation has

the courtesy to actually involve the Europeans.

A specifically African system of education must seek answers to the problems of Africans and African nations. It must, for example, try to even out the disparity between town and country

and it must provide a wide range of courses technical, general, artistic and vocational. A diverse education system will make it easier to see through the illusory attraction of such and such a milieu (town versus country) or such and such a type of education. It will have a greater chance of bringing out a diversity of talent. Everyone, thank heavens, was not made in the same mould. Obviously there needs to be a basic core so that the largest number of people possible can understand the aims of the nation and participate in achieving them in a fuller understanding of the facts. But once this is achieved, it would be wrong for some branches of study to be more beneficial, as this would discredit other branches.

A specifically African system of education must enable Africans to deepen their knowledge of themselves, of their history, their institutions, their art and their literature, of the African gift for living together, the African answer to individual tension and social conflict, and the African scale of values, which is a reality and not just a pretty expression. We must realize that the content of an action is more important than the time it takes. Think how the West could benefit from a culture where man does not fight nature, where he fits in with it in humility and negotiates their mutual survival and where thought does not widen gaps but seeks to combine apparent contradictions.

Knowing each other better, the Africans will appreciate other cultures more. They will see what is lasting and what is not. They will choose new cultural values with other criteria than the prestige of what is novel and unusual. They will be more aware of what they can give others. It would also be nice to think (but perhaps this is the realm of the gods) that knowledge such as this would stimulate a new creativity which would bring from the museums an Africa worthy of attention...

Schools cannot be defined, provided and run by the far-off state and its foreign advisers alone. Schools must grow out of society as both a need and an answer. This means that cooperation officers must now only be used to help out, particularly since it is becoming more and more common for them to go home just as they start being useful. It also means that teaching jobs can no longer be reserved for those who aren't interested in money and that it is a bad thing (for the whole community, not just the teachers) for there to be an excessive difference in the salaries paid in the teaching profession and other professions and to cooperation officers and nationals. I think we can safely say that a society's self-es-



*Depending on the teaching they receive, these Sudanese youngsters will value or reject their own culture*

teem can be judged by the esteem in which it holds its teachers and its educators.

### **The strength and the weakness of the cooperation officer**

Philosophy as taught in schools says the world was created by the unrestrainable need for Good to spread (*bonum est diffusivum sui*). Nowhere have I found better attenuating circumstances for the culture-devastating enthusiasm of the missionary of Western civilization. If you think you are in possession of Truth and Happiness, then there is no excuse for not trying to share them. He who spreads his culture by killing others is no more than a wayward creator. And as for the cooperation officer, his one aim is to bring culture (this is his strength) without laying others to waste (this would be his weakness).

It will by now be clear that I do not agree with the facile, unsubtle Manicheanism whereby cooperation officers are the agents of imperialism. Agents of imperialism they are without a doubt. But it is not as easy as that. There are cooperation officers who are deliberate agents of imperialism. There are some who do not realize they are and others who refuse to do the job, more or less happily. And there are

some who serve their culture with less zeal and effectiveness than a certain African elite.

The cooperation officer who is part of a teaching team can encourage the search for a specific African way of teaching, instead of hindering other people's efforts with discouraging ethnocentrism. But in this case, he must be willing and able to "shake off his country".

But very few really see themselves as emissaries of their countries or envoys of the Western world. There are more who are (subconsciously and therefore profoundly) so convinced of the excellence of their world that they could dream of no other. There is a less flagrant attitude towards Arab and Asiatic cultures, which the West considers as great, but, in black Africa, there are less scruples.

The cooperation officer's second task is tied up with the first. He must be familiar with the cultural environment of his pupils, if only to have an idea of their learning process and to save himself the tiring job of turning them into Europeans before he can start teaching them anything.

However, there is one sort of knowledge about Africa that reassures the cooperation officer as to the superiority of his own knowledge, culture and

know-how. This is dispensed to new arrivals by the old guard at long initiation evenings and it is put across in phases that invariably start with "they": the anonymous, collective "they" that keeps distances and preserves superiority.

The cooperation officer has to show what he is there for. He has to know enough about his subject to get across the point of what he is teaching and to be a useful part of any practical scheme. Some of them imagine that being European is enough and that they don't need to be competent as well, that anyone who comes out from Europe is automatically an expert.

The balance of power is such that what they stand for is still applauded loudly on stage, but their own personalities get severely judged in whispers in the wings.

Finally, the cooperation officer doesn't always teach. He often administers. But here too he can be useful. As he belongs to another culture, he can arouse the curiosity of those around him every day and open them to the outside world. If he really is an expert, then his experience will enable him to untangle apparently hopeless situations. He can save "young" nations the trouble of pointlessly groping about and going in for those endless reforms that appear in springtime and get washed away with the first rains.

\*  
\* \*

Neither cooperation officers or native teachers will probably be able find ideal answers to Africa's educational problems. But we can all help. We must not abandon the idea of doing something just because our action would be fragmentary or contain some latent defect. Modestly, we must count on the cumulative effect and be proud to have laid one of the bricks of a house we shall perhaps never see. This is the story of any long-drawn-out affair. He who is impatient to make his mark on a nation, on history or on a child may well do irreparable damage. In the words of the African proverb, the hasty bitch has blind pups.

However, none of this should mask the essential. The biggest barriers to specifically African solutions in the educational (as in every other) sector is that Africans are tempted by easy short cuts and cultural alienation, and the European cooperation officers are ethnocentric and proud of their official record. "We took 2000 years and "they" want to do it at breakneck speed", they often say in cooperation circles. But that's another story. □

S.S.M.



## SWAZILAND

# The Mananga Agricultural Management Centre

## International training for a new generation of farm managers

Most people who visit Swaziland see Mbabane, the capital, Manzini, the main business centre, and little else. But nearly 500 managers from all over Africa have visited the north-eastern part of Swaziland, near Tshaheni, near the Mozambique border. They went to take a three-month course at the Mananga Agricultural Management Centre(1) on its attractive campus, in the midst of vast sugar plantations (the Mhlume refinery is not far off), at the foot of the 2 600 ft Mananga Mountain.

The MAMC was created and financed by the Commonwealth Development Corporation (UK) in 1972 and the first course began in April 1973. As Harry Smith (principal) and Frank Youdale (senior lecturer) explained, when the CDC opened the MAMC it was aiming to fill a gap and train managers for agricultural projects rather than to provide training in agriculture in general.

### Motivating the farmers

In Mr Smith's view, the MAMC is primarily intended for middle management staff working on agricultural projects and, unlike the universities, which provide high-level agricultural training, it is specifically geared to the management of agricultural projects. "We meet the students' needs by building on the experience they already have and by giving them greater knowledge.

"This is not just based on management techniques, but, most important perhaps, on deepening and improving all their human relations in their daily lives on a project or an agricultural undertaking. Generally speaking, agricultural development in the developing countries is not a question of techniques, of how to grow maize, for example. It depends on people being motivated. The agricultural methods used in the industrialized countries tend not to attach enough importance to moti-

vating the farmers and so it is not a good idea to transpose them lock, stock and barrel, particularly since most developing countries have reached a transitional stage half-way between subsistence and commercial agriculture", Mr Smith said.

### Training made to measure

The MAMC can only take 35 students at a time and so 30 or so managers follow each course of advanced training. One of the problems is that students drop out, for minor reasons, at the last moment, making it difficult to find replacements. Yet there is no shortage of applicants. The fees for the course were 2 500 emalangeni(2) last year, but they will be going up to 3 000 this year as they only covered  $\frac{2}{3}$  of the

fixed costs (staff salaries—four teachers and one head—and maintenance).

In return for these fees, students (most of whom are on study grants, although one or two are paid by private firms) get a tailor-made course in English. The usual three-month stint (there are three each year) for middle managers is divided into two. Part one is a core course which everyone follows and part two, taking up roughly half the study time, consists of various options. These are grouped into three major sub-categories, each of which is aimed at managers from business and semi-state enterprises (mainly interested in the profitability of agricultural projects), from government and other public services (usually the biggest group) or from other agricultural/financial institutions, such as cooperatives and agricultural development banks involved in credit facilities in the rural sector.

What singles the MAMC out is that it builds on the experience the students have already obtained in the field, giving them "added value" by getting them to see how to improve their ideas of management for themselves, rather than just showing them what to do. There are stringent entrance requirements. Candidates must have spent at least two years in an agricultural col-



One of the MAMC buildings:  
a good environment for learning

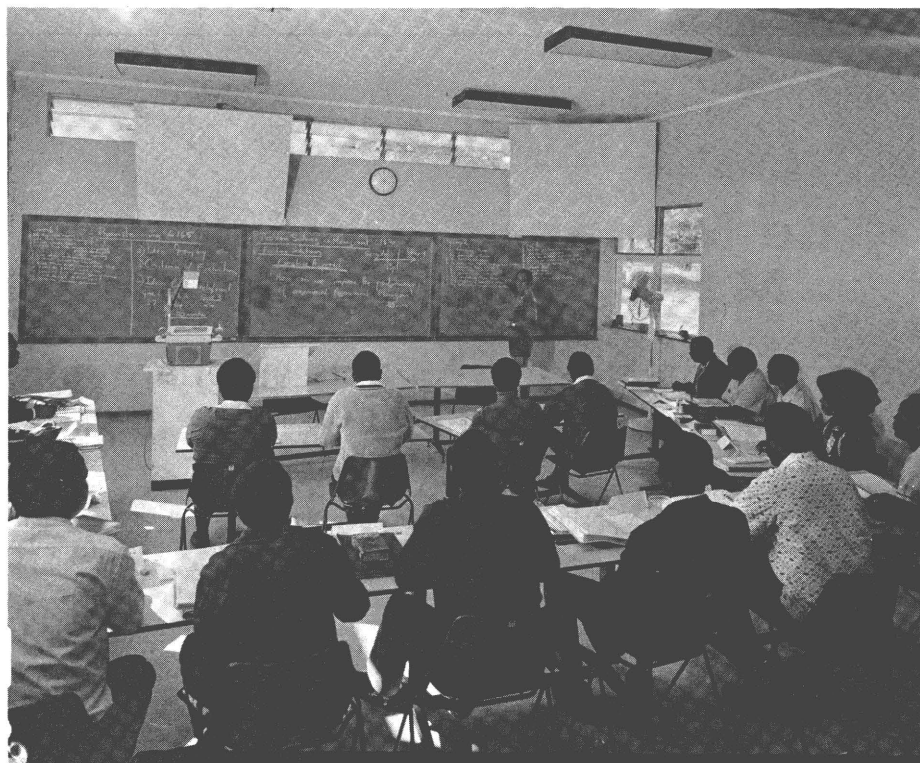
(1) Mananga Agricultural Management Centre, P.O. Box 96 — Tshaheni — Swaziland, (Telex 2092 WD).

(2) 1 EUA = 1.185 emalangeni.

lege (or equivalent; only 20% of students have any sort of university qualification) and have at least three, and preferably five, years' experience of agricultural project management.

The course is based on work in groups, where students discuss their ideas and approaches on the basis of their own practical experience. They also get the opportunity to do research and practical exercises on farms in the area.

Special courses, again aimed at meeting the needs of the "customer", have also been run. There were a number of one-week courses for assistant managers and a four-week course for general managers in July 1977. The 35 people on the latter course came from 17 different countries and represented 27 different organizations, 20 of which had already sent middle management staff to the regular courses. As Mr Smith put it, "the customers are loyal to the product", which is why such courses will be run again.



*In the classroom: a lecture on increasing farm profitability  
(Below) The MAMC refectory: pupils and teachers chat over a meal*

## A means of development

The MAMC does not run an end-of-course examination because students attend in order to learn something that will help them do their jobs better afterwards. They are issued with a diploma and their employers receive a report on their ability to assimilate the main subjects covered. Once he goes back to work, the manager will obviously have to use this ability to do better, which can sometimes pose problems. "While he is with us, the manager learns to analyse problems and to look for the best possible solution in a given situation. But he can be faced with dilemmas or even conflict. The profound respect which people in the developing countries have for the aged is a good thing. But from the point of view of management it may not be such a good thing if the result is blind obedience. With his freedom of action and his new approach, the young manager will sometimes come into conflict with the social structure of his milieu and his place of work", Frank Youdale said.

Mr Youdale has tried to run a pilot study of the careers of a group of ex-MAMC students: 60% of them changed their jobs within 18 months of completing the course, most of them to take on greater responsibility in the same organization or in other firms or departments. "Although things change faster in Africa than they do in Europe, we have to conclude that our managers use what they have learnt here as a means of development", he said. So it



is up to ex-MAMC students to have enough presence, vis-à-vis the people above them in their firms and their departments, to put what they have learnt into practice.

MAMC waiting lists get longer and longer as more and more applications come in. It is faced with the possible problem of having to expand, and of seeking the money to do so. And it certainly has to find sponsors to provide its students with grants. Mr Smith also emphasized that the MAMC wants

to extend its cooperation with agricultural development organizations in the industrialized countries, particularly those in Europe.

Meanwhile, in this corner of Africa, African managers from what are often very different backgrounds go on discussing their ideas to the benefit of all concerned, including, as Frank Youdale made clear, the teachers themselves. And so a new generation of agricultural managers is gradually taking its place. □ R.D.B.

## ITALY

### ACP students at the Institute of Technical Cooperation

by Paolo GALEOTTI(\*)

The job of the Institute of Technical Cooperation is to ensure that the European Community's EDF-financed programme of study and training course grants for ACP students is properly implemented.

#### Sun, song and cities

Ten years ago, Italy meant little more than sun, song and beautiful cities to most people abroad. Today its reputation owes more to its dynamic industries, especially construction, and its highly specialized medical profession. As an industrialized country, Italy has recent and relevant experience of training skilled workers. Its industry, agriculture, universities and vocational training centres all have their effect on the international economy, not because of the level of development the country has attained, but because its model for development is a valuable example for the developing world.

Italy is a strange mixture. The north is like the highly developed countries of the West and the problems and standards of living in the south are reminiscent of certain developing countries. Traditionally an agricultural country, Italy has managed rapid industrial development in only a few years, but without evening out its internal disparities. Consequently, it is a particularly interesting case for other countries (and there are many of them in Africa) with similar problems.

The 300 ACP students who have been studying in Italian universities and vocational training centres over the past few years are proof of this. Three hundred is quite a lot, bearing in mind that the tendency at international level is to concentrate on short courses rather than long ones.

What does Italy contribute to this sector? Looking beyond the statistical data and certain structural difficulties,

it is extremely active in boosting cooperation and trade between EEC and ACP countries.

#### Education: one of the main aims of development

Education is one of the main aims of development. The universities especially have a fundamental part to play in getting technology adapted. They provide young people with knowledge they can adapt to the demands of their own countries, thus enabling the graduates to be instrumental in development when they return home. But there is more to it than just transmitting know-how. Any academic institution gets its reputation from the results of its teaching and research. But human values are what count and university teaching is only fulfilling its function if it is designed to meet human aspirations.

In addition to the traditional universities in Rome, Milan, Bologna, Florence, Turin and Bari, where ACP students can read agriculture, economics and engineering, there are other institutions and special centres offering training courses that are known to meet the needs of students from ACP countries. Into this category come the IRI (Italian Institute for Reconstruction), which is famous for its range of industrial courses), Finafrica (agricultural credit and project preparation), the Borgoa Mozzano agricultural training centre, the CEFA (European Committee for Agricultural Training) in Bologna, the ILO vocational and technical training centre in Turin and a number of other establishments that specialize in the management of small and medium-sized businesses, tourism, arts and crafts and so on.

#### Training in new forms of energy

The EEC's Joint Research Centre at Varese provides research and development training in new forms of energy, as do a number of Italy's industrial groupings which are attempting to use training as a means of bringing about a genuine transfer of technology.

For the last three years, the ITC has been doing the difficult job of administering the study/training sector. It has to bring about a proper balance and help young foreigners assimilate modern methods while respecting their culture and traditions. In theory the

problems are easy to solve, but in practice they are less so. Think of what is involved in making students welcome when they arrive, assisting them with their health and administrative problems (no shortage of red tape in Italy!) and helping them learn something about human relationships that they, as young professionals, will perhaps find more useful than all their technical knowledge when they get back home.

#### Direct contact with all sectors of Italian industry

The particular aim of the ITC is to enable young grant-holders to back up their training by making direct contact with all sectors of Italian industry. There are regular round tables, meetings and visits to large, small and medium-sized firms for this purpose. First-hand experience of, say, a complete cycle of agricultural production enables the student to clarify any doubts he may have encountered in studying the theory. The visits and meetings are coordinated with the theoretical courses and take account of the student's intended career.

The visits often coincide with major events like the Milan, Bari or Verona trade fairs. The organizers by no means monopolize the opportunities provided. On the contrary, the visits are an opportunity for students to make direct contact with industry and arrange for in-service courses at any time during their training.

#### Culture and human understanding

The students get in touch with other schools and vocational training centres where there are students from other developing countries. The ITC makes every effort to encourage contact with students of different cultures and with different traditions and, as recent years have shown, this had led to an extremely worthwhile exchange of ideas and experience. And let us not forget the international conferences to which students are constantly being invited.

Training in culture and training in human understanding—two aspects of the educational programme which we at the ITC are doing our best to implement. □

P.G.

(\*) Italian Ministry of Foreign Affairs, department of technical cooperation with the developing countries.



## TOGO

## Results

# Agricultural development in the Kara Valley (\*)

This project, which is being financed from the 4th EDF, is a continuation of a scheme begun in 1974 with CFAF 127 500 000 (about 459 000 EUA) from the remainder of the 2nd EDF. The first scheme lasted three years and involved settling 200 peasant families from the overcrowded Kabié plateau on vacant land along the right bank of the Kara, and giving each of them 5 ha, half of it cleared and ready for sowing. Viability was to be ensured by civil engineering works (tracks and infrastructure) and the provision of water supplies (wells).

This scheme ultimately resulted in 250 Kabié peasant families being properly settled and so a second scheme, with financing from the 4th EDF, was started.

### The present project

The aim is to install 800 more families (about 70% Kabié migrants and 30% locals) in the same area, under

similar conditions to the first project. The programme is scheduled to last four years (1977-1981) and 200 families will be settled each year. As well as installing the various peasant farmers, the project also aims to ensure that the extensive traditional agriculture is replaced by a more productive system. It will do this by introducing techniques to improve resources (crop rotation, selected seeds, mineral fertilizer, etc.) and particularly, by getting everyone to use ox-drawn tillage equipment.

At the end of the initial 2nd EDF project, in 1977, 250 families had been installed in the area. In 1978, the first year of the present project, 171 more families were brought in, bringing the total number of families in the scheme to 421 (306 migrants and 85 native Nambas).

About 30 families later dropped out. Seven of them were asked to leave for refusing to comply with official instructions, five left when the head of family died and a further 18 went for personal reasons and returned to their old areas.

**Land clearance:** So far, 1028 ha have been cleared and made ready for sowing. As the 30 families left in 1978, only 253 ha were ultimately cultivated, as follows:

Crop	Area (ha)	Yield (t per ha)	Production (t)
Sorghum	582	0.8	466
Maize	72	0.9	65
Paddy rice	50.7	1.93	98
Groundnuts	39	0.8	31
Beans	20	0.7	14
Yams	—	—	—
Manioc	189.3	12	272
	953.0		

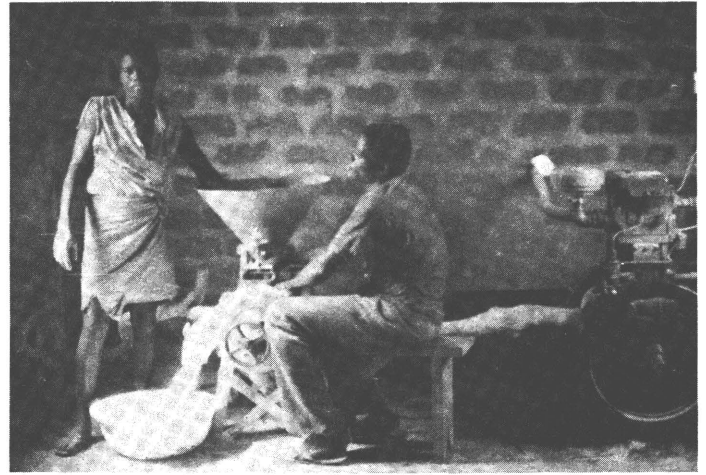
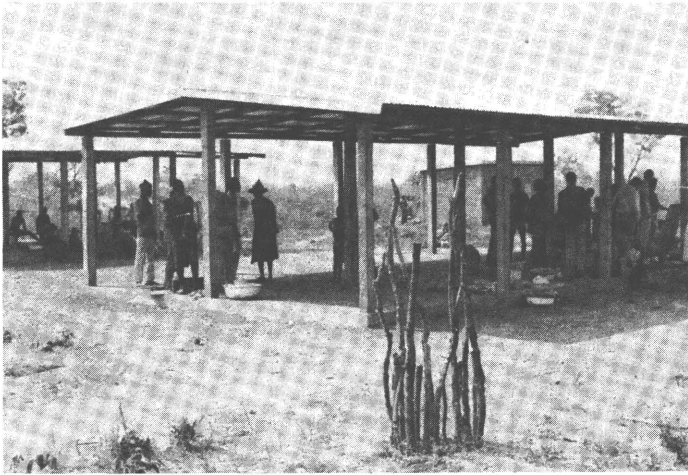
(\*) From the Commission delegate in Togo.



The use of working animals is a key move in the improvement of farming in the Kara



One of the 11 wells drilled during the project, to tap water 70 feet down



*The villagers asked for a simple but functional market, and have set up two teams who grind millet for a small fee*

**Rural buildings:** The following have been constructed:

- 16 stores in the various centres (Agbassa, Brokou & Misséouta);
- 1 central shed, 1 garage/workshop, 1 office and 1 school at Brokou;
- 1 school at Agbassa;
- 1 covered market (two sheds) at Brokou;
- 2 covered millet mills at Brokou and Agbassa.

**Wells and boreholes:** 16 wells and 16 boreholes have been sunk in the area covered by the project. Six of the boreholes have already been fitted with manual pumps and the rest are now being installed.

**Rural tracks:** 42.1 km of access tracks and 29.6 km of service tracks to the plots have been completed.

**Draft tillage:** An ox dressage centre (with shelter) has been built at Brokou. The project currently has:

- 23 pairs of trained oxen, five of them in the hands of the peasant farmers themselves;
- 47 all-purpose cultivators;
- 17 seeders, three of them for rice;
- 10 harrows;
- 5 carts.

**Equipment for land clearance, transport and civil engineering:**

- 3 Caterpillar bulldozers (1 D6 & 2 D4);
- 1 Rome plow;
- 1 Caterpillar grader;
- 1 Albaret compactor;
- 2 agricultural tractors (MF 265);
- 2 Ford trucks;
- 1 Peugeot 504 estate van;
- 1 VW minibus;
- 8 bicycles, 6 motorized cycles and 2 motorbikes.

## Staff

The project is being run by the director of the Kara ORPV. He has three

technical assistants from the Agropress agency:

- 1 agricultural engineer, adviser to the project director;
- 1 agricultural engineer to survey new land and help settle the peasant farmers;
- 1 agricultural technician in charge of animal-drawn tillage.

The project employs the following Togolese staff:

- 1 agricultural engineer to teach the techniques to the farmers;
- 1 agricultural engineer in charge of management and accounting;
- 1 rural engineer in charge of infrastructure;
- 5 monitors, 17 extension staff and 4 herdsmen/trainers.

## Financial situation

The accounts for the 2nd EDF project are now being wound up and CFAF 5

million are being paid out. Commitments from the 4th EDF (amount in the agreement 2 698 000 EUA) were 850 544.84 EUA on 30 November 1978 and actual expenditure was 673 705.55 EUA.

## Conclusion

The project has been planned in two stages. Stage one is nearing completion and an analysis of the results is now being drawn up. This should shortly mean that the Community can decide on the advisability of stage two. In any case, in spite of various hitches of the sort that always occur in projects of this type (although the terms of the financing agreement have been complied with), the scheme has undeniably made it easier to assess the regional constraints on agricultural development, thereby making them easier to overcome. □



*One of the first farmers' houses, set up in 1974, shows how the new buildings fit in with the local styles*

## RWANDA

### Indicative programme: 95.6% now committed

The fourth EDF indicative programme for Rwanda is being implemented at a reasonable rate. Most of the first two years after the Lomé Convention took effect were spent finalizing studies, assessing projects and issuing national and international invitations to tender, and work on the big infrastructure and training projects began in year three. This was reflected in spending: 0.2% in 1976 (9 months), 0.4% in 1977 and 21.2% in 1978, i.e. 25.4% in all of the 4th EDF indicative programme of 59 500 000 EUA.

#### Summary of aid in 1978

Contracts were awarded and work began on the big 4th EDF projects, namely the Mukungwa HEP station and the Kigali-Butare-Burundi border road. The financing decision for the construction of the Institut Pédagogique National at Ruhengeri was also taken, the contract was awarded and work has since begun. So, apart from one scheme (to build a water supply network), all the projects on the 4th EDF indicative programme are now under way.

Preparation for construction of the tin foundry (EIB loan, risk capital—3 million EUA) also began in 1978.



EDF projects in Rwanda have covered a wide range. Above, a girls' school

During the year 12 692 000 EUA (RwF 1 479 454 000), not including food aid, was granted: 1.23% came from the 2nd EDF, 5.95% from the 3rd and 92.82% from the 4th. Of this, 41% was for industrialization (electrification), 20% for transport infrastructure, 17% for rural production and 16% was exceptional aid (to constitute a fuel reserve and purchase 40 trucks).

The Commission took financing decisions for five projects:

— Construction of the Institut Pédagogique National at Ruhengeri (no staff housing)	1 700 000 EUA
— Works supervision, faculty of medicine	12 000 EUA
— Extension of technical assistance at the Ministry of Public Works	50 000 EUA
— Economic study, Butare-Cyangugu road	85 000 EUA
— Agricultural project identification mission (studies)	350 000 EUA

The decisions mean that 95.6% of the 4th EDF indicative programme funds (total amount 59.5 m EUA) have now been committed.

Once the EIB-Somirwa financing contract had been signed, the foundation stone of the tin foundry was laid in February 1978 and production is scheduled to begin in the second half of 1981.

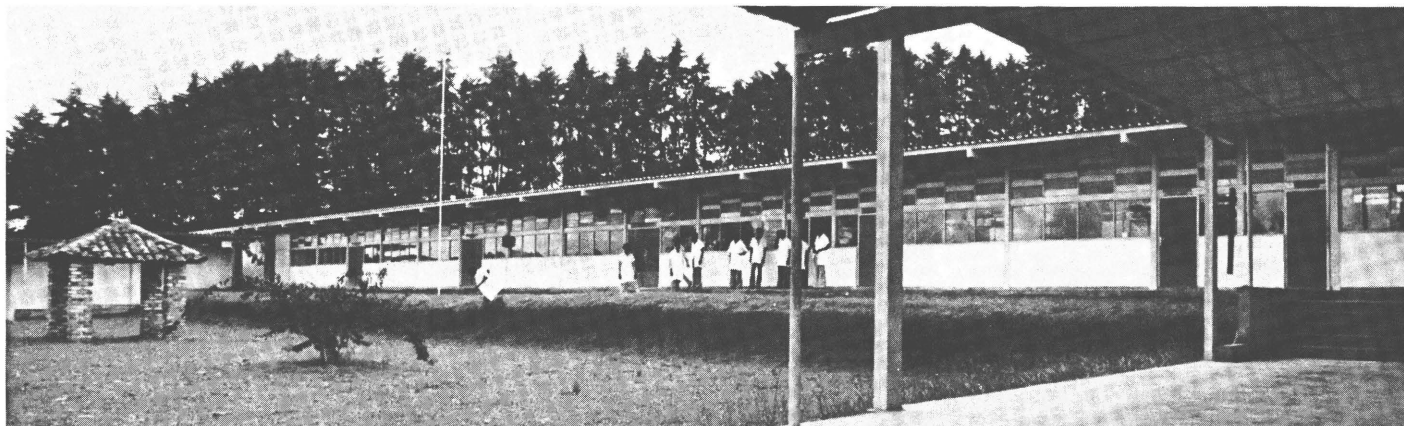
The EEC granted food aid, consisting of 2 000 t grain and 500 t milkpowder, for 1978 and these quantities are now being delivered.

There are 430 EDF students, 394 of them studying in Rwanda itself, 21 in other countries of Africa and 15 in Europe.

Eleven NGOs (non-governmental organizations, EEC) are involved in cofinancing a variety of development projects with the EEC in Rwanda.

Rwanda is also concerned in seven of the EDF's regional projects. □

A boys' technical school





## NIGERIA

# The National Museum craft village complex

by Umebe ARAH(\*)

The craft village and kitchen complex of the National Museum was opened in October 1977. The complex is made up of small, oval-shaped wooden huts with thatched roofing. These huts remind one of the type one sees in villages and there is that urge to get into the hut and see what it is all about. Each hut houses a different craftsman. At present we have, occupying the various huts, a raffia and mat weaver, a hair stylist, a goldsmith, a beadworker, a woodcarver, an adire maker(1) and a kente(2) weaver.

Some people wonder and some have actually asked why we built a craft village in the museum premises. The museum, as everyone knows, is a place where artefacts are kept to tell the story of man's past. The museum as an educational institution is also a bridgehead between the past and the present. The craft village was created with the aim of bringing the "present" into the museum and, as such, represents the functional present in the museum.

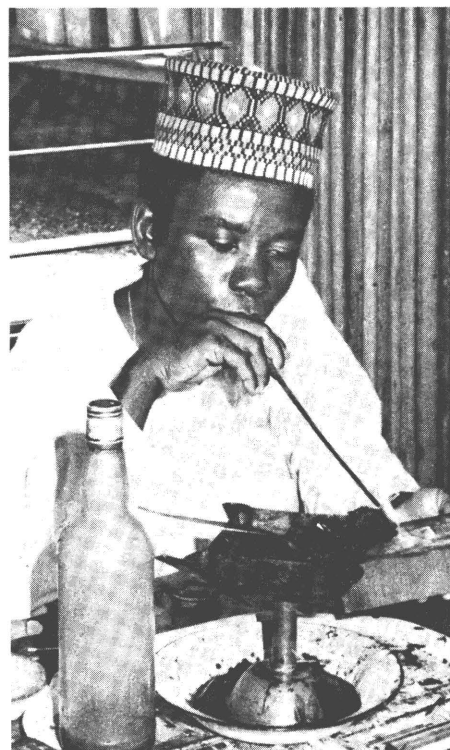
Here we see the traditional craftsmen at work on their various crafts in their own environment and without the use of modern technology. Members of the public avail themselves of the opportunity of watching these craftsmen and women at work, learn of the technical processes on display, and at the same time compare the old crafts with the new. In this aspect the craft village becomes educational. It is engrossing to sit in the jeweller's hut and watch the jeweller make a beautiful, intricately-designed pair of earrings out of pure raw gold without using any machinery. Members of the public are sometimes allowed by the aladire and woodcarver to try their hands at a craft. School children from all over the state come in for lessons on how to fashion objects out of wood, how to weave kente and

mats and sometimes how to make an adire. Since the advent of the craft centre in Lagos, many primary and secondary schools who have the subject "practical crafts" in their school curriculum send their students to the centre for their practical lessons.

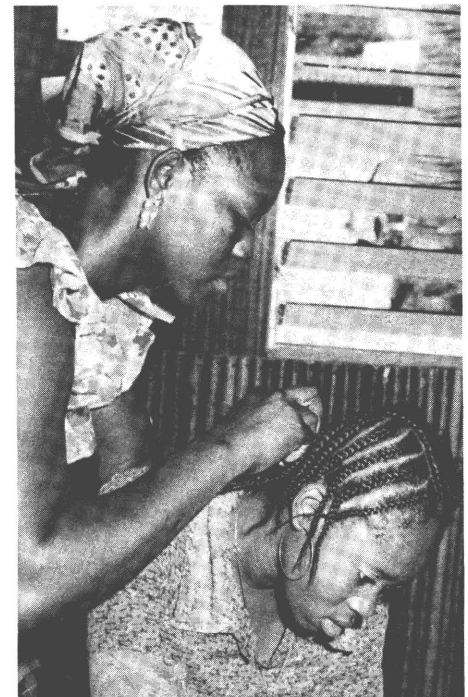
### Traditional methods

This article will not be complete without adding a few lines on the different processes involved in making these crafts. Let us therefore take a glance round the huts.

In the batik and tie dye hut, the visitor sees most of the processes of adire manufacture. The adire industry is essentially the patterning of fabric, usually white, by ingeniously dyeing different parts of the fabric in different colours or to different colour intensity, thereby forming a final material of intricate patterns and colours. The resident adire artist at the hut is an expert on



The jeweller at work



A hair-do like this takes a lot of skill and patience

the two main methods of producing adire—the adire eleko (batik) and the adire eleso (tie and dye).

A visit to the goldsmith's hut would elucidate the process of making necklaces, bracelets, bangles, earrings, brooches, pendants, rings, etc. from raw gold and silver. The resident goldsmith makes these articles locally, using local tools and local processes, just as they were produced in Africa before the machines for moulding them were invented. The process is long and tedious but the end result is satisfying.

The woodcarver is highly specialized. Woodcarving needs a lot of intelligence and patience. Again the wood carver does not use machinery, but makes use of a knife, a carving hoe, ebony, mahogany and iroko wood. First he cuts the wood according to the actual size of the object wanted, then he starts shaping; from shaping he moves on to trimming, then to the specific features—eyes, ears, nose, mouth, etc. After this the object is smoothed to a beautiful finish and is then ready for sale.

The kente weaver makes the type of cloth known as kente by using a handloom. To observe this lady weaving takes one right back to the days before the invention of the spinning and weaving machines. The hand loom is made

(\*) Of the Department of Antiquities at the National Museum, Lagos, Nigeria.

(1) Indigo cloth.

(2) Traditional costume.



*The tie dye technique-tying knots in the cloth to give different degrees of colouring when it is dyed*

up of oguntoro, ohasir and okakoh. The weaver selects the pattern she wants, chooses the colours of the thread, then casts the thread in rows. There may be as many as 12 different colours in one pattern. Casting is followed by separation of the thread into different layers. It is a very complicated process and takes from 2-4 days. Separation is followed by threading. The threading takes about 7-12 days, at the end of which is a beautifully finished piece of kente, about 20 ins wide and 2½ yds long.

At the raffia maker's hut one sees woven baskets, trays, bags, pot-holders and so on. The raffia is extracted from palm branches, and then dyed into assorted colours used for weaving. For cane weaving, the weaver uses cane which is obtained from plywood. To make the cane flexible it is soaked in water for several days. It is then removed and the back scrapped off.

The hairstylist is an expert at thread-plaiting and hair weaving. For thread plaiting, hair is combed out and cut into patterns like pineapple, star, or round patterns. Four strings of black thread are used to hold the hair round its base and to twist round the hair till it is completely covered and looks like a stick. Then it is either bent or curled into various styles. In hair weaving, hair is woven into braids using the fingertips. A section of hair is divided into three parts and by inserting the finger at the base of the hair and twisting the

finger under the hair in alternate half circles you get the braiding on top.

The beadworker makes beaded crowns, slippers, walking sticks, pillows, chairs, royal gowns, handbags, necklaces, etc. To make beaded shoes, wet velvet is gummed onto sack cloth and the combination dried in the sun. When dry, the design is drawn on the velvet and the beads sewn onto the design. The completed work is then given to the shoemaker who will line the inside with leather and put on the sole. Members of the public are free to come and watch the crowns being made.

### **Food in a museum**

The National Museum kitchen is run under the auspices of the Federal Department of Antiquities. The food is prepared by women's associations from various ethnic groups. We cater for every Nigerian dish. One can eat foods from Itsekiri, Igbo, Nupe, Hausa, Fulani, Kanuri, Yoruba, Efik, Tiv, and Rivers.

A lot of people wonder what food has to do with the museum and why that institution has taken so much interest in it. Food preparation is as old as man and therefore a valid part of museum activity. The museum is not going into the restaurant business, but merely drawing attention to a vital and much neglected part of our culture.

The kitchen gives one a sharp reminder of one's self and a sense of belonging—eating a plate of carefully pounded yam with vegetable soup and assorted meat under a bamboo roof, and drinking a bottle of cold palm wine from wooden cups. At night one sits there eating and watching artistes perform live on the centre stage. The price of the regular food is ₦2.00 while the special menu (₦3.00) incorporates foods from all ethnic groups, to provide the diverse peoples of the country with a unique opportunity of knowing about and tasting the food from ethnic groups other than their own.

The National Museum kitchen is a fertile venue for dramatic presentations, choral poetry, stage plays, musicians and so on. It is a forum where young, talented, but mostly amateur, players can stage shows. The entertainment held on Saturdays and Sundays promotes young and budding artistes by providing them with free facilities and publicity. The programmes, which are traditional in nature, provide a relaxing diversion for the public.

The craft village complex is the one place where a tourist can see at a glance the different art works at different stages of manufacture. And, whereas craft articles in the shops are finished and ready for sale, in the craft centre a customer can observe his work being done to all his specifications. □ U.A.

## BOOKS

Robert and Marina ADAMS, Alan and Ann WILLENS — **Dry Lands: Man and Plants** — The Architectural Press Ltd., 9-13 Queen Anne's Gate, London SW1H 9BY — 1978 — £12.95.

This looks like a coffee-table book — large format, expensively produced and with copious photographs. Its price may make it seem a luxury for many people working at the sharp end of development aid. But appearances are deceptive. In 120 pages, plus a further 30 of appendices, the authors have clarified the complexities of the ecologies of a quarter of the world's surface.

The book examines the characteristics of arid and semi-arid environments throughout the world and shows how indigenous vegetation can be used to create self-sustaining development. The techniques involved are set out in detail, from the preliminary survey of climate, topography, soils and water, and analysis of the existing ecosystem, to the planning of desert improvement through planting and irrigation, management of soil, water and vegetation, and human settlements. The material is well researched, sensibly organized and generously illustrated. The authors' basic line is that although traditional methods have enabled desert peoples to strike a balance with nature over the ages, modern techniques are needed to maintain that balance. "Conservation and development can only be achieved with the application of new technologies, even though there may be difficulties in finding those that are in harmony with the limitations of the existing landscape".

The book comes as a useful follow-up to the UN Conference on Desertification in 1977.

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**Rich world, poor world** by Geoffrey LEAN. Published by George, Allen and Unwin, Hemel Hempstead, Herts, England, in September 1978 at £7.95 in hardback and £4.50 in paperback.

The basic argument of this book, which is written by the environment specialist on the *Observer* newspaper in London, is that the world now has the "ability and the means to ensure that everyone has enough food and resources to live a positive life." The problem is that attitudes and policies in the poor and especially the rich world prevent this coming about. The book

does not confine itself to hunger, energy and population, but considers, as well, pollution, the role of the growing urban communities and nuclear proliferation. Geoffrey Lean begins, however, with the most obvious symptom of the unfair world order, the fact that millions do not get enough to eat, despite the fact that we have enough food to go round. The author surveys not just the reasons for this world crisis and the possible solution, but also the wider consequences of doing nothing. He sees a particular danger in growing instability which, he believes, should compel the industrialized world to act. He argues that the costs would be small compared to the cost of the disaster which could come from neglect.

An important part of the book deals with the cities. With present growth levels, the author says, man will become, by the year 2000, a primarily urban animal for the first time in his history. The chronic problem of the poor in the cities will therefore become an increasingly crucial one.

This book differs from a number of other books on a new international order insofar as it is broader in its scope, non-technical in its language, and relatively hopeful that solutions can be found to the most pressing problems of development.

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**Paper production: Prospects for developing countries** — Publication Section, Commonwealth Secretariat, Marlborough House, London SW1Y5HX — 1978 — £4.

Advice on how developing countries may become more self-sufficient in meeting their paper requirements, either by using untapped raw materials for making paper or by recycling waste paper, is given in a Commonwealth Secretariat published in November 1978.

It identifies materials in tropical countries suitable for pulp and paper manufacture. These include tropical hardwoods, bamboo, bagasse and straw. Information is provided on over forty commercial operations already using them in various parts of the world.

The Secretariat study was undertaken because Commonwealth Educ-

ation Ministers and officials had expressed concern about the rising cost of paper which was affecting their ability to ensure textbook supplies. Additionally, these spiralling costs, which have trebled between 1971 and 1977, also threatened the newly launched book development programmes started by many countries in an attempt to reduce the import of books and save scarce foreign exchange.

This study, which has been sent to Commonwealth Governments, is in three sections. The first gives an indication of trends in paper prices; the second outlines the supply and demand situation for paper and pulp while the third and most important section sets out guidelines for pulp and paper manufacture in developing countries. The report, however, points out that although some of the paper produced locally may not be of the right specifications for book production, it could serve many other industrial and commercial purposes.

This section of the report also deals fully with recent developments in paper recycling and provides a list of eighty references to publications from which further information on the use of non-traditional materials for paper manufacture may be obtained.

The Commonwealth Secretariat will continue to monitor innovations and experiments in paper and books production technology throughout the world.

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**Série "Tiers monde en marche" — Tome I — Le Tiers Monde et la Communauté économique européenne (The Third World and the EEC)** — Editions Berger-Levrault — 229 bd Saint-Germain 75007 Paris — 258 pages — 1978

"The Third World and the EEC" was the title of an international colloquium held under the auspices of Afetimon, a French Third World study organization, at UNESCO headquarters on 28 and 29 September 1977. It was exceptional in the range of people it brought together: academics, journalists and leading figures from European national and community politics, from Latin America and from Africa.

The study of aid in all its aspects, from industrial aid to food aid, led the



examination of a fundamental question: should aid be bilateral, regional or world-wide? There is no straight answer and, although the Community framework does enable essential aims to be achieved, it has no claim to first consideration.

The essential thing is to decide whether we have unequal trade or a system of guarantees which gradually introduces more justice and stability in international economic relations. The real question was whether the EEC has a global external policy or not. This was the issue that provoked the most original discussions and reports and it is this that gives the collection its fullest meaning.

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**Investing in Developing Countries** — OECD — 2, rue André Pascal, F-75775 Paris Cedex 16, France — fourth revised edition — 136 pages — 1978

This book, published early this year, is an updated version of the OECD (24 industrialized countries are members) balance sheet of direct private investments (where there is naturally a good deal of control on the part of the foreign investor) made by the main industrialized countries in the developing world. It deals with the policies of the member countries of DAC (OECD) towards direct private investments in the developing countries. This revised edition replaces the previous, 1975, version.

After various basic definitions, the OECD gives the role of these investments in the developing countries and lists the policies which DAC members have towards them. We therefore have an inventory of incentive measures and the governments' methods of exchange control and of dealing with any other barriers to the movement of capital. The chapter on multilateral systems discusses the guaranteeing and the protection of investments (World Bank, EEC, ICSID(1) and LLoyds), tax provisions, information on investments and pre-investment studies and, direct financial assistance for private investments (international development banks, EDF/EIB, UNIDO and UNCTAD and IFC).

(1) International Centre for Settlement of Investment Disputes.

There are almost 40 pages of tables giving the reader an idea of the flow of direct private investments in recent years.

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René DUMONT — **Paysans écrasés, terres massacrées** Equateur, Inde, Bangladesh, Thaïlande, Haute Volta) — Downtrodden peasants and ruined lands (Ecuador, India, Bangladesh, Thailand and Upper Volta). — Editions Robert Laffont — Paris — 359 pages — 1978

René Dumont introduces this book with the following words. "Downtrodden peasants and ruined lands. The peasants of the Third World, whatever their situation and wherever they are, have always been oppressed, exploited, dominated and despised. History tells us of the genocide wrought by slavery and colonialism in America and Africa. And we know how this colonization encouraged export crops to the detriment of food. Neocolonialism today is only prolonging this state of affairs and the peasants of the Third World see their lot deteriorating daily. Here is the other side of the famous development that we are so proud of. Obviously we are forcing these people further and further into under-development. Equally obviously, we are quite unable to help them—although the Chinese have managed to do something about their poverty.

So they must be heard. My aim here has been to let them speak. To talk about their poverty and about the many forms of exploitation and injustice that afflict them. There is no hiding the scandal. In the underdeveloped countries, the privileged urban minorities, which have the power, benefit from the protection of the rich countries. But this aid, as it is called, is wasted and they carry on exploiting the peasant classes. In return, they let us pillage the mineral reserves of their nations and we come to paradoxical situations of the sort where the iron and steel industry in Lorraine is dying while we import our ore from Mauritania.

If we are to save the peasants of the Third World, we must stop protecting everyone who exploits them. But first, we must put an end to this senseless waste of all the rare resources of our planet. We are responsible".

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Jean-Claude POMONTI — **L'Afrique trahie (Africa betrayed)** — Editions Hachette — Paris — 205 pages — 1979

No-one is more critical of the realities of Africa than the Africans themselves. This is what Jean-Claude Pomonti, *Le Monde* correspondent in Nairobi, sets out to prove with this book. He makes great use of large extracts from books and poems written by Africans in examining the problems of the continent today, the disillusionment after euphoria of independence, the economic slump, the loss of cultural identity on the part of certain members of the elite, urban overcrowding and the procession of poor away from the rural areas, the failure of ideologies, and unemployment.

His use of these long quotations, a skillful and irrefutable way of giving his book the stamp of authenticity, enables Pomonti to show the reader a rich, but often unknown, fund of literary production. This is not the least of its merits. Certain people might feel that many subjects, only touched on, warranted more detailed treatment, but the author's aim was in fact to outline the problems as they are posed today in the individual countries and on the continent as a whole, rather than to embark upon a detailed examination of the root causes.

But considerable space is devoted to three countries, Rhodesia, Uganda and Kenya, and this provides the French-speaking reader, who tends to have a very incomplete picture of this part of the world, with valuable information on the political and economic development of these states, the important dates in their history and the personalities of their leaders.

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L. BERG, K. NIMPUNO, R. van ZWANENBERG — **Towards Village Industry** — IT Publications Ltd, 9, King Street, London WC2E 8HN — 88 pp. — £3.25

The trades and skills which existed in Third World villages have, in many cases, fallen into disuse because of the drift to the towns. The demand for simple tools and equipment is also declining with the introduction of mass-produced and imported goods. This book puts appropriate technology

into its proper place in an overall socio-economic picture, arguing that successful rural development requires the development of both farming and village-based small industries. Growing crops requires ironmongery, carpentry and masonry just as industry requires machinery.

Based on the author's experiences in Tanzania, the book looks at village industry from a number of points of view—theoretical, practical, social, official—and contains a good stock of well-processed information. The plentiful and attractive illustrations support the text admirably.

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Michel GRENON — **La pomme nucléaire et l'orange solaire — Réflexions sur les choix énergétiques** (Atomic apple and solar orange — thoughts on energy choices) — Editions Robert Laffont — 6, Place Saint-Sulpice, 75279, Paris — Cedex 06 — 301 pages — 1978

How much energy will we use tomorrow? We don't really know. There is no longer any point in extrapolating from the past as the future holds so many possibilities.

But we still have to choose our energy systems for tomorrow. The debate is an impassioned one (too much so sometimes) and tends to be reduced to a straight fight between atomic energy and solar energy.

Nuclear energy, centralized and centralizing, is the culmination of a long process of industrialization and concentration leading to the civilization of the terawatt. Solar power, all the more promising for being new, seems more in keeping with the post-industrial civilizations that our societies are beginning to hanker after.

The choice is difficult and it calls for thought. Should we commit ourselves completely, now, as the nuclear lobby urges? Or can we afford the luxury of thinking about it? It all depends on a better assessment of resources of fossil fuels and the possibility of tapping them.

This book is primarily intended for the man in the street who wants to understand but who is upset by emotion and offended by bad faith. It offers no solutions. It simply sets out to provide an easier choice, a possible expression of the balance between society and its energy system.

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PLANTU — **Pauvres chéris (Poor darlings)** — Preface by Claude Julien — Text by Christophe Batsch — Editions du Centurion, 17, rue de Babylone, 75007 Paris — 123 pages — 1978

Analyses and statistics keep us well informed about the lot of the Third World, but the situations they describe seem too far off and too abstract to really bother us. Plantu presents them as facts of life — our life. He brings them close, with simple, stark, irrefutable evidence. We cannot close our eyes to this picture of the world as it is today, this horrible sight. You can feel that the fate of men and women is at stake. You can hear them cry out.

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undernourished; hunger and food are a daily problem; 100 million of the world's children are backward because they do not get the right things to eat; 800 million adults are illiterate. There are no schools for half the children in the Third World..."

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**Equipment for rural workshops** by John Boyd, Intermediate Technology Publications Ltd., 9 King Street, London WC2E 8HN. — 94 pp., — £2.95 (£3.98 airmail).

This booklet is as sensibly laid out as the workshops it describes, giving a hundred or more clear illustrations of carpentry and metalworking tools, explanations of them and straightforward advice on choosing and using them. Everything is costed as for UK prices in mid-1977.

Mr Boyd works up progressively from a simple, general purpose workshop for one or two men to power equipment for a four- to six-man workshop; but, he points out, "power tools only speed up the work and are not economic unless there is enough work to keep them in use for a substantial part of each day".

The bigger, powered workshop is only likely to be necessary where is already mains electricity, i.e. in the towns. There are nonetheless recommendations on generators.

The booklet is intended to help people choose tools and equipment. It is not an instruction manual. All the same, it will be very useful after orders have been placed with suppliers (addresses in dozens of countries are listed) thanks to the author's practical tips. A list of tools and prices is included in an appendix.

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